



All Theses and Dissertations

---

2017-11-01

# Nature or Nurture in English Academic Writing: Korean and American Rhetorical Patterns

Sunok Kim  
*Brigham Young University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Linguistics Commons](#)

---

## BYU ScholarsArchive Citation

Kim, Sunok, "Nature or Nurture in English Academic Writing: Korean and American Rhetorical Patterns" (2017). *All Theses and Dissertations*. 6624.

<https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd/6624>

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by BYU ScholarsArchive. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of BYU ScholarsArchive. For more information, please contact [scholarsarchive@byu.edu](mailto:scholarsarchive@byu.edu).

Nature or Nurture in English Academic Writing:  
Korean and American Rhetorical Patterns

Sunok Kim

A thesis submitted to the faculty of  
Brigham Young University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts

William Eggington, Chair  
Cynthia Hallen  
Troy Cox

Department of Linguistics  
Brigham Young University

Copyright © 2017 Sunok Kim

All Rights Reserved

## ABSTRACT

### Nature or Nurture in English Academic Writing: Korean and American Rhetorical Patterns

Sunok Kim  
Linguistics, BYU  
Master of Arts

For many years, linguists, ESL writing teachers, and especially students have puzzled over the phenomenon where non-native English writers' sentences are grammatically correct, but their paragraphs and complete essays often appear illogical to native English speaking readers. From the perspective of Kaplan's original contrastive rhetoric theory where American rhetoric is "linear," Korean L2 writers' apparently circular rhetoric causes problems. Even though Korean writers are trying to write paragraphs that are logical for native English readers, this illogical output results in Korean ESL students being perceived as poor writers. In order to discover more about the nature of the rhetorical problems Korean ESL writers face, this study reports on a close contrastive analysis of a corpus consisting of 25 Freshmen Korean ESL students' unedited, first draft essays and 25 Freshmen native-English speaking American Freshmen' unedited, first draft essays randomly collected from a series of 1st year writing classes at a U.S.-based university. The analysis focused on areas where the logical flow breaks down from a native English reader's perspective. The Topical Structure Analytical approach (TSA), developed by Lautamatti (1987), was used to analyze the data. Results show that both American and Korean Freshmen have difficulty controlling topical subjects and discourse topics in their writing. Instead, they often introduced irrelevant subtopics that did not advance overall topic development, making their writing difficult for general readers to follow. The key finding of the study shows that to overcome these rhetorical weaknesses, both Korean and American Freshmen need to be educated in academic writing regardless of their first language.

Keywords: Intercultural Rhetoric, Academic Writing in English, Korean Language, Korean Culture

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work would not have been possible without the support of professors. I am especially indebted to Dr. William Eggington, Dr. Cynthia Hallen, and Dr. Troy Cox, my committee members. They have provided me with extensive support, personal and professional guidance and taught me much about scientific research.

I would especially like to thank Dr. Eggington, the chair of my committee. As my mentor and ultimate role model, he has taught me more than I could ever give him credit for here. He has shown me what a good teacher should be.

I am grateful to Dr. Hallen. She has provided me new perspectives toward my research ideas with her creative thoughts. I especially appreciate her comprehensive feedback.

Dr. Cox gave me helpful suggestions. I also appreciate his guidance regarding a quantitative approach to data analysis. His knowledge of statistics transformed this thesis.

I am especially grateful to my fellow students in the TESOL and Linguistics MA programs in the department for their support, patience, and inspiration.

Most importantly, I would also like to thank my loving and supportive mother, younger sister, Sun-Young and younger brother, Jin-kyu. My mother has sacrificed her life for her family members, and she is always there for me.

Without the help of these professors, friends, and family, I would not have been able to finish my study and this research would not have been possible.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITEL PAGE .....	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vii
LIST OF EXAMPLES.....	viii
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Chapter 2: Review of Literature .....	5
Korean Writing Patterns .....	6
Coherence in Writing.....	8
Topic Structural Analysis .....	8
Chapter 3: Features of Korean Language, Culture, and Academic Writing.....	11
Related grammatical features of the Korean language .....	12
Word order .....	12
Omitting grammatical elements.....	15
Miscellaneous .....	16
Cultural differences.....	17
Collectivism or harmonious culture.....	17
Face, Politeness in Korean culture.....	19
Inductive way of reasoning Vs. Deductive way of reasoning .....	20
Academic writing.....	22

Chapter 4: Methodology .....	24
Research questions:.....	24
Subjects.....	25
Three Paragraphs .....	26
Reliability and Validity.....	27
Lautamatti's types of sentence.....	27
Lautamatti's TSA and Simpson's ESP .....	28
Topic Sentences and Thesis Statements .....	33
Deductive versus inductive problem.....	33
Chapter 5: Results and Analysis .....	35
Identifying Topic Sentence and Thesis Statements .....	36
The Total number of Topics in the sentences .....	41
Topic Development Using the TSA Analytical Method.....	42
The Topical Structure Analytical approach (TSA).....	48
Type of sentence .....	50
Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion .....	60
References.....	68
APPENDIX.....	72

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 5.1 <i>Topic Sentence of Inductive &amp; Deductive</i> .....	37
Table 5.1.1 <i>Each Student' Topic Sentence Following an Inductive or Deductive Pattern</i> .....	38
Table 5.2 <i>Thesis Statement of Inductive &amp; Deductive</i> .....	39
Table 5.2.1 <i>Each Student's Thesis Statement Following an Inductive or Deductive Pattern</i> .....	40
Table 5.3 <i>Total Number of Sentences</i> .....	41
Table 5.4 <i>Total Number of Words</i> .....	41
Table 5.5 <i>Total Number of Topic Subjects</i> .....	42
Table 5.6 <i>American Freshmen' TSA and Korean Freshmen' TSA</i> .....	48
Table 5.7 <i>American Freshmen' Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA)</i> .....	49
Table 5.8 <i>Korean Freshmen' Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA)</i> .....	50
Table 5.9 <i>American Freshmen' Type of sentence</i> .....	51
Table 5.10 <i>Korean Freshmen' Type of sentence</i> .....	51

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 <i>Five Cultural Rhetorical Patterns</i> .....	2
Figure 4.1 <i>Summary of the Topic Structure Analytical Approach</i> .....	31
Figure 5.1 <i>Discourse Topic Analysis of American No.2 Freshmen's first paragraph</i> .....	44
Figure 5.2 <i>Discourse Topic Analysis of Korean Student No.6's a Paragraph</i> .....	46
Figure 5.3 <i>Discourse Topic Analysis of Example 4</i> .....	47



## LIST OF EXAMPLES

Example 5.1	<i>Korean Freshmen No.9's a Paragraph</i> .....	43
Example 5.2	<i>American No.2 Freshmen's a first paragraph</i> .....	44
Example 5.3	<i>Korean student No.6's Paragraph</i> .....	45
Example 5.4	<i>Korean Student No6's Paragraph Rewritten by a professional native English writer</i> .....	47
Example 5.5	<i>American Freshmen's quotation I</i> .....	53
Example 5.6	<i>American Freshmen's quotation I</i> .....	54
Example 5.7	<i>Korean Freshmen's quotation II</i> .....	55
Example 5.8	<i>American Freshmen's oral spoken discourse</i> .....	56
Example 5.9	<i>Korean Freshmen's grammar mistakes</i> .....	57
Example 5.10	<i>American Freshmen's grammar mistakes</i> .....	58

## Chapter 1: Introduction

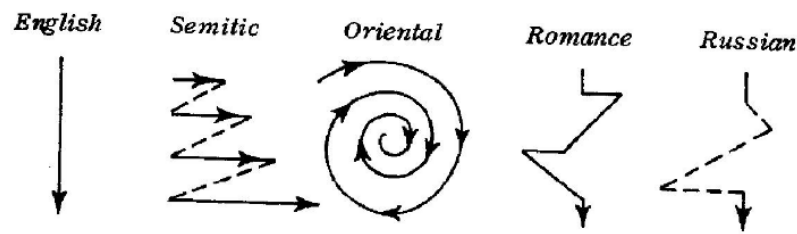
As English has become a worldwide lingua franca, many Korean Freshmen attempt to follow native English speakers' language styles in speaking and writing. However, as widely known, significant lexico-grammatical and writing style differences present difficulties for many Korean English language learners. For example, a fundamental tradition of the native English academic writing style is that it follows a linear logical development where the writer is responsible for making meaning clear, following Aristotelian deductive reasoning. On the other hand, the traditional Korean writing style is based upon inductive reasoning where the reader takes responsibility for understanding the writer (Eggington, 1987). As a native speaker of Korean and a learner of English as a second language, I have personal experience with the rhetorical problems students may face.

Kaplan (1967) and other researchers claim that each culture's rhetorical pattern reflects the people's logical preferences. After Kaplan analyzed English expository essays written by ESL students whose native languages were Arabic, Korean, Japanese, Spanish, and Russian, he then proposed a diagram (Figure 1.1) that represented five cultural rhetorical patterns<sup>1</sup>.

---

<sup>1</sup> A linear pattern for native English users, a parallel pattern for Semitic language users, an indirect pattern for oriental language users, and a digressive pattern for Russian and Romance language users.

Figure 1.1

*Five Cultural Rhetorical Patterns*

According to Kaplan's research, the English rhetorical pattern is depicted as 'predominantly linear.' This may be because the Western, or Anglo-American way of thinking is affected by Aristotelian syllogisms (Kaplan, 1967). However, the Oriental or Asian pattern is a spiral as represented by the graphic form shown in Figure 1.1 above. Initially, the rhetorical preferences portrayed in Figure 1.1 were generally accepted by Western ESL teachers, linguists and researchers, but the concept has been challenged primarily on cultural elitist grounds (Kubota and Lehner, 2004).

In response, other researchers assert that there do appear to be common patterns based upon a set of similar experiences. For example, most recently, Grabe (2017) states that:

In the last 15 years, in particular, I do not think that serious researchers come to conclusions where, for example, all Chinese write a certain way because they have had Chinese experiences and live in a Chinese culture. But there is no reason not to explore carefully how prior educational experiences, cultural preferences, and other national factors might generate patterns of variation that are less common or not as pronounced in some other group of learners from a different L1 background or a different country (Grabe, 2017: 125).

With respect to English, the general expectation is that an academic essay written in English needs to present a clear purpose within a writer-responsible culture (Noor, 2001). As such, English native readers expect to be presented with an explicit thesis and a direct topic sentence early in the essay (Hinds, 1987). In addition, each paragraph is expected to

contain an early statement of its topic, and each sentence is expected to contain a related topic subject, or the idea that the sentence is focusing on. As a result, the writer's rhetorical goal should be described clearly, straightforwardly, and efficiently (Kaplan, 1967).

However, as many previous studies have shown (Cho, J. H.A., 1999; Kubota and Lehner, 2004; Eggington, 1987), Korean freshman students in U.S. colleges, writing in English, have transferred their preferred Korean rhetorical patterns into English.

From a Western reader's perspective, these Korean preferences include an inductive style with indirect topic development leading to a weak conclusion. Korean writer's reader-responsible writing style (Hinds, 1987) presents English native readers with more inferential work to do such as decoding ambiguity, abstract ideas, and imprecise information.

Consequently, many ESL writing teachers, when they teach Korean Freshmen, stress structuring essays with explicit theses and topic sentences (Choi, 2006; Choi, 2010; Ryu, 2006; Burns and Joyce, 2005; Vygotsky, 1978).

These findings suggest a need to examine the rhetorical problems Korean writers face in academic writing, particularly in their freshman composition classes. This suggestion leads to the following general research question: What are the major rhetorical development problems that Korean ESL students face in freshman composition classes? This general research question is then made more specific resulting in the following four research questions.

- 1) What are the differences if any, between Korean Freshmen writing and American Freshmen writing?
- 2) If there are differences, what are the major rhetorical development problems that Korean ESL students face in freshman composition classes?"

- 3) If American Freshmen write in a linear way, is it natural or is the linear “logical” frame a learned feature of academic writing in western culture?
- 4) Do American Freshmen write in a deductive style, while Koreans write in an inductive style?

In order to answer these research questions, Korean and American Freshmen first draft essays, all of which had no previous teacher edits, were analyzed with respect to their rhetorical development. As will be seen below, both groups’ essays are written by writers without long-term college-level training in academic writing, so there are frequent coherence and cohesion weaknesses, and there are many grammatical errors. Most previous related research has focused on more polished and edited essays, so the research results from this present study provide insight into the unedited writing process of novice Korean and American writers.

Before proceeding with the study, I will first present a review of relevant literature regarding intercultural rhetoric studies in Chapter 2. This will be followed in Chapter 3 by a discussion of linguistic and cultural differences between Korean and American writers with a focus on Korean writers. I will then introduce the research design in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 will present the results and their analysis, and then a discussion and conclusion of the research will be presented in Chapter 6.

## Chapter 2: Review of Literature

As will be discussed below, the past decades have witnessed a major paradigm shift in the teaching and study of academic writing for ESL students (Connor, 1987, 1996; Eggington, 1987, Hinds, 1987). This shift was initiated by Kaplan's article about cultural thought patterns which argued that cultural preferences in rhetorical development influence writing (Kaplan, 1966). Kaplan's notion has contributed to our understanding as to why so many ESL students struggle with rhetorical development in their writing in freshman composition classes even after graduating from Intensive English Program (IEP) advanced writing classes (Connor, 1987).

Among the wide range of international students studying at American universities, Korean Freshmen seem to have particular difficulties in rhetorical development (Kaplan, 1966; Eggington, 1987; Noor, 2001; Connor, 1996; Hinds, 1987). Even when sentence level grammar and word use is satisfactory, Korean Freshmen's rhetorical development is often labeled by instructors as "awkward," "illogical," and "lacking focus." Unfortunately, many learners do not know why their writing is judged as inadequate, so problems continue, sometimes even after students finish freshman composition classes (Eggington, 2015:206; Hinds, 1987; Connor, 1996).

According to the contrastive rhetoric studies cited above, there are learner variables, cultural variables, and pragmatic variables that contribute to rhetorical difficulties in ESL writing. However, these variables are difficult to isolate. In addition, there are differences between writing pedagogy within an ESL tradition and writing pedagogy within a freshman composition tradition (Moussu & David, 2015:50).

## **Korean Writing Patterns**

Choi (2005) examined differences in Korean ESL students' and native English speakers' writing regarding error types, textual organization, and cohesive devices. The most significant difference was that the Korean ESL students wrote shorter essays. Also, their writing showed more errors, more textual organization patterns, and less use of cohesive devices. However, similarities in argumentative writing between the two groups include a preference for a three-unit organizational structure (introduction, body, and conclusion), as well as both groups using similar subcategories in each organizational type such as claim, justification, and conclusion.

