A CASE STUDY OF NATIVE-ENGLISH-SPEAKING (NES) INSTRUCTORS
TEACHING ENGLISH WRITING IN A UNIVERSITY IN CHINA

By

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College English Test Band 4 (CET 4)   is national English test in the People's Republic of China. The test includes listening, reading, and writing sections. The CET is mandatory for university students in China, who are not English majors. It is also a prerequisite for a bachelor's degree. Many employers in China prefer applicants with CET certification. See more on http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/College_English_Test.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL)   English is used or taught to non-native speakers in environments where English is not the common language or the official language. EFL learners may hear very little English outside the classroom.

English Language Learners (ELL)   refers to students whose first language is not English.

English as Second Language (ESL)   English is used by speakers in a predominantly English-speaking environment but whose first language or home language is not English. For example, like non-English speaking immigrants to the U.K., Canada, or the U.S.

First Language (L1)   (also native language, mother tongue, arterial language) is the language(s) a person has learned from birth, or that a person speaks the best and so is often the basis for sociolinguistic identity.

Second Language (L2)   the language a person knows, is learning or is acquiring in addition to their first language.

Native English-Speaker (NES)   refers to those people that come from English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States and speak English as their first or home language.

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Written English, as a way of communication in the globalized world, plays an increasingly important role in China. However, English instruction in China is still at the beginning stage and many instructors are unprepared to teach English writing. Therefore, native-English-speaking (NES) instructors are hired to teach English writing. As an increasing number of NES instructors are teaching English in China, a growing number of studies report issues, problems, and unsatisfactory results in NES instructors' classes. There are few studies about NES instructors' teaching of English writing specifically. A deeper understanding of NES English writing instructors is urgently needed. This study explores the pedagogical approaches adopted by NES instructors and examines the possible issues and problems.

This classroom-based case study was conducted in a southern Chinese university. Grounded in a Constructive paradigm, the study included participants of three NES instructors and 27 Chinese students. Data were collected over a period of 18 weeks of classroom observations, formal and informal interviews, surveys, and artifacts. Additionally, seven NES instructors who taught English writing in six other Chinese universities all over China were surveyed as a supplementary data source. Methods

derived from both Merriam's (1998) within-case and cross-case analysis and Corbin and Strauss' (1990) grounded theory informed the data analysis.

It is a widely held myth that all native English speaking language instructors are capable of teaching English writing (Li, 2009). The study raises questions regarding the criteria of hiring English writing instructors in Chinese universities. Teaching English writing, like teaching other subjects, is a professional discipline that requires well-trained and knowledgeable instructors. The study indicates that the NES instructors generally treated teaching writing as language instruction. They stressed students' linguistic accuracy instead of composition, lecture over practice, and treated writing as a controlled process. They did not respond to the students' specific needs while they wrote, nor direct students to make their language more effective through the process of revision. Consequently, the students learned a minimum number of skills that they could apply in their future writing.

The study indicated that NES instructors hired for their native language abilities may not be well prepared to teach English writing or be aware of the literacy knowledge rooted in rhetorical traditions that students bring with them. This study has significant implications for understanding the expertise of expatriate NES instructors, for selecting qualified NES writing instructors and properly supporting them once they have been hired, and it suggests the need for more research on expatriate NES writing instructors.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

In the past thirty years, English has become the most popular foreign language in China. Currently, over 300 million Chinese people learn English (Zhang, 2008). Gray (2000) stated, "The study of English is extremely popular in China. Language schools are flourishing in the big cities. Chinese TV and radio have daily English language programs. . . . There are now more 'foreign experts' teaching English in the country than ever before" (p.1). Students in China start to learn English in the third grade as a mandatory subject and continue to study it through college. It is also one of three required core subjects in College Entrance Examination (CEE), a critical exam that has a life-changing impact on Chinese students. English competence leads to promotion, better-paying jobs, better business, overseas study, and travel opportunities.

However, the fast-increasing English learning population results in a shortage of teachers of English in China. According to the Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) (2010), statistics regarding English instructors and enrolled college students at Chinese universities indicate that the teacher and student ratio is over 1:130. Qualified English teachers are highly in demand at all school levels. This great need for English instructors opens a big job market for native English-speaking (NES) instructors to teach English in China. By the year 2007, there were totally 10,141 instructors from other countries teaching at universities in China (The Ministry of Education, 2007). The number would be much higher if teachers hired for kindergartens, elementary, middle and high schools, as well as various private language schools, were taken into account. There were also many part-time NES instructors that were not included.

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NES instructors have a long history of being involved in English education in China since 1862 (Porter, 1987). They were thought to have an advantage in that they speak fluent English and know Western culture (Li, 2009). However, studies on NES teachers' instruction revealed that NES teachers did not achieve the anticipated results. Bafflement, tension, and even resistance were frequently reported in the English classes taught by NES teachers (Chen, 2008; Ferguson, 2005; Gingerich, 2004; Jiang, 2001; Klein, 2004; Li & Fan, 2007; Li, 2009; Matalene, 1985; Tang & Absalom, 1998; Simpson, 2008). Li and Fan (2007) discovered that there were severe mismatches in communication styles between NES teachers and Chinese students due to their different cultural backgrounds. Matelene (1985) revealed that rhetoric differences between Chinese and English resulted in miscommunications between NES instructor and Chinese students. Besides cultural and rhetorical differences, other factors such as NES instructors' learning and teaching experience (Klein, 2004), teacher's knowledge (Klein, 2004; Gingerich, 2004), and teacher's belief and expectations (Jiang, 2001; Matalene, 1985; Tang & Absalom, 1998) influenced the efficacy of NES instructors' instructional results.

There are many reasons that NES instructors are hired to teach in Chinese universities: to form a bridge between Chinese and foreign universities in teaching and research, to boost the host university's international image, to compensate for teacher shortages (Porter, 1990), and to fill knowledge gaps in certain subjects (Mahoney, 1990). NES teachers vary significantly in terms of their personal, educational, instructional, professional, cultural, and religious backgrounds. Some universities fill in English teaching positions with unqualified native English speakers as instructors who

agree for lower wages or the spouses of NES who may not have any English teaching background or teaching experience (Li, 2009). Researchers (Li, 2009; Porter, 1990) observed that an influx of unqualified NES instructors leads to undesirable results of English instruction by NES instructors in Chinese universities. The lack of qualifications in teaching EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners, coupled with cultural, linguistic, and pedagogical differences between NES instructors and their students causes many issues and problems.

Problem Statement

To keep up with the fast pace of the country's economic development, the Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) revised the Chinese college English curriculum in 1995, 1999, 2004, and 2007 respectively. In the 1995 college English curriculum, cross-cultural communication competence in both oral and written form was emphasized; hence, the teaching of English writing became a part of English curriculum. English writing turned into a significant part in CET 4 (College English Test band 4) that all Chinese college students must take and pass in order to receive a bachelor's degree. In the last two editions of the National College English Curriculum, three levels of language proficiency were defined—the basic level, the intermediate level, and the advanced level (The Ministry of Education 2004, 2007). College graduates need to reach at least the basic level. In some universities in big cities, college students are required to reach the advanced level in order to find a good job. In terms of the advanced level writing, students need "to be able to express their opinions in written form fluently, and be able to know how to use reference books to write well-organized reports or articles in their subject areas" (College English Curriculum, 2007, p.12).

For English majors, English writing as an independent discipline began in the 1980s (You, 2004). English writing requirements for English major students are higher than those for college graduates in general, as they are more likely to use English writing to achieve their professional and academic success as English teachers, journalists, or in pursuit of a further degree. English major students need to be "fluent writers" who need to write a research report in English to graduate. In addition, there is an exit exam—TEM (Test for English Majors) specifically for English majors, in which they need to write a well-developed essay of about 500 words. The requirements for English writing competence in the exit exam by MOE appear to have pressure on colleges to put English writing instruction in an important place. Effective writing instruction is urgently needed in China, especially for English major students.

However, English writing instruction in the current Chinese college English curriculum is underdeveloped. The prevalent methodology for English teaching in China is a grammar-translation approach with a small group using the audio-lingual or communicative approaches (Xu, 1989; Zhang, 2008). English writing plays an insignificant role in all the three approaches (Xu, 1989). To prepare students for high-stake tests, Chinese English instructors tend to teach students to write in five-paragraph style (He, 2009). Writing for communicative and authentic purposes is rare. Current English writing instruction by no means prepares Chinese students enough to use written English as a communication tool in the globalized world.

Although China has a long history of English instruction, the teaching of English writing is relatively new at Chinese universities and is still at a beginning stage. Because of a lack of English writing instruction, most Chinese students struggle to write in

English. According to IELT (International English Language Testing System) official statistics, Chinese students' English writing ability is by far below average and ranked among the last few internationally (IELT, 2009). Xu (1993) reported that Chinese students who now study science and engineering in the United States have almost no English writing experience and have not been taught how to write in English throughout their educational career.

Teachers of English in China were not prepared to teach English writing. Researchers showed that Chinese teachers of English found teaching English writing to be challenging (He, 2009; Xu, 1993), because they neither learned to write in English nor trained to teach English writing in their education. As a result, there is a shortage of qualified English writing teachers in China. Chinese universities have to hire NES to solve the problem. Usually NES are hired on the basis of their perceived ability to teach listening and speaking. However, with the demand for English writing teachers, they, as gap-fillers, are also assigned to teach English writing. More NES will be hired to teach English writing as government requirements and high-stakes English tests such as CEE, CET, and TEM continue.

According to a few studies (Arndt, 1987; Li, 2009; Matalene, 1985; You, 2006), some issues and tensions have been reported in expatriate NES instructors' English writing classes. Chinese students complained that they had learned nothing from NES instructors' writing classes and were not satisfied with the NES instructor's qualifications to teach English writing (Li, 2009). In turn, NES instructors complained about Chinese students' poor English language and writing skills and found that Chinese students lacked knowledge of academic writing, rhetorical traditions, and structures when writing

in English (Arndt, 1987; You, 2006). Few researchers studied the reasons that caused the unsatisfactory results in NES instructors' writing classes.

Although there is a large body of literature on expatriate NES instructors' teaching experiences overseas, research on NES instructors teaching English writing is sporadic. Among a few reports on NES instructors' English writing instruction, most are based on personal teaching experience (Jiang, 2001; Gingerich, 2004; Li & Fan, 2007; Mckay, 1992; Simpson, 2008; Slethaug, 2007; Tang & Absalom, 1998). These reports have provided insights and suggestions on EFL writing taught from the NES instructors' perspective, but did not provide sufficient evidence for an understanding of NES writing instructors' teaching approaches. In addition, most of the research on NES instructors in cross-cultural studies did not include the perceptions of the students (Archer, 1986; Jiang, 2001; Li & Fan, 2007; Matalene, 1985; Mckay, 1992; Simpson, 2008; Slethaug, 2007; Tang & Absalom, 1998). Shi (2001) suggested that more studies are needed to examine how Chinese students respond to NES teachers' writing instruction. This study of expatriate NES instructors as well as their students in English writing classes intends to fill this gap. Both students' and NES teachers' voices are included in the study, thereby contributing to a holistic understanding of English writing classes conducted by NES instructors.

Purpose of the Study and Significance

After conducting a pilot study and literature review on NES teaching in China, I believe that there is a need to explore how NES instructors teach English writing in depth in China.

Growing out of the issues and problems reported in previous studies on NES instructors' English classes and my initial contacts with several NES English writing instructors, this study seeks to answer two questions:

1. How do expatriate NES instructors teach English writing at a Chinese university?

2. If there were problems or issues in their teaching, what would they be? And what contributes to the problems and issues?

This study is designed to investigate what is going on in English writing classes that are taught by NES instructors at a Chinese university through instructors' and students' perspectives. The purpose of the study is to delve into the English writing classrooms of NES instructors in a Chinese university in order to develop a deeper understanding of the issues and problems that may exist.

As an increasing number of NES instructors are hired to teach at all levels of schools, a better and deeper understanding of their teaching behaviors is needed. This study is among one of the first studies to explore expatriate NES instructors' English writing instruction in China and in the EFL writing field. Hopefully, a study of issues and problems will contribute to a theoretical foundation for hiring NES instructors to teach English writing in non-English speaking countries. The research will provide insights and implications for host universities to consider with regard to their criteria for hiring and support of NES instructors at Chinese universities as well as in other non English-speaking countries. The study also brings up Chinese English writing instruction to English-speaking countries and enriches the EFL writing field.

This study helps NES instructors understand students with various language and cultural backgrounds and facilitates their teaching efficacy. This study provides NES instructors who teach writing overseas a window to understanding the situation and what needs to be done to teach effectively in such settings.

Recognizing that due to the high demand for learning English, China will continue to be a job market attracting native-English speakers to teach in China. As cultural boundaries in teaching and learning are crossed with increasing frequency, this type of study has implications for studying NES instructors in other fields such as business, tourism or other disciplines that people with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds are hired to teach.

As China increases its role in the international community, English writing will continue to be emphasized at Chinese schools and universities. The study may shed light in the research field of EFL writing instruction in a global context, as English has become the international language and English writing has taken on the center stage in the information era of the 21st century transnationally.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter serves as a background to understand the NES (Native-English-Speaking) instructors' English writing instruction at Chinese universities. Discussions include the scholarship of teaching, writing, writing cross cultures and globalization, research on NES instructors in the ESL/EFL (English as a Second Language/English as a Foreign Language) writing field, major approaches to teach ESL writing, and major research in L2 writing.

Knowledge Base for Teaching

When discussing teaching and learning, educators usually start with the knowledge base of teachers (Gingerich, 2004; Grossman, 1990; Shulman, 1986a, 1986b, 1987). Shulman, a frequently cited researcher, proposes that teacher knowledge should include knowledge of content, knowledge of pedagogy, knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of learners and learning, knowledge of contexts of schooling, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of educational philosophies, goals and objectives. Grossman (1990) studied many models and concluded that four types of knowledge are essential in a teacher's knowledge base: general pedagogical knowledge, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of context.

Types of Teacher Knowledge

According to Shulman (1986a), general pedagogical knowledge encompasses a body of general knowledge related to teaching, such as knowledge on teaching and learning, on learners, knowledge of general principles of instruction, knowledge and skills of classroom management, and beliefs about education.

Subject matter knowledge includes knowledge of syntactic structures of the discipline, knowledge of content such as the major facts and concepts within the field and their relationship, and the substantive structure or the understanding of the cannons of evidence and proof within a discipline or how the field is organized. Grossman claimed that, "Without knowledge of the structures of a discipline, teachers may misrepresent both the content and the nature of the discipline itself" (1990, p.7). In current study, subject matter knowledge refers to knowledge on writing.

Pedagogical content knowledge refers to the knowledge specific to teaching in a certain discipline. Shulman (1987) defined it as "ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others" (p.9). There are four components of pedagogical content knowledge: knowledge and beliefs about the purpose of teaching a subject; knowledge of students' understanding, conceptions and misconceptions toward topics in a subject; knowledge of curriculum materials available for teaching a subject; and knowledge of instructional strategies to teach particular topics in a subject (Grossman, 1990). Pedagogical content knowledge also includes:

> An understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult; the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons (Shulman, 1987, p.9-10).

Pedagogical content knowledge in this study of EFL writing refers to knowledge on how to teach ESL/EFL writing.

Teachers need to know the local context. Knowledge of context includes knowledge of students, their needs, backgrounds, motivations, the school culture, departmental goals, local culture, and other factors related to classroom instruction at

school level and district level (Grossman, 1990). They need to have the ability to adapt the above knowledge to a specific teaching context and to localize their teaching.

Factors Influencing Teacher Knowledge

There are many factors influence teachers' knowledge. In higher education, it is widely accepted that teachers learn about teaching from their own teaching (Boice, 1992). Other studies show that teachers' knowledge is also generated from personal experience (Bailey, Curtis & Nunan, 2001) such as their past experience as classroom students and their language learning in teacher education programs. What teachers know about teaching comes from their years of experience as students watching and imitating their teachers' instructional behaviors and content. In fact, Borg (2004) found teachers' previous learning experience have a stronger effect than other factors such as a teacher education program. It has also been found that language teachers who learned a second/foreign language successfully can contribute to their ESL/EFL language instruction, no matter whether their learning experience was formal or informal (Johnson, 1999). According to Johnson, the learning experience "leaves powerful imprints on teachers" (p.34).

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), teachers accumulate knowledge from: 1) their own experience as language learners; 2) experience regarding what works best; 3) established practice; 4) personality factors; 5) educationally-based or research-based principles; and 6) principles derived from an approach or method. Researchers also added that teacher beliefs are constantly changing, developing, and in the process of being refined (Bodur, 2003; Ferguson, 2005; Richardson, 2003). In this study, an

investigation of the NES instructors' pedagogical knowledge and beliefs will be conducted for a deeper understanding of the factors influencing their instruction.

In teaching writing, writing teachers' knowledge could be affected by their knowledge of composition, pervious learning experiences, especially experiences when learning to write, teacher education or principles they have learned pertaining to the teaching of writing, observations of instruction and instructional approaches, their personalities, personal and teaching experiences, the local teaching context, and academic journals and conferences on teaching writing. Knowledge drawn from those sources should match the knowledge required for teaching a discipline. For example, a well-prepared instructor who taught a discipline successfully in one place could fail in a new teaching context if unable to adapt to local needs.

A profession can only be judged by the established standards of expertise in that discipline. NES instructors, like all teachers, should have the above-mentioned knowledge base for successful instruction. In the EFL teaching context in China, it is possible that NES instructors who do not have a sufficient knowledge base in a discipline like writing have been assigned to teach it due to the preference for hiring native language speakers, not specifically for their knowledge of writing, but instead based upon their oral language abilities. Further, diversity among NES instructors, the complexity of local teaching context, and miscommunication may compound any insufficient knowledge base. Shulman (1987) claimed that the knowledge base of teaching must be clarified and articulated if teaching is a profession.

Writing and Writing across Culture

The Nature of Writing

What is writing? Why do people write? How do people write? A full understanding of the nature of writing, the purposes for writing, and the writing process does not guarantee successful teaching of writing, but it is highly necessary. It helps provide a deep understanding of the problems involving students' writing.

There are various lenses used to look at writing. From a psycho-linguistic lens, writing is a language production process, which involves complex mental activities and is hard to capture and describe through experimental studies (Angelova, Gunawardena, & Volk, 2006). Although speaking is also a language production activity, Emig advocated that "writing tends to be learned initially only with the aid of formal and systematic instruction" (Emig, 1997, p.8). According to Vygotsky (1992), writing is "considerably more conscious and is produced more deliberately than oral speech" and requires a "deliberate structuring of the web of meaning" (p.182). Unlike speakers who have the help of intonation, gestures, and facial expressions, writers must activate a whole range of mental activities as they rely upon lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical cues, as well as awareness of readers' expectations.

From a cognitive perspective, writing production involves the task environment, the composing processor, and the writer's cognition (Flower & Hayes, 1981). The task environment refers to factors "outside the writer's skin, starting with the rhetorical problem or assignment and eventually including the growing text itself" (p.369). The composing processor involves generating ideas, organizing information, and setting writing goals. The writer's cognition includes the knowledge the writer knows about the subject or topic, the audience, and writing skills (Flower & Hayes, 1981).

Writing also has social meaning. People write "to learn, to describe and therefore to see, to speak and therefore to hear, to entertain, to inform, to persuade, to celebrate, to attack, to call attention, to think, to make money, to promote, to advocate, to connect, to relate, to make, to share" (Murray, 1985, p.8), depending on audiences, purposes and occasions. But writing a shopping list is less mentally demanding than writing an academic paper because the writer of an academic paper needs to combine "structural sentence units into a more-or-less unique, cohesive, and coherent larger structure" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p.4). Writing an academic paper is a knowledge-transforming activity that requires in-depth analysis of a subject (Leki, 1992). Thus, text production is not only affected by a writer's rhetoric, linguistic, and subject knowledge, but also by whom and for what the product is written.

In general, the above lenses suggest that a writer's performance is under the influence of many elements— including cognitive, linguistic and social factors, as well as the ability to manage and manipulate all variables in the process of producing a text. If students are aware of the elements involved—metacognition of text production (Flower, 1996), they will be more likely to communicate successfully in written text; meanwhile, if writing instructors are aware of the variables involved in writing production, they will be more likely to facilitate students' communications successfully.

Writing across Cultures

Learning to write in another language is challenging. Writers not only need to write linguistically acceptable but also culturally acceptable text. Chinese students often report feeling frustrated when writing in English (Matalene, 1985). Leki (1992) noted that "cultures evolve writing styles appropriate to their own histories and the needs of their societies" (p.90). Learning to write in English as a second or foreign language is far

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more complicated than putting linguistic symbols on paper in a grammatically acceptable way; it involves a meaning negotiation process between a writer and readers with different historical and cultural backgrounds. It is an acculturation process.

How people organize ideas in writing is closely connected with their cultural background or the way logical and rational people think in that culture. For example, in the United State well-organized essays and oral speech share features, such as opening a paragraph with a topic sentence and an essay beginning with a thesis statement (Lustig & Koester, 1999). The topic sentence and thesis statement need to be clear and straightforward. Students are also taught to provide concrete evidence to support the topic sentence in each paragraph and present ideas logically and clearly. Other cultures also have their own culturally embedded rhetorical conventions. Kaplan described the preferred organizational style among Japanese as presenting ideas indirectly. In Japanese writing, theme is buried in paragraphs (Kaplan, 1966). If a Japanese student writes an English essay the same way as he/she writes in Japanese, he/she probably will get comments such as "lacks organization" or "poor development of ideas" from NES instructors. From the instructor's perspective, Li (1996) argued, each teacher has his/her own values, educational philosophy, aesthetic taste, and literacy background—all these affect their evaluation of students' writing. When evaluating the writing by students of a different culture and first language, NES instructors are likely to rely on their own cultural preference and potentially create miscommunication between the instructor and the students.

Matalene (1985), referring to her past teaching experience, revealed that although her Chinese students had a good command of English they wrote in a "bizarre way"—

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too cliché, too indirect, and too formulaic. Li (1996) also revealed different criteria that American and Chinese teachers hold with regard to "good writing." By interviewing experienced language arts teachers from China and the United States, Li (1996) argued that the concept of "good writing" is socially, politically, and historically embedded in each culture. It is very likely that writing teachers do not know how to fully appreciate students' writing that is generated from a different cultural background (Fu, 1997; Fu & Townsend, 1998).

According to Li (1996), the Chinese teachers valued and were moved by a Chinese narrative writing with *qing* (feelings, sentiments, passion, love, emotional appeal of a piece of writing). Although, *Qing* is valued by Chinese, Confucius believed that good writing should have both *qing* and *wen* (情文并茂qing wen bing mao, *strong in both language and feeling*), especially when writing about a person, an art, or a scene. On the other hand, the American teachers in Li's study often felt that the Chinese students' writing was too sentimental. Furthermore, Chinese teachers think the essential components of good writing consist at least four parts: introduction (起), development (承), transition (转) and closure (合) while the American teachers preferred "perfect logic and an opening that leads the reader immediately to the action" (Li, 1996, p.126). In the cross-cultural English writing classroom, it is necessary that native English-speaking instructors understand what good writing is in their students' culture as well as in their own.

Writing in retrospect about her English writing teaching experiences in China in 1980s, Matalene (1985) found that what she first thought illogical in her Chinese students' English writing was actually highly logical, if looked at from Chinese rhetorical

perspective. She also discovered that the four characters phrase, the old sayings, and the poetic language that her Chinese students favored in their English compositions reveals the Chinese students' good command of Chinese literary skills and their intention to make a composition vivid and beautiful. What Western instructors may perceive as a lack of individuality and originality denotes a respect to the history, tradition, and authority, as well as the maintenance of social harmony by conforming to the long-established rules of rhetoric (Matalene, 1985).

Kaplan defined rhetoric as "the method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns" (1967, p.4). After analyzing students' writing, he concluded that students' L2 writing failed to meet the expectation of native speakers due to a heavy interference of students' L1 to L2 textual organization. Thus, he called for incorporating insights of contrastive rhetoric research into teaching of L2 writing. However, researchers have found that contrastive rhetoric might have limited, if not negative, contributions to L2 writing if instructors only focus on teaching students the "right" English features of a piece of writing without regard for local rhetorical patterns (Matsuda, 1997). Despite this culture-based criticism, contrastive rhetoric still maintains some influences upon L2 writing instruction.

Culture also influences how instructors teach and evaluate students' writing. Good writing in Chinese should show a clear inheritance of the ancient writing style and knowledge from canonical books. Thus, to honor the rich Chinese literary history, Chinese teachers usually teach the classic writing models and writing skills used by the ancestors, and students memorize the models and write by choosing an appropriate model (Li, 1996). While in American classrooms, personal history and life experience

are valued, and good writing means originality, creativity and individuality (Fu, 1997). American teachers teach students to use fresh language to explore their own thinking and experiences. In contrast, Chinese students are taught to write with well-known citations while American students are taught to write by avoiding the cliché.

American and Chinese people also perceive writing and the writing teacher differently (Li, 1996). Writing in the Chinese tradition is "for educating people and molding people's mind" (Li 1996, p.90), and thus good writing should contain social and moral value. For example, the Chinese teachers in Li's (1996) study appreciated the inclusions of moral imperatives in the students' writing, such as fighting selfishness or honoring elders with revolutionary experience. Teaching writing in China is meant to transform knowledge from the past and serve as:

> A link between the past and students to form an unbroken chain that stretches as far back as three thousand years . . . to offer guidance when students stray from the right track . . . to demonstrate to students the right way (Li 1990, p.96).

However, the American teachers in Li's study valued the exploration and expression of "self" in their students' writing. Those teachers pushed students to compose with natural language, to find their individual voices rather than seeking social significance or to adhere to the past in their work. Those teachers served as facilitators to encourage student-writers to think on their own. Two different theories, knowledge transmission in the traditional Chinese education and knowledge transaction in the progressive American education, undergirded the teaching of writing in these two cultures.

From psycho-linguistic, cognitive, socio-cultural, and cross-cultural lenses, writing in a second or a foreign language is complex because there are many aspects to pay

attention to. In order for NES to be effective EFL writing instructors, they need to be actively aware of all that is involved.

Studies on NES Instructors in ESL/EFL Field

There is a large amount of literature documenting NES teachers' teaching experiences. Chomsky (1986) advocated for native speakers as idealized speaker-hearers; native English speakers (NES) became models of English, and goals of English language learners became the emulation of those speakers. Many studies compared and contrasted teaching effectiveness between NES instructors with local instructors—their self-perceptions, status, roles, and attitudes of students toward these teachers (Cao Ngoc, 2009; Lin, 1999; Luk & Lin, 2007; Medgyes, 1986, 1994; Nayar, 1997; Rampton, 1990; Tajino & Tajino, 2000; Widdowson, 1994). Studies show that native English speakers are preferred among EFL students (Jin, 2005; Li, 2009; Porter, 1990; Rampton, 1995; Widdowson, 1993). However, research on NES instructors also indicated that NES instructors as the ideal English instructors is disputable (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Li & Fan, 2007; Luk & Lin, 2007; Seidlhofer, 1999).

NES instructors

NES instructors are believed to serve a catalytic role in English instruction in non-English speaking countries (Li, 2009). Learning from them is supposed to be ideal and beneficial. Jin (2005) reported that in choosing English teachers Chinese students reported a high preference for native English-speaking instructors who they believe could enhance their confidence and motivation to communicate with native speakers. Other studies also found that NES instructors are popular in EFL classes (Li, 2009; Porter, 1990; Rampton, 1995; Widdowson, 1993). Studies showed that despite the issues and problems resulting from differences between teaching and learning styles

and habits between NES instructors and their EFL students, expatriate NES instructors are preferred and are associated with high expectations of quality instruction (Li, 2009; Rampton, 1993; Ross, 1993; Widdowson, 1994).

Whether NES instructors are better than NNES (non-native English speaking) instructors is not a topic of this study. However, according to comparative studies, there are advantages and disadvantages in hiring NES as language instructors in EFL context. Medgyes (1986) claimed that NES instructors have advantages over NNES instructors in terms of language use. Benke and Medgyes (2005) found that NES instructors taught conversational English with higher proficiency and motivated students to speak more frequently. NES instructors were also perceived to be friendlier and more informal than NNES instructors. Li and Fan (2007) found that the teaching style of NES teachers and the learning styles of Chinese university students who majored in English were incongruent: Chinese students prefer analytic imagery, a concrete and reflective style of learning, while NES teachers prefer a global, verbal, and abstract way of teaching. Seidlhofer's study (1999) on Australian teachers' self-perception of NNES instructors indicated that NES instructors lacked the same foreign language learning experience as their L2 students and thus have less empathy towards the difficulties L2 students face, thus guided students less effectively when compared with NNES instructors. Luk and Lin (2007) found NES instructors in Hong Kong assigned topics that were less relevant to local students' daily lives, therefore the students responded less actively to their instruction than in NNES instructors' classes.

From the students' perspective, there are also positive and negative attitudes towards NES instructors. Barratt and Kontra (2000) conducted a combined study from

Hungary and China. They reported that both students and teachers in the two countries have positive and negative attitudes toward NES instructors. The students and teachers value the NES instructors' authenticity in pronunciation, knowledge of vocabulary, information usage, friendly demeanor, enthusiasm, and sociability. Meanwhile, negative comments included lack of teaching experience, as well as unfamiliarity with learners' language, the host culture, and the educational system. Chinese students specifically mentioned NES instructors' inadaptability in teaching and lack of awareness regarding the learner's needs.

Cheung (2002) found students in Hong Kong appreciated the NES instructors' language proficiency, fluency, and cultural knowledge, but the students also reported that the instructors' professional skills, such as knowledge of the subject they teach, preparation, and the ability to make lessons interesting and motivating were more important than language skills. Ferguson (2005) also found that L2 learners perceived NES as not necessarily better than NNES and found that L2 learners were concerned more about whether instructors taught what should be included in the language classroom than their nativeness. Studies on students' perceptions toward NES and NNES instructors (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999) showed that adult students with higher educational levels did not necessarily think NES instructors were superior; instead, they were concerned about whether NES or NNES instructors had adequate teaching skills to help them achieve their goals. Medgyes (1999) compared NES and NNES instructors' teaching behaviors and found that teacher's qualifications and teaching experience rather than language proficiency were more critical to teaching.

In cross-cultural classrooms, communication gaps are unavoidable due to cultural differences. Lustig and Koester (1999) stated that differences in cross-cultural classrooms include the rules for participation, turn-taking, classroom discipline and management, and other pedagogical approaches. For example, researchers (Archer, 1991; Mckay, 1992) reported that NES instructors were annoyed that students in Japan or China interrupted when they were late for the class. They might knock on the door and interrupt the teacher by explaining why they were late, seeking the teacher's permission to enter the class. They also reported that Japanese students were not used to group work and collaboration and did not like to speak up publicly or share much information with them. Some studies showed that NES instructors viewed Chinese students as reticent in the classroom, as afraid to make mistakes, and as shy about speaking in public (Harvey, 1985; Hu, 1995; Magner, 1974). Jiang (2001) also hypothesized the "culture bumps", such as exchanging of greetings or handling classroom behaviors, were encountered by NES teachers due to differing assumptions about teaching and learning. Tang and Absalom (1998) warned NES teachers who teach in Asia to realize the differences in philosophy of teaching and learning, the role expectations for the teacher, the traditional ways of teaching, and thus the transplantation of Western pedagogies to teaching local students should be modified. Cultural understanding is necessary for NES instructors to work comfortably and effectively in the local teaching context.

Myth of NES instructional Expertise

NES instructors employed in non-English speaking countries have been given an idealized role (Li, 2009). In China, as a title "foreign experts for NES" suggests, they are

believed to possess the desired knowledge to transfer to English language learners. Their authority in language teaching was "based on the assumption of the primary relevance of linguistic rather than pedagogical expertise" (Widdowson, 1993, p.265). NES instructors have been given more privileges than Chinese teachers in the form of free holiday trips, free accommodations, large offices, and comparatively high salaries (Ross, 1993). The high status, privileges and trust given to NES instructors by Chinese universities possibly enhanced a misconception among foreign teachers themselves that they were authorities in language teaching and have the answers to all language teaching problems (Oatey, 1990). These special privileges prevented NES instructors from making easy contact with Chinese colleagues and students and isolated them socially (Li, 2009). Nayar (1989) suggested that NES instructors' superiority might be derived from an assumption that they might carry the keys to wealth and prosperity as enjoyed by those in more developed and powerful English speaking countries.

NES instructors often taught English proudly using their Western teaching methods and expected L2 students to accept their methods without reservation because the methods were imported from more developed countries to less developed countries (Orton, 1990). Orton (1990) said that expatriate NES teachers often assumed that "they were there to pass on to a receptive group the knowledge and skills from their own professional milieu" (p.18) and they were always right; if something went wrong, L2 learners were at fault.

Researchers found that due to idealized role of native speakers, NES teachers with little or no training have been assigned to teach English in China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea and Thailand (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Jenkins, 2006; Li, 2009;

Seidlhofer, 1999). Significantly, Rampton (1995) pointed out that expertise in language instruction was what you know instead of where you came from. He suggested that: 1) expertise is different from identification; 2) expertise is learned, not fixed or innate; 3) expertise is relative; 4) expertise is partial; and 5) to achieve expertise, one needs to go through processes of certification, which will be judged by others whose standards of assessment can be reviewed and disputed (Rampton, 1995, p.340-341). NES instructors may perform badly in their teaching in comparison to those NNES instructors who have a rich knowledge of English and teaching skills gained in lengthy university education.

To sum up, NES instructors have been perceived both positively and negatively by EFL students. Studies (Medgyes, 1994; Shi, 2001) found that the biggest difference distinguishing them was their language proficiency. However, teaching skills, teaching experience, qualifications, expertise in the subject they teach, and familiarity with local cultural and educational context, instead of nativeness, are critical when NES instructors teach English. Most studies conducted on NES instructors were on teaching English in general. Few specifically pertain to teaching English writing or the actual performance of NES instructors when teaching English writing in an EFL context. Furthermore, a majority of the studies on NES instructors are not field-based and there is scant empirical evidence about their actual teaching. Whether NES teachers make good writing instructors is worthy of study, as what actually goes on in NES instructors' English writing classrooms is largely unexplored.

Whose English?

Since the TESOL conference in 1996 (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), the issue of NES instructors has provoked extended debate in the field. Thereafter, the idealized role of NES instructors has become controversial, especially in the era of globalization when a majority of English users are not native English speakers. Bhatt (2001) wrote that the rapid spread of English worldwide was due to English language agencies', such as the British Council, active promotion of English as a tool of foreign policies. Philipson (1992) labeled this as "linguistic imperialism." Through the introduction and imposition of "standard English," the language agencies exerted their legitimate role and monopolize on the means (Bhatt, 2001). Cook (1997) stressed that the theory of idealized native speakers created a monolingual bias as well as identifying non-native speakers as deficient communicators.

However, the majority of English users in the world are not native speakers of English (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001). As a result, there is no longer a monolithic English, but pluricentric *Englishes* (Bhatt, 2001). Kachru (1992) has classified varieties English used in the "Inner Circle," the "Outer Circle," and the "Expanding Circle." The Inner Circle refers to English used as a first language in countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. The Outer Circle refers to countries and places where English is used as a second language, such as Hong Kong, India, and Singapore. The Expanding Circle refers to countries where English used as a foreign language, such as China, Japan, Indonesia, etc. The number of users of English in the Inner-Circle societies is now far less than over 1,000 million in the outer and expanding circles (McArthur, 2001). Widdowson (1994) declared that no nation has custody of English and each variety of English is a Standard English if the

communication meets the needs of in-group transaction and capably defines the identity of the group itself.

Kraidy (2001) claimed that *glocalization*, a word coined to describe the presence of both global and local factors, is an ideal framework capturing the international communication process. As English has become a communication tool in the glocalized world, both native English speakers and non-native English speakers use English for communication and English developed into many varieties. Various forms of English are also called world Englishes, international Englishes and global Englishes (Jenkins, 2006). Monolithic English has been replaced by a variety of Englishes such as India English, Singapore English, China English—each of which is equally as legitimate as American English or Britain English.

As Bhatt (2001) proposed that the emerging field of world Englishes also signifies a paradigm shift in research, teaching, and application of sociolinguistic realities to the form and functions of English that embraces English variations. Researchers found that "good pedagogy" must be situated in the local sociocultural context and be appropriate to local needs in order to help students develop their own voices (Lin, Wang, Akamatsu, & Riazi, 2011). Lin, Wang, Akamatsu, and Riazi (2011) claimed that some teaching practices like code mixing and code switching that have been disregarded by Anglo-based pedagogies were actually helpful for English learners in the development of confidence and fluency in using English for meaningful communication.

Cook (2002) promoted the idea that the goal of teaching should allow L2 learners to develop independently rather than conform to native speaker models and L2 learners should be accepted in their own right without being measured against native speakers.

Students should be engaged in learning the type of English they could make their own, because it is more relevant to their lives (Lin, Wang, Akamatsu, & Riazi, 2011; Widdowson, 1994). The instructional implication of the shift of ownership of English indicates that, contrary to British or American English being the only standard of English and native speakers as ideal English instructors, other forms of English and users of other forms of English are legitimate in the era of world Englishes.

English writing underwent the same changes. In terms of written English, Kachru (1995) argued that varieties of English used in the Outer-Circle countries—such as India, Pakistan, and South Africa—have developed their own grammatical and textual forms to express their contexts of culture. Therefore, the norms of writing in Inner-Circle countries are no longer the standard for English writing practices in Outer-Circle contexts. In other words, native English speakers are no longer the only ones who hold English rhetorical standards. Also, writing is the perfect vehicle for a construction of cultural identity in foreign countries due to its permanence (Leki, 2001). So the form of English writing and how it should be taught in the local context for local needs and goals have become the center of writing instruction.

Leki (2001) argued that learning to write in English intelligibly is crucial; however, there is a need for dialogue with local EFL students about the role of English in their lives and how to make English writing a powerful means to achieve their personal or professional goals. The same idea should be considered as it applies to the students in this study. The idea of NES instructors as ideal speakers of English and an acceptance of their teaching approaches with no reservation should be challenged in the EFL context.

Approaches to ESL Writing Instruction

According to Raimes (1991) and Matsuda (2003), there have been mainly four influential approaches to L2 writing since the 1960s: (1) an approach focused on form and current-traditional rhetoric; (2) an approach focused on writers; (3) an approach focused on disciplinary content and readers; and (4) an approach focused on sociopolitical issues and critical pedagogy. Each of these approaches will be discussed in terms of its origin, theoretical preferences, pedagogical emphasis, strengths, and weaknesses. Effective writing instructors may follow one approach, but most appear to combine several approaches according to their specific instructional needs.

