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A STUDY OF IMPROVING JAPANESE COLLEGE STUDENTS' EFL WRITING

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The objective of this research is to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of Japanese college students' English writing and to develop a method of teaching writing based both on their nature and on Japanese EFL settings. The target students, who are elementary to lower intermediate level and non-English majors, do not have many opportunities to write English outside of school. The study is designed to be classroom based, and includes quantitative and qualitative data. One major goal of the study is to provide concrete pedagogical propositions including suggestions which will assist classroom teaching and student support. The research for this study took place over a four-year period. The researcher has had 12 years teaching experience of implementing a process approach.

1-1 SIGNIFICANCE OF TEACHING WRITING

Recently, opportunities for communicating with people overseas have been increasing year by year, as international relationships develop and the internet becomes popular. As a result, the opportunities for writing English are increasing and writing English is becoming more and more important in our lives.

In Japan 'English communication skills' have been regarded as listening and speaking skills and 'to communicate in English' is synonymous with conversing in English. It seems people have believed that they can communicate if they memorize a certain pattern of conversation. However, what can be communicated by rote memorization is quite limited. When people want to communicate at content level, they have to formulate their ideas, organize their thoughts and opinions, and express themselves coherently so others will understand. Usually people cannot attain content level communication through speaking alone. Commonly communication at content level is learned through reading and writing. Nunan (1989) points out that everyone has to be taught how to write. Though people may be able to speak a particular language if they live in a community where it is spoken, they cannot write it unless they are taught how to write. This provides a very strong rationale for teaching writing. Another

rationale is that writing gives important opportunities for a learner to develop productive skills. It is impossible for people to practice speaking without talking to someone who speaks English. However it is possible to write English on ones own. Teaching and learning writing, therefore, are important if Japanese EFL learners are to develop productive skills.

1-2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In Japan the teaching of writing has been neglected compared to the teaching of reading and listening. A survey conducted by the Research Project on the Teaching of Writing English (PRTWE) under the auspices of the Kansai Chapter of the Japan Association of College English Teachers showed that 56% of college freshman (n=459) had never taken writing classes (1995). Sixteen percent (16%) of the students had never written in English and 84% of them had never written an essay of more than two paragraphs. The intrinsic purpose of writing is to communicate with others. However, within the Japanese EFL classroom, one-sentence translation tasks from Japanese into English and vocabulary training tasks are still common in high school and college. The reason for introducing these tasks is mainly to help students write sentences using correct grammar and vocabulary. According to Hayashi (2003), there was no relationship between one-sentence translation scores and syntax in essay writing. She concluded that one-sentence translation practices seemed to be an inefficient method for improving writing ability.

Brookes and Grundy (1989) suggest that the valuable research done on first language writing by first language writing researchers forms a useful basis for second language writing practice. One important theory proposed by Flower and Hayes (1981) is the cognitive process theory. It puts forward the idea that complex writing processes are not linear or formulaic but rather individual and recursive. They assumed that knowing about the processes that go on in a writer's mind provides a useful foundation for teaching. Brookes and Grundy (1989) also assumed that there is an important core of similarity between L1 and L2 writing as well as some significant differences. Pennington et.al (1997) compare the practices of ESL writing in Australia, Hong Kong, Japan, and New Zealand, and Singapore and revealed that teaching in Japan was most product-oriented in theory and practice. It is also clear that Japanese teachers want to introduce the principles of the process approach but they find them difficult to

implement into their teaching of writing.

White (1992) reports that Japanese college classes have not developed the process approach as well as he had expected. He suggests it is because students do not brainstorm as a pre-writing activity as is expected of international students in America.

Japanese EFL settings are very different from ESL settings. Most commonly in Japan, college students take one or two 90 minute English classes once a week, making a total of 12 classes in one semester and 24 classes in one year in their first and second years. Moreover, natural input available for English acquisition is quite limited. With such limited time we need to explore a more effective method of teaching writing especially for Japanese college students.

In addition, non-English major students, whose proficiency levels are from elementary to middle intermediate, have very limited experience of writing English in their high school. At college they have few or no opportunities to write for communication as English major students do. It appears that writing classes are not as available to these students as reading or listening classes.

Aside from the above-mentioned studies, the research on the English writing proficiency of non-English major Japanese college students is very limited. Investigations of these students 'writing for communication' need to be launched to meet the increasing need for support in producing good written English.

1-3 OBJECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH

As mentioned in the introduction, the objective of this research is to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of Japanese college students' English writing and develop a method of teaching writing based on their nature and Japanese EFL settings. The target students, who are elementary to middle intermediate level and non-English majors, do not have opportunities to write English outside of school. The study design is classroom based in nature, and includes quantitative and qualitative data. One major goal of this study is to provide concrete pedagogical propositions including suggestions regarding classroom teaching and student support. The research for this study took place over a four-year period. As previously mentioned, the researcher has had 12 years teaching experience of implementing the process approach to writing.

Research Questions

The goal of this project is to look at the English writing of Japanese college students' enrolled in first and second year English classes at Kunitachi College of Music, Tokyo, Japan in order to answer the following questions.

- 1) What influences the quality of Japanese college students' English writing?*
- 2) Do students improve their writing by using writing guideline worksheets to assist their focus on content and organization before starting to write?*
- 3) Do Japanese English teachers and native English teachers rate differently?*
- 4) Do students and Japanese English teachers rate differently?*
- 5) Do students rate differently when their feedback is anonymous or when it is identified?*
- 6) What influence does training in self-feedback have?*
- 7) Whose feedback is most effective when students revised their first drafts?*

1-4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This project may benefit all students who enroll in English at Kunitachi College of Music by determining what exactly the characteristics of this group are, so that a method of teaching writing can be developed to suit them. It may also benefit Japanese college students at similar levels and in similar settings elsewhere.

There is less international research into ESL writing than into other skills such as reading, speaking, and listening. Moreover, research in Japanese EFL writing is even more limited. Researchers and teachers need empirical studies to demonstrate how to introduce a process approach into their Japanese writing classroom and to show its value or otherwise. As the learning environment and frequency of classes in the two settings are very different, a study of Japanese college students is very necessary to fill some of the gaps between the current research on ESL writing and Japanese EFL writing.

1-5 DEFINITION OF THE TERMS

In order to avoid ambiguity, key vocabulary terms utilized in this work are listed below. While there is a great deal of scholarly debate regarding precise definitions of these terms, it is not my purpose to create new definitions. Rather these are working definitions for the purpose of this study alone.

Key vocabulary	Definition
ESL	English as a second language (refers to the teaching of English to people who are living in a country in which English is either the first or second language, but it is not their own first language)
EFL	English as a foreign language (refers to the teaching of English to people for whom it is not the first language of the country they live in)
Native (English teachers)	Individuals for whom a particular language is their ‘first language’ or ‘mother tongue’. This implies that speakers of the language acquired it naturally during childhood. The term native English teachers in this study refer to American and Australian teachers.
Language Use	One of five criteria of the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al. 1981). Grammar: includes subject-verb agreement, tense, number, article, preposition, and pronoun.
Vocabulary	One of five criteria of the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al. 1981). Vocabulary: includes word/idiom choice and usage.
Mechanics	One of five criteria of the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al. 1981). Mechanics: includes paragraphing, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization.
Process approach	An approach to teaching writing that focuses on the writing processes rather than only the final product. In the process approach to writing, students are expected to write multiple drafts of a paper and make changes in their paper based on the feedback they receive.
Feedback	Feedback includes response, correction, and review, advice, criticism, interaction, or information about how good or weak the work is and how to improve it.
Revision	Revision covers both meaning changes and surface changes. ‘Focus on the meaning’ deals with focus on content and organization. Focus on surface features deals with vocabulary, language use and mechanics.

1-6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are three primary limitations to this study. First, the findings presented in it may not be generalized to all settings for teaching writing in Japanese EFL since these findings are based on a limited sample of students.

Secondly, the period of the study was short, ranging from 4 weeks to 24 weeks. Though writing ability does not improve much over such a short period of time (Chenoweth, 1987; Taniguchi, 1991), the school curriculum and timetable did not allow the researcher to have the same students for a longer period. For findings to be more conclusive the study concerns need to be investigated over a longer period.

The third limitation of this study pertains to its primarily qualitative nature, since it relies heavily on questionnaires and interviews. As a researcher-teacher, I am concerned that the participants in the study may have given me the answers they believed a teacher would want to hear.

1-7 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation consists of 8 chapters. Chapter 1 describes the background of the study and provides a discussion of its purpose and significance. Chapter 2 reviews the literature. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the study. Chapter 4 investigates the factors influencing Japanese college students' English writing. The results section presents correlations between the quality of English language descriptive writing and the quality of Japanese language descriptive writing. It also suggests the characteristics of good writers. Chapter 5 describes the use of materials developed to assist the teaching of writing based on the results of Chapter 4 and evaluates that material. Chapter 6 investigates the quality of different forms of feedback. Section 1 compares Japanese English teachers' feedback to native English teachers' feedback. Section 2 investigates Japanese English teachers' feedback and the differences between it and feedback from students with higher English writing skills or feedback from those with lower English writing skills. Chapter 7 discusses the quality of revision after various types of feedback. Chapter 8 concludes the dissertation.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2-1 WRITING PROCESS

2-1-1 The Process Approach in ESL

The Process Approach to teaching writing focuses on the writing processes rather than the final product only. In this approach to writing, students are expected to write multiple drafts of a paper and make changes in it based on the feedback they receive.

The Process Approach does not focus on pattern drills or grammatical forms, but on the overall process of writing. As opposed to the Audiolingual Approach, in the Process Approach “linguistic accuracy is now often downplayed, at least in the beginning of the [writing] process” (Raimes, 1991, p.410). Unlike the Audiolingual Approach, where writing became the process of linking together already learned structures, the Process Approach sees composing as a “non-linear, explanatory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (Zamel, 1983, p.165). This approach is meant to reflect the multifaceted nature of the writing process, which is “... a complex messy process” (Sadler, et al., 2002, p.81).

In the Process Approach, writing is seen as having various stages: inventing, drafting, revising and editing. This process is also recursive, meaning as writers “... we move forward by looking backwards at what we have already written to reevaluate what we have said and make changes” (Sadler et al., 2002, p.82). Rather than having the teacher act as the model for students to follow, a process approach classroom calls for providing a positive, encouraging, and collaborative workshop environment within which students, with ample time and minimal interference, can work through their composing processes (Silva, 1990). The Process Approach does not deny that grammatical knowledge plays an important role in writing, but it maintains that grammatical knowledge alone is no guarantee of good writing.

In the Process Approach the initial stage planning is certainly an area worthy of further research. While the amount of research on this topic has been limited, Silva (1993) found that L2 writers (global and local) did less planning and had more difficulty

with setting goals and generating and organizing material. By contrast, in an examination of ESL students who are proficient writers in their L1, Cumming (1989) found that this type of L2 writer did utilize successful planning strategies. In the case of ESL students who were not experienced writers in their L1, Cumming's findings were similar to Silva's in that he found these writers also did not plan effectively.

While the Process Approach continues to play a very large role in writing for both native and non-native speakers, it has also been criticized for neglecting to consider variations in writing processes due to differences in writing topics, and situations (Silva, 1990). Though there are a number of valid criticisms of the Process Approach, Raimes remarks that "the process approach more than any other seems to be providing unifying theoretical and methodological principles" (1991, p.422) seem to be plausible.

2-1-2 Process Approach in Japanese EFL

In Japanese high school and college EFL settings, the majority of writing classes still focus on one-sentence translation tasks from Japanese into English and vocabulary training tasks. According to a 1995 survey of JACET Kansai chapter, 84% of college students had never experienced writing an essay longer than two paragraphs.

Though the Process Approach has been gradually introduced to classrooms in a manner that suits Japanese students (Booth, 1988; Sasaki et al., 1986), it has not yet been firmly established. As previously mentioned, White (1992) reports that Japanese college students' classes have not developed the process approach as well as he expected. One of the reasons he gives is that students do not brainstorm as a pre-writing activity.

Momoi (2001) points out that one of the problems of introducing the Process Approach into Japanese classrooms is that teachers do not have concrete images of each step of writing such as inventing, drafting, revising and editing. Sano (1997) says that before students enter college, they are supposed to study vocabulary and acquire sentence patterns in order to prepare for entrance examinations. After entering college, they are not expected to write compositions because of their low English proficiency. Momoi (2001) also says that at present the research into the Process Approach is quite limited both quantitatively and qualitatively. To meet real world demands and to provide teacher support we need to investigate the characteristics of Japanese students' writing at each step and find a method to implement the Process Approach in Japanese EFL settings.

2-2 VARIABLES IN L2 STUDENTS' WRITING

2-2-1 Main Variables in Students' Writing

Many researches have investigated the L1-L2 relationship in writing. They have compared L1 essays and ESL essays written by groups of students with different L1 backgrounds (Arndt, 1987; Edelsky, 1982; Jones & Teroe, 1987; Hall, 1990; Kaplan, 1966; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1983). They have investigated factors that could explain second language learners' writing products. These factors include characteristics of learners' that could explain L2 proficiency, like knowledge of L2 writing, and instructional background. Some researchers have hypothesized the existence of a 'composing competence' that transcends L1 and L2 differences (Kraples, 1990). The existence of a composing competence would suggest that there should be a high correlation between the quality of L1 and L2 (Hirose & Sasaki, 1994).

Sasaki and Hirose (1996) developed their own study (Hirose & Sasaki, 1994) and investigated the factors that might influence the quality of Japanese students' persuasive writing in English (Figure 2-1). They found that all of the following factors: students' L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability, and metaknowledge, are significant independent variables in explaining L2 writing ability, and that there are significant correlations among these variables (Figure 2-1). They said that the three explanatory variables - L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability, and L2 metaknowledge – influence writing ability. They also pointed out that L1 writing ability manifests itself through the use of a writing strategy (i.e., paying attention to overall organization). In this model the two background characteristics (writing experience in L1/L2 and confidence in L2 writing) are also included as potential explanatory factors for L2 writing ability.

The Path diagram of Figure 2-1 illustrates an explanatory model of EFL writing (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996, p.161). The measured variables are enclosed in squares, and unmeasured latent factors are enclosed in circles. Latent background factors are enclosed in triangles. The unidirectional arrows indicate one-way casual relations. The dashed lines within the arrows indicate speculation. The process features are represented by broken line rectangles.

Sasaki and Hirose (1996) also reveal that good writers and weak writers are significantly different on the following points: (1) good writers pay more attention to overall organization while writing in L1 and L2; (2) good writers write more fluently in L1 and L2; (3) good writers have mostly written more than one paragraph as part of their learning experiences.

The Venn diagrams show correlations among the English composition total score, the English proficiency (CELT score), and the Japanese composition total score (Figure 2-2). About forty-two percent (42.2%) is accounted for by the overlap between English proficiency and Japanese composition ability. It appears that students' English proficiency seems to play a major role in explaining English composition ability. At the same time, students need a certain level of English proficiency to make use of their Japanese composition ability.

Similarly, Kamimura (1996) reveals that Japanese college students' writing in English is similar to their writing in their native language both quantitatively and qualitatively. She also finds that the correlations between Japanese and English writing are influenced by the students' English proficiency. She suggests that there might be a threshold English proficiency level (CELT=170) above which students could write a composition similarly both in Japanese and English.

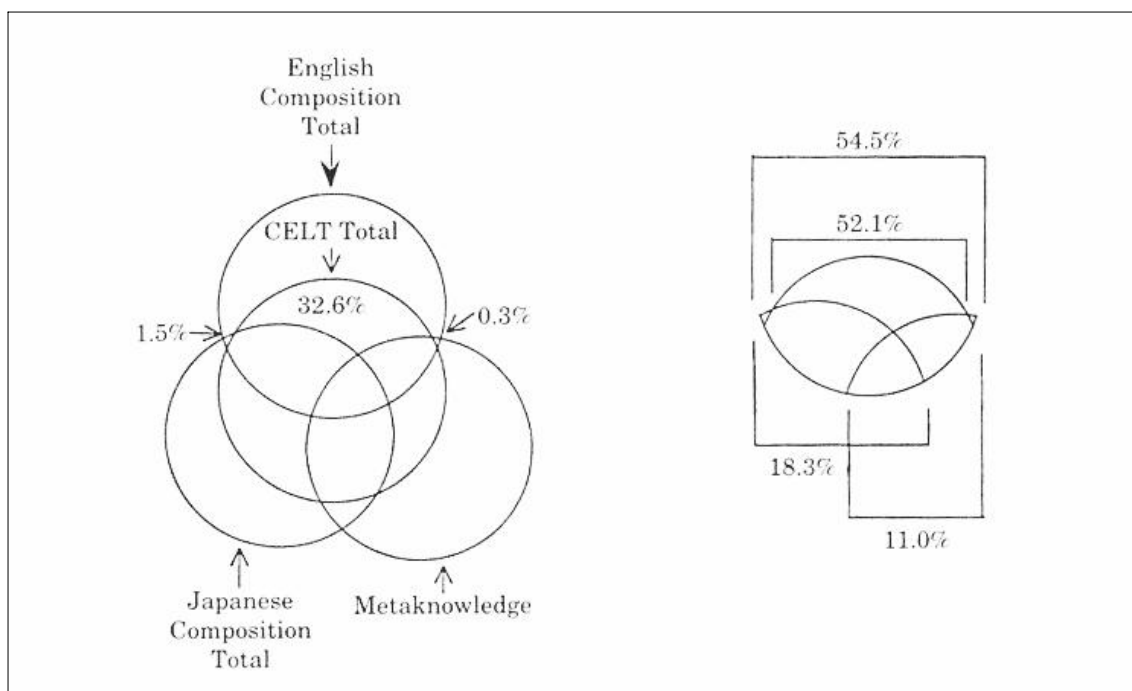


Figure 2-2: Correlations among the ESL Compositions Total Score, the CELT score, and the Japanese Composition Total Score (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996, p.151)

2-2-2 Other Variables for Students' Writing

Kubota (1998) examines the organization of expository and persuasive writing both in English and Japanese. She finds a positive correlation between the ratings of writings in these two languages. She explains that lack of English writing experience and of language skills cause low ratings of English writing. Her data also shows that L1 writing ability, English proficiency and experience in English writing all affect the quality of EFL essays. According to Kubota (1998), good essays share some features such as the presence of thesis, summary statements and the use of deductive patterns that set the main idea at the beginning, regardless of mode and language. It means that the model of good descriptive writing is common to both English and Japanese.

Considering the fact that different modes of writing require different writing ability (Carrell & Connor, 1991; Dvorak, 1987; Koda, 1993), it is useful to examine whether similar patterns of correlations between the ratings of writing in Japanese and in English

will be found in different modes. Previous studies deal with expository writing, persuasive writing and narrative writing. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) and Kubota (1998) study expository and persuasive modes of writing which require a writer to take a position and to support it. Kamimura (1996) deals with the narrative mode. These investigations leave room to examine factors which influence the quality of Japanese college students' writing in a descriptive mode.

2-3 PERSPECTIVES ON FEEDBACK AND REVISION

2-3-1 Studies on Feedback and Revision

Many researchers have pointed out that teacher feedback of any type is more likely to benefit student writing if it comes primarily at intermediate, rather than final, stages of the written process, specifically, when students are allowed or even required to revise or rewrite their papers after receiving teacher feedback (Ferris, 1995b, 1997; Krashen, 1984; James 1998; Zamel, 1985). A number of studies provide evidence that when students revise their papers after receiving feedback, their accuracy improves, either in the short or long term (Chandler, 2000; Fathman & Whalley 1990; Ferris, 1997, Ferris et al. 2000; Lalande, 1982).

On the other hand, in two studies in which one group of students revised their papers while another group did not, there was no benefit shown in the form of superior accuracy for the group that revised (Frantzen, 1995; Polio et al. 1998). Finally, in three additional studies the effects of revision are not clear from the data presented (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Semke, 1984; Sheppard 1992). It is important to note that in this body of work, only one study specifically isolates revision as a key variable (Chandler, 2000). In the rest, other variables in addition to revision differ across groups. For instance, in Lalande's (1982) study, his experimental group received indirect, coded feedback and revised their marked papers during in-class editing sessions, while the control-group students received direct correction and did not revise their papers. He found that indirect feedback with the use of an error code produced significantly greater gains than direct correction without further revision.

2-3-2 Revision after Peer Feedback

Another line of research has been concerned with the effect of changing the source of feedback from teacher to peer. Research on peer feedback has been primarily concerned with the beneficial effects that this collaborative process can have on students. Peer feedback can give students an authentic audience and provide opportunities for the negotiation and elaboration of meaning (Daiz, 1986; Keyes, 1984; Mittan, 1989).

Some of the peer feedback studies focus on revision after peer feedback. Urzua (1987) reports that revising with trusted peers resulted in acquiring a sense of audience, a sense of voice, and a sense of power in language. Keh (1990) says that peer feedback

is superior to teacher feedback in that the former can be more at the learner's own developmental level, and that the reader can learn more about writing by reading others' drafts.