Kim (2008) explored the learning experiences of five Korean college ESL students in U.S. college classes, and how they responded to required writing tasks. She focused on differences between Korean and American cultures in communication, writing styles, and classroom practices and how these differences influenced these students' learning in American university contexts. She indicated that the most influential contributor to both positive and/or negative experiences was subjects' perceptions of professors' responses to their writing. In addition, these perceived responses directly affected their students' learning. According to study participants, for successful learning, students' effort should be given priority.

Jung (2006) analyzed samples written by both Korean and American university students. She also reviewed previous research on Korean rhetoric. This is because she wanted to discuss the pedagogical role of Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) in bridging rhetorical differences in specific EFL writing instruction for Korean Freshmen. In her literature review, she found that Korean rhetoric is indirect, implicit, non-linear, mostly inductive,

specific-to-general, emotional, and reader-responsible. However, American rhetoric is direct, explicit, linear, mostly deductive, general-to-specific, logical, and writer-responsible.

Xing, M., Wang, J., and Spencer, K. (2008) compared and contrasted five features of contrastive rhetoric applied to English writing instruction in an on-line “e-course” program. The first feature was inductive vs. deductive development, specifically, the presence and placement of a thesis statement. The second feature was “start-sustain-turn-sum” vs. “introduction-body-conclusion.” They found that English essays generally place more emphasis on form, because the introduction of English essays brings out the theme, the middle contains the argument with its supporting evidence, and the ending summarizes the essay. The third feature that they studied was circular vs. linear topical development with respect to topic sentences and topic changes. They found that Asian ESL students delay introducing the purpose of their writing and can abruptly shift their viewpoint. Their fourth contrastive rhetoric feature involved metaphorical language which covered making use of metaphors and proverbs versus straightforward language. They found that Asian ESL writers use allusion, analogy, and proverbs to show the beauty of their language, and see this use as important criteria for grading any writing. Their fifth feature involved explicit discourse markers which are the marks of coherence and unity. They found that academic essays written by native English speakers use explicit discourse markers to signal direct relations between sentences and parts of texts, while Asian ESL writers consider that the beauty of writing lies in delicacy and subtlety, not in its straight-forwardness.

With respect to teaching and learning applications, their experimental results showed that an e-course group was successful in learning about defined aspects of English rhetoric in academic writing. In these courses, ESL student performance reached the level of native



English speakers. Data analysis also revealed that e-learning resources helped students compare rhetorical styles across cultures suggesting that making rhetorical differences explicit can help learners acquire target language rhetorical development.

### **Coherence in Writing**

In Moore's research on the nature of coherence (1971), he suggested that good writing requires logically consistent ideas where sentences are clearly and smoothly connected. This way, the writing is readable and understandable. He also mentioned that "writing puts the burden of achieving coherence on both native and non-native writers of the target language, since both have the responsibility to produce coherent discourse to indicate unobtrusively logical interrelationships of parts to their readers." However, as Kaplan has shown, the difficulty of creating coherent texts is even more challenging for second language learners who come from a different cultural background (Kaplan, 1987).

Tannen (1984) mentioned that L2 writers may feel compelled to go beyond the boundaries of their native culture's writing conventions because organizing their ideas into a unified coherent discourse bears cultural significance. However, coherence in English writing can be better achieved through certain strategies, such as introductory activities, explicit teaching, awareness-raising tasks, and writing practice (Lee, 2002).

### **Topic Structural Analysis**

Somlak, et al. (2013) examined two groups of Thai students' writing. Their data was collected through a pre-test and the post-test essay writing protocol with two selected essays from each participant across a subject cohort consisting of high and low proficiency students.

Results indicated that Topical Structural Analysis (TSA) instruction had a significantly positive effect on students' writing quality. TSA is a revision strategy taught to students that raises student "awareness of [the] importance of textual coherence and helps them clearly understand its concept (Somlak, et al: 2013:60). More specifically, TSA instruction was found to be more beneficial to low proficiency students than high proficiency students. Further, they found that both successful and less successful students employed sequential progression the most in their essays.

In a similar study involving an analysis of a corpus of Philippine student writing, Yin (2015) found that topical clause sequencing, uncovered by marking initial sentence elements (ISE), grammar subjects, and topical subjects revealed the relationship not only between topical structure and the logical presentation of ideas, but also between the development of extended discourse meaning (Yin, 2015).

These results suggest that Topic Structural Analysis (TSA) can be used to identify problems in student writing. For this reason, TSA forms one of the analytical instruments used in this present study. The topical structure analytical approach (TSA), developed by Lautamatti (1987), analyzes coherence by examining the internal topical structure of each paragraph as reflected in the repetition of key words and phrases. TSA also considers both global and local coherence of overall discourse topic.

Lautamatti (1978) investigated the relationship between sentences in a text and discourse topic. Sentence topics, which are units of meaning organized hierarchically in the text, make a semantic contribution to the development of the discourse topic.

She states that:

"The development of the discourse topic within an extensive piece of discourse may be thought of in terms of a succession of hierarchically ordered subtopics, each of which

contributes to the discourse topic, and is treated as a sequence of ideas, expressed in the written language as sentences. We know little about restrictions concerning the relationship between sentences and subtopics, but it seems likely that most sentences relating to the same subtopic form a sequence. The way the written sentences in discourse relate to the discourse topic is ... called topical development of discourse." Lautamatti (1978: 71)

The discourse topic is the central idea of a stretch of connected discourse. The topic is what the discourse is about as a whole paragraph. In order to develop the discourse topic, sub-topics are treated as a sequence of ideas, which contributes to the discourse topic.

### Chapter 3: Features of Korean Language, Culture, and Academic Writing

Given the strong relationship between language and culture (Wierzbicka, 1985; Goddard, 1992; D'Andrade, 2001) as well as the previously discussed relationship between culture and rhetorical development, it is now necessary to discuss some of the relevant linguistic features of Korean and English. This chapter presents similarities and differences between Korean and English in terms of origin, typology, phonology, syntax, and so forth.

Linguistically, there are huge differences between English and Korean. English is an Indo-European language, while Korean is often placed in the Altaic language family<sup>2</sup>. Typologically, Korean is an agglutinative language<sup>3</sup>, whereas English an analytic language. Although not related to writing, phonologically English is a stress-timed language, but Korean is a syllable-timed language which means individual word stress is insignificant. English is primarily a right-branching SVO language, but Korean is primarily a left-branching SOV language. These different linguistic features hinder Korean Freshmen's attempts to write English essays. The *Integrated Korean* textbook (2010: 13) explains how learning Korean is extremely difficult for native English speakers:

Korean is one of the most difficult languages for native English speakers to learn because of the vast differences between English and these languages in vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and writing system, as well as in the underlying tradition, culture, and society. English speakers require three times as much time to learn this "difficult language" as to learn an "easy language," such as French or Spanish, to attain a comparable level of proficiency.

---

<sup>2</sup> It is a language whose classification is in dispute. Some linguists believe it exists in a family of its own; others place it in the Altaic language family and claim that it is related to Japanese.

<sup>3</sup> Verb information such as tense, mood and the social relation between speaker and listener is added successively to the end of the verb.

Many Koreans believe it is also as hard for Korean native speakers to acquire English (Kim, 2012). Additional distinctive and salient differences are discussed below including word order and a situation-oriented focus which means that, for Korean speakers, it is possible to omit important elements in an argument.

### **Related grammatical features of the Korean language**

#### **Word order**

The most obvious distinctive feature between English and Korean is word order. Declarative sentence word order in English is SVO, whereas in Korean it is SOV (Subject + Object + Verb), where the information-heavy verb comes at the end of the sentence or utterance. Listeners or readers of Korean need to pay attention until the speakers or writers finish their sentences. However, sometimes Korean is called a “free-word order” language because the elements can be scrambled for emphasis or other figurative purposes, as long as the verb or adjective retains the final position (Greenberg, 1963; Seong et al, 2008; Korean grammar dictionary, 2010:8). All other elements, such as the subject and the object, appear before the verb or adjective. *Integrated Korean* further explains:

In the English sentence “John plays tennis with Mary at school”, for example, “John” is the subject because it appears before the verb and denotes an entity which the rest of the sentence is about. “Tennis” is its object because it appears immediately after the verb and denotes an entity that directly receives the action of the verb. The other elements (“with,” “Mary” and “at school”) follow the object. The Korean word order would be “John school-at Mary-with tennis plays”. Notice here that while English prepositions always occur after the element they associate with, as in “at school” and “with Mary,” Korean particles are all postpositions.

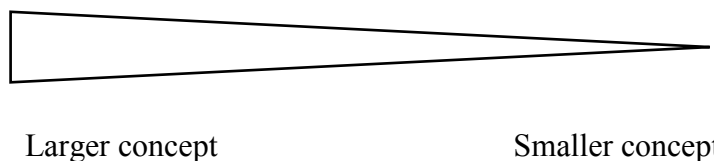
*(Integrated Korean, 2010, p.4)*

Also, Korean is a pre-modifier language (left-branching language) and head final language, whereas English is generally a post-modifier language (right-branching language) and head initial language. In the Korean language, modifiers always appear in front of a

noun. Those features are important grammatical elements used to express a Korean writer's intention or information indirectly to readers while not imposing on the reader. Since the head follows its complements (modifiers), messages (heads) are delayed. In other words, core data is delivered indirectly, so readers are required to predict the message. These features make it easy to express abstract or vague concepts between interlocutors by using the Tact Maxim<sup>4</sup> which can impose less on the other party (Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983).

The last distinctive feature of Korean language I wish to discuss is the discourse ordering concept. Although Korean rhetoric is “mostly inductive” and “specific-to-general” (Jung 2006), when ordering hierarchical concepts in discourse, Korean speakers generally progress from the large and whole concept to the smaller and more detailed concept.

For example,



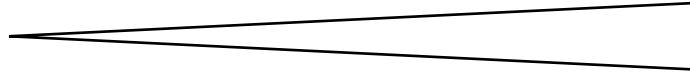
A Korean address is:

Nation, State, City, Street address or P.O. box number  
South Korea, Seoul, gang-nam gu, gang-nam dong 1987

Many scholars suggest that English rhetoric is “mostly deductive” and “general-to-specific” (Jung 2006). English speakers generally place the detailed concept first and develop their logic toward the larger concept.

---

<sup>4</sup> One of the politeness theory elements (Leech, 1983): Sympathy Maxim, and Agreement Maxim.



Smaller concept

Larger concept

An English address is:

Street address or P.O. box number, City or town, State, Nation  
1987 N 650 W, Provo, Utah, U.S.

Son (2001) provides further examples of these discourse ordering differences between Korean language speakers and American English speakers that are summarized below.

Conversation between Korean and American (Son, 2001)

American: Where are you calling from?

Korean: Downtown.

American: Where is downtown?

Korean: Myungdong.

American: Where is Myungdong?

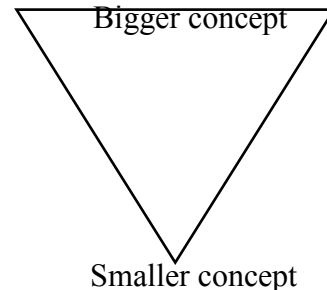
Korean: Near the post office.

American: Are you calling from a telephone booth?

Korean: No, I'm calling from a coffee shop.

American: What coffee shop?

Korean: The Rose Coffee Shop.



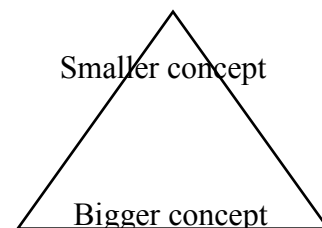
Conversation between Americans (Son, 2001)

American1: Where are you calling from?

American2: From the Rose Coffee Shop, near the post office in Myungdong.

American1: Where's Myungdong?

American2: It's downtown, near the Lotte Department Store.



As can be seen, in general Korean discourse ordering style follows larger to smaller concept, but American ordering style follows smaller to larger concept. As will be discussed below, this difference in discourse ordering impacts the development of topic in student essays.

### **Omitting grammatical elements**

The Korean language is a context dependent language, meaning its discourse is oriented toward its context (Jang, 1994). Since verbs reflect the interlocutors' relationship and contain situational information, important informational elements do not have to be repeated. In the Korean language, verbs are more important than subjects. Consequently, discourse topics can be omitted if they are redundant as determined by the preceding context. In Korean, subjects/topics are often omitted when they are obvious. Omissions are not limited to subjects, but also include any element that can be omitted as long as the context makes the referent clear.

For example,

“How are you?” “안녕하세요(Annyeonghaseyo)?” means “How are?”  
→ There is no subject.

Another example,

“Thank you.” “고맙습니다 (Gomapseupnida)” means “Thank.”  
→ There is no subject as well.

Inserting the pronoun ‘you’ or ‘I’ in the above Korean expressions would sound awkward in a normal context, unless ‘you’ or ‘I’ is emphasized or contrasted with someone else. On the other hand, Academic English requires explicit reference in order to avoid ambiguity (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) and create a sense of exactness and scientific credibility. As will be seen below, Korean writers writing in English may omit discourse topics, relationships, or conclusions that they view as being obvious based upon the context or previously supplied information within a reader-responsible stance. Native English readers, however, require more of that information so they can make sure that they totally understand the writer’s intent within a writer-responsible stance.



### Miscellaneous

The most common grammatical mistakes by Koreans in writing English essays are misuse of tenses, definite and indefinite articles, prepositions, and pronouns. (Seong et al, 2008). Some of these errors are caused by differences between Korean and English. Korean has three tenses: past, present, and future; while English only has two tenses: present and past, with several other verb aspects. However, future and Korean tense usage is different than English (Cho, 2003).

“Even though the tense/aspect systems of two languages show some similarities in their basic meanings of the tense/aspect formatives, many differences can be found in expressing their specific or contextual meanings. In English, the meanings of the tense/aspect formatives have quite systematic correspondence among them, because temporal meaning is expressed by means of strict formal, grammatical opposition of verbs. On the other hand, Korean language depends on adverbial expressions or contexts for its temporal meaning, as well as on the formal, grammatical opposition of verbs. That is, the various specific, contextual meanings of the tense/aspect formatives in Korean are mostly caused by its formative-neutralization tendency. Therefore, the differences in tense/aspect systems of English and Korean seem to be explained as typological differences between the languages in which tense/aspectual meanings mainly depend on grammatical devices, and the languages in which tense/aspectual meanings depend on lexical devices as well as grammatical devices.”