Focused on Form and Current-Traditional Rhetoric, 1966-Present

In the form and rhetoric approach, writing was regarded as a way to reinforce oral proficiency and to test the learners' application of grammatical rules. It has been called controlled composition or guided composition, and its origin is in both structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology that views language learning as a habit formation. In controlled composition:

> The writer is simply a manipulator of previously learned language structures; the reader is the ESL teacher in the role of editor or proofreader, not particularly interested in quality of ideas or expression but primarily concerned with formal linguistic features (Silva, 1990, p.13).

L2 writers usually write short discourses in the form of a written exercise. This approach has been criticized for its habit-forming nature, its strictness of language and form correctness, and its constraints on the fluent expression of ideas.

Later, in order to prepare ESL learners to produce "extended" discourse, current-traditional rhetoric was advocated (Silva, 1990). It is under the influence of Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric. Due to L2 writer's L1 impact, it is important to provide L2 writers "a

form within which he may operate" (Kaplan, 1966, p.20). Silva (1990) described the

approach as:

> The central approach was the logical construction and arrangement of
> discourse forms. Of primary interest was the paragraph. Here attention was
> given not only to its elements (topic sentences, support sentences,
> concluding sentences, and transitions), but also to various options for its
> development (illustration, exemplification, comparison, contrast, partition,
> classification, definition, casual analysis, and so on) (p.14).

It is common for teachers who follow this approach to have students read a model

first and then analyze it. Students thus can apply the structural organization of the

model to a parallel writing of their own. The topic is usually assigned; students

brainstorm facts and ideas relevant the topic, craft an outline and develop it into a

composition and the teacher serves as a judge of language correctness and convention.

Silva (1990) concluded that:

> Writing is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and
> paragraphs into prescribed patterns. . . . The writer fills in a preexisting form
> with provided or self-generated content (p.14).

This current-traditional rhetoric approach has been criticized for neglecting the cognitive

processes involved in compositing text to communicate thoughts, information, and

ideas.

Focused on Writers, 1976-Present

The process approach that focuses on writers emerged in the early 1970s

(Matsuda, 2003). It has origins in expressionism and cognitivism. This teaching

methodology moved from emphasizing the products of writing to an emphasis on the

writing process.

From the point of view of expressionism, writing is "an art, a creative act in which

the process—the discovery of the true self, is as important as the product" (Berlin, 1988,

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p.484). Murray (1982) advocated the importance of personal voice and fluency in writing. Thus, process-writing instructors encourage self-discovery and facilitate students' writing fluency. From the cognitivist point view, writing is a thinking and problem-solving process. Writers engage in a series of distinctive cognitive processes when writing, such as planning, translating, and reviewing, and the processes are interwoven. Zamel (1982) noted that writing is a process of discovering and making meaning, and the process is recursive, nonlinear, and creative.

Process writing teachers facilitate students to develop their own cognitive processing through prewriting (finding topics, gathering ideas and information, focusing, and planning), drafting (developing topics and multiple drafts), revising (adding, deleting, modifying, and rearranging words and ideas), and editing (checking and correcting grammar and mechanical problems) (Silva, 1990). Process writing teachers design procedures to "help students think through and organize their ideas before writing and to rethink and revise their initial drafts" (Applebee, 1986, p.95). Content, ideas, and communication needs determine the form, not vice versa (Silva, 1990).

The process approach has been widely accepted in ESL writing instruction. Although process-writing instruction varies from classroom to classroom, it mainly stresses generating ideas, writing multiple drafts, and revising. Therefore, pedagogical strategies such as the use of a variety of prewriting strategies, penning multiple drafts, peer collaboration, and plenty of feedback pertaining to audience-oriented revision according from both instructor and peers across multiple drafts are considered important. Focusing on content and purpose before language correctness is an essential component in process-oriented classrooms (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005);

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therefore, revision prior to editing is stressed. Process writing gained its popularity in

ESL writing for helping students developing skills, reflective abilities, and autonomy in

writing.

Focused on Disciplinary Content and Readers, 1986-Present

Although process writing has gained popularity in current ESL writing classrooms,

critics of process writing found it problematic in several ways. It has been criticized for

neglecting the discourse of academic writing, writers' language proficiency, and

contrastive rhetoric across different cultures (Reid, 1984a). However, the proponents of

the process approach advocate preparing students to deal with the range and nature of

writing tasks, including academic discourse, in order to initiate students into the

academic context (Silva, 1990). In order to help students achieve academic success

and write in academically acceptable ways, teachers are encouraged to create a writing

environment that:

> Involves the close examination and analysis of academic discourse formats
> and writing task specifications; the selection and intensive study of source
> materials appropriate for a given topic, question, or issue; the evaluation,
> screening, synthesis, and organization of relevant data from these
> recourse; and presentation of these data in acceptable academic English
> form (Silva, 1990, p.17).

In this approach, to achieve academic success, writers also need to produce text

with the "discourse community" in consideration because "reality, knowledge, thoughts,

facts, texts, selves, and so on are constructed and generated by communities of like-

minded peers" (Bruffee, 1986, p.774). Activities in such a content-focused approach

such as identifying, practicing, and reproducing specific features of written texts for

specific audiences in a discipline are widely applied in ESL classrooms.

Focused on Sociopolitical Issues and Critical Pedagogy, 1990-Present

This approach, besides being focused on the writing process, also pays attention to social and contextual factors that have not been addressed enough before. Writing is not only viewed as a series of stages that generate meaning, but is also viewed holistically in this approach. The educational, ethical, social, and political context in which the text was generated is taken into consideration. Writing is public, communicative interaction with others, responding to a specific context (Kent, 1999). Also, critical pedagogy issues such as critical discourse analysis and critical writing about academic genres have been brought to the ESL writing researchers' attention (Hyland, 2002). In this approach, writing teachers are facilitators and collaborators who offer feedback and encouragement to scaffold the writing process; at the same time, they empower students by changing the dialogue between the teacher and students from a "transmission model" to "transformation model" (Breuch, 2002). The sociopolitical and critical approach shares many aspects with the other approaches and provides valuable insights to EFL writing instruction.

Silva (1990) commented on the above-mentioned four approaches and articulated that the four approaches are all problematic in certain ways, for each tenet covered only limited aspects of L2 writing. In his mind, appropriately constructed L2 writing approaches should take at least five aspects into consideration: (1) the L2 writer in terms of personal knowledge, cultural background, attitudes, characteristics, language proficiency, motivation, and learning style; (2) the L1 reader or audience, in terms of personal knowledge, reading process, and expectations on rhetoric conventions; (3) the L2 text in terms of genres, aims, modes, rhetoric characteristics, and conventions; (4) the cultural, political, social, economic, and situational contexts of the L2 writing; and (5)

the interaction of the previous four aspects. The following discussion on L2 writing research is based on Silva's model.

Major Research in L2 Writing Field

A discussion of L2 writing instruction cannot exclude a discussion of the development of L2 writing research. Writing instructors are kept informed and improve their pedagogical behaviors by research in the field. According to Leki, Cumming and Silva (2008) there are three main areas in L2 writing field: (1) context for L2 writing; (2) curriculum, instruction, and assessment; and (3) research on L2 writers, their composing process, and L2 text. EFL writing instruction today is under the influence of research on L1 and ESL writing. Based on the relevance to this study of Silva's (1990) ESL model mentioned above and research on L1 to L2 transfer, the composing process in L2 writing, L2 writers, and the L2 writing context will be briefly discussed in this section.

Research on L1 to L2 Transfer

Research on L2 writing is strongly influenced by research on L1 writing. Traditionally L2 writers' reliance on their L1 in writing is regarded as L1 interference with L2 writing. However, a large number of studies have found L2 writers transfer their L1 writing abilities and strategies into L2 writing, both negatively and positively. L2 writers were found to compose like L1 writers (Edelsky, 1982; Lay, 1982, 1983; Zamel, 1982, 1983), and their writing knowledge and skills were found transferable across languages (Edelsky, 1982; Fu, 2009; Zamel, 1982, 1983). ESL writers write in the same way as L1 writers do: going through stages as prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. At the same time, they are capable of applying writing knowledge and skills gained in L1 into English writing.

Researchers found that writers with better L1 literary proficiency tend to write better in L2 because ESL/EFL students who are literate in their native language have been equipped with a knowledge set about what good writing is. They tend to have a better sense of audience and organization skills and, as a result, transfer both their L1 linguistic and cultural knowledge and their literacy skills to L2 writing tasks (Edelsky, 1982; Friedlander, 1990; Lay, 1983). The transfer of literacy skills between languages significantly facilitates the development of L2 writing skills. Fu in her study (2009) categorized four stages of an ELL's writing development: (1) first language stage; (2) code-switching or mixed stages; (3) inter-language stage; and (4) close to standard English, and suggested that teachers recognize the legitimacy of the L1 to L2 transfer and facilitate the gradual development of communicating skills. Fu (2003, 2009) also found that encouraging ESL students to use their native language to express themselves is a good way to achieve writing fluency.

Researchers also found that working in L1 helps learners retrieve academic information on certain topics (Friedlander, 1990; Lay, 1982). Friedlander (1990) indicated that ESL writers could produce better text when allowed to plan in the language in which the topic was learned, no matter whether that planning takes place in L1 or L2. Lay's (1982) study on four adult Chinese-speaking L2 writers revealed that L2 writers produced a better essay writing in terms of ideas, organization, and details when they were encouraged to think in their L1, in comparison with the essays written without L1 assistance.

Zamel (1982) also found that ESL students' L1 writing proficiency is more important than their English proficiency as they learn to write in English. Thus, L2

instructors could use students' previously learned knowledge and skills to jump-start and facilitate them and thus avoid repeated instruction. Foong (1999) studied Chinese students enrolled in an intensive language program that aimed at improving their English communication skills. He found that literate Chinese students have already processed planning and writing strategies and stated that it is unnecessary for teachers to teach the planning and writing strategies again. Those students with high L1 writing proficiency may need more specific help in improving L2 language proficiency rather than writing skills.

Despite the similarities, L2 students differ from L1 students in significant ways; after all, they are writing while learning the language they are attempting to write. There are differences between the L1 and L2 writing process (Leki, 2008; Raimes, 1983a; Silva, 1993; Zamel, 1982, 1985) among literacy learners. Silva (1993) concluded that in comparison to L1 writers, "L2 writers did less planning," "transcribing in the L2 was more laborious, less fluent, and less productive," and "L2 writing involved less reviewing" (p.660). Hence, he suggested L2 writing instructors to "include more work on planning," "have students draft in stages," "familiarize students with L1 audience expectations," "familiarize them with different textual patterns and task types," and "enhance L2 writers' grammatical and lexical resources" (p.671).

Research on L2 Writers

L2 students are diverse in significant ways. They differ in schooling background, reading proficiency in English, oral language proficiency in English, and writing proficiency in English. Their schooling background can be further divided into four groups: no schooling, formal schooling, limited-formal schooling, and long-time schooling. For instructional convenience, L2 students are usually divided into three

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categories based on their language proficiency: beginning ESL students, intermediate ESL students, and advanced ESL students. For successful instruction, L2 writers' various backgrounds and needs should be taken into account.

Cultural background affects all L2 writers, but beyond that, researchers found that different L2 writers demonstrated a wide range of writing skills. Reims (1985) found that unskilled L2 writers did little planning before writing and paid less attention to revising and editing than skilled L2 writers. Foong's study (1999) also reported poor writers are less confident in writing English compositions, so he advocates teachers take advantage of affective factors that may help EFL learners conquer the fears, struggles, and frustrations the EFL students face in writing in English as a second language. It is unclear whether the teacher in Foong's study is a NES teacher or not, but the findings can be applied to any teachers who hold different expectations and assumptions for English writing than their students. Any lack of awareness about the previous learning and writing experiences of students might affect students' writing development.

Foong (1999) found that students in English writing classes might experience mismatched expectations from an instructor who focuses more on the discovering of meaning through writing rather than the grammatical structure and correctness of sentences through his investigation of students' perception, learning experience, needs, and expectations for English writing. The mismatch is the consequence of the students' pervious concept of English learning under grammar-translation approach—a common approach in China. Silva (1992) suggested that teachers should "be aware of and sensitive to their students' perceptions about writing and expectations regarding

instruction" and develop teaching and learning practices that "support and encourage, rather than alienate, their students" (p.44).

Cai (1993) found that what have been misunderstood as poor writing techniques in Chinese students' composition are influenced by Chinese culture. Through comparing and contrasting the organizational patterns in Chinese students' compositions, he learned that the different rhetorical conventions that ESL students incorporate into their English writing are generated from their social, political, and ideological beliefs and values of their native culture, as well as evaluation criteria on writing. Chinese students' patterns for paragraph organization, avoidance of self-expression, and preference for an indirect approach to a given topic are under the influence of their Chinese writing. The study indicates that discourse strategies in English should be taught explicitly, instead of implicitly.

Research on L2 Writing Context

Williams (1998) pointed out that L1 writing process research has informed L2 research, but L2 researchers must be careful not to let L1 studies guide or determine their investigations of second language writing processes, because the research contexts are not the same. By the same token, teaching and researching EFL students differs in some ways, although writing instruction and research on native speakers of English and ESL students can shed light on EFL writing instruction and research. According to Williams, teaching and researching EFL writers can be different in terms of the linguistic, social, cultural, and political environment as well as the purposes and motivations for learning English writing due to the influence of place. Therefore, besides study L1 to L2 transfer and the writing process, L2 writers and context are important to

successful L2 writing instruction, Silva (1990) suggested that those aspects should be taken into consideration.

Summary

To understand expatriate NES instructors' English writing instruction, this chapter presents the literature review on the importance of teacher knowledge base, the nature of writing and writing across cultures, NES instructors' language instruction in general, and the context in which the writing participants engaged. This chapter also discusses major approaches to L2 writing instruction and research on L2 writing. Compared with the bulk of research on ESL writing instruction, research on EFL writing instruction is much less heard. My research is conducted in the EFL context and can add to the understanding of EFL writing instruction in the writing field. Also, the review of literature related to current topic of NES instructors' English writing teaching has revealed that there is a scarcity of studies on NES instructors' English writing instruction. This study is aimed at finding information about how expatriate NES instructors teach English writing as well as what are their experiences, problems, and confusions in EFL English writing classrooms.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

With an increasing number of native English speaking (NES) instructors teaching college-level English writing in China, this research was designed to examine what is happening in NES instructors' English writing classes as well as issues and problems that may affect their teaching and the possible causes of those issues and problems. In this chapter, the rationale for using qualitative research methods, the theoretical and methodological framework, as well as a brief description of the setting and participants will be presented. Data collection and data analysis methods, a subjectivity statement, validation of findings and ethical issues are also included.

Rationale for Qualitative Study

The study explores NES instructors' teaching of English writing and the factors that may hinder their teaching effectiveness in a Chinese university, an area seldom examined in writing instruction. Due to the interactive and complex nature of teaching and learning, this study employs qualitative methods. Qualitative study matches the purpose of the study because it is a process of moving from seemingly unrelated, unorganized pieces to a holistic, related, categorized, and specific, yet analytic generalization of what is going on in classrooms and what factors are involved that influence teaching and learning (Hatch, 2002). It is through classroom observations, interviews, surveys, and artifacts that data emerges. This qualitative research involved extended firsthand engagement on the part of a researcher as a data collection instrument in a natural setting. It explores participant perspectives through deductive data analysis.

Theoretical Perspective

Every research study has a theoretical stance that explains the foundation of the meaning-making process, the logic of research design, and the criteria for data collection and analysis (Crotty, 1998). This study was guided by Constructivism. In constructivism, it is believed that meaning does not exist in isolation nor is it waiting to be found, but it is constructed in transactions between the situation and human mind. Without human mind, meaning does not exist (Crotty, 1998). When different minds play with the situation, it is possible that there are multiple understandings and perspectives toward the same phenomenon. There are no true or valid interpretations but only "fulfilling" and "rewarding" interpretations, which stimulate human growth (Crotty, 1998, p.48). And such meaning making is ongoing and continuous.

Both the research questions and related studies suggest Constructivism is the most appropriate theoretical lens for this study. In teaching and learning, meaning is created between the interactions among teachers, students, and the situation (Hatch, 2002). According to Constructivists, each participant in the study has a unique meaning-making and meaning-interpretation process and actively constructs knowledge and information within his/her mind rather than in the external environment (Huitt, 2003).

In this study, research questions are answered by the data through participants' meaning-making process. The meaning made by NES instructors and students was conveyed through interviews, observations, surveys, and artifacts in an on-going process in a cross-cultural teaching and learning context. Constructivism undergirds this study because it helps bring about an understanding of the issues related to teaching and learning among NES instructors and their Chinese students.

Collective Case Study

Methodology is the principle and assumption that underlines a research and guides data collection and analysis in a systematic way. A case study involves an exploration of a "bounded system" or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context (Creswell, 1998). In a case study, the researcher should focus on "an event, process, or program for which we have no in-depth perspective" (Creswell, 1998, p.95). There are three kinds of case studies: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective (Stake, 1995). Stake (2000) claimed that a collective case study examines a "phenomenon, population, or general condition" (p.437). This study is a collective case study consisting of three cases.

A collective case study, as one type of case studies, also follows the pattern of "the problem, the context, the issue and the lesson learned" (Creswell, 1998. p.95). Conducting a collective case study can provide several pictures to help inform readers about the practice of the "general condition" of the NES instructors' writing instruction. The lack of research on EFL writing classes taught by expatriate NES instructors in China and on associated issues suggests a collective case study approach.

In a collective case study, multiple cases are described and compared to provide insights into the issue studied (Stake, 1995). Therefore, three NES instructors who were teaching college level English writing in a southern Chinese university were recruited voluntarily. Each NES instructor is an individual "case" consisting of different personal, professional, cultural, instructional interests, and experiences and contributes to an in-depth understanding of the instruction of NES instructors.

Pilot Study

Before doing the study, I conducted a pilot study. The purpose of the pilot study was to find potential research participants and to gain a preliminary understanding of NES instructors of English writing. I used a survey (Appendix E) as my pilot study tool. Surveys allow researchers to have access to a large population of participants or to validate the findings (Clark & Creswell, 2010). The survey consisted of open-ended questions probing the following topics: (1) the informant's personal and educational background; (2) teaching and learning experience; (3) preferred teaching method; (4) values and expectations on teaching and learning; (5) perceptions on English writing; (6) planning and assessment of EFL writing instructions; and (7) perceptions on the local cultural context.

Through the help of my friends and colleagues who taught at universities all over China, ten NES writing instructors from seven universities were recruited and agreed to participate in the surveys. The universities included S University (pseudonym), Nanjing University (NJU), Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS), Sichuan International Studies University (SISU), Yunnan Normal Universities (YNNU), East China University of Science and Technology (ECUST), and Shanghai University of Finance and Economics (SHUFE). Except S University, the other six universities use their real names here. Figure 3-1 is a map of the seven universities in which surveys were collected. The locations are circled in green. The survey took about 30 to 40 minutes, and it was individually sent through emails during February 2010.

Table 3-1. University names and participant numbers

University Name	SU	NJU	GDUFS	SISU	YNNU	ECUST	SHUFE
Informants (Total = 10)	3	1	1	1	1	1	2

Figure 3-1. Map of the participating universities

Results and Implications of the Pilot Study

The 10 NES writing instructors surveyed have various academic backgrounds including English, international relationships, psychology, applied economics, political science, European studies, and counselor education. They hold degrees ranging from a B.A. to Ph.D. Their teaching experience ranged from 6 months to 20 years. Most NES writing instructors reported they were decent writers but did not write frequently. In general, they reported that student perception of their instruction fell on a continuum: some students perceived their instruction as good and some perceived it as bad. They also reported their positive impressions of working in their current universities.

Their writing instruction ranged from descriptive, narrative, and argumentative writing to journal writing. Activities such as providing writing models, responding to a piece of reading, and brainstorming were described. Their evaluation criteria included logical connection, the presence of cliché or Chinese English, sufficient details, clarity, organization, and unity.

Unlike previously reported studies on cultural barriers in cross-cultural classrooms (Jiang, 2001; Hu, 1995; Lin, 1999; Tajino & Tajino, 2000), these instructors felt that cultural issues, especially different communication styles, had less impact on teaching proficiency than deciding what and how to teach writing. They thought Chinese students in general were passive learners who expected the teachers to lecture about writing rather than engage them in frequent practice, and that students were able to follow their instruction most of the time. However, some instructors thought that English as the language of instruction sometimes hindered teacher and students' communication. They also indicated that Chinese students did not ask questions when they did not understand.

The surveys provided me with a glimpse of how expatriate NES writing instructors taught. However, in order to have a deeper understanding of the dynamic interactions between the instructors and students, a field-based study was needed. S University was selected due to the NES instructors' willingness to participate in the study as well as its convenient location for me.

I had follow-up contacts with the informants from the other six universities through emails and phone calls. After the pilot study, the lens of the research zoomed into three NES instructors' six English writing classes at S University.

Research Site

S University, the selected research site, is located in a coastal city in southern China. Before 1980, the city was a village of several thousand people. After the "open-door" policy and economic reform, it grew into a metropolitan city with a population of over 10 million people. This fast-growing modern city features industries like finance (ranked the 9th largest finance center in the world at Global Financial Centers Index in

2010), information technology, manufacturing, high-tech, international business, warehousing services, logistics, and tourism.

It is an international city. One hundred and forty one of the world's top 500 multinational companies have investments and business branches in the city. The city attracts people from all over the world to work, travel, and study. More than 600 foreign instructors are teaching at a variety of schools in the city, and more than 3,500 foreign students are studying there.

As the economy began booming and the population expanded, S University was founded in 1983 to serve the city with competitive graduates in the fields of information technology, management, and finance—the pillar industries of the city. S University is a young and comprehensive public university that is situated between a research university and teaching university. It has a garden-like campus filled with Lychee trees. It has 23 colleges and schools, 52 undergraduate programs, 66 graduate programs, and 3 doctoral programs, with 20,000 students and an annual new enrollment of 5,000 undergraduates and 1,000 graduate students. It is the only university in the city and serves both local students and students from all over China. It is ranked 130th among 1909 public universities in China. Comparatively speaking, S University is a medium-sized, comprehensive university in China in terms of student number and programs. My study was conducted in the English department. Details pertaining to that department will be described in Chapter 4.

Participants

The Teachers

Three NES English writing instructors were recruited for the study. Purposeful sampling was employed to select participants who met two requirements: (1) they were

English native speakers; and (2) they taught English writing courses. According to

Merriam (1998), purposeful sampling is based on "the assumption that the investigator

wants to discover, understand, gain insight and therefore must select a sample from

which the most can be learned" (p.61). In the beginning of March 2010, one week

before the semester started, I contacted Jack, John, and Ken (pseudonyms), the three

participants who agreed to cooperate with my data collection. During our first rapport-

building meeting, I introduced the purpose of the study and explained how the study

would be conducted. I outlined the observational visits, the length of the visits, and

scheduled the dates for formal interviews. Informed consent forms were signed.

As shown in Table 3-2, both Jack and Ken are from America and John is from

Canada. Ken is an African-American, and the other two are Caucasians. All of them

had overseas teaching experiences before teaching at S University. Only John is a first-

time teacher of English writing (however, he was a substitute writing instructor for two

months before the semester of the study). During the semester of the study, Jack taught

both freshmen and sophomore English writing, Ken taught sophomores, and John

taught freshmen. Their personal, professional, and educational backgrounds, as well as

the way they teach English writing will be described in detail in Chapter 4.

Table 3-2. Teacher informants

Name	Jack	Ken	John
Nationality	American	American	Canadian
Race	Caucasian	African American	Caucasian
Years of teaching	20	4	4
Years teaching overseas	19	4	3
Years teaching at SU	3	2	<0.5
Courses teach at SU	English reading and writing English writing	English writing	English reading and writing
Students Taught	Freshmen & Sophomores	Sophomores	Freshmen

The Students

Students were selected based on their willingness to participate in the study. During the first class of the semester, their NES instructors introduced my study and me briefly. They encouraged students to participate in the study. It was difficult to recruit students due to their tight schedule. Although many students showed interest, only 12 signed their names. Therefore, I approached more students after the second class ended and 15 more joined. There were 27 students (9 students from each of instructor) from six English writing classes.

Each student was assigned a number, such as S1, S2 to S27. Among the 27 students, there were 15 freshmen and 12 sophomores. Twenty were females and seven were males, and all were over 18 years old (Table 3-3). They agreed to respond to the surveys, be interviewed both informally and formally during the semester, and to have their writing assignments collected. The students varied in their English language proficiency and writing backgrounds. More detailed descriptions of the student participants, including their studies and campus life, writing experiences and attitudes toward English writing will be presented in the subsequent chapters.

Table 3-3. Student informants

Instructor	Class Level	Class size	Years of English Study	Number of Participants & gender
Jack	Sophomore (2)	8	7-13	3 (2F & 1M)
	Freshmen (2)	14	6-12	6 (4F & 2M)
Ken	Sophomore (1)	15	7-13	4 (3F& 1M)
	Sophomore (2)	15	7-13	5 (4F & 1M)
John	Freshmen (1)	14	6-12	4 (3F & 1M)
	Freshmen (2)	15	6-12	5 (4F & 1M)
				Total: 27 (20F&7M)

(F: Females; M: Males)

Data Collection

Data were gathered from multiple sources such as classroom observations, interviews, artifacts, and surveys during the 18 weeks from March to July 2010. Major

data sources were formal and informal interviews with participants and extensive classroom observations, supplemented by artifacts and surveys.

Interviews

Interviews aim at bringing to the surface meanings that have been taken for granted, so that others can understand the meaning constructed by the participants as well as why those constructs made sense to the participants (Hatch, 2002). There are three forms of interviews: the informal interview, the formal interview, and the standard interview (Hatch, 2002). Informal interviews are unstructured conversations with the participants. They are regarded as opportunities to ask informants to explain what the researcher has observed. Formal interviews are structured or semi-structured conversations with the informants. A time and a place were set aside for such conversations.

Formal Interviews with NES instructors were semi-structured. There were two formal interviews with each NES instructor. The first interview was conducted in the middle of the semester in May 2010 for 60 minutes for each instructor. These formal interviews were conducted in the classrooms or cafeteria at a convenient time. In the first interview, the questions addressed their teaching method and their perceptions of the issues and questions about teaching English writing to Chinese students (Appendix B). Responses were audio taped. The second interviews were conducted after field observations were over. These interviews covered issues and questions that emerged from their writing instruction on the basis of field notes and my research journals, as well as questions related to their perception of their teaching effectiveness (Appendix B). There were about 6 hours of formal interviews and over 180 pages of transcripts of interview data.

Formal Interviews with students were semi-structured individual interviews that were conducted one or two weeks before the final exams in July 2010. The interview questions pertained to (1) perceptions on their English writing learning; (2) clarification for their experiences in the classrooms; and (3) perceptions of NES instructor's teaching effectiveness (Appendix B).

Before each formal interview, I made an appointment with each student through his or her preferred contact method. Each interview took place in a classroom or a cafeteria on campus, lasted about 60 minutes, and was recorded with a digital recorder. The interviews were conducted in Chinese. From the students' perspective, they preferred Chinese in order to adequately express themselves. All formal interviews with students were transcribed and translated into English. To ensure the accuracy of the translated quotes, a certified translator was recruited to double-check the translated quotes. There were about 250 pages interview transcripts.

Informal interviews with all informants were conducted after or between classes. These interviews were conversations guided by the observation field notes. The immediate follow-up was advantageous because it gave informants a chance to reflect what they had done before they forgot it. Before or after each class, I talked with both instructor and student informants regarding what happened during the instruction or asked questions from my notes, as well as students' responses. I talked with both instructors and students as frequently as possible. During the breaks or when students were writing on their own, the NES instructors often came to me talking about how they came upon their teaching idea or where they gathered information about teaching and what they thought of their students' learning, or sometimes they just shared their

personal life stories. Before or after classes, the students often approached me talking about their response to the NES instructors' teaching, their values and beliefs regarding teaching and learning of English writing, and their interest and concerns related to learning to write.

Classroom Observations

In the study of teaching and learning relationship in the educational field, observation is a common technique to collect data (Zhang, 2008). Entering a setting allows a researcher to record "what is going on here?" (Spradley, 1980, p.73) Through researcher's eyes, readers understand not only what was happening in the research site, but also why participants act in a certain ways (Hatch, 2002).

Although the observations spanned 18 weeks, there were two weeks off: one at the beginning of May 2010 due to a Chinese national holiday and a reading week before final exams. Thus, field observations were recorded for sixteen weeks. During the sixteen weeks, I observed six writing classes for 540 minutes per week—two classes a day, three days a week, for a total of 144 hours (Table 3-4).

Table 3-4. Observation time summary

Instructors	Weeks																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	Total Minutes
Jack's Fresh	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	1440
Soph.	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	1400
Ken' Soph. 1	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	1440
Soph. 2	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	1440
John' Fresh 1	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	1440
Fresh 2	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	1440
Total	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	540	8640 (144 h.)

For example, I observed Jack' freshmen writing class for 90 minutes on Monday mornings and then his sophomore writing class for another 90 minutes in the afternoon of the same day. For note taking on the spot, I adopted an observation protocol

(Appendix A) based on Creswell's model (1999, p.129), which helped me to separate the emic and etic voices in data collection.

During the study, I first observed my student-participants as an outsider. Students usually sat in the first two rows and I sat in the third row, taking notes about what was happening in the classrooms. I tried not to disturb them and did not move around the classroom in order to let the teacher and students perform in the manner they were used to. As a newcomer to the classes, I found the first few times of observations were not fruitful, but I jotted down my questions and asked for clarification later. As rapport built, participants were increasingly comfortable with me and were willing to share their ideas. Following the NES instructors' advice, I did not use audio or video recorder during the classroom observation. I could only take notes and during the first few times the NES instructors would read my notes. There were over 600 pages of observation field notes.

In doing observational study, Hatch (2002) suggested that every researcher should keep a research journal or diaries recording "experiences, ideas, fears, mistakes, confusions, breakthroughs, and problems that arise during fieldwork" (p.87) to be more objective. I kept a research journal recording the data collection process, recording my feeling, thoughts, and questions regarding the data collection to minimize potential bias.

Artifacts

Artifacts are items of physical evidence that help researchers address the research questions. By using artifacts, researchers have access to a rich data set. Researchers can ask informants to explain the artifacts to them and it is very likely to yield unexpected data. In this study, copies of instructional materials, lesson plans and

students' writing or other documents pertaining to the research questions were collected. During both formal interviews and informal interviews with instructors and students, I would ask the informants to explain the artifacts. For example, I asked students how they responded to the teacher's comments on their writing. Artifacts were a useful data source in supporting and triangulating interviews and classroom observations. When artifacts were collected, more insights emerged from the data. They helped me to generate new interview questions.

Surveys

In the study, the three NES instructors were surveyed in February 2010 via email. There were also surveys done with student participants in order to understand their background information such as their personal information, experiences of English writing learning, and their attitude towards English writing (Appendix D). The surveys were given to students after they agreed to participate in the study. They took the students about 30 minutes to complete. A detailed report on student participants is in Chapter 4.

<div align="center">

Data Analysis

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Data analysis is finding meaning from data systematically (Hatch, 2002). The preliminary data cannot automatically lead to in-depth understanding of the issues under study, unless the researchers use their intellectual capabilities to make sense of the data. Hatch explained, "analysis means organizing and interrogating data in ways that allow researchers to see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanations, make interpretations, mount critiques, or generate theories" (p.148). For coding the data collected from multiple cases, I adopted and adapted Strauss and Corbin's (1990) grounded theory and Merriam's (1998) within-case and cross-case

analysis strategy as my data analysis guidelines to find meanings and explanations in each case and across cases.

Figure 3-2 is the coding process that I used. Within each case data analysis, there are three coding procedures including open coding, axial coding, and selective coding to identify core categories among data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). I regarded each case as "a comprehensive case in and of itself" (Merriam, 1998, p.194) and provided a detailed description for each case. In order to provide substantial description in data analysis, constant comparative method was also applied. According to Merriam (1998), the constant comparative method is in line with "the inductive, concept-building orientation of all qualitative research" (p.159).

Researcher's reflective journal
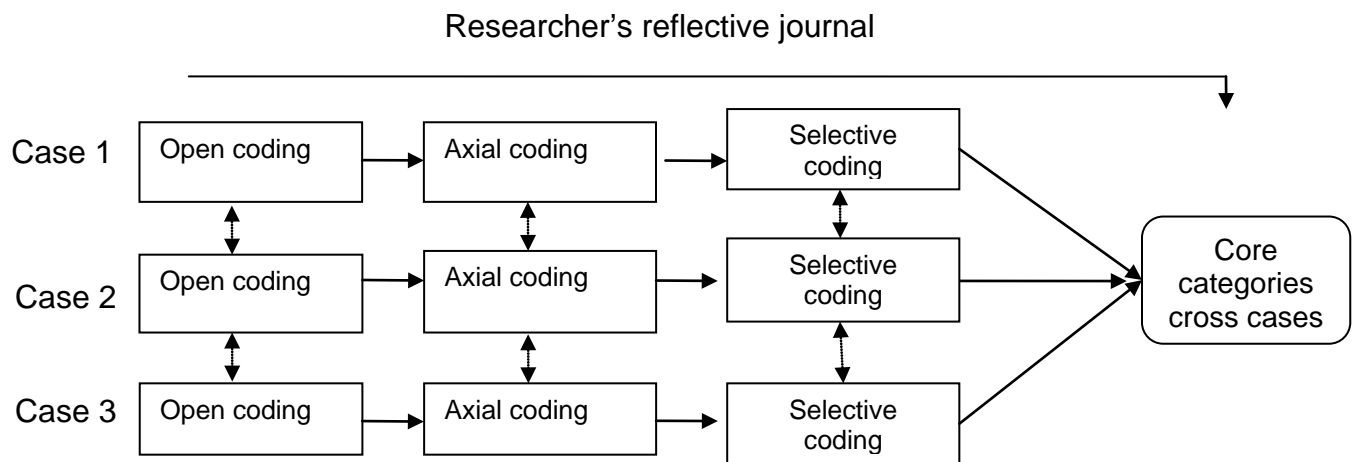
Figure 3-2. Flowchart of data analysis

Cross-case data analysis is not simply summarizing among cases to find out some similarities; Merriam stressed the need of searching for a more powerful explanation across many cases. Merriam (1998) put that:

> Within-case analysis treats each case as a comprehensive case. Data are gathered so the researcher can learn as much about the contextual variables as possible that might have a bearing on the case. Once the analysis of each case is completed, cross-case analysis begins. The

researcher attempts to build a general explanation that fits each of the individual cases even though the cases will vary in their details (p.194).

Before data analysis, I transcribed both teachers' and students' interview data and field observation notes into electronic files and saved them in my computer. There were 411 pages of interview transcripts and 605 pages of observation notes. By listening to, reading, and rereading the documents, I gained a preliminary understanding of how I should focus on exploring the NES instructors' writing instruction. I also marked places that needed further clarification. This initial data transcription stage was helpful for me to proceed to the within-case analysis.

Within-case analysis

As Figure 3-2 shows, I followed open coding, axial coding and selective coding. At open coding stage, first I read through the data quickly to gain a general impression. I constantly asked myself questions like "What is going on here?", "Why is this being done?", and "What category does this incident indicate?" I looked for significant issues and problems made by or mentioned by participants. Technically, I wrote and refined my words describing each meaning unit or each sentence. Sample codes included "teaching basic knowledge," "believing writing as a skill," "aiming at teaching students to write right," etc. Appendix F is an example of the open codes. Open coding allowed me to see "what is happening there" and to form thematic ideas from data. At the same time, reflective writing guided me to explore potential themes during subsequent interviews and data analysis.

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), axial coding is "putting the data back together in new ways by making connections between a category and its subcategories" (p.27). It is also the beginning of organizing and categorizing open codes and makes

connections of codes from all data sources. In this axial coding stage, I categorized open codes resonating with each other into a new code. Technically, when I compared and contrasted open codes I used the same colors to mark the related subcategories but new colors to mark new categories that emerged. Examples of open codes included "modeling after writing examples," "correcting linguistic mistakes," "lecturing more than writing," etc. Axial codes lead to selective codes.

Selective coding specifies possible relationships between categories developed in the previous coding level. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), the selective codes should represent the relationship among categories across data sets. The selective codes covered the properties of the NES instructors' pedagogical practice, such as "focus on linguistic correctness" and "teacher-centered instruction." In this phase of coding, fractured concepts generated from previous coding process now merged into a theoretical direction.

During each stage, I constantly compared codes between different set of data within a case. For example, in each case, I compared categories constructed in interviews with categories in observation and categories from observation with that from artifacts. Constant comparison finally led to the saturation of categories. Appendix G is an example of coding trail, which shows how codes merge from open coding to selective coding from case 3. The core category did not emerge until cross-case analysis.

Cross-case analysis

Since there are multiple cases in the collective case study, I conducted cross-case analysis to find common patterns among the three NES instructors' writing instruction. I

followed Merriam's (1998) guideline to develop naturalistic generalizations from analyzing data across the cases and finding the differences and similarities among the cases. Since this study was not a comparative study, I let differences stand in each case and emphasized finding similarities from the three NES instructors' teaching behaviors. There is a visual representation of how the common patterns were generated among cases on the next page, as Figure 3-3 shows.

Codes within case	Codes across cases
Stress on surface-level writing	Linguistic Correctness
Writing with models	
Unconstructive feedback	Lecture over Practice
Language & form focused instruction	
Feedback on surface-level correctness	Product over Process
Unchallenging writing topics	
Skill-based instruction	Lack of knowledge in Ss
Framing writing by formula and principles	
Linguistic-centered instruction	Lack of knowledge in cultural rhetoric

Figure 3-3. Visual representation from individual case to a common pattern

At the cross-case analysis stage, I also constantly compared codes across cases. For example, in case 1 and 2, I compared interviews categories of case 1 with interview categories in case 2 and observation categories of case 1 with categories of case 2, as the dashed arrows in Figure 3-2 indicate.

Reflective journaling is one more step to achieve methodological rigor. It was a talk with myself as a researcher in order to make the nature of data collection and data analysis clear and subjective, such as why I made the choice and decision about my data. The journal helped me to constantly compare data among data sets and find consistent themes. During data collection, my journal included salient themes and questions that guided my later interviews as probing questions. During data analysis,

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journaling allowed me to write down my questions and impressions of the data and thus allowed me to find themes and categories in the data better during initial and focused coding. Journaling made me fully conscious of my subjective stance in making decisions during data analysis. Here is an excerpt from my journal:

Planning lessons

Ken: For me, I spend most of my time, as a teacher, trying to figure out lesson plans that will work.