Connor and Asenavage (1994) find that ESL students make both text-based (content) and surface revisions. They report that the impact of peer feedback on revision is extremely limited (5%) and about 35% of the revisions appear to derive from teacher suggestion. They describe their results as to the effects of peer response as disappointing and suggest that L2 writing teachers "may expect too much from peer response groups without understanding how effective collaboration works among ESL writers" (p.267). Connor and Asenavage suggest that students may need more explicit instruction about revision and better peer response training. Paulus (1999) also focuses on the effects of feedback on revision using Faigley and Witte's (1981) taxonomy and compares findings across teacher and peer feedback. She finds that students made both meaning and surface changes. She also finds that peer feedback influences 32% of the revisions and teacher feedback (57%) but that the source of the majority of revisions overall is self/other (52%). Compared with Connor and Asenavage's study, Paulus's study shows that the impact of peer feedback is much greater. The finding in both studies that self/other is the major source of revision changes argues that the mere act of rereading and rewriting, even without feedback from peers or teacher, may lead not only to substantive changes but to improving writing quality.

Berg (1999) focuses on the effects of training for peer feedback on the types of revisions made by ESL writers. She found that the trained group wrote higher quality revisions than the control group and made more meaning changes as opposed to surface changes. She suggests that her results imply that appropriate training can lead to more meaning-type revisions, which in turn may result in better quality writing in a second draft.

2-3-3 Revision after Self-feedback

The last line of exploration is of self-feedback. There is much research that points out how invaluable error feedback from teachers and peers is. Experts in L2 writing are unanimous that students need to develop self-editing skills and that classroom strategy training may well be useful to them (Bates et.al., 1993; Ferris 1995a, 1995c, 1999b; Ferris et.al., 1998; James, 1998; Reid, 1998b; Truscott, 1999). Among these researchers, Truscott (1996, 1999) who opposes error correction in any form in L2 writing classes,

admits that there may be a legitimate role for strategy training and grammar instruction as an alternative means of helping students to edit their writing.

Ferris (2002) points out several components which are essential in developing strategy training to increase self-editing ability (pp.78-98). However, there seems to be no research that investigates the effects on writing quality of training students in self-feedback. Therefore there is a need to investigate if trained groups gain higher total scores than untrained groups after revision of writing.

2-4 STUDIES OF RESOURCES FOR TEACHING WRITING

Empirical studies of the efficacy of resources for teaching writing are very limited. Moreover, most of the studies focus on the authorized textbooks of the Ministries of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (Yamane, 1993; Koizumi, 1994; Tezuka, 1997). Takayama and Oikawa (2001) point out that some studies are useful in the teaching of writing (McKay, 1994; Tada, 1994; Azuma, 1998) and others are useful in evaluating the materials, but many of these studies still lack evidence. The Association of Teaching Writing Studies in ELEC (1998) analyzed the authorized textbooks by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology and pointed out their faults.

- (1) They focused on practicing grammar
- (2) They focused on accuracy. Fluency was overlooked.
- (3) There were no model essays to teach English rhetoric
- (4) They focused only on writing one-sentence exercise. There were no paragraph writing exercises.

While it was useful, the study by ELLEC also lacked empirical support. We should investigate the effectiveness of support materials for teaching writing through more empirical studies.

The Investigation into Actual Conditions of Teaching English “Eigo Kyoiku Jittai Chosa Kenkyukai” (1993) asked 5661 Japanese college students what kind of writing and grammatical materials they wanted to use. The results of the questionnaires follow.

Translation from Japanese into English	806 (14.2%)
Translation with free writing	1409 (24.9%)
Free writing	1032 (18.2%)
Practicing English expressions	3610 (63.8%)
Others	236 (4.2%)

According to the Investigations into the Actual Conditions of Teaching English, college students did not like translation exercises. We need to develop teaching materials which focus on free writing to allow students opportunities for freer expression than is made possible by present textbooks

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the research site for the study, the participants and setting, instruments, inter-rater reliability, and research design are described.

3-1 PARTICIPANTS AND SETTING

Students who enrolled in the English classes at Kunitachi College of Music, Tokyo, Japan from 2001 to 2005 were participants in this study. The participants were freshmen and sophomores majoring in music at a four-year private university. Their ages varied from 18 to 21 years. They had studied English for 6 years through the highly controlled formal Japanese system. Their proficiency levels varied from elementary (false beginning) to middle intermediate. They were enrolled in English for communication purposes, rather than academic purposes.

Both first and second year students took two English classes per semester, one in Reading and Writing, and the other in Listening and Speaking. Each class was held once a week for 90 minutes and lasted for 12 weeks. It means that in a year, students took 24 classes respectively for Reading and Writing, and Listening and Speaking.

3-2 INSTRUMENTS

Some of the following instruments were utilized in each study; an English proficiency test, a writing background survey, a writing topic of English / Japanese, a test of knowledge of English writing, questionnaires, and oral interviews.

3-2-1 English Proficiency Test

The English proficiency test (by Kirihara Shoten) consisted of listening, structure, and vocabulary sections with a maximum possible score of 100 points. The test was not a standardized test like CELT, TOEFL, or TOEIC which are widely used. Because this test was given in all classes of the college in which the present study was carried out, it was impossible to have the participants take another test due to the course schedule.

3-2-2 Writing Background Survey

The writing background survey consisted of questionnaires in Japanese on prior writing and instruction experiences.

3-2-3 English / Japanese Writing Topics

The writing dealt with various genres of writing such as descriptive, narrative, and persuasive. In every writing genre, topics which were familiar to students were carefully chosen.

3-2-4 A test of knowledge of English writing

A test of knowledge of English writing consisted of four sections requiring: (a) reading a short paragraph and choosing the best topic and concluding sentences; (b) explaining terms such as the topic sentence and the concluding sentence; (c) reading a short paragraph and choosing the best conjunctions for several blanks; (d) choosing the best organized paragraph from among three alternatives (Appendix A).

3-2-5 Questionnaires

The students were asked to answer the questionnaires after writing. The questions were varied depending on the particular object of the study.

3-2-6 Interview

The students were interviewed on their writing products and questionnaires depending on the object of the study. Each interview was tape-recorded with participants' prior consent and then transcribed for the analysis.

3-2-7 Feedback-sheet

The feedback-sheet consisted of two parts, the first asked for rating on a scale from 1 to 5 on six criteria (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, Mechanics, and Overall Evaluation) and the second required descriptive feedback to be given. The teacher and peer readers were supposed to rate their classmates compositions by filling in feedback-sheets.

3-3 RATINGS OF THE ENGLISH AND JAPANESE WRITING

The writing in English and Japanese was rated by EFL Composition Profile which used 5 analytical criteria: Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. EFL Composition Profile is based on ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et. al. 1981). The revision of the ESL Composition Profile was undertaken by three experienced Japanese college teachers of English. This was then revised again by two experienced native-speaker English teachers. The revisions and simplifications were made in order to rate the English writing of elementary to intermediate Japanese college students more effectively.

The Japanese descriptive writing was rated using a Japanese translation of the EFL Composition Profile. Two Japanese teachers of English and 2 Japanese teachers of Japanese collaborated in order to create it.

3-3-1 Inter-rater Reliability

At least two Japanese or native English college teachers rated the writing of all the studies. All of the raters were experienced teachers of writing at college level. The inter-rater reliability was calculated using the Spearman-Brown formula.

3-4 RESEARCH DESIGN

All of the studies were designed to be classroom based. Only the study of Chapter 7, Section 1 used a pseudo-experimental design. The classes were processed by the teacher-researcher.

Table 3-1: Overview of Studies

Chapter	Number of Participants	Length of Study	Instruments
4	Fifty-three sophomores	7 weeks	English proficiency test, a writing background survey, writing topics in English and Japanese, questionnaires of writing processes, a test of knowledge of English writing, oral interviews
5	Sixty-one freshmen	24 weeks	writing topics, questionnaires of writing, worksheets, field notes
6 (1)	Thirteen Japanese teachers of English & eleven native English teachers		students' writing samples, feedback sheet,
6 (2)	Eighty-three freshmen & thirteen Japanese college English teachers	5 weeks	English proficiency test, a writing background survey, English writing topic, samples of English writings, feedback sheet
6 (3)	Forty-eight sophomores divided into two treatment groups.	4 weeks	English writing topics, feedback sheet,
7 (1)	Fifty-one freshmen divided into experiment and control groups.	5 weeks	English proficiency test, English writing topics, self-feedback sheet, a test of English writing knowledge, questionnaires of self-feedback, oral interviews,
7(2)	Forty-two sophomores divided into four treatment groups.	24 weeks	English proficiency test, writing topics, feedback sheet, questionnaires of feedback, oral interviews,

Appendix A: A Test of Knowledge on English Writing (Excerpt)

1. Choose the most appropriate topic sentence and concluding sentence for the blank.

_____(1)_____. You can use the Internet to find information about travel destinations. You can easily check flight information and book your accommodations online. You can even access information about the airports you will be using for your trip. _____(2)_____.

(1) Topic Sentence

- a. The Internet is useful for making travel arrangements.
- b. You can reserve your flight and hotel over the Internet.
- c. The Internet is easy to use.

(2) Concluding Sentence

- a. The Internet is easy to use, and we can do many things with it.
- b. The Internet has a great future, and people need to know how to use it.
- c. Thus, it is very convenient to use the Internet when we make travel arrangements.

2. Fill in the blanks.

The Differences between Dogs and Cats

The most popular types of pets are dogs and cats. Let's look at some basic differences between them. _____(1)_____, cats are very independent. They can survive on their own. That is, they do not necessarily need humans to take care of them. _____(2)_____, dogs are very dependent on humans. They need people to take care of them and to feed them. _____(3)_____ difference is closely related to the first. Cats usually act according to their own wishes _____(4)_____ they are independent. _____(5)_____, when the owner comes home, the cat may or may not greet him/her. _____(6)_____, dogs are very eager to please humans. _____(7)_____ they hear the owner's footsteps, dogs almost always rush to the front door. _____(8)_____, cats are relatively easy to take care of compared to dogs. You must walk a dog at least twice a day. With house cats, however, all you need to do is to keep the little box clean. Pet lovers choose dogs or cats based on their own personality and preference.

- | | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| (1) a. By the way | b. First of all | c. When |
| (2) a. Though | b. On the other hand | c. First |
| (3) a. Another | b. One | c. Other |
| (4) a. because of | b. because | c. instead of |
| (5) a. For example | b. In addition | c. Moreover |
| (6) a. As | b. In contrast | c. Compared with |
| (7) a. As soon as | b. Until | c. That |
| (8) a. Secondly | b. Finally | c. And |

3. Explain the following terms.

- a. topic sentence
- b. concluding sentence
- c. organization

Appendix B: Rating Criteria

EFL Composition Profile

5 points: Excellent	4 points: Very Good	3 points: Average	2 points: Fair	1 point: Poor
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Criteria	Checklists	Score
Content	Does a writer answer a writing topic appropriately? Is all the necessary information (who, what, where, how) included?	
Organization	Does a draft have a topic sentence? Does a draft develop based on the topic sentence? Are logical connectors used appropriately? Is the order of a draft appropriate?	
Vocabulary	Are the choices of words appropriate? Are a variety of words and expression used?	
Language Use	Is grammar (subject-verb agreement, tense, numeral, article, preposition, pronoun, and reflexive pronoun) accurate?	
Mechanics	Are paragraphing, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization accurate?	
Total (25 points)		

CHAPTER 4

WHAT INFLUENCES THE QUALITY OF JAPANESE COLLEGE STUDENTS' ENGLISH WRITING?

The objective of this research is to correlate the factors that might influence the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English as a foreign language. The factors included students' Japanese descriptive writing, English proficiency, knowledge of English writing, processes of English writing, past instructional and writing experiences of both Japanese and English, and likes and dislikes of writing. Forty five Japanese college students wrote two descriptive writing pieces, one in Japanese and the other in English, and then answered questionnaires. Fourteen of the students also participated in oral interviews. The quantitative analysis suggested that three factors such as Japanese descriptive writing, English proficiency, and knowledge of English writing, influenced the quality of English descriptive writing. Among these factors Japanese descriptive writing correlates most highly to English descriptive writing. In addition, there were also relatively high correlations between the ratings of Content and Organization in Japanese and English writings. The analysis of questionnaires showed that good writers had previously had experience in and instruction on writing, had had feedback from their teachers, and also had opportunities to revise both in Japanese and English. In addition, good writers designed the organization of writing using a separate sheet of paper, and took into account their readers to be.

4-1 INTRODUCTION

Many researches have investigated the L1-L2 relationship in writing. They have compared L1 essays and ESL essays written by groups of students with different L1 backgrounds (Arndt, 1987; Edelsky, 1982; Jones & Teroe, 1987; Hall, 1990; Kaplan, 1966; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1983). However, few researches have investigated the relationship between the Japanese as L1 and the EFL context in a within-subjects design. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) investigated the factors that might influence the quality of Japanese students' persuasive writing in English and later further developed their own study (Hirose & Sasaki, 1994). They found that all of the factors, students' L2

proficiency, L1 writing ability, and metaknowledge, are significant independent variables in explaining L2 writing ability, and there are significant correlations among these variables. They also reveal that good writers and weak writers are significantly different on the following points: (1) good writers paid more attention to overall organization while writing in L1 and L2; (2) good writers wrote more fluently in L1 and L2; (3) good writers had mostly written more than one paragraph as part of their learning experiences.

Similarly, Kamimura (1996) revealed that Japanese college students' writing in English is similar to their writing in their native language both quantitatively and qualitatively. She also finds that the correlations between Japanese and English writing are influenced by the students' English proficiency. She suggests that there might be a threshold English proficiency level (CELT=170)¹⁾; the students above this level could write a composition similarly both in Japanese and English.

Kubota (1998) examines the organization of expository and persuasive writing both in English and Japanese. She reveals a positive correlation between the ratings of writings in these two languages. She explains that lack of English writing experience and language skills cause low ratings for English writing. Her data also show that L1 writing ability, English proficiency and experience in English writing affects the quality of EFL essays. According to Kubota (1998), good essays share some features such as the presence of thesis, summary statements and the use of deductive patterns that set the main idea at the beginning, regardless of mode and language. It means that the good descriptive writing model is common to both in English and in Japanese.

Considering the fact that different modes of writing require different writing ability (Carrell & Connor, 1991; Dvorak, 1987; Koda, 1993), it is necessary to examine whether the same pattern of correlations between the ratings of writing in Japanese and in English will be found in a different mode. Previous studies dealt with expository writing, persuasive writing and narrative writing. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) and Kubota (1998) study the expository and persuasive mode of writing which requires a writer to take a position and to support it. Kamimura (1996) dealt with the narrative mode. The present study, therefore, investigates factors which influence the quality of Japanese college students' writing in a descriptive mode.

4-2 THE PRESENT STUDY

The objective of this research is to examine the correlating factors that might influence the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English as a foreign language. The following three questions form the basis of this study:

Research Questions

- (1) Is there any correlation between the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English and other factors, such as their English proficiency, the quality of their Japanese descriptive writing, and their knowledge of English writing?*
- (2) How do the five criteria (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language use, and Mechanics) on the evaluation of English descriptive writing correlate to those of Japanese descriptive writing²⁾ ?*
- (3) Which characteristics of a writer's (e.g. writing processes, instructional and writing background, and likes and dislikes of writing) determine good and weak descriptive writers of English?*

The first and the second questions were addressed quantitatively, whereas the third question was addressed qualitatively.

4-3 METHOD

Participants

A total of 53 Japanese second-year college students (53 females) majoring in music, participated in the beginning of this study. At the end 45 students remained due to some students' absence from the data-collecting sessions and others' failure to complete a required task. Their ages varied from 19 to 21 years with an average of 19.7 years. They had studied English for 8.0 years on average, mainly through highly controlled formal education in Japan. The majority of them had English proficiency levels that were lower to middle intermediate. Their main goal of studying English was not for academic purpose but communication ones.

Instruments

The instruments consisted of an English proficiency test, a writing background survey, tasks on English and Japanese descriptive writing, questionnaires of writing processes, a test of knowledge of English writing, and oral interviews with good and weak writers. Ratings of the English and Japanese descriptive writings were based on the EFL Composition Profile which is the simplified ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et. al. 1981).

English Proficiency Test

The participants took an English proficiency test (by Kiriwara Shoten) consisting of listening, structure and vocabulary sections with a maximum possible score of 100 points ³⁾.

Writing Background Survey

The students filled out 2 page questionnaires in Japanese on prior writing and instruction experiences, and likes and dislikes of writing both in English and in Japanese (Appendix A).

Writing Tasks

The students wrote descriptively both in English and Japanese. Different writing topics were used to avoid any influence from the participants' first writing on the second writing. Topics on Japanese children's plays familiar to most of the students were chosen for both pieces. In order to avoid a possible order effect, Japanese/English tasks were counterbalanced. Twenty three students wrote in English first, and then in Japanese, while 22 students wrote in Japanese first, and then in English.

The students had 20 minutes to write the Japanese compositions and 40 minutes to write the English compositions. However, the time limit was not very strict. They were allowed to use a dictionary.

Table 4-1: English and Japanese Writing Topics

English Writing Topic	A foreign student, who has been studying in Japan, asked you to explain what “Janken” meant. Explain what “Janken” means and how to play it to the foreign student. Have the student be ready to play “Janken” with other players.
Japanese Writing Topic	A foreign student, who has been studying in Japan, asked you to explain what “Daruma-san ga koronda” ⁴⁾ meant. Explain what “Daruma-san ga koronda” means and how to play it to the foreign student. Have the student be ready to play “Daruma-san ga koronda” with other players.

Questionnaires of Writing Process

The students were asked to answer the questionnaires right after the English and Japanese writings in Japanese (Appendix B). The questions were: (a) whether they did any prewriting activities or not, and when they did, what they planned, (b) what their approach was to keep writing, and whether they applied translation technique from Japanese to English or not, instead of directly writing in English, (c) what kind of things they paid attention to while writing, (d) what kind of things they did after writing.

Test of knowledge of English writing

The students were assessed on knowledge of English writing, such as the topic sentence, the concluding sentence and the organization of English writing. The test consisted of four sections: (a) reading a short paragraph and choosing the best topic and concluding sentences; (b) explaining terms such as the topic sentence and the concluding sentence; (c) reading a short paragraph and choosing the best conjunctions for several blanks; (d) choosing the best organized paragraph from among three alternatives (Appendix C).

Interviews

The good (n=7) and weak (n=7) writers were determined by the ratings of English writings. They were interviewed for about 5 to 10 minutes in Japanese. They were asked whether the tasks were difficult and why, and how they developed their writings. They were also interviewed on their writing products and questionnaires. Each interview was tape-recorded with their prior consent and then transcribed for the analysis.

Ratings of the English and Japanese Descriptive Writing

The descriptive writings in English and Japanese were rated by EFL Composition Profile. It is the simplified ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et al., 1981) which assigned 5 analytical criteria such as Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. The revision of the ESL Composition Profile was undertaken by three experienced Japanese college teachers of English. This was then revised again by two experienced native-speaker English teachers. The revisions and simplifications were made in order to rate the English writing of elementary to intermediate Japanese college students more effectively (Appendix D).

Data Collection

Data were collected in 7 weeks among 24 weeks session. The class was held once a week for 90 minutes. Figure 1 shows the design of the data-collecting sessions.

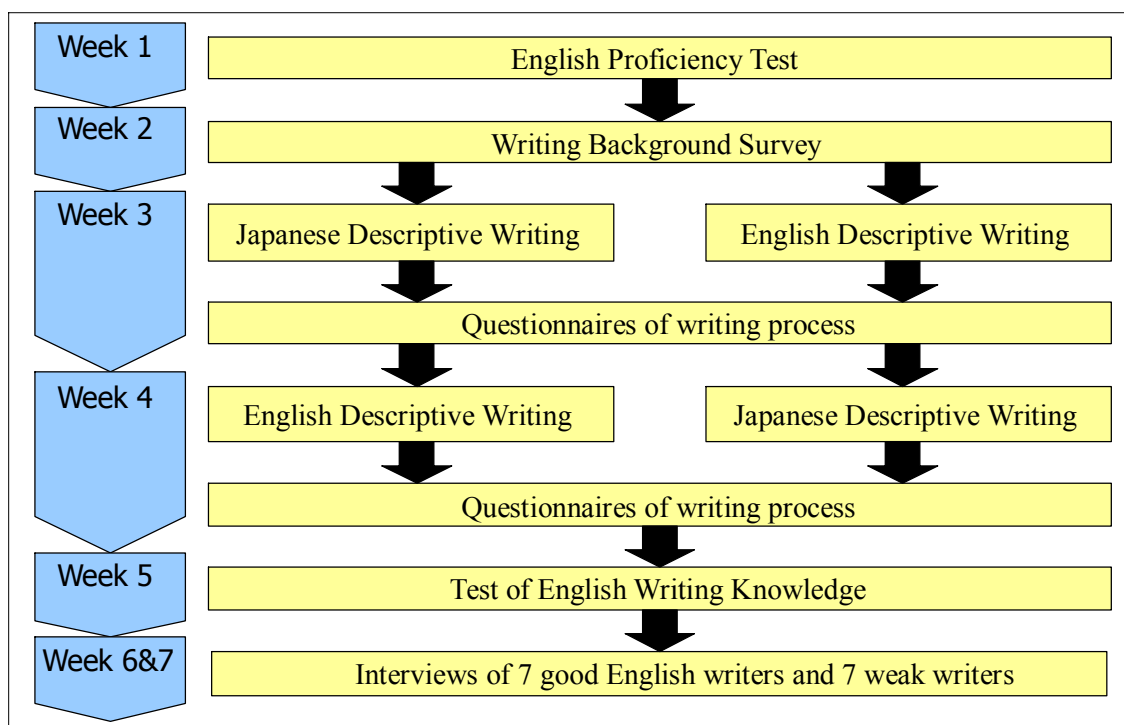


Figure 4-1 : Design of Data Collection

4-4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to determine the decisive factors of the quality of English writing, the correlation between the ratings of the English writing and those of Japanese writing, the results of the English proficiency test and the test for knowledge of English writing were quantitatively analyzed. Each criterion for the evaluation of English and Japanese writing was also examined in the detailed analysis. Then, the characteristics of writers themselves were qualitatively analyzed using descriptive research.