For example,

Korean way of speaking	English way of speaking
나는 지금 노래를 부른다. (Naneun jigeum noraereul bureunda) → Grammatically correct	I sing a song now. → Grammatically incorrect
나는 지금 노래를 부르고 있다 (Naneun jigeum noraereul bureugo itda) → Grammatically correct	I am singing a song now. → Grammatically correct

The use of articles is also very limited in Korean. Instead of articles, using demonstrative pronouns is common. Personal pronouns are not used much in normal contexts. Instead of using a personal pronoun, Koreans use a title for addressing or referring

to other people. They especially do not use “he” or “she” when referring to the elderly. In addition, Korean has post-positions, because it is an agglutinative language, and the usage of postpositions is quite different from English preposition use.

For example,

나는 방에서 친구와 밥을 먹었다.  
(Naneun baneseo chinguwa babeul meogeotda.)  
I was eating rice at the kitchen with my friend.

The above description of different grammatical and discourse features of Korean and English shows the potential sources of first language interference problems in English academic writing for Korean Freshmen. The actual nature of some of this interference will be discussed in detail in the results and analysis section of this thesis.

### **Cultural differences**

As has been noted, cultural differences play a large part in how ideas are presented in discourse. It is commonly understood that the underlying nature of Korean society can be encompassed by referencing three key words: collectivism (harmonious), politeness (indirectness), and face (reputation). Those features can also affect Korean Freshmen’s English writing style with respect to a reader-responsible orientation, and an inductive writing style that creates, from an English reader’s perspective, a weak development of the author’s arguments.

#### **Collectivism or harmonious culture in Korean culture**

As noted previously, traditional Korean culture is oriented toward collectivism<sup>5</sup>.

---

<sup>5</sup> Culture’s Consequences: (Individualism vs. Collectivism) “The degree to which individuals are integrated into groups.” This dimension has no political connotation and refers to the group rather than the individual. Cultures that are individualistic place importance on attaining personal goals. In collectivist societies, the goals of the group and its wellbeing are valued over those of the individual. (Hofstede, 1980)

Collectivism tends to create vertical hierarchy along with an emphasis on horizontal harmonious relationships (Hofstede, 1980). Historically, within socio-political contexts, Korea maintained a relatively harmonious hierarchical bureaucratic system from the Gojoseon Dynasty to the Joseon Dynasty era, a period of about 5000 years. In contrast to Japan and many other civilizations, Korea never experienced a feudal system where social stability was based on land ownership with the higher classes protecting the lower classes in return for portions of their crops or services. Instead, a strict caste system existed where the land-owning free citizens were protected by a strong centralized bureaucratic system (Seth, 2006).

The Korean bureaucratic system depended on a perpendicular relationship. This means that, in order to become a government official under the King, and thus ensure social success, people had to take a civil service examination. So, in the bureaucratic system, social status was emphasized, and was intertwined with educational achievement. This structure remains to the present day (Hong, 1992).

Korean society's basic unit is the family. Family is important in traditional Korean culture because Korean's traditionally lived within a clan society where everyone was related by blood (Choi, 1996). Members in their family are tied to each other, so a family members' behavior can reflect on the rest of their family. It is important for them to behave themselves with discretion, not to humiliate other family members, or the clan society they belong to. In other words, keeping other members' face is the one of the crucial elements in a harmony-emphasized society (Kim, 2013; Choi, 1996).

In this system, one must show respect to their parents, seniors in their village, people who have higher social standing, and their king. Such a sophisticated society system created

a pattern of circumlocutions, verbosity, innuendo, equivocation, or euphemisms as a politeness strategy when communicating with each other. Those strategies leave room for interpretations that avoid conflicts and show their respect to the counterpart. The example below provides a simple and common way of showing politeness by using deference vocabulary at the grammatical level.

For example,

친구에게 말할 때: 아침밥 먹자.

(achimbab meogja)

Addressing friends: Let's eat breakfast. (Omit subject)

할아버지께 말씀드릴 때: 할아버지! 아침 진지 잡수세요.

(Harabeoji! Achim jinji japsuseyo.)

Addressing a Grandfather (elder person): Grandfather! Have a breakfast, please. (Speak the title of "grandfather")

As Hall (1976) mentions, Korea is a highly context-based society. Language is used in a collectivism society to enhance social structure either positively with politeness strategies, or negatively with shaming strategies, all in an effort to preserve others' face. This means that Koreans are reluctant to be overly assertive in presenting or defending an individualistic or creative idea or proposition. This stance is in contrast to more individualistic Western notions of creative independence and speaking or writing with one's own "voice" (Wierzbicka, 1985). As will be seen in the Results and Analysis section of this thesis, these stance differences create difficulties for Koreans writing in English within Western Academic genres.

### **Face, Politeness in Korean culture**

As noted, emphasis on face and politeness is a result of the collectivist social system and society. Someone who has a higher sensitivity to face also has a higher desire to protect

or keep others' face by avoiding conflict and by maintaining amicable relationships (Kim, 2009).

Lakoff (1990) builds upon Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and sees politeness as 'a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing any inherent conflict or confrontation (Lakoff, 1990:34)." Consequently, it may be that a writer from a collectivist society is less likely to be assertive and direct than a writer from an individualist society. In addition, Brown and Levinson (1987: 5) consider politeness as a strategy to avoid conflict or minimize any face threats. Thus, in a Korean context, polite face-saving writers are going to be less assertive, and express their ideas more indirectly.

As will be explained below, the dominant Korean ethnic values of collectivism, indirectness, and face are distinctive features that contribute to a reader-responsible orientation and inductive rhetorical reasoning.

### **Inductive way of reasoning Vs. Deductive way of reasoning**

In order to further understand the differences between reader responsibility (a preferred Korean pattern) and writer responsibility (a preferred English pattern), it is important to first understand inductive and deductive ways of thinking and their connection to cultural backgrounds and philosophies. The deductive approach versus the inductive approach can be seen in terms of pursuing scientific logic versus pursuing philosophical logic.

Deductive reasoning starts with a general statement and examines the possibilities to reach a specific and logical conclusion following Aristotle's notion referred to as a syllogism. This idea implies that there is a generic rule which can be applied to everything by transcending space and time. Based on this fundamental principle and theory, a deductive

writing style draws a conclusion. The English-based academic writing style in most fields usually follows this approach because it emphasizes conceptual and logical comprehension through deduction of facts. So, a writer needs to persuade a reader with a coherent movement toward a reasonable interpretation of the logic. Thus, it becomes the writer's responsibility to persuade the reader.

On the other hand, as Xing, M., et al, (2008) explain, Asian-based inductive reasoning is based on shared knowledge with a shared context or set of shared examples that indirectly lead to the development of an understanding, result, or conclusion. This approach suggests that there are various methods or pathways to find answers to problems. A concept is interpreted within a context shared by the writer and reader. Inductive reasoning shows how the rule or concept works. That means that the major point of view of a piece of writing derives from the "experiencer" or reader of the text, not the writer. For example, in his book *Unchangeable*<sup>6</sup> (Chapter 20), Confucius says that knowledge is accomplished through doing what is to be learned. Without individual experience, one cannot know that they know knowledge. So, in Confucian-influenced Asian culture, knowledge (theory) and experience (practice) are not separated.

Experiential conceptual understanding is embedded in Asian culture, and the interaction between reader and a writer is central. This is in contrast to a Western approach where the writer unilaterally leads or persuades a reader. Since the Korean persuasion process depends on a reader's own experiences, a reader's role is interpreting the writer's intention, understanding ambiguity, and independently inferring abstract ideas. Knowledge

---

<sup>6</sup> Chung yung 中庸 which means "Centre," or "Unchangeable" is one of four Confucian texts. When published together in 1190 by Chu Hsi, a great Neo-Confucian philosopher, they became the famous *Ssu shu* ("Four Books").

is gained through analysis and observation of phenomenon, as well as looking deep inside of ourselves or deeply inside others. When a reader “reads between the lines” in a text, the reader and the writer develop a special connection.

For this reason, reader subjectivity through inferring abstract ideas from the writer’s text is not seen as an obstacle to understanding within a reader responsibility writing context. This concept is a common idea in Asian cultures (Xing, M., et al, 2008).

### **Academic writing**

According to Biber (2010), the definition of academic writing in English refers to a particular style which has elaborated structures with complex grammar and with explicit meaning relations. This feature is the opposite of spoken registers. In his research, he finds that academic writing and spoken registers, especially conversation, have dramatically different linguistic characteristics.

...academic writing is structurally 'compressed', with phrasal (non-clausal) modifiers embedded in noun phrases. Additionally, we challenge the stereotype that academic writing is explicit in meaning. Rather, we argue that the 'compressed' discourse style of academic writing is much less explicit in meaning than alternative styles employing elaborated structures. These styles are efficient for expert readers, who can quickly extract large amounts of information from relatively short, condensed texts. However, they pose difficulties for novice readers, who must learn to infer unspecified meaning relations among grammatical constituents (Biber, 2010).

Mastery of the complex academic code is difficult for students at both secondary and tertiary levels. Catherine Snow’s research (1991) suggests that to achieve academic success requires improving the ability to comprehend and produce decontextualized language by exposing students to large quantities of explanatory theme-based reading in addition to narrative reading. She shows that academic writing is different from narrative writing found in diaries or e-mails used in daily lives. Cummins (1979) labels this type of narrative writing

“Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills” (BICS) and academic writing as “Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency” (CALP). BICS-based conversational fluency is required to act at a functional level to interact socially with other people in social day-to-day situations.

CALP refers to formal academic learning. Academic language acquisition not only means the understanding of vocabulary in content areas, but also the acquisition of the ability to compare, classify, synthesize, evaluate, and infer using appropriate academic language. The distinction between BICS and CALP has contributed to an understanding of language proficiency and its relationship to academic achievement. That means, students regardless of their language, need to be educated in CALP by practicing academic writing.



## Chapter 4: Methodology

Having reviewed relevant research literature including the nature of academic English, and differences between Korean and Western cultural preferences with regards to writing, I will now discuss the research methodology.

### Research questions:

As noted earlier, the research questions for this study are:

- 1) What if any, are the differences between Korean Freshmen writing and American Freshmen writing?
- 2) If there are differences, what are the major rhetorical development problems that Korean ESL students face in freshman composition classes?"
- 3) If American Freshmen write in a linear way, is it natural or is the linear "logical" frame a learned feature of academic writing in western culture?
- 4) Do American Freshmen write in a deductive style, while Koreans write in an inductive style?

In order to answer the research questions, the following procedural steps were taken. First, I constructed a corpus of international Freshman Composition Korean student writing and a corpus of Freshman Composition American student writing. Second, I conducted discourse analyses on these corpora using the TSA method while adding identification markers for TS (Topic Sentence), and TH (Thesis Statement), and IR (Irrelevant Information). Third, I analyzed the corpora using ISE (an Initial Sentence Element), GS (Grammatical Subject), and TS (Topical Subject) according to Lautamatti's five types of

ISE, GS, and TS<sup>7</sup> categories. Forth, I examined the corpora using a modification of Lautamatti's three types of thematic progression that allow for the identification of topic development using: (1) PP (parallel progression), (2) EPP (extended parallel progression), (3) SP (sequential progression) (4) ESP (extended sequential progression), and (5) IR (Irrelevant Information such as transition or listing new topic). Lastly, after analyzing the essays, I sorted their grammatical error types according grammar rules in order to discover differences in error types between American and Korean Freshmen essays.

### **Subjects**

Applying these discourse analytical strategies provides insights into the organizational patterns favored by 25 international Korean Freshmen and 25 American Freshmen. Consequently, 50 students' Rhetorical Analysis<sup>8</sup> writing samples were taken from Korean Freshmen and American Freshmen in their freshman composition classes at Brigham Young University (Utah, U.S.A.).

I chose writing samples from BYU freshmen composition classes because students in these classes have been admitted to BYU so they have met minimal standards for BYU entrance which are very high compared to most other universities. They satisfied the

---

<sup>7</sup> Lautamatti (1987) proposes five types of the co-occurrence of ISE (an initial sentence element), Grammatical Subject and Topical Subject: Type 1 occurs when all the three elements coincide. Type 2 occurs when the ISE is separate from the mood subject and the topical subject, in which the latter two coincide. Type 3 occurs when the ISE coincides with the mood subject, but the topical subject is separate. Type 4 occurs when the ISE coincides with the topical subject but the mood structure is separate. And Type 5 occurs when all three elements are separate. Lautamatti provides the simplified presentation of the five types as mentioned in Chapter 2.

<sup>8</sup> Rhetoric is the art of effective or persuasive speaking or writing, especially the exploitation of figures of speech and other compositional techniques. the study of how writers use words to influence readers. (Oxford dictionary) A rhetorical analysis requires writers to apply their critical writing skills to break a text in their essay. They use a rhetorical analysis to articulate how the author writes, and to create a certain effect such as persuasion or inform. UBC Writing Centre. 7 May 2007. The University of British Columbia. 10 December 2007. <http://www.writingcentre.ubc.ca/workshop/tools/rhet1.htm>

standard for getting into university so they are ready to begin academic study. Even though, I did not consider students' personal backgrounds with respect to their prior-to-BYU-admittance writing ability and instruction in writing, I am confident that they had reached certain minimal standards due to their BYU admittance.

The reasons why I chose the students' rhetorical analysis essays and draft are:

1. Using the rhetorical analysis, it is easy to evaluate elements of writers' purpose and the development ideas

2. Using the rhetorical analysis, it is easy to discover the writer's style, such as a deductive approach to writing or an inductive approach, because writers make many strategic decisions when attempting to persuade their readers

3. In this study, students' first draft essays, without teacher feedback, were used because there is a possibility of teachers' feedback influence in their final essays. So if we used later drafts it would be hard to know the original rhetoric used by the writers.

### **Three Paragraphs**

A total of 150 paragraphs were analyzed in this study. Three paragraphs of longer essays were analyzed in each Korean and American Freshmen' writing. According to the Oxford Dictionary definition, a "paragraph" means "A distinct section of a piece of writing, usually dealing with a single theme and indicated by a new line, indentation, or numbering."

However, since this study analyzed drafts of novice freshmen's essays, the length of the essays and paragraphs displayed huge differences. In addition, writers did not divide their ideas into clearly defined paragraphs. Some of the students wrote one whole page as a single paragraph, while other students only wrote two short sentences.

So, for the purposes of this research, paragraphs were designated based upon how the students had decided what a visual paragraph was. According to this definition, I chose three paragraphs from each student writing sample.

I chose not to focus on each student's complete essay because the writing samples were not the final essays in their assignment. Many students had not finished their essays when they turned in these paragraphs. Thus, I concluded that analyzing three paragraphs was sufficient to determine the presence or absence of each writers' logic or rhetorical development.