Planning what to teach depends on the instructors' pedagogical knowledge, planning how to teach depends on the instructors' pedagogical content knowledge and knowledge about students. Here, he struggled to find lesson plans that will work. Apparently, he noticed there is a gap between his expectation and students' performance. Could this imply: 1) he is experimenting; 2) he did not have enough pedagogical knowledge or pedagogical content knowledge. However, this is not the first year he taught writing.

My data analysis process was recursive and dynamic rather than linear. The analysis process started during data collection, and while coding I often navigated coding strategies among different data sets as well as my research journal back and forth.

By adopting the data analysis techniques from Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Merriam (1998), I found important meaning and patterns to answer my research questions from interview data, field notes, surveys, and artifacts. The three NES instructors' teaching approaches will be reported in Chapter 5, 6, 7 respectively and the common pattern generated among the cases will be reported in Chapter 8.

Trustworthiness of Findings

A research study should have internal and external validity. Internal validity, also called credibility, means to what extent the research is accurate and trustworthy.

External validity, also called transferability, refers to the extent the research can be generated to other contexts (Creswell, 1998).

Credibility

Credibility, the internal validity of a research study, is essential to qualitative studies as they are constantly criticized for their subjectivity. Researchers believe being self-reflective regarding their roles and perspectives improves credibility (Clark & Creswell, 2010). In addition to a prolonged stay at the research field (18 weeks), I triangulated of the data sources, participated in frequent peer discussions, and did member checks.

Triangulation of data Triangulation of data sources can enhance the accuracy of a study (Creswell, 1998). In the study, I triangulated data from interviews, field notes, artifacts, and surveys as well as my research journal. In the semester-long field study, triangulation among different data sources was ongoing.

Peer discussions I am in a study group of several doctoral students within the same department. They are familiar with my study, research questions, and research design. I talked to them on a weekly basis about the data collection and data analysis process. Peers' questions improved my data analysis and allowed me to see my data and coding more objectively.

Member checks Member checking is a process of confirming the data collected with the participants (Merriam, 1998). In the study, I shared interview transcripts with the informants on site or through emails to verify the accuracy of data.

Transferability

Transferability is essential to the external validity of qualitative research. Transferability in qualitative studies means the generalization of the findings to other

studies of similar settings. A detailed description of the setting is important to the transferability of a qualitative study.

In this study, I provided my readers with a rich description of the setting. The study may not be generalized to other NES teachers who teach English writing to Chinese students upon consideration of differing personal and educational backgrounds, teaching styles, learning experiences, or beliefs. But the study can be informative and suggestive with regard to other NES teachers in China or other countries where NES are hired as writing instructors.

Subjectivity Statement

It is believed that researchers should be aware of the subjectivities of their perspectives in collecting, analyzing, and writing up data, which can enhance the credibility of research (Glesne, 1999). As Denzin posited, "Interpretive research begins and ends with the biography and self of the researcher" (1989, p.12). I am inseparable from what I already knew and experienced; thereafter, I will introduce my learning and teaching experience in cross-cultural context and how they might influence my study.

Personal reflection

I had all my formal education up to graduate school in China. I learned by memorizing knowledge in books, reviewing teachers' notes and practicing sample tests in order to survive all kinds of tests, including the most critical exam in a Chinese student' s life—CEEs (college entrance exams). I started to learn English in the 7th grade. The way I learned English vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as I remember, was highly dependent upon memorization. English classes started with the teacher's explanation of new vocabulary, grammar rules, and analysis of short English essays in textbooks. We listened and remembered. If I did not do well

on the exams, I considered it my own problem and believed I should work harder to remember.

In college, I majored in English and later in linguistics in graduate school. Reading, speaking, listening, writing, and translating were the five language skills we needed to practice extensively in my study. In my spare time, I listened to English radio, watched English movies, and spoke in English as part of my language learning. As for learning to write, I was taught in a five-paragraph style and asked to translate from Chinese to English when I wrote.

When I became a doctoral student in the College of Education at the University of Florida, I took various courses in education and education research such as research methodology, educational psychology, learning theories, and literacy, as well as multicultural and international literature. I found memorization did not work well, but learning required one to comprehend, to analyze, to synthesize, and to think both critically and creatively. I also came to understand the complexity and diverse nature of teaching and learning, especially teaching and learning in cross-cultural environments. For example, it is important to respect, understand, and appreciate every culture to realize the values of one's own culture or any other culture in cross-cultural teaching and learning.

As a graduate assistant in China, I taught English writing to first year non-English major students. I taught my students to write in the way that I was taught in China—five-paragraph style. After reading and studying a model, students memorized the organization and language prior to turning in a similar piece in two weeks. Teaching writing in English was for exam purposes only.

I also had chances to teach to American students Children's Literature for several semesters at the University of Florida. I found American students are different from Chinese students. Students do not greet teachers as humbly as my Chinese students did. They do not help teachers clean the chalkboard as Chinese students usually do. American students seldom take notes in classes and seem to like to work in pairs or groups rather than just listen to lectures. They love to speak up, perform, argue, and read aloud in front of the whole class. The cross-cultural teaching experience taught me that while an instructor's subject knowledge is important, what is equally important is how the instructor teaches.

Being a student, a learner of English writing and an instructor in two countries, I was able to communicate with both Chinese student participants and NES instructors smoothly. It appeared that the students enjoyed sharing with me their thoughts on teaching and learning English writing more than with their NES instructor. The NES instructors also shared with me candidly their perceptions and thoughts on students, teaching and local life. On the other hand, my participants saw me as "someone who understands them" and might not have explained as explicitly as they would have to a researcher who had no common learning and teaching experience. I also might fail to probe as much as I should.

My English sometimes dissatisfied me because when I tried to find the right expressions for a question, new questions continued to emerge, interrupting my thinking. Thinking and speaking in a second language might slow me down and prevented me from asking as many questions as I should have within the time allowed.

Research reflection

I became interested in NES instructors' English writing instruction after one of my American friends started to teach English writing in a Chinese university. He struggled and seemed confused, which caught my attention. Then I recalled my own learning experience with NES instructors. I had NES instructors when I was in college and graduate school in China. I remember an English writing teacher from Britain. I worked so hard to write in English by checking English dictionaries frequently, but was deeply frustrated by the corrections in red ink all over my paper and wondered whether I could ever write in English. I thought my limited English proficiency was the reason I wrote poorly. Later, after I studied L2 writing research and took courses on teaching writing, I became aware that writing is more than the manipulation of linguistic symbols and achieving linguistic correctness. After been taught by NES instructors and hearing a friend's confusion, I was inspired to conduct this research; at the same time, my own opinion towards NES instructors' writing instruction influenced me as a researcher.

My learning and teaching experience in the two cultures and my knowledge on the topic, as a part of me, inevitably influenced me as a researcher and the research design, methods as well as analyzing data. Therefore, I might only present a partial reality of the NES instructors' teaching approaches.

However, since I cannot stay out of myself, I took some measures to monitor my subjectivity and bias. In addition to being aware of what I knew and what I believed as a student, a writer and a researcher, my reflective journal writing served as a systematic and ongoing written reflection of how my understanding of NES instructors' teaching approaches developed. Also, I engaged in constructive dialogues with my study group peers to have open discussions of my data. I viewed myself as a learner in the process

of research because it was the participants who held the stories and information. I further tried not to impose my opinions upon my participants or direct their responses by asking open-ended questions such as "what do you mean by . . ." and recording what I heard and saw in the NES instructors' classes. I tried not to judge what could have been done or what I did not do, nor did I manipulate data to fit my research purpose.

Ethnical Issues in the Study

This study strictly followed the regulations of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to insure the abidance of ethics in qualitative research, such as protection of informants' identity, voluntary participation in the study, the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time, the potential damage that the informants could experience, the purpose of the study, and the ways to cooperate. Letters were sent to participants and informed consent forms were signed before the study began. Appendix D is the letter to participants. Their names were replaced with pseudonyms. All data was locked in a safe location and kept confidential at all times.

Summary

This study is intended to inform an understanding about how English writing classes were taught by NES instructors and to discover the issues and problems involved in their teaching of English writing. Three NES instructors and 27 students from six English writing classes participated in the case study. The data were collected through 144 hours classroom observations, formal and informal interviews of the instructors and students, artifacts, and surveys. Data was analyzed in an on-going way with Strauss and Corbin's coding strategies and Merriam's within-case and cross-case analysis techniques. To maintain the trustworthiness of the data triangulation of data,

peer discussions, member-checks, and research journal reflection were applied in the study.

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CHAPTER 4
SETTINGS AND PARTICIPANTS

In a case study, contextual information is essential for a comprehensive understanding of the study. The study is about three native-English-speaking (NES) instructors' English writing instructions at the S University. In this chapter, I will describe the setting, the writing context in which the Chinese students engaged, the participants, the students' campus lives, and the instructors' working environment.

The Setting

The study was conducted at the school of Foreign Languages, one of the 23 colleges and schools at S University. It included four departments: (1) the English department which educates English majors; (2) the Japanese department for Japanese majors; (3) the department of Western languages which teaches French, Germany and Spanish; and (4) the department of public English which is responsible for teaching English to school-wide non-English majors. All NES instructors are faculty members in the English Department.

The English Department enrolls about 100 English majors each year, and about 70 percent of them are from S city. The department has 5 full professors, 10 associate professors, 17 lecturers, and 2 teaching assistants. Fourteen of the teachers have Ph.D. degrees and three are pursuing their PhDs. The other seventeen teachers hold M.A. degrees. All NES teachers who are hired must have a M.A. or higher degree. The workload for each teacher in the English Department averages about 12 class hours (1 class hour = 1 credit = 45 minutes). Most English courses are two credits, like English writing. Students meet about 90 minutes in the English writing class each week.

The goal of the English program was to prepare students to work as professionals in the field of teaching, translation, interpretation, tourism, journalism, and international business. For example, students should have a solid foundation in the English language and also be well informed about English-speaking countries' cultures, politics, economics, and histories. Upon graduation, it is intended that students communicate, translate, teach, and manage in English in the fields of foreign affairs, economy, and education. Under these goals, the department offers English foundation courses such as English Writing, Speaking, Listening, and Linguistics, other content courses such as Comprehensive English Reading, Public Speaking in English, American and Western Culture, Translation, Interpretation, American and British Literature, and Linguistics. The foundation courses, like the writing courses under the study are offered to freshmen and sophomores. There are 3 to 4 cohorts enrolled each year and each has about 30 students in it. A cohort usually takes classes together except English Writing and English Speaking. A cohort of 30 students splits into two smaller classes and the NES writing instructors teach classes about 15.

One hundred and sixty credits are required for English majors to graduate. Students take 10 credits of English Writing, over 40 credits of Comprehensive English Reading, and about 20 credits of Listening and Speaking. After taking 10 credits of English writing during the freshmen, sophomore, and junior years, English majors are required to write a graduation thesis during the senior year. It is a requirement by the national English curriculum for English majors. Besides national and school policies, the student participants' previous writing experience (both English and Chinese) also shapes their learning of English writing.

Writing Instruction for Chinese Students

The students in this study were not new writing learners; they had adequate L1 writing proficiency. They did not lose that writing proficiency even when in English. To understand them as writers, we need to understand their L1 writing experience in Chinese context.

In China, good writing, good writers, and the ability to write are highly valued. Good writing involves truth, philosophy, knowledge, and beauty in language form and images. Writing is considered the best way to demonstrate a person's literacy level and intelligence. Good writers are regarded as having cultivated minds and enjoy a privileged social status in Chinese history. There are diverse approaches to learning to write. One popular and influential approach is, even today, to require students to memorize canonical pieces written by masters like Confucius or other classic essays. Through memorization, students internalize the message, the truth, the style, the structure, and the diction in canonical and classic pieces and learn to consult them as models of good writing. People believed that "熟读唐诗三百首，不会吟诗也会吟" (Recitation of 300 Tang Dynasty poems makes those who cannot write poets). This implies that only after students memorize the canon have they achieved a certain degree of language proficiency with a repertoire of writing skills and can then interact with reader, text, and context freely. Therefore, reading, memorization, and imitation were crucial to learning to write in ancient China. Teachers were, and are still, supposed to have already internalized many canonical essays, and are familiarized with writing principles that enable them to serve as "judges" of good writing. These methods

influence students' ways of thinking and writing style. This approach that has dominated Chinese composition instruction for thousands of years is still widely applied (Xu, 1985).

English Writing

The Chinese K-12 education system is highly centralized with the Ministry of Education (MOE) setting the curriculum, selecting textbooks and evaluating students at the end of grade 12. The whole education system is closely geared to the national College Entrance Examination (CEE), which has a lifetime influence on students (Lebans & Radigan, 2007). English for K-12 students is also under the guidance of national English curriculum written by the MOE. In the national high school and middle school English curriculum, reading ability, grammar and vocabulary, translation ability, and writing ability at a basic level are required. In order to succeed in the CEE, most high school students practice only the English writing that enables them to pass the college English entrance exam. Students are required to complete a 100-120-word essay in 30 minutes according to the prompt given, in which students should demonstrate correct opinions, a clear-cut theme, a good command of grammar, and vivid language use (You, 2004, 2010). Students usually have been provided with multiple models of writing to memorize and imitate, including particular words, phrases, grammar rules, and sentence patterns, so that they can write quickly and correctly by filling ideas into prescribed patterns in the limited time of an examination.

English writing instruction for English majors is largely focused on form and current-traditional rhetoric (He, 2009; Xu, 1989; You, 2004). Although English writing became an independent discipline for English major students at most Chinese universities in the 1980s, English writing pedagogy has been basically the same for

decades (You, 2010). Teachers lecture on linguistic features of descriptive, narrative or argumentative model essays, and students imitate them. In the end teachers grade students' work in terms of content, language, grammar, and vocabulary correctness. There are neither multiple drafts nor revisions. The first draft is also the final draft and the teacher is the sole judge.

In an English curriculum issued for English major students in 1990 by the MOE, students are required to write politically correctly, structure coherently and use error-free language. Since English major students may also take content courses in English such as literature, culture, and journalism, they have more opportunities than non-English major students to read and write in English in content areas. No matter what subject areas students write for, the criteria of grading are the same—content, language, grammar, and vocabulary correctness.

English writing is usually offered as a foundation course like listening, speaking and reading. Some universities offer it to English major students during the first two years; some offer it the last two years due to different beliefs about when to start learning writing. In most universities, English major students need to take the TEM 8 (Test for English Major band 8) as an exit exam. The prompt for TEM is similar to the prompt of the GRE issue in argumentative writing but with more specific organizational requirements. The following is a typical prompt for the organization in TEM 8:

> In the first part of your essay, you should state clearly your main argument, and in the second part, you should support your argument with appropriate details. In the last part, you should bring what you have written to a natural conclusion or make a summary (TEM 8, 2010).

This test-oriented approach has dominated Chinese English classrooms since the 1950s. Although some teachers tried to adopt process writing and English for academic

purposes, pragmatic difficulties such as large class size, short writing periods, and a lack of reading materials constrained them from adopting new writing pedagogies and ideas for their classrooms. But there has been development of English writing instruction since the early 1990's. Western writing pedagogies such as process writing and EAP (English for Academic Purpose) have begun to gradually enter Chinese English writing classrooms (You, 2004). In the 2004 version of CET curriculum issued by the MOE oral and written proficiencies in cross-cultural communication have been emphasized in addition to language competence and language learning strategies. This new curriculum motivated some teachers to implement process writing to develop students' language proficiency and communication skills.

Hinkel (2002) proposed that the exam-oriented English writing instruction in Asian countries such as China leaves much room for improvement. The pedagogies of English writing in China are under the influence of ESL writing pedagogies in English-speaking countries but lag far behind. Under the current English writing instruction in China, many expatriate native English-speaking instructors are employed. They are believed and expected to contribute to the development of English writing instruction in China by bringing in new instructional approaches (Li, 2009), but may or may not have the background to do so.

The Student Participants

Students at S University can take up to 35 credits (over 10 subjects) a semester. For dual majors, they may take up to 40 credits a semester. On average, students take 25 to 30 credits per semester. For example, in the study, the freshmen took 16 class hours of English courses and 10 hours non-English courses per week, including 6 hours of Comprehensive English Reading, two hours of English Writing, Speaking, Listening

and other classes respectively. The end of the semester is the busiest time for students. Sometimes they need to take three exams in a day. My interviews were conducted one or two weeks before their exam week as the students would not have any available time around the exam period.

Over 80% of the students in the current study reported they had part-time jobs. Most of them tutored younger students in English. As English major students in the only university in a city where learning English was popular from young children to adults, they have many opportunities to tutor students from kindergartners to high school. Some students were doing business with friends, such as running a clothing or gift store. Some invested in the stock market. Fifty percent of the student participants belonged to various student organizations: student union, symphony club, drama club, dance club, speech club, or photography club. Some of them were also class leaders, coordinating between instructors and students. In general, the English major students have a packed campus life.

The students' interests range from music to sports to politics to science. But most of all, they talked about fashions, music, and movies. They admitted that they seldom had time to do extra reading and writing outside of class due to their heavy study load, work and hobbies. Writing in English, except for accomplishing writing assignments, is seldom a part of their daily life.

According to the surveys and interviews, the student participants have studied English for 6 to 13 years—some students started in junior high school, some started in kindergarten, and all reported having studied English grammar and vocabulary intensely in high school. Students from S city usually started to learn English in elementary school

and thus have longer time being exposed to English compared with students from other cities and provinces. In general, most English major students believe they have a good command of English grammar and vocabulary and are highly literate in Chinese.

The student surveys revealed that the student participants had quite similar English learning backgrounds. The majority of the students were able to write grammatically correct sentences in English and answer questions in examinations, and translate from English to Chinese and vice versa. The following are the most frequent types of writing training they received before the time of the study:

- Responding to exam questions
- Sentence combination
- Sentence expansion
- Sentence paraphrasing
- Sentence making
- Translation

Their writing practice was not for authentic purposes and lacked variety. For example, they reported they were seldom taught to write résumé, memos, critiques, proposals, or academic papers. Although they have been taught to write narrative or descriptive essays, they were never required to write anything more than 250 words even after studying English for at least 7 years.

Due to limited writing practice and training in their previous schooling, the student participants lacked confidence when writing in English. As they stated in the survey, many of them did not think they were competent English writers. The following are what the students thought most frequently:

- My English writing is not as good as others
- I look forward to write my ideas in English
- I never fully expressed myself in English writing
- I am not good at English writing
- I have no fear of my English writing being evaluated

Though they were not confident in English writing, they still held positive attitudes toward learning English writing: wishing to be able to write and express themselves well in English and wanting to share their work with their peers. They hoped to express their thoughts and ideas well in English, to communicate, and to have sufficient English proficiency for their future profession. Though unconfident in English writing, over half of them reported that they were good writers in Chinese.

The student participants reported various English writing experiences in high school. Many of them from S city started to write in English from elementary school while some students only began to write in high school. Whatever their previous writing experiences, they were all trained to write for exams. Ninety percent of them reported that their high school English teachers trained them to write complex sentences and use sophisticated vocabulary to show that they had a good command of English. Thirty percent of them reported they would write Chinese first and then translate it into English when asked to compose in English. Nevertheless, these writing experiences did not give them confidence in writing in English.

NES Instructors at S University

In the English Department at S University, 8 out of 10 NES instructors taught English writing. They were from the United States, Canada, Britain, Australia, and New Zealand. They taught three kinds of English writing classes: Reading and Writing taken by freshmen, Writing taken by sophomores, and Academic Writing (this later course depends on student enrollment) by third or fourth year students. The department assigned only NES instructors to teach English writing and allowed the instructors to choose which year to teach. Some teach freshmen, like John; some teach sophomores, like Ken and some teach both like Jack.

They teach not only English Writing but also courses like Speaking, Listening, and American and Western Culture. For example, Jack taught Listening and John taught Speaking to freshmen, Ken taught Public Speaking and American History to sophomores. The teaching load for NES instructors during the semester when the study conducted was as the following: Jack taught 12 class hours of English Writing and four class hours of Listening. John taught 12 class hours of English Writing and two class hours of Speaking. Ken taught 12 class hours of English Writing, two class hours of Public Speaking in English and two class hours of an Introduction to Contemporary America (both Public Speaking in English and an Introduction to Contemporary America are elective courses for the whole university) (Table 4-1). Their teaching load was comparable to that of their Chinese colleagues.

Table 4-1. Class hours of the NES instructors

Instructor	Jack		John		Ken	
Course taught	Writing	12	Writing	12	Writing	12
	Listening	4	Speaking	2	Public Speaking	2
					Intro to Contemp.America	2
Total class hours		16		14		16

S city has a population of over 13,000 foreigners working at various companies, language schools, public schools, and colleges. Among them, the majority is from English-speaking countries such as the United States, Canada, and Australia. Since S University is the only comprehensive university in the city, the limited number of teaching jobs attracted many applicants.

NES instructors were satisfied with how they have been treated as faculty members. The university provided subsidized on-campus apartments for NES instructors. The three NES instructors in my study all lived on campus because of the

good location, inexpensive rent, and park-like environment. As for the salary, the three NES instructors all agreed that it was a competitive salary that allowed them to live comfortably in the city.

All the NES instructors as well as their NES colleagues share one large office, where they talked, complained, and discussed local or international news, students, Chinese administrators, classroom teaching, and students' writing. They also exchanged ideas and shared syllabi, textbooks, and other teaching resources. In the study, both Ken and John expressed that they had learned a lot from Jack who had 19 years of EFL teaching experience.

Like their Chinese colleagues, NES instructors are evaluated online by their students at the end of each semester. The evaluation is worth 100 points, covering categories such as perceptions on the instructor's teaching attitude, teaching content, teaching approaches, effectiveness, and suggestions for instructors. The results are only available to the Dean's office and delivered to the instructor individually at the beginning of next semester. The students' evaluation has an impact on a teacher's employment since it determines the renewal of job contract and the size of the pay raise.

There were no regular formal faculty meetings for NES instructors, nor were there meetings with Chinese colleagues during the semester when the study was conducted. Chinese teachers have orientation and regular monthly meetings but there are no orientations or regular meetings for NES instructors. One informal lunch meeting for NES writing instructors was held to discuss whether to use the same textbook. Six of the eight writing instructors attended, but no agreement was reached. I learned that it

was the first and only meeting for NES instructors in the department. The NES instructors had limited or no contact with their Chinese colleagues, even with those who taught the same group of students. The only Chinese faculty member they had frequent contact with was their coordinator. The coordinator was an experienced teacher with a M.A. degree in ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) from a British university but never taught English writing.

There was a coordinator for English writing courses whose responsibility was to write a unified syllabus and facilitate the writing instruction of the freshmen or sophomores. However, none of the NES instructors in the study followed the unified syllabus because they did not think the unified syllabus was good enough. NES participants revealed that they were given no teaching support and resources other than time and place to teach and a suggested syllabus.

The NES instructors' social and off-work life differed. Jack rarely socializes with anyone either English-speaking or Chinese colleagues. Ken socializes with native English-speaking instructors often. John was friends with both Chinese and English-speaking people because of his family connection (his sister married a Chinese man). During their off-work time, Jack enjoyed playing golf, hiking and traveling; John coached basketball, tutored elementary and middle school students in English, and was even involved in an export business with Canadian friends; Ken spent most of his spare time tutoring. NES tutors are highly in demand at S city. Ken revealed that he had to reject many offers because his schedule was full; if he had the time, his income could have been doubled or tripled.

Physical Appearance of the Classrooms

Figure 4-1 is the physical appearance of the writing classrooms in the study. Since every classroom can hold over 70 students, Figure 4-1 only shows the front part of the classroom. Usually, students sat in the first three rows and I sat in the third row with students (the seat in red rectangular). The classrooms are roomy and air-conditioned. In the front of each classroom are a chalkboard and a powered screen. A computer on the teacher's desk is connected to the Internet. Teachers usually sit there talking and grading students' work if not lecturing. On the left side of the classrooms are wide glass windows, through which students can overlook a garden, a pond and a few ducks. The NES instructors teach and the students learn English writing in clean, bright, and modern classrooms.

Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the English department where the participants taught. Student participants' background information such as campus life, English learning and writing experiences, and attitudes could add to readers' understanding of the study. The working conditions of the three NES instructors and a description of the physical appearance of the English writing classes also serve as contextual information for the study. In the following Chapters 5, 6, and 7, I delineate the major issues in each of the NES instructor's English writing classes respectively, how their students responded to their instruction and what factors influenced their teaching effectiveness.
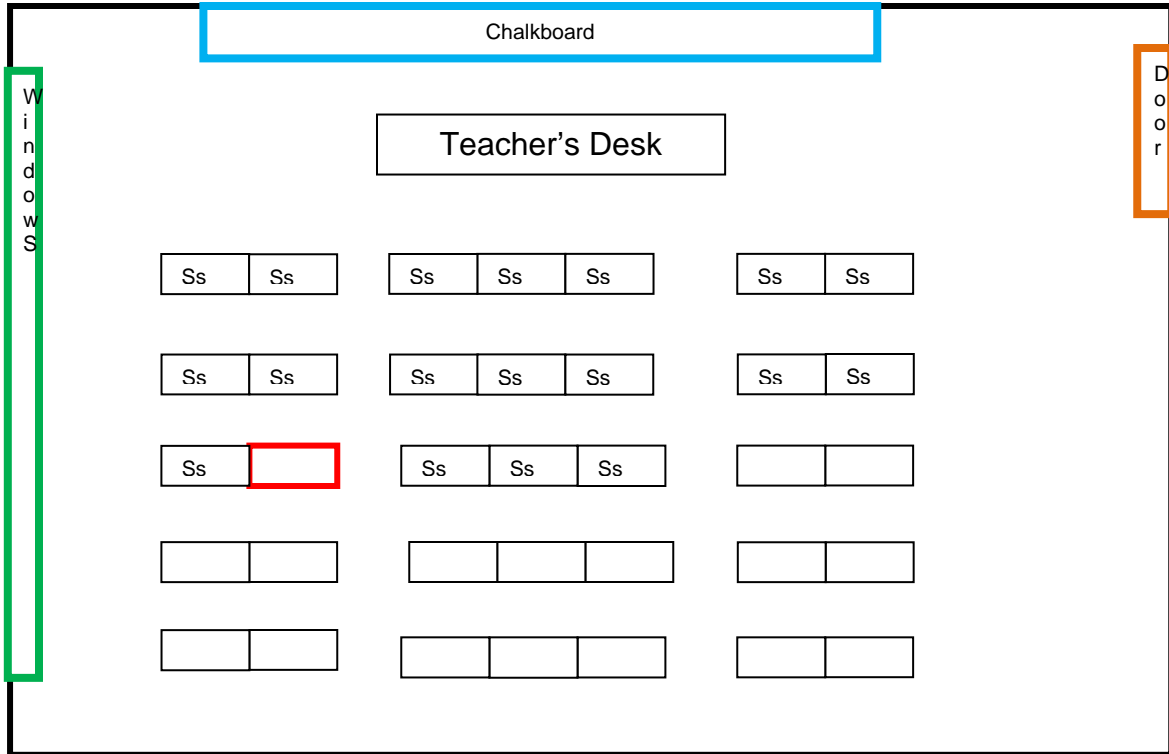
Figure 4-1. Physical appearance of the classrooms

CHAPTER 5
JACK: TEACHING WRITING WITH A RIGID MODEL

Jack's Profile

Personal and Educational Experience

Jack, an American in his fifties, grew up in a military family and lived in many places like California, Texas, Colorado, Florida, and Germany. He spent his high school years in Germany and came back to the United States for college. In a small college in Colorado, he earned a M.A. degree in English. He also studied advertising in New York for a while before teaching overseas.

Jack taught English for one year in a U.S. high school and then spent 16 years in Japan—mostly at a private language school for adults at Sendai, Japan. He taught all four-language areas—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Having stayed in Japan for 16 years, he joked that he was more like a Japanese rather than an American. He could speak fluent Japanese and write emails in Japanese.

As the only English major among the eight NES writing instructors, he believed that he knew more about English writing than others in the department. He was considered the most experienced and knowledgeable writing instructor by the other NES instructors and by the students. John and Ken, as well as others, consulted him regularly on how to teach writing.

What Brought Jack to S University

Because of Japan's economic recession, it became difficult to keep his teaching job at Sendai, Japan. Jack had to apply for a teaching job in another country. The large English learning population and teaching opportunities in China and other Asian countries drew his attention. He applied to S University and a university in Vietnam.

Both universities interviewed him and offered him a teaching position. He chose S University for its garden-like campus, competitive salary, and closeness to Hong Kong—one of his favorite cities. In 2007, he left Japan and officially joined the English department at S University. He revealed that "I am going to stay here for a while, students are good, and people treat me well" (T1.1.17.19).

Beliefs on Teaching EFL Writing

Jack believed that an English writing teacher is responsible for transmitting the knowledge he possesses about English writing like paragraphing, coherence, unity, and the process of writing to his students, and the students' job is to follow the teacher's instructions "actively"—do what the teacher has asked and show interest in improving their writing. He felt most of his students met his expectations. However, he thought teaching English writing in China was "challenging" (F.T1.3.16). He appeared frustrated. For example, he said, "I told them (students) what unity is many, many times. They still can't produce it. I don't know how to teach them anymore" (F.T1.3.18-19).

Jack thought that being reflective was the key to teaching. He put notes on the margin of the course materials for lesson plan revision. Notes included evaluations of current teaching approaches, new teaching ideas, grammar mistakes in the materials, and so forth: "bring students' writing next time," "new concept," "only one able to answer." He stated, "I am always making notes on my lessons, how to change this, how to change that, and rewrite course materials if needed" (T1.1.17.21-22). His lesson plans, teaching methods, and course materials might vary each semester.

For him, an English writing teacher has to know about English writing, be a writer himself, and view writing as a way for self-discovery. In his first English writing class, he told students, "The goal of this class is for you to write about personal experiences in a

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way that you learn something about yourself" (F.T1.5.2-3). He wrote a writing model on every topic that he intended to assign to students, and then he analyzed its sentence structures, paragraph development, and language use during class, wishing to provide students with language, structure, and organization to craft their own writing. He tried to put himself in his EFL students' shoes and said he would have liked to see a written example when he was learning to write in a foreign language.

Jack believed that a good writer needs the gift of being able to write a piece that can make people think in a different way, and writers should have enough world knowledge and rich life experiences to inform readers about interesting things. But he did not think his Chinese students had enough world knowledge to write something interesting to him; instead, he only expected Chinese students to write clearly and correctly (S.T1.1).

According to him, his teaching of English writing followed the steps of prewriting, drafting, revising, and grading. He attributed his understanding of teaching writing to his previous experience learning to write. He commented that, "This is the way that I have been taught and most native speakers write in this way, so I think it is the right approach to use" (F.T1.2.10-12). However, he doubted the ability of the Chinese students to revise their own writing or that of their peers. He would go through outlines and rough drafts with students individually each time, checking students' structures and language.

Jack claimed his teaching of English writing was guided by the language input theory—a concept he learned from his colleagues in Japan. As he put it, "My method of teaching English writing is different from the traditional one. I emphasize language input rather than explaining what good writing is" (J.T1.16-18). The language input, in Jack's

view, was to expose students to a variety of English expressions, phrases, and structures in context. He added, "Because of their limited vocabulary, they tend to use the same phrases over and over again. . . . They should expand (their vocabulary) to make their writing more complicated and more interesting" (T1.1.13.8-11). By analyzing the language and structure of his own writing models, he believed the students' language and writing proficiency could be improved, and if they remembered the language in the writing examples, they would be able to produce quality English essays in the future. He described his way of teaching English writing as "providing training wheels on a bicycle" (F.T1.4.5).

Jack did not think lecturing the whole class was an effective approach for teaching English writing to Chinese students due to their varied language ability. He believed that his students needed one-on-one tutoring. He preferred to address students' problems individually and privately. He liked the class size of fewer than 15 students, so he could have enough time to talk to each student on an individual basis. He emphasized that, "I'd like to point out their mistakes and show them specifically how to improve their work" (T1.1.4.18).

Jack wrote all his own reading and writing models, including a handbook of English writing introducing the conventions of clause, phrase, sentence, predication, complex and complicated sentences, coherence, unity, conciseness, processes of writing, and style in English writing. Jack frequently consulted a book called "*Writing Right*," a resource book for EFL writers to prepare for writing exams such as TOEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language), GRE (Graduate Record Examination),

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and IELTS (the International English Language Testing System). He used online resources such as blogs and news websites to inspire his writing.

Teaching Style

Jack's students regarded him as the strictest, the most professional, and the most distant NES writing instructor in the department. Jack seldom smiled in or outside of classes. Compared with other NES instructors who often said "Very good, but if I were you I'd like . . . ," his students found his words blunt and tried not to talk to him as much as possible. When he walked around checking his students' writing, he said mostly "This is not right. You should . . ." or "This is weak." He seldom told jokes, but when he did, his students could not appreciate them. Once he told his students, "Next week we are going to have a party. The party spells T-E-S-T" (F.T1.32.17). Another time in an afternoon class, students were sluggish. He said with sarcastic tone, "You are so energetic" (F.T1.7.10). He tried to keep a distance from students and said, "I have no personal relationship with students. It's not my job to be their friends. My job is to teach them writing" (T1.1.23.7-8). Once a student wrote passionately and emotionally about the drastic changes of how nice people in his hometown once were and how indifferent they now are. When Jack shared that piece with me, he said, "I don't care if you cry or not. This is a writing exercise. You just write it. Prove to yourself you can write in a logical way. But his writing doesn't make any sense to me" (T1.1.22.6-8).

Some students liked his classes for his dedication and knowledge of English, especially the terms of writing like "unity"—which they had never heard before. One of the students in his freshmen class told me that the good students were all in Jack's class because they felt Jack knew more about English writing even though he might not be the most pleasant instructor. Most of the students in his sophomore writing class

were with him in freshmen writing classes, although they had the opportunity to choose one of the other NES teachers. They thought him much better than those NES instructors who came into classrooms without preparation and taught directly out of textbooks. Jack was considered one of the best NES instructors despite students' ambivalent feelings about him. His strict, hardworking style earned him their respect.

Teaching Cycle

Although the semester has 18 weeks, instructional weeks excluded a one-week holiday break, the first two weeks of auditioning classes, and a reading week at the end of the semester. During those 14 weeks, Jack had three writing assignments and one reading exam for freshmen and four writing assignments for sophomores (Table 5-1). Jack's typical English writing cycle followed the following structure: Week One—teaching an article that related to the writing assignment; Week Two—analyzing in detail a writing model that he wrote so that students could imitate its organization, sentence structure, and phrases; Week Three—meeting with students individually either to discuss their outlines or rough drafts; and Week Four—commenting on and grading student writing. The teaching cycle was repeated for each writing assignment. Jack's model was of first and foremost importance in his instruction.

Jack's Teaching Characteristics

Having taught in China for three years, Jack had found that Chinese students' writing was full of language errors and that they knew very little about English writing. He noted that their writing lacked transitional devices, logical development, unity, and conventions, as well as being full of awkward and wordy sentences. Therefore, Jack adopted an approach stressing on linguistic correctness.

Stress on Surface-Level Writing

Due to his belief about writing correctness that Chinese students should first achieve, Jack spent much time lecturing about techniques and grammar as well as English writing conventions in each writing cycle. He emphasized drilling from paragraph to sentence to guarantee that students wrote correctly, from sentencing and paragraphing principles, punctuation, grammar rules, mechanics, and conventions in English writing. He also required students to follow a set of formatting rules from his handbook of writing in order to be uniform.

Lecturing on techniques and grammar

In both freshmen and sophomore writing classes, lectures on grammar and doing sentence exercises were an important part, especially during the first two weeks in the writing cycle. The sentences and grammar exercises that Jack adapted from resource books and the Internet were included as a part of his reading materials.

Typically, students were given several minutes to read (for example, a proofreading exercise) on their own, silently, and then to work on the exercises (for example, find as many mistakes as they could). While students read, Jack walked around the classroom checking on students. Finally, Jack gave correct answers. Besides grammar exercises, sentence exercises included sentence-combining, sentence splitting, writing parallel sentences, and so forth. Here is an example of Jack's sentence-combining exercise at Lesson Six that followed his teaching of a murder story to sophomore students.

<div align="center">

Combine Sentences

Andrew Carnegie
</div>

1. Andrew Carnegie was born in November 1835.
2. He was born in Scotland.

3. He became a Scottish-American industrialist, businessman, and entrepreneur.
4. He became a major philanthropist.
5. He was one of the most famous leaders of industry of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
6. He emigrated to the U.S. as a child.
7. His first job was as a messenger at a telegraph company.
8. He progressed up the company.
9. He changed his interests.
10. He established Carnegie Steel.
11. The company later merged with other companies.
12. These companies became U.S. Steel.
13. He turned to philanthropy.
14. He established libraries, schools, and universities in the U.S., the U.K., and other countries.
15. His life was truly a "rags to riches" story.
16. He died on August 11, 1919. (A.T1.Sophomore.6.4)

Students were required to combine and rearrange the above sentences in a correct order. The purpose for the sentence-combining exercise, according to Jack, was to help students revise their own sentences and to write concisely and logically. The sentence-combining exercise did not seem to be difficult for the students, even for those at a lower level. Jack usually liked to ask one of the students to give his/her answers and then gave the correct answers if students did not get them right.

In addition to the sentence exercises, Jack prepared many proofreading exercises to teach students English writing conventions. The following is an example of one of Jack's proofreading exercises, which followed the sentence-combining exercise above.

Proofreading and Sentence Combining Exercise

1. Proofread Paragraph 1 and 2, correcting all mistakes.

San Francisco's Chinatown

1. From the 1850s to the 1900s, Chinese immigrants from the southern Guangdong province of China arrived in San Francisco. This area, set up by the government, allowed Chinese to own building within the city. At this time, most Chinese found jobs work for large companies, most famously building the transcontinental railroad, which connected the west and east

Coasts. Other immigrants pursue gold in the California mountains, hoping to strike it rich during the 1849 gold Rush. In the wake of the Panic of 1873, racial tensions in San Francisco boiled over into race riots. In response to the violence, the Consolidated Chinese Benevolent Association gave Chinese a unified voice that protected them during this period of anti-immigrant sentiment.

2. Throughout the history of Chinatown, criminal gangs had controlled smuggling, gambling, and prostitution. To prevent crime, the San Francisco Police Department established a special Chinatown police squad soon after the war, however, the squad, due to Chinese protests, was disbanded in August 1955. With the end of the Vietnam War a wave of Vietnamese refugees of Chinese descent came to the area. Chinese who had lived in the area for generations moved out to suburb areas and other cities in California. With these changes, Chinatown became a tourist destination whose streets are now lined with souvenir shops and restaurant. (A.T1.Sophomore.4.7)

As the above example shows, students needed to find errors such as single/plural form, tense, gerunds, capitalization, and to change a noun into an adjective. The majority of the students in the class reported that it did not take them much time or effort to spot the language mistakes, which surprised Jack. Jack wondered why Chinese students who have such a strong grammatical foundation often made many grammatical mistakes in their writing. Nevertheless, Jack repeatedly incorporated similar sentence and grammar exercises to reinforce the students' knowledge of English syntax, mechanics and other conventions.