4-4-1 Quantitative Analysis

The English writing was rated by two experienced native-speaker college English teachers, based on the EFL Composition Profile, which is the simplified ESL Composition Profile (Appendix D). Similarly, two Japanese college teachers rated the

Japanese writing using the Japanese counterpart of the simplified ESL Composition Profile. The inter-rater reliability for the ratings of English and Japanese writings was acceptably high (.83 and .89, respectively). Each participant's rating was achieved by averaging two raters' scores. The maximum possible score was 100 points.

Research Question

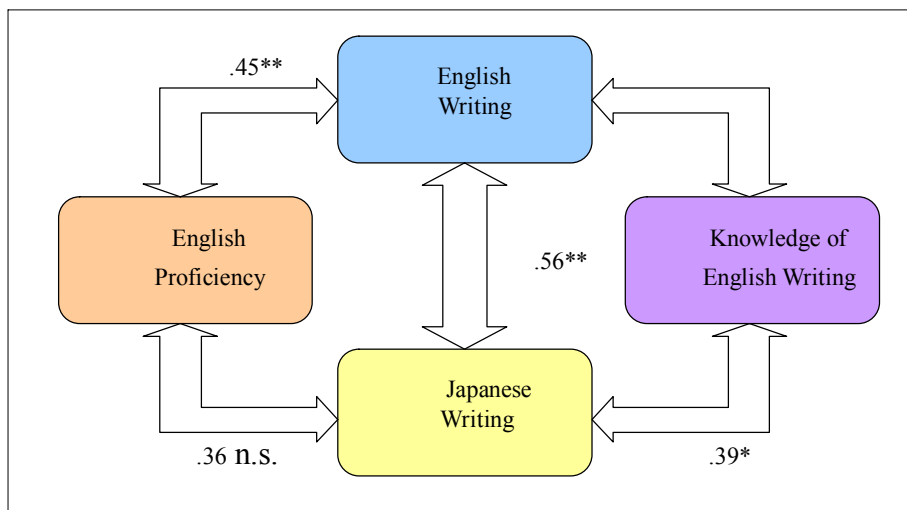
- 1) Is there any correlation between the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English and other factors, such as their English proficiency, the quality of their Japanese descriptive writing, and their knowledge of English writing?***

A Pearson correlation coefficient matrix revealed that three independent variables had positive correlations with English writing (Table 4-2). Among the three of them, the quality of Japanese descriptive writing had the highest correlation with the quality of English descriptive writing (.56), the second was English proficiency (.45), and the third was knowledge of English writing (.34).

Table 4-2: Correlation Matrix for Four Variables

	English Writing	English Proficiency	Knowledge of English Writing	Japanese Writing
English Writing	1			
English Proficiency	.45**	1		
Knowledge of English Writing	.34 n.s.	.38n.s.	1	
Japanese Writing	.56**	.36 n.s.	.39*	1

n=45. *p<.05 **p<.01



n=45. *p<.05 **p<.01

Figure 4-2: Correlation for Four Variables

First of all, among the correlation coefficients of English writing and the other three variables, the highest one was that between English writing and Japanese writing. This suggests that Japanese writing ability contributes to English writing ability. That is, the good Japanese writers may be able to write good English compositions.

The correlation of English descriptive writing and Japanese descriptive writing suggests the existence of “composing competence” that can influence both L1 and L2 (Carson & Kuehn, 1992; Cumming, 1989; Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Kraples, 1990). According to Kraples (1990), the difficulty in writing English is not the problem of insufficient English proficiency, but the problem of insufficient “composition competence.”

Secondly, English proficiency related to the quality of English writing. Students with higher English proficiency tended to write good English compositions, whereas those with lower English proficiency tended to write weak English compositions.

Thirdly, the correlation coefficient between the knowledge of writing and the quality of English writing was relatively low. This means that knowledge of writing did not relate to the quality of English writing strongly. In other words, even if students knew what a topic sentence is, they might not be able to apply that knowledge to their own writing. Knowing about and applying knowledge to writing seemed to be two separate things.

Furthermore several other variables influenced the results of the experiments. One of them was the mode of writing. Koda (1993) mentions that each code requires different cognitive ability. He says that a descriptive mode requires less cognitive ability than a persuasive code. The other factors are the ratings given, and students' English proficiency level. The results of this study differed from those of Sasaki and Hirose (1996) in the strength of correlation coefficients. In their study, about English persuasive writing, students' English proficiency had the highest correlation (.72) and Japanese persuasive writing the second (.43), and metaknowledge of writing the third (.33). The differences in correlation coefficients between the present study and Sasaki and Hirose (1996) might be due to the differences in these variables.

Research Question

2) *How do the five criteria (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language use, and Mechanics) on the evaluation of English descriptive writing correlate to those of Japanese descriptive writing?*

Table 4-3 reveals correlations of the five criteria between the ratings of English writing and Japanese writing. Among them, the ratings of Content and Organization in English and Japanese were relatively highly correlated (.55, .63 respectively).

The results showed that if students could earn good ratings in Content and Organization in the Japanese writing they were likely to earn good ratings in those areas of the English writing. In other words, if students were good at generating their thoughts and organizing them in Japanese, they would also be good at the same thing in English.

Table 4-3: Correlations of 5 Criteria between the ratings of English and Japanese Writings

		English Writing				
		Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Language Use	Mechanics
Japanese Writing	Content	.55**				
	Organization	.49**	.63**			
	Vocabulary	.23	.30	.37		
	Language Use	.18	.23	.19	.33	
	Mechanics	.16	.19	.09	.26	.40*

n=45. *p<.05 **p<.01

4-4-2 Qualitative Analysis

The top and bottom 15% of the students (7 students out of 45 students) were chosen as “good” writers and “weak” writers respectively by the ratings of English descriptive writing. The results of t-tests showed that the good writers obtained significantly better ratings in Japanese writing, the English proficiency test, and the knowledge of English writing test than weak writers. However, difference could not be found in age, in length of studying English in Japan, and in the period of studying abroad (Table 4-4).

Table 4-4: The Good and Weak English Writers’ Characteristics

	Total Possible	Good (n=7)		Weak (n=7)		t-value
		M	SD	M	SD	
English Writing	100	78.00	6.19	52.57	6.32	**
English Proficiency Test	100	78.14	11.85	58.71	5.44	**
Knowledge of English Writing	100	84.29	9.98	63.93	9.65	**
Japanese Writing	100	81.36	12.90	56.57	14.97	*
Age		19.64	0.69	20.14	1.33	n.s.
Years of English Instruction		8.46	2.30	7.49	0.49	n.s.
Weeks of studying abroad		0.75	0.28	2.21	1.29	n.s.

*p<.05 **p<.01

Research Question

3) Which writer's characteristics (e.g. writing processes, instructional and writing background, and likes and dislikes of writing) determine the good and weak descriptive writers of English?

Questionnaires of all participants and interviews of the good and weak writers (each n=7) revealed significant differences in writing background, writing processes, and a liking or disliking for writing.

Writing Background

The good and weak writers differed significantly in writing background. The good writers: (a) regularly practiced Japanese writing in high school; (b) regularly practiced English writing either in high school or freshman English class in college; (c) were fond of writing both in English and Japanese (Tables 4-5 & 4-6).

Regarding Japanese writing background, 86% of the good writers had practiced Japanese writing more than 6 times a year with 4 pages or more in high school. They had learned how to generate ideas and organize their writing (introduction, body and conclusion) and received teachers' feedback in a variety of subjects such as Japanese, social studies, home economics, and science. In addition, 57% of them revised their writings after getting teachers' feedback.

However, only 57% of the weak writers had written compositions twice a year and about 2 pages at a time in high school. Their experience was limited to writing "Kansobun" in Japanese which are personal impressions of materials after reading. Forty three percent (43%) of the weak writers had not written any compositions in high school. In high school, only 14 % of those had learned the organization of writing, but none of them had had feedback from their teachers or gained opportunities for revision.

In college, all of the good and weak writers wrote in Japanese in various subjects such as Education, History of Western Music, and Psychology. Twenty eight percent (28%) of both the good and weak writers received writing instruction and 14% of the good writers received feedback from their teachers, but none of the weak writers received feedback. However, none of them were given opportunities to revise their essays after the teacher's feedback.

Regarding English writing background, all of the good writers had learned paragraph or essay writing either in high school or college. Similarly, they had writing

instruction, teachers' feedback and opportunities to revise after gaining feedback either in high school or college. Eighty six percent (86 %) of them had written more than 10 times a year and about 100 to 150 words at a time.

However, 86% of the weak writers had no experience of writing a paragraph either in high school or college. All of the weak writers' experience of writing in high school was limited to translating Japanese to English. Only 14% of them had had English writing experience with instruction, feedback and revision in college.

Fifty-six percent (56%) of the good writers who had experienced Japanese writing, feedback, and revision in high school said that they felt it was quite natural to move into English writing in college. They were used to revision after gaining feedback from a teacher. However, 14% of the weak writers who had never gained feedback and revision in Japanese writing in high school felt it was just a bother when they were asked to revise English writing in college.

Table 4-5: The Number of Good English Writers Who Had Writing Experience, Instruction, Feedback and Revision

		High school	College
Japanese Writing	Had experience	6	7
	Had Instruction	6	2
	Had Feedback	6	2
	Revised	4	0
English Writing	Had experience	2	5
	Had Instruction	2	5
	Had Feedback	2	5
	Revised	2	5

n=7

Table 4-6: The Number of Weak English Writers Who Had Writing Experience, Instruction, Feedback and Revision

		High school	College
Japanese Writing	Had experience	4	7
	Had Instruction	1	2
	Had Feedback	0	0
	Revised	0	0
English Writing	Had experience	0	1
	Had Instruction	0	1
	Had Feedback	0	1
	Revised	0	1

n=7

Writing Processes

The good and weak writers were significantly different in their English writing processes. The good writers: (a) planned their organization using a separate sheet of paper; (b) basically thought in English; (c) were aware of their readers.

Both good and weak writers took time to plan the organization before writing, however what they did in planning differed. Seventy one percent (71%) of the good writers wrote down the whole outline and overview of their organization on a separate sheet of paper. Twenty nine percent (29%) of the good writers drew pictures or diagrams, and another 29% made a list of notes. By contrast, 86% of the weak writers planned only mentally and 14% of them alone wrote down a plan by illustrating their whole organization using a separate sheet of paper (Table 4-7).

Both writing groups were different in their use of Japanese. Eighty six percent (86%) of the good writers basically thought in English. They tended to produce English sentences while thinking in English, and when they faced difficult words or expressions, they switched to Japanese. Only 14% of them wrote Japanese scripts first and used translation. By contrast, 86% of the weak writers wrote Japanese scripts first and translated them into English word by word or sentence by sentence (Table 4-8).

During writing, 86% of the good writers frequently referred to the notes which they had prepared before writing and tried to keep their whole organization in mind. They also reread the writing. On the other hand, the weak writers kept translating their Japanese scripts without thinking about the whole organization.

With respect to the awareness of readers, 71% of the good writers were conscious that the reader was a foreign student who did not know the game at all and they kept finding better ways to get their meaning across. They imagined what kind of information the readers needed to know and tried to find the best sequence of instructions. However, none of the weak writers mentioned their readers or the intelligibility of their information (Table 4-9).

In their reports of what they did after writing, the good and the weak writers did not differ significantly. Seventy one percent (71%) of the good writers and 86% of the weak writers did not reread after writing, because of time shortage (Table 4-10).

Table 4-7: The Number of Good and Weak English Writers
in Prewriting Activities

	Good Writers (n=7)	Weak Writers (n=7)
Designed the whole organization.	7	7
Used a separate sheet of paper	6	1
Drew pictures or diagrams	2	1
Made a list of notes	2	0
Thought only in mind	1	6

Table 4-8: The Number of Good and Weak English Writers
Who Translated from Japanese to English

	Good Writers (n=7)	Weak Writers (n=7)
Translated from Japanese to English	1	6

Table 4-9: The Number of Good and Weak English Writers' Activities
While in their Writing

	Good Writers (n=7)	Weak Writers (n=7)
Thinking the whole organization	6	1
Being aware of the readers to be	5	0

Table 4-10: The Number of Good and Weak English Writers' Activities
after Writing their Writing

	Good Writers (n=7)	Weak Writers (n=7)
Reread after writing	2	1

Attitudes to writing - Likes and Dislikes

With respect to their liking for or dislike of writing, fifty seven percent (57%) of the good writers said they were fond of writing and enjoyed it, whereas the weak writers said they did not like it. Fifty seven percent (57%) of the good writers wrote a personal diary and enjoyed expressing themselves in writing. Their experience was that writing improved their thinking. Forty three percent (43%) of them were interested in composing creative writing, such as poetry and short stories. On the other hand, 86% of the weak writers did not enjoy writing whatever the topic was. Forty three percent (43%) of them thought that they were bad at explaining, and 29% of them thought they were bad at expressing themselves (Table 4-11).

As shown in the above, qualitative analysis revealed several important points. First, the result of the survey of writing background both in Japanese and English revealed that when they received writing instruction and wrote in Japanese and in English good writers diverged from weak writers. The good writers had received writing instruction and feedback from their teachers in Japanese in high school, whereas no weak writers did. The good writers also had experience of writing English compositions and of revision either in high school or college. This implies that the weak writers might become more proficient if they are the same opportunities, as Hirose (1999) suggested.

Secondly, the survey of writing processes revealed the writing strategies of the good writers and weak writers. It is said that good writers' composing processes are characterized by their concern with overall organization before and while writing in L1/L2 (Cumming, 1989; Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Reid, 1984). In this study, both the good and weak writers took time to plan their organization before writing; however what they did in planning differed. The good writers wrote down the whole overview of their organization on a separate sheet of paper, whereas the weak writers tried to do this mentally instead. The result is consistent with Hayes and Flower's finding that writing experts devote much more thought to organization (1984). The present study also found that the good writers' devotion to organization was stronger than that of the weak writers. While writing, good writers were also conscious of their readers to be and tried to find a way to get their meaning across. This concurs with the finding by Pianko (1979). In contrast, the weak writers did not pay attention to the content or how intelligible their writing was to a reader.

Table 4-11: The Number of Good and Weak English Writers
Who Liked and Enjoyed Writing

	Good Writers (n=7)	Weak Writers (n=7)
Liked writing	4	1
Enjoyed expressing themselves	4	0

4-5 CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

I started this study, aiming to measure what influences the quality of English descriptive writing, assuming that good English descriptive writers are good Japanese descriptive writers and that such writers have prior instructional and writing experiences in Japanese and in English. To some extent, my belief was confirmed by the present study. It revealed as follows:

- (1) There were correlations between the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English and other factors, such as their English proficiency, the quality of their Japanese descriptive writing, and their knowledge of English writing.
- (2) Among the three factors, the quality of Japanese descriptive writing correlated most highly to the quality of English descriptive writing.
- (3) There were relatively high correlations between ratings of Content and Organization in Japanese and English writings.
- (4) The good writers had had instruction and experiences of writing both in Japanese and English. In addition, the good writers planned writing using a separate sheet of paper and took into account their readers to be, whereas weak writers planned the organization only mentally, without taking into account their readers.

The results of ratings for writing, questionnaires, and interviews have some implications for teaching English writing:

- (1) Weak English writers might become more proficient by being given opportunities to have more writing experience, instruction, feedback, and revision in Japanese at high school and in English at college. Frequency of writing should also be considered to improve the weak writers' composition.
- (2) In order to improve the work of weak English writers', instruction about how to generate their ideas using a separate sheet of paper before writing and about awareness of their readers appears to be very important.
- (3) If teachers both in high school and college could cooperate beyond language and subject boundaries, they might be able to improve students' composing competence. Teachers in various subjects might be better able to give students opportunities to write and revise in response to feedback.

However, there were some limitations in the present study in terms of the sample size and the number of raters. Firstly, the number of students was not large enough to generalize the results. Secondly, there were only two raters of English and two raters of Japanese writing. In order to increase validity, the number of raters would, ideally, be four or more.

This study posits further research questions. First, the present study dealt with only a descriptive mode of writing. We need to examine whether patterns of correlations between Japanese and English writing may also be similar, when the same participants use various other modes of writing. Secondly, we also need to examine in detail the content of instruction in teaching writing both in Japanese and English at high school and college.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This article is an elaborated version of the paper presented by the author at the 2004 Asia TEFL International Conference in Seoul.

Notes

¹⁾ CELT=the Comprehensive English Language Test (Harris & Palmer, 1986).

²⁾ The five criteria are based on those of the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et. al, 1990).

³⁾ The English Proficiency test (Kiriwara Shoten) was not a standardized test like CELT which Kamimura and Sasaki & Hirose used. Because this test was done in all classes of the college in which the present study was carried out, it was impossible to have the participants take another test due to the course schedule.

⁴⁾ Darumasan ga koronda = The Dharma falls over: It is a game to play with more than four members. A tagger stands at a tree or a pillar and the other players wait about ten meters away from the tagger. If a player moves when the tagger's eyes are on him/her, the tagger will call the name of the child who moved. The tagger will take the child who moved's hand. If some members approach without being seen by the tagger they can disconnect the hands of the tagger and the child who was caught.

APPENDIX A: A Survey of Writing Background (Excerpt)*

About Studying in English

1. So far how many years have you studied English at school?
2. Have you studied in an English speaking country? If so, when, where, and for how long? What did you study?
3. Do you want to master English?
4. What is your goal in studying English?

About Writing in Japanese

1. In high school

(1) Which of following kinds of writing did you do?

- a. “Kansobun” (personal impressions on materials read)
- b. literary work (stories, poems)
- c. summaries or paraphrases of materials read
- d. “Shoronbun” or “Report” (short papers)
- e. other (Please specify _____)

(2) If you have written one or more of the writings, please explain in detail.

Kinds of writing	
Name of subject	
Theme of writing	
Amount(pages)	
Frequency in a year	
Did you get any instruction before writing? ^{a)}	Yes / No
Did you get any feedback from a teacher? ^{b)}	Yes / No
How difficult is it for you to write? 1:very difficult 5:not at all difficult ^{c)}	

^{a)} If you got any instruction before writing, what kind of instruction was it? Please explain in detail.

^{b)} If you got any feedback from a teacher after writing, what kind of feedback was it? Please explain in detail.

Did you revise your writing after you got feedback?

^{c)} If you answer that it was difficult or very difficult to write, please explain when and why it was difficult.

(1) When was it difficult?

- a. Before writing. b. While you were writing. c. When you were revising.

(2) Why was it difficult? (Check all that apply.)

- a. I didn't know what I should write. (Content)
b. I didn't know how to write.
c. I didn't know how to organize. (Organization)
d. I didn't know the vocabulary.
e. I couldn't write long. It was difficult to write the required amount.
f. Other (Please specify.)

2. In college **

About Writing in English***

* The original version of the survey was written in Japanese.

** *** It was almost the same as the questions "About Writing in Japanese" in high school.

APPENDIX B: Post-writing Questionnaires of Writing Processes for English Writing

Before Writing

1. Did you start writing right away? Yes / No
2. If no, what did you do? Explain what you did. (e.g. I wrote the outline.)

In Writing

1. How did you keep on writing? Check all that apply.
 - a. I generated ideas in Japanese first, then translated them into English.
 - b. I directly wrote in English.
 - c. I wrote with overall organization in mind.
 - d. When I had a problem, I stopped and thought for a while.
 - e. When I had a problem, I continued writing, and later went back to the problem.
 - g. Other (Please specify.)
2. While you were writing, about what did you pay attention to?

After Writing

What did you do after writing? Explain what you did.

(e.g. I did nothing once I finished writing. I reread to check whether spelling was correct.)

APPENDIX C: A Test of Knowledge on English Writing (Excerpt)

1. Choose the most appropriate topic sentence and concluding sentence for the blank.

_____(1)_____. You can use the Internet to find information about travel destinations. You can easily check flight information and book your accommodations online. You can even access information about the airports you will be using for your trip. _____(2)_____.

(1) Topic Sentence

- a. The Internet is useful for making travel arrangements.
- b. You can reserve your flight and hotel over the Internet.
- c. The Internet is easy to use.

(2) Concluding Sentence

- a. The Internet is easy to use, and we can do many things with it.
- b. The Internet has a great future, and people need to know how to use it.
- c. Thus, it is very convenient to use the Internet when we make travel arrangements.