### **Reliability and Validity**

Lautamatti's (1987) TSA method is widely used in peer reviewed published literature and, as noted in Chapter 2, many peer-reviewed, published studies have used this method. Thus it is a valid research method. Also, when I analyzed students' essays, I set up coding criteria and checked my coding with a professional writer, an experienced ESL teacher, and other professors thus increasing rater reliability.

### **Lautamatti's types of sentence**

Lautamatti (1987) describes three basic concepts used in the TSA method: (1) the initial sentence element (ISE), (2) the mood/Grammatical Subject (GS), and (3) the Topical Subject (TS). The ISE is the first element in the sentence. It is the first indicator of what the sentence is about, but often it is not the topic of the sentence. The mood subject is the Grammatical Subject (GS) and will hereafter be referred to as the grammatical subject. This element is usually, but not always, what the sentence is about. So, readers expect this to be the main idea of the sentence. Lastly, the Topical Subject (TS) is what the sentence is

actually about. Sometimes the topical subject is not in initial or grammatical subject position.

Lautamatti (1987) proposes five types of the co-occurrence of ISE, Grammatical Subject and Topical Subject: Type 1 occurs when all the three elements coincide. Type 2 occurs when the ISE is separate from the mood subject and the topical subject, in which the latter two coincide. Type 3 occurs when the ISE coincides with the mood subject, but the topical subject is separate. Type 4 occurs when the ISE coincides with the topical subject but the mood structure is separate. And Type 5 occurs when all three elements are separate.

Lautamatti provides the simplified presentation of the five types as follows:

Type 1: ISE = topical subject = mood subject

Type 2: ISE ≠ topical subject = mood subject

Type 3: ISE = mood subject ≠ topical subject

Type 4: ISE = topical subject ≠ mood subject

Type 5: ISE ≠ topical subject ≠ mood subject

For clarity, examples taken from the corpus of Yin's study (2015) of each type are offered below (where the ISE is *italicized*, the grammatical subject is underlined, and the topical subject is **bold-faced**):

Type 1 example: ***Outdoor games*** offer a lot of health benefits and also the opportunity to have social interaction and new connections with the people of the same sport. (H9)

Type 2 example: *However*, **indoor games** are very limited in terms of advantages compared to outdoor games. (H9)

Type 3 example: *There* are **different kinds of dresses** that a woman may wear. (L8)

Type 4 example: *Although college life has been hell-like*, there you can experience almost everything you haven't experienced in high school. (L9) (Type 4)

Type 5 example: *Because of this*, it is a lot easier **to screw up lead guitar**. (H15)

(Yin, 2015)

### Lautamatti's TSA and Simpson's ESP

I also analyzed the corpora according to Lautamatti's three types of thematic progression that allow the topical structure analytical approach (TSA) to track how the topic is developed. She suggests three types of thematic progression that allow the TSA to track how the topic is developed: (1) parallel progression (PP), (2) extended parallel progression (EPP), and (3) sequential progression (SP).

Parallel progression (PP) occurs when two consecutive clauses contain the same topical subject in the same sentence position. These clauses, consisting of the same topical subjects placed one after the other, develop the topic along parallel lines. This method of topical development is expected by native English readers and helps them follow the logic of the text.

Extended parallel progression (EPP) occurs when a topical subject is repeated in two clauses that are not consecutive. These clauses, with the same topical subject, but separated by other sentences or clauses, enable readers to link back to the first parallel clause or sentence, thus enhancing textual cohesion and coherence.

Sequential progression (SP) occurs when the rheme element of a clause becomes the theme element of the consecutive clause. Clauses that take the rheme element and make it into the following theme element follow a form of topical development expected by readers, thus adding to the readability of the text.

According to Lautamatti's notion, topical depth is the relationship between the progression of sentence topics and the semantic hierarchy of a text. The sentence topic stated at first in an extended sentence indicates the highest level in the semantic hierarchy. It is the discourse topic. The sequence of sentences showing a discourse topic by developing a

succession of sentence topics is called topical progressions. Topical progression helps individual sentences cohere logically. These notions are summarized in Figure 4.1 below:

Connor (1996) explains a system of three distinct progressions<sup>9</sup> by mapping: parallel progression: (a,b), (a,c), (a,d), extended parallel progression: (a,b), (b,c), (a,d), sequential progression: (a,b), (b,c), (c,d).

Simpson (2000) introduced extended sequential progression (ESP) which can be defined as the rheme<sup>10</sup> element of a clause being taken up as the theme of a non-consecutive clause. That is, a new rheme is revealed for the first time in an initial sentence, but not as the topical subject. This rheme is then repeated as the topical subject, or, in this case, theme of a subsequent clause. However, a number of clauses intervene between the first rheme and the following theme.

---

<sup>9</sup> Parallel progression, in which topics of successive sentences are the same, producing a repetition of topic that reinforces the idea for the reader; • sequential progression, in which topics of successive sentences are always different, as the comment of one sentence becomes, or is used to derive, the topic of the next; and • extended parallel progression, in which the first and the last topics of a piece of text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression. (Hoenishc, 2009)

<sup>10</sup> Rheme is the remainder of the message in a clause which theme is developed. Theme is the given information serving as the point of departure of a message (Halliday, 2004).

Figure 4.1

*Summary of the Topic Structure Analytical Approach***The Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA)**

Three basic concepts used in the TSA method:

- (1) **the initial sentence element (ISE)**
- (2) **the mood/grammatical subject (GS)**
- (3) **the topical subject (TS)**

Three types of thematic progression that allow the TSA to track how the topic is developed:

- (1) **parallel progression (PP)**: occurs when two consecutive clauses contain the same topical subject in the same sentence position.
- (2) **extended parallel progression (EPP)**: occurs when a topical subject is repeated in two clauses that are not consecutive. These clauses, with the same topical subject, but separated by other sentences or clauses, enable readers to link back to the first parallel clause or sentence, thus enhancing textual cohesion and coherence.
- (3) **sequential progression (SP)**: occurs when the rheme element of a clause becomes the theme element of the consecutive clause.
- (4) **extended sequential progression (ESP)** which can be defined as the rheme element of a clause being taken up as the theme of a non-consecutive clause. That is, a new rheme is revealed for the first time in an initial sentence, but not as the topical subject. This rheme is then repeated as the topical subject, or, in this case, theme of a subsequent clause. However, a number of clauses intervene between the first rheme and the following theme. In my analysis, the absence of these rhetorical development devices is indicated as either “no progression” of topic, or, in some cases, “irrelevant information.” (Simpson, 2000)

As noted, it has been shown that uncovering these rhetorical strategies are keys in understanding how a writer develops a topic in a paragraph, and how a reader follows the development of that topic (Lautamatti, 1987; Simpson 2000). This present study is based on the notion that applying an analytical method that uncovers these elements will help identify areas in paragraphs where novice writers may not have developed their topic to meet the expectations of native English readers.



In addition to Lautamatti's criteria and Simpson', my analytical method also marked common rhetorical errors including Irrelevant Information (IR)<sup>11</sup> and repetitive or redundant information as categories that may contribute to problems in rhetorical development. In my analysis, Irrelevant Information (IR) is defined as the absence of these rhetorical development devices as well as the transition or listing of a new topic which does not add to or develop the main topic.

The absence of cohesive rhetorical development devices is indicated as "Irrelevant information" (IR) a new category developed for this research. IR is information provided by the writer that is extraneous to the topic. IR is also information provided by the writer that is a distraction from the topic under development. This type of information hinders the reader from understanding the writers' intent. Redundant information which is included in the Irrelevant Information category is information provided by the writer that has already been provided. Repetitive or redundant information is a distraction from the topic under development. This type of information also hinders the reader from understanding the writers' intent. The IR category also involves new topic or new information which does not belong to the PP, EPP, SP, or ESP.

The Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA) method, with Topic Sentence (TS), and Thesis Statement (TH), criteria as mentioned above were used to analyze the rhetorical development of these essays. Because both Korean and American students were writing unedited first drafts with so many rhetorical and grammatical weaknesses, doing a

---

<sup>11</sup> If there is absence of the rhetorical development devices, it is regarded as IR (Irrelevant information) which can include "Transition or Listing new topic" which leads to no progression of the topic. In other words, Irrelevant Information (IR) is not a clear topic statement (TS), but it is possible for it to be a "Topical Subject."

narrow analysis would not develop meaningful results. For this reason, I used four analytical approaches: The Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA), Topic Sentences (TS), Thesis Statements (TH), and an analysis of grammar errors. Also, I wanted to do a cross-cultural analysis so I felt that focusing on thesis statements and topic sentences allowed this research objective to be achieved.

### **Topic Sentences and Thesis Statements**

In my analysis, in order to distinguish between inductive style and deductive style in Freshmen's essays, I coded for Topic Sentences (TS) and Thesis Statements (TH) (Condit and Koistinen, 1989, Tomlin, 1985, Van Dijk, 1980, and Grimes, 1989). In standard academic writing, native English readers expect one topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph. The Thesis Statement (TH) is a sentence that tells the reader what the writer believes, and what the writer is trying to convince the reader to believe in.

Consequently, identifying the location of the topic sentence is a way to discover the possible inductive versus deductive style used by the writer. Experienced academic readers would expect each of the introductory paragraphs to contain a thesis statement as well as a topic sentence, with the topic sentence located near the beginning of the paragraph.

### **Deductive versus inductive problem**

Deciding on deductive versus inductive development is difficult especially for first draft unedited student writing. For the purpose of this present analysis, I have labeled deductive and inductive development based upon the location of the thesis statement in a paragraph. The reason why I distinguished between inductive style and deductive style, is because there is a relationship between linear and spiral/circular development and deductive/ inductive development. I interpreted Kaplan's "linear" style as deductive and the

non-linear style as inductive. According to Hinds (1987), Korean writers' reader-responsible writing style presents English native readers with more inferential work to do such as decoding ambiguity, abstract ideas, and imprecise information. Such traditional Korean writing style and rhetoric patterns can be interpreted by native English readers as a non-linear style which uses more topic subjects because of this indirect "beating the bushes" approach.

I will now present the results of this analysis in the following chapter.

## Chapter 5: Results and Analysis

In this chapter, I describe how 50 essays written by Korean and American Freshman composition class students with the same topic assignment were analyzed within a qualitative research framework, using the criteria mentioned above. Results are indicated in the tables below.

Surprisingly, the results of this study showed that overall Korean Freshmen used a more linear deductive style of writing with fewer grammatical errors than the American Freshmen did, even though the American Freshmen writers wrote more sentences and their sentences were longer. American Freshmen used more non-linear, spoken rhetorical patterns rather than a linear academic writing style. Korean Freshmen used a higher number of linear deductive writing features. Overall findings suggest that instruction in the academic writing style is more important than possible culturally influenced rhetorical patterns.

The results for the 25 American Freshmen also show it is necessary to be trained to write in a linear style of writing. This is because an academic writing rhetorical pattern is different from ordinary personal writing (letters, texts, emails, journal entries) and different from literary genres such as poems or novels.

This suggests that the so-called circular style is not inherently Asian, and neither is the Western linear pattern inherent in American writers. It may be that apparent differences have more to do with instruction and the pragmatic intent of writers from both cultures.

English readers expect a clear thesis statement in an expository text. However, Korean writers may not wish to assert their beliefs so noticeably in a way that, for Koreans, may suggest arrogance. Thus, Korean writers may hide their thesis statement within a

suggestive discourse strategy (Eggington, 1987). Consequently, the presence or absence of a clear TH is a way to measure if a paragraph conveys clear meanings.

### **Identifying Topic Sentence and Thesis Statements**

The analysis begins with Table 5.1 (look at page 36), which shows the position of the Topic Sentence (TS)<sup>12</sup> and the Thesis Statement (TH)<sup>13</sup> in Korean and American Freshmen's writing in their paragraphs. The position of a Topic Sentence and a Thesis Statement can be an indicator of inductive or deductive development. Most traditional Korean style of writing is inductive, but, as Table 5.1 shows, many Korean Freshmen used an inductive writing style. Also, many students wrote the topic sentence and thesis statement in the middle of the paragraph. So it is unclear if this approach is inductive or deductive. Also, there were nine more examples of Korean Freshmen who did not write topic sentences and five more examples of Korean Freshmen who did not write thesis statements than American Freshmen's paragraphs.

As mentioned previously, within an ideal academic writing style, a topic sentence offers the main idea of the paragraph, and thus every paragraph should include it. This is because a topic sentence indicates the writer's intention for the paragraph. Generally, the topic sentence appears at the beginning of the paragraph especially in academic essays. A thesis statement contains a concise summary of the main point, or claim, of the essay. A

---

<sup>12</sup> In writing, the **topic sentence** is the main idea of each paragraph. It contains the focus of the paragraph and tells readers what the paragraph is going to be about. In academic essays, it is usually located at the beginning of each paragraph.

<sup>13</sup> A **thesis statement** focuses your ideas into one or two sentences. It should present the topic of your paper and also make a comment about your position in relation to the topic. Your thesis statement should tell your reader what the paper is about and also help guide your writing and keep your argument focused.

thesis statement usually appears toward the end of the introductory paragraph of a complete paper though it may occur more than once in a paper.

As we can see in Tables 5.1, 29 percent of the Topic Sentences in paragraph of American Freshmen were located in the middle of the paragraph, or at the end of the paragraph, or there was no Topic Sentence. Unpredictably, 63 percent of Korean Freshmen wrote their essays following a deductive pathway. Since traditionally Koreans prefer an inductive writing style, this 63 percent of Koreans Freshmen result exceeded my expectations. This number is close to the American Freshmen's deductive development percentage which is 69 percent.

Table 5.1

*Topic Sentence of Inductive & Deductive*

	American Freshmen' writing		Korean Freshmen' writing	
Deductive	52	69%	47	63%
Inductive	10	13%	18	24%
Located in the Middle of the Sentence	12	16%	1	1%
No Topic Sentence	1	1%	9	12%
Total Paragraph	75	100%	75	100%

Table 5.1 presents results of the analysis of the total of 150 paragraphs in the students' writing corpus. Table 5.1.1 shows each student preferences and their writing patterns. 32% of American Freshmen and 28 % of Korean Freshmen wrote in a complete deductive style in their three paragraphs. 35% of American Freshmen put their topic sentences in the middle, or in the beginning in their paragraph. 80 percent of American Freshmen and 60 percent of Korean Freshmen wrote two deductive paragraphs out of three.