Jack's students reported that they felt bored when practicing such exercises. S6 commented that grammar and sentence exercises were generally easy and unnecessary for most of her classmates since they had intensive grammar lessons since middle school. Drills of grammar were a part of their preparation for the NEE (National Entrance Exams), in which they have to demonstrate a solid foundation in English grammar (S6.19). She also commented on the punctuation Jack often stressed in his teaching, "My impression is that in the past two semesters we have been studying

too many punctuation rules. I wondered why punctuation is that important and worth so much effort. He also tested us on punctuation" (S6.18.8-9).

In fact, they were more impressed by their middle school teachers' approach to teaching grammar and thought native-speaking instructors should teach something that could "enlighten" them (S1.12.16) instead of teaching something they knew already. According to the data, students could not benefit from lecturing on grammar and practicing writing techniques in isolation. Using students' grammar mistakes in their writing as examples might have benefited the students. However, Jack did not realize that and he thought differently. Jack knew that his Chinese students sometimes griped about doing grammar exercises but he insisted, "They think they know (grammar), they don't" (T1.1.3.10). Despite the discontent of Chinese students, they followed Jack's instructions due to the power of and respect for teacher.

Imposing formatting rules

Another thing Jack's students could not understand was why he required all students to follow the format he preferred in every piece of writing. He had rules for spacing, the font, indenting and line spacing, setting the margins, page numbering, and photographing. Jack compiled a handbook of English writing and usually he took the first two weeks of a semester to teach the formatting rules. For example, formatting rules include "There is one space after comma and two spaces after a period" (A.Handbook.14) and, "Begin the first paragraph on the first page ten spaces from the top" (A.Handbook.16). Most of the students said that this is the first time they had to write under so many formatting rules. Students would lose points for not following the rules in their writing. Although many students reported that they later became familiar

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with the formatting styles, in the first one or two assignments they lost many points

because it was difficult to adjust to new formatting rules that Jack emphasized.

In order to help them form a good habit, Jack even had students follow formatting

rules in emails they sent to him. Students needed to remember the following when

sending emails:

> When sending an email, make sure you put your class, student number, and subject of the email in the subject line. Begin your email with a salutation. You may also include an introductory question, such as one about the weather. In the body paragraph, ask a question or make a statement. Include a closing comment and your name (A.Handbook.17).

Since emails was a main channel for the students to communicate with their NES

instructors outside of class, they found not every NES instructor required a strict email

format in the way that Jack did. Jack thought the format helped students to write

conventionally and said he would not read emails without the proper format required.

Each semester, students were likely to change classes and were likely to follow

different formatting rules in different instructor's classes, which confused them as they

adjusted to a new set of rules. Some of the students wondered what indeed the correct

format for writing is in English-speaking countries. Because incorrect format resulted in

points off, 30% students said they had lost points before and had to think about

formatting each time they wrote a composition.

Proper formatting rules exist to improve communication, and it is necessary to

follow some conventional formatting rules. Different disciplines or professions have

different rules of formatting. Emphasizing rules without explaining the reasons why

proper formatting is necessary caused students' confusion. Instead of teaching students

to follow his rules rigidly, Jack could have demonstrated for his students the flexibility to

choose formatting rules to meet their audiences' expectations when writing. Further,

emphasizing rules diverted student's attention from clarifying ideas, making sentences flow, or using appropriate expressions to check the format. As novice writers, the students in the study not only taxed their cognition by stressing on format, but also trivialized content as the more important aspects of writing.

Jack made great efforts to ensure that students developed surface-level correctness in English writing, but he did not achieve satisfactory results. Students who were able to finish sentencing and paragraphing exercises correctly continued to repeat the same mistakes in their own writing. Stressing grammar, syntactic correctness, and conventions before ideas is like putting a cart in front of a horse, which did not help students write and express their thoughts at all.

Writing with Models

Jack also thought Chinese students did not have enough world knowledge to write. So before introducing a writing model, he chose an article for students to read so as to provide them with background knowledge of their writing topics. A writing model was taught in the second week in his writing cycle. There were slight differences in his instruction for freshman writing and sophomore writing.

Controlled freshman writing

Normally Week One (two class periods) was spent teaching an article in detail, focusing on its syntax and linguistic features. Besides offering students knowledge on their coming writing assignment, the article also served as a model of language for students' writing assignments. For example, in order to help students write the assignment on *The Gilded Age and Modern China*, Jack first taught an article—*America's Gilded Age*. He wrote it and revised it many times before he taught. It has six paragraphs and this was the first paragraph.

America's Gilded Age

1. The Gilded Age, <u>a term coined by</u> the writer Mark Twain, refers <u>to the rapid growth in</u> the population and the **extravagant** displays of wealth of America's upper class during the post-Civil War and post-Reconstruction eras of the late nineteenth century (1865-1901). This wealth, resulting from industrial expansion due to new factories in the Northeast and Midwest, resulted in <u>a division of classes</u>, the poor and the rich. The poor were primarily <u>immigrants from</u> Europe, who had come to the United States <u>seeking a better life</u>. They worked long, hard hours in factories, usually for low wages. The owners of the factories, industrialists such as Cornelius Vanderbilt, John D. Rockefeller, Andrew W. Mellon, Andrew Carnegie, Henry Flagler, and J.P.Morgan, were referred to by social critics as "robber barons," because they used their power to **exploit** their workers. However, this period also gave rise to American **philanthropy**. These same so-called robber barons gave away millions of dollars, creating colleges, hospitals, museums, libraries, and they also set up various charities, which still <u>play an active role</u> in American life.

    Below is an excerpt taken from my field notes on April 27, 2010, which shows the

typical way Jack taught a paragraph in Week One.

> **2:10pm** Standing before the slides on which the first paragraph was shown, Jack asked students, "When was the Gilded Age? Guess." Some students shook heads. Jack said, "You will find out in this reading." Jack began to play the recorded first paragraph read by him. His voice was flat without much fluctuation. While listening to the paragraph, students also read the screen. A few students began to look up new words in their electronic dictionaries. Jack stopped the digital recorder after the first paragraph, and he checked whether students had finished their reading. He waited until most students finished. Jack said, "Write a one sentence summary of this paragraph. Your answer should start with 'during America's Gilded Age . . .' ." Students were given about 2 to 3 minutes to write and then he checked three students' answers. One student wrote, "during the Gilded Age the society changed greatly." He nodded. After a while, he gave the correct answer that "during America's Gilded Age, there were great changes, resulting in wealth and a division of classes but also philanthropy." Then he pointed at the underlined phrases and words in the first paragraph, asking students whether they understood them. For example, Jack asked "What does 'extravagant' mean?" but there were no answers from the students. Jack answered, "extravagant means too much, showing off." Following the word extravagant, he asked students the meaning of "exploit" and "philanthropy." I noticed one student sat in front of me knew all the vocabulary but in Chinese. While she was thinking how to answer the teacher's question in English, the teacher moved to the next word. Jack reminded students the underlined phrases such as "the rapid growth," "play

an active role" and said, "They are common phrases in English. You should remember them." After talking about all underlined words and phrases, he moved to paragraph two. It took about 15 minutes to teach the first paragraph (F.T1.29) .

Jack basically taught the six paragraphs in the same manner: reading aloud, letting students summarize until they understood the meaning of the paragraphs, then studying vocabulary and phrases. Sometimes he glanced over paragraphs. Sometimes he analyzed them in detail, depending on the difficulty of language and students' familiarity of the topic. The homework for the reading classes was normally to write a summary of the article. The summary would not be graded but checked at the beginning of the next class. The first week of the writing cycle was aimed to build up students' background knowledge and to add to their repertoire of writing. Jack believed that memorizing the phrases, sentence structures, and word choices would benefit their future writing.

The second week, he would teach students a writing model that served as an example of the writing assignment. He looked for articles to serve as models for his students to copy. However, he complained, "It's hard to find the articles that I want" (F.T1.13.20). He was more apt to find many exam-taking techniques and writing conventions. So he decided to write his own, and he said "I wrote in a way that I usually write and rewrote the writing to make them more understandable for Chinese students" (F.T1.13.21). He explained, "For example, to teach coherence, I showed them a key word that connects this sentence to this sentence. So in their writing, there must be a key word to connect one sentence to the next. I show them in my example" (F.T1.14.5 & 9). Through analyzing the cohesive devices in writing models, he wished students could

understand how to produce logical writing. The above data showed that Jack taught English writing as teaching English-the language.

The following is the second paragraph of a writing model written by Jack for *the Gilded Age and Modern China* writing assignment as well as the worksheet he wrote to help students comprehend and learn the meaning, structure and phrases. There were six paragraphs in the essay of *Japanese and American Societies*: one introduction, two paragraphs of differences and two paragraphs of similarities and one conclusion (Appendix H). Jack revealed that he revised 5 times before he was satisfied with it. The model describes the differences and similarities between Japan and the United States.

Japan and the United States: Different but Alike

The most obvious difference is the people. Japan is made up almost entirely of one race. It is <u>a homogenous society</u>, with only a few minority races, such as the Chinese, Koreans, and Ainu, <u>an indigenous people</u> native to Hokkaido. The Japanese majority <u>tends to dominate</u> the country. All of the public holidays and celebrations are related to them. An example of this is the Emperor's Birthday. <u>In contrast</u>, the United States, though many of its people come from Europe, is <u>a heterogeneous society</u>. <u>In addition to</u> people who have come from Europe, there are those from Africa, Asia, and South and Central America. There are also the Native Americans, who have their own lands. Public holidays and celebrations <u>are not limited to</u> people who have a European ancestry. <u>The most notable example of this is</u> Martin Luther King Day. So the composition of these two societies is quite different.

1. What is the main idea?
2. Where is it located?
3. What do the following phrases mean?
• a homogenous society
• an indigenous people
• a heterogeneous society
4. What are the supporting details?

Paragraph Organization
This paragraph is organized by a point-by-point method. This means that each point is developed within the paragraph. Japan's homogenous society is contrasted to America's heterogeneous society. Concrete examples give

each point its strength. The paragraph also ends with a sentence that restates the main idea, a common technique that gives it coherence.

Language Review
Complete these sentences or answer the questions.
1. The Japanese majority… the country.
2. Public holidays and celebrations in the United States …people who have a European ancestry. (A.T1.*Japan and the United States*)

The following field note excerpt shows how Jack taught the structure and language of his writing models. He believed that students should have to understand the structure and remember the language to improve their English writing, because "the structure and the language are what Americans will actually use" (F.T1.46.12).

He first started by showing a map of Japan and the United States. He asked students to guess the similarities and differences between the two countries. Students took a wild guess. One of them said, "They have the same latitude?" Jack replied, "A good guess. How does that affect culture"? Like usual, he played the digitally recorded paragraph. After listening, he told students to summarize the paragraph and gave several minutes for students to find and write their answers. Most students were able to give him the correct answer, although not exactly the same but close. Then he let students to find the supporting ideas in the paragraph. He told students "this writing is common to writing academic writing. You are going to write about China and America like this" (F.T1.31.6). Then he moved to question 3 and 4. Only a few students were able to answer question 3, so he supplied answers quickly. He also reviewed the sentences shown in the paragraph before by asking students to fill in the blanks properly in language review part. Phrases like "homogenous society," "heterogeneous society," "tend to," "not limit to," "notable example of," "in addition to," and "in contrast" have been taught explicitly. Jack wanted to make sure students paid enough attention to the phrases so that they could remember them. About half of the students knew the phrases but claimed that they could not include those phrases naturally in their writing.

Paragraph by paragraph, Jack followed the same steps: reading aloud, summarizing the main ideas, supporting ideas, and lecturing phrases paragraph by paragraph and expecting students to pay attention to sentence structures and word choices. At the end, he drew the outline of the essay on board like the following and required students to follow the same format in their writing:

<u>Outline</u>
Paragraph one: controlling idea
Differences
Paragraph two: main idea one—-supporting ideas
Paragraph three: main idea two—supporting ideas
Similarities
Paragraph four: main idea three—supporting ideas
Paragraph five: main idea four—supporting ideas
Conclusion

The homework for the second week of the writing cycle was usually to write an outline. After teaching the six-paragraph essay, students were asked to compare and contrast the Gilded Age and Modern China using the outline template. To make the writing assignment easy for students, Jack only required students to write one similarity and one difference. Jack's teaching approach resembled the traditional five-paragraph approach in ESL/EFL writing instruction.

Despite Jack's emphasis on following his models, the students did not make much progress in their writing, including their language usage. One student said:

> The phrases he asked us to remember were actually difficult to remember, even though we knew all the words. I could only remember one or two from each piece of reading. Without opportunities to use the underlined phrases in his articles, I forgot them easily (S3.19.7-10).

Another student did not know why he had to remember Jack's underlined phrases because he valued the phrases he read from other resources instead of the "plain," "ordinary" phrases in Jack's articles (S6.4.11). Despite some complaints, students admitted they learned something like world history from his articles, but they thought their improvement on language was minimal. They reported they learned more phrases sometimes from outside reading than from focusing on the two writing models.

Jack claimed, "Students thought they knew (English writing). They don't. I know what they need" (T1.3.12-13). He firmly believed that even if students did not care for

learning from his models he should stick to them because it is how he learned to write. He thought that "They (students) don't know coherence, unity, [they never heard of a topic sentence], they don't know so much" (T1.2.20.2-3). For example, when teaching students write a narrative essay, Jack thought:

> They should read an article first. I would write this (writing example) use my hometown New Orleans as an example. . . . So rather than the traditional concept of teaching narrative, I am going to write a history of New Orleans and I am going to analyze and figure out how it's coherence. So I write naturally then I analyze it. They can borrow the language I use (T1.1.9-10.20-5).

Jack's tips for improving English writing, as he often told his students, is to "memorize it (phrase, vocabulary), your language will be natural" (F.T1.18). Jack's stressing on memorizing language coincidentally mirrors the Chinese way of teaching English writing—a language and form-centered approach that has already been criticized as ineffective in teaching students to write effectively in the ESL/EFL field.

Jack, himself, revised his writing model many times before he used it in teaching. However, he did not make the connection between his own revision process and his teaching of writing. Instead of helping them revise their work or work on multiple drafts, Jack only allowed them to imitate and memorize.

Students all reported that they tried to imitate the structure and language in writing models. This required students to find parallel ideas to fit in the models. They were not only encouraged but were also required to write in parallel to Jack's model, being graded on their attempts to do so. The following is an example of students' writing by modeling after the above-mentioned writing sample:

> Between American's Gilded Age and modern China, these two periods vary obviously in population migration. During American's Gilded Age, in the late nineteenth century, the immigrants in the United States increased rapidly. Approximately ten million immigrants went to the US, resulting in a lot of

"Chinatown" settled in America, especially in California. In this immigration tide, a large proportion of them went from religious freedom. On the contrary, in modern China, the situation is widely different. Instead of having an influx of immigrants, Chinese people tend to emigrate more to developed countries, such as America, Great Britain, France, Australia and etc. Not for religious freedom, but Chinese people search for greater prosperity, and an increasingly more are for better education and advancer knowledge. Evidence has shown that a growing number of Chinese parents are sending their kids to abroad studying, with the identity of non-Western residents. (S2. *Modern China and the Gilded Age*)

Jack viewed this paragraph as a successful imitation of his writing model and he wrote "good" on the margin of the paragraph. The student tried hard to write parallel—homogenous societies and heterogeneous society in the model versus immigration and migration in the Gilded Age and Modern China respectively. Filling the examples into the model structure was effortless for her. However, not every student was able to write parallel paragraphs and thus got much lower points. S2 got 85 out of 100 for her piece and the average points were 70.

Students wrote uniformly. Many other students also wrote about immigration versus migration, as well as economic growth, culture, population with less coherence and language problems. Of all the students' writing, students, the structures were fundamentally the same as the writing model, though variants existed. In writing *The Gilded Age and Modern China*, the following pattern was commonly found in students' writing:

- First paragraph—A country's society is made up of . . .
- Second paragraph—The most obvious difference is . . .
- Third paragraph—In spite of this difference, modern China and the Gilded Age . . .
- The conclusion—At first glance, modern China and the Gilded Age may seem have little in common. But this is not true . . .

Jack was pleased to see students following his models. He stated, "They can follow the skeleton of my writing. In fact, they'd better follow mine; otherwise, they can't write at all" (F.T1.4.5-7). By having students fill the skeletons of writing models, the instructor put his words to students' mouths because the words and structures based upon what he expected to hear. Students not only used instructors' words, they used them uniformly, despite the fact that they were different individuals with different insights, different language proficiencies, or different writing abilities. Imitating models became a game of manipulating language and structure for grades instead of for communication or expression.

In Jack's writing classes, writing was equaled to imitating writing models. The following is a paragraph from a writing model by Jack (one of his former students wrote and he revised it) and a paragraph from a student's writing after modeling it.

<center>The Death of a Village</center>

<u>I spent my childhood in a small town in the countryside</u>. It had many trees and an expanse of land for farming. The air [in the town] was clear and blue. When there was rain in the town the nearby hills became a dark green and <u>blossomed with flowers</u>. At night, we could see many stars. My family lived in a tile-roofed house in the town that kept us cool in summer and warm in winter. <u>All in all</u>, we led <u>a happy and peaceful life</u> in the town. As time went by, however, our town began to develop, according to the new policies of the central government. As a result, <u>factories began to appear</u> on the farmland, and the green hillsides became bare. The rain turned the hillsides to mud. Now the town has become an area of factories. The air pollution from then has made it almost impossible to see stars. (Teacher's model)(S7's writing. *The Death of a Village*)

<u>When I was a child, I lived in a village, which is full of rural scenery</u>. We could see many trees on both sides of the roads and a variety of <u>flowers in full bloom</u> beside the river, under the tree or around the ponds. Every family didn't need to close the doors, because everyone trusted each other. Also, there were a lot of farmers working in the fields, working in unity and helping one another for the harvest. <u>All in all</u>, we had <u>a peaceful and happy life</u>. As the local economy developed, however, more and more businessmen and investors invested quite a lot of money to <u>set up their own</u>

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factories. As a result, more and more factories have taken the place of the natural fields so that more and more farmers have nothing to do. (S7. *The Death of a Village*)

In this writing example, the student started with a story and a description of environment and then some changes happened in his village. He borrowed the ideas, skeleton, and some phrases in the writing model but replaced the example of air quality changes with example of famers' loss of their land. S7 revealed that he created the above piece but never had an experience living in a village. Writing models might assist students finish assignments but could not facilitate them to write for authentic expressions. They were taught to write for grades instead of "learn something about yourself" as Jack believed.

Even when students wrote with their own views, if their pieces were unlike the writing models, they would lose points for ineffective writing. S1 wrote *Changes in My Hometown* but did not follow Jack's writing model. Disliking the writing model, he decided to write his own stories. The following is the first paragraph of his assignment respond to *The Death of a Village*:

> Day after day, the city is developing rapidly on its way to becoming a modern society: on the land where was an endless field of rice before, are now standing hundreds of high buildings; on the roads which were once narrow and rugged, are now running thousands of cars. All seems to just have happened over night. Even a decade ago, a city of such prosperousness could only be touched on the land of dreams for the whole citizens. But now it is true. This is, without any doubt, a great success in the aspect of economy; nevertheless, we should not neglect that, while the city is approaching prosperity, the crisis of defensiveness and indifference is also bred. Once an old woman, who wore a pair of gleaming earrings, was on her way home when suddenly a snatcher ran up and caught her. Violently he tore off the earrings and pushed her down, then rushed away in haste. It was much beyond belief that during the whole progress there was a big crowd of standers-by, but none of them had the courage to take action to stop or call the police. They were apathetic! After a time, in all directions, they just left, leaving the unlucky old woman weeping there, with her ears bleeding. (S1 *Changes in My Hometown*)

S1 talked about some changes that really happened to his hometown and he wrote passionately, wishing to raise people's attention to how the city became a moral desert. He thought that he had demonstrated more depth of thought than he would have talking about the air quality change. By doing so, S1 felt that he had demonstrated his thinking about social and moral issues that a college student should care about. He got a low score for this piece. He was upset, not because of the score but for the depreciation for his thinking.

Despite some syntactic and grammatical errors in S7's writing, S1's writing displayed fluency and more personal voice than S7's. S7's writing was crafted out of a writing model, and S1's writing crafted out of his observation and personal experiences that resulted in depth of thinking about societal changes. S7 wrote like Jack's writing model and S1 wrote with his own voice. Sentences like "even a decade ago, a city of such prosperousness could only be touched on the land of dreams for the whole citizens" in the text sound awkward to Jack. Jack valued nothing the student tried to write, but only how correctly he can do it. For him, English writing learners should achieve structural and linguistic correctness first before any other things such as thinking, ideas, fluency, and voice.

S2 stated that "In order to be safe, you'd better write like him. It's boring. I think in writing we should write what we truly believe and feel. I love to write when I feel something and I want to say it" (S1.18.12-14). Another student commented, "His teaching is like cutting all trees according to his protocols. If his writing looks like a ball, all our writing should be like a ball" (S1.21.16-17). When writing became filling-in-blanks activities, students simply parroted the models. As a result, students were deprived of

the opportunities to explore, to create meaning, and to express themselves through writing.

Less-controlled sophomore writing

There was more flexibility for sophomores although they still wrote under the influence of models. During the first week, Jack introduced various types of fiction such as realistic fiction, historical drama, adventure, mystery, and science fiction. Then he taught a murder story—*The Murder in the Garden District* that he adapted from a novel. He taught it as usual: teaching the vocabulary, asking questions to help students' comprehension, and letting students write summary of each paragraph (Week 7 handouts). The homework was to write a summary of the story. The second week, he taught another murder story—*Married to a Murder* from a U.K. newspaper. As usual, he analyzed the reading in terms of vocabulary and meaning (Week 8 handouts). He also introduced premise and other terms in fiction writing. The homework was to email him an outline of the students' fiction including the premise, the protagonist/ antagonist, and a summary of the plot. During the third week, he had a fiction-writing workshop in which he introduced the skills of fiction writing in further detail by using the *Married to a Murder* as an example (Week 9 handouts). Students continued to write their story and turned it in the following week. The following are excerpts of his handouts.

Reading Section Three: Comprehension

- Vocabulary
    "Drawing room" —formal word for living room.
    1. Who is Cora?
    2. Who is Chanse?
- Writing
    1. Write a sentence or two that describes Cora.
    2. What did you learn about Chanse?
    3. Describe the relationship between the two.
    (Week 7 handouts)

Married to a Murder
By Norman Bates

Danielle Davidson had never been to a prison before. She had gotten the idea to meet Clay Potter after first seeing him on the TV news one evening. He had been convicted of murdering a wealthy couple in Bayville north of San Francisco, where she lived. On his way out of the courthouse, Clay had protested the conviction, shouting, "I'm innocent!" and she had believed him. "I'm not going to die for this crime!" he had continued.

1. Who is the protagonist/antagonist?
2. Why are some of the verbs in the past perfect tense?
(Week 8 handouts)

- **Story Telling versus Incident**
  Here are two ideas for stories. Which one is more interesting?
  1. Betty went to the lake to study and saw her boyfriend holding hands with her best friend. She became so sad that she cried.
  2. Betty went to the lake to study and saw her boyfriend holding hands with her best friend. She was sad for a moment. Then she smiled. She had decided to seek revenge.

- **Verb Tense**
  Notice how the verb tense changes according to the arrangement of the sentences.
  Betty went to the lake to study and saw her boyfriend holding hands with her best friend. She was sad for a moment. Then she decided to seek revenge. She smiled.

- **Story telling basics:**
  Plotting
  Something must happen which advances the plot. A story's plot is often advanced because of a decision by the main character to do something. In the story "Married to a Murderer" what are some of the decisions Danielle makes to advance the story?
  There are also things that happen which advance the story but are unrelated to the protagonist's decisions. What is the most important thing that happens in "Married to a Murderer" which is unrelated to Danielle and her decision?
  (Week 9 handouts)

Like teaching freshmen classes, Jack prepared reading materials to teach students the structure and language they might need to accomplish their assignments. He also taught the characteristics of genres and examined the craft used by the author, hoping students could transplant the knowledge into their writing. Students reported that they learned something about different genres that they never had learned before. Like

freshmen, sophomores also needed to confer with Jack about their outlines individually and turn in a draft in the following weeks. Unlike freshmen, who were expected to strictly borrow the organization, structure, and language of writing models, sophomores were allowed to write with more freedom and fewer constraints. They were able to choose what to tell and how to tell their stories.

One of the sophomores wrote a story titled *Murder*, a story inspired by Jack's handouts and a joke she had read before. She started with a description of a young man who was anxiously waiting for lottery results and found that he won 5 million dollars. The protagonist plotted to kill his wife in order to achieve his dream of marrying a pretty woman. Since her story is over 10 pages, only a few paragraphs from her story follow:

> Mark pinches himself several times after he knew he won. He wants to make sure that he is not dreaming and he really won a fortune.
>
> He always has three big dreams: house, car and pretty wife. He has been dreaming these things at the first time he brought the lottery. Now he gets the money and he wants to realize his dreams as soon as possible. A house and a car are easy to get, as long as you have money. The pretty wife is the most difficult thing to get. Why? He has been married to Mary for five years. That's a problem. It's easy for him to divorce Mary, but Mary would get half of the money away. He doesn't want to share the money with Mary.
>
> How to get away from the relationship with Mary and not lose his money at the same time? He thinks over and over again. Murder-the word frequently appears in fictions and movies flashed in his mind. But he thinks he is too brutal and impudent. Not concerning how much Mary loves him, Mary surely does all a wife should do. How can he murder her brutally? . . . .
>
> (More description of the protagonist's inner struggle whether or not, how to kill his wife). . . . He decided to do it. But how to do it is still a problem. It doesn't work such as poisoning, pinching, and stabling. It would easily get the police attention. It doesn't work that he hires a killer, either. It is not only easy to be found but also a large amount of money should be paid. . . .
>
> . . . .

Suddenly he finds it is a bright day today. An idea came to his mind, which is thought to be excellent. (Summary: the man helped his wife with yard work as usual. He intended to kill his wife by creating an accident. However, he hurt himself instead of his wife and he realized soon he is going to die and shouting)

"Why are you shouting in the middle of the night?" Mary says. Mark wake up and found him lying in his bed and Mary is next to him, in his hand, holding a lottery ticket.

"Poor baby! You must had a bad dream. It's OK. Nothing happened. It's just a dream," said Mary and she hugged him.

"Oh! Thank god it's just a dream!" Mark speaks to himself in a low voice. (S6. Murder)

Despite some grammar and syntactic errors, the story was very "readable" according to Jack. He read the story with great interest and was surprised by the student's story writing skills. He said, "This is a good story. I am surprised by her ability to tell stories" (F.T1.59.11). The story has premise, plot, climax, and dialogue that a story needs. The student told me that writing a story is not as difficult as she thought and she enjoyed writing it, although this is the first time she wrote a story in English. Like this student, many students demonstrated good imagination in story writing and they talked about their stories enthusiastically with peers. Despite problems such as writing that lacked details and stories happened too fast, in general, Jack was satisfied with the students' story-writing assignments. It was also the first time he realized that Chinese students could tell good stories. Jack believed that his freshman students "Don't know the basics of English writing. They don't have the language. So when they get more language skills and know more about the basics, they can have more freedom to write" (T1.2.16-19).

Comparing Jack's freshmen writing instruction with that of sophomores reveals that teaching students to write as if filling in blanks does not facilitate students' writing

improvement as well as giving students the freedom to write based on their knowledge, cognitive styles, and writing skills. The filling-in-blanks approach further demonstrated that the instructor treated teaching English writing as teaching the language instead of a way of thinking and communication and a channel to express ideas.

In general, Jack's teaching of English writing was language correctness-based. He believed that students must learn how to write correctly and conventionally before they write on their own and that they should not write on their own until they have enough knowledge about the language and writing techniques. Apparently, he viewed freshmen writing classes as preparation for writing correctly. It is understandable that the freshmen students need more guidance than sophomores do; however, the quality of the sophomore's writing in this study demonstrates the positive impact of less-controlled writing. Once the rigid model requirement was lifted, the students were able to produce better work.

Unconstructive Feedback

In Jack's writing cycle, he gave feedback to a majority of the students on two occasions, during one-on-one meetings and after students turned in their work, although a few enterprising students took the initiative to email him privately. Despite the students' preference for native-English speakers' feedback on their writing, they reported the instructors' comments did not help them write better on their next assignments. This was because Jack only provided feedback to make sure students stayed on the right track and his feedback lacked specificity.

Conferring as staying on the right track

After lecturing on his writing models, Jack gave students one week to work on an outline. In order to make sure students did their homework and followed his writing

models, Jack checked how well students had met his requirements. There were differences between freshmen and sophomores. Jack checked the students' outlines with freshmen in face-to-face meetings and with sophomores via emails. He also conferred with sophomores on one or two pages of their drafts.

Jack wanted to make sure the students were on the right track to write correctly. He believed that checking students' outlines individually could guarantee they would write on the right track. He stressed that the outlines were to parallel the writing model. Nothing unexpected went into students' outlines unless he decided it was acceptable. He went through the outline with each student for 2-3 minutes. After his approval of their outlines, students could start to draft their essays. If he had time, he pointed out every language problem in student drafts. Here is a conference Jack had with a student talking about her outline in the one-to-one meeting.

Jack: Let me see your outline.

The student passed him her typed outline. The student had written the first paragraph already.

Jack: (read the first paragraph—difference.) Eh . . . diet habit between Chinese and American. I doubt whether you can handle it. You'd better think of something else (While reading, Jack circled a few grammar mistakes with a red pen).

(Student nodded. Jack continued check the outline of similarity)

Jack: The similarity is OK. But you don't need to put a whole sentence here. Only a few essential words are fine. Your sentence is too long for an outline. Check your grammar before your turn it in.

(Student nodded again. Then Jack handed back the handout to the student. It took about 2 minutes) (F.T1.35.5-9).

Jack required the students to write like the writing models rigidly. Without asking why the student wanted to compare the diet habits in the two countries, he ignored her

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idea totally. The topics he thought would be easier for students to handle were immigration, technology, and economic development, exactly those topics he used in his writing models. As a consequence, students would write nothing that surprised him.

Jack dominated in the one-on-one meeting and students simply replied with "yes" or nodded. Occasionally, a few students would ask him whether they could write another example when he pointed out their current example was not appropriate. Jack insisted on checking their outlines because he thought, "If I don't (check), they do it wrong. . . . I want them to produce a paragraph like mine. Only 20% of the students will do exactly what I say. Since they can't (produce), I will keep teaching this again and again until they get it right" (F.T1.20.15-17). Formalizing an outline was not an activity that every student welcomed because some students were not in the habit of writing formal outlines in other situations.

In Jack's classes, about 30% of the students either wrote the draft first and created an outline out of it or wrote very sketchy and messy outlines. When they were required to turn in a copy of a neat, structured outline like the teacher's examples, they complained that the teacher's approach was too rigid. For example, here is a conversation between a second-year student and me while she was waiting for her turn to meet Jack for her *Save Endangered Animal* assignment:

I: May I look at your outline?

(S5 passed her outline to me.)

I: (after reading) Your outline is very neat.

S5: (with low voice) My writing habit is like I write a draft first because I usually plan what to write and how to write it mentally. I took his class last semester and for the first few assignments I followed his outline template. But this semester, I feel I don't need his outline template. I like to scribble on a blank paper then I know how to organize my writing. This outline is

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what I wrote last night in order to give him a neat one like his example. Personally I think his way of outlining is too inflexible (F.T1.12.11-21).

Another student sat next to us added, "I usually write the final draft and then make up an outline later. Many of my classmates do the same. Privately, we hate it (writing an outline). I think his way is like the streamline in a factory" (S1.12.3-5). Not all writers start their writing with a well thought-out outline. Jack made students write uniformly by enforcing an outline for every student.

Writing is creating something new and it varies from writer to writer even when they write on the same topic. Based on the data, the instructor apparently ignored the nature of writing and the uniqueness of each writer; he simply equated writing as displaying correct sentences. His comments made students believe that the writing model was the only correct way of writing.

Confusing comments

After students turned in their drafts, Jack took one week to grade and comment on their work. Students in Jack's class found he corrected their writing extremely carefully. His comments on students' writing assignments covered organization, sentences structure, phrases, vocabulary, punctuation, and format. Unfortunately, some comments that were crucial for students' growth in writing were not comprehensible to the students.

At the end of the chapter is an example of Jack's comments on a piece of writing, as Figure 5-1 shows. S4 was an average writer in his class. When he got his work back, he derided, "He probably spent his whole weekend on this" (F.T1.37.11). As shown in the example, Jack commented on over 30 places, addressing issues related to organization, sentence structure, grammar, verb tense, punctuation, format, and other

conventions. The student reported that he understood nothing but only these tense and grammar conventions. The comments like "explain more" in the first paragraph, "you can keep the example but make this paragraph more direct" in the second paragraph confused him and he did not know how to make revisions based on the comments. He glanced through Jack's comments, found he could not do it and finally gave up revision. In fact, after being graded, students did not need not to think about other possibilities for saying things in alternative ways or to express their ideas better, which kept them from learning how to gradually generate better text.

Other students exhibited similar confusion. About 81% of the students interviewed had a problem understanding "need more examples." For example, S9 wrote a paragraph in her essay comparing the Gilded Age and Modern China. Jack wrote in red pen "more examples needed" next to the last two sentences. Her paragraph is like:

> In spite of this difference, modern China and the United States also have something in common. For example, both two countries have a rapidly economic growing. The American economy grew rapidly during the Gilded Age in the area of transportation, so did China in modern times. American railroad mileage tripled between 1860 and 1880, and tripled again by 1920, opening new areas to commercial farming and creating a truly national marketplace. In modern China, compared to the old means of transportation, now we have more choices such as railroad, airlines, cars and so on. All these developments can bring a great amount of profit back (S9. *The Gilded Age and Modern China*)

S14 explained that:

> I thought "railroad, airlines, cars" are the examples of economy growth. What other examples did he want to see here? I don't understand. If in Chinese, that's the right example, I think. They (NES instructors) just told us why it's not good, not how to make it good (S9.11.10-13).

These comments suggest to students that teacher knows the right examples but fails to tell them. Jack said, "No concrete examples are one of my students' favorite mistakes. They just tell it without showing an example. It's weak, not convincing" (T1.2.2.4-5).

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Take the comment "more example" in Figure 5-1 for example, there were many

possible reasons that the student did not include examples, such as their L1 writing

influence, lack of understanding of native English speaking readers' needs, or lack of

skills to make writing concrete. He only complained about students' writing, but he did

not teach them how to select appropriate examples to make their writing more concrete,

despite the fact that Jack was conscious that more examples might strengthen students'

argument. He forgot that students depended upon his authority for answers as they

always do. Instead of suggesting many possibilities to communicate ideas effectively,

the instructor rendered students helpless by giving vague feedback.

Like the "add more details" comment, other comments like "not connected well,"

"not coherent," and "don't tell" confused students. S21 always struggled with the

comments of "not connected well" in her writing. One time, she wrote:

> In spite of this difference, modern China and America' Gilded Age have
> shared some similarities. Take the economy for example. Both economies
> developed very fast. Modern China became a member of WTO in 2001 and
> many foreign trade companies came to China. In the area of technology,
> American has invented lots of things during Gilded Age. For example,
> Edison invented electricity. China has also made great progress in the field
> of aerospace. The successful launch of Shenzhou VII marks a historic
> breakthrough in China' manned space program. Therefore, both the
> economy of modern China and America's Gilded Age grew rapidly"(S21.
> *The Gilded Age and Modern China*)

S21 wondered:

> Maybe he (the instructor) mean the *Shenzhou VII* example should go to
> modern China and after the example of WTO. But I wanted to say
> *Shenzhou VII* is an example of technology and it is an example compare to
> the Edison's example. I don't know what he meant by "not connected well"
> (S21.3.18-22).

From the instructor's perspective, Jack also was confused. He revealed that he

had a hard time understanding some students' writing and he said, "The most confusing

problem is the connecting of the sentence" (T1.2.16.13). Instead of explaining why he

thought the student's sentences in the paragraph were not connected well, Jack left the

student guessing his mind. This kind of disconnection between Jack and students like

S21 occurred in each assignment.

Jack noticed Chinese students like to write using "clichés" such as "every coin has

two sides," "east or west, home is the best," and "every cloud has a silver lining," to

name a few. He commented "no clichés" frequently in his students' work. Unfortunately,

he was talking to freshmen who just graduated from high school where they tended to

use proverbs and sayings to bolster their arguments and so, they still wrote with

proverbs and old sayings in their writing. One student ended his *the Gilded Age and*

Modern China with:

> In a word, we are going through a right period in the wrong age, tough it is,
> but we have no choice. And all we can do is to do it best. Rome wasn't built
> in one day. A country that wants to be powerful and modern must be wise,
> cautious, and patient. A Chinese proverb says: "Take people as mirror can
> know gain and loss; Take history as mirror can know rise and fall."
> Fortunately, there is detailed history of America's Gilded Age, and it will be
> a great help to our country by studying the comparisons between the two
> stages (S21. *The Gilded Age and Modern China*).

Jack commented on the last paragraph with "weak ending, don't tell your opinion,

cliché" on the margin and gave a low grade. The student told me that he struggled

whether to use quotes at the ending since he knew NES instructors dislike clichés, but

he insisted because this quote fit perfectly to support his point of view; if words like

"Rome wasn't built in one day" were missing in the text, the student sensed his work lost

connections to human history. The student's point demonstrated a conflict in the

instructor and students' belief in writing. More than one student voiced their confusion

about why NSE teachers dislike proverbs or "clichés" which are valued in Chinese writing.

As for grading criteria, Jack said, "My priority in grading is whether it makes sense to me. Can I understand it? Whether it has unity and coherence?" (T1.1.19.19-20) He graded students' writing in terms of format, mechanics, coherence, organization, and grammar and how closely students were able to imitate the writing models. Jack had complicated feelings regarding the correcting of students' language mistakes. He realized that students long for his corrections; however, even though he spent great efforts correcting mistakes in students' assignments, students kept making the same mistakes repeatedly. As he put it, "I have seen correcting mistakes doesn't help them at all. They just don't have the correct language input. So I focus on the input of language and reading more. Hope they won't make the mistakes so often" (T1.1.19.5-6). Jack thought he could not help students more in correcting mistakes than he had done already. Jack felt discouraged by his own approach of focusing only on language correctness instead of helping students communicate effectively and developing their writing skills.