2. Fill in the blanks.

The Differences between Dogs and Cats

The most popular types of pets are dogs and cats. Let's look at some basic differences between them. _____(1)_____, cats are very independent. They can survive on their own. That is, they do not necessarily need humans to take care of them. _____(2)_____, dogs are very dependent on humans. They need people to take care of them and to feed them. _____(3)_____ difference is closely related to the first. Cats usually act according to their own wishes _____(4)_____ they are independent. _____(5)_____, when the owner comes home, the cat may or may not greet him/her. _____(6)_____, dogs are very eager to please humans. _____(7)_____ they hear the owner's footsteps, dogs almost always rush to the front door. _____(8)_____, cats are relatively easy to take care of compared to dogs. You must walk a dog at least twice a day. With house cats, however, all you need to do is to keep the little box clean. Pet lovers choose dogs or cats based on their own personality and preference.

- | | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| (1) a. By the way | b. First of all | c. When |
| (2) a. Though | b. On the other hand | c. First |
| (3) a. Another | b. One | c. Other |
| (4) a. because of | b. because | c. instead of |
| (5) a. For example | b. In addition | c. Moreover |
| (6) a. As | b. In contrast | c. Compared with |
| (7) a. As soon as | b. Until | c. That |
| (8) a. Secondly | b. Finally | c. And |

3. Explain the following terms.

- a. topic sentence
- b. concluding sentence
- c. organization

APPENDIX D: Rating Criteria of English Writing

EFL Composition Profile

5points: Excellent	4 points: Very Good	3 points: Satisfactory	2 points: Fair	1 point: Poor
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Criteria	Checklists	Score: Weighting
Content	- Does a writer answer a writing topic appropriately? - Is all the necessary information (who, what, where, how) included? - Do you think the foreign student who reads the description will be able to play “Janken”?	(Points)×6
Organization	- Does a description have a topic sentence? - Does a description develop based on the topic sentence? - Are logical connectors used appropriately? - Is the order of description appropriate?	(Points)×4
Vocabulary	- Are the choices of words appropriate? - Are a variety of words and expression used?	(Points)×4
Language Use	Is grammar (subject-verb agreement, tense, number, article, preposition, pronoun) accurate?	(Points)×5
Mechanics	Are paragraphing, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization accurate?	(Points)×1

*5 criteria and the weighting of each criterion were based on ESL Composition Profile.

APPENDIX E : Samples of Student English Writings

Good Writer

I am going to explain “Janken”. “Janken” is used in case we have to decide something which we can’t decide in a logical way.

There are three signs. We say “Rock”, “Scissors”, “Paper”, when we explain to foreign people. If you want to make “Rock”, you just grip your hand. If you want to make “Scissors”, make “Rock” and then put out forefinger and middle finger. “Paper” is easy to make, because you just put our your hand.

The three signs has equal power. “Rock” is stronger than “Scissors”, but weaker than “Paper”. “Scissors” are stronger than “Paper”. This is a rule of “Janken”. For example, if you put out “Rock” and others put out “Scissors”, you will win.

“Janken” is also used in case we make a group. For instance, in a school, we often divide the class. “Janken” has three signs, so we use “Janken” and divide the class into three groups.

“Janken” is very useful. Probably there are more use, so try “Janken” and find out another interesting use of it.

Weak Writer

Janken is means of useful. Because it clear to win and loss only one hand. Speedy character is three ways. “Gu” “Choki” and “Pa”. “Gu” mean a rock. “Choki” means scissors. And “pa” means paper.

For example, “Gu” and “Choki”, winer is “Gu”. Because scissors couldn’t cut rock. And “Choki” and “Pa” pattern. winer is “choki”. Because scissors could cut paper. Finally, “Pa” and “Gu” winer is “pa”. Because paper could wrap rock.

Next, explanation of hand form. “Gu” is like take something hand, “Choki” from is peace sign or V sign. “Pa” is the flat of the hand unfold. Outside of clear to win and loss. They formed themselves in groups of two or three.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF PRE-WRITING WORKSHEETS

Usually, good writers will plan their organization and focus on the content of their piece before they start writing and for that reason beginning English writers should also acquire planning skills if they wish to progress. In light of this, the author developed specialized training materials designed for beginners and based on the Process Approach. These materials provide writing guidelines that assist students in focusing on the organization and content of their piece. The researcher then investigated whether these worksheets actually improved the writing quality, in terms of content and organization, of beginning English writers. In order to do this, a study was conducted using 61 students who were each asked to write an essay. Of these students, 35 used the writing guideline worksheets and 25 did not. Later quantitative and qualitative analysis of the study results showed that those students who had used the worksheets not only scored higher in content and organization, but also wrote more words and finished more quickly than those students who did not use them.

5-1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 investigated the correlating factors that might influence the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English as a foreign language. These factors included students' Japanese descriptive writing, English proficiency, and knowledge of English writing. The quantitative analysis suggested that it was these three factors that most influenced the quality of English descriptive writing. Among them, Japanese descriptive writing correlates most highly to English descriptive writing. In addition, there were also relatively high correlations between the ratings of content and organization in Japanese and English writing.

In Chapter 4 it was shown that the good writers had gained experience of and instruction in writing, feedback from the teachers, and also opportunities to revise both in Japanese and English. In addition, the survey of writing processes revealed the writing strategies of the good writers and weak writers. Both the good and weak writers

took time to plan their organization before writing; however what they did in planning differed. The good writers wrote down the whole outline of their organization on a separate sheet of paper, whereas the weak writers only thought about it.

Much research has revealed the characteristics of good writers. For example, good writers make a plan before writing (Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Lay, 1982) and make use of first language in their pre-writing activity (Friendlander, 1990; Lay, 1982). After writing, they reread from the viewpoints of the audience (Zamel, 1983; Cumming, 1989), and they also revise and edit (Hirose, 1999). When good writers revise, their focus is at content level (Zamel, 1983).

It is therefore profitable to apply the findings of previous studies and develop specialized training materials based on the Process Approach if we wish to improve students' writing. As previously mentioned these writing materials were designed for beginners and provide writing exercises and guidelines that assist students in focusing on the organization and content of their piece. Students used the guideline worksheets eight times in eight class sessions. Finally, whether these materials actually improve the content and organization, of beginning English writers was investigated.

5-2 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES FOR WRITING

Because very few other resources are available it was necessary to develop new materials for teaching writing to non-English major students who had never experienced writing and writing instruction in their high school. We developed the writing resource "Write from Your Heart" for beginner English writers and based it on the Process Approach (Uesugi & Nakanishi, 2004: Appendix A).

The characteristics of the resource materials are the following:

① Object

The object of the material is to assist learners to communicate with others in writing. In other words it is to have them express themselves effectively using concrete examples such as their own experiences, anecdotes, and opinions and have their readers understand their intentions.

② Modes and Topics

The modes are limited to narrative, descriptive, and informative. Topics familiar to learners are carefully chosen.

③ Reading and Exercises

Actual students' writing samples, essays, and conversations on the topics are used as reading materials. In exercises, the learners are expected to read and analyze these samples first. They are expected to identify topic sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentences. They also have to check whether the topic sentence develops and whether concrete examples are used and are appropriate to explain the topic sentence. Then the learners study vocabulary and grammar for the assigned topic.

④ Pre-writing worksheet

As a pre-writing activity, the learners plan content and organization by filling in a pre-writing worksheet. They have to write a topic sentence which is a focus for their essay in the beginning. Based on the topic sentence the learners have to think of appropriate examples, such as their own experiences, anecdotes and opinions and take into account readers-to-be. Though they are allowed to use Japanese in planning, they are not supposed to write the whole essay in Japanese. They are expected to think in English basically and translation is not allowed.

⑤ Writing

While they are writing, they are expected to check their overall organization by referring to the guidelines in the pre-writing worksheet. They write first drafts in their textbook.

⑥ Clean Copy

Students make a clean copy Based on the first draft and hand it in to a teacher.

⑦ Self-feedback

The learners reread their writing using guideline checkpoints to edit their work.

5-3 EVALUATION OF THE USE OF PRE-WRITING WORKSHEETS

The effect of using the pre-writing guideline worksheets for teaching writing to beginners was examined. The investigation was carried out focusing on the students' ninth piece of writing. The following three questions form the basis of this study:

Research Questions

- 1) Are there any differences in the quality, quantity and the time required to write between those who chose to use pre-writing worksheets and those who did not choose to use them?*
- 2) Are there any differences in the quality, quantity and the time required between current and past writing of students who voluntarily used these writing worksheets and those who chose not to use them?*
- 3) What did students think of using the worksheets as a pre-writing activity?*

5-4 METHOD

Participants

A total of 83 (Male: 12, Female: 71) Japanese first-year college students majoring in music, participated in the study. Ultimately there were only 61 students who handed in their tasks in the required time. Their average age was 18.9 years. They had studied English for 6.2 years on average, through highly controlled formal education in Japan. For the majority, their English proficiency level was elementary to middle intermediate. Their main goal of studying English was not for academic purposes but for communication ones. Fifty-three students (64%) had experienced writing in their junior and high schools, but only thirty-six students (23%) had experienced writing more than 50 words at a time and only nine students (11%) had had instruction in writing.

Instruments

Writing Topic

The instruments consisted of nine writing topics. Eight of them were in narrative, informative, and descriptive modes. The ninth writing topic required students to state an opinion and support a particular point of view. The wording of the topic was as follows:

What do you think about your uniforms? Explain your opinion of junior high school uniforms. Use specific reasons and experiences to support your opinion.

Questionnaires

The questions were related to: (a) whether they thought they could write as they had planned and why or why not, (b) whether they thought worksheets were useful and why or why not.

Field notes

I observed and recorded what the students were doing and how they were doing it while they were writing the ninth topic. Each student's finishing time was also recorded.

Rating

The writings were rated by EFL Composition Profile, which was the simplified

ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et. al. 1981) which assigned grades using 5 analytical criteria which were labeled Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. Two Japanese college English teachers rated all writings and the inter-rater reliability was 0.86 (Spearman Brown).

Procedure

- 1) The students were required to complete eight writing topics after working through the learning resources materials for each one and filling in the pre-writing worksheets
- 2) The students were allowed to choose whether to use pre-writing worksheets or not to prepare for the ninth task.
- 3) The students were asked to answer the questionnaires in Japanese right after the ninth task.

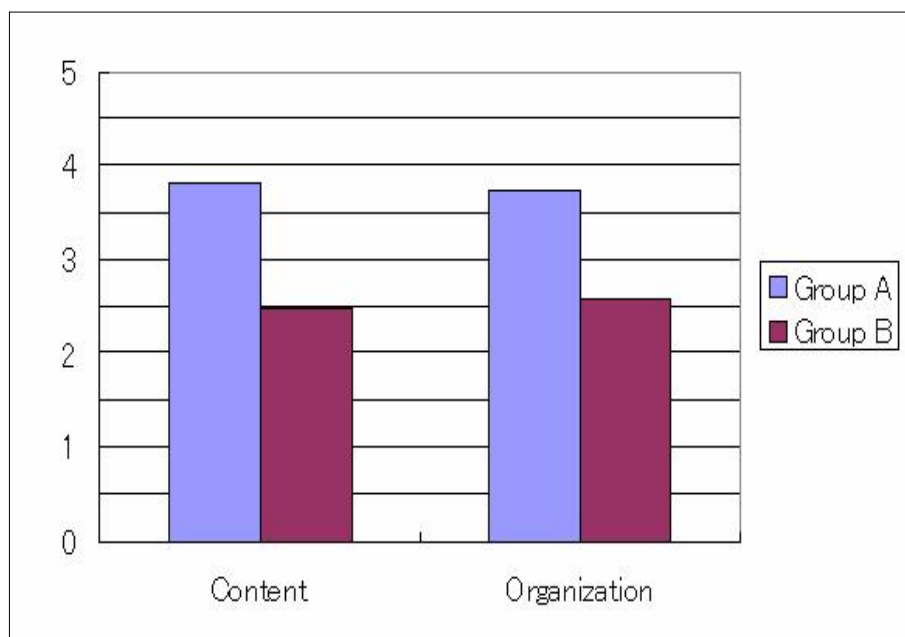
5-5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sixty-one students submitted their ninth writing topic after 60 minutes work. Among them, thirty-six students had chosen to complete pre-writing activities assisted by a worksheet. Twenty-five of them did not choose to do so. In this chapter the former group is called Group A and the latter, Group B.

Research Question

- 1) *Are there any differences in the quality, quantity and the time required to write between those who chose to use pre-writing worksheets and those who did not choose to use them?*

Two raters' average scores of content and organization of Group A and Group B's ninth pieces of writing and t-values were calculated. In content, the average score of Group A was 3.82 and that of Group B was 2.48. In organization, the average score of Group A was 3.74 and that of Group B was 2.56. T-values showed that the scores of Group A and B were significantly different for content: $t(58)=7.52$, $p<.01$ and organization: $t(58)=6.64$, $p<.01$. (Figure 5-1).



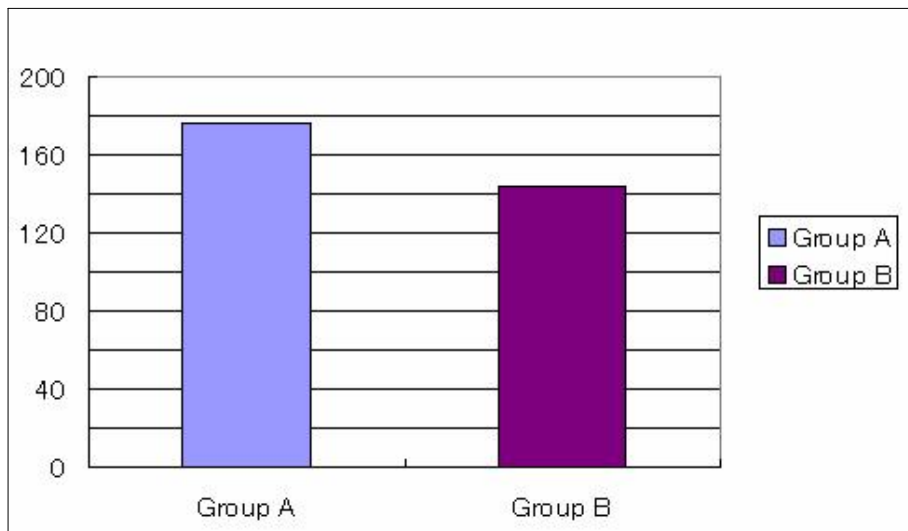
Group A: $n=36$, Group B: $n=25$, Content: $t(58)=7.52$, $p<.01$,
 Organization: $t(58)=6.64$, $p<.01$

Figure 5-1: Comparison of Scores in Content and Organization

Then the number of words in the ninth piece of writing by Group A and B were counted. The average number of words for Group A was 176.62 and for Group B was 144.20. The average number of words used by Group A was significantly different from Group B ($t(58)=2.28$, $p<.05$) (Figure 5-2).

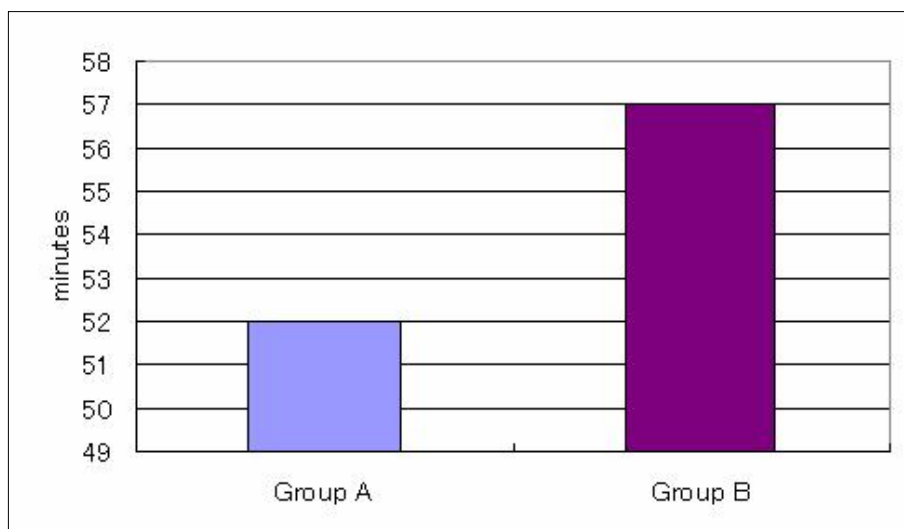
Thirdly, the average time both groups required to finish writing was calculated and compared. The average time by Group A required was 52 minutes, while Group B required 57 minutes on average (Figure 5-3).

As is shown in the above, the average scores of content and organization, and the number of words and required time were significantly different for Group A and Group B. It was obvious that the students who chose to use writing worksheets in the ninth task scored higher in content and organization wrote more words and finished in a shorter time than the students who did not choose to use them.



Group A: $n=36$, Group B: $n=25$, $t(58)=2.28$, $p<.05$.

Figure 5-2: Comparison of Number of Words



Group A: $n=36$, Group B: $n=25$, $t(58)=2.64$, $p<.05$

Figure 5-3: Comparison of Required Writing Time

Research Question

- 2) *Are there any differences in the quality, quantity and the time required between current and past writing of students who voluntarily used these writing worksheets and those who chose not to use them?*

Students past writing records (first to eighth writing topics) were analyzed based on whether they chose to use or did not choose to use guideline pre-writing worksheets in the ninth topic (Table 5-1). The results are as follows:

In a comparison of the scores and number of words used by Group A and B from the first to the eighth writing topic, Group A scored higher as time went on. In the beginning there were no differences in scores of content and organization. However, the scores in content from fifth to eighth writing topics were significantly different between the two groups. The organization scores of the two groups were also significantly different in the sixth and seventh writing topics.

These results showed that writing guideline worksheets were appropriate learning materials for students of Group A. Using the worksheets to help pre-writing activity appeared to help in planning content and organization and helped the students to think and write better.

Table 5-1: Comparison of Scores and Number of words between
Group A and B

		No. 9		No. 1		No. 2	
		A	B	A	B	A	B
Content	Ave.	3.82	2.48	1.8	1.68	2.57	2.32
	S.D.	0.74	0.7	0.72	0.85	0.74	0.63
	t-value	p< 0.01		ns		ns	
Organization	Ave.	3.74	2.56	1.38	1.4	2.31	2.28
	S.D.	0.78	0.5	0.55	0.65	0.68	1.06
	t-value	p < 0.01		ns		ns	
Number of Words	Ave.	176.62	144.2	40.71	43.24	56.5	59.84
	S.D.	47.87	54.64	19.89	15.89	21.25	20.18
	t-value	p < 0.01		ns		ns	

		No. 3		No. 4		No. 5	
		A	B	A	B	A	B
Content	Ave.	2.23	1.88	3.29	2.92	2.89	2.16
	S.D.	1.06	1.2	0.96	1.08	1.05	0.99
	t-value	ns		ns		p< 0.01	
Organization	Ave.	2.76	2.69	3	3.16	3.06	2.6
	S.D.	0.92	0.94	1.16	1.31	1.08	1.19
	t-value	ns		ns		ns	
Number of Words	Ave.	86.69	90.8	95.29	98.6	100.4	97.24
	S.D.	18.93	33.65	22.56	23.11	30.14	22.54
	t-value	ns		ns		ns	

		No. 6		No. 7		No. 8	
		A	B	A	B	A	B
Content	Ave.	4.31	3.76	3.91	3.32	4.26	3.81
	S.D.	0.83	0.72	1.01	0.69	0.66	0.9
	t-value	p < 0.01		p< 0.01		p< 0.01	
Organization	Ave.	4.2	3.96	4.03	3.54	4	3.8
	S.D.	0.83	0.84	0.63	0.81	0.8	0.91
	t-value	p< 0.01		p< 0.01		ns	
Number of Words	Ave.	114.23	105.68	131.25	123.68	134.26	123.12
	S.D.	25.5	32.96	53.74	44.84	40.88	49.65
	t-value	ns		ns		p< 0.01	

ns: not significant

Research Question

3) *What did students think of using the worksheets as a pre-writing activity?*

Students' Reflection on their Ninth Writing Task

The questionnaires showed that 22 students (62%) of Group A thought they could write as they were expected to or they could mostly write as expected, whereas only 9 students (36%) from group B thought in the same way. On the other hand, 14 students (38%) of Group A thought they could not cope with the task. 16 students (62%) of Group B also thought they could not do the task well (Figure 5-4).

The students who answered that they could not write as they had expected explained their reasons. The two reasons given most were that “they could not form an opinion” and “they could not develop a topic sentence because they could not think of good reasoning”.