Table 5.1.1

*Each Student' Topic Sentence Following an Inductive or Deductive Pattern*

	American		Korean		Total	
<b>D-D-D</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>32%</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>28%</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>30%</b>
M-D-D	9	36%	0	0%	9	18%
I-D-D	2	8%	6	24%	8	16%
D-D-I	1	4%	2	8%	3	6%
I-I-D	1	4%	1	4%	2	4%
D-I-D	0	0%	2	8%	2	4%
M-I-M	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
I-I-I	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
M-I-D	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
D-D-None	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
None-D-D	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
None-M-D	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
D-I-None	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
I-I-None	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
I-D-None	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
I-None-I	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
None-None-None	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
Total	25		25		50	

Deductive-Middle-Inductive

Even though 8 American and 7 Korean students used topic sentences in their whole essays, Table 5.1.1 shows 7 Korean Freshmen did not use the deductive pattern. 28 percent of Korean Freshmen paragraphs did not contain a topic sentence at least once in their writing while only one American student did not write a topic sentence in their last paragraph.

Table 5.2

*Thesis Statement of Inductive & Deductive*

	America Students' writing		Korean Freshmen' writing	
Deductive	25	33%	41	55%
Inductive	37	49%	19	25%
Located in the Middle of the Sentence	11	15%	4	5%
No Thesis Statement	2	3%	11	15%
	75	100%	75	100%

Table 5.2 shows the location of the Thesis Statement. Only 33 percent of American Freshmen' paragraphs were written following a deductive pattern. 64 percent in American Freshmen writing was written in an inductive style, where the thesis statement was located in the middle or at the end of the paragraph. In three percent of the paragraphs, there was no thesis statement.

In Koreans' writers' paragraphs, 55 percent were written using a deductive pattern. This figure is 22 percent higher than American Freshmen's writing. Also, 15percent of Korean Freshmen' paragraphs were written without a thesis statement.



Table 5.2.1

*Each Student's Thesis Statement Following an Inductive or Deductive Pattern*

	American		Korean		Total	
<b>D-D-D</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0%</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>12%</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6%</b>
I-D-I	5	20%	0	0%	5	10%
I-D-D	3	12%	9	36%	12	24%
I-I-I	3	12%	2	8%	5	10%
M-D-I	3	12%	0	0%	3	6%
M-I-I	2	8%	0	0%	2	4%
M-D-D	1	4%	1	4%	2	4%
M-I-M	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
M-I-D	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
I-M-D	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
I-I-D	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
D-I-D	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
D-D-M	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
D-None-I	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
I-D-None	1	4%	0	0%	1	2%
None-D-D	0	0%	3	12%	3	6%
D-I-I	0	0%	2	8%	2	4%
I-D-M	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
None-M-M	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
D-M-M	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
I-None-None	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
None-None-None	0	0%	1	4%	1	2%
	25		25		50	

Deductive-Middle-Inductive

Table 5.2.1 presents each student's Thesis Statement that indicates an Inductive or Deductive writing style. Three Korean Freshmen wrote all three of their paragraphs following deductive development while no American Freshmen wrote all three of their paragraphs following a deductive style. However, 6 Korean Freshmen wrote paragraphs without thesis statements.

### The Total number of Topics in the sentences

Table 5.3 shows the Total Number of Sentences, Average of Total Number of Sentences, and Standard Deviation of Total number of Sentences.

Table 5.3

#### *Total Number of Sentences*

	American Freshmen	Korean Freshmen
Total Sentences	683	463
Average Number of Sentences	27.32	18.52
Standard Deviation of Total number of Sentences	7.96	5.54

In Table 5.3, American Freshmen wrote 683 sentences, and Korean Freshmen wrote 463 sentences. In total, American students wrote 220 sentences more than the Korean students wrote. Table 5.4 below shows the total number of words written by all American and Korean students.

Table 5.4

#### *Total Number of Words*

	American Freshmen	Korean Freshmen
Total Words	16,556	9,760
Average Number of Words	662.24	390.40
Standard Deviation of Total Number of Words	209.97	138.32

In Table 5.4, American and Korean Freshmen's average word counts and Standard Deviation are compared. American Freshmen's Average Words is 662.24 and Korean Freshmen's average words are 390.40. American Freshmen wrote more sentences with more words than Korean Freshmen did. As can be seen in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 American

Freshmen used more words and sentences. It is possible to assume that it would be easier for American freshmen to write longer essays with longer sentences with more words in English than for Korean students. This is because English is a first language for native American students.

Table 5.5

*Total Number of Topic Subjects*

	American Freshmen	Korean Freshmen
Total Topic Subject	464	294
Average of Number of Topic Subject	18.56	11.76
Standard Deviation of Total Number of Topic Subject	6.31	4.30

The results show that in the Table 5.5. American Freshmen introduced more 170 topics than the Koreans' did. Both American Freshmen's higher Standard Deviation of Sentences and Standard Deviation of Topics than Korean Freshmen's standard deviation indicate that they wrote more sentences and used more topics. As Tables 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 show, American freshmen used more words and sentences, but they also used more topic subjects. As Lautamatti mentioned above, when students use more topics, there may be increased difficulty with respect to topical development. Because American students wrote more sentences with more words than Korean students, there is the possibility that their logic was harder because there were so many more distracting topic subjects in their paragraphs.

**Topic Development Using the TSA Analytical Method**

As noted above, I used the TSA Analytical Method in order to investigate how each writer developed topic in each paragraph. In this method, certain elements are identified and

coded. For example, as shown in Example 5.1 below, there is an Initial Sentence Element (ISE), Topical Subject (TS), and Grammatical Subject (GS) where the ISE is *italicized*, the grammatical subject is underlined, and the topical subject is **bold-faced**. Text 1 below is Student No. 9's paragraph and is included here to show how each paragraph was analyzed. For convenience, sentence numbers are indicated in square brackets, [S#], and sentence breaks indicated by //.

#### Example 5.1

##### *Korean Freshmen No.9's a Paragraph*

*Students* get **sex education** from school, from parents, or from many different sources. [S1] // *However*, people hardly know how **it** brings different effects when taught in different ways. [S2] // *There* are generally two different ways of teaching: only-abstinence sex education and comprehensive **sex education**. [S3] // *Then*, why is it important to learn **sex education** properly? [S4] // *Proper* **sex education** prevents adolescents from being pregnant and responsible for a huge burden of parenting by impulsive choice. [S5] // *According to CDC*, "the USA had a total of 305,388 babies were born to women aged 15–19 years, for a live **birth rate** of 29.4 per 1,000 women in this age group" (About Teen Pregnancy, 2012) [S6] // *This* shows how the USA has such a high number of **pregnancy** happens to adolescents which implies the need of proper sex education.[S7] // Also, when adolescents become parents when they are not ready either mentally or financially, it brings a bad **outcome** to both parent and a child. [S8] // *Most tragic cases*, **it** leads to abortion.[S9] // *The USA* had a ~ percentage of **abortion** and ~ percent of abortion is coming from teenagers. [S10] //

Example 5.1 shows that Korean student No.9 used 5 topics: sex education, birth rate, pregnancy, outcome, and abortion. Korean student No.9 seemed to not use subtopics to develop their ideas, or any strategies of topical development of discourse.

## Example 5.2

*American No.2 Freshmen's a first paragraph*

The wrong socket to be unplugged, a Rhetorical Analysis

*On January 6<sup>th</sup>, 2009, a BYU humanities professor* posted an article named “Dear Students: Don't Let College Unplug Your Future”. / [S1] *The professor* wrote this article at the time when college student debts were rising and the number of unemployed graduates was also steadily increasing. / [S2] *He* tries to address these concerns in this article by supporting the idea that the internet is underutilized by students and would be able to help them build up their resume by investing more time into increasing their internet presence through sharing their works and ideas. / [S3] new paragraph should start → #4 *The professor* is trying to draw in college students into helping themselves by working more on the vast pool of mass intelligence to broaden their own abilities. / [S4] → (new idea block) #5 *The problem with his argument* however is that he is trying to address a larger audience than what his ideas would help and uses the emotionally based concepts of creative freedom that the internet allows students to utilize in advancing themselves which has little to benefit the core audience. / [S5] *The author* brings out the logical appeal of how much information the internet could give future employers but ignores the inner workings of the digital façade. / [S6] *The relation of personal stories* shows little of the potential that the internet has in his debate to use the digital world more than traditional schooling. / [S7] *The last point of ineffective discussion* is how few careers could be built without the physical experience you would receive in formal education. / [S8] *He* makes the artistic rejoice at the visions of infinite freedom but leaves the intellects scratching their heads, trying to see how much a flimsy digital perspective could capture what they do. / [S9]  
American No.2 Freshmen's a first paragraph

Figure 5.1

*Discourse Topic Analysis of American No.2 Freshmen's first paragraph*

S1	an article
S2	this article
S3	He? This article? Or the idea?
S4	the vast pool of mass intelligence
S5	the problem with his argument
S6	the author
S7	the relation of personal stories
S8	The last point of ineffective discussion
S9	He

As Figure 5.3 shows, each American student used more than 6 topic subjects in their 9 sentences. When unclear topic subjects are excluded, it can be seen that they used different topic subjects in each sentence.

Example 5.2 and Figure 5.3 reveal an American Freshmen's topic development. In American No. 2 Freshmen's first paragraph, Topical Subjects are not clear. This is because the writer used many topics so it is hard to discern what thesis the author is trying to develop. In addition, the writer presented new ideas, but he did not separate them by creating a new paragraph. At times, he even embedded the new ideas in longer sentences.

Example 5.3

*Korean student No.6's Paragraph*

**Video games** are widespread in our life, and everyone play video game in these days. [S1] // Some people play **video game** for fun, and some people play video games for living such as professional gamers and programmers. [S2] // Because video games are easy to access, **they** tremendous affects to people who play them. [S3] // Especially, **children** who are under 18 years old get influenced a lot through video games. [S4] //Playing video games have some good aspects to **children** such as release stresses. [S5] // However, there are a lot more harmful effects and disadvantages playing video games especially **under 18 years old children**. [S6] // Video games influence **children's behavior** and health problem. [S7] //There are three points of harmful effects that could occur **to children** when they play video game regularly [S8]. // First, **Children** learn naturally violence when they play video game. [S9] // Second, video games increase **children's obesity**. [S10] //Third, video games may occur social problem for **children**. [S11] //

As Example 5.3 indicates, the Korean Freshmen's writing in the corpus used more than one topic in their paragraph. Korean student No.6 used 5 topics in their paragraph. Korean student No.6 begins talking about "video games," but then in Sentence 4, Korean student No.6 mentioned "children." In Sentence 6, Korean student No.6 mentioned

“under 18 years old children,” in Sentence 7, “children’s behavior,” and in Sentence 10, “children’s obesity.” Korean student No.6 seemed to not use subtopics to develop the ideas, or any topical development strategies.

Figure 5.2

*Discourse Topic Analysis of Korean Student No.6’s a Paragraph*

S1	Video games	
S2	Video game	
S3	they (= video games)	
S4	children(subtopic)	
S5	children	
S6	under 18 years old children	
S7	children’s behavior	
S8	children	
S9	children	
S10		children’s obesity
S11	children	

As indicated in Figure 5.4, Korean student No.6 starts the paragraph with a progressive alignment that indicates parallel progression (PP) with Sentences 1 and 3 with the topic of “video games.” However, in S4 the writer moved into the subtopic “children.” In S6, the writer mentioned “under 18 years old children”. This makes readers confused because native English readers do not catch the writer’s intention as to why the writer mentioned “under 18 years old children.”

## Example 5.4

*Korean Student No6's Paragraph Rewritten by a professional native English writer*

**Video games** are very popular for adults and children. [S1] //However, children are affected by **video games** in more serious ways. [S2] //These ways include both **positive and negative effects**. [S3] (Subtopic) For example, **video games** can relieve stress for children. [S4] //However, **they** can also create harmful effects such as in the following three areas. [S5] //(subtopic-children) First, **children** can learn that violence is natural through video games which can lead to them becoming more violent. [S6] // Secondly, **children** who play video games are susceptible to obesity because they sit so much. [S7] //Third, video games can result in **the children** developing social problems such as not being connected to other people. [S8]

Example 5.4 was rewritten by a professional native English writer who attempted to retain Korean student No.6's same topical focus. This re-write is shown in Figure 5.5 below with a discourse topic analysis provided in Figure 5.4.

## Figure 5.3

*Discourse Topic Analysis of Example 4*

S1	Video games
S2	Video games
S3	positive and negative effects (subtopic)
S4	video games
S5	they (= video games)
S6	children (subtopic)
S7	children
S8	the children

In the Figure 5.5, the progressive alignment between S1 and S2 indicates Parallel Progression (PP). In other words, the vertical alignment of S1 with S2 indicates the same discourse topic. The progressive indentation shows that S3 is a Sequential Progression (SP). Meantime, the vertical alignment of S4 with line 2 indicates an Extensive Parallel



Progression (EPP). The progressive alignment that S4 and S5 indicates Parallel Progression (PP). The progressive indentation shows that S6 is Sequential Progression (SP). The sentences From S6 to S8 show a Parallel Progression (PP)<sup>14</sup>. For convenience, S5 has included the referents of the topics in brackets.

### **The Topical Structure Analytical approach (TSA)**

Table 5.6 below shows the total number of sentences analyzed using the Topical Structure Analytical approach (TSA).

Table 5.6

#### *American Freshmen' TSA and Korean Freshmen' TSA*

	American Freshmen' TSA	Korean Freshmen' TSA
Total TSA	603	381

American Freshmen' TSA sentences are 603 and Korean Freshmen' TSA sentences are 381.

American students wrote 222 more sentences than the Korean Freshmen.

---

<sup>14</sup> Simpson (2000) introduced extended sequential progression (ESP) which can be defined as the rheme element of a clause being taken up as the theme of a non-consecutive clause. That is, a new rheme is revealed for the first time in an initial sentence, but not as the topical subject. This rheme is then repeated as the topical subject, or, in this case, theme of a subsequent clause.

Table 5.7

*American Freshmen' Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA)*

	PP	EPP	SP	ESP	IR (Irrelevant)	Total
Total	127	47	52	40	337	603
Average	5.08	1.88	2.08	1.60	13.48	24.12
Standard Deviation	3.46	1.24	1.82	1.38	5.48	

Table 5.7 and Table 5.8 show what types of TSA categories were used by American and Korean writers. American Freshmen used a total of 337 Irrelevant topics (IR) and Korean used a total 146 Irrelevant topics (IR). Average and Standard Deviations show that American Freshmen mentioned more irrelevant topics or provided new topics than Korean Freshmen did.

As noted previously, the “Irrelevant” category is applied when a new topic is inserted, usually consisting of only one sentence, or unpredictably presented more than once in the paragraph. This transition or listing of a new topic made another EPP or ESP using the TSA approach is also included in the IR category. This is because it was not connected to a paragraph or sentence level theme or rheme. However, because of grammatically-based lack of clarity, it was hard to determine which categories these sentences could fit into. American Freshmen’ “Irrelevant” category was 337 and Korean Freshmen’s “Irrelevant” category was 146. These high numbers of “Irrelevant topic” make it hard to follow ideas leading to reader confusion.