Jack's comments on language mistakes had several effects on students. First, the writing packed with corrections suggested to students that they were not good writers. Feeling defeated, students might be discouraged from writing to express themselves. Instead of pointing out the most prominent mistakes in students' writing, Jack pointed out every mistake, which was overwhelming. One of the reasons students gave up and made no attempts to revise—there were too many errors to correct. The data shown that the students need to revise their writing multiple times in order to write with clarity

and fluency. The students continued to lack the skills necessary to improve their writing. They had not been taught strategies that they could apply to their writing in general, nor had they been encouraged to think about why their strategies did not work and what might work.

Summary

Jack, the only instructor who majored in English, was considered the most knowledgeable English writing instructor by his colleagues and students. Despite his devotion and hard work, his teaching was constrained by his strict model-approach and surface-level correctness focus. According to the data, Jack's students might have benefited from his writing instructions if he (1) taught grammar by using the students' own writing examples and techniques when students needed them instead of lecturing and letting students practice on them in isolation; (2) taught students to choose formats to meet their audiences' expectations instead of requiring students to adopt a single format for all occasions; (3) gave more freedom to the students instead of asking them to fill in the writing models he provided; (4) guided students to write multiple drafts instead of one draft; and (5) gave students specific, suggestive comments and conferred with them in the process of their writing instead of telling students what to write and commenting only after students turned in their work. His approach might have helped students to finish their writing assignments, but failed to facilitate them to improve writing fluency, to think independently, creatively and critically, or to take risks in communicating ideas in English writing.

Figure 5-1. Jack's typical comments on a student's writing

Modern China and America's Gilded Age

For each country who wants to be powerful and modern has to go through a historical period which is special and essential. To America, the Gilded Age is supposed to be the beginning of her modern life, so is the present age of China of herself. Although there is quite a long distance between the two different countries in history, they still share some similarities.

The most obvious similarity is the rapid growth of the economy. During the Gilded Age, the development of American's economy was somehow like the volcanic explosion. The manufacturing surpassed the combined total economic output of Great Britain, Germany, and France. Railroad mileage was tripled again and again, that linked the vast land of the place which was newly developed, and built a convenient and firm connection for the development of economy. In the area of coal, steel and oil, one company after another was been built, some of them became the super company, such as the United States Steel of J.P. Morgan and the Exxon of John Rockefeller. Some cities like New York have become the largest city in the world. And as a result of all above, the GDP of America has also leaped the first place in the world. Like America, if we take a look at China, you will find the economic growth has been surprisingly kept in high speed for almost the past 30 years. Remarkable achievements were made in infrastructure development, such as the Sanxia Water Control Project in Sichuan Provence, the railway on "the roof of the world"-the Qinghai-Tibet railway. The manufacturing and industry also grew quickly, some super companies were built, such as the Baoshan Iron and Steel Works, Sinopec, CNPC, BYD. Some super cities like Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou was highly developed. And we joined the WTO in 2001, five Special Economic Zone were set in the southeast coast, which greatly pushed the development of economy. After the high-speed development of almost 30 years, in this year, the GDP of China was hoped to be the second largest in the world in the coming year.

(S4. *The Gilded Age and Modern China*)

CHAPTER 6
JOHN: TEACHING READING AND LANGUAGE MORE THAN WRITING

John's Profile

Personal and Educational Background

John, tall and blond in his early thirties, grew up in Nova Scotia, Canada. He went to a small college in Moncton, New Brunswick, Canada, and graduated with dual majors in psychology and education. After graduating from college, John taught ninth grade science and history and coached the basketball team at a high school for one year. In 2006, John's family moved to S city in China with his older sister who married a Chinese man and began to work at S city. First, he got a teaching job at a high school for Canadians at S city, where he taught Canadian history and English writing for three years.

John was the youngest native-English-speaking (NES) instructor in the English department and had good rapport with his students. His students often approached him and chatted with him like a friend. John has a projective voice and varied his intonations to make an exaggerated effect in the classroom when telling jokes or teaching idioms. A few students transferred to John's class because they liked his projective voice, easy-going personality, and humor.

In addition to teaching at S University, John engaged in international business, tutoring middle school students in oral English and coaching a basketball class. During summer breaks, he organized a basketball camp so that Chinese students could learn basketball as well as English. He worked six days a week and had one day off for family.

John could speak fluent Chinese but could not write in Chinese. In fact, his spoken Chinese was the best among the NES instructors in S University. He attended a three-year Chinese program at S University, where he studied Chinese very hard. Until today, John continued to learn Chinese by himself after exiting from the Chinese program. Based on his own Chinese learning experience, he thought Chinese students should practice English writing whenever they could rather than just in English writing classes. Although he knew Chinese well, he did not use Chinese to communicate with his students because he knew the department hired him for his native English.

John built a strong social network at S city. Unlike other NES instructors who only socialized with other English-speaking fellows, John has frequent contact with local Chinese. His sister married a Chinese man and so his family connections brought him more opportunities than other NES instructors to understand Chinese culture and customs. He has made friends with people of various backgrounds from rich business people to taxi drivers.

What Brought John to S University

In the spring of 2009, one of the NES writing instructors at the English department quit her job suddenly in the middle of the semester because of a family emergency. The department needed a NES instructor to fill her position immediately. His sister recommended him so he started teaching English writing temporally at S University for the rest of the semester (about two months). Because students liked him, he was asked to stay, despite the fact that he only has a Bachelor's degree. His double majors helped. He said, "It's not easy to get a job at this University. I was here at a right time" (F.T2.6). This was the first year for John to teach college English writing from beginning to end. He revealed that, "Teaching high school is so much different from teaching here; in high

school, you taught everything based on the curriculum, you have textbooks. Here, you

teach the way you want, no guidance, no textbook" (T2.2.7).

Personal Beliefs on Teaching EFL Writing

Although teaching English writing was challenging for him, John appeared

confident in teaching. He believed that his background in education gave him many

advantages in knowing how to engage students through diverse teaching methods.

John viewed a teacher's job as being "consistent and clear, to do the best job to involve

and engage students in learning toward furthering their ability in English." The students'

job is "to show up, complete all assignments, ask questions, and be involved" (S.T2.1).

John favored student involvement in his writing classes. He provided students with

opportunities to ask each other questions as well as read and edit each other's work.

Partner work was one of the strategies he frequently used. His students thought his

teaching was clear and easy to follow.

His teaching beliefs were influenced by his Chinese learning experience. He

believed that students' current English writing problems could be solved if they kept

learning and reading English. Gradually, students should be able to identify their own

problems in their writing in the way he learned Chinese. When talking about student

writing he stated, "Sometimes some did poorly. They may not know how to fix it now,

but it is a good start and they can learn how to identify their own mistakes in the future"

(T2.1.9). John thought other English instructors also had responsibility to improve

students' English writing; students should try writing in English for many occasions. For

example, he believed that they should write English emails to each other whenever they

could. His own Chinese learning experience confirmed "practice makes perfect" and he

added that, "If I am in an oral class and there is no writing, it is not going to be effective as a little bit of writing; that helps a lot" (T2.1.10).

He confessed that he did not learn how to write or how to teach writing specifically and had no experience in teaching college level EFL writing. But he considered himself a decent writer due to previous writing experiences back in college. To gain knowledge of teaching English writing, he turned to more experienced instructors like Jack for advice. Since it was his first semester teaching English writing to college students, he adopted Jack's teaching approach. But John added a read-aloud activity and more reading comprehension assignments. Though he adopted Jack's writing model approach, his instruction was not entirely the same—John assigned different writing topics to his students; however, the students reported that John's were not challenging.

Besides Jack's syllabus and course materials, John also relied on a few guidebooks on how to teach English writing, such as Langan's (2005) book of *College Writing Skills with Readings*. Those resources supplied him with teaching ideas and reading and writing examples. Like Jack, John also relied on the Internet for teaching resources. In terms of evaluating students' writing, he developed rubrics from educational websites. By giving rubrics, he intended to let students become familiar with the way he graded their writing and let students refer to the requirements when having questions. Rubrics for each assignment varied but mainly covered the categories of format, structure, grammar, critical thinking, and punctuation. Turning in homework on time was counted. He said, "When I am talking, I expect the students to listen. When I ask them to hand in their work, they need to do so; otherwise, it's not fair to other students" (T2.1.11). He wished to be a teacher who was clear with his expectations,

relaxed but firm. Although John's students said they had no difficulty following his instructions, they felt John did not help them improve much, as they made the same language mistakes as they did previously. They also were concerned that they still wrote in a non-native way and lacked depth in English writing compared with their Chinese writing.

Teaching Style

John's students believed that he would be a good instructor for a speaking class. He was regarded as the funniest NES instructor in the department and taking his writing class was "relaxing." John said he intended to create a relaxing environment in his classes because his favorite teachers did it, and he tried to do the same for his students. He told jokes in almost every class, which energized the students especially in the early classes. One time when he called students' names and found Eagle (a Chinese students' English name) was absent, he bantered, "Eagle is not here. He is building his nest" (F.T2.13.6). All students laughed at this joke. Another time when a male student turned in his homework, John found it had stains on it and joked "Warrior, (the student's English name), did you take the paper with you when you went to dinner?" (F.T2.30.17) The whole class burst into laughter. Even though some of his jokes were sarcastic, students enjoyed them.

John filled his writing classes with idioms that English-speakers often use but Chinese students rarely hear. Students were pleased to learn new idioms since they were opportunities to understand English culture and colloquial English. Sometimes Chinese students could not understand the idioms and John used funny explanations to help them to gain a deeper understanding of them. For example, John once he said, "You will be kicking yourself for not doing it. Understand this? Means regret. Ok, for

example, a man who did not date a young lady and felt lonely when old, he kicks

himself" (F.T2.1.3-5) and students all understood what it meant. Later he used "smooth

talker," then he explained, "A smooth talker could sell snow to an Eskimo" (F.T2.1.14).

Even after the semester ended, many students still remember vividly some idioms such

as "start the ball rolling," "pull one's leg" and "call it a day."

John's Teaching Characteristics

Reading played a significant role in John's classes. John included reading

activities such as a read-aloud, two reading assignments, one reading exam, and four

short stories. His reading instruction did not contribute as much to students' writing as

he expected.

John's Use of Instructional Time

John put much more emphasis on reading than writing in his writing classes. Table

6-1 demonstrates the point values that John gave to each assignment.

Table 6-1. Writing and reading assignments in John's classes

Writing assignments	Description
1. Who am I	self-introduction
2. My grandma/grandpa	biographical writing about an elder in the family with interesting stories (15 Points)
3. My grandma/grandpa and I	compare and contrast your grandma/grandpa's life with your life (15 Points)
Reading assignments	
4. Coping with old age	learn to summarize (15 Points)
5. Charles Dickens	study biography(15 Points)
6. Read-aloud	Read aloud student's favorite article in front of class (10 Points)
7. Reading test	Reading an article and answering open-ended questions (20 Points)

The two writing assignments totaled only 30 points while reading was worth 60 points.

With the exception of task 1 *Who am I*, tasks 2 to 5 were each worth 15 points, the

reading test was worth 20 points, the read-aloud and attendance were each worth 10

points. John did not count the writing *Who am I* because students were auditing classes during the first two weeks.

John's emphasis on reading was evident not only in points but also in course structure. Figure 6-1 depicts the time distribution in his teaching.
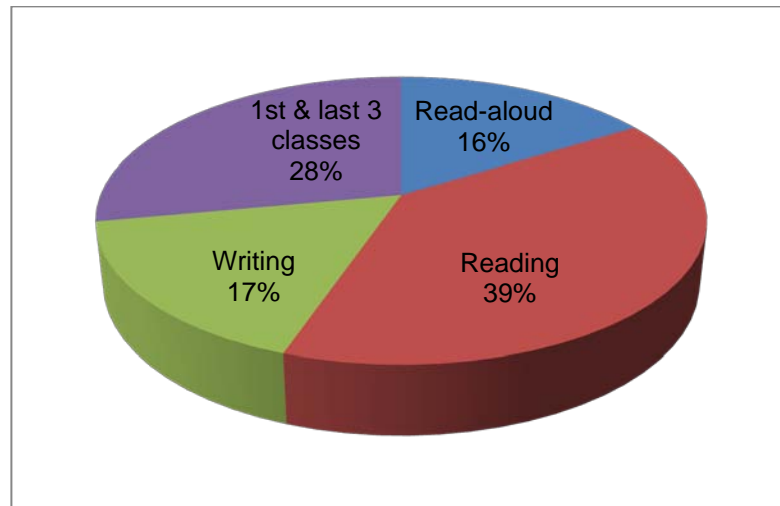
Figure 6-1. Time distribution for John's writing classes

Writing only took 17 percent of John's instructional time, compared with 55 percent of reading-related time. That time included lecturing on writing principles and formats, checking outlines and drafts one by one, and peer editing. The first week was devoted to getting to know each other and the syllabus. Students were not required to attend classes during the last three weeks, as long as they turned in their homework before the exam week due to John's concern for students' heavy study load at the end of the semester. So his students had "an easy second half of the semester" (F.T2.5.11) after the reading test and they could devote more time preparing for other more demanding courses. As a result, almost one-third, or 28 percent of the class time was focused neither on reading nor writing instruction, as Figure 6-1 shows. In other words, a significant proportion of time in the last three classes was considered "laid-back" time

for other more demanding courses. Obviously, John put more effort in reading than writing in his writing classes.

John's reading instruction

Reading was taught by reading the text and completing worksheets in John's class. In fact, the instructions for *Coping with Old Age*, *Charles Dickens*, *London Smog* and *Japanese and American Societies* were similar: read the text, study new vocabulary, find main ideas, and answer questions for comprehension purposes. Here is an example of the materials John used to teach *Coping with Old Age* and the way he taught it. It took one week to teach the text and one week to complete the worksheet. Examples of the reading, comprehension questions and in-class worksheet are shown here:

Coping with Old Age

I recently read about an area of the former Soviet Union where many people live to be well over a hundred years old. Being 115 or even 125 isn't considered <u>unusual</u> there, and these old people continue to do <u>productive</u> work right up until they die. The United States, however, isn't such a healthy place for older people.

Since I retired from my job, I've had to <u>cope</u> with the physical, mental, and emotional stresses of being "old." For one thing, I've had to adjust to physical changes. Now that I'm over sixty, the <u>trusty</u> body that carried me around for years has turned <u>traitor</u>. Aside from the deepening wrinkles on my face and neck, and the wiry gray hairs that have replaced my brown hair, I face more frightening changes. I don't have the energy I used to. My eyes get tired. Once in a while, I miss something that's said to me. My once faithful feet seem to have lost their comfortable soles, and I sometimes feel I'm walking on marbles. In order to fight against this slow <u>decay</u>, I exercise whenever I can. I walk, I stretch, and I climb stairs. I battle constantly to keep as fit as possible.

I'm also trying to cope with mental changes. My mind was once as quick and sure as a champion gymnast. I never found it difficult to memorize answers in school or to remember the names of people I met. Now, I occasionally have to search my mind for the name of a close neighbor or favorite television show. Because my mind needs exercise, too, I

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challenge it as much as I can. Taking a college course like this English class, for example, forces me to concentrate. The mental gymnast may be a little slow and out of shape, but he can still do a back flip or turn a somersault when he has to.

Finally, I must deal with the emotional impact of being old. Our society typecasts old people. We're supposed to be unattractive, senile, useless leftovers. We're supposed to be the crazy drivers and the cranky customers. At first, I was angry and frustrated that I was considered old at all. And I knew that people were wrong to stereotype me. Then I got depressed. I even started to think that maybe I was a castoff, one of those old animals that slow down the rest of the herd. But I have now decided to rebel against these negative feelings. I try to have friends of all ages and to keep up with what's going on in the world. I try to remember that I'm still the same person who sat at a first-grade desk, who fell in love, who comforted a child, who got a raise at work. I'm not "just" an old person.

Coping with the changes of old age has become my latest full-time job. Even though it's a job I never applied for, and one for which I had no experience, I'm trying to do the best I can.

Comprehension Questions

1. After reading paragraph one what do you think this essay will be about? (2 marks)

2. Identify the different stresses that the author has had to deal with. Briefly describe each one. (6 marks)

3. Select 5 of the ten highlighted words. Write your own definition and create your own sentence to show you understand the meaning (MUST NOT use a dictionary definition). (10 marks)

4. What are the problems faced by the author and how does he/she deal with each one? (6 marks)

5. Identify a sentence in paragraphs 1, 2, and 3 that sums up the meaning of that paragraph. (3 marks)

6. Do you think you have ever been guilty of typecasting or stereotyping and old person? If so in what ways. If not explain why you are different from most people. (4 marks)

7. Sum up this piece of writing in THREE sentences. (6 marks)

8. What three changes do you think we could make as a society to prevent old people from feeling like they are castoffs? (6 marks)

9. Do you think the author would feel the same way if he/she were in China instead of the United States? (4 marks)

10. In fifty years where will you be and what will your life be like? (8 marks)

Assignment Requirements

- Must provide the answer page with hand written responses.
- Must provide a type written page with answers written in good copy.
- Required to work during class time provided.

This assignment will be graded in two parts. For the above 10 questions you will receive a mark out of 55. For the rubric below you will receive a mark out of 20. So the total assignment mark is out of 75.

In Class Work Sheet

- After reading the first paragraph, I believe this essay will discuss_____
- The stresses faced by the author are _____
  Term and Your Definition:

  _____
  _____
  Sentence:_____

  _____
  Term and Your Definition:

  _____
  _____
  Sentence:_____

  _____

The worksheet continued. The underlined words in the text were to be used for term defining and sentence making. During the first week, John guided students through the reading. After reading aloud the first paragraph, John had students guess what the reading is about, stressing the need to answer question one. The students were given plenty of time to find answers. Then the class moved to the second paragraph and went on to the last paragraph. Reading-summarizing-memorizing the new words pattern was repeated so that students were able to answer questions 2 to 5. John walked around to assist students. With the teacher's assistance, students completed the first five

questions by the end of the class. The second week was focused on answering the last five questions. Since students were required to complete the in-class worksheet and grades would be given on their performance, they worked in their notebooks first and then wrote with careful penmanship on the worksheet. Answering the last five questions and completing the in-class worksheet took two class periods because students had to frequently refer back to the text, thinking about and revising their answers.

The *Coping with Old Age* article was taken from a resource books, *College Writing Skills with Reading* (5th edition) by John Langan (2005). As a matter of fact, the book provided many teaching ideas and strategies in John's classes. John stated, "Because we don't have a course outline, we teach whatever we want" (T2.2.18). For the comprehension questions, John said proudly that he wrote the questions according to Bloom's Taxonomy to help students improve their comprehension skills. Before giving the in-class worksheet, he created a rubric for students to self-check their performance. *Charles Dickens* and *London Smog* were studied in the same way. *Coping with Old Age* was studied also for exam preparation, as the questions in exam would be similar to the questions in practice.

Students reported that in general, the text was easy to understand and reading comprehension activities were challenging enough. For example, the last five questions in the *Coping with Old Age* required synthesis and application of knowledge. They believed they gained new perspectives on reading comprehension. But as for writing, students reported they learned little, which will be discussed later.

Besides the three essays, John had students read four 100-200 words short stories—*The Black Cat*, *Please Get Rid of that Smell*, *Red in the Face* and *A Leopard*

Made Himself at Home during the semester. Although John believed that students would pick up more language through reading, the stories served as readings for language learning, but did not serve as writing samples. John favored having students make sentences out of the phrases from the readings. Here is an example of short stories he gave to students to read and the activities students completed after reading it.

Please Get Rid of that Smell!

It's winter. Barbara Pridgen, 43, is driving her car. When she turns on the heater, there's a terrible smell in her car. It gets worse and worse. She can't stand it! She takes the car to the repair shop. "What's the matter with my car?" she asks. "Can you get rid of this smell?" The mechanic takes a look at the engine. He examines the heating system. Then Barbara screams. She loses it. The mechanic pulls out a big, fat, dead python!

1) Create two of your own sentences for each of the sayings in bold, try to use two different tenses (12 Sentences Altogether) For example:

I keep studying Chinese but instead of getting better and better, my Chinese is getting worse and worse!

I really loved her but the smell of her feet got worse and worse over time, so I had no choice but to break up with her.

2) Sum up the story in three sentences.

3) Have you ever "lost it" before? What happened? (T2. Week 2 handouts)

John had students take turns to read aloud the story in class. The underlined phrases were what he wished students to have command of after reading. To achieve the goal, he had students work in pairs to make sentences from the selected bold phrases. On his slide, he presented two of his own examples using the phrase "get worse and worse." Following the sentence-making activity were summarizations and discussions of personal experiences. His teaching of the other three short stories was almost the same. John assumed that by making sentences from the phrases students would learn them and eventually use them someday.

As discussed above, most of the class time and effort was spent on the explicit teaching of reading, especially on sentences and phrases level, and answering comprehension questions on worksheets. Testing reading comprehension and language instruction were the foci of John's Reading and Writing course. However, testing comprehension and reusing phrases were not necessarily beneficial to improving students' reading or writing skills, because no comprehension strategies or writers' crafts were explicitly taught. Rather than showing students how the authors expressed their ideas through careful choice of grammatical, lexical, semantically, and rhetorical devices, John simply taught a few idioms and tested students on whether they met his expectations on reading comprehension.

John spent great efforts on teaching reading and language and students worked hard on completing reading exercises—this approach was under John's assumption that if students read widely they would automatically become good writers. Reading indeed facilitates writing, if reading-writing connections were made consciously. John failed to make connections between the reading text and improving reading skills or writing skills, even in teaching the *Charles Dickens* article, which was intended to play dual roles both as a reading text and a writing model (the instruction of it will be discussed in the next section). No wonder students felt his writing classes were more like their Comprehensive English Reading class.

John's writing instruction

The time spent on writing instruction was shorter (17% of the classes' time) than the time spent on reading. There were fewer activities that directly related to writing and fewer points given for them. Although students had to write responses to the reading

that might have extended their thoughts and opinions, they merely wrote to demonstrate their comprehension skills rather than use those readings as touchstones for meaningful expression of ideas. The students found that being able to answer questions on worksheets even in paragraph form, did not help them write a paragraph that was more cohesive when actually composing a piece of writing. The students did not benefit from reading as much as they should have due to the instructor's lack of explicit instruction of the crafting in the reading. The insignificant role of writing further made student improvement in writing less likely.

Language and Form Focused in Writing Instruction

John learned from Jack that Chinese students write poorly because they did not have adequate language or knowledge of English writing. He adopted Jack's model-analyzing-imitating approach but made a slight modification of the writing topics.

Practice on language and form

In teaching students to write the first assignment *My Grandma/Grandpa* and *My Grandma/Grandpa and I*, John analyzed *Charles Dickens* and *Japanese and American Societies* as writing models respectively (*Charles Dickens* was selected from Langan's book, *Japanese and American Societies* was borrowed from Jack). Here I will use the *Charles Dickens* article as an example to show how he taught writing models.

After warm-up conversations (usually jokes), he handed out the following handout to each student:

Charles Dickens

He was a writer but he <u>left behind a legacy</u> that would not only carry over in his literary works but also in the very popular Charles Dickens Village. Charles also enjoyed an occasional round of golf during his spare time. Charles Dickens was born in 1812 and is perhaps better known today than he ever was in his lifetime.

Charles Dickens was born in Hampshire and one of eight children. Dickens spent a lot of time outside observing his surroundings and claimed to have a photographic memory of things that he had experienced and for people he met. He stored all of life experience to memory and later recalled them for fictional purpose to use in his writing. His house was **quaint** and **cozy**, which would later play a major role in the house he would move into. When Dickens was a young child, his family was considered wealthy and he had the opportunity to attend the William Giles Chatham School. However, all good things <u>came to an end</u> when his father was sent to a **debtor's prison** and Charles was forced to go to work.

Charles went to work in a local factory to pay for room and board for his family. The factory work <u>left an impression on</u> Charles and he wasn't able to shake the horrific working condition so he later wrote about them in David Copperfield. He made many friends while in the factory and often returning there in later years to spend time with them. Lucky for Charles Dickens, the family received a nice inheritance that allowed him to return to school. However, the time he spent at the factory would leave a forever scar etched deeply into his mind. Dickens went on to attend Wellington House Academy and was able to receive a good education. Dickens eventually studied law and gained experience working as law clerk and later a **stenographer**.

1834 brought with it a new beginning for Dickens and he began to publish work for the *Morning Chronicle*. He married Catherine Thomas Hogarth and the couple had then children. During this time William Shakespeare was being read by most of the population. Charles Dickens was <u>ready to</u> begin his literary career. With character names like Oliver Twist and Ebenezer Scrooge, his novels became quite memorable for their plot development and their character development. The first novels of Charles Dickens were actually released in **installments** for journals like *Household Words* and others. Later, they would become novels in their own right.

The novels of Charles Dickens were widely accepted beginning with the first Dickens novels *The Pickwick Papers* which was published in 1837. Today, Charles Dickens continues to be one of the most well known English authors of all time, with thousands of people reading his novels regularly, his popularity is well-established. The collections of villages that have carried his name are displayed in households across the world along with his novels. (T2.Handout.*Charles Dickens*)

John spent two class periods teaching the article. He started by giving students time to read on their own. First, in order to help students understand the concept of unity in a paragraph, he added an irrelevant sentence to each to each paragraph to test students. Students needed to find the main ideas in paragraph 1, 2, 3 and 4 and to

identify the irrelevant sentence that did not belong. Some of them were able to finish the task quickly and the teacher told them to help those who have not finished. The exercise of finding the main idea was generally easy for the students. According to their experiences of doing reading exercises, the main ideas were mostly at the first sentence or the last. Students reported that finding main ideas in the readings was much more easily accomplished than identifying incoherent sentences in their own writing.

In the text, there were some words in bold that he thought students might not know such as "quaint," "cozy," and "stenographer." He gave oral explanations for them as well as for other words. Then he asked students whether they understood the underlined phrases such as "leave behind a legacy." He asked students in pairs to make sentences out of the underlined phrases on the chalkboard. One group of students wrote that, "Chairmen Mao was a great leader and he left a legacy that would not be forgotten" (F.T2.39.11-12). John praised the students for being able to write correct sentences. Although sometimes he needed to correct some tenses, prepositions, and collocation problems in students' examples on the chalkboard, in general, most groups were able to write correct sentences. At the end of vocabulary learning and sentence making exercises, John told students to write in 5-paragraph style—the introduction contains a thesis statement, each paragraph starts with a topic sentence, and a conclusion "wraps up" (F.T2.41.9) all ideas. He drew a diagram on chalkboard:

Introduction
_____
_____
_____
Conclusion

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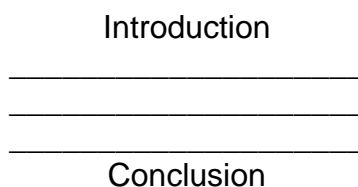
Without exception, every student wrote 5 paragraphs. Not only was the format unified, so were the contents. Most students wrote their grandma/grandpa alike: youth-adulthood-agedness, brave, optimistic, strong-willed, kind perspectives. S12's writing (At the end of the chapter) got 17 out of 24 and is typical of the students' writing. Although the predictability of the 5-paragraph structure has its merits in terms of making students' writing more organized, students searched for content to fit into the prescribed structure instead of considering what there was to say about the topic. Students were filling in blanks rather than writing thoughtfully.

The second writing assignment *My Grandma/Grandpa and I* was similarly taught (Appendix G is the writing model since John borrowed it from Jack). Like the first assignment, the compare and contrast assignment was formulaic. The following is the outline John requested students to follow and an example of a sample piece of writing that was crafted following the formula.

Since they had written My *Grandma/Grandpa*, students were able to work on the outline of *My Grandma/Grandpa and I* swiftly based on the following template.

Freshmen Reading and Writing Essay Outline
Student: _____   Class: _____
Title: _____

Introduction: Controlling Idea:

Paragraph Two: Differences/Main idea one
            Supporting Details:

Paragraph Three: Differences/Main idea two
            Supporting Details:

Paragraph Four: Similarities/ Main idea one

Supporting Details:

Paragraph Five: Similarities/ Main idea two
Supporting Details:

Conclusion:

(T2. Handout. *American & Japan*)

The following piece, as well as that of many students, was structured by following the above template. Furthermore, the underlined phrases shown are surprisingly like the writing model after examining students' writing and considering language expressions, transitional words, and style. Out of 24, this student got 22.

My Grandmother and I

My grandmother and I are different in many ways. So people may think that we <u>have nothing in common</u>. But as a matter of fact, my grandmother and I still <u>share some surprising similarities</u> along with our obvious different.

<u>The most obvious difference</u> is our personality. I am an extroverted person, but my grandmother is an introverted person. I would like to go out and play with my friends if I have enough time while my grandmother would like to stay at home with her families. I usually say a lot of things when I'm at home, but my grandmother will just smile and listen to me.

<u>Another difference is</u> our beliefs about marriage. I think that the basic thing of marriage is love. We should marry a person that we love. But my grandmother think that love is pale and incapable in reality, so we should marry a person who can give us a better life. She married my grandfather for a better life due to her belief about marriage. Our differences make us quite different.

<u>Though we are quite different, we still share some similarities</u>. We have the same attitude about life. We think that we can change our destiny if we work hard and try our best. Nothing is meant to be in our mind. She tried her best to change her poor life, so she married my grandfather. I tried my best to win a prize although my teachers don't give me much expectation. So we try our best to against our fates.

We are both easygoing person. So we have the same way to solve problems. When there's something unhappy happened between our friends and us, we are the ones who gave up first. Because we always think about

others and we all think that we can just let it go if it is not a very serious problem.

> While my grandmother and I may seem like we <u>have nothing in common, that's not the truth</u>. We still have some similarities. We have the same attitude about life and we have the same way to solve problems. <u>But </u>we are different on our personalities and our beliefs about marriage. Although we are different, we can get along with each other well and we love each other. (S16. *My grandma and I*)

S16 was one of the top students in John's writing classes. As shown in her writing, she carefully modeled after the writing sample in format and language usage. She included phrases such as "share some surprising similarities," "the most obvious difference," "another difference is," "thought we are different," "have nothing in common," and "that is not true" into her writing, although some slightly varied from the model. The same organizational patterns and the phrases could be identified in many students' writing, though some students wrote with less fluency than the above student. John was content to see the students write according to the prescribed model. For example, he said, "When you start your second paragraph, it's right to start with the most obvious difference. That's how you will improve your language" (F.T2.56.20-21).

Because students were forced to write in a contrived way, most students believed writing in English requires a strict following of the formula. After learning about what Jack did in his classes, John's students were even more convinced that following a formula was the best way to write in English (John's students and Jack's students were in the same cohort). But they also felt the models bound them. When talking to me about their compare-and-contrast writing assignment, one student complained:

> Even though we completed the writing by following the model, we were not challenged enough in thinking. At least Jack's students had to think about the similarities and differences between the Gilded Age and Modern China. To be frank, I couldn't think of any similarities between my grandma and I

except our personality. We are a family and of course, we are alike. That's not worth too much time writing, I think (S18.2.14-19).

John's focus on teaching language and form showed that students could not benefit from language exercises at paragraph level or sentence-making exercises. Students needed to write for authentic and communicative purposes. By beginning with a prescribed form, searching for messages to fill in a prescribed format, students practiced language exercises rather than writing. John' students showed their understanding that writing was a way of thinking, not merely a manipulation of language. For students like S18 who writes fluently in their L1, the filling-in-the-blank approach not only made them have no choice but to write uniformly, it also depreciated their thinking—the truly valuable part in a piece of writing.

Focusing on sentence practice

Like Jack, John believed written exercises were a solution to help students write more conventionally because students lacked a proper knowledge of English rhetoric. The students' job was to follow the teacher's directions and practice the exercises extensively and repeatedly until they could write correctly. He believed "If they know the concept (concision, unity, and coherence), they will produce it" (T2.1.21.19). He was also confirmed in this approach after talking to other NES instructors in the department. John lectured about writing skills in isolation that he thought his students might need.

Table 6-2. Skills taught in John's classes

Week	Skills taught
4	teach formatting rules, revise sentences, how to write concisely, punctuation plagiarism, clichés, write parallel sentences, teach conciseness, coherence,
6	unity, effective sentence skills (rewrite, find correct sentences)

As shown in Table 6-2, Week 4 and 6 included the extensive instruction of writing skills. In Week 4, John pointed out explicitly the formatting requirements of English

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writing that he preferred, including font, indention, and how to address him in both emails and homework. He also spoke about revising sentences and taught punctuation rules. In Week 6, he taught how to avoid plagiarism and clichés, as well as how to write parallel sentences, concepts of coherence, and unity from Jack's handbook, and provided more sentence exercises. Although he taught other skills (such as writing the conclusion and thesis statement) occasionally, the means of instruction were similar— read and teach skills and then practice.

The following is an example showing how he taught the concept of conciseness. His typical way of lecturing was to ask students to read aloud the slides he prepared and then ask students to practice and demonstrate their understanding. He gave answers at the end. In his slides for Week 6, conciseness was taught as below:

<u>Conciseness</u>
- A sentence should contain no unnecessary words.
- Wordiness only obscures the idea.
- Reread what has been written to see if there are words that can be deleted without affecting the meaning.

John asked one of the students to read the slide out aloud and he repeated the last sentence on the slide. Then students knew it was time for exercise, so they took out their notes. The next slide showed:

<u>Pick out the wordy sentences</u>

- It was blue in color.
- He returned in the early part of the month of August.
- In my opinion, I think your plan is feasible.
- Mr. Smith usually likes to drink all kinds of wines that are produced in France.

He told students to make the listed sentences simple. Students were given a few minutes to write in their notebooks. When most of them were done, John gave correct

answers and commented "Wordy is one of your favorite mistakes. Are the sentences better?" (F.T2.14.3) Students nodded. Following conciseness were unity, coherence, and more sentence revision exercises.

In Week 4, after working on wordy sentences, students also worked on parallel sentences and incomplete sentences. They followed John's instruction to revise sentences 1 and 2 to make them parallel and correct sentences 3, 4 and 5:

- He likes to sing, to swim, and table-tennis.
- He was knocked down by a bicycle, but it was not serious.
  (T2.Handout 3.2)
- His arguing a long and tiresome story without any sensitivity to his readers.
- Though people may have personality disorders.
- The president, who went blind in his left eye from the incident.
  (T2.Handout 4.3)

Practice on the sentence level was John's major approach to teaching skills. John hoped the students would apply the skills they practiced in their writing later. Students reported that the sentence exercises were too simple, since they have been learning English and practicing sentence making or sentence correcting exercises for exam purposes for years. John thought his sentence exercises were "catering their strength" (F.T2.42.20).

For students who have certain syntactic and linguistic knowledge about English, the isolated sentence-level instruction was simply a waste of time. Students learn techniques best when they need them in the course of composition instead of in isolation. Furthermore, being able to write correctly at the sentence level does not mean being able to produce good fluent sentences in writing, because writers generate and revise their own words when writing and proofreaders revise others' words when proofreading. Writing is more mentally demanding because writers are creating

something new, not simply displaying a bunch of grammatically and syntactically correct sentences together.

Feedback on Surface-Level Correctness

Like Jack, John gave feedback to students on two occasions: in one-on-one meetings and on the assignments students turned in. Even the way John checked the outlines was similar to Jack—to make sure students were on the right track, which also meant no messy writing, no unexpected topics, and following the models. Like Jack, the feedback he gave to students as usually "yes," "no," and "probably" when students asked whether their topics were appropriate. Like Jack's students, John's students could develop their outlines into a draft and turn them in the following week. John said, "See their level, guided writing is the best. They are not ready to write freely" (F.T2.7.8-9). John also believed language proficiency is a prerequisite for writing. The language-first assumption largely hampered the students' development of writing skills both in Jack and John's classes. John's feedback was focused on linguistic correctness; so, too, were peer responses.

Inspired by one of his resource books, John applied peer editing into his classes before students turned in their first assignment, *My Grandma/Grandpa*. John wanted to institute this so students would get a feeling of what he feels when evaluating students' writing. After the students wrote, he paired students up and asked them to swap their drafts. To start the peer-editing activity, John wrote several guidelines on board, such as (1) find the controlling idea; (2) find sentences that don't belong; and (3) find wordy sentences and grammar mistakes. He told the students, "Read your classmate's paper and look for mistakes. Not everything your classmate wrote is correct. Look at it and rewrite it" (F.T2.46.16-17). Following his directions and the guidelines on the board,

students began to comment on their classmate's paper. However, many students ignored their peer's comments, especially when students with low language proficiency edited the work of those with higher language proficiency. Since they had been studying together for several months, they were quite familiar with each other's language levels. One student told me in an interview:

> Peer-editing is a waste of time. I remember the editor commented on my sentences and said "incoherent." I just ignored them because my sentences made sense to me. When I got the paper back from the teacher, he commented about nothing on those sentences (S10.3.14-17).

John wanted students to find mistakes but students themselves did not trust their peers, because they were confident that, as they believed others were just like themselves and did not understand what a controlling idea or a wordy sentence is, they could not provide suggestions or comments. The students believed that only the instructor is the one who can give the right feedback. The peer-editing activity was only practiced once. The second time in writing *My Grandma/Grandpa and I*, John decided to check on his own, due to the unsuccessful attempt with peer editing.

Instead of focusing on ideas in text and exchanging opinions among peers, students were directed to attend to language mistakes. The students, like their instructor, believed that writing is all about the correct use of language; therefore, those who have better language proficiency are better writers. Peer conferencing was restricted to peer error correction instead of peer editing. Students learned how to respond to their peers' work from their instructor's demonstration; however, John failed to demonstrate what peers could do to help each other to clarify thoughts or communicate better. The data indicated that the instructor had a narrow understanding of peer editing and the Chinese students needed specific instructions on how to

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respond to their peers' work and how to become better writers through real readers' eyes, even if their readers have different writing proficiency and language proficiency.

After students turned in their homework, John graded the students' writing based on a rubric. The rubric contained 6 categories: (1) format; (2) fluency; (3) unity and coherence; (4) grammar and spelling; (5) conciseness; and (6) introductory paragraph and conclusion. The highest score for each category was 4 and lowest was 1. Although students could see in which category they lost points, they still had confusion regarding the teacher's comments and feedback.

Students at various language levels reported that they struggled with idiomatic expressions and were confused constantly by teacher comments that indicated that their writing was "awkward" or "wordy." In S12's writing example (at the end of the chapter), there were three "AWK" and one "???." She did not know how to improve them. She wrote in the third paragraph "especially, he likes walking or running slowly to a long distance to a beautiful park near the sea with my grandma to enjoy the sunrise and then walk home." She commented that, "I don't know whether he meant the language in the sentence is awkward or the sentence in the paragraph is awkward" (S12.3.12-13). Without knowing what her instructor meant by "awkward," she left it aside without any further revision.