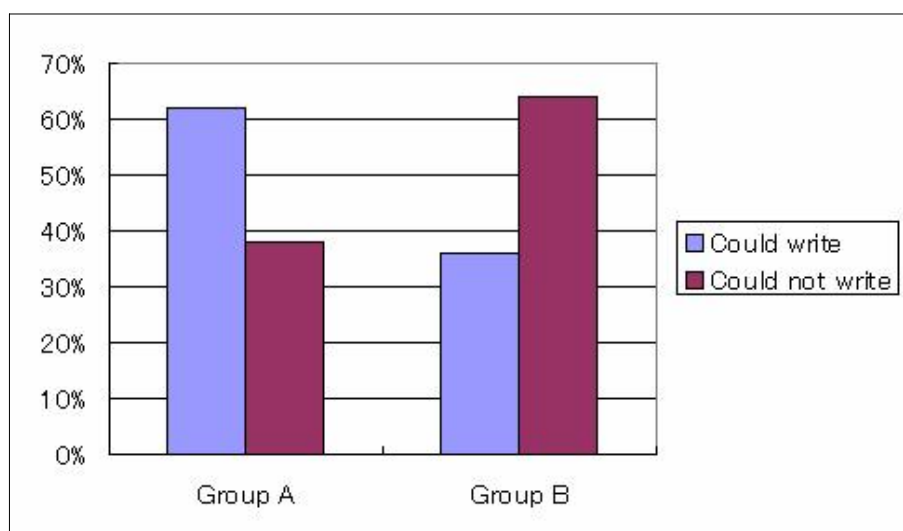


Figure 5-4: Comparison of Students' Reflection about their Ninth Writing Piece

Usefulness of the Worksheets

38 students (62%) of all the participants answered that the writing guideline worksheet was useful in planning the content and organization. Some of the comments were as follows: “Worksheets help writing better.” “By spending enough time on worksheet, writing goes smoothly.” “Following the order of worksheets, I could write an essay in English logic.”

On the other hand, 10 of the students (16 %) answered that the writing guideline worksheet was not useful. There were mainly three types of responses from students who thought this. One group thought that the worksheets were complicated and time-consuming. These students also felt writing itself was complicated and time-consuming. Another group of students said they just planned their essays mentally and they did not need to fill in a worksheet to plan. The other students pointed out a fault in the worksheet content by complaining it did not help them to check the appropriateness of a topic sentence.

It seemed that the students who were accustomed to planning the content and organization using the writing guides in the worksheets thought they could write or could mostly write as they were expected to. They appeared to think a worksheet was useful in helping to plan their whole organization. They also believed it was important not to jump into writing but to spend time planning beforehand.

5-6 CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The previous studies show that good writers and weak writers are very different in their pre-writing activity. While good writers take time to plan, weak writers jump into writing. The present study introduced good writers' pre-writing activity to beginning writers' by making use of writing guideline worksheets. Then the students were asked to use them for their first to eighth writing topics. In their ninth piece of writing, the students were allowed to choose whether to use Worksheet or not. The result was that those who chose to use them scored better in content & organization, wrote more words, and finished writing in a shorter time. Writing Worksheets taken from the teacher publication "Write from your Heart" and used as a resource to teach writing appeared to be useful in increasing the quality and quantity of students' writing. In addition analysis of the scores of past writing pieces based on the sixth to the eighth writing topics showed the students who chose to use the writing Worksheets scored higher in content and organization than those who did not choose to use them. It appears then that Worksheets played an important role in pre-writing activity for users.

It could be argued that using a pre-writing guideline Worksheet matches the learning style of students' who chose to use it and this was directly related to learning effects.

On the other hand, there was a limit to the effect of Worksheet use. First, for some students, using guideline Worksheets to guide pre-writing did not match their learning style. They appear to prepare mentally, instead of planning on paper. Second, though it was very important for the task to write a good topic sentence as a pre-writing activity, students could not use the guideline Worksheets they were given to check whether their topic sentence was appropriate or not. In future, we need to develop a greater variety of teaching materials so that learners could choose one which suits their learning styles. We also need to develop a self-check sheet so that students could make sure of the appropriateness of their topic sentence.

Appendix A: Guideline Exercises and Worksheet Excerpts from “Write From Your Heart”

UNIT 12

What Is Your Opinion?

自分の意見を書こう

自分の立場を決めて意見を書こう。意見には、その根拠となる理由が必要です。

Writing Topic What do you think about uniforms? Explain your opinion on junior high school or high school uniforms. Use specific reasons and experiences to support your opinion.
(中学・高校の制服についてどのように考えますか。意見は具体例や自分の体験を使って理由づけしよう。)

Reading 1

Ken explains why high school uniforms are not necessary.

◇ Is there any uniform which fits all students' physical shapes? ◇

In Japan, many high schools require students to wear uniforms. They think uniforms are necessary to improve students' morals and to decrease school disturbances. However, I believe each student should be free to dress according to his or her physical shape.

There is no one uniform which fits all students' physical shapes. Students have various shapes and sizes, such as a tall student, a short student, a fat student, and a thin student. Personally, I had a bad experience with uniforms. My high school had a uniform with a stand-up collar. Since I played rugby every day, my shoulders grew wider and my neck grew thicker. When I fastened the stand-up collar with the top hook, it was too tight on my neck and I was in pain. And it was very hot even in winter. Whenever I unfastened the top hook, teachers scolded me to fasten it. Though I explained that I felt pain and that it was too hot to wear a stand-up collar with a top hook, the teachers wouldn't understand me saying that every student had to wear it neatly.

I think the idea that uniforms improve students' morals and decrease school disturbances is not true. The way to improve morals is to treat students with respect and listen to them as individuals. Students have different opinions just as they have different physical shapes. I would like schools to let students choose freely what they wear according to their physical shapes. (245 words)

[Notes] physical shapes 体型 improve morals 道徳観を高める disturbance 騒ぎ
a stand-up collar つめえり fasten a hook フックをかける with respect 敬意をはらって
listen to them as individuals ひとりひとりの話に耳を傾ける



Exercise 1

(1) 上のエッセイのTopic Sentenceに _____ を、Concluding Sentenceに _____ を引こう。

(2) Kenは自分の意見の理由づけとして、制服についての苦い体験を書いています。その体験を日本語で要約しよう。

Reading 2

Takako explains why high school uniforms are necessary from a student's point of view:

◇ Uniforms are necessary for high school students! ◇

In Japan, many high schools require students to wear uniforms. They think uniforms are necessary to improve students' morals and to decrease school disturbances. From a student's point of view, morals and disturbances are not big issues. I think uniforms are necessary for students for two practical reasons.

Firstly, a uniform is very convenient on busy mornings. When I was a high school student, I had a uniform that was comfortable and also cute in design. Thanks to my uniform, I didn't have to worry about being late for school because of the time it took to choose my clothes. Now I am a university student. Every morning I spend a lot of time deciding what I should wear and it causes me to be late for class.

Secondly, a high school uniform makes students feel part of a team. In my sophomore year, I took part in the "All Tohoku High School Chorus Contest." Singing together in the same uniform, I felt we really made a team. Moreover, in a large concert hall, it was very easy to find my friends who were wearing the same clothes.

To sum up, a uniform saves time on busy mornings and makes students feel part of a team. I believe that high school students need uniforms. (214 words)

[Notes] point of view 視点 practical 実用的な to sum up 要約すると

Exercise 2

上のエッセイについて、日本語で要約を書き入れよう。

Introduction [制服に対する一般的な見方] 生徒に制服を義務づける高校が多い。学校は制服が道德観を高め、騒ぎを減らすと思っている。	Topic Sentence [Takakoの意見]
Body [理由1]	[具体例]
Body [理由2]	[体験談]
Conclusion :	

Reading 3

Yuki writes about the introduction of a new trendy uniform from a student's point of view.

Will trendy uniforms satisfy students?

These days, the design of school uniforms is getting more fashionable. Some schools ask famous designers to design trendy uniforms and invite students to join in the project. However, I don't think designing trendy uniforms will satisfy demanding students.

First of all, it takes a lot of time to design and make new uniforms. I have heard it takes at least a year to go through the procedure of ordering, designing, and making a new uniform for one school. The students who have joined in the project will soon graduate, so they won't enjoy wearing their new uniform for very long. Moreover, there is no guarantee that the students in the year to follow will like the newly designed uniform.

Secondly, students often find a small fault in the uniform and complain about it. In my case, my high school uniform was made up of a dark blue jacket and a short plaid skirt. At first, when I entered high school, I was happy to wear it. However, I gradually came to dislike the combination of jacket and skirt because so many high school girls were wearing a similar combination of clothes everywhere.

Therefore, even if schools improve uniforms by getting students' ideas, demanding students will never be satisfied. (209 words)

[Notes] demanding 注文がうるさい procedure 手順 guarantee 保証 in the year to follow 次の学年の In my case 私の場合は plaid チェックの gradually 段々に

Exercise 3

(1) True or False Questions

Yukiのエッセイを読み、次の（ ）の中に、内容が一致する文にはT、一致しない文にはFを書き入れよう。

- 1 () Recently, the design of school uniforms has been getting more fashionable.
- 2 () Yuki thinks school uniforms are unnecessary.
- 3 () Yuki doesn't think designing trendy uniforms will satisfy demanding students.
- 4 () It takes a long time to design and make new uniforms.
- 5 () Yuki is working hard to improve school uniforms.

(2) What is your opinion?

Yuki says that designing trendy uniforms will not satisfy demanding students. Do you agree with her? What is your opinion?

Exercise 4

1. あなたは中学生または高校生の時に、どんな服装で学校へ行っていましたか。どちらかを選んでその絵を描いてみよう。また、その特徴の説明を簡単に加えよう。

Draw a picture of the clothes of your school.	Explain the picture.

2. 制服があった人は、次の質問に答えよう。

Did you like your school uniform? Why did you like it? / Why didn't you like it?	
What was the good point of having a uniform?	
What was the bad point of having a uniform?	

3. 制服がなかった人は、次の質問に答えよう。

Did you want to wear a uniform? Why did you want to wear it? / Why didn't you want to wear it?	
What was the good point of your school <u>not</u> having a uniform?	
What was the bad point of your school <u>not</u> having a uniform?	

Exercise 5

中学・高校の制服についてあなたはどのように考えますか。次の質問に対して、自分の考えに最も近いものにチェックをしよう。答えには、具体例や体験を使って、理由づけしよう。

Questions \ Your Opinion	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Reasons Specific example or personal experience
1. Do you think school uniforms should be a requirement?					
2. Do you think uniforms improve students' morals and decrease school disturbances?					
3. Do you think uniforms take away students' freedom and identity?					
4. Do you think uniforms save money for students' parents?					
5. Do you think uniforms save time for students?					
6. Do you think the same design of uniform fits all students?					
7. Do you think schools should improve uniforms to satisfy students?					
8. Do you think it is possible to satisfy all students with one uniform?					

★自分の答えを振り返って、どの質問に答える時に強い気持ちや意見を持つことができたか考えてみよう。また、どの答えに理由づけができただろうか。

Useful Expressions

次のような表現を覚えて、自分の意見とその理由を言えるようにしましょう。

意見を述べる	• I think / I don't think that ... • In my opinion, ... • Personally I think that...
賛成する	• I agree with ... • I am for ... • I support the idea that ... • I believe ...
反対する	• I disagree with ... • I am against ... • I oppose the idea that ...
理由を述べる	• I have (two) reasons for my opinion. • One reason is that Another reason is that
例を出す	• For example, ...
自分の経験を述べる	• From my personal experience, ... • As far as I am concerned, ...
反対の立場の主張を紹介する	• However, ... • On the other hand, ...
結論を述べる	• In conclusion, ... • Therefore, ...

★エッセイを書く時には、67ページのあなたの中学・高校時代の通学服の思い出や体験、または、68ページで強い意見を持つことができた質問からトピックを選んで、Topic Sentenceを書こう。

Worksheet

制服についてのあなたの意見を、表で整理しよう。

Topic Sentence		1. 制服に対する一般的な見方や状況説明
		2. Topic Sentence
Body	Reasoning (1)	1. 理由づけ
		2. 理由づけの根拠となる具体例や体験
	Reasoning (2)	1. 理由づけ
		2. 理由づけの根拠となる具体例や体験
Conclusion		エッセイのまとめ (Topic Sentence を別のことばで言い換えてもよい。)

Writing



ワークシートをもとにして、制服について意見を書こう。理由づけには、具体例や自分の体験を入れよう。



Checkpoint

エッセイに、自分の意見・理由・具体例または体験を入れることができましたか？

Class Activities



1. エッセイを使って、スピーチをしよう。
2. どの人のスピーチが一番あなたの意見に近かったですか？

Appendix B: Samples of Student Writings

(1) Written by a Student Who Chose to Use a Pre-writing Worksheet

“The design of uniform is very important for popularity of school.”

I thought that the design of uniforms is very important for each school. Because it is directly connected with popularity of each school. My high school’s teacher said, “the best uniform should be light and very simply.” But I cant’ agree with this idea.

When I was a high school student, there was a very very popular high school, School A, near my school because of its design of uniforms. It is designed by Kansai Yamamoto!!! It is very cute! I wanted to wear it, too! My friend’s high school was not at all popular because of the design. Her school, School B, was not at all popular because of the design. School B had an odd culotte uniform. I didn’t want to wear it no matter what. School A had a large entry for the examination and School B had a very few entry for it not relating to students’ achievement.

The student to select a high school because of the design of uniforms is not in a small number. So each school must contrive about the design of uniforms for popularity of school!!!

(Rating: Content:5.0 points, Organization: 5.0 points, 180words)

(2) Written by a Student Who Did Not Choose to Use a Worksheet

Today, I’m going to talk to you about uniforms in a part-time job in café. Employees usually wear uniforms in many shops. I think we should wear uniforms.

Firstly, at my part-time job employees wear casual uniform. We wear polo shirt, apron, and wear bandana in our’s head. Many young couple come to cage that I work very hard. Because it’s uniform is cute and charming.

Secondly, with uniform I can move easily. I think that uniform should see cleanly when customers come to shop. Customers can relax in relief. They can enjoy coffee time. They can eat lunch, cake, and crepe in calm. In conclusion, I think that part-time job employees usually should wear uniforms. I can work very hard to wear uniform. And uniforms remind people that we are working together as part of a team.

(Rating: Content: 2.5points, Organization: 3.0 points, 140 words)

CHAPTER 6

VALIDITY OF FEEDBACK

Chapter 4 revealed that content and organization skills correlated highly in English and Japanese writing. It also showed that the good writers had had opportunities for feedback and revision. In the Process Approach, writing is regarded as having a recursive nature. Feedback is given to students' writing and students must then revise based on that feedback. The validity of giving feedback appears to directly relate to the quality of revision. However the connection between feedback and quality revision has not yet been clearly proved. Chapter 6 investigates the validity of various kinds of feedback. Section 1 compares ratings by Japanese teachers of English to those of native English teachers of English at college level. It investigates what teachers focus on in descriptive feedback and what criteria teachers use to evaluate writing. It is common for teachers to give feedback to students' writing. However, it takes a lot of time and energy for a teacher to do so for every student. If peer feedback is a valid way to assist writing, the time and energy of a teacher will be saved, therefore, it is desirable to investigate it. Sections 2 and 3 of Chapter 6 report on investigation of the validity of peer feedback. In Section 2, peer feedback was compared with teachers' feedback. In Section 3, the most effective methods of peer feedback were investigated.

SECTION 1

DIFFERENCES IN EVALUATION BETWEEN JAPANESE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AND NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AT A JAPANESE COLLEGE

The objective of the present study is to investigate differences in rating college students' essays between Japanese English Teachers (J.E.T.) and Native English Teachers. Thirteen J.E.T. and eleven N.E.T. reviewed four sets of Japanese college students' English compositions. They used a scale from 1 to 5 points on six criteria (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, Mechanics, and Overall Evaluation) and also gave descriptive feedback. J.E.T. gave higher scores than N.E.T. on all criteria. It seems that J.E.T. scores were based on the level of students' English proficiency; whereas N.E.T. scores were based on their own English speaking country's writing norms. In addition, there was a difference of opinion in how to interpret 'organization' between J.E.T. and N.E.T.

6-1-1 INTRODUCTION

Standards of Ratings

Rating is made based on a rater's rating skill and value system. Negish (2003) and Baba (2003) say rating English writing is heavily dependent on the rater's standards. These standards are influenced by learning experience, occupation, gender, and language and culture zone. Nakamura (1992) and Connor-Linton (1995) compare differences in ratings between English native teachers and Japanese English teachers. Nakamura (1992) who studied speaking ability found that native English teachers take account of fluency most, whereas Japanese English teachers take account of content most. Connor-Linton (1995) compares the evaluative criteria used in writing by American ESL instructors and Japanese EFL instructors. The instructors quantitatively rated the compositions and then stated the qualitative reasons for their scores for each composition. He assumes that the evaluative criteria of the two groups indirectly reflect their respective societies' theories of the uses and values of written English. He finds that Japanese EFL teachers focus on matters of accuracy (content, word choice, and grammar), while the American ESL teachers focus on both intersentential features of the

discourse and specific intrasentential grammatical features.

On a pedagogical level, the comparison of rating criteria between native English teachers and Japanese English teachers seems to be useful. The results seem to help both native English teachers and Japanese English teachers in Japanese EFL settings to negotiate differences. For example, native English teachers (N.E.T.) who have just started to teach in a Japanese college may find it useful know of students' former writing instruction experience and their Japanese teachers' criteria for rating. In addition, Japanese EFL teachers (J.E.T.) who have limited experiences of rating might improve their accuracy in ratings by knowing the criteria used by N.E.T.

6-1-2 THE PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is any difference between J.E.T. and N.E.T. in rating Japanese EFL students' writing. The following two questions form the basis of this study:

Research Questions

- 1) *Is there any difference between Japanese English teachers and native English teachers in rating Japanese college students' writing on a 1 to 5 point scale which uses six criteria?*
- 2) *Is there any difference between Japanese English teachers and native English teachers in rating Japanese college students' writing using descriptive comments?*

6-1-3 METHOD

Participants

A total of twenty-four teachers who teach English at a Japanese college participated in this study. Among them, the number of J.E.T. was thirteen and that of N.E.T. eleven. The thirteen J.E.T. had taught an average of 11.6 years in the college. Among them twelve had experienced teaching writing for an average length of 4.3 years. The eleven N.E.T. had an average of 13.4 years of college teaching. All of them were

experienced writing teachers averaging 6.3 years in the writing classroom.

Instruments

The instruments consisted of four samples of Japanese college students' writing and a feedback sheet.

Writing Samples

The writing topic was to produce the speech draft for a part-time-job application. Two Japanese college English teachers rated eighty-three students' essays individually, using criteria from EFL Composition Profile which is the simplified ESL Composition Profile (Inter-rater reliability: 0.82). From the eighty-three writing samples, three writing samples which had different characteristics and ratings were chosen. The characteristics were as follows:

Feedback Sheet

Four Japanese English teachers wrote a feedback sheet based on ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et al., 1981) (Appendix B). It consisted of two parts; one part was a 1 to 5 point scale, and the other used descriptive feedback. In descriptive feedback, students wrote two types of comments in Japanese: (1) What are the good points of the paper? (2) What suggestions do you have on how to revise the paper?

Procedure

- (1) The eighty three participants wrote a draft of a job application speech. The two Japanese college English teachers rated them (Inter-rater reliability: 0.82) and chose four writing samples.
- (2) Thirteen J.E.T. and eleven N.E.T were asked to rate four writing samples using a feedback sheet. They were told that the writers' college English proficiency level was elementary to lower intermediate. According to the "Eigo Kentei Shiken" test, the level of the majority of students was about third grade to semi-second grade.
- (3) Two Japanese college English teachers evaluated the descriptive writing comments of both J.E.T. and N.E.T.

Table 6-1-1: Characteristics of Four Samples

Sample	Characteristics	Scores 100 points	Number of words
A	Each sentence is very short and does not connect. Information which is necessary to make herself appealing is not included. Very poor in grammar and vocabulary.	23 points	30 words
B	Almost all information which is necessary for job application is included. Good organization and paragraphing. Capitalization is inappropriate. The same words and vocabulary are repeatedly used.	85 points	110 words
C	Expression is the lengthiest among the samples. Poor organization and paragraphing, but expression is based on the writer's knowledge.	78 points	124 words
D	Not all information for job application is included. Meaning does not come across, as the translation is done word by word not by sentence. Japanese-English dictionary seems to be used very frequently.	67 points	78 words

6-1-4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question

- 1) Is there any difference between Japanese English teachers and native English teachers in rating Japanese college students' writing using a 1 to 5 point scale based on six criteria?*

The average scores, SD, and t-value of feedback by J.E.T. and N.E.T. were calculated. J.E.T. rated giving higher scores for all criteria in all four samples. For fifteen among twenty four items, there were significant differences between the scores of J.E.T. and N.E.T. For the criteria of “organization” and “overall evaluation”, there were significant differences (Table 6-1-2).

T-value showed there were significant differences in four items of Sample B and D, but in only one item in Sample A. From these results, it could be said that some samples were rated differently depending on the raters (Table 6-1-2).