Table 5.8

*Korean Freshmen' Topical Structure Analytical Approach (TSA)*

	PP	EPP	SP	ESP	IR (Irrelevant)	Total
Total	126	45	43	21	146	381
Average	5.04	1.8	1.72	0.84	5.84	15.24
Standard Deviation	3.39	1.47	1.49	1.03	3.73	

As a result, the topical progression in American Freshmen' writing is 127 (PP) shown in Table 5.7. The topical progression in Korean Freshmen' writing is 126 (PP) shown in Table 5.7 and Table 5.8. Both Freshmen group writing show that they tried to write paragraphs and essays coherently by using parallel progression as determined by the number of PP, EPP, SP, and ESP. However, in the Table 5.7 and Table 5.8, the number of IR shows that sequences of sentences which reveal a discourse topic that does not develop into a succession of sentence topics. In other words, the writers seemed to be unable to use topical progression. This inability to use topical progression makes individual sentences “cohere” illogically.

In each group, the fact that the largest Standard Deviation was IR compared to other elements such as PP, EPP SP, and ESP supports the conclusion that writers from both groups had difficulty with coherent development. This unskilled writing confuses experienced native English readers.

### **Type of sentence**

After conducting a TSA analysis on each of the ten paragraphs, results were categorized according to sentence type (Types 1-5), as indicated in Table 3 below.

Type 1: ISE = topical subject = grammatical subject

Type 2: ISE ≠ topical subject = grammatical subject

Type 3: ISE = grammatical subject ≠ topical subject

Type 4: ISE = topical subject ≠ grammatical subject

Type 5: ISE ≠ topical subject ≠ grammatical subject

Table 5.9

*American Freshmen' Type of sentence*

	TYPE 1	TYPE 2	TYPE 3	TYPE 4	TYPE 5	Not clear TS or Grammar Errors	Total Number of Sentences
Total	192	83	177	8	146	73	679
Average	7.68	3.32	7.08	0.32	5.84	2.92	27.16
Standard Deviation	5.14	2.08	4.39	0.63	3.62	3.37	8.09

Table 5.10

*Korean Freshmen' Type of sentence*

	TYPE 1	TYPE 2	TYPE 3	TYPE 4	TYPE 5	Not clear TS or Grammar Errors	Total Number of Sentences
Total	150	153	60	4	83	13	463
Average	6	6.12	2.4	0.16	3.32	0.52	18.52
Standard Deviation	3.50	3.52	1.92	0.47	2.59	0.96	5.54

Table 5.9 shows Korean writers prefer Type 1 and Type 2 sentences where the topical subject and the grammatical subject are the same. American Freshmen preferred Type 1 and Type 2 like Korean Freshmen did, but they used more Type 3 which combines ISE and grammatical subject, and Type 5 which has ISE, topical subject, and grammatical subject as different. That means American Freshmen employed a more diverse style of

sentences than Korean Freshmen did. English is their native language so diverse structure provides an advantage.

More interestingly, American Freshmen made more grammatical errors (73) because they used more complicated sentence structures whereas Korean Freshmen' grammatical errors were far fewer at 13. Korean Freshmen made 60 fewer grammar errors compared with American Freshmen' because they used relatively simple sentence. This difference is also shown in the Standard Deviations.

Many of Korean Freshmen' errors are "invisible" topic subjects. Invisible topic subjects are an indicator of first language interference. One of the characteristics of Korean spoken and written language is that it is possible to omit core sentence elements such as the subject or object of a sentence. Many times it is possible to omit important grammar elements, such as sentence verbs, subjects or object. If interlocutors know about the subject or object of the discourse, there is no need to mention them repeatedly (Kim et al, 2005).

### **Quotation Method**

As explained in Chapter 2, there are major differences in quotation use and method between Korean Freshmen's writing and American Freshmen's writing. While American Freshmen quoted some parts of the original phrase, Korean Freshmen quoted the whole paragraph. In this research, using a part of a quotation in their essay was counted in the connected sentences. However, quoting a whole phrase was classified as a quotation and it is not counted as a sentence. Example 5.5 is an example of American Freshmen' quotation use, as well as Example 5.6.

## Example 5.5

*American Freshmen's quotation I*

First, Professor Burton's use of descriptive persuasive word choice leads the audience to think about a University education as out-of-date and irrelevant to the audience's technological and academic needs. He uses descriptive phrases like, **"The insanity of the GLACIAL PACE of the OLD SCHOOL trying lamely to hipify itself"** and **"Sheepskin vs. Online Identity"** and **"My first title here was "castrating student opportunity by transforming college at the speed of lava," but I thought that was a bit strong, so I revised"**. Reading these descriptions about the curriculum makes the audience believe what he says because of the connotations of the words he uses to describe a University education. **"Glacial pace"**, **"sheepskin"**, **"castrating student opportunity"**, are all very descriptive that causes the audience to picture in their mind what Burton describes and when they do so, they don't like it. Although the arguments may have some illogical fallacies, the emotions that this descriptive language create leaves a lasting feeling of negativity in the audience towards the current education setup.

Example 5.6 shows how American Freshmen's used more spoken discourse in their essays instead of using written discourse style than Korean Freshmen did. Korean Freshmen rarely used spoken discourse.

## Example 5.6

*American Freshmen's quotation I*

First, Kennedy's tone in this speech is very persuasive. At the start, Kennedy says there are more critical issues for 1960 elections to deal with other than religion. By saying that, he is trying to give the audience an idea that he concerns those critical issues more and he knows what should come before his religion.

**In his speech, Kennedy says:**

**"I believe in an America where the separation of church and state is absolute..."**

**"I believe in an America that is officially neither Catholic, Protestant nor Jewish..."**

**"Finally, I believe in an America where religious intolerance will someday end; where all men and all churches are treated as equal..."**

**"That is the kind of America in which I believe. And it represents the kind of presidency in which I believe — a great office that must neither be humbled by making it the instrument of any one religious group, nor tarnished by arbitrarily withholding its occupancy from the members of any one religious group. I believe in a president whose religious views are his own private affair, neither imposed by him upon the nation, or imposed by the nation upon him as a condition to holding that office."**

**"That is the kind of America in which I believe. And it represents the kind of presidency in which I believe..."**

In those paragraphs, he uses anaphora saying, "I believe" many times. This strengthens his appealing to the audience by repeating the same phrase. Instead of saying, "The U.S. is a free country", Kennedy softens his tone and says he believes in U.S. Since the audience was protestant ministers who questioned Kennedy's ability to govern the U.S. fairly. Kennedy needed to show them that he would separate the church and state absolutely to make them see him as a candidate of the U.S. president that they can trust to support; therefore, he reminds the audience what kind of country the U.S. is. He emphasizes that Catholic is just one of the religions in the U.S. that everyone has his/her right to choose freely and this right should not be disrupted by the prejudice because the law protects it. At the same time, Kennedy shows the audience that he knows how important and heavily responsible job the president of the U.S. is and his decision will not be influenced by his religious belief.

(This quotation was not counted as the number of sentences.)

Example 5.7 shows Korean Freshmen writing are affected by their mother language, such as run-on error, missing an article, and pronoun error. Those mistakes make it difficult

to strongly express their ideas to readers. As a result, for native English readers, the Korean writing style is vague and confusing until the reader reaches the last sentence.

#### Example 5.7

##### *Korean Freshmen's quotation II*

Throughout Obama's speech, there are multiple occasions in which he uses repetitive, paralleled sentences to set up climax and to better emphasize his stance. Leading up to the Presidential Election of 2004, a growing number of Americans began to show frustration toward the Bush administration, which seemed unresponsive to the increasing sense of division within the country over the most important issues of the day—some of which were the Iraq War, poverty, and education reform. In an effort to portray Kerry and Edwards, and ultimately himself, as problem-solvers who are capable of uniting those on both sides of the political spectrum, Obama emphasizes, **"I say to [pundits trying to divide us] that there is not a liberal America and a conservative America—there is the United States of America. There is not a Black America and a White America and Latino America and Asian America—there's the United States of America."** Shortly following this statement, Obama tries to instill a sense of hope for voters by saying, **"Hope in the face of difficulty. Hope in the face of uncertainty. The audacity of hope . . . that is God's greatest gift to us. A belief in things not seen. A belief that there are better days ahead."** Thus, by expressing his unwavering confidence in one united America and the capability that it has to wend its way through difficulty and uncertainty, Obama establishes himself as a vibrant yet optimistic leader whom the American people can trust in a time of crisis. In the closing part of his speech, it is evident that Obama makes one last outcry of effort to reach out to as many voters as possible— and does so again by resorting to paralleled, repetitive sentences: **"America! Tonight, if you feel the same energy that I do, if you feel the same urgency that I do, if you feel the same passion that I do, if you feel the same hopefulness that I do—if we do what we must do, the people will rise up in November, and John Kerry will be sworn in as President, and I have no doubt that . . . out of this long political darkness a brighter day will come."** By applying a climactic tone and using parallelism in a repeated manner, Obama's message is clear: it is only right that America, faced with an increasing sense of urgency, choose the Democratic Party if America wants to find a solution to put an end to the political woes that have been ailing the nation as a whole.

K22 Freshmen's second paragraph quotation

Example 5.8 shows American Freshmen's oral spoken discourse in their academic essays. This error was not found in Korean Freshmen's writing. Korea is in the EFL context so learners have less chance to speak English in their daily lives.

Example 5.10 shows American Freshmen's grammar mistakes are different from Koreans' (Example 5.9). They used longer sentences. So, their sentence structures need to



be separated by using punctuation marks. However, they were unable to use punctuation correctly. Thus, these long sentences hindered readers developing an understanding of their intentions. Also, they wrote with run-on sentences. These mistakes made it hard to follow the writers' stream of consciousness.

#### Example 5.8

##### *American Freshmen's oral spoken discourse*

Here is an experiment to try out. Go up to someone and ask "How many followers do you have on Instagram?" (assuming they have one) and listen to their estimation. Once they reply, get on Instagram and check how many followers they actually have. I bet you will be surprised by the accuracy of their estimation. In general, it is surprising how a majority of teens are fixated with their social media presence. But is this fixation beneficial or detrimental for teen's perceptions of who they should be? With the amount of time spent on social media, teens are exposed to false personas by those around them that portray seemingly "perfect" lifestyles. The article "Talking to Your Teen About Instagram and Perfection" discusses the falsehoods behind social media presences and the impressions they give to teenagers about their own lives.

##### **American Freshmen No 17's oral spoken discourse**

## Example 5.9

*Korean Freshmen's grammar mistakes*

Along with devastation within the country, the government tried to fix their political status quickly and to regain the trust of people, many politicians gave speeches about the mistakes that have been made inside the government and how they were going to try their best to prevent them further in future.

**Korean Freshmen No.5's run-on sentence error**

Some people play video game for fun, and some people play video games for living such as professional gamers and programmers.

**Korean Freshmen No.6's missing an article error**

A college degree is indeed essential to survival. In fact, according to a Georgetown University report, "The data are clear: a college degree is key to economic opportunity, conferring substantially higher earnings on those with credentials than those without" (Carnevale, Rose & Cheah, 2009). If one earns high, then **he** must definitely be someone with a college degree. Survival is also about competition and the only way to win is through a college degree.

**Korean Freshmen No.7's pronoun error**

## Example 5.10

*American Freshmen's grammar mistakes*

Next, Burton effectively distinguishes any counterarguments by acknowledging them succinctly then moving on quickly to make his argument look like the most appealing and important. He says, "Is the Internet a time waste? Oh, yeah! Aren't there predators and scam artists and pornographers by the bitload? Yes. And shouldn't we all be careful not to get sucked into a black hole of any type? We should. But the *biggest danger of the Internet* in your generation is that people are keeping themselves from taking advantage of it." The audience appreciates the recognition that the internet is not all good because they know that isn't true. **The audience is familiar with the arguments Burton acknowledges,** //(GE: should be a separated sentence )**so when he says the *biggest danger is not pornography or hackers, but not taking advantage of the internet, the audience's frame of thought shifts from "the internet has a lot of bad" to "how do I make sure to take advantage of my potential?"*** Throughout the article, **(punctuation error)** Burton addresses counterarguments and disarms them without many words; this tactic is effective because by minimizing each counterargument and maximizing his argument, the audience minimizes the importance of the counterarguments compared to the one Burton is advocating. The recognition appeases the audiences experience with the counterarguments but Burton's approach makes them feel his solution trumps the bad.

**American Freshmen No1's grammar mistakes**

**Do** they hold so strongly to the ideals of traditional marriage and anti-LGBT legislation, or do they hold to their ideals while trying to protect the rights of LGBT's.

→ **Interrogative sentence???**

**American Freshmen No3's grammar mistakes**

The humor helps create a casual tone; **as is** Garber is having a conversation with a close friend. → (; → ,) and (as is → as if)

**American Freshmen No5's grammar mistakes**

Growing up in a social media, technological based society, I completely understand teenagers comparison of themselves to others on their social media feed, and being a teenager myself I've only compared myself to others on social media about a million times, it is extremely hard not to. (→ **run-on sentences**) There will always be at least one girl or sometimes one guy on our Instagram feed that knows how to pose just right and use the perfect filter to make themselves look like Hollywood movie stars and Victoria Secret models, and many times after seeing these pictures we delete certain pictures from our own social media feeds that we think just don't measure up or we look at ourselves and think we need to start working out, trying a new face cream, or getting a different haircut. (→ **this sentence is need to be separated**)

**American Freshmen No6's grammar mistakes**

As the results showed, Korean Freshmen and American Freshmen used different strategies to persuade readers by using quotation, writing styles, and accuracy of grammar use.

## Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

As noted earlier, the research questions for this study are:

- 1) What if any, are the differences between Korean Freshmen writing and American Freshmen writing?
- 2) If there are differences, what are the major rhetorical development problems that Korean ESL students face in freshman composition classes?"
- 3) If American Freshmen write in a linear way, is it natural or is the linear "logical" frame a learned feature of academic writing in western culture?
- 4) Do American Freshmen write in a deductive style, while Koreans write in an inductive style?

The following discussion will draw on the results of this study to answer these questions. Perhaps because this is mostly a qualitative study focused on multiple variables, results for each question are mixed and interrelated so clear answers to each question are not apparent.