 Another student S11 wrote a sentence in his *My Grandma* assignment like this:

However, she did not hate her new parents but appreciated them for bringing up her and <u>exercising her forbearance</u>. (S11. *My Grandma*)

John underlined the phrase "exercising her forbearance" as "AWK" (awkward). S11 told me that he wanted to express the meaning that his grandma became tougher after she had been mistreated by her adopted parents. He looked up "*duan lian"* (train, foster,

exercise) and "*ren nai li*" (endurance, tolerance, forbearance) in a Chinese-English dictionary and created "exercising her forbearance." He said, "If it's awkward, then how should I revise?" (S11.4.L18). When asked why he did not talk to his instructor, he replied:

> I tried and found he did not understand what I mean. Maybe my English is not good. I tried several times and found his answers were not helpful and I gave up.If he is a Chinese teacher, at least we could communicate in Chinese (S11.13.4-9).

Chinese-impacted expressions were infused in students' English writing and often sound confusing to NES instructors. Students hoped by learning from NES instructors their language expressions would be improved. But after a semester of study, they were disappointed to find they still could not write more fluently or easily. They only realized one thing—they cannot ever learn to write in a way that native speakers could understand. They have been mistakenly convinced that they were incapable of improving their own word choices and communicating effectively, which they could base on S11's example above.

In this study, almost all the students reported that they did not understand the comment of "incoherent." What appeared "incoherent" for the NES instructor sounded perfectly "coherent" to them. S14 wrote the following paragraph describing her grandma:

> Though her life was not easy, she never lost her optimism. Even though she is 88 years old, she always has a beautiful smile. No matter when I visit her, I can see her loving and warm smile. Facing with the difficulties, she still keeps her positive attitude. In 2008, I can well remember that she got serious disease and how she confronted it optimistically. We all thought that she would leave us, so we felt sad. However, whoever visited her, she always smiled instead of showing a sigh. Her strong-will and optimism help her overcome the disease. Finally, she recovered. (S14. *My Grandma*)

S14 argued:

I don't understand why this paragraph has been marked as incoherent. What I want to say is that my grandma is very optimistic even when she was very sick. I think if I write the same paragraph in Chinese, it would have made sense to Chinese instructors. I would like to know how to make it coherent if he told me" (S14.6) ("COH," which stands for coherence problems, were common in students' writing).

Like this student, many students failed to understand their NES instructor's comments. The comments did not reveal any places or any possible ways specifically that the students could start to improve the coherence in their writing. However, students spent their efforts guessing about what was on the teacher's mind rather than reworking their pieces to express themselves better.

In the composition of *My Grandma/Grandpa*, John found his students tended to end their compositions with "she/he is a great person and I love my grandma/grandpa forever" in their rough draft. John commented that, "I know you will love your grandma/pa forever. Not a problem. But that's not a good ending, too emotional, weak" (F.T2.45.13 &16). Chinese students did not agree with him. S18 murmured after that,

I don't understand why we are not allowed to express our feelings in English writing. Chinese writing encourages *shu qing* (express feelings). The whole purpose of writing about my grandma is to show how great she is and how much I love her. I don't understand why native speakers don't like it (S18.21.17-21).

Students wrote on the same topic, but tried to convey different messages, such as love, remembrance, and legendary stories—which should not be denied but be encouraged for its representation of individual voices. Students needed to maintain a sense of unity in their writing, and those messages did not destroy unity and subjectivity but simply became a part of how their messages had been packaged. John failed to recognize the local influences on the students' style and simply marked such messages with

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"emotional" and "weak ending" due to his unawareness of cultural differences or stylistic choices.

Interestingly, even after John discouraged the emotional ending in their writing, some of the students still ended their writing of *My Grandma/pa* with "she is the greatest person I have ever known and I love her" (S7, S14. *My Grandma*) or "in my heart, he is my grandfather forever and I hope he will be healthy and enthusiastic all long" (S13. *My Grandpa*). One student ended it with "it is of vital importance to be optimistic and kind. I will confront everything optimistically and kindly with smile" (S16. *My Grandma*). John was upset and sent her a note of "please talk to me." After class, S16 went to talk to John. Reluctantly, she accepted John' advice regarding deleting the expressed feelings, but she felt something was missing. S16 had written about her grandma's optimistic and kind characteristics throughout the essay, and she commented, "I wrote this way is because I think her good characteristics are what I should learn from her. The last sentence is my attitude. Chinese teachers would have loved to see us express our feeling at the end. That's the "eye" of a composition. But he just didn't like it" (S16.18.2).

The data showed that John was not sensitive to the students' L1 rhetoric tradition and lacked open discussion with the students in how to write in cross-cultural context. Instead of telling students "weak ending," the instructor should have explained what makes a strong ending in English and acknowledged the Chinese students' emotional needs in expressing their love and respect to the elders in writing, which they seldom expressed in their daily life.

By marking as many as errors as he could, John hoped that, "They will make fewer mistakes in their future writing" (T2.1.7.4). Unfortunately, in both the first and

second writing assignment, students made the same mistakes. In S14' composition of *My Grandma/Grandpa and I*, there were 28 places of correction in an essay of 328 words, including 4 places of single/plural agreement, 2 capitalization, 5 proposition, 3 pronoun, 7 word choice, and 7 verb tense mistakes (S14. *My Grandma and I*). In her first writing of *My Grandma*, there were 26 places that required correction. Misused verb tenses and pronouns existed consistently in her two pieces of writing. Take S12' *My Grandma* as an example, there were 33 places of corrections in one page. In the second piece of writing, she had a similar number of errors. Even though she reported she agreed with the instructor, she did not recognize her errors in the second writing until the same mistakes have been pointed out.

Commenting on the surface-level correctness in students' writing and expecting them to improve automatically next time is unjustified and unhelpful. Some students threw their paper away; the majority never looked at their work again after getting it back from the instructors and felt discouraged. There was no motive for them to revise their writing and to make their writing better since they had already been graded. In addition, the vague comments on surface-level correctness suggested little to students. Rather than asking students to express what they intended to say and suggesting or eliciting possible ways to improve at places, he labeled them "incoherent" and "awkward," John blamed the students' Chinese interference of English writing. No self-awareness and no self-monitoring were fostered; thus, no students' growth as writers— no wonder students complained that they always make the same mistakes again and again.

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Unchallenging Writing

Almost all John's students complained that the writing topics were too juvenile. They were not challenged by writing topics such as *Who am I*, *My Grandma/Grandpa* in thinking. Over 30 percent of the students complained they were unchallenged intellectually through writing. Those topics were what they have been writing about since elementary school. They felt they did not think better or write better after a semester of study and they felt less competent and confident about writing in English. Over 50 percent of the students thought their English writing proficiency decreased over the course of the semester. One of John's students commented, "We had a lot of chance to talk and do reading exercises in his classes, but as for writing I don't think we are learning writing seriously. I am writing based on what I learn before him" (S8.13.4 & 7). I asked him what "seriously" mean. He replied, "The writing topics are too naïve, far below our grade level. We at least should write something like what Jack's students wrote" (S8.13.8-9). Another student expressed that "Look at what Jack's students write and what we write, we are like going through elementary again" (S11.5.12-13).

Jack's students had a chance to expand their thoughts by comparing and contrasting the Gilded Age and Modern China from social, economical and environmental perspectives. To John's students, narrating the stories of family members in English was more like translating their elementary writing assignment directly into English and in a restrictive format—by no means appealing to them as college students. No thought-provoking, age-appropriate questions were asked and answered by filling in a prescribed structure. The restrictive form and focus on correctness prevented students from thinking deeply about the topic. For the sake of grades, the students had no choice but to write and think passively on given topics and format.

Students noticed or pointed out differences between John's writing classes and other classes. When students in John's class wrote *My Grandma/Grandpa*, the same group of students were writing on their self-selected topics *My Value* in their Comprehensive English class. They thought *My Value* is more at their intellectual and developmental level than *My Grandma/Grandpa*. They had more enthusiasm in writing the former topic. Given more thoughtful topics, students reported that they spent more time on thinking how to write, gathering ideas, searching information, and sharing with peers. Here are two examples written by the same student.

(S18. *My Grandpa*)

My grandfather was born in Mei Zhou, who was the youngest children of his family. He is over seventy years old. He was a farmer before his retirement. I lived with him during my childhood.

My grandfather looks thin, always wearing in gray. However, his life doesn't look as gloomy as gray. He lives a life with passion and regularity. Although he was over seventy years old, he still can ride his old bicycle to everywhere. He has kept his healthy living style for many years. My grandfather always gets up at six o'clock then does morning exercises for 2 or 3 hours. He eats fishes and fresh vegetables every day meanwhile he never drinks any kinds of beverage but pure water and green tea. He enjoys reading books in his spare time, books are just like some old friends to him and it seems that he cannot live without them.

 (S18. *My Value-Truth*)

"Amicus Plato，Amicus Aristotle，sed Magis Amicus VERITAS." The school motto of Harvard struck my heart heavily for the first time I read it. In English, it means: Let Plato be your friend, and Aristotle, but more let your friend be truth. I value *veritas* most.

Compared with reputation, money, and authority, *veritas* seems to be, generally, nihility. It can hardly bring you material comforts or practical benefits; oppositely, it may cause suffering, disaster, or even ask the price of death in return. Going down the history, however, one can easily find that most of the people owing reputation, money, and authority in their times are like meteors crossing the deep black night-sky, displaying marvelous beauty while burning themselves. They are limited by the terminal of life— death. But there is something that death would not be able to take away;

even in the darkness of fatuous historical periods, the rays from the lamp of *veritas,* even so faint and feeble, could be felt, and it will be lit forever.

In the Black Middle Age, Bruno, the man who publicized and insisted that the sun stood in the middle of the universe, was sentenced to death; Galileo, who took over Bruno's job, was punished to be under house arrest in his later life, but never did he give up. Today, they are remembered as the victims of their times and honored as great men of the history. In both of them, we could see their determination to light the lamb of *veritas* when the world is enveloped in the darkness of absurd authority, the perseverance to insist on the truth when suffering the cruel trial, and the unyieldingness when facing the raging flame of death. In a word, the courage to speak for and guard *veritas* is the linchpin to achieve it.

The first example is the first two paragraphs in the writing of *My Grandpa* that strictly followed the 5-paragraph model and the second is first three paragraphs in *My Value* without any model. S18 was an average student in the class. With *My Grandpa* in front, he uttered, "What we are writing in English writing classes is probably what elementary students in the United States write. Probably our writing is even worse because we do not have their language proficiency" (F.T2.47.5-7). With *My Value,* he became apparently excited and told me his Chinese instructor liked the topic he chose. He enjoyed spending hours at libraries searching and reading about other people's beliefs—the people he admired. He desperately needed examples to support his argument. Without much concern about language correctness or pleasing the teacher, the students only thought how to approve and convince others that what should be pursued.

The data indicated that the Chinese students, although in the process of learning English, needed to be treated like writers who use language to explore, to think, and to communicate. In *My Value*, the student was pushed to think beyond what he knew, to communicate, and to find personal meanings that have significance to him. The exploration of knowledge, the communication of ideas, and the discovery about self

brought great joy to him as a writer. Because John failed to help students see writing as a thinking activity, he left no room for the students to acknowledge that they could think and write deeply about any topics.

John believed that the Chinese students in general lack of language proficiency to write on sophisticated topics about social, cultural and political issues. He thought by letting students write something they are familiar with they might write better. He learned from his Chinese classes that many Chinese grandmas/grandpas live with their children and grandchildren. So he had the ideas to write about grandparents who might have a significant role in students' lives. However, over 70 percent of the students were from the S city. For a better living, their parents immigrated to the city from all over the China about one or two decades ago. Living in compact apartments, they seldom had their grandparents live with them in the cities but were hundreds of miles apart. Seldom had they known some "interesting" stories except how poor their parents' families were. S12 said, "I never saw my grandpa. He died early. All I knew about my grandma is how poor the family and how optimistic she was" (F.T2.20.14). S14 revealed that she knew more about the old man living upstairs than her grandpa who lived in another province one thousand miles away. Eighty percent of the students wrote about their grandmas/grandpas' strong and optimistic personalities when facing hard times from the anecdotes they heard from their parents. No wonder students wrote unanimously from those limited perspectives.

Summary

Even though John's students enjoyed learning colloquial language English in his class, they found little improvement in their writing. Writing was seen as nothing more than language proficiency. Also, focusing on format and structure hindered students'

thinking and writing development. Over-emphasis on language correctness when giving feedback to students as well as vague comments further jeopardized students' growth in writing development. The students failed to take up the challenges that the topics might have presented and to express worthwhile ideas. Rather, if John had paid attention to the following aspects, his writing instruction might be improved, such as (1) teaching writers' crafting skills when teaching reading; (2) giving students more time to write on their own for real purposes instead of letting them practice at sentence level; (3) teaching students to read peers' work from a readers' perspective instead of from the perspective of language judge; and (4) recognizing the impact of EFL students' L1 rhetoric in English writing and the relativity of English rhetoric.

(S12. *My Grandpa*)

My Grandpa

My grandpa was just an old person like other average old people. However, when I get to know more about his experience, I appreciate his bravery, his positive attitude and I consider him to be a wonder.

My grandpa was born at a village, in 1929, when the new China was not founded. So he experienced the disadvantages of old system, leading a tough life in his childhood. But he didn't depress, he joined the army to fight against the enemies. Soon, he was promoted to be a platoon leader, playing a more important role to defend our country against the invaders. After promoting, he became to use a more advanced machine gun in the Hainan War and fought against the Japanese invaders in Guangzhou War bravely. He cared more about the motherland than himself. Those unforgettable days left an impression on him. At present, he sometimes wears trousers of the army uniform, which I didn't know the memorable meaning for him before. He is a bravely worrior in my heart and it won't ebb away with his being old.

After the foundation of the People's Republic of China, my grandpa still keeps on leading an economical life as well as keeps the habits which were formed in the army. He goes to bed early on time and gets up at 5:30 to do morning exercise. Especially, he likes walking or running slowly to a long distance to a beautiful park near the sea with my grandma to enjoy the sunrise and then walk home. In addition, although he was old, he likes to speak loud and he can always play a joke on the people around him. He is of stateliness in the war field but humorous in his daily life.

Something unfortunate for my grandpa was he got a terrible disease 30 years ago, when he was living in the hometown and there were seldom advanced medical technologies there. But he had a strong mind to rebel against death, and had a light diet according to the doctor's advice. It is his perseverance and positive attitude to life that keeps him alive. It is a wonder as the doctor and many relatives says.

My dear grandpa can always overcome difficulties bravely, looking on the cheerful side of life. Not only can he fought against the invaders, but also coped with his disease, even the deadly disease. Therefore, I consider my great grandpa to be a wonder and I love him.

CHAPTER 7
KEN: TEACHING SKILLS AS THE BASIS OF WRITING

Ken's Profile

Personal Educational Background

Ken, an African-American, came from a family whose father was a university professor in reading education. Perhaps influenced by his father, he showed great understanding for my research by offering me as much information as possible such as his lesson plans, PowerPoint slides of each week, teaching materials, resource books, and students' homework. Ken graduated from a university in Ohio with a M.A. degree in international relations. Later he joined the Marines as an officer. He was stationed in California for eight years and in Japan for two years. When he left the military, he did not go back to the United States; instead, he came to S University to study Chinese. He was concerned about his ethnicity and wanted to stay in a city where people are more open-minded. He chose S city because he considered S city as the most liberal Chinese city.

He found it was challenging to be an Africa-American instructor at S University. Unlike other NES instructors who have been accepted immediately by the Chinese, it took a while for his students to accept him. He used the word "frightened" to describe how his Chinese students felt when they first saw him as their teacher. But after teaching a few classes, he became a star among his students and was always surrounded by students during or after breaks. He was one of the most popular native-English-speaking (NES) teachers in the department. Race seemed to be an issue at the beginning, but it turned out to be a non-influential factor in teaching English writing, compared with other factors.

Ken valued the precise use of language in a piece of writing more than anything else, for he thought that inappropriate diction made a huge difference in writing. Once he emailed me an article from *China Daily*, a widely read English newspaper in China, about Google's exit from China and commented on it. Upset about the word "plot" and some other "childish" phrases, he thought these improper words made the article sound unserious and uneducated to English-speaking people, even though the author might be right about the issue. According to him, the seriousness of the issue has been washed away by the inappropriate language use. He claimed that writers should pay special attention to the language they use.

Besides teaching the courses English Writing, Public Speech and An Introduction to Contemporary America, he also coached the English debate team of the university. During the time of the study, Ken took the debate team to Beijing for one week to attend a nation-wide debate competition. His debate team was considered the best in the team's debate history though it still did not rank among the first three in the nation.

What Brought Ken to S University

Ken's entry into the English department was dramatic. When he was studying Chinese at S University, he did not intend to be an English teacher. In order to support himself, he found a job teaching English. He started tutoring Chinese middle and high school students. When he learned that the English department was looking for NES instructors, he applied but was rejected without a reason. He sent his résumé to the department again but replaced his photo with one of his Caucasian friend's. This time the department showed apparent interest on him and arranged a face-to-face interview. He told his story to one of his tutees' father who is a powerful man at local area. The tutee's father thought a good teacher should not be treated with prejudice and wrote a

letter of recommendation to the department. In the end, Ken got the job and became the first and only African-American instructor in the English department.

Ken's Beliefs in Teaching EFL Writing

Ken considered a teacher's first and most important responsibility was to be able to evaluate the students' ability, and he designed the course in a way that provided students with frequent practice and feedback in order to make progress over the course of the study. Students should participate actively in the learning process. Both Jack and Ken taught in Japan and they agreed that Chinese students are more active than Japanese students, but they are also weak in analytical and original thinking, especially in writing. He thought it was a big challenge for NES teachers to teach writing to the students who have limited language proficiency and lack of ideas at the same time.

Ken has neither specific knowledge of nor training for teaching English. His understanding of English writing was based on his own writing experience. For Ken, a good piece of English writing should be properly structured, concisely worded, and contain vivid and appropriate vocabulary. If it is an academic research paper, an international format such as APA or MLA should be followed. Like John, he turned to veteran instructors like Jack for teaching ideas. Besides that, he also relied on resource books and the Internet for instructional support.

His pedagogical knowledge came mainly from his military experience. He spent eight years in the military as an officer training technicians. He commented, "The teaching methods I employ now are those that I was exposed to in the United States Military. In my opinion, they are more effective than those used in American colleges" (S.T3.2). The typical military way of teaching, according to Ken, was to break everything down into small parts. Learners started from learning the basics, practicing repeatedly

until they understood, and then moved to the next. In his opinion, the bottom-up method should be as effective in teaching English writing as in the military. He viewed learning to write in English as similar to learning to fix an airplane; both consisted of many subskills. In fixing an airplane, learners start from knowing each part and completing with a lot of repetitions and practice; in English writing, learners start from learning words, sentences, paragraphs, and passages. His believed his job was to teach students the subskills they needed, one at a time, and at the end learners have all the skills to produce a piece of writing.

The English writing class for sophomores was the last required English writing class for the students. He knew students would be required to write a graduation thesis during their senior year for graduation. Ken thought he must teach them how to write a research paper—something more advanced and analytical than freshmen writing course. So his syllabus covered teaching a descriptive essay, an analytical essay, and a synthesis essay, which all contained skills that students needed to produce a research paper. He has been teaching sophomore English writing for a year and half, but his syllabus has changed many times. He found that the students' previous learning experiences with different NES writing instructors determined how much they knew about English writing. He shared frankly that his sophomore students who studied in Jack's classes were generally better informed about writing than students with other instructors.

Despite his careful planning, he found his teaching did not go as smoothly as he expected. Not all students understood his teaching at the same pace. He has to cater students at the lower level by repeating his lessons and revising his teaching

approaches. He complained that he has to spend most of the semester going back and re-teaching. His schedule was often subjected to changes and students had to rush to finish assignments at the end of the semester.

Teaching Style

Ken has a high student selection rate among the NES instructors in the department. His students regarded him a patient, approachable, and caring teacher. He managed to maintain students' self-confidence in his classes. He learned how to work better with his Chinese students, as he recalled that:

> When I first started teaching, I wasn't trying to be nice to the students. . . . If they didn't prepare for the class, I would just say go away, you won't have classes. I was very strict at that time. . . . But I found that doesn't work here. I think they want to keep face with the other students. So I have all their email addresses and just email them after class, say, "You know, today I took points away from you because you did not prepare for the class." I softened my way. They became better students and the class became more enjoyable (T3.1.6-7&10-11).

His face-saving strategy helped him in building rapport with students. He was willing to share his personal stories with students to make the teacher-students relationship closer. One time, he told a story about how he was judged by driving an old shaky car, and the students were amused by his not-so-sweet story. Even after the semester was over, many students could still remember the story vividly. He also told of his personal experience at the military, at S city, and in his Chinese classes. The stories brought him closer to the students.

Another thing his students liked about him was that he was one of the few NES instructors willing to spend time talking with them after class. The general impression of many students about NES instructors was that "they vanished after class" (S21.1.5). During the time of study, Ken often stayed after class to answer students' all kinds of

questions, sometimes for even longer than one hour. Questions covered homework, writing strategies, Chinese and English writing differences, personal experience, hobbies, cultural differences between China and America, and international news. Ken understood the students' needs to practice English with native-speakers in a non-English speaking environment, so he was willing to talk with them. He said, "60% of why they (the department leaders) have foreign teachers here is to expose their students to foreigners and foreign culture" (T2.1.16.9-10). With this perception, he talked with students patiently as long as the students wanted to, unless he had teaching duties or appointments with others. When he talked, he talked with a smile on his face. Almost all of his students agreed that he was one of the most approachable NES instructors with a nice personality.

His students liked him also because he was a responsible teacher who prepared handouts and uploaded them to class mailboxes for each class. However, his writing classes were not rated as high as his personality by his students.

<center>**Ken's Teaching Characteristics**</center>

Skill-Based Instruction

The most prominent characteristic of Ken's writing classes was heavy skill-based instruction. During the time of the study, Ken thought about, planned for, and taught mostly the writing skills that he believed Chinese students should develop a command of. For writing a research report as semester goal, he needed to figure out the "parts"—skills that are necessary to accomplishing the final research report. His instruction included wording, sentencing, and paragraphing skills. He lectured on writing skills and then asked students to practice them as preparation for their writing tasks.

Teaching skills in isolation

As mentioned before, Ken's underlying instructional assumption was that if writing skills are taught from parts to whole, students should be able to write a research report by applying all the skills at the end of the semester. Thus, planning what to teach became his teaching priority and took most of his class preparation time. He said, "I spent most of my time, as a teacher, trying to figure out lesson plans that will work" (T3.1.1.4). After many changes to his lesson plans, Table 7-1 displays all the skills he finally taught.

Table 7-1. Skills taught in Ken's classes

Week	Time	Skills Taught	Note
1-2	4P	Self-introduction, study syllabus	Write *My Plan**
3	2P*	Introduction to academic writing, introduction-main body-conclusion, summary, cliché, thesaurus	General introduction
4	2 P	Effective sentencing such as independent, dependent, run-on, dangling sentence, preposition, and practice	
5	2 P	Paragraphing, concepts of good writing and practice	Write a product description
6	2P	How to paraphrase, four ways to paraphrase, quote and practice	Write a movie review
7	2P	Paraphrase skills continued, citation and practice	
8		*Classed cancelled*	
9	1P	Teach irony and find irony	Write a 100-word short story
10		Holiday break	
11	1 P	Description of a person and practice	
12	1 P	Rewrite to make a long article short and practice	
13	1P	Write proposal, bibliography and practice	Write a research report on a person
14	1P	What is a good abstract and practice	
15	1P	Structure of people research (life, time, legacy)	
16	2P	HOC, LOC, professional writers' tips	
17		No classes	
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P*: class period, e.g. 1P means one class period, 45 minutes; *My Plan was not counted as an assignment due to students' auditioning of classes.

As shown in Table 7-1, he spent the first few weeks introducing the features of academic writing such as the tradition of introduction-main body-conclusion style of English writing; how to write introduction, conclusion, and summary; how to avoid cliché;

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the use of a thesaurus; skills such as independent sentences and dependent sentences, and how to avoid run-on sentences. His goal was to "introduce them to the correct way of English writing" (F.T3.2.21) because Ken found Chinese students often wrote English writing in awkward ways. Later, paragraphing skills, concepts of good writing, irony, and how to apply HOC (Higher Order Concerns) and LOC (Lower Order Concerns) were taught (Table 7-1). Throughout the 18-week long semester, Ken was either lecturing or requiring students to practice the "parts" so they would gain sufficient skills to write a research report.

For example, in Week 5, as usual, Ken prepared detailed slides and uploaded them to a classroom mailbox so that every student had access to them. Students could download slides for previewing before each class or reviewing after class. Week 5's instruction contains a little about paragraphing, but it was mainly about introducing style in English writing. The slides were adapted from *The Elements of Style* by William Strunk and E. B. White and Internet resources. He prepared 30 slides, which was the normal number of slides prepared for each week. The following are excerpts from his slides:

> (Slide 4) Simplicity: "making complicated things seem complicated is commonplace, making the complicated seem simple; awesomely simple, is great art" by Charlie Mingus-famous Jazz musician.

> (Slide 5) Concerning the negative role media play, many sociologists and educators bring up serials of suggestions and solutions. Firstly, the government & the authorities concerned should pay adequate attention to media, giving strict censors to TV programs and the contents on other media. Secondly, families and schools should take some responsibility for children's education, strengthening moral education and setting up for them correct world value. Only by means of joint effort, can the world become purer and media play a positive role in the society.

> (Slide 6) Simplicity: readability score

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(Slide 7) Simplicity: sloppy language begins with sloppy thinking; good writing begins with clear thinking; take time to prepare before you write

(Slide 8-13) (Directions for free writing practice)

(Slide 14) Be Specific-colorful writing: your word should create pictures; show, don't tell; if you can get readers to see what you are talking about, they will keep reading

(Slide 15) Be Specific-colorful writing: The woman is nervous or Her hands are shaking as she slides her wedding ring on and off; finally, her husband comes home. . . .

(Slide 16) Be Precise: in order to be precise and logical, read your art aloud; listen, and ask yourself, does it really make sense?

(Slide 17) Be Brief: "Good writing is concise. A sentence should contain no unnecessary words, a paragraph no unnecessary sentences, for the same reason that a painting should have no unnecessary lines and a machine no unnecessary parts. This requires not that the writer make all his sentences short, or that he avoid all detail and treat his subjects only in outline, but that every word should count." (A.T3.Week 5 slides)

The way Ken instructed usually involved the following steps: read slides, give examples, and practice. For example, while showing slide 4, Ken told students, "Your former Chinese teacher told you to write as complicated as possible. Do that if you take Chinese teachers classes. Here I have a quote from a famous Jazz musician. You might not know about him but he is famous" (F.T3.35.9-12). Then he read aloud the Charlie Mingus' quotation on slide 4 and asked students whether they are convinced. Students nodded. Then an exercise of choosing non-simplistic sentences followed.

Following "simplicity" were "be specific," "be precise," and "be brief," and similarly, he talked about the slides and had students work on exercises on worksheets. The worksheets also included finding the readability score and free writing practice. The 30 slides took one and half class periods to finish. Lecture and practice were intermixed in his writing classes; however, not every concept was followed by exercises.

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As shown in Table 7-1, Ken planned to teach skills that he thought the students might need for each assignment as well as for the final research report. For example, before students wrote a movie review, he had lectured about how to paraphrase and cite sources. Before they wrote a 100-word short story, they were taught about irony. Before students wrote their final research report on a person, his students were taught many techniques and skills Ken thought helpful in completing the assignment. However, things did not turn out to the way he planned.

Students could not satisfactorily demonstrate each skill well enough immediately in their writing. This confused Ken because he thought his instruction and handouts were easy to understand. Indeed, students at different levels found his instruction and slides easy to understand. When lecturing, he also supported with examples (slide 5). Students did not complain much about his lectures. The instructor, as well as the students, was puzzled why clear understanding of writing skills did not yield skillful writers. Without a solution, Ken kept the same way of teaching until the end of the semester.

Besides lecturing on skills, Ken used worksheets frequently to test his students' understanding. For example, in Week 3, Ken prepared two pages of two-sided worksheets before class. They started with two paragraphs—one lean paragraph and one problematic paragraph, then a table of common clichés, and two sections of sentence exercises. The exercises were mainly from his resource books, but sometime he would substitute the names in exercises with some names students knew, for he thought it is better to provide examples that Chinese students could relate to. The following is the lean paragraph that he chose from one of his resource book *Successful*

Writing for the Real World by Michael Krigline (2008) to illustrate the standards of a

well-developed paragraph:

Lean paragraph

70th Birthday Celebration in Zhejiang: A Special Time

People in Zhejiang like to hold a three-step, family celebration on their 70th birthdays. First, all the family members attend a gathering to discuss the details of the celebration. Then there is a ceremonial party. The honored guest always wears a traditional "Tang Zhuang" with the Chinese character *shou* (long-life) on it. Young people give their best wishes to the elder and the elder gives red envelopes containing money to them. After that, a reception for the guest is held; often excellent food is served. Family participation and a special dinner party make 70th birthday celebration in Zhejiang a special time. (T2. Handout week 3)

By teaching all the characteristics of a lean paragraph, he wished students could

write as logically as the example. As he explained after class "I have all these small

exercises to teach them: ok, this is logical, this is how you do it, these are the parts of

logic. So they practice them, and later when they write their essay, they just remember

they practiced in the worksheet" (F.T2.10-11.21-1). To his disappointment, Ken found a

huge gap between students' worksheet performance and performance in assignments.

One time, Ken sighed, "I feel pessimistic about that, you know, they don't get it. But

that's all I can teach them about a lean paragraph" (T3.1.10.14). Worksheets were

heavily used in Ken's writing classes. Ken prepared abundant worksheets and spent

large chunks of class time for students to work on them. Sometimes the amount of time

to complete them exceeded the lecture time. For example, S22 recalled, "He prepared a

lot of worksheets for us. Some of them I think are unnecessary. But we have to

complete them any way. Often we have to finish the worksheets after class" (S22.5.3-5).

The completion of worksheets was worth 25 points out of 100. Ken checked the

students' notebook at the end of the semester to make sure they worked on them. In the end, some students spent more work on worksheets than on their writing.

Ninety percent of the students found the exercises at syntactic and grammatical levels were unnecessary and not worth two class periods since they all had extensive training on that before. According the data, the students needed to be taught grammar and criteria of good writing that was meaningful to them instead of out of context, for example, by using students' own writing examples. Rather than spending time on writing something meaningful, students were forced to practice on meaningless, repetitious, isolated worksheets. Writers do throw many techniques together, but artistically and creatively, blending thoughts and language to generate meaningful compositions instead of practicing on techniques in isolation.

Techniques mismatch students' needs

Although much class time was spent on teaching techniques, students found they were constantly in a situation where the skills taught did not match their needs. Students found some of the skills are repetitious, yet, at other times, they found they lacked proper skills to solve their problems during writing. Here I will give an example of the exercises students worked on.

In Week 4, Ken taught independent, dependent, run-on, and dangling sentences and let students practice the skills on two pages of worksheets. The following are four of the eight examples from the dangling sentence exercise section:

> Direction: One sentence of each pair contains a dangling modifier. Choose the correct sentence that does not contain a dangling modifier.

> ——1. A Having misunderstood the assignment, I received a low grade on my paper.

B. Having misunderstood the assignment, my paper got a low degree.

——2. Returning after a year out of the country, my cat did not even know me.

B. When I returned after a year out of the country, my cat did not even know me.

——3. A Having marinated overnight, you may now cook the meat.

B. Having marinated overnight, the meat is now ready to be cooked.

——4. A As the squirrel steadfastly replaced the lost acorns, I marveled at its determination and hard work.

B. Steadfastly replacing the lost acorns, I marveled at the squirrel's determination and hard work.

Students had almost no difficulty in selecting the correct answers. One student commented that:

> At first I didn't know what dangling modifier is. But after I looked at the sentences I realized its *xuanchui jiegou* (dangling elements) that we learned at high school. Who doesn't know dangling elements? He underestimated what Chinese students know about English grammar (F.T3.16.3-5).

It might be the first time for the students to hear the terms of grammar and writing in English but certainly not their first encounter with them. In fact, student writing demonstrated that dangling sentences were an infrequent occurrence rate in Chinese students' writing. The instruction did not reflect students' needs.

Another example is that students could barely cite correctly after Ken taught citation. When the students wrote, they met new challenges beyond what had been taught. At Week 6, as before, Ken spent two class periods lecturing on how to cite original words from book authors, how to paraphrase, and how to use quotations, according to his resource books. There is an excerpt of the field notes of how he taught it:

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Ken told students "writers frequently intertwine summaries, paraphrases, and quotations. As part of a summary of an article, a chapter, or a book, a writer might include paraphrases of various key points blended with quotations of striking or suggestive phrases." Then students were given time to read and correct an example:

In his famous and influential work *On the Interpretation of Dreams*, Sigmund Freud argues that dreams are the "royal road to the unconscious" (page #), expressing in coded imagery the dreamer's unfulfilled wishes through a process known as the "dream work" (page #).

Students were asked, "Is this plagiarism? Why or why not? To make this legal the author must take what extra step?" No answers. Students looked at the instructor, waiting for answers. Ken told students the year should be added after the name and a bibliography should be attached at the end of the text. Then they practiced more on citing direct quotes in another worksheet. (F.T3.35)

Ken lectured from his slides. The contents of his slides and the examples were all from Krigline's book. He required students to practice paraphrasing and talked about how to cite direct quotes from books. After the class, students knew the importance of citation and that page numbers should follow a direct quote. However, in writing movie reviews, students seldom cited from books but unanimously cited from Internet sources, something that Ken failed to consider when designing the assignment.

Students cited in various patterns by their assumption. Here are some examples that are common among students writing:

1. Moreover, this movie is more than funny. The author of http://entertainmnent......ece contends that it reveals a sad reality only understood by adults that dreams of youth disappear as time goes by. (S23. Movie review Up: An Adventure More Than Funny)

2. Biography from Answer.com June 13, 2010 http://www.answers.com/topic/stevie-wonder (S25. Research report. Stevie Wonder)

3. (A history of Western philosophy) D.W.Hamlyn (S26. Research report. Socrates)

Since they had not been taught how to cite from the Internet or how to look up references on the Internet that would show them ways to cite, they created their own citation style based on their limited understanding of citation. The first example was found in the student's in-text citation and the second and third were selected from the reference section. S23, the writer of the first example told me that she cited by using "The author of http://entertainmnent. . . . ece" because she did not know how to cite an article that she found from websites without an author. She asked other students and found them confused as well, especially about how to cite from websites without an author. She figured out the website link might be as equally important to mention even if there was no author' name. S25 and S26, like many other students, did not know the correct format of citation from websites nor were they directed to developing problem-solving abilities to search for themselves. The other students faced a similar confusion when it came to quoting from websites.

Students had more writing problems when writing movie reviews, which also were not included in Ken's teaching. In the S25' writing example at the end of the chapter, the student, although she knew direct quotes should be marked with an author's name and year in parenthesis, put three types of sources in parenthesis. The "fine cast (Yung)" in the third line meant the original words were from Yung, a movie reviewer; "Jack (Dennis Quaid)" meant Jack was played by Dennis Quaid, an actor; and "to rescue his son and his friends (Diane Lorene Phelps)" in line 10 was another movie reviewer who has never mentioned before in the text. She explained that the first type of citation she learned from Ken's movie review sample. The second parenthesis means the actor's real name, which she learned from online movie reviewers' examples. The name of *Diane Lorene*

Phelps she quoted was due to the reason that she remembered the importance of citation. However, in searching for the movie related reviews, she was confused to find none of the most-cited reviewers cited like she was required to. S25 was not the only one who was confused about citation of quotations. Students were even more puzzled after they found that citation varied from author to author, book to book, and Website to Website. After two class periods of lecturing, students did not gain any confidence in using citation, nor did they learn anything about strategies to use that would allow them to solve citation problems not included in the lecture. Many students also expressed their confusion about citing from secondary sources when writing research papers. Students' questions and confusions originated in Ken's failure to teach students how to cite sources other than books.

Students found in actual writing the skills they practiced could not meet their needs. Once a student said, "After I listened to him, I thought this (research report on a person) is easy as long as you apply what he taught. But when I started, I really didn't know what to do: I knew very little about the person, could not find enough information online, and didn't know what was important information to present" (F.T3.55.7-10). Complaining in private, the students seldom asked the instructor for clarification. Based on the data, the instructor should have taught skills when students needed them instead of feeding the students what he thought was helpful.

One of the reasons that the students did not correct errors was the instructor did not comment or take points off for incorrect citations. The students lost the motivation to solve citation problems. Another reason that contributed to the reticence of the students was the Chinese students' passive learning style, as the NES instructors agreed.

Students needed to be encouraged and taught problem solving strategies as opposed to the isolated skills they have been taught. In S25's case, like many of her classmates, she needed strategies to gather, select, and organize information.

Framing Writing by Formulas and Principles

Besides lecturing on techniques, Ken provided formulas for students to follow in completing writing assignments. Like the students in the other classes, with formulas, students wrote as if they were filling in blanks. All they needed to be concerned was filling in the formula and meeting all the teacher's requirements, since the instructor would grade their writing on the formula. The following formulas are from Ken's slides for teaching students how to write a product description:

Product Description
1. **Start** with what is important and attractive
 What is the product?
 Why is it cool or unique?
 Why the customer needs it?
 Title should have the product's name and what is important about it?

2. **The body** should include important details
 2-3-1 – what they should remember most
 Can include quotes, an award or instructions on how to use it
 Try to make it easy to use or very useful

3. **End** with an echo to close the sale
 Repeat the product's name and remind them of its main advantages

- Avoid clichés or overly polite
- Write directly and strong
 "most customers like it"
 "tastes very good"
 Instead
 Advanced, unique product that is popular everywhere
 Delicious, tasty, sweet food that makes people come back time and again
- 100-175 words
- Single paragraph
- Use colon to separate product name and title
- Include a picture

- MLA format
- Include # of words and Flesch score at the end

The formula supplied students with a structure to follow, wording format for the title, length, form, and style. Following the formulas, students' writing started with question answering and then checking the rules one by one when composing. Under the formulas, students wrote in a uniform style. The following is one of the best product descriptions writing in Ken's class:

The multifunctional MP3 Watch: Second to None

[1]If you want to lead a fashionable and convenient life, the multifunctional MP3 watch does you a favor. [2]It combines the functions of watch, MP3, record, USB flask disk together. [3]It is of high technology, fashionable and useful; young people particularly think highly of it. [4]There are different kinds of styles and colors for children, teenagers and young adults to choose. [5]It is easy to wear and convenient to use. [6]Moreover, it is waterproof, quakeproof and accurate, it supports various music formats. [7]In addition, it has a three-year guarantee all over China. [8]Therefore, to be fashionable and enjoy a convenient life, you deserve the unique multifunctional MP3 watch for its accurate time, multi-format music player, excellent record, large USB storage; you cannot miss it. (S22.Product description *MP3*)

In this product description, the title and the first three sentences followed the "start" questions. Sentence four to seven followed 2-3-1 rule. Sentence eight met the requirements of "echo" by repeating the product name and main advantages. This piece of writing got 9 out of 10 points due to its successful following of the teacher's formula, such as separate title and product name with colon, 2-3-1 rule, and the start-body-echo pattern. S22 admitted he did some research on the product and found the features. Thus, he only needed to tailor the information to fit into the formula teacher gave. He felt proud to be able to follow the formula exactly. As for the writing time, he admitted that deciding what to write and searching for information took about half an hour and the writing process took less than 20 minutes.