Table 6-1-2: Comparison of Average Scores, S.D. and t-value by J.E.T. and N.E.T

J.E.T. n=13

N.E.T. n=11

Sample A	Ave.		S.D.		t
	J.E.T.	N.E.T	J.E.T.	N.E.T	
Content	1.07	1.36	0.27	0.55	ns
Organization	1.14	1.00	0.36	0.00	ns
Vocabulary	1.29	1.27	0.47	0.47	ns
Language Use	1.46	1.09	0.66	0.30	*
Mechanics	1.43	1.36	0.51	0.67	ns
Overall Evaluation	1.14	1.14	0.36	0.32	ns

Sample B	Ave.		S.D.		t
	J.E.T.	N.E.T	J.E.T.	N.E.T	
Content	3.89	3.91	0.74	0.54	ns
Organization	3.96	3.14	0.69	0.78	**
Vocabulary	3.61	3.23	0.74	0.75	ns
Language Use	3.79	3.09	0.70	0.83	**
Mechanics	4.00	3.27	0.78	0.79	**
Overall Evaluation	4.07	3.41	0.62	0.80	**

Sample C	Ave.		S.D.		t
	J.E.T.	N.E.T	J.E.T.	N.E.T	
Content	3.25	2.68	0.94	1.06	ns
Organization	3.04	2.41	0.84	0.92	*
Vocabulary	2.75	2.50	0.80	0.87	ns
Language Use	2.64	2.14	0.74	0.95	ns
Mechanics	2.71	1.91	0.61	0.54	**
Overall Evaluation	3.07	2.32	0.73	0.64	**

Sample D	Ave.		S.D.		t
	J.E.T.	N.E.T	J.E.T.	N.E.T	
Content	2.85	1.82	0.99	0.72	**
Organization	2.46	1.88	0.66	0.66	**
Vocabulary	2.31	1.55	0.63	0.47	**
Language Use	1.88	1.91	0.92	0.70	ns
Mechanics	2.38	2.09	0.87	0.70	ns
Overall Evaluation	2.62	1.68	0.77	0.72	**

*p<0.05 **p<0.01 ns=not significant each full score= 5 points

Research Question

- 2) Is there any difference between Japanese English teachers and native English teachers descriptive comments in their rating of Japanese college students' writing?*

Standards of Rating

Sixty-two percent (62%) of J.E.T. mentioned that they rated keeping in mind the “Eigo Kentei Shiken” grade. This suggests that J.E.T. inferred the students’ writing ability from their grade in “Eigo Kentei Shiken.” However, no N.E.T. mentioned that grade or the “Eigo Kentei Shiken”. Ninety percent (90%) of N.E.T. mentioned they rated with reference to whether the job application speech would be acceptable in the setting of a job interview in an English speaking country. It appears that their standards for rating were based on the cultural and language norms of English speaking countries. The difference in standards used for ratings seems to account for the differences in average scores given by the two groups.

Focus of Ratings

The descriptive comments were categorized into five criteria. They were: Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use and Mechanics. The two groups of teachers focused most on Content (J.E.T. 47%, N.E.T. 44%). These results were different from Connor-Linton (1995). Secondly, J.E.T. focused most on Vocabulary (24%), whereas N.E.T. focused on Organization (19%).

There was not much difference in the descriptive comments about the content of Samples A, B, and C between J.E.T. and N.E.T. However in comments on Organization, t-values showed a significant difference in the average scores for three samples between the two groups of the teachers. Their descriptive comments made it clear how each group understood the term “Organization.” J.E.T. regarded organization as “flow”, “stream,” and “structure.” Some of the comments were “the speech has a flow of appealing herself” (jiko appeal to shite nagaregaaru), “the essay was structured as a job application speech draft” (kumitate ga dekiteiru). On the other hand, N.E.T. regarded Organization as paragraphing. One of the N.E.T. group said “the speech is not paragraphed.” Other N.E.T. members regarded organization as “linking a sentence with another sentence,” and “consistency.”

Sample B and D

J.E.T. and N.E.T. rated Sample B and D differently in the scores they gave using four of the criteria. Sample B was an example of a good speech draft in which almost all information required for a job application was included. In descriptive comments, many of the teachers in both groups considered its content positively, whereas only N.E.T. commented on its organization. Some of N.E.T. group said, "Remove repetitive sentences. Put all related information into one paragraph; 2 or 3 sentences do not make a paragraph. Study transitions." In language use and mechanics, J.E.T. and N.E.T. had a different point of view. J.E.T. thought Sample B had "only a few grammatical mistakes" or "should improve a few grammatical and spelling mistakes." J.E.T. thought these mistakes were subtle ones. At least one N.E.T., however showed some mistakes of Sample B were considered to be serious by commenting, "the writer should learn basic grammar and capitalization."

Sample D was an example in which the writer did not make herself understood. The reason for this was that direct translation from Japanese to English was frequently used. The draft was strongly influenced by Japanese because the writer used a Japanese English dictionary frequently. Though both J.E.T. and N.E.T. mentioned that the draft was difficult to understand; only J.E.T. mentioned the cause of incomprehensibility. J.E.T. noted that the student was translating straight from Japanese into English without taking into account differences between the languages and so making her intention and meaning very unclear. No N.E.T., however, mentioned this cause of in-comprehensibility. Instead, they mentioned that the writer needed lessons in western cultural values.

In Sample D, the writer finished the draft "Please employ me." Both J.E.T. and N.E.T. mentioned that the last sentence was not appropriate and commented that the writer should not use this expression (J.E.T.: 23%, N.E.T.: 64%). One of the N.E.T. group analyzed the cause of the problem and recommended, "state your job objective first. Then provide details." She added, "the writer also needs lessons in western cultural values. It is undignified to beg for a job. She should read Nancy Sakamoto's Polite Fictions. Of course she also needs help with paragraphing from a native speaker and help with lots of expressions."

As is shown in the above, the reason why N.E.T. scored lower was that their standard of evaluation was based on the same social, cultural and language expectations they would have of a native English speaker

6-1-5 CONCLUSIONS

Comparing evaluations made by J.E.T. to those of N.E.T. revealed the following:

- (1) In the 1 to 5 point scale evaluation, the scores by J.E.T. were higher than those by N.E.T. Among twenty four items, fifteen of them were significantly different between the two groups.
- (2) The differences in scores appear to result from the different standards against which evaluation was made. J.E.T. seemed to refer to the proficiency level of the “Eigo Kentei Shiken,” whereas J.E.T. appear to evaluate based on whether the speech was sociolinguistically appropriate in their own English speaking country.
- (3) In both point scale and descriptive comments, J.E.T. and N.E.T. were different in how they dealt with the concept of organization. J.E.T. regarded organization as “flow,” “stream,” and “structure,” whereas N.E.T. regarded organization as paragraphing and linking.
- (4) In their descriptive comments, both groups focused most on content. J.E.T. secondary focus was on vocabulary, whereas for N.E.T. it was on organization.

The results of the comparison between the two groups of teachers suggest ways to improve teaching English writing.

- (1) J.E.T. should teach not only accuracy of English, but teach sociolinguistically appropriate English too. In order for this to happen, it might be necessary to use or create teaching materials which are based on socioculturally clear scripts as Yoshida suggested (1997).
- (2) J.E.T. should focus on organization more in teaching writing. They should widen their concept of organization more to include paragraphing and cohesion.

Appendix A: Four Writing Samples

[Sample A]

“About Music”

I am interested in the Possible the Assistant music teacher.

I am ABC College Student.

I major in the piano.

I am currently a freshman.

I hobby is driving car.

[Sample B]

“Getting a Part-Time-Job As a pianist for wedding”

I’m interested in the position as a pianist for wedding. I wish to obtain the part-time-position.

I’m currently a freshman at ABC college. I major in Piano.

I believe that I am qualified for this job because I have been studying the piano for 14 years, and I have learned technical music in the high school and I have been learning it in the college. I practice the piano hard everyday.

I like an atmosphere of wedding. I want to create an happy mood, and give a deep impression I hope you will give me the opprotunity to gain further experience in playing the piano in the wedding.

[Sample C]

“Getting a job as a Ball Girl at Tokyo Dome”

I’m interested in the Position as Person who is “Ball Girl” when I watched baseball game on TV. And I want be as a “Ball Girl”. I live in Chiba. I can go there 40 minutes.

I’m currently a freshman at ABC college of music. I major in Infant Education. I’m member of Lime Tennis Club. I can play tennis, softball, and baseball.

I have a lot of knowledge of baseball. I can talk with People of various even the first time I met him or her. I belive I can negotiate the job as a Ball Girl. I worked at Ohitsuya (restaurant) Seven Eleven, extra. I hope you will give me the opportunity that I will be a “Ball Girl”.

[Sample D]

“Swimming school Instructor”

I am ABC college freshman. My name is Nao Usami. Appliant reason is I like to come in contact with children and I thought I can enjoy swimming. Through swimming, I want to do my heart strict. And I want to cultivate with children. I thought for me to become good study. I think that I want to work hard. I suppose to be able to get something valuable thing in my life. Please employ me!

Appendix B: Questionnaires & Feedback Sheet

Years of Teaching at a Japanese university:

Have you ever taught writing at a Japanese university? Yes / No

If yes, how many years? _____ years

Writing Topic: You are going to apply for a part-time-job. Write a fictional job application speech draft including your motivation to apply for the job, special skills, hobbies, and your experiences which are useful for the job.

Evaluate the following in a 5 to 1 point scale. If you cannot decide, write “ ? ”.

+-----+-----+-----+-----+
 5: Excellent 4: Very Good 3: Good 2: Fair 1: Poor

Points of Evaluation	Essay				A	B	C	D
Content	- The essay includes the writer's motivation, special skills, hobbies, and experience which are useful for the part-time-job. - There is no information irrelevant to the part-time-job.							
Structure								
English Expression								
Grammar								
Mechanics								

Overall Evaluation				
--------------------	--	--	--	--

Please state the good points and the points to be improved for each draft.

SECTION 2

VALIDITY OF PEER FEEDBACK

The objective of this research is to verify the validity of peer feedback of Japanese college students by comparing it with teacher feedback. 50 students and 13 teachers each reviewed a set of three English writing samples. Both teacher and student groups rated the samples on the 1 to 5 scale and also by giving descriptive feedback. When students rated using the subcategories, (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, Mechanics, and Overall Evaluation), they ranked the three samples in the same order as the teachers regardless of their own writing ability. However, the absolute rating points of students and teachers were not consistent. As to the validity of descriptive feedback, a remarkable difference in evaluation is observed depending on students' own writing ability. As a result of these findings, suggestions are made with regard to introducing peer feedback in teaching English writing to Japanese university students.

6-2-1 INTRODUCTION

Benefits and Constraints of Peer Feedback

Over the past decade, many ESL writing teachers have been trying to incorporate peer feedback activities into their writing classes and have been convinced of their beneficial effects on motivation, attitude, and even on writing quality. However, they have also experienced constraints in using peer feedback in their ESL writing classrooms. Liu & Hansen (2002) summarize the benefits and the constraints of peer feedback in four major categories; cognitive, social, linguistic, and practical (Table 1).

Table 6-2-1: Benefits and Constraints of Peer Feedback (Liu & Hansen, 2002,8.)

Benefits	
Cognitive	1. Exercise thinking 2. Take active role in learning 3. Build critical skills 4. Build audience awareness
Social	1. Enhance communicative power 2. Receive authentic feedback 3. Establish collegial ties and friendship
Linguistics	1. Enhance metalinguistic knowledge 2. Explore linguistic knowledge 3. Gain additional language skill 4. Find right words to express ideas
Practical	1. Applicable across student proficiency levels 2. Flexible across different stages in the writing process 3. Time-efficient in some cases 4. Reinforces process writing
Constraints	
Cognitive	1. Uncertainty concerning peers' comments 2. Lack of learner investment
Social	1. Discomfort and uneasiness 2. Lack of security in negotiating meaning 3. Commentary may be over critical
Linguistics	1. Too much focus on surface 2. Lack of L2 formal schemata 3. Difficulty in understanding foreign accent
Practical	1. Time constraints 2. Counter-productive feedback 3. Lack of student preparation

Cognitively speaking, peer feedback activities in teaching L2 writing can force L2 students to exercise their thinking as opposed to passively receiving information from the teacher (Mittan 1989). Students engaged in peer feedback can take an active role in their learning, and they can “reconceptualize their ideas in light of their peers’ reactions” (Mendoça & Johnson, 1994; 746). Responding to peers’ writing, for instance, builds the critical skills needed to analyze and revise one’s own writing (Leki, 1990). Moreover, the suggestions and explanations offered during peer response activities allow students to show what they know about writing and to use that information in their revisions (Mendoça & Johnson, 1994). In addition, peer response activities allow students to develop audience awareness, and the fact that writers revise their essays based on their peers’ comments suggests that peer response activities “develop in students the crucial ability of reviewing their writing with the eyes of another” (Zamel, 1982; 206).

Peer feedback activities also have many social benefits. For example, they enhance students’ communicative power by encouraging students to express and negotiate their ideas (Mendoça & Johnson; 1994). In the process of responding to their peers, students constantly receive “reactions, questions, and responses from authentic readers” (Mittan, 1989; 209), so that they gain a clearer understanding of what has been done well and what remains unclear.

In terms of linguistic benefits, the collaborative setting in which peer feedback activities take place allows students to review the metalanguage of reading and writing supplied in a course as they use technical terminology in their discussions (Gere, 1987). Through collaborative group production, students experience valuable opportunities to improve their ability to read and write because the ongoing community orientation of this approach enables them to draw on the strengths and resources of their peers while sorting through their own growing knowledge of L2 writing (Hirvela, 1999). Liu and Hansen (2002) say that peer response activities give students more ways to discover and explore ideas, to find the right words to express their ideas, and to negotiate with their audience about these ideas.

On a practical level, peer feedback activities are flexible, as they can take place at various stages of the writing process (prewriting / discovery / invention, between-draft revision, and editing) (Connor & Asenavage, 1994), and they fit well with the increased emphasis on process in composition teaching. In addition, peer feedback activities can reduce the writing teacher’s workload and can impart to the teacher important information about individual students’ reading and writing abilities and their understanding of what constitutes good writing (Mittan, 1989).

However, there are also several constraints: uncertainty concerning peers' comments, lack of learner investment, superficial comments due to time constraints, and inappropriate interactions in commenting on peers' drafts (Liu, 1998). In the cognitive aspect, students often feel uncertain as to whether their peers' comments are accurate (Liu & Hansen, 2002). Their insecurity can lead to lack of enthusiasm toward the activity. Meanwhile, some students may come to peer feedback sessions without preparation. Socially, they may provide vague and unhelpful comments; are hostile, sarcastic, overly critical, or unkind in their criticisms of their classmates' responses. These comments could be also be anxiety provoking and lead to communication breakdown. Linguistically, Leki (1990) points out that students sometimes focus too heavily on surface concerns, or editing, neglecting larger revising issues. Students tend to overemphasize local structure and / or grammatical comments. From a pedagogical point of view, peer feedback activities' time-efficiency is of great concern.

Effects of Peer Feedback

One of the biggest concerns for ESL/EFL writing teachers is the effect of peer feedback. However, in the previous research the results of effects ascribed to peer feedback were not consistent. There are three types of findings. One type of study introduces peer feedback positively pointing out its merits (Mittan, 1989; Liu, 1998; Nelson & Murphy, 1992). Another group of studies introduces peer feedback passively by pointing out the constraints (Amores, 1997; Connor & Asenavage, 1994). A third approach points out that peer feedback is harmful (Leki, 1990; Zhang, 1995).

Comparing effects of peer feedback to teacher feedback

There are two strands of previous research which compare the effects of peer feedback to teacher feedback. One line of research suggests that peer feedback is not as effective as teacher feedback. The other line of research shows that peer feedback is as effective as teacher feedback. Sengupta (1998) for example, denies there are useful effects for peer feedback. She introduced both teacher and peer feedback to Hong Kong EFL classrooms. However, no students took peer feedback into account in their revision, though the content the feedback was appropriate. On the other hand, Caulk (1994) insists that peer feedback is effective. Caulk compared peer feedback to teacher feedback. He finds that eighty nine percent of peer feedback was useful in revision and sixty nine percent of it was not mentioned by a teacher. He concludes that teacher

feedback and peer feedback complement each other. In addition, Hedgecock & Lefkowitz (1994) compare peer feedback to teacher feedback and conclude that peer feedback was more effective than teacher feedback in revision. They also showed statistical differences. Though they do not insist that peer feedback was superior to teacher feedback overall, they thought peer feedback did play an important role in revision.

However, we cannot find research in a Japanese EFL writing context which compares peer feedback to teacher feedback. Before we introduce peer feedback to Japanese EFL writing classrooms, we need to investigate the validity of peer feedback in our situation

6-2-2 THE PRESENT STUDY

An objective of this research is to verify the validity of using peer feedback of Japanese college students in teaching English writing. The following two questions form the basis of this study:

Research Questions

When Japanese college students (students who have higher English writing ability and also students who have lower English writing ability) and Japanese college English teachers read the same writing samples:

- 1) do they rate differently on a scale from 1 to 5 points using five subcategories (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, Mechanics) and also giving an overall evaluation?*
- 2) do they rate differently when they give descriptive feedback?*

6-2-3 METHOD

Participants

A total of 83 Japanese first-year college students (male 12, female 71) majoring in music and 13 Japanese college English teachers participated in this study. The students' average age was 18.9 years old. They had studied English for 6.2 years on average, mainly through highly controlled formal education in Japan. The majority of them had English proficiency levels from elementary to middle intermediate. The main goal of

studying English was not for academic purposes but communication ones.

The thirteen Japanese college English teachers had had teaching experience for 11.6 years (average) in college. Among them, twelve had teaching experience in writing and the average length of it was 4.3 years.

Instruments

The instruments consisted of EFL Composition Profile, an English writing topic, three writing samples, and a feedback sheet.

Rating:EFL Composition Profile

All of the essays were rated based on EFL Composition Profile. It is a simplified ESL Composition profile (Jacobs, et al., 1981). It assigned 5 analytical criteria: Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. The simplification was made in order to rate the English writing of elementary to middle intermediate Japanese college students.

Choosing student raters depending on writing ability

Eighty three students wrote three essays. Two Japanese teachers rated these essays individually. The inter-rater reliability was 0.85 (Spearman Brown). Based on the average of the two ratings, twenty five students were chosen as students who had higher writing ability (S. H.W.) and another twenty five students were chosen as representative of lower writing ability students (S. L.W)

Writing Topic

The eighty three students were asked to write a speech draft in forty minutes.

You are going to apply for a part-time job. Write a speech draft that will make a good impression in the interview.

Writing samples

Two Japanese college English teachers rated the writings individually based on the simplified ESL Composition Profile (Interrater reliability: 0.87). From the eighty three writing samples, three writing samples which had different characteristics and ratings were chosen. For these three samples the class and name were rewritten to avoid identifying the writers. The characteristics were as follows:

Table 6-2-2: Characteristics of Sample A, B & C

Sample	Characteristics	Scores (100points)	Number of words
A	Each sentence is very short and does not connect. Information which is necessary to make herself appealing is not included. Very poor in grammar and vocabulary.	23 points	30 words
B	Almost all information which is necessary for job application is included. Good organization and paragraphing. Capitalization is inappropriate. The same words and vocabulary are repeatedly used.	85 points	110 words
C	Not all information for job application is included. Meaning does not come across, as the translation is done word by word.	67 points	78 words

Feedback sheet

Four Japanese college English teachers wrote a feedback sheet based on the ESL Composition Profile (Appendix A). It consisted of two parts; one had a 1 to 5 point evaluation scale, and the other promoted descriptive feedback. In their descriptive feedback, students wrote comments in Japanese to answer two questions. (1) What are the good points of the paper? (2) What suggestions do you have on how to revise the paper?

6-2-4 PROCEDURE

- (1) The eighty three participants wrote three written responses to the task. The two Japanese college English teachers rated them (Inter-rater reliability: 0.85) and chose twenty five students with high English writing ability and twenty five students with low English writing ability.
- (2) The eighty three participants wrote a speech draft for a job application. The two Japanese college English teachers rated them (Inter-rater reliability: 0.87) and the researcher chose three writing samples with different characteristics and scores from the drafts.
- (3) The three writing samples were rated by students with higher and lower English writing ability and by thirteen Japanese college English teachers using the feedback criteria sheet.
- (4) Another three Japanese college English teachers evaluated the descriptive writing comments made by fifty students and also the scores given by the thirteen teachers after they had used the 1 to 4 point 'Usefulness of the Descriptive Feedback' scale described below in Table 6-2-5:

6-2-5 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Research Question

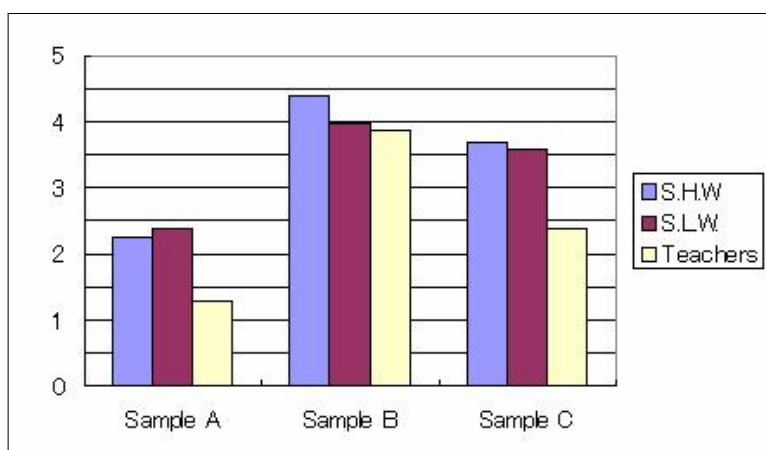
- 1) When Japanese college students (students who have higher English writing ability and also students who have lower English writing ability) and Japanese college English teachers read the same writing sample, do they rate differently on a scale from 1 to 5 points using five subcategories (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, Mechanics) and also giving an overall evaluation?*

Overall Evaluation

In the average scores of 'Overall Evaluation,' the students ranked the three samples in the same order as the teachers, regardless of their writing ability. However, the absolute rating scores of students and teachers were not consistent. The students tended to rate higher than the teachers (Table 6-2-3 & Figure 6-2-1).