After Kaplan's famous article, "Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education," was published in 1967, many scholars began to consider that cultural factors influence rhetorical patterns in academic writing. Connor & Carrell (1993), Hamp-Lyons & Kroll (1996), Park (1998), and Cai (1999) addressed important factors such as genre, interpretation styles, topic, and cultures (as cited in Jung, 2006). These scholars expressed a need to acknowledge rhetorical traditions outside of the West in order to help ESL students learn about native English audience expectations for their English academic composition. Also, many earlier contrastive studies focused on culturally different text organizations and compared English rhetorical patterns with those used by Asian language writers such as

Chinese, Korean, and Japanese (Eggington, 1987; Hinds, 1987). However, there is a problem with many of these studies in that they did not distinguish whether the differences they found were caused by 1) learner variables, 2) cultural variables, 3) whether it was an educated academic writing style or not, and 4) pragmatic variables, or a mixture of some or all. In addition to answering the research questions, this study attempted to investigate these variables further with an emphasis on cultural variables.

Many previous studies have shown how writers' cultural backgrounds and their first language influence the organization of their writing. Korean writer's essays written in the unfamiliar academic rhetorical styles of the target culture can be perceived to be illogical to English readers.

Eggington (1987) investigated a Korean preferred rhetorical structure known as *ki-sung-chon-kyul*. It is found in academic writing at the beginning, development, and end of Korean discourse. This style consists of writers presenting the argument sentence, and then loosely developing that argument, stating the main point of the argument, developing concepts directly connected to the argument, and then concluding the main theme. For native English readers, the Korean writing style is vague and confusing until the reader reaches the last sentence.

Universally, many researchers have said that the American rhetorical pattern is linear and that the oriental rhetorical pattern is circular (Kaplan, 1966). Whereas American writing style is deductive which means a writer responsible orientation, traditional Korean writing style tended to be more inductive and indirect so they could express their modesty by avoiding conflicts. Given this tradition, I expected Korean Freshmen's writing to be inductive, but 63 percent of Koreans' essays and 69 percent of Americans' were written

following a deductive style. This result suggests that, across time, the preferred Korean writing style has changed from an inductive style to a deductive style. It is difficult to say that a so-called linear style is deductive while the so-called circular style is inductive. These are more subjective evaluations based upon cultural familiarity. However, what is apparent from previous research is that traditional Koreans tended to write in a more indirect way than the Western writing style. These days, however, Koreans are writing in a more direct and deductive style.

Another significant result is that 67 percent of the American Freshmen's thesis statements and 45 percent of Korean Freshmen's thesis statements were written in an inductive style, or there was no thesis statement at all. Whereas a total of 4 percent of American Freshmen did not write a topic sentence and a thesis statement, 27 percent of Korean Freshmen did not write topic sentences and thesis statements. The absence of a topic sentences and/or a thesis statement is very confusing for native English readers because, without these elements, they do not know what the writer is trying to say, especially in an academic linear way of writing.

There are some possibilities that the student writers did not consider that writing a topic sentence and a thesis statement were important, or that they thought they had written a topic sentence and a thesis statement in their essays. This possibility arises because the writing samples that were used in this research were first drafts written before students received feedback, and they were written by Freshmen who were not trained yet in how to write academic writing. These novice writers broke the basic academic writing rules.

The most common American Freshmen's mistakes were: 1) not dividing the paragraph when they changed their topic, 2) incorrect punctuation marks, 3) run-on sentence

errors caused because they wanted to write long sentences, and 4) using a spoken discourse style. As many researchers have mentioned, L2 learners' native language and culture can affect the L2. Thus, Korean Freshmen's grammatical mistakes are 1) not using articles, 2) omitting important grammatical elements, 3) pronoun errors, and 4) run-on sentence errors. Even though their sentences are not much longer compared to American Freshmen writing sentences, Korean Freshmen also made run-on sentence errors. Besides these grammatical errors, their essays were affected from their cultural and rhetorical differences. These grammatical differences and rhetorical differences can explain why Korean Freshmen writers wrote less clearly stated topic sentences and thesis statements.

As noted previously, traditionally, Korean society is a farming collectivism society, and politically, it was a royal regime-ruled bureaucratic society. Those features created a collectivism culture which required people to be harmonious and obey a hierarchy by showing respect. Since this hierarchical status system remained for more than one thousand years, Korea society developed a deep, high context stance (Hall, 1976) making it important to be aware of another person's face. This characteristic emphasizes politeness and conflict avoidance. For this reason, an indirect way of communication becomes one of the most important features in Korea society. In Korean writing, it is important for a writer to deliver ideas using circumlocution such as a circular rhetorical inductive pattern, which means it is a reader's responsibility to understand the writer. Even though Korean Freshmen have been educated in a deductive writing style in public schools, this habit still remains causing students to not present their ideas strongly, or to delay what they wanted to say. In other words, features of Korean language and rhetorical patterns hindered Korean Freshmen in their ability to express their ideas strongly, thus not following an academic writing style.



In order to write in a linear style following academic writing assumptions, no matter which native language they use, writers need to be taught. This necessary requirement of consciously learning an academic writing style has been proven in this research through the examination of the unedited Korean Freshmen's writing. As Eggington (1987) mentioned, traditionally, Koreans used an inductive way of developing topic, but after 30 years have passed, 63 percent of Korean Freshmen used a deductive style in this research. Thus, even though Korean language features and rhetorical patterns are still the same, their writing style has changed from an inductive style to a deductive style.

Well written academic writing requires 1) using a variety of vocabulary, 2) no grammar errors, and 3) well-developed progression. Among three elements, progression is the most important for general readers to follow a writer's coherence. TSA allows researchers to see progression in the essay. As such, the number of topics is the key element in the results of a TSA.

By comparing American Freshmen's "Total number of Topics" with "Total number of sentences," it can be seen that they used 68 percent of topics in their essays. That means they used 6.8 new topics per 10 sentences. Korean Freshmen used 63 percent of "The Total number of Topics." The higher number of topics hinders coherence in writing, but interestingly American Freshmen used more new topics than Korean Freshmen did. This result indicates that even though novice writers (American and Korean Freshmen) used several topics per paragraph, these topics were irrelevant in that the topics were not related to the discourse topic. They tried to develop their ideas using several topics but it produced confusion.

With respect to using complicated sentences, Korean Freshmen preferred Type 1 and Type 2 discourse structures, but American Freshmen preferred using more diverse grammatical sentences. The TSA results indicate that novice student writers are not focused on developing a topical subject preferring instead to almost randomly list ideas without drawing connections. Table 5.2 shows that total American Freshmen's 55 percent (Transition or Listing new topic & Irrelevant topic) and total Korean Freshmen's 38 percent of the sentences have no progression instead they inserted irrelevant topics.

In summary, this study analyzed American Freshmen and Korean Freshmen's writing to discover discourse topic problems with the aim of eventually being able to distinguish between learner variables, cultural variables, or pragmatic variables. The results show that L1 and L1 cultural variables play a significant role in influencing English writing. One of the remarkable mistakes was wrong word choice perhaps related to pragmatic variables.

Additionally, the American Freshmen's results show the necessity of learning academic writing. Even though English is their native language, they made more mistakes than Korean Freshmen's writing. The type of sentences results and the TSA also prove the necessity of receiving instruction in academic writing.

For this research, I analyzed students' writing from freshmen writing classes. It may be seen that a limitation for this study was that I had no knowledge of subjects' backgrounds with respect to their writing development and type of instruction that they had received. However, the main purpose of this study is to investigate rhetorical differences between American students and Korean students. So, I did not consider how each student background effects their writing. Instead of researching in-depth personal writing

preferences, I wanted to know if there are rhetorical development differences between American freshmen and Korean freshmen. In other words, I wanted to compare rhetorical development differences between a English first language writer group and a second language learner group consisting of Korean speakers. Depending on research purpose, there are some limitations in making generalizations.

The second limitation is that it analyzes novice American and Korean Freshmen's first draft compositions. Unlike professional writing, the novice writers' essays contain many vague elements and missing important elements. These features made it hard to analyze their writing such as finding a topical subject. For this reason, the researcher's subjective judgement played an important role. So, in further research, it will be good to analyze the rhetorical development of other levels of American and Korean writers and then compare the two groups.

The motivation for this study began by challenging Kaplan's idea that Americans naturally preferred a linear style as part of their culture while Koreans naturally preferred a spiral or circular style. Much previous research in this contrastive rhetoric field had often compared carefully edited published articles or excerpts from books written by well-educated Americans such as university professors or professional writers with unedited or loosely edited rhetoric by Korean ESL students. This approach led to some incorrect conclusions that suggested Americans naturally wrote in a linear style while Koreans wrote in a non-linear style. This study contrasted unedited, first draft rhetoric written by both American and Korean writers. Results show that both American and Korean novice writers had difficulty following an academic writing pattern. In fact, Korean writers tended to develop their topics in a linear style possibly because they learned how to do that through

their educational experience. On the other hand, many American writers were not taught how to write following linear logic. For this reason, instruction is more important than cultural preferences. Even if American students were doing stream of consciousness writing, the Korean students had structure, whereas there was less structure for the American students.

Thus, it may be that the acquisition of the academic linear writing style is far more nurture than nature.

## References

- Almaden, O. (2006). An analysis of the topical structure of paragraphs written by Filipino students. *The Asia-Pacific Education Research*, 15(1), 127-153.
- Attelisi, A. (2012). The impact of teaching topical structure analysis on EFL writing with special reference to undergraduate students in Libya. Doctoral dissertation. University of Newcastle.
- Biber, D., & Gray, B. (2010). Challenging stereotypes about academic writing: Complexity, elaboration, explicitness. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(1), 2-20.
- Burns, A & Joyce, H (2005). Teachers' voices 8: Explicitly supporting reading and writing in the classroom. Macquarie University.
- Candlin & K. Hyland (Eds). *Writing: Texts, processes & practices*. UK: Addison Wesley Longman Lt, 122-141.
- Cheng, X., & Steffensen, M. (1996). Metadiscourse: A technique for improving student writing. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 30(2), 149-181.
- Cho, J. H.A. (1999). A study of contrastive rhetoric between East Asian and North American cultures as demonstrated through student expository essays from Korea and the United States. *Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts*.
- Cho, K.S. (2003). The Typological Study on Tense/Aspect Systems of English and Korean. *The Linguistic Association of Korea Journal*, 11(4), 185-210.
- Cho, Y. M et al. (2010). *Integrated Korean: Beginning 1*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, University of Hawaii Press.
- Choi, J. S. (2005). A contrastive analysis of argumentative essays written in English by Korean ESL students and by native English-speaking students. Doctoral dissertation. Southern Illinois University.
- Connor, U. (1987). Research frontiers in writing analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 677-696.
- Connor, U. (1996). New Directions in Contrastive Rhetoric. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 493-510.
- D'Andrade, R. (2001). A cognitivist's view of the units debate in cultural anthropology. *Cross-Cultural Research* 35(2): 242-257.
- De Beaugrande, R., & Dressler, W. (1981). *Introduction to text linguistics*. UK: Longman Group Limited. EFL Learners' Writing. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 16.3 148-159.
- Eggington, W. G. (1987). Written academic discourse in Korean: Implications for effective communication. In U. Connor & R. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley, 153- 168.
- Goddard, C. (1992). Traditional Yankunytjatjara ways of speaking—A semantic perspective. *Australian Journal of Linguistics* 12(1): 93-122.
- Grabe, W. (2017). Shaping an agenda through experience(s). *Language Teaching*, 50(1), 120-134.
- Greenberg, J. H. (1963). Some Universals of Grammar with Particular Reference to the Order of Meaningful Elements. In Greenberg, Joseph H. (ed.), *Universals of Human Language*, 73-113. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
- Grimes, J. E (1975). *The thread of Discourse*. Janua Linguarum, Series Minor, 207. The Hague, Mouton.
- Halliday, M & Hansan. R (1976). *Cohesion in English*. Longman.

- Halliday, M (2004). *An Introduction to functional grammar* (4<sup>th</sup> ed), London: Edward Arnold.
- Hinds, J. (1987). Reader versus writer responsibility: A new typology. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 Text* (pp. 141-152).
- Hinkel, E. (1994). Native and nonnative speakers' pragmatic interpretations of English texts.
- Hoenish, S. (2009). Topical structure analysis of accomplished English prose. Master dissertation. The City University of New York.
- Hofstede, G. (1980) *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills: Sage. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Hong, S (1992). A study on the Hierarchical order of Courtesy and the Architectural Composition of Placement in the Cho-sun Dynasty. *Review of Architecture and Building Science*, Vol. 8 (2), 40.
- Johns, A. (1986). Coherence and academic writing: Some definition and suggestions for teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(2), 247- 261.
- Jung, M. N (2006). Contrastive rhetoric in second language writing instruction: the context of Korean Freshmen. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*. 16, 113-127.
- Kaplan, R. (1967), *Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-Cultural Education*. *Language Learning* 16:1-2, 21.
- Kaplan, R. (1987). Cultural patterns revisited. In U. Connor & R.B. Kaplan (Eds), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 texts* (pp. 9-21). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company Inc.
- Kim, J. Park, D., Lee, B., Lee, H., Jung, H., Choi, J., Hu, Y. (2005). Korean grammar structure for the foreigner. The National Institute of the Korean Language.
- Kim, K. (2008). A descriptive study of Korean ESL students' experiences and perceptions of the writing processes in U.S. mainstream college classes. Doctoral dissertation. Columbia University.
- Kim, Y. K. (2012). Inter-relationship between sentence structure (word order) and cultural structure: A case study in Korean and English. *English America research*, 27. 272-301.
- Kim, Y.W (2009). The effect of cultural predictors on perceived ethicality of negotiation behavior: A comparison of Chemyon and Hofstede's cultural dimensions. *South Korean media information society*, 46(2). 212 -244.
- Kubota, R., & Lehner, A. (2004). Toward critical contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13(1), 7-27.
- Lautamatti, L. (1987). Observations on the development of the topic of simplified discourse. In U. Connor & R.B. Kaplan (Eds), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 texts* 87-114.
- Lautamatti, L. (1987). Observations on the development of the topic in simplified discourse. *Language center for Finnish Universities*, 71-104.
- Lee, I. (2002). Helping students develop coherence in writing. *Forum*, 40(3), 32-39.
- McCrimmon, J. (1984). *Writing with a purpose* (8<sup>th</sup> Ed). Boston: *English Teaching Forum* 40(2), 32-38.
- M-H, & Lee, K-Y. (2008). Syntactic features of Korea English: Word order, ellipsis, articles, prepositions, passive, miscellaneous. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 81-95.