For each assignment, a writing formula was provided. For the research report, students were required to write the essay in three parts: *Life-Time-Legacy*. In the *Life* section, students needed to answer 5Ws + H (Who, What, Where, When, Why, and How) about the person; in the *Time* section, students wrote context and background information; and in the *Legacy* section, students wrote what has changed because of that person and a conclusion to summarize with an interesting finish (F.T3.71). The formula itself is not problematic, but it became problematic when all the students were given the formula before they knew what to write; they thus had no choice but to follow the same formula.

The data revealed that a more effective way of teaching the students would be providing multiple formulas to the students and letting them choose based on their different writing needs, cognitive styles, and writing experiences. However, all students wrote in the same style by following the formulas. There was no need to explore other possibilities or style of research reports. Students were busy referring to the formula rather than thinking of ideas. They felt that writing by formula was a safe way as opposed to the danger of exploring ideas they are truly interested in. Students saw assignments as means to an end—a grade—and learned to write to please the teacher. Students were contented to be provided with such formulas, because they helped them survive English writing classes. The closer the imitation is, the better the grade. One student said, "I'm glad he gave rules to follow; otherwise, I don't know where to start" (S26.2.11-12). Undeniably, the formula helped them survive and meet short-term goals, by letting them feel comfortable about what was expected in their assignments.

The writing models were mostly adapted from online resources and entailed all the formula and rules Ken lectured about previously. If he failed to find appropriate models, he wrote his own such as the abstract and research report on a person. The following is the abstract he wrote. Even though the models were just for students' reference, almost all of his students modeled exactly after it in terms of sentence structures, phrases, and word choice:

Abstract: Bruce Lee

This essay explores the life, times and legacy of one of the greatest martial artists of all time, Bruce Lee. The controlling idea is that he was a man who refused to adhere to traditional cultural barriers and prejudices. He overcame American prejudices by becoming the first Asian-American action hero. He refused to follow Chinese-American tradition by teaching Kung-Fu to non-Chinese. And through his movies, he made a deep impact on the popular culture of America that continues to this day. He lived a life worth remembering; thus, he will never be forgotten. (A.T3.Handout. W13)

Here is an example of students' imitation of the abstract:

Abstract: Stevie Wonder

This essay explores the historical background, childhood, musical career as well as legacy of Stevie Wonder. The controlling idea is that Stevie Wonder is one of greatest musician of all time in America. Though Wonder was born blind, his extraordinary talent in music as well as his persevering pursuit of perfection in music won him countless awards and world-famous fame. He made a deep impact on the popular culture of America that continues to this day. He is so great that he will never be forgotten. (S27. Research report)

As shown from the underlined phrases and sentences, the organization of ideas, structure, style, and even some sentence structures in the student's writing are similar to that in the example. Like this student, many students started the abstract with "this essay explores . . . ," and "the controlling idea is . . . ," which made every student write like the instructor. Students also followed Ken's writing model for the research report in writing of their own reports.

The fill-in-the-blank approach was based on Ken's belief that Chinese students did not know how to write in English conventionally and the best way was to provide them with models, especially written by native speakers. This belief was reinforced after he talked to Jack, the most knowledgeable instructor (he thought) in the cohort. Ken said, "If I don't provide models, they write awfully. That is what we have to teach here. Most English teachers here do the same" (F.T3.16.19-21). Ken, as well as Jack and John, all believed Chinese students should write with correct language, organization, and structure first.

In Ken's sophomore writing, there were many principles to follow, such as the "2-3-1" and "no *I* or *my*" rule. He required students to follow his direction of "2-3-1" and "no *I* or *my*" rule in every piece of writing, even in writing the abstract of their research paper. Ken emphasized the rules because he has been taught in his college writing classes to do so. Ken told students to follow strictly "no *I* or *my*" in their writing, which he thought is weak and should not appear in formal, especially academic, writing (F.T3.29.11). Most of his students, although they disagreed, did not argue with him. However, some continued to use "I," and some questioned the rule in private. For example, S19 thought it is unreasonable to forbid using "I" in one of his writing:

I: Can you think of anything that you did not understand in his class?

S19: En . . . (think for a while) I remember once I use "I" in a paragraph describing my brother and I gave it to him to read. He told me that "I" should be avoided in order to sound more objective. I was so confused. You know, I was talking about MY BROTHER. It supposed to be and should be subjective to make it more real-life like.

I: So what did you do?

S19: I argued with him and he was nice and told me many reasons. But it made me very uncomfortable with no "I" in a writing talking about my brother, so I still want to keep "I." It does not feel right if no "I." It sounds like

another person talking but not me. I also talked about this with my classmates and they agreed with ME. They also did not understand why "I" is not good in English writing. In Chinese writing, teachers encourage us to use "I think" because that shows it is "YOU" not others. I assume native-speakers emphasize more on objectiveness" (S19.8.15-22).

Although S19 kept using "I" in that piece of writing, he accepted the teacher's suggestions and tried to replace "I" with other words in his later assignments. He thought he should listen to and follow the rules of NES instructors; after all, the reader and grader is the instructor. Another student had the same experience and she said "I used '*I*' in my writing, but he doesn't like it. He circled them out. I want to be more expressive but he wants more objective" (F.T3.21.2-3).

There were also some students questioned about Ken's no "*I*" rules. One confused student put that "I read several movie reviews on Rotten Potato (a popular American movie review website) in order to write my movie review, I found other native speakers used 'I' in their movie reviews. Why can't we use?" (S22.12.7-9) Another student added that "A movie review I read on website even starts with a fragmented sentence. Why native speakers can do that we can't?" (S24.8.19-20) The data revealed that the students should have the flexibility to adapt principles or strategies of writing to meet their own writing needs and audiences instead of being told to follow principles rigidly at all circumstances.

Just like Jack, John, Ken underestimated the students as writers who knew that in writing, language works for contents, not vice verse. In Ken's writing classes, students were not only framed to write with the formula, but also had to follow questionable directions. Students did not have a chance to develop their own voice in writing; instead, they were trained to write uniformly to please the instructor, but not to questions the rules, even when they did not think the rules were appropriate for their work.

Linguistic-Centered Instruction

Besides structural correctness, Ken also emphasized students' language correctness. In instruction, Ken focused on language skills; in assessment, he focused on language correctness. When assessing students' writing, he seemed to value surface structure skills (language correctness) rather than content and thinking. His comments mostly focused on sentences, verbs, grammar, and format. In the previous example of *The Day After Tomorrow* movie review, Ken comments were found on four places: one question on sentence meaning, one plural form, one verb tense, and one unity problem. He did not comment on the contents or the writer's voice. He gave students extra points if they corrected the linguistic level mistakes. Students got one point back if they showed Ken their revised copies. Although Ken was the only one among the three NES instructors who showed interest in more than one draft, he still focused on surface-level correctness like the other two.

Here is an example by S26, an average student in Ken's class, to show how he typically graded students' writing (see the example at the end of the chapter). This student got 7 out of 10 points. She lost 1 point for misspelling her class number, 1 point for not including the colon in the title, and 1 point for the "not logical" sentence at the end. The student commented on her writing, "We Chinese students lack of expressions most. I am glad he could point out my language errors, give me more idiomatic expression, correct usage of articles" (S26.11.4-5). She was happy to have a native-speaker correcting her language errors and even happier to gain one point back. It was common for Ken to give extra points if students changed the language in their work based on his comments. By giving extra points to students, Ken encouraged students to

focus on language correctness, which reinforced their belief that English writing was to produce correct English language.

Comments on language did not bring about a significant decrease of language mistakes. Even though students were busy with correcting and editing language usage, grammar, and format, they continued to make mistakes in their writing. Ken expressed his disappointment and confusion. He understood his role as a native-English speaking instructor in China as a language model, as he commented that, "We are hired because of our language. I am supposed to teach students how to write in correct language, right? But I found they make the same language mistakes again and again. I really don't know how to teach them" (F.T3.59.11-14).

Summary

Ken's patience, nice personality, and hard-working attitude made him a popular teacher among students. In teaching writing, he believed in the parts-to-whole approach, due to his military training. During the time of study, he lectured on many skills and had students practice on worksheets so that they could write a research report at the end of the semester. However, the lectures and drills failed to help students make an improvement in writing. He provided models for students to follow and assessed them on their ability to follow rules, rather than on their use of language and thought, to communicate ideas. Ken's skill-focused instruction was rooted in his parts-to-whole belief. He intended to provide students with scaffolds but they turned out to be ineffective in his writing instruction to the Chinese students. Ken's writing instruction suggested that to help the students become better writers, a more effective instructor would have done the following: (1) taught grammars and techniques by using the students' own writing instead of out-of-context examples; (2) taught strategies,

especially problem-solving strategies, to the students at the time of needs rather than teaching strategies the instructor planned; (3) provided different writing models or formulas to let students choose freely instead of requiring all students to follow one; and (4) taught students how to adapt writing strategies and principles flexibly to meet their writing needs instead of following them rigidly in all circumstances and for all writing assignments.

(S25. Movie review. *The Day After Tomorrow*)

The Day After Tomorrow: An Excellent Catastrophe Movie

DAT is a terrific disaster movie that, Harry T. Yung believes, has fantastic

catastrophic scenes, and numerous other lesser, which are all very impressive. One of

the best aspects of the movie would be its "fine cast" (Yung): Jack (Dennis Quaid), a

workaholic climatologist and a devoted father; Sam (Jake Gyllenall), a teenager

unsure of himself at first then try to control the situation; Laura (Emmy Rossum), a

talented girl in Sam's class; and Dr. Lucy (Sela Ward), Jack's wife. Besides the cast,

adds Harry, DAT's 'human stories' are the best of disaster movies. When "tornadoes

flatten Los Angeles, a tidal wave engulfs New York City and the entire Northern

Hemisphere begins to freeze solid", Jack, "steps up to the plate and against extremely

adverse conditions manage to rescue his son and his friends" (Diane Lorene Phelps).

Sam risks his life to save the one he loves-Laura. Lucy doesn't leave her patient

though she may die with him. "Three-men British climatology team facing disaster

with stoicism but not without emotion" (Yung). To conclude, the characters, the CGI

visual effects, and especially the incredible story of man's virtues make The Day after

Tomorrow, according to Yung, a simple, nevertheless moving rare treat.

(Words 201 FRE 34.4)

(S26. Product description. *Starch Toothpick*)

English Writing 2-2-E
−1

2010-4-10

Starch Toothpicks Protecting *the* Environment: −1

Do you always worry about used toothpicks leading to pollution every time you pick your teeth? Then you should choose Starch Toothpicks for the environmental protection's *sake of protecting the environment* sake. Unlike conventional toothpicks, Starch Toothpicks are made from cornstarch. Since corn is much easier to get than wood or bamboo, using Starch Toothpicks brings no decrease in forest, which is vital to keeping *the* ecological balance. In addition, you can easily dispose *of* used toothpicks as cornstarch ~~can degrade~~ *is biodegradeable* thoroughly. In this way, you protect the environment during the picking teeth process. Moreover, Starch Toothpicks' smooth surface will not hurt your gums, ~~which keep you away from~~ *and will prevent* gingivitis. So, get yourself Starch Toothpicks and show others that you are the ~~truly~~ *true* environmentalist who cares environment even on such a small thing!

last sentence not logical

Words:126   Flesch Reading Ease:48.5   Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level:10.4

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CHAPTER 8
DISCUSSION

Factors that Affect the NES Instructors' Teaching Effectiveness

This study intended to describe NES instructors' English writing classes and discuss the issues and problems that contributed to the Chinese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students' lack of improvement in writing English. Unlike the teaching, learning, and communication style incongruence reported in the NES (Native-English-Speaking) instructors' English classes in general, this study discovered that the NES writing instructors' lack of subject knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge on local context hindered their teaching and the students' learning effectiveness. Although other studies (Cheung, 2002; Medgyes, 1999) found that NES instructors' subject knowledge and teaching skills were crucial to English instruction as well, this study provided more detailed and in-depth data especially in English writing classrooms. The findings of the study indicate there are mainly five factors that affect the NES instructor's teaching effectiveness.

Lack of Knowledge in Teaching English Writing

In this study, each expatriate NES writing instructor demonstrated slightly different but quite similar pedagogical behaviors under the influence of their personal beliefs, learning and teaching experiences, and understanding of English writing instruction. Jack put great emphasis analyzing writing models, John on testing students' reading and teaching language, and Ken on teaching techniques from parts to whole. However, they all emphasized linguistic accuracy over other aspects of writing. They lectured more than allowing students to write on their own, and they controlled and moved students' learning activities linearly and mechanically week by week. Their foci on

linguistic accuracy, lectures over practice, and products over process contribute to ineffective instruction, as Figure 8-1demonstreats.

Linguistic Accuracy

Controlled Process

Lecturing

NES Instructors' Ineffective English Writing Instruction
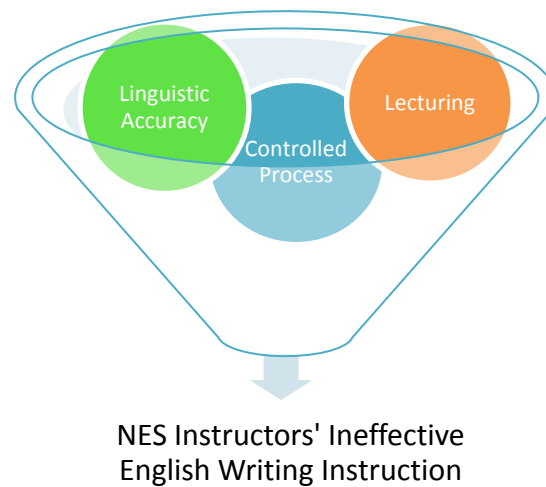
Figure 8-1. NES instructors' ineffective English writing instruction

Focus on linguistic accuracy

For Jack, John, and Ken, teaching the correct use of English, but nothing else, was their primary concern. The three NES instructors were overwhelmed by the Chinese students' language errors, and they believed that Chinese students have a poor command of English as well as English rhetoric. Striving for linguistic accuracy, the NES instructors used writing models to keep students on track and spent great effort in error correction. They assumed writing is to display content and language correctly— which is far too narrow and biased assumption.

Writing is to generate ideas, to explore the unknown, to solve problems, to identify issues, and to communicate information or present ideas. If teaching EFL writing is done only as a way of developing linguistic skills, students fail to develop their ability of collecting, analyzing, generating, organizing, refining, and presenting the knowledge. These areas are the key components of the writing process (He, 2009; Hyland, 2003;

Williams, 2005); however, the NES writing instructors ignored these in their teaching. When writing has been taught as a way of learning how to use language to express ideas, EFL writers can improve their thinking and eventually their linguistic accuracy (Raimes, 1996), because writers learn to strive to be understood through different combinations and choices of lexical and grammatical devices. Teaching writing, by definition, involves teaching thinking as well as language (Zamel, 1983). Instead of encouraging students to use writing as a way of thinking and exploration—exploring something the writer does not know, for instance, they let students fill in prescribed blanks for linguistic accuracy. An emphasis on practicing only language skills and correctness will not develop writers with depth of thinking (Fu & Matoush, 2006).

For L2 learners like the students in the study, they need to be taught to use language correctly, but also much more. They need to develop writing strategies, especially problem-solving strategies that could be applied as needed when an unfamiliar situation arose, instead of being fed with prescriptive structure and language or being taught the grammar and techniques that mismatched their needs. In the study, independent problem solving was not found in the three NES instructors' teaching but only repeated emphasis on linguistic correctness. Their approach indicated that the students were helpless and they were not being self-supporting and independent knowledge explorers, such as Ken's students who faced puzzling situations when citing authorities. However, through my conversations with the students, they were in fact writers and thinkers.

Teaching English writing is different from teaching the language, although each is a tool of social communication. According to Vygotsky (1978), teaching of written

language should reflect its abstract, voluntary, and conscious characteristics, since that oral language is spontaneous, involuntary, and unconscious. Based on Vygtosky's inner speech theory (1978), writing plays a significant part in students' learning development and makes them better thinkers and learners. Writing is an abstract of thought, which requires the author to make his/her fragmented perceptions of reality into organized prose, to provide details and elaborations to make his/her readers understand, and to achieve communicative success over time and distance. Therefore, writing instructors, both in L1 and L2 writing, not only need to maintain the thinking development of the students but also to help them develop their writing strategies such as revision and editing skills to enhance their final products for better communication.

The NES instructors underestimated writing as a thinking activity and the students as writers and thinkers. For example, Jack's sophomore students demonstrated fluency, imagination, and creativity in their story writing when they were allowed more freedom. John's students wrote with fluency, individual voice, and depth of thinking in their self-selected topics for other classes. When Ken assumed his students could not think and write on their own, the students demonstrated awareness of connections between language and thoughts. The students wrote more like writers when writing models were not strictly enforced—they revealed their potential as writers.

If the NES instructors were aware that writing is a way of thinking and exploration (Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 1990; Murray, 1985; Raimes, 1983, 1996; Richards, 2003; Zamel, 1983), they should have emphasized the contents and purposes of writing before the forms, structures, and language in students' writing for their intended audiences. As Murray (1985) explained that, "The patterns are not decided on in the best writing

before the subject is discovered and explored" (p.204). The contents lead to form, not the other way around (Raimes, 1983a, 1996; Zamel, 1982, 1983).

A writing model itself is not a problem; the problem is how to use it. In the study, the Chinese students in the NES instructors' classes were forced to think and write like writing models. Murray (1985) cautioned that when a teacher imposes a form upon students, the teacher told students "how to think and what to think" (p.24). Murray (1986) suggested the instructor should at least provide 3 models or more and let the students decide which one is the more suitable for their content. In the study, there was only one writing model for each assignment for all students, leading students to think model writing was the only correct way to write. Since writing varies in form and structure for specific audiences and purposes, a writing model by no means suffices in all situations.

Teaching writing through prescribed models prohibited students' growth in writing, because students had not been taught how to choose a form for their ideas but been told to fit their ideas into a prescribed form. Furthermore, effective writing instructors look at what works in students' writing and start from that point to decide what to teach next and how to teach it. The three NES instructors in the study, continued with writing models, did not look at what worked in the students' writing, and made no adjustments accordingly.

Prescribed models inhibited students' creativity, discouraged independent thinking and, above all else, discouraged students from using language to explore meanings. The strictly enforced models disempowered and disabled students as writers. Despite their efforts and good intentions to help students achieve linguistic accuracy in writing, the NES instructors remained unaware that drills at the discourse level and mastery of

formality have not been demonstrated to be helpful to build up L2 writers' writing proficiency, as many L2 writing researchers have pointed out (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 1990; Leki, Cumming & Silva, 2008; Raimes, 1983, 1996; Richards, 2003; Silva, 1990; Zamel, 1983).

All three instructors regarded linguistic correctness as the first and foremost thing that Chinese students needed to deal with. Traditionally EFL instructors did tend to believe that by practicing bits of language and structure in writing, students could achieve linguistic perfection (Leki, 2001). Linguistic correctness is only one of the things writers must accomplish and it is certainly not the first thing writers must attend to.

It is understandable for the NES instructors to attend to the surface-level errors in the students' writing. When students turn in their work, instructors were overwhelmed by language-level errors. Thus, the three instructors pointed out student errors dutifully. They may have achieved being responsible teachers, but simply correcting all language errors did not help students improve their writing (Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998; Fu, 2009; Truscott, 1996).

Error correction cannot automatically lead to correctness in the students' next writing unless they take action. In the study, the students, like those in other studies, at most read the comments, but often took no further actions to correct errors (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981; Sommer, 1982). After the students made "mental notes" (Raimes, 1996, p.18), they left their paper aside or threw it away because of the anxiety and embarrassment caused by the errors and their frustration with inability to correct them.

The students in this study had no incentive to strive for text improvement. There was no motive to improve the work since the students' writing had been graded and

treated as a fixed and final product. The writing and thinking ended after students got back their work from the instructors. When instructors do not give further directions on what to do next, students do not continue work on their writing after they submit their work (Cohen, 1987; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990). Even among those who had intended to take the comments seriously enough to take further action, there was a feeling of confused discouragement when they saw vague comments such as "lack of coherence" and "not logical."

Furthermore, studies showed that comments given to a final draft were far less effective than comments given during students' writing (Williams, 2005). Effective writing instructors, instead of judging students' linguistic accuracy on their first and also the last draft, respond to clear development and expression of content to early drafts before they respond to sentence-level or grammatical-level errors on later drafts. Cognitively, students pay less attention to content and discourse if they feel the need to focus on surface errors (Flower & Haye, 1981; Flower, 1996). Focusing on actively creating alternative ways to express their meaning, while leaving the editing of errors until later, might have helped the students' writing improvement.

Emphasizing linguistic accuracy did more harm than good to the students. To avoid making linguistic errors and getting more points, the students in this study learned to play a safe game by parroting writing models and to avoid the exploration of other possibilities for expressing ideas. Students got the impression that the purpose of writing was to produce linguistically correct texts instead of taking risks to communicate effectively, or developing their own voices by writing in ways that could be adapted to future writing goals. Zamel (1993) suggested, "We should hold in abeyance our reflex-

like reactions to surface-level concerns and give priority to meaning" (p.169) before worrying about mistakes in writing. Without being allowed to make mistakes and learn from mistakes, students lost opportunities to grow and to extend that learning to future projects.

As mentioned above, writing is a creating process, not simply displaying a bunch of grammatically and syntactically correct sentences. During the meaning-generating process, messy writing with errors is unavoidable; in fact, errors are important for writers. Murray said that writers, "Usually have to write badly to write well. . . . The wrong words lead us to the not-so-wrong words, and the almost right words may reveal the right words" (p.44). It is through errors that L2 students struggle to make themselves understood (MacGowan-Gilhooly, 1996; McLaughlin, 1984). L2 writers, like L1 writers, are constantly testing their hypotheses on writing and communicating effectively and it is impossible not to make mistakes (Leki, 1996). However, it seems that none of the NES instructors in the study understood the logic of or power associated with students' errors, hence, and did not encourage students to make increasingly better word choices during the process of composing and revising multiple drafts.

The three NES instructors' instruction structured tightly around their own belief of Chinese students as poor English learners who needed to learn correct language first. They did not leave room to acknowledge the importance of meaning-making on the part of students, the generative nature of fluency, the depth of learning that results from problem-solving during the composition process, or the differential nature of human thought and expression. The students only learned to mimic in order to please the instructors on a particular assignment—they did not develop strategies to apply to their

writing in general. Simply, maintaining linguistic accuracy is not the whole picture of teaching writing and it can serve to discourage students from trying to express themselves. This study showed that the instructors' emphasis on linguistic correctness only forced writers to become more reluctant to take risks and thus impeded their writing improvement.

Lectures over practice

There was more lecturing time than writing time in each of the NES instructors' English writing classes. In Jack's classes, most of the class time was spent on analyzing phrases, sentences, and structures in writing models. In John's classes, time was devoted to reading comprehension and studying writing models instead of writing. In Ken's, most of the time students were practicing isolated skills in sentence and paragraph exercises, moving from parts to whole. The amount of writing time was far less than the lecture time, in or outside of classes. Consequently, students found they did not write better than they could before. Students do not learn to write by listening about writing but only through writing itself (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Hyland, 2003; Murray, 1982; Williams, 2005).

In this study, even though the students could comprehend the NES instructors' slides and may have improved their listening comprehension or oral English, they did not get to improve their writing skills, for "as in skill development, practice is an important element" (Williams, 2005, p.11). A swimmer cannot learn how to swim without getting into the water nor can pianist play without putting his/her fingers on a keyboard. Fluent writing is not learned by listening but through expressive practice—exactly what the students lacked, since there was only one draft required for an assignment. It is

students' practicing that should take most of the class time rather than instructors' lecturing.

Murray (1982) argued that too much instruction given prior to students' first draft might limit or interfere with students' writing. This study's findings agree. The NES instructors assumed that the students needed knowledge on English rhetoric and conventions but they neglected students' varied needs. Ken, for example, put great effort into lecturing on citations but failed to teach or encourage students to develop problem-solving skills to address their specific issues with citation. John focused on sentence-to-paragraph practice. Jack focused on textual analysis without connecting it to generating, organizing, and expressing thoughts in actual writing.

Even though the students could complete grammar and sentence exercises correctly, possessing linguistic knowledge and applying that knowledge when writing involves far more complex mental activity than simply retrieving information from memory. Writing is more complex than swimming, however, since each piece of writing requires unique problem-solving skills. Like L1 writers, EFL writers need specific strategies and skills to solve their problems and achieve their writing goals. They are at various levels of writing proficiency in L1 and English proficiency, thus they are unlikely to need the same knowledge even for the same writing assignment. Lecturing on techniques in isolation or practicing at sentence-level and grammar-level has little to do with individual students' overall writing development. It is just as important for Chinese students to learn to apply language and skills in context through frequent practice as it is for them to learn the language and skills themselves.

Instead of giving lengthy lectures, L2 researchers have found that effective writing instructors help students generate and select ideas, then provide feedback to help writers communicate with readers more effectively (Leki, 1990; Silva, 1993; Williams, 2005). Instead of being knowledge holders, preaching to students language and rhetoric conventions, effective writing instructors play a variety of roles: assistant, facilitator, audience, more experienced writer, and evaluator (Atkins, 1987; Calkins, 1994; Murray, 1986; Williams, 2005). In this study, the NES instructors played the roles of judges and detectives spotting linguistic errors, for they felt responsible for transmitting the knowledge they had on English writing to unknowledgeable Chinese students as if it flowed from one end of a pipe to another end.

Lecturing about writing is often found in the L2 writing instruction. Corbett (1996) reflected on this instruction and said:

> In assessing my way of teaching, I recognize that I spent most of my time in the classroom talking about writing. . . . I do not, of course, neglect the imitation and practice. . . . Simply out of habit, I have adopted the lazy way of teaching writing . . . , I would have to confess that I do not seem to be doing my students much good (p.8-9).

The NES instructors were acting like Corbett who lectured too much about writing in class. Lengthy lecturing is ineffective. It makes students into passive knowledge receivers. Simply lecturing on some skills, practicing on them, and expecting students to pull them together in writing not only neglected individual differences but also demonstrated an ignorance of the complexity of writing behaviors.

Teaching writing as a controlled process

Teaching writing is as complex as producing a piece of writing. Writing instructors not only need to familiarize themselves with what writing is and how to teach it effectively, but also how to assist student writers in an ongoing manner during the

process of writing. The NES instructors in this study failed to support the Chinese students adequately while they wrote, but they instead controlled the students' writing process. Their writing instruction was like a production line that started with model analysis and ended with grading writing assignments the student turned in, as Figure 8-2 shows. Students were moved forward at the same pace and produced similar products, despite their varied language proficiencies, writing skills, writing habits, and interest in the writing topics.

Model analysis → Outlining → One-on-one meeting → Assessment
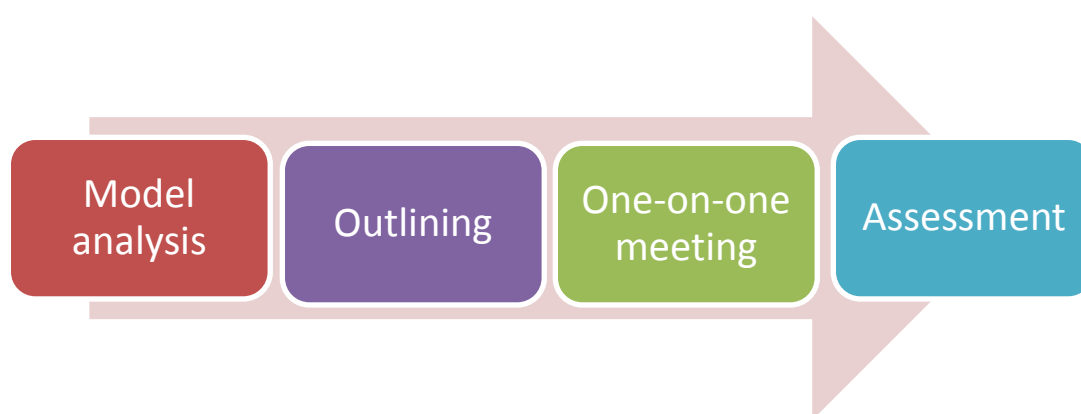
Figure 8-2. The writing cycle of the NES instructors

Fu (2003) maintained that there are many similarities in teaching L2 students and native speakers of English: to help students to think, to develop their thinking, to organize their thoughts, and then to present them in Standard English. What works for L1 writing also works for L2 writing instruction, although L2 writers need more help in language and conventions to communicate effectively (Emig, 1982; Fu, 2003; Leki, 1996; Raimes, 1982, 1985; William, 1998; Zamel, 1982). Researchers have shown that, like L1 writing, L2 writing is also a recursive process: going through prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, pause to think, and repeating the cycle, as Figure 8-3 reveals (Emig, 1971; Leki, 1996; Raimes, 1985; Silva, 1990; Williams, 2005; Zamel, 1982), though the writing process may be more laborious for most EFL students.

For the same reason, what worked for L2 writers should also work for Chinese

EFL students, although they have their unique needs and challenges in the EFL context.

Researchers (He, 2009; Hu, 2005; Zeng, 2005) have confirmed that Chinese EFL

students benefited from recursive cognitive processing when learning to write. Effective

writing instructors are those who are aware of the recursive cognitive process,

understand EFL students' cognitive burdens, and attend to them. In this study, the NES

instructors did oppositely: they moved students uniformly from one week to another in a

production line manner, as Figure 8-2 reveals. Without an awareness of the complexity

and flexibility of L2 writing process, the NES instructors inadequately served the

Chinese students' writing needs.
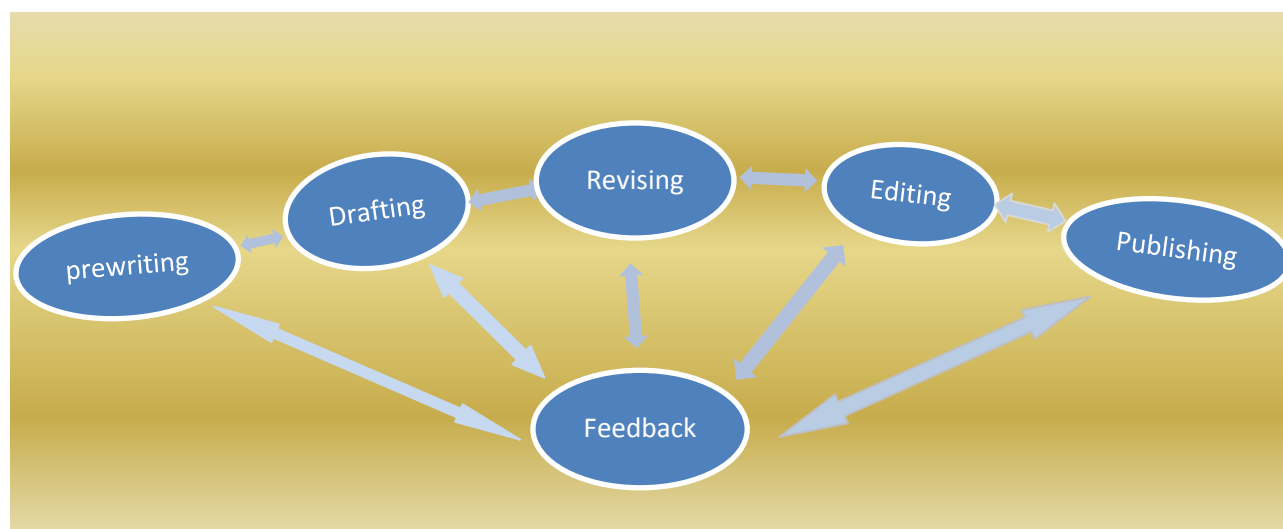
Figure 8-3. The flow of writing process

(Note: Adapted from Calkins, 1986 & Atwell, 1987)

The NES instructors claimed to have incorporated "prewriting" and "revising"

activities. However, the study revealed that the three NES instructors hold a deficient

perception of prewriting and revision, especially the latter. First, in John's, Jack's, and

Ken's classes, prewriting was limited to gathering ideas parallel to the writing models.

Murray (1986) defined it as everything if happened before writing the first draft. Prewriting covers the process from doing research, collecting topic-related information, outlining, and sketching, to spotting audiences. The activities before writing in the three NES instructors' classes were conducted in prescribed ways, without a wide range of activities facilitating students to choose a topic and gathering information.

As for revision, it was replaced by editing in the study. In Jack's, John's, and Ken's instruction, the first draft was also the last draft, which was edited for surface-level errors. The NES instructors did not encourage students to clarify or rearrange thoughts, add or delete words in the process of making better word choices, nor to consider their audiences—what writers do in real revisions—even though the students demonstrated their capability of rewording. Jack himself revised his writing multiple times but did not apply that knowledge to his teaching, due to his misconception that revision was only for fluent language speakers like himself. For John, it is true that besides the instructor, students could provide feedback to their peers through a reader's perspective for better expression of their thoughts. Nevertheless, he had no intention of teaching students to help each other clarify or communicate their thoughts better; instead, he turned peer revision into peer correction—correcting linguistic errors. Ken was the only one who made a move toward revision by giving one point to encourage students to revise their writing. But those moves by no means are enough for the students to improve their writing proficiency.

Multiple revisions are needed for the EFL students to learn to modify their writing and to achieve writing proficiency. EFL students, like the Chinese students in the study, need frequent and constructive feedback to develop their writing skills as they plan,

organize to express ideas, generate English language to express their ideas, and find

alternative ways to better meet the demands of their audience during the process of

revision. Without revision, even the most fluent and experienced writers could not

achieve writing success on unfamiliar topics even in their L1. Encouraging revision and

providing constant feedback is the best way to help students achieve both writing

proficiency and language proficiency; however, revision and rich feedback were

completely missing in the approach used by the three NES instructors. For Chinese

students who are on their way to achieve linguistic and writing proficiency in a second

language, they need to be supported to learn to generate language that is increasingly

effective according to the purpose.

In this study, the three NES instructors barely promoted the things that effective

writing instructors promoted and supported, such as gathering and focusing topics,

ideas at prewriting stage, encouraging multiple drafts and providing feedback from a

reader's perspective during the revising stage, as Figure 8-3 indicates (Atwell, 1987;

Calkins, 1994; Murray, 1982, 1985). They responded solely by editing students'

vocabulary and sentence structure mistakes. The Chinese students, like other EFL

writers, need instruction that can develop their self-conscious awareness when writing

and strategies to make their ideas understood, while developing their language

proficiency in the process of writing. Developing writing skills and language proficiency

may seem divergent, but as Zamel (1982) argued:

> Engaging students in the process of composing (does not eliminate) our
> obligation to upgrade their linguistic competence. . . . If, however, students
> learn that writing is a process through which they can explore and discover
> their thoughts and ideas, then the product is likely to improve as well
> (p.207).

By assigning a passive role focused on correctness to their Chinese students, these NES instructors prevented their students from actively learning how to become better L2 writers. The three NES instructors' instructional approach generally resembled the approach "focused on form and current-traditional rhetoric" (Matsuda, 2003; Raimes, 1991; Silva, 1990) for its strictness of language and form accuracy, with teacher as language holder and judge, and model-analyzing-and-imitating features.

Lack of Knowledge in Teaching EFL Students

Writing teachers not only need to know the nature of writing and the complex processes that writing involves, they also need to know about the diversity of L2 learners and the local pedagogical context in which the teaching and learning occurs (Raimes, 1996; Silva, 1990). Researchers (Hu, 2002; Jiang, 2001; Matalene, 1985) suggested that in cross-cultural teaching environments pedagogical decisions should be made based on a good understanding of the cultural context in which teaching and learning happens. Researchers reported that NES teachers often lack knowledge of local students' cultural, language and educational backgrounds (Luk & Lin, 2006). That problem has also been found among the NES instructors in this study.

EFL students

EFL students' L1 rhetoric

Local socoial, cultural, ideological context
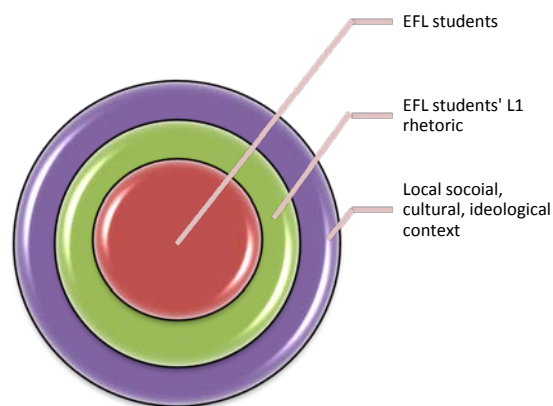
Figure 8-4. Writing in EFL context

The NES instructors lacked understanding of the local EFL context and made no accommodations appropriate to their student's educational needs. As Figure 8-4 shows, EFL students write under the influence of their L1 rhetoric tradition, local social, cultural, and ideological context, which cannot be ignored when teaching them to write.

Lack of knowledge of the English major students in China

In the 2007 edition of English syllabus by MOE (Ministry of Education), Chinese students need to be taught learning strategies, to communicate smoothly in written English, and to write an academic report in their disciplines. Students who major in English also need to write reports in content subject areas such as literature and journalism. In the Chinese educational context, the high-stakes exam—TEM 8 (Test for English Majors band 8) is also a requirement for graduation in the English department. Further, many of English majors pursue higher degrees in English-speaking countries or positions in international corporations after college. English writing has a significant role in their academic, professional, and personal success. Therefore, the student participants anticipated having the same communicative, academic, and professional needs as their L1 counterparts. Based on the NES instructors' teaching to freshmen and sophomores (though they may have an optional writing class at junior or senior), it is unlikely to believe the students have been prepared with sufficient writing skills or strategies to succeed in their academic, professional, and personal goals. Even though the insignificant role of English writing in the curriculum could be blamed, instructors should have provided more effective instruction to the EFL English major students if they had sufficient knowledge on teaching writing as well as on the students in the local context.