Scores of Subcategories

In rating scores of the subcategories, Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics, S.H.W., S.L.W. and teachers mostly ranked the three samples in the same order. Sample B was the highest and Sample A was the lowest. However, S.L.W. ranked the samples in C, B, A order in the Vocabulary subcategory. As for the absolute scores, the teachers scored higher points, whereas S.H.W. and S.L.W. scored giving lower points (Table 6-2-4).



(Full score: 5 points, each S.H.W. & S.L.W. =25, Teachers=13)

Figure 6-2-1: Comparison of Overall Evaluation Scores

Table 6-2-3: Comparison of Overall Evaluation Scores

Overall Evaluation	S.H.W.	S.L.W.	Teachers
Sample A	2.24	2.38	1.28
Sample B	4.38	3.98	3.85
Sample C	3.68	3.6	2.38

(Full score: 5 points, S.H.W. & S.L.W. each = 25, Teachers = 13)

Table 6-2-4: Scores of Subcategories

Sample		S.H.W. n=25	S.L.W. n=25	Teachers n=13
A	Content	2.21	2.38	1.07
	Organization	1.46	2.08	1.14
	Vocabulary	2.09	2.29	1.29
	Language Use	2.91	2.58	1.46
	Mechanics	2.54	2.57	1.43
B	Content	4.5	4.25	3.89
	Organization	4.46	4.08	3.96
	Vocabulary	4.04	3.48	3.61
	Language Use	4.42	4.13	3.79
	Mechanics	4.5	3.96	4
C	Content	4.08	3.85	2.85
	Organization	3.54	3.35	2.46
	Vocabulary	3.67	3.55	2.31
	Language Use	3.65	3.58	1.88
	Mechanics	3.46	3.65	2.38

Research Question

2) When Japanese college students (students who have higher English writing ability and also students who have lower English writing ability) and Japanese college English teachers read the same writing samples, do they rate differently when they give descriptive feedback?

Validity of Feedback

Three experienced Japanese college English teachers judged the validity of peer and teachers' descriptive feedback. (The teachers who had previously given feedback on the essays were excluded.) Validity was judged by two criteria; one was if the writers actually understood the good points of their essays, and the other was if the writers had understood how to revise. The inter-rater reliability (Spearman Brown) of the three teachers was 0.98. The usefulness of the descriptive feedback was mostly rated equally in their scores.

The average scores of three teacher raters were calculated (Table 6). Then, the scores higher than 3.5 points were regarded as providing useful comments to assist revision and the scores lower than 1.5 points were regarded as unhelpful comments. The conclusion was that feedback by S.L.W. was mostly not useful and feedback by S.H.W. was mostly useful.

Amount of Descriptive Feedback

The teachers wrote the lengthiest feedback and the S.L.W. wrote the shortest feedback. The average amount of descriptive feedback was as shown in Table 6 S.H.W. and teachers tended to write a few sentences in their comments, whereas S.L.W. tended to write only in single words, such as "good," or "interesting."

Table 6-2-5: Usefulness of the Descriptive Feedback

Points	Usefulness of the descriptive feedback
4	The feedback was very useful when the writers revised their drafts.
3	The feedback was useful when the writers revised their drafts.
2	The feedback was not much use when the writers revised their drafts.
1	The feedback was not at all useful when the writers revised their drafts.

Table 6-2-6: Comparison of Average Scores of Descriptive Feedback

Sample & Subcategories		S.H.W.	S.L.W.	Teachers
		N=25	n=25	n=13
A	Good points	2.65	1.25	2.73
	Points to be improved	3.58	2.97	3.88
B	Good points	3.81	2.57	3.82
	Points to be improved	3.5	1.32	3.9
C	Good points	3.53	1.54	3.74
	Points to be improved	3.54	1.62	3.9

Table 6-2-7: Comparison of Amount of Descriptive Feedback

	Amount of Descriptive Feedback (Japanese characters)
S.H.W. n=25	80
S.L.W. n=25	32
Teachers n=13	121

Focus of Feedback

The descriptive feedback comments were analyzed based on the five subcategories of Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. All participants focused most on content comments (S.H.W. 63%, S.L.W. 64%, Teachers 43%). Various comments were written about Sample B. One of L.H.W. wrote generally; "Content was good. I can understand what the writer wants to do as a wedding party pianist." On the other hand, one of the H.L.W. group wrote a more concrete comment that would be useful in revision. She wrote, "The writer should write the experience of performance and preference of the pieces of music. This information is essential to appeal herself for an employer." This peer comment was very specific and peculiar to the students who shared the same major. The result was in agreement with the findings by Liu and Hansen (2002) discussed below. One of the teachers commented, "As I have no knowledge of technical music, the writer should give an example which explains it." She also pointed out grammatical and mechanical mistakes. The comments of the S.H.W. and the teacher, provided complementary feedback. As is shown, what the student's peer commented on and what the teacher commented on resulted from different points of view. In a previous study, Caulk (1994) pointed out the complementarity of peer and teacher feedback.

Secondly, the amount of feedback focused on "Vocabulary" was as follows; S.H.W.25%, S.L.W. 9%, Teacher 25%. However, the content of the comments was very different depending on who gave the feedback. The students, regardless of writing ability, gave comments such as, "Easy to read," and "Easy to understand." On the other hand, the teachers made use of their knowledge of vocabulary. In Sample C, the sentences were written in Japanese word order. Therefore, the essay was awkward as English. No students pointed out its awkwardness. However, three out of thirteen teachers noted its clumsy expression. "The writer's English is awkward because it has Japanese word order. She should write more simply and naturally," "The writer does not understand how to use vocabulary. She should practice writing using the vocabulary which she knows well. Her expression is based on Japanese way of thinking. She should change it based on English," and "Her writing was based on using Japanese-English dictionary. She should use more concrete examples."

In Sample C, the speech draft ended with the request, "Please employ me." Three of S.H.W. and three of S.L.W. commented that these words expressed the writer's enthusiasm and seriousness. However, three of the teachers commented that the expression was a problem and she should not make emotive appeals to the employer's sympathy. Their interpretation of the expression was based on a knowledge of

sociolinguistics in English speaking countries. In other words, the teachers' knowledge of what they were supposed to say in a real job interview setting led to the difference in feedback.

Thirdly, the amount of feedback focused on "Mechanics" was as follows; S.H.W. 14%, S.L.W. 7% , Teachers 11%. There was no difference in the content of comments depending on who gave feedback. Most of the comments dealt with paragraphing.

Fourthly, the amount of feedback focused on "Organization" was as follows: S.H.W. 14%, S.L.W. 0%, Teachers 14%. S.H.W. commented about topic sentences and ways of developing paragraphs. For example, "Where is a topic sentence? In introduction, the writer should say their name before the name of college", "The draft did not have a topic sentence. She should put a topic sentence in the beginning. Based on the topic sentence, she should develop a draft." On the other hand, no S.L.W. commented on organization.

Fifthly, the amount of feedback focused on "Language Use" was as follows: S.H.W. 4%, S.L.W. 4%, Teachers 12%. Six of the students, regardless of writing level, mentioned that they could not correct grammatical mistakes because of their own lack of grammatical knowledge and confidence. This appears to explain students' limited grammatical feedback.

As was shown in the above, raters gave descriptive feedback based on their interests and knowledge. They tended not to comment on categories in which they were not interested or that they did not know well.

The Number of categories commented on.

Most of the comments had a single focus, but some feedback by S.H.W. and the teachers were double or triple focused (Table 6-2-8 & Figure 6-2-2).

Table 6-2-8: Comparison of the Number of categories commented on in Descriptive Feedback

	One	Two	Three
Teachers	57	28	15
S.H.W.	79	17	4
S.L.W.	97	3	0

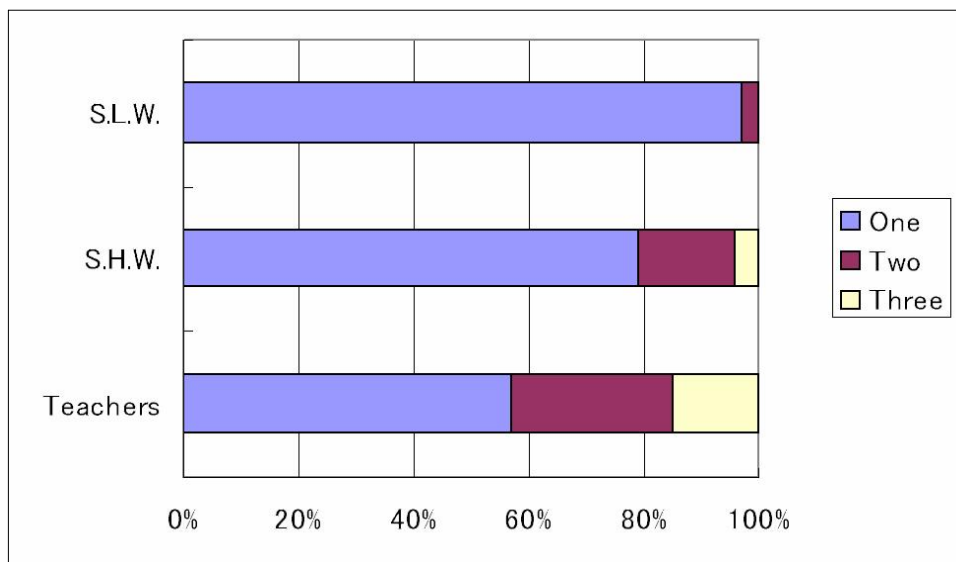


Figure 6-2-2: Comparison of the Number of categories Focused on in Descriptive Feedback

6-2-6 CONCLUSIONS

The present study revealed the following points:

- (1) In rating by scores, the students ranked the three samples in the same order as the teachers regardless of their writing ability. However, the absolute rating points of students and teachers were not sufficiently consistent. The students tended to give higher points than the teachers. Therefore, the absolute rating points produced by peer feedback were not valid enough.
- (2) In descriptive feedback, the comments by the teachers were the most useful, S.H.W. comments were the next in value and S.L.W. comments were the least useful. There were significant differences between S.H.W. and S.L.W. in the length of comments and the number of categories focused on. The validity of peer feedback was different depending on the writing ability of the students who gave it.
- (3) In descriptive feedback, most comments were focused on content regardless of the raters.
- (4) Raters gave feedback in the categories where they had knowledge or interests. They did not give feedback about areas they did not know much about or that they were not interested in.

This study suggests the following pedagogical implications about when to introduce peer feedback to Japanese EFL writing classrooms.

- (1) When we introduce rating by scores, we might be better to ask students only to rank samples overall. Rating using subcategories on a 1-5 point or similar scale might be too fine for them.
- (2) We have to be careful to choose the most appropriate method of peer feedback, and take into account students' writing ability.
- (3) We can predict some effects, if we introduce descriptive peer feedback to the S.H.W. classroom.
- (4) It might be easier for students to write comments focusing on content.
- (5) It might be easier for students to write comments only in categories in which they have knowledge or interest. Teachers might be better to give feedback in the categories which the students do not yet know or are not interested in.

The present study had some limitations. In this study, I did not ask students to revise their drafts after feedback. In any future study, we need different raters to

investigate the effects of feedback on revision. We also have to ask the writers what feedback was useful for them and investigate their criteria for useful feedback.

Appendix A: Feedback Sheet

フィードバック・シート

クラスメイトのサンプル・エッセイを読み、課題に対して適切に書けているかを次の観点から評価しよう。

課題 : アルバイトに応募することになりました。志望動機、自分の特技・趣味、長所や今までの体験などを上手に入れて、採用してもらえるように自己アピールをしよう。

各項目を 5～1 点で評価してください。評価できない、判断できない時は「?」と書き入れてください。

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+

5: Excellent 4: Very Good 3: Satisfactory 2: Fair 1: Poor

(?: I can't judge.)

	評価観点	A	B	C
[内容]	- 自己アピールには、特技・趣味・体験・志望動機など相手を説得するのに有効な情報が入っているか。 - 採用してもらうのに不要な情報はないか。			
[構成]	- Topic Sentence があるか、Topic Sentence が発展して本文になっているか、結びの文があるか。 - 文と文との関係がわかるように、接続詞が効果的に使えているか。 - 文と文がばらばらではなく、自己アピールとして一貫性があるか。			
[語彙/表現]	- いろいろな単語や熟語や表現が使えているか。 - 英語らしい表現ができていないか。			
[言語使用]	- 主語と動詞の活用的一致、時制、冠詞、代名詞、前置詞、関係代名詞などが正しく使えているか。 - いろいろな構文が使えているか。			
[メカニクス]	- スペリング: 正しいスペルで書けているか。 - 段落下げ: 新しい段落では、文字が下がっているか。 - 大文字: 最初の文字や固有名詞などが大文字になっているか。 - 句読点: ピリオドやコンマは、正しくうてているか。			
[総合評価]	今までの評価を振り返って この自己アピールは、アルバイト面接者に「採用したい!」と思ってもらえるか。			

それぞれのサンプルの①よいところ、②改善すべきところを具体的に示し、書き直しに役立つようにアドバイスをしてください。

Appendix B: Samples of Student Writings

[Sample A]

About Music

I am interested in the Possible the Assistant music teacher.
 I am ABC College Student.
 I major in the piano.
 I am currently a freshman.
 I hobby is driving car.

[Sample B]

Getting a Part-Time-Job As a pianist for wedding

I'm interested in the position as a pianist for wedding. I wish to obtain the part-time-position. I'm currently a freshman at ABC college of music. I major in Piano.

I believe that I am qualified for this job because I have been studying the piano for 14 years, and I have learned technical music in the high school and I have been learning it in the college. I practice the piano hard everyday.

I like an atmosphere of wedding. I want to create an happy mood, and give a deep impression I hope you will give me the opportunity to gain further experience in playing the piano in the wedding

[Sample C]

Swimming school Instructor

I am ABC college freshman. My name is Nao Usami. Appliant reason is I like to come in contact with children and I thought I can enjoy swimming. Through swimming, I want to do my heart strict. And I want to cultivate with children. I thought for me to become good study. I think that I want to work hard. I suppose to be able to get something valuable thing in my life. Please employ me!

Appendix C: Excerpt of Feedback Sheets

		フィードバックの記述内容	評定平均 4 点満点
S.H.W. (1)	よい点	シンプルで読みやすい。ただ音楽の先生のアシストをしたいのだからということがわかる。	3.7
S.H.W. (1)	改善点	文がシンプルすぎる(すべてがIから始まっているので読む側としては見ていておもしろくない。ただ専攻しているという情報だけで音楽の先生のアシスタントをしたいという熱意が全然伝わってこない。もっと、I like teaching とかどうしてやりたいのかを書けばいいと思う。I hobby を My hobby possible を position にするとよい。	4.0
S.H.W.(2)	よい点	簡潔なところがよいと思います。無駄な情報がない。	3.7
S.H.W.(2)	改善点	でも、この文を読んでも「あつ、そう」という感じで話がおわっちゃいそうです。もっと具体的なアピールポイントはなかったのかなあ。	3.7
S.L.W.(1)	よい点	一瞬で読める。	1.0
S.L.W.(1)	改善点	簡単すぎる。もっとくわしく。	3.7
S.L.W.(2)	よい点	読みやすすぎる。	1.3
S.L.W.(2)	改善点	内容が濃いといい。	3.3
Teacher(1)	よい点	特に見受けられない。	1.0
Teacher(1)	改善点	スピーチ、或いは面接時の自己アピールのための内容を整えていない。恐らく、A さんが日本語でこのアルバイトに応募する際には、異なる内容のプレゼンテーションとなろう。英語力不足がもの足りない内容になっている原因と考えられる。まずは英語力を高める努力が必要と思われる。日本語で相手を説得するとしたら何と言いますか、といったアプローチも必要では。	4.0

SECTION 3

COMPARING ANONYMOUS AND NAMED FEEDBACK

The objective of the present study is to investigate the difference between named peer feedback and unnamed feedback in a Japanese college English composition class. The forty-six students reviewed two anonymous English compositions both by rating them on a scale from 1 to 5 on five criteria (Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics) and by giving descriptive feedback. In doing so, they were asked to name their evaluation of one composition but leave the second evaluation unnamed. The students were told that their feedback would be returned to the writers. Their unnamed evaluation contained lower scores and more comments on points to be improved. They commented more specifically and directly than when their assessment was named. On the other hand, with their names included the students evaluated work as higher on the points scale and commented more on good points. Moreover, the students' expressions were more polite when their feedback was named. As a result of these findings, some suggestions are made below with regard to introducing peer feedback in teaching English writing to Japanese college students.

6-3-1 INTRODUCTION

As in all learning there are many kinds of errors in learning English writing. In paragraph writing, learners tend to make errors not only on a surface level but also at the deeper level of meaning. It is common that a teacher gives some feedback to help students overcome writing errors. However, this is not always effective in revision (Ferris, 1995; Fathman & Whalley, 1990). It is partly as a result of this that peer feedback has been introduced in L2 classrooms either in written or oral form.

In teaching ESL writing, peer feedback has generally been written. To assist this written form, teachers often give feedback sheets which ask questions such as, "What is the topic sentence?" "How is this essay organized?" "What do you like most about this essay?", "What suggestions can you give to improve the essay?" (Berg 1999) Using a peer feedback sheet makes it possible to have the focus of feedback clear. In addition, both meaning levels and surface levels of feedback can be easily combined (Liu & Hansen, 2002). Furthermore, peers can write comments in a margin of the paper on

which an essay is written and they can point out the places where writer cannot make themselves understood (Berg, 1999; Liu & Hansen, 2002).

On the other hand, there are some disadvantages in using the written form of feedback. Liu & Hansen (2002) say “Students often complain about poor handwriting and a lack of consistency in making comments. Some students might comment in such a way that the author does not read and understand the comments as originally intended. Moreover, it is often difficult to change the comments once they are made. (82)”. At the same time, the handwriting of a peer sometimes makes clear who write the comments. When anonymity is preferred, Liu and Hansen (2002) say that “the obvious recognition of handwriting will make the acceptance or rejection of certain comments very subjective.”

The previous study makes clear students tended to behave differently depending on who gave them feedback. It is important to investigate if there is any difference in students’ acceptance and rejection of peer feedback, according to whether it is named or unnamed.. The present study investigates if there is any difference between named peer feedback and unnamed feedback in a Japanese college English writing class.

6-3-2 THE PRESENT STUDY

This study is a preliminary investigation to discover a method of peer feedback that matches Japanese education practice. The purpose of this study is to investigate what kind of difference there is between when students rate peer writing anonymously and when they name their feedback. The following questions form the basis of the study:

Research Questions

- 1) Are there any differences in their peer feedback scores when Japanese college students name their evaluation from when they do not?*
- 2) Is there any difference in the amount and number of descriptive comments when Japanese college students name their feedback from when feedback is anonymous?*
- 3) Is there any qualitative difference in the descriptive comments of peer feedback when Japanese college students name the rating of writing or when they rate without naming their feedback?*

6-3-3 METHODS

Participants

A total of 48 (female) Japanese second-year students majoring in music, participated in the study. Their average age was 19.5 years old. They had studied English for 7.4 years on average, through highly controlled formal education in Japan. The majority of them had English proficiency levels from lower to middle intermediate. They had mastered basic grammar and vocabulary. Of these students, ten had achieved third grade, eleven the semi second grade and ten the second grade in the STEP test (Eigo Kentei Shiken).

Setting

The class was held once a week for 90 minutes. The total number of classes was 24 in a year. The present study was implemented during the tenth and eleventh classes. The students had experienced five lessons on paragraph writing and had had three experiences of peer feedback by the ninth class.

Instruments

The instruments consisted of a writing topic, writing samples and a peer feedback sheet.

Writing Topic

Forty eight participants wrote a piece in 150-200 words either on the subject of “Culture Difference” or on “Culture Shock”. They used a comparison / contrast structure.

Writing Samples

From forty-eight pieces of writing, two writing samples which had different characteristics were chosen (Appendix A).

Table 6-3-1: Characteristics of writing samples

Sample	Characteristics
A	In content, an appropriate anecdote was included. However, in organization, there was no topic sentence. The essay did not use the technique of comparison and contrast
B	In content, the topic was not appropriate being neither “Culture Difference” nor “Culture Shock”. However, the essay was organized based on the topic sentence. It used the technique of comparison and contrast.

Feedback Sheet

Four Japanese teachers of English at college level created a feedback sheet referring to the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et al., 1981) (Appendix A). It consisted of two parts, one had a 1 to 5 point scale, and the other required descriptive feedback. In their descriptive feedback, students wrote two types of comments in Japanese. These answered the questions:

- (1) What are the good points of the paper?
- (2) What suggestions do you have for revising the paper?