- Moore, R. (1971). *Effective writing* (4<sup>th</sup> ed). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.
- Moussu, L., David, N. (2015). Writing centers: finding a center for ESL writers. In *ESL Readers and Writers in Higher Education: Understanding Challenges, Providing Support*. N. Evans, N. Anderson, W. Eggington.
- Noor, R. (2001). Contrastive rhetoric in expository prose: Approaches and achievements. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 33, 255-269.
- Nunan, D. (1995). *The write stuff: Achieving coherence in scientific writing*. Rinehart & Winston, Inc.
- Paik, P. J. (2010). *Korean grammar dictionary*. How press.
- Pajares, F. & Johnson, M. (1996). The role of self-efficacy, outcome expectancy, and apprehension. *Research in The Teaching of English*, 28(3), 318-329.
- Qi, X., Liu, L. (2007). *Differences between Reader/Writer Responsible Languages Reflected in Reading*, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company Inc.
- Robert, J. T., Jill . L. (1980). The rights and responsibilities of readers. Reading Education Report No. 15. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Ryu, H. (2006). Rhetorical patterns in Korean college students' English writing. *English Teaching*, 61(3), 273-292.
- Seth, M. (2006). *A concise History of Korea: From the Neolithic period through the Nineteenth century*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 106.
- Simpson, J.M. (2000). Topical structure analysis of academic paragraphs in English and Spanish. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(3), 293-309.
- Somlak, L., Walaiporn, C., Tipa, T. (2013) The effect of topical structure analysis instruction on university students' writing quality. *English language teaching*. 6(7), 60-71.
- Son, B. (2001). *The Influence of Thought and Culture on Language*, Kyeongsang univ. doctoral dissertation.
- Tannen, B. (1984). The pragmatics of cross-cultural communication. *Applied Linguistics* 5(3), 189-195.
- Tirkkonen-Condit, Sonja and Luise Lieflander-Koistinene (1989). *Argumentation in Finnish versus English and German Editorials. Text, Interpretation, Argumentation*. Hamburg, Germany: Helmut BusketVerlag, 173-181.
- Tomlin, R (1985). Foreground-background information and the syntax of subordination. *Text*, 5(1-2), 85-122.
- Van Dijk, T.A (1980) . *Macrostructures. An Interdisciplinary study of Global structures in discourse, Interaction and Cognition*, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Veluz, O. (1992). *TSA as basis for evaluating coherence in student writing and for developing self-learning materials to teach coherence in written discourse*. Unpublished dissertation, De La Salle University-Manila, Philippines.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction Between Learning and development. In Gauvain & Cole (Eds) *Reading on the Development of Children*. New York: Scientific American Books, pp 34-40.
- Walker, D. (2004). *An examination of contrastive rhetoric teaching methods for EFL university students*. Doctoral dissertation. Southern Illinois University.
- Wierzbicka, A. (1985). Different languages, different cultures, different speech acts: English vs. Polish. *Journal of Pragmatics* 9: 145-178.
- Xing, M., Wang, J., Spencer, K. (2008). Raising students' awareness of cross-cultural

- contrastive rhetoric in English writing via an e-learning course, *Language Learning & Technology*. 71-93.
- Yin, K. (2015) Topical structure analysis as an assessment tool in student academic writing. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 21(1): 103 – 115.
- 김문조 (2013). 한국인은 누구인가. 21 세기 북스
- 최경구 (1996). 한국사회의 이해. 일신사



## APPENDIX

Table 5.1

*Each American student's Inductive & Deductive*<sup>15</sup>

	NO	Location of Topic sentence	D/I/M/None	Location of thesis statement	D/I/M/None	total number of sentences
1	A1	4	M	5	M	7
2		1	I	1	I	5
3		5	M	5	M	11
4	A2	1	D	3	D	9
5		1	D	0	None	7
6		1	D	13	I	13
7	A3	4	D	5	M	20
8		1	D	11	I	11
9		1	D	13	I	13
10	A4	3	D	10	M	15
11		1	D	13	I	13
12		1	D	3	D	9
13	A5	1	D	3	I	5
14		1	D	16	I	16
15		1	D	13	I	13
16	A6	3	M	4	I	4
17		1	D	1	D	2
18		1	D	5	I	5
19	A7	10	M	12	I	14
20		1	D	3	D	11
21		1	D	9	I	10
22	A8	5	M	8	M	11
23		1	D	3	D	13
24		1	D	5	I	7
25	A9	3	M	5	I	5
26		4	D	6	M	17
27		1	D	2	D	9

<sup>15</sup> Each student's three paragraphs were selected in their whole essays.

28	A10	6	I	6	I	6
29		1	D	2	D	7
30		1	D	2	D	10
31	A11	4	M	8	I	8
32		1	D	2	D	11
33		1	D	4	I	5
34	A12	12	M	16	M	21
35		1	D	2	D	7
36		1	D	12	I	12
37	A13	3	M	4	M	7
38		1	D	3	D	16
39		1	D	1	D	14
40	A14	4	M	5	I	6
41		1	D	2	D	8
42		1	D	2	D	12
43	A15	10	I	11	I	12
44		5	I	6	I	6
45		9	I	10	I	11
46	A16	9	D	10	M	15
47		1	D	8	I	8
48		1	D	10	I	10
49	A17	9	I	11	I	11
50		1	D	6	I	6
51		1	D	5	I	5
52	A18	2	D	3	I	4
53		1	D	2	D	11
54		1	D	2	D	14
55	A19	3	M	4	I	4
56		1	D	2	D	7
57		1	D	3	I	3
58	A20	3	M	5	I	5
59		7	I	8	I	8
60		1	D	2	D	9
61	A21	1	D	2	D	5
62		2	D	5	I	7
63		1	D	2	D	7
64	A22	1	D	4	M	8
65		1	D	2	D	7

66		6	I	7	I	8
67	A23	2	D	5	I	5
68		1	D	2	D	10
69		0	None	0	None	5
70	A24	2	D	3	D	7
71		1	D	2	D	7
72		3	D	4	M	10
73	A25	8	I	8	I	8
74		8	I	1	D	8
75		1	D	7	I	7

Table 5.2

*Each Korean student's Inductive & Deductive*

NO	Korean number of topic sentence	Deductive (D) Inductive (I) Middle (M) None	number of thesis statement	Deductive (D) Inductive (I) Middle (M) None	total number of sentences
K1	2	D	7	I	8
	1	D	2	D	10
	1	D	5	M	8
K2	6	I	0	None	8
	1	D	1	D	5
	1	D	1	D	3
K3	1	D	0	None	5
	1	D	1	D	7
	1	D	1	D	5
K4	7	I	7	I	7
	1	D	2	D	8
	1	D	2	D	13
K5	0	None	10	I	10
	1	D	1	D	4
	1	D	2	D	3
K6	4	D	0	None	11
	1	D	1	D	5
	1	D	2	D	2
K7	3	I	3	I	3
	1	D	1	D	6

	1	D	1	D	13
K8	0	None	0	None	4
	5	M	5	M	11
	1	D	1	D	3
K9	1	D	3	D	10
	10	I	10	I	12
	1	D	1	D	4
K10	4	I	5	I	5
	2	D	2	D	3
	1	D	1	D	3
K11	1	D	3	D	3
	1	D	1	D	12
	1	D	1	D	5
K12	1	D	1	D	5
	6	I	6	I	6
	0	None	0	None	5
K13	1	D	1	D	9
	1	D	1	D	6
	1	D	1	D	3
K14	1	D	4	I	4
	1	D	1	D	6
	1	D	1	D	9
K15	1	D	12	I	12
	1	D	1	D	6
	3	I	3	D	10
K16	2	I	2	D	16
	4	I	4	M	6
	0	None	0	None	5
K17	1	D	5	M	12
	1	D	2	D	2
	4	I	4	I	4
K18	1	D	10	I	10
	3	I	3	I	3
	1	D	1	D	4
K19	4	I	5	I	5
	7	I	7	I	10
	1	D	1	D	4
K20	8	I	9	I	10

	1	D	1	D	2
	1	D	1	D	2
K21	11	I	11	I	11
	1	D	1	D	1
	1	D	1	D	2
K22	3	I	3	I	3
	1	D	1	D	5
	0	None	0	None	3
K23	4	I	4	I	4
	0	None	0	None	6
	1	I	2	I	9
K24	3	D	3	D	3
	3	D	3	D	8
	1	D	2	D	8
K25	0	None	0	None	2
	0	None	0	None	1
	0	None	0	None	2

Table 5.3

*American Freshmen & Korean Freshmen' Total Number of Sentences and Topic Subjects*

NO of American's essay	Total number of sentences	Total number of topic	NO of Korean's essay	Total number of sentences	Total number of topic
A1	23	20	K1	26	10
A2	29	20	K2	16	12
A3	44	39	K3	17	10
A4	37	19	K4	28	15
A5	34	19	K5	17	12
A6	11	9	K6	18	14
A7	35	20	K7	22	20
A8	31	22	K8	18	16
A9	31	18	K9	26	21
A10	23	13	K10	11	7
A11	24	12	K11	20	14
A12	40	26	K12	16	7
A13	37	26	K13	18	12
A14	26	13	K14	19	11
A15	29	20	K15	28	20

A16	33	22	K16	27	13
A17	22	21	K17	18	7
A18	29	24	K18	17	10
A19	14	12	K19	19	11
A20	22	16	K20	14	8
A21	19	15	K21	14	10
A22	23	14	K22	11	10
A23	20	11	K23	19	13
A24	24	19	K24	19	7
A25	23	14	K25	5	4
Total	683	464	Total	463	294
Average	27.32	18.56	Average	18.52	11.76
Standard Deviation	7.957	6.305	Standard Deviation	5.539	4.304

Table 5.4

*The number of words of American Freshmen & Korean Freshmen*

NO of American's Essay	Total Number of Words	NO of Korean's Essay	Total Number of Words
A1	542	K1	648
A2	855	K2	265
A3	1111	K3	317
A4	620	K4	572
A5	783	K5	408
A6	510	K6	331
A7	867	K7	696
A8	627	K8	450
A9	749	K9	443
A10	740	K10	299
A11	641	K11	471
A12	1110	K12	220
A13	1024	K13	276
A14	588	K14	417
A15	493	K15	562
A16	815	K16	291
A17	634	K17	380

A18	580	K18	302
A19	417	K19	470
A20	413	K20	210
A21	534	K21	335
A22	334	K22	436
A23	498	K23	429
A24	592	K24	430
A25	479	K25	102
Total	16,556	Total	9,760

Table 5.7

*American Freshmen' TSA*

NO	PP	EPP	SP	ESP	IR(Irrelevant) Transition or Listing new topic
A1	3	2	2	1	12
A2	6	3	0	2	17
A3	9	1	5	3	19
A4	10	3	7	2	12
A5	10	1	1	1	17
A6	1	0	1	1	5
A7	7	2	0	2	21
A8	6	1	2	0	18
A9	6	1	0	1	20
A10	9	2	1	1	11
A11	6	3	2	2	8
A12	12	2	3	0	20
A13	6	2	1	1	23
A14	8	4	0	1	10
A15	3	3	2	2	16
A16	8	1	5	2	14
A17	0	0	1	2	16
A18	2	0	2	2	20
A19	0	1.0	2.0	0	8
A20	5	2	0	0	12

A21	2	2	3	2	7
A22	1	1	5	7	7
A23	2	3	2	2	7
A24	3	2	3	1	12
A25	2	5	2	2	5
Total	127	47	52	40	337

Table 5.8

*Korean Freshmen' TSA*

NO	PP	EPP	SP	ESP	IR(Irrelevant) Transition or Listing new topic
K1	7	5	2	3	5
K2	1	2	0	0	7
K3	4	0	1	0	9
K4	15	3	7	0	0
K5	6	1	1	1	5
K6	3	3	1	4	4
K7	2	0	4	1	12
K8	2	0	1	2	10
K9	5	2	2	2	11
K10	4	0	0	1	2
K11	4	2	3	1	8
K12	8	1	2	0	1
K13	7	0	2	1	5
K14	6	3	2	0	6
K15	4	2	3	1	15
K16	11	3	1	1	7
K17	7	4	2	0	2
K18	4	4	2	0	4
K19	4	3	2	0	7
K20	4	2	0	0	5
K21	4	2	1	0	4
K22	1	0	1	1	5
K23	3	2	1	1	9



K24	10	1	2	1	2
K25	0	0	0	0	1
TOTAL	126	45	43	21	146

Table 5.9

*Each American student's Type of sentence*

NO	TYPE 1	TYPE 2	TYPE 3	TYPE 4	TYPE 5	Not clear TS/ Errors	Total Sentences
A1	8	4	7	0	4	0	23
A2	21	1	4	0	2	1	29
A3	16	7	8	1	10	2	44
A4	9	6	16	0	5	1	37
A5	14	5	11	0	4	0	34
A6	2	1	5	0	2	1	11
A7	9	5	10	0	5	6	35
A8	6	4	11	0	4	6	31
A9	1	3	6	0	11	10	31
A10	2	4	3	0	11	3	23
A11	2	4	5	0	9	4	24
A12	14	4	5	2	1	14	40
A13	7	4	14	0	10	2	37
A14	7	0	8	0	10	1	26
A15	2	2	15	0	5	5	29
A16	8	0	14	0	10	1	33
A17	2	1	5	0	10	4	22
A18	12	1	7	1	3	5	29
A19	7	1	3	0	3	0	14
A20	9	5	6	1	0	1	22
A21	3	6	0	2	8	0	19
A22	7	6	3	0	5	2	23
A23	8	2	3	0	5	2	20
A24	3	2	7	1	9	2	24
A25	13	5	1	0	0	0	19
Total	192	83	177	8	146	73	679
	28%	12%	26%	1%	22%	11%	100%

Table 5.10

*Each Korean student's Type of sentence*

NO	TYPE 1	TYPE 2	TYPE 3	TYPE 4	TYPE 5	Not clear TS/ Errors	Total Sentences
K1	7	12	1	1	5	0	26
K2	6	2	3	0	2	3	16
K3	0	16	1	0	0	0	17
K4	14	10	3	0	1	0	28
K5	7	4	2	0	3	1	17
K6	5	5	5	0	3	0	18
K7	4	5	5	0	8	0	22
K8	8	6	2	0	2	0	18
K9	8	6	6	0	4	2	26
K10	5	4	2	0	0	0	11
K11	5	9	1	0	5	0	20
K12	7	4	3	0	2	0	16
K13	1	1	5	0	11	0	18
K14	4	2	5	2	5	1	19
K15	9	6	5	0	6	2	28
K16	15	4	4	0	3	1	27
K17	6	8	1	0	3	0	18
K18	7	7	1	1	1	0	17
K19	5	8	3	0	3	0	19
K20	8	3	1	0	2	0	14
K21	6	6	1	0	1	0	14
K22	1	7	0	0	3	0	11
K23	7	5	0	0	4	3	19
K24	2	11	0	0	6	0	19
K25	3	2	0	0	0	0	5
Total	150	153	60	4	83	13	463
	32%	33%	13%	1%	18%	3%	100%