Furthermore, according to surveys of those student participants, they had a solid foundation of English grammar and vocabulary. Their English writing has been at sentence-level and quite limited in genre. The students yearned for instructors who could help them to express their ideas and communicate effectively. Since English writing instruction has just started in Chinese universities, the department and school authorities expected NES instructors to bring the latest approaches to enhance Chinese students' writing and communicative abilities. However, the NES writing instructors mirrored the Chinese way of teaching English writing, instead of teaching writing for communicative purposes. Neither did they bring the latest developments in ESL/EFL writing instruction. The students failed to learn new writing strategies to express, to communicate, to learn, and to explore in English.

The NES instructors did not know the immediate as well as the future needs of the Chinese students, nor did they link their teaching with what the students knew and wanted to know. Except for having grammatical and syntactical knowledge of English, the students in the study demonstrated adequate writing strategies, such as rewording sentences by themselves in different ways, though they might gained those strategies in L1 writing. Studies on ESL students showed that writing strategies like revision are transferrable across languages (Raimes, 1987; Zamel, 1983). Although many Chinese students in the study were reported as experienced L1 writers and able to write competently in Chinese, the NES instructors' lack of knowledge on L1 to L2 transfer theory left students with no understanding of how the strengths and strategies they had developed in Chinese writing could be applied to their L2 writing.

EFL writing instruction generally occurs in less than favorable English learning environments. However, researchers (Luck & Lin, 2007) found that strong learning motivation helps EFL learners succeed in language learning. The students surveyed reported lack of self-confidence in English writing, however, all wished to be able to write well in English not only for passing exams or getting good grades but also for their future professions. It is true that L2 learners usually are unable to recognize the values and purpose of English writing immediately (He, 2009; McCarthey, Garcia, Lopez-Valasquez, Lin & Guo, 2004); however, good writing teachers know how to energize the students in pursuit of their long-term goals.

Based on the previous studies of NES and NNES (Non Native-English-Speaking) instructors, the two types of instructors differ in several ways, such as their teaching approach, teaching experience, understanding of local students as well as their language proficiencies, yet both got positive and negative feedback from their students. For example, researchers (He, 2009; Xu, 1989) found that majority of Chinese writing instructors taught under the influence of political impact, treated writing as an irrelevant activity to other disciplines, and focused on form instead of generation of ideas. A typical approach is teaching students to write in a five-paragraph style. Xu (1989) also reported few Western instructors who taught writing in China followed diverse approaches, such as the communicative approach and the current-traditional rhetoric approach. Compared with the diverse educational background of Western instructors, Chinese writing instructors have similar backgrounds: with Bachelor degrees and above and majored in English or Linguistics (Medgyes, 1994; Xu, 1989).

Compared with NES instructors, the NNES instructors share the same learning experience with their EFL students in learning to write. NES writing instructors are seldom found to have had L2 writing experiences, as were the NES instructors in the study. Due to the same cultural background and learning experience, NNES instructors have advantages teaching EFL students in a way that is more relevant to the students' lives (Luk & Lin, 2007), more empathetic toward the students' writing difficulties, and (Seidlhofer, 1999), more culturally congruent to the students' learning styles (Li &Fan, 2007).

Indisputably, NES instructors could provide feedback from the native English speakers' perspective—which could benefit L2 students' communicative competence in writing. Studies also reported L2 writers' preference of native English speakers' feedback to their writing (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; He, 2009). But only providing native-like feedback does not necessarily make NES instructors better writing teachers than NNES instructors when considering the complexity of ESL/EFL writing instruction. Medgyes (1994) argued that NNES instructors who were well-trained, had rich teaching experiences, and knew the EFL students were more capable of helping the students achieve their learning goals.

Lack knowledge of the Chinese cultural rhetoric

The Chinese students brought their Chinese rhetoric conventions into their English writing, which often confused their NES instructors. "Add more examples," "show, don't tell," "incoherent" were comments Jack, John, and Ken frequently wrote on their students' writing. The influence of Chinese cultural rhetoric traditions was regarded as weak by the NES's logic, which should be immediately corrected through modeling English writing written by native English speakers. Li (1996) argued that "teacher's

criteria for 'good writing' are shaped, transformed, and determined to a large extent by the historical, social, and cultural forces that are beyond an individual's control" (p.3). Rhetoric has a cultural aspect because it is rooted and cultivated in a certain cultural tradition. When writing in a cross-cultural context, the NES instructors should have recognized and acknowledged cultural differences in different rhetoric conventions instead of denying the value of a rhetoric tradition than their own.

Under the influence of different cultures, writing in English and in Chinese differs in several ways, such as the purpose of writing, the reader's expectations, and rhetorical conventions. For example, the purpose of the writing lies in not only the text itself but in a certain linguistic and social context. Li (1996) wrote that, "the evaluation (of writing) goes awry when the teacher evaluator does not share the same social and linguistic context with the student writer" (p.113). In Chinese tradition, writing is viewed as a "vehicle of *Tao*" to transmit, not to create knowledge, especially canonical knowledge, and to maintain the moral orders of the society; while in American tradition, human ingenuity and individuality are valued in transmissive education under the influence of Pragmatism (Li, 1996, p.117).

A reader's expectations are highly socioculturally situated. Take "be specific" as an example, American readers view concrete, specific details as reliable sources to help them make their own decisions because American resent been told as teenagers resent "don't tell me what to do" (Li, 1996). For example, Li (1996) found that:

> "To show not to tell" was a democratic sharing of power between writers and readers. Writers show their experience and readers draw their own independent conclusions . . . Chinese readers do not mind being told. Actually if writing is by nature didactic, as Confucius says, it is the writer's responsibility to tell (p.120).

The NES instructors should understand that Chinese rhetoric was influential and would continue to be influential in Chinese students' English writing because Chinese culture makes them who they are.

In this study, the NES instructors demonstrated inadequate cultural understanding of the students' L1 rhetoric tradition or a self-conscious understanding of their own. Researchers suggested L2 writing instructors need to learn more about their students' L1 rhetoric and to create a more culturally responsive pedagogy in order to achieve meaningful instruction (McCarthey, Garcia, Lopez-Valasquez, Lin & Guo, 2004). As it is said that good writing instruction in cross-cultural context must be situated in local social, cultural, and ideological context, good writing instructors must accommodate their instruction to local students' needs.

Summary

In general, the NES instructors' teaching English writing was highly dependent on their enthusiasm and initiative. However, the NES instructors' enthusiasm has been misplaced by an overemphasis on: (1) teaching writing for linguistic accuracy's sake was like putting the cart before the horse; (2) lecturing in isolation and without letting students have time to practice on their own; (3) teaching writing as a product without realizing that writing itself is a recursive and dynamic process; (4) an unawareness of Chinese English major students' academic and professional needs in English writing as well as their L1 writing proficiency and English proficiency; and (5) cultural understanding of the local students' rhetorical tradition. Although the Chinese students' reticence and the lack of departmental support could potentially affect the students' writing improvement, it was the three NES writing instructors' lack of knowledge in

teaching English writing as well as insensitivity to the EFL students' needs in the local

context that contributed to the students' lack of improvement in English writing.

CHAPTER 9
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Teaching Writing as a Professional Discipline

The current study found that the native-English-speaking (NES) instructors taught English writing classes with foci on linguistic accuracy, by lecturing predominantly and in a mechanical way. They demonstrated that they lacked training in teaching writing and were underprepared to teach the Chinese students. They were more language instructors than writing instructors. Teaching matters and Chinese students deserve to learn from well-prepared, better-qualified English writing instructors instead of someone who simply holds a M.A. degree and has English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching experience, or is an English native speaker (the NES instructors in the study). The myth that native speakers of English are assumed to be able to teach English writing belittles teaching English writing as a profession.

NES instructors were idolized as English writing instructors due to a lack of adequate knowledge related to teaching English writing in a few countries and regions (Luk & Lin, 2006; Li, 2009; Nayar, 1997). The study found a similar result with the support of in-depth empirical data. Teaching EFL writing is a profession that requires specialized knowledge, such as knowledge of the nature of writing, the complex cognitive process writers engage in, the ability to apply the teacher's knowledge into practice, and to adjust teaching to individual needs as well as to the local context. It is harmed if assigning NES instructors to teach English writing simply because they are native English speakers or with ESL/EFL-related teaching experience.

English as a foreign language has been taught in China for a century, but English writing became an independent discipline only a decade ago. The majority of instructors

teaching English writing in China do not have adequate knowledge in composition (Li, 2009). He (2009) found that in a highly prestigious university in China, English teachers teach five-paragraph English writing—the way they have been taught. There might be some fully informed English writing instructors but in general the number is small (He, 2009; Li, 2009; Xu, 1985). To meet the requirement of a national curriculum for English, to catch up in writing instruction, hope was placed on NES instructors as "foreign experts." Many NES instructors have been asked to teach English writing in Chinese universities under the assumption of the native-speaker-ideal fallacy: NES instructors seem to be more appropriate choices for teaching English writing than Chinese English instructors, because nobody knows better English than they do. However, assuming native English speakers are "experts" in writing instruction was found to be questionable in the study.

Teaching English writing is a professional discipline that requires professionally committed instructors. NES instructors' fluency in English does not make them naturally good English writing teachers, just as all fluent Chinese speakers are not qualified Chinese writing teachers. As the TESOL brochure (1996) states, "The teaching [of] English to speakers of other languages is a professional activity that requires specialized training" (n.p.). Specialized training in teaching English writing is needed for anyone who wants to be an English writing instructor. Also, the profession of teaching composition has gone through great changes during the past decades. In ESL writing, instruction generally shifted from pattern-drill and memorization to knowledge-constructing, student-centered, and process-oriented instruction. Although process-oriented writing instruction is beginning to be adopted in ESL writing instruction in the

United States, it is still quite strange in EFL writing instruction (Williams, 2005). As was mentioned previously, teaching writing is an extremely demanding task and teaching EFL writing could only be more demanding since there are cross-cultural, linguistic and rhetorical elements to consider. Native speakers with no background and training (pre-service or in-service) in teaching English writing are doomed to encounter problems in their teaching due to a lack of awareness regarding writing principles, processes, and new developments in writing instruction.

The current study reveals the mismatch between the national expectations of English writing instruction and the actual instruction in Chinese University. In the national curriculum of English writing (2007 version), students need to write academic abstract or report in their disciplines as well as use English writing communicatively; however, current English writing instruction by the NES instructors by no means met that requirements. The uncritical acceptance of NES instructors as writing instruction experts is no longer acceptable. Chinese students do not necessarily have to sound like Americans or Canadians, nor should they. According to Elbow (2009), it is a form of anti-cultural awareness to require Chinese students to write like American writers. NES teachers or any instructors should address similarities and differences in a variety of Englishes and issues concerned with English intelligibility, as well as balancing between keeping students' own identities and developing their English writing intelligibility (Elbow, 2009; Jenkins, 2006). However, in reality, this is barely on the NES instructors' agenda, according to the study.

However, the NES instructors should not be blamed for their effectiveness in teaching English writing since they were hired as all-in-one type of language instructors.

The three NES instructors, like many other foreign instructors, are generally asked to teach Oral English, Writing, Listening, and English Literature, regardless of their academic strengths or backgrounds (Li, 2009). In this study, NES instructors were assumed by school administrators to be qualified English writing instructors because of their educational backgrounds. They were believed to have advantages when it came to introducing a variety of writing skills and new insights, and thus were able to upgrade Chinese English writing instruction, even if they were not specifically trained as English writing instructors. However, this belief was flawed. The unsatisfactory English writing instruction in this study revealed the inadequacy of the criteria of hiring English writing instructors. It also revealed the school authorities' lack of knowledge of English writing and disregard of teaching English writing as a profession.

Researchers have reported that "native fallacy is dominating Chinese universities" (Li, 2009; Porter, 1990). Under the illusion of "native fallacy," there was no job induction or professional development for NES instructors. In a study of NES instructors teaching English in China, Li (2009) claimed that:

> Job induction did not seem to exist. . . . For many administrators, as long as they had put a native speaker in the classroom, they might assume that their responsibility was completed and they just left the rest to the students and the foreign teachers involved (p.84).

Further, teacher development activities are necessary to compensate for inadequate training (Richards & Farrell, 2005). There might be several possible reasons for the lack of professional development. As it put by Li (2009), NES instructors who presented themselves as "experts" in English seemed capable of teaching at the local university without any support. Another reason might be the local school administrators felt themselves linguistically inferior to NES instructors and less than confident about giving

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them support; after all NES instructors were hired to support and improve local English teaching (Li, 2009). Last, due to their unfamiliarity with the English writing field, NES instructors were unaware of the up-to-date development of writing instruction as well as the availability of professional development in teaching ESL/EFL writing.

There were also pragmatic reasons that school authorities did not hire well-trained NES English writing instructors. It was not easy to hire qualified writing instructors because they have to choose among limited numbers of people who were willing to teach overseas and meet the high demand of English writing throughout the country. There could be few among the limited number that were qualified to teach EFL writing. Also, host institute administrators are concerned about their budgets. For economic reasons, they tend to hire all-in-one type of instructors who could teach multiple subjects in English rather than instructors who were specialized in only one subject. In this study, the NES instructors all taught other courses. These historical, informational, and pragmatic barriers made native fallacy hard to challenge. But it is time to realize the jeopardy of hiring unprofessionally trained writing instructors to teach English writing to Chinese students, because the stakes are high when it comes to the demand for English writing in a globalized world.

Implications

EFL writing research from non-English speaking countries is sparse in the writing field (Leki, 2001), especially field-based research (Eldersky, 2008). This study intends to fill the gap. It provides a glimpse of how EFL writing has been taught by NES instructors at a Chinese university and the issues and problems that emerge. The study offers insights for policy-makers and host institutes, as well as for NES instructors who are teaching English writing in a cross-cultural context.

For policy-makers. Due to the high demands of English writing competency in the 21st century and the complexity of English writing instruction, policy-makers should realize that NES instructors are not naturally capable English writing instructors. The study suggests that criteria for hiring NES instructors should be revised. In this globalized world, the purpose of English writing instruction should also be redefined for communicative rather than linguistic competence in the era of English as *lingua franca*.

For host institutes. This study has significant implications for understanding the expertise of expatriate NES instructors and on selecting qualified NES instructors at all school levels. NES instructors should not be assumed to be able to teach English writing. Their expertise in teaching EFL writing and understanding of local students' background determine their teaching effectiveness, not their native language. Besides hiring qualified, well-prepared NES instructors to teach EFL writing, host universities should also support them adequately. Selecting appropriate candidates of English writing instructors requires insights into and an understanding of writing (Li, 2009). As more Chinese administrators become informed about English writing and more Chinese instructors learn how to teach English writing, their selection of and support for NES instructors will be improved in the years to come.

There are suggestions for helping NES instructors improve their instruction. The host institute needs to:

- Realize the strengths and weaknesses of NES instructors.
- Put them into a teaching position where their expertise can be maximized.
- Build professional communities of writing instruction.
- Invite guest speakers for seminars, presentations, and professional resources.
- Include NES in the regular faculty meetings.

In addition, proper job induction should benefit NES instructors. Departmental administrators should coordinate foreign teachers by introducing them to the objectives and requirements of the courses they will be teaching, students' backgrounds, the English syllabus and curriculum, as well as local educational system (Li, 2009).

For NES instructors. NES writing instructors should seek ways:

- To understand their students' L1 rhetorical tradition.

- To acknowledge students' background such as L1 writing proficiency learning experience, and learning motivations in order to adjust instruction accordingly.

- To teach a variety of writing genre for real communication purposes like personal writing and business writing.

- To actively participate in English writing related conferences and workshops when possible.

- To keep up with current research in the field.

For teacher educators. NES instructors, whether well prepared or not, all need on-going professional support to facilitate their English writing instruction. Based on the research findings in the study, the area of teachers' professional development for expatriate NES EFL writing instructors should at least cover the following:

- Subject-matter knowledge—increasing the knowledge of English writing; that is, the nature of English writing, the cognitive process writers go through as well as conventions of rhetoric in different cultures.

- Pedagogical content knowledge—knowledge of how to teach ESL/EFL English writing, including history, development and pedagogies, principles and assessment.

- Self-awareness—knowledge of oneself, one's cultural knowledge base, values, strengths, and weaknesses as an English writing instructor.

- Pedagogical knowledge—knowledge of how to teach learners with diverse backgrounds and levels of language proficiency.

- Knowledge of local context and students—including the cultural, linguistic, rhetorical traditions students have, philosophies of education, the role of teacher

and student in the local context, local students 'communication styles, learning experiences, and motivations, to name a few.

For researchers. The current study is a collective case study with multiple NES informants and Chinese students. Field-based studies with larger populations of expatriate NES English writing instructors are needed since NES instructors' voices have seldom been heard in English-speaking academia. Also, more field-based research on students who study with expatriate NES writing instructors are needed to provide a broader picture of teaching and learning effectiveness.

More studies describing expatriate NES instructors' classrooms instruction in other countries and areas in the world are also needed. Additionally, research studies in other disciplines such as engineering and science that taught by NES instructors are needed to see whether there are similarities and differences. Those studies might contribute to helping expatriate NES instructors succeed in their professions.

Comparative studies between NES instructors and local Chinese English instructors who both teach English writing can also benefit the EFL writing field in China. Studies of the strengths and weaknesses of NES instructors and local Chinese instructors could inform the writing teachers' classroom practice and achieve better instructional results. In the EFL writing field, research regarding specific issues such as native English speakers' knowledge and expectations versus non-English speakers' knowledge and expectations in teaching writing, peer feedback in large classrooms, and EFL writing development with the help of technology are also need attention.

Closing Remarks

As a result of developments in science and technology, the world is changing rapidly and turning into a globalized village. English has become the most widely used

foreign language in China and the *lingua franca* of world communication. The ability to write in English empowers people in this globalized world since a majority of the production, reproduction, and circulation of knowledge takes place in English. English writing is especially important for non-native-English speakers (NNES). NNES not only use written English to communicate with NES but also with other NNES in distant countries, across borders and states.

This study delved into issues such as (1) how NES instructors teach English writing at a Chinese university; (2) issues and problems in NES instructors' English writing classes; (3) the causes of the problems; (4) what makes qualified English writing instructors; and (5) what kind of English writing proficiency non-native-English-speakers should be equipped with in order to communicate intelligibly across language boundaries. Qualified writing instructors, no matter NES or NNES, should guide student writers through writing to achieve their personal and professional goals. Redefining and reconceptualizing English writing instruction for the globalized world is immediately needed.

APPENDIX A
EXAMPLE OF OBSERVATION PROTOCAL

Project: Teaching English writing in China Date: Length of observation:	
Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes
Others:	

APPENDIX B
GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR INTERVIEWS

- NES instructor—First interview
  1. How do you like teaching English writing in the department?
  2. How do you prepare to teach English writing?
  3. How do you decide what to teach?
  4. Where do you find teaching ideas?
  5. What are your goals for teaching the students?
  6. What factors you believe affected your instruction?
  7. What factors you believe affected your students' writing improvement?
  8. What are the stresses/problems/issues you face when teaching?
  9. What do you think is the biggest difficulty in teaching English writing to your students?
  10. How do you grade your students' writing?

- NES instructor—Second interview
  1. How do you perceive your teaching this semester?
  2. What techniques do you find facilitate your students' writing?
  3. What techniques do you find less helpful for your students?
  4. How do you like your students' writing this semester?
  5. What are the stresses/problems/issues you face in your instruction?
  6. What changes you would like to make next time when your teach writing?

- Chinese students
  1. How do you perceive your NES instructor's teaching?
  2. How do you perceive your learning to write in English this semester?
  3. What is the most difficult part you face when learning to write in NES instructor's class?
  4. What is the most helpful part you face when learning to write in NES instructor's class?
  5. What part of your teacher's teaching you like most?
  6. What part of their teaching you think should be improved?
  7. What factors you believe affected your learning of English writing?
  8. What activities or techniques the instructor adopted are helpful for your learning?

December 30, 2009

Dear Survey participants,

   I am conducting a study regarding native-English-speaking instructors' English writing instructions in China. This study is being done in partial fulfillment of the requirement for a doctoral degree in curriculum and instruction at University of Florida. The results will contribute to EFL writing field as well as English teaching in China and enhance cross-cultural communication in educational context.

   You are being invited to voluntarily participate in the study because you are teaching English writing to Chinese students. If you agree to participate, your participation will involve the completion of one survey about your personal, teaching and learning experience as well as your English writing teaching experience in China. Completion of the survey should take approximately 30 minutes. You do not have to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable. You may be contacted at a later time through emails or phones on this same topic if you agree to participate in follow-up interviews.

   Any questions you have will be answered and you may withdraw from the study at that time. There are no known risks for your participation and no direct benefit from your participation is expected. There is no cost to you except for your time and you for your participation.

   Only the principal investigator will have access to your name and the information that you provide. The number on the survey will be coded as a number. The lists of names and numbers will be kept locked in separate locations. In order to maintain your confidentiality, your name will not be revealed in any reports from this project. The surveys will be locked away in a secure place.

   You can obtain further information from the principal investigator, Qing Liu, Ph.D. candidate at (352) 328-9286 or qingliu@ufl.com. If you have questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may call the University of Florida IRB office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250 or by calling 352-392-0433. Completion of the survey implies that consent for use of the information is granted. Your participation in this study is greatly appreciated!
Qing Liu

_____
I have read the statement above and I voluntarily agree to participate in the survey. I have received a copy of this description.

_____ _____
Signature of participant   Date
I would like to give my contact information for follow-up interviews.
_____ _____   Email:

_____
Signature of participant   Date

APPENDIX D
SURVEY FOR STUDENTS

Gender: Major: Freshman or sophomore:

1) When did you started to learn English?
2)

A：Writing instruction (check with "√"; "Y" stands for Yes, "N" stands for No)
1. Do you have any English writing classes in college and high school? Y   N
2. Do you have an English writing textbook?   Y   N
3. Check with "√" all the following writing tasks you did for your English writing classes

   a. Response to exam questions   Y   N
   b. Sentence combining   Y   N
   c. Sentence expansion   Y   N
   d. Sentence paraphrasing   Y   N
   e. Making sentences with given words   Y   N
   f. Translation   Y   N
   g. Summary   Y   N
   h. Journals   Y   N
   i. Letters   Y   N
   j. Outline   Y   N
   k. Resume   Y   N
   l. Memo   Y   N
   m. Critique   Y   N
   n. Proposal   Y   N
   o. Technical or scientific paper   Y   N
   p. Short research paper (3－5pages)   Y   N
   q. Long research paper (more than 5 pages)   Y   N
   r. Narration/description of event/ object/ human   Y   N

4. Of the above tasks, which one did you do **most** for your English classes? Write down the letter or name

5. Of the above tasks, which one did you do **least** for your English classes? Write down the letter or name

6. Which of the following do you think your English instructors asked you to revise most in your writing? Check with "√"
   Grammatical accuracy
   Word choice or appropriate expression
   Paragraph organization
   Idea development

7. With which of the following do you think your English classes in college helped you **most** in writing in English? Check with " √"

Grammar
Paragraph Organization
Generation of ideas
Word choice
Different writing modes

8. With which of the following do you think your English classes in college helped you **least** in writing in English? Check with" √"

Grammar
Paragraph Organization
Generation of ideas
Word choice
Different writing modes

B：Your attitude toward English writing

In this section, there is a series of statements about writing. There is no right or wrong answers to these statements. Please indicate which each statement applies to you by checking Yes or No. If you none of them matches your choice, please write on the margin. Thank you for your cooperation!

1. I avoid writing in English		Y	N
2. I have no fear of my English writing being evaluated		Y	N
3. I look forward to writing down my ideas in English		Y	N
4. I am afraid to write English essays when I know I will be evaluated		Y	N
5. My mind blocked when I write in English		Y	N
6. Use English to express ideas is a waste of time		Y	N
7. I am happy to get my writing evaluated and published		Y	N
8. I like to use English writing express myself		Y	N
9. I can express myself clearly in English		Y	N
10. I like others read my English writing		Y	N
11．English writing makes my nervous		Y	N
12. People like to read my English writing		Y	N
13. I like to write in English		Y	N
14. I never fully expressed myself in English writing		Y	N
15. Writing in English is fun		Y	N
16. I like to see my thoughts become words		Y	N
17. It's fun to discuss English writing with others		Y	N
18. It's easy to write well in English		Y	N
19. My English writing is not as good as others		Y	N
20. I don't like people comment on my English writing		Y	N
21. I am not good at English writing		Y	N

APPENDIX E
SURVEY FOR NES INSTRUCTORS

Please answer the following questions about yourself: Please write clearly.

1. Name:_____
2. Nationality:_____
3. Native language:_____
4. Length of teaching experience:
    (In your home country)_____   (China) _____ (other countries) _____
5. How long have you lived in China?_____
6. The highest degree that you get: _____
    Major:_____
7. Textbooks being used in the writing class:_____
8. Level of the class: (which year)_____
    (English major or non-major)_____
9. Knowledge of foreign languages:_____
10. Do you write?_____
11. Do you think you are a good writer?

    _____

12. What do you think a teacher's job is?
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

13. What do you think a student's job is? Do your Chinese students meet your
    expectations?
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

14. What do you think a good piece of English writing should look like?
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

15. What do you think is critical for Chinese students to write well in English?
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

16. Can you give examples of your previous teachers' teaching methods that you like
    most when you were in school? Why? Do you want to teach the same way to your
    students?

_____
_____
_____
_____

17. What is your preferred teaching method in teaching English writing?
_____
_____
_____
_____

18. How do your Chinese students perceive your way of teaching?
_____
_____
_____
_____

19. Among the strategies you use, what are your Chinese students' less favorite strategies?
_____
_____
_____
_____

20. What kind of writing tasks do you usually ask your students to practice? How do they react?
_____
_____
_____
_____

21. How do you evaluate your students' writing?
_____
_____
_____
_____

22. Short description of the problems of the class, such as learning atmosphere, learning style, language proficiency or motivation:
_____
_____
_____
_____

23. Short description of the writing problems of the students:
_____
_____
_____
_____

24. How do you like your teaching here?
_____
_____

_____

25. What would you do differently if you teach next time?

_____
_____
_____
_____

26. Any cultural conflicts between you and your students in the process of teaching English writing? For example.

_____
_____
_____
_____

27. Can you give some examples of the communication barriers that you have experienced here?

_____
_____
_____
_____

28. Whether attended any English writing related conferences, seminars, workshops or read journals of ESL/EFL writing?

_____
_____
_____
_____

I: What is your biggest struggle this semester?	
K: For me, I spend most of my time, as a teacher, trying to figure out lesson plans that will work.	Looking for lesson plans that works
I: Lesson Plan?	
K: Yeah. This semester, the reason I am happy about the semester is over is because I spend almost every day and every weekend, either thinking or planning writing.	Struggling with planning
I: Is it because my observation?	
K: No, no, not at all. In the beginning of the semester I had a goal, writing a research essay. So I wanted to teach little pieces of it. So at the end, they can do it all. But when I found if I teach something they don't understand, then I got to back and change something. So I spend most of the semester going back and change lesson plan, almost all weekend, either doing a plan or worrying about a lesson plan. So as a teacher I spend much more time looking at lesson plans, trying coming up with a lesson plan, looking at books. I spend much more time doing that than anything else, more time than teaching, more time than grading. That's not easy.	Planning write a research essay Teaching from small piece to whole Students can't follow Changing lesson plans Planning most of time
I: Yeah, teaching is never easy. You mentioned in the survey that the methods you employ now are those you learned from the military and they are more effective than those used in American colleges.	Planning more than teaching
K: Yeah, I think it's more effective. Like the way I taught this semester was military way.	
I: Can you explain more?	
K: A military way is like this: we have a goal. Everything that we did, all of the little worksheets was preparation for this. So you break everything done into very small parts and you repeat, repeat and repeat until they understand, and then you move on to the next thing, repeat, repeat and repeat and then	Teaching under the influence of military way Military way is effective

until they understand. And then you move on to the next one.	Teaching from small parts to whole
I: How does military way relate to your writing instruction?	
K: In the military, many of them are uneducated. How do you teach them to fix an airplane or use a computer, you have to	Repeating until understand
start very very basically, very small parts of it. It's similar in writing. Just learning a sentence, how to write a sentence,	Building up skills one by one
now, how to write a paragraph, you do it over and over. Now you can write a paragraph, now you gonna write an essay,	
step by step, and lots lots of repetition. And that's the military style of teaching. so that helps me, now that's the method.	Learning starts from knowing basic
Students do little things I get from the textbook one at a time. The military style of teaching which starts very very basic and	Writing like fixing airplane
very very simple and move all the way up.	
I: So how's it going so far?	Writing starts from sentence to paragraph to essay
K: Well. I think most of the students understand my teaching. I	Writing requires repetitions
look at writing as a skill, and it's a skill to write an essay. It requires many small skills. I tried to convince them everything	Feeling military was helpful
that they do is a preparation for this. But I have problems. I am not consistent.	Teaching from basics skills to complex
I: What do you mean by inconsistent?	
K: I found myself teaching motivated students, motivated classes at a high level, and students who are not motivated,	Feeling his instruction clear
lazy, students even don't care at a lower level. Because they	Believing writing as a skill
all need something different. I learned that by talking to them.	Writing an essay requires small skills
	Inconsistent in teaching skills
	Teaching influenced by students' diversity
	Students have different need
	Talking to know students

Open	Axial	Selective	Core Category
Planning teaching skills before writing	Drills of techniques	Skill-focused Instruction	Linguistic Accuracy
Lecturing on techniques most of the class time			
memorizing techniques			
Lecturing on techniques fast			
Teaching skills arbitrarily			
Teaching techniques every week			
Lecturing about coherence			
Lecturing about unity			
Lecturing about concise			
Lecturing on sentencing techniques			
Lecturing on paragraphing techniques			
Practicing techniques on worksheets			Linguistic Accuracy (continued)
Applying few techniques in writing			
Building subskills to write an essay			
Writing starts from sentence to paragraph to essay			

Teaching subskills around a goal	Teaching skills from low to high		Linguistic Accuracy (continued)
Breaking up the goal into small parts			
Practicing subskills one by one			
Lecturing from sentencing to analyzing skills			
Moving to next skill after repeated practice of the previous			
Chinese students don't know written English structure	Believing Chinese students need skills		
Chinese Ss need to know how to write logic			
Chinese Ss need to know conventions			
Revising is checking grammar mistakes	Revisions as language corrections	Value linguistic correctness	
Revising on grammar mistakes			
Revising on marked language mistakes			
Discouraging at red marks	Over-commented at language level		
Preferring write shorter to avoid mistakes			
Taking points off for incorrect format			
Marking on expressions massively			
Questioning on syntax			
Correcting most grammar mistakes			

Rare comments on content but on sentences & grammars			
Providing one model for each writing	Teaching writing models		
Lecturing on models			
Analyzing organization in writing models			
Suggesting imitate writing models			
Filling contents to writing model skeleton	Writing after writing models		
Shaping contents to fit in models			
Thinking hard to write like model			
Imitating the organization in model			
Relying on models to write			
Modeling for higher grade			
Crafting rough draft before outline	Contrived writing cycle	Framing Ss' writing	
Moving every S from outline to individual conference to draft			
Individual meeting to keep on track			
Drafting after teacher's permission			
Allowing no "I" in writing	Writing by rules		
Following 2-3-1 rules unanimously			
Requiring sandwich-style for every writing			

APPENDIX H
SAMPLE OF TEACHER HANDOUTS

Japanese and American Societies

Discussion Before reading a composition that compares and contrasts Japanese and American societies, predict how they are different/similar.

Japan and the United States: Different but Alike

1. A country's society is <u>made up of</u>, among other things, its people, history, size, cuisine, religion, and work ethic. When comparing these areas, the society of one country may seem <u>to have little in common with</u> the society of another. But such <u>a simple view</u> isn't necessarily true. <u>At first glance</u>, no one would confuse <u>the societies of</u> Japan and the United States; they seem to have little in common. But <u>a closer examination of</u> these two countries shows that, along with their obvious differences, they <u>share some surprising</u> similarities.

Paragraph Structure
1. What is the controlling idea?
2. Where is it located?

Note: The first paragraph begins with a general statement that introduces the topic, differences in societies. Then the topic is narrowed, ending with the controlling idea, sometimes called thesis statement.

Language Review
Complete these sentences.
1. A country's society is <u>. . .</u> its people, history, ...
2. One country may seem <u>. . .</u> the society of another.
3. <u>. . .</u>these two countries . . .
4. They <u>. . .</u> similarities.

Paragraph Two
Read paragraph two.

2. The most obvious difference is the people. Japan is made up almost entirely of one race. It is <u>a homogenous society</u>, with only a few minority races, such as the Chinese, Koreans, and Ainu, <u>an indigenous people</u> native to Hokkaido. The Japanese majority <u>tends to dominate</u> the country. All of the public holidays and celebrations are related to them. An example of this is the Emperor's Birthday. In contrast, the United States, though many of its people come from Europe, is <u>a heterogeneous society</u>. In addition to people who have come from Europe, there are those from Africa, Asia, and South and Central America. There are also the Native Americans, who have their own lands. Public holidays and celebrations <u>are not limited to</u> people who have a European ancestry. <u>The most notable example of this is</u> Martin Luther King Day. So the composition of these two societies is quite different.

1. What is the main idea?

2. Where is it located?
3. What do the the following phrases mean?
?   a homogenous society
?   an indigenous people
?   a heterogeneous society

3. What are the supporting details?

Paragraph Organization
This paragraph is organized by a point-by-point method. This means that each point is developed within the paragraph. Japan's homogenous society is contrasted to America's heterogeneous society. Concrete examples give each point its strength. The paragraph also ends with a sentence which restates the main idea, a common technique which gives it coherence.

Language Review
Complete these sentences or answer the questions.
1. The Japanese majority **. . .** the country.
2. Public holidays and celebrations in the United States **. . .** people who have a European ancestry.

Paragraph Three
Read paragraph three.

3. Another area of difference between the two societies is related to the size of the countries and how this size influences the people. America is a vast country, stretching from the Atlantic Ocean on the East Coast to the Pacific Ocean on the West Coast. Between the two oceans there are expansive prairies, high mountains, and inhospitable deserts. Due to its size, there is always a sense in American society that expansion is possible. Indeed, expansion is a part of American history. Conversely, Japan, an island country, has limited land resources. What little land there is tends to be mountainous, limiting the livable and arable areas even more. Because of this, land in Japan is often used over and over again. A family will rebuild a house on the same land, one generation after another. In America, this would never happen. Americans would simply buy more land and build another house, selling the older one. Clearly, American and Japanese societies have been strongly influenced by the size of the countries.

Paragraph Organization
For the composition to be coherent, each following body paragraph must be developed the same way as the first body paragraph. This means a main idea is developed by the point-by-point method within one paragraph. The last sentence should be a restatement of the main idea.
1. What is the main idea?
2. What are the supporting details?

Language Review
Complete these sentences or answer the questions.
1. Another area of difference between the two societies **. . .** the size of the countries.
2. Due to its size, **. . .** in American society that expansion is possible.
3. Japan, an island country, has **. . .** .
4. America and Japanese societies **. . .** the size of the countries.

Paragraph Four

Read paragraph four.

4. In spite of these two differences, Japan and the United States <u>share some similarities</u>. Both, for example, have transplanted societies. Each country, in other words, has a mother country, China for Japan and Great Britain for the United States. This mother country has greatly influenced both countries in the areas of art, religion, literature, and, <u>most notably</u>, language. The Japanese language comes from the Chinese language. Many of the written characters, such as the ones for mountain and river, are the same in both languages. <u>Regarding </u>the United States and Britain, the national language, of course, is English, though the spelling of words and pronunciation may be slightly different. Schedule, for example, is pronounced differently, and so is the spelling of center. Therefore, both the societies of Japan and the United States, particularly in the area of language, were greatly influenced by another country.

1. Write the main idea in one sentence.

2. What are the supporting details?

Note: Notice that the first sentence is not the main idea. It is a transitional sentence between the differences in the previous paragraphs and the similarities which follow.

Paragraph Five

Read paragraph five.

5. Japan and American societies also share a similar <u>work ethic</u>, which often results in unhealthy stress. Japanese often <u>commute</u> several hours to work, as do Americans. The work day for both of these people can be long, especially for those in business and in the professions, such as medicine. Doctors in the United States can work up to twelve hours a day, and their <u>counterparts</u> in Japan have equally long days. Both in the United States and Japan family life sometimes <u>takes a backseat to</u> the breadwinner's professional life. Inevitably, stress <u>builds up; often</u> there are divorces. The pressure of work <u>takes its toll on</u> the personal happiness of both Japanese and Americans.

Paragraph Organization
1. What is the main idea?
2. Where is it located?
3. What are the supporting details?

Paragraph Six

Read paragraph six.

6. While Japanese and American societies may seem like they have nothing in common, this isn't quite true. Of course there are differences: one is homogenous, the other heterogeneous; the size of the two countries has an influence on the societies, too. But in other aspects, the origins of their language and their work ethics, Japanese and American societies are similar. So the two societies aren't as different as one might think.

Paragraph Organization
The last paragraph restates the main ideas of the composition. The concluding sentence should be a logical result of the main ideas and help the reader remember the controlling idea.

Outline

Paragraph One
Controlling Idea:

Differences

Paragraph Two
Main Idea One:

Supporting Details

Paragraph Three
Main Idea Two:

Supporting Details

Similarities

Paragraph Four
Main Idea Three:

Supporting Details

Paragraph Five
Main Idea Four:

Supporting Details

Conclusion

Homework

Your homework is to outline a composition which compares and contrasts the United States of the Gilded Age and modern China.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Qing Liu was born in Chongqing, China. She and her younger sister and grew up in a loving family. Qing earned her B.A. in English from Sichuan International Studies University (SISU) and M.A. in Linguistics from Chongqing University (CQU) in 2003 and 2005, respectively.

After graduating from CQU, she worked for *People's Daily*, the largest newspaper in China, Shenzhen branch for one year and left in August 2006 to University of Florida in American for an advanced degree. She enrolled in Educational Psychology first, then she transferred to Curriculum and Instruction, specializing in ESL/EFL writing and children's literature, since reading, writing, and teaching have always been her passion. From 2007 to 2010, she taught Chinese classes in a local Chinese school and children's literature to undergraduate students in the teacher education program. Qing participated in national and local professional organization actively, and both attended and presented at conferences such as NCTE (National Council for Teachers of English) and FRA (Florida Reading Association). She was also closely involved in local K-12 schools by volunteering in classrooms, observing veteran teachers' teaching, meeting with students, and serving in the local school board and community.

Upon completing her PhD degree, she will go back to China to teach at a university. She is married to Junhong Zhao and they have a son Jingxun Zhao.