Procedure

- (1) All of the participants wrote an essay either with the title of “Culture Difference” or of “Culture Shock”.
- (2) The participants were given two anonymous writing samples labeled A and B.
- (3) The participants gave peer feedback. In doing so, they were asked to name their evaluation of one composition but leave the second evaluation unnamed. They rated the two samples, for one using a 1 to 5 points scale and for the other one using descriptive comments.
- (4) The participants answered questionnaires which asked whether there was any difference in their peer feedback when they rated with their names on their feedback or when they rated anonymously.

6-3-4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question

- 1) Are there any differences in their peer feedback scores when Japanese college students name their evaluation from when they do not?*

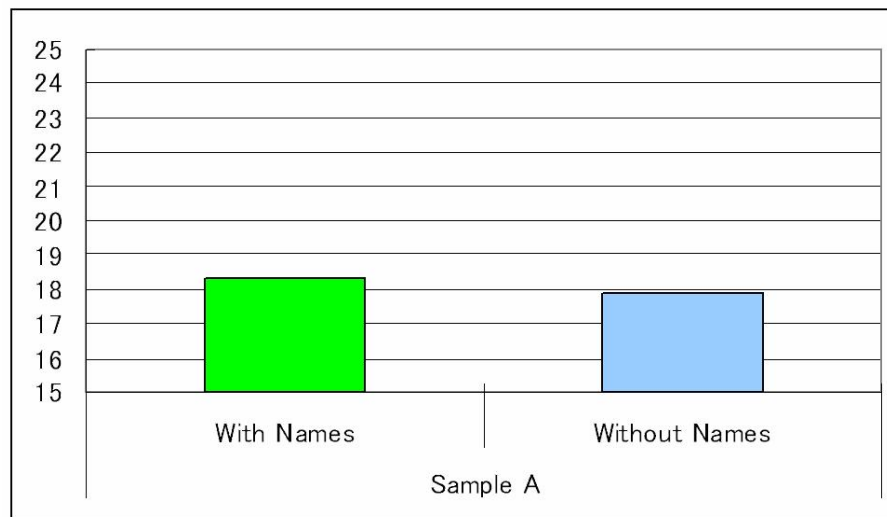
The average scores, SD, and t-value of peer feedback by two groups (each=23) were calculated. Both groups gave higher scores when they evaluated naming their feedback than when they evaluated without identification. T-value results showed that there was a significant difference in responses to Sample B whereas there were no significant differences in giving Sample A feedback (Table 6-3-2, Figure 63-1 & 6-3-2).

Table 6-3-2: Comparison of Average Peer Feedback Scores

	Sample A		Sample B	
Average Scores	With Names	Without Names	With Names	Without Names
	18.32	17.86	20.18	18.00
SD	2.65	3.87	2.59	2.77
t-value	0.46		2.79	
P	n.s.		P<.01	

Each Group :With / Without Names=23

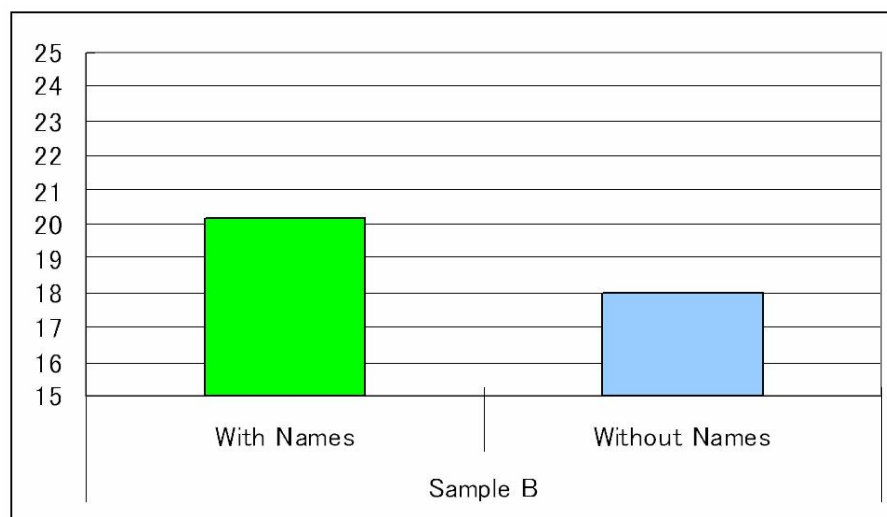
Full points:25 points



Each Group :With / Without Names=23

Full points:25 points

Figure 6-3-1: Comparison of Average Peer Feedback Scores for Sample A



Each Group :With / Without Names=23

Full points:25 points

Figure 6-3-2: Comparison of Average Peer Feedback Scores for Sample B

Research Question

- 2) *Is there any difference in the amount and number of descriptive comments when Japanese college students name their feedback from when feedback is anonymous?*

The average quantity and length of descriptive comments, SD, and t-value of the two groups (each=23) were calculated. As the comments were written in Japanese, the amount written was equal to the number of Japanese characters. The results showed there was a difference between when students evaluated and identified themselves and when they did not. (Table 6-3-3 & 6-3-4). In both Sample A and B, when they identified themselves, they wrote longer comments on 'Good points.' When evaluation was unnamed, they wrote longer comments on 'Points to be improved.' In Sample A there was a significant difference between the two groups in 'Good points' and 'Points to be improved,' whereas in Sample B there was a difference only in "Points to be improved."

As is shown in the results of Research questions 1) and 2), the qualitative analysis showed there was a difference between when the students rated peer writing anonymously and when they did not. On the point scale, they tended to rate more highly when they gave identified feedback. Anonymously, they tended to rate lower. The amount and length of descriptive comments, increased in named feedback, whereas, 'Points to be improved' comments were longer if the author was unidentified.

Table 6-3-3: Comparison of Number of Characters in Peer Feedback Descriptive Comments about Sample A

Length of Comments	Good points		Points to be improved	
	With Names	Without Names	With Names	Without Names
	61.99	39.66	41.84	65.19
SD	13.69	15.82	19.28	35.68
t-value	2.82		2.54	
P	p<0.01		p<0.05	

Table 6-3-4: Comparison of number of characters in Peer Feedback Descriptive Comments about Sample B

Sample B				
Length of Comments	Good points		Points to be improved	
	With Names	Without Names	With Names	Without Names
	47.61	51.46	47.01	62.86
SD	14.43	15.11	19.78	22.04
t-value	0.97		2.67	
P	<u>n.s.</u>		<u>p<0.05</u>	

Table 6-3-5: Comparison between identified and unidentified feedback

	Sample A	Sample B
Point Scale	n.s	+
Amount of Comments		
Good points	+	n.s
Points to be improved	—	—

Point Scale= Named Scores – Unnamed Scores

Amount of Comments = Amount with Names-Amount without Names

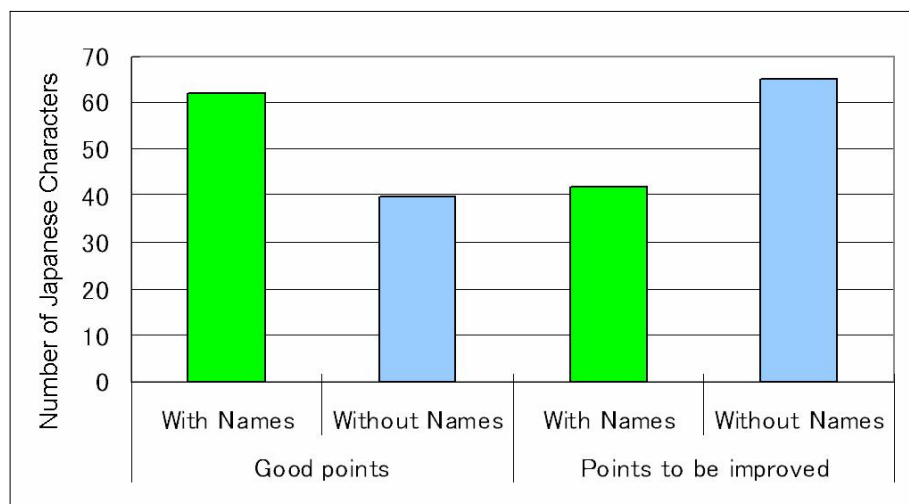


Figure 6-3-3: Comparison of the Length of Descriptive Comments about Sample A

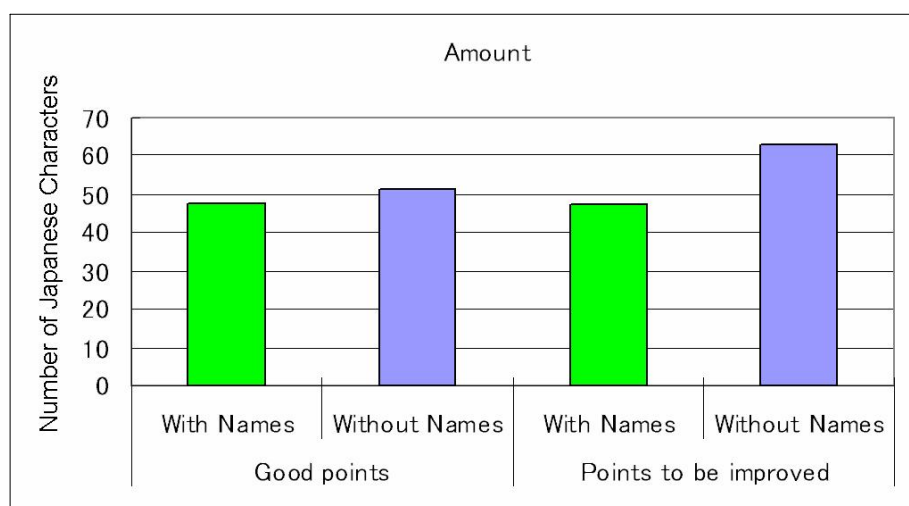


Figure 6-3-4: Comparison of the Length of Descriptive Comments about Sample B

Research Question

3) *Is there any qualitative difference in the descriptive comments of peer feedback when Japanese college students name the rating of writing or when they rate without naming their feedback?*

There was qualitative difference in descriptive comments between when the students identified themselves as peer raters of writing and when they did not. In the comments on 'Points to be improved,' thirty students who had not named their feedback commented concretely and criticized the writer's faults. On the other hand, twenty writers who had identified themselves tended to soften their comments and their comments were more abstract. For example, one unnamed student commented about Sample A, "I do wonder which sentence is a concluding sentence." The same student, still anonymous, commented about Sample B, "Since the writer gave a lot of experiences and anecdotes, it was easy to imagine what happened to her. However, in this essay there was no topic sentence. So I read through the essay while wondering what she wants to say most. I think she should write a topic sentence which makes clear that Japanese and Canadian were different in such a way." Without her name on the feedback, the student had commented on the specific points and had given a good tip to improve the essay. Another student who had identified herself gave a softened comment about Sample B, "It might be good if the essay has a few paragraphs." The same student anonymously commented, "The writer contrasted Japanese and Canadian with the anecdote of a bus. This anecdote was easy to understand. However, I didn't understand what the writer wanted to say by the anecdote of the elevator. As her sentences were incoherent, she should use more cohesion to link each sentence." As is shown in the above, the two students' comments differed according to whether they had identified themselves by name or not. Anonymously, the students appeared to comment concretely and clearly.

In the comments about 'good points,' named students gave polite comments. One student commented about Sample B, "The essay was so cohesive that it was easy to read. I liked the essay, because she wrote that she did not know how to use both washing machine and rice cooker and moreover she did not clean her room. I am the same type of a person just as the same as her. I could imagine her life easily from my daily life." The same student anonymously commented about Sample A, "The writer's anecdote oversea was interesting." The identified students tended to give detailed and long comments, whereas anonymously they tended to comment superficially and

briefly.

In other cases, the language was different. With named feedback the language was polite, whereas without their names the language was assertive. With their names on their comments, the sentences ended in “desu” and “masu,” whereas without their names they ended in “da” and “dearu.”

As is shown in the above, the content and the language of descriptive comments were different according to whether the writer was or was not identified. The results of the questionnaire, however, revealed that thirty two students (67%) were not aware that the writer was supposed to read their comments. Among them, twenty two students had changed their comments anyway. It still appears that though many students believed that they rated in the same way whether identified or not actually they had changed the content and language of their comments accordingly. The results showed that the students may not be conscious of the differences in their rating with or without their name. On the other hand, two students did answer that they had changed and softened their named comments, whereas they had pointed out the problems directly and critically when they were anonymous.

Sixteen students (33%) mentioned that they had altered the content and style of their identified comments. One of them said that they wanted to avoid conflicts which might be triggered by pointing out the critical points. Two of the students said, “It is not easy for me to comment on points to be improved with my name, considering the feeling when she received my comments.”

6-3-5 CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In comparing identified and unidentified peer feedback in Japanese college English writing classroom, the following points were noted:

- (1) Japanese students seemed to rate differently with / without names on their peer feedback.
- (2) Without their names, the students rated giving lower scores.
- (3) Without their names, the students commented on more points to be improved. They commented more specifically and directly.
- (4) With their names, the students rated giving higher scores.
- (5) With their names, they gave higher overall point scores.
- (6) With their names, they commented more on good points. They used more polite

forms than without their names.

The results of the present study suggest that when teachers introduce peer feedback into Japanese college writing classrooms, we have to pay attention to the fact that students may rate differently when they are identified. The results suggest that when we want to praise good points and develop positive attitudes to writing, named peer feedback should be introduced. In addition, when we want to criticize points to be improved directly, we might be better to introduce anonymous peer feedback.

There were some limitations to this study. It was limited to looking at anonymity in giving feedback. It is desirable to also study the effect of anonymity of the writing itself. Whether the authors name is present or not, may influence the quantity and quality of peer feedback. Recently the anonymity allowed by the internet has been criticized. The results of this study suggest that to make use of the positive advantages of anonymity or of identifying authorship in all writing classes further study is needed and perhaps some relevant lessons from the internet investigated.

Appendix A: Samples of Student Writings

1. Sample A

I'd like to talk about My culture difference. One of my friends lives in Ottawa Canada. Her name is Lisa. Last Summer, I visited her.

Although that was my first trip abroad by myself. I managed to go to her house. Ofcourse, during the trip, many kind people helped me a lot.

One day I was in Downtown shopping around with Lisa. Suddenly, the escalator I was on stopped. And then, all the lights went out. One shutter after another began to go down. I wondered what was going on around me. All the things were cased by a great power failure. The news spread out all over the world. We got on a bus to go back home. But as you know, we were in a terrible traffic jam. The bus didn't go any further. A man with a guitar happened to get on the bus. Probably the bus driver asked him to sing a song for all passengers and driver. To my surprise, he began to sing a song. In a little while, all the people in the bus began to sing the same song, clapping their hands. It was pleasant atmosphere. I felt as if we were the members of one family!

Thinking about what would happen in the same situation in Japan, we would behave very differently. We would keep silent or some of us would get irritated. All of us certainly be sullen.

This good experience made me notice one culture difference.

(248 words)

2. Sample B

To live alone and to live in family home are contrary. I live in Chiba, and commute to this callege from my family home. My friends are almost living alone. As I have never heard story about living alone, I often surprised.

As to the meal, when I come home, my mother always prepare dinner. My home's refrigerator always has foods. I don't cook. But, my friends can't eat unless they shopping and cook. As to clean, my friends must clean the whole home. I don't clean even my room. I don't know how to washing machine, rice cooker. But, my friends must live by themself. Moreover, my friends often say, "Today, INAGE-Ya is cheap", "I want to dry bed clothes", "I bought piece of breads cheaply", "I want sofa" etc...I feel they looks like mother. I can't say the phrases. Hearing them conversations, I am in a hurry. I feel to live alone and to live in family home are contrary.

Thinking this way, maybe, everyone think to live in family-home is better than to live alone. But, I don't think so. Because, my friends say "I enjoy it. Though to live alone is busy, I can live freely". I admire the free. When I am in home, my parents always want to know my private and complain about me. And to live alone can prepare to live by myself. If I have more moneys, I want to live alone.

(241 words)

Appendix B : Feedback Sheet

エッセイを読み、次の質問に答えてください。

(1)構成： Organization - Topic sentence に、波線の下線を引いてください。 その Topic sentence は、エッセイの中心文として適切だと思いますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。 - Topic sentence にそって、エッセイが発展していますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。 - Concluding sentence に、下線を引いてください。 その Concluding sentence は、まとめとして適切だと思いますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。
(2)内容： Content - どんな文化の違い、カルチャー・ショックが説明されていましたか。 - 何が対比されていましたか。 “Culture Shock” “Culture Difference”というトピックにふさわしい内容が紹介されていましたか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。

・各項目を 5～1 点で評価してください。評価できない、判断できない時は「？」と書き入れてください。

5: Excellent	4: Very Good	3: Satisfactory	2: Fair	1: Poor
評価観点				点
[内容] Content	- エッセイでは、文化の違い、カルチャー・ショックを説明するのに、有効な情報や事実が充分にあったか。 - 情報や事実に対して、筆者の考えがあったか。			
[構成] Organization	- Topic Sentence があるか、Topic Sentence が発展して本文になっているか、Concluding sentence (結びの文)があるか。 - 文と文との関係がわかるように、接続詞が効果的に使えているか。 - 文と文がばらばらではなく、説明に一貫性があるか。			
[語彙/表現] Vocabulary	- いろいろな単語や熟語や表現が使えているか。 - 英語らしい表現ができているか。			
[文法] Grammar	- 主語と動詞の活用的一致、時制、冠詞、代名詞、前置詞、関係代名詞などが正しく使えているか。 - いろいろな構文が使えているか。			
[メカニクス] Mechanics	- スペリング：正しいスペルで書けているか。 - 段落下げ：新しい段落では、文字が下がっているか。 - 大文字：最初の文字や固有名詞などが大文字になっているか。 - 文の途中で大文字になっていないか。 - 句読点：ピリオドやコンマは、正しくうてているか。			
[合計] Total	合計点を出そう。(25 点満点)			

・エッセイについて具体的に書いてください。

(1)よいところ、好きなところは何ですか。
(2)改善すべき点を示し、書き直しに役立つようにアドバイスをしてください。

CHAPTER 7

REVISION AFTER FEEDBACK

Chapter 6 discussed the validity of various forms of feedback. Section 1 compared the ratings of Japanese English college teachers (J.E.T.) to those of native English college teachers (N.E.T.). It appears that J.E.T. scored based on the level of students' English proficiency, whereas N.E.T. scored based on their English speaking country's sociocultural standards. In addition, there was difference of opinion in how to interpret organization between J.E.T. and N.E.T. Section 2 and 3 investigated the validity of peer feedback. In Section 2, peer feedback was compared to teachers' feedback. When students and teachers rated a set of three pieces of writing, they ranked the three samples in the same order regardless of the students' writing ability. As to the validity of descriptive feedback, a remarkable difference is observed depending on the writing ability of the students. In Section 3, the validity of named versus unnamed peer feedback was investigated. It was revealed that students evaluating anonymously gave lower scores and made more comments on points to be improved. They commented more specifically and directly than when their feedback was named. On the other hand, with their comments named the students scored work higher on the point scale and commented more on good points. Chapter 7 investigates the effects of feedback on revision. Section 1 investigates whether it is effective to train writing beginners in self-feedback. The self-feedback training increased students' knowledge of English writing and total scores on their revised writing. It was also found that the training was most effective in improving "Language Use" and least effective in improving "Vocabulary." The results of this study indicate that training in self-feedback positively affected the quality of EFL beginners' draft writing. Section 2 examines the effects of four different types of feedback on revision. They are self-feedback, peer-feedback, teacher-feedback, and peer & teacher-feedback. After writing first drafts, the students were given feedback in one of the four forms of feedback. The result was that the scores of all groups became higher after each type of feedback, and there was no significant difference according to feedback method.

SECTION 1

THE EFFECTS OF TRAINED SELF-FEEDBACK ON REVISION

The purpose of this research is to investigate whether it is effective to train EFL writing beginners in self-feedback. After 42 Japanese college students wrote their first drafts, they had an opportunity to reread, revise and edit their own drafts. In this case, the students were divided into two groups; a trained group and an untrained group. The trained group was given instruction in how to revise and edit their drafts and the untrained group was given only the opportunity to reread, revise and edit. The self-feedback training increased students' knowledge of English writing. When the scores of the second drafts of the trained group and the untrained were compared, the trained group gained higher total scores on their revised writing than the untrained did. It was also found that the training was most effective in improving "Language Use" and least effective in improving "Vocabulary." Both groups' second drafts yielded higher scores than their first in Content and Mechanics. The results of this study indicate that training in self-feedback positively affected the quality of EFL beginners' draft writing.

7-1-1 INTRODUCTION

The nature of writing is recursive; however, many Japanese college students seem to think the writing process comes to an end once they have completed their first draft. As a result, they often hand in their compositions without either rereading or monitoring them. As their papers are full of errors and mistakes, students expect a teacher to provide feedback. However, even if a teacher spends a lot of time in detailed correction, the students are often unable to incorporate these changes into future writing.

In order to address this problem, Nakanishi (1994) and Masaki (1998) found that the introduction of self-correction into the process of student writing was effective in the improvement of certain aspects of their writing. Nakanishi also mentions that the quantity and focus of self-correction correlates with writing proficiency. Students with a more advanced level of English writing proficiency correct their errors more than those with lower English proficiency. If students are expected to revise their writings skillfully in self-correction, they require opportunities to learn how to correct and revise their papers.

This study investigates the effects of training in self-feedback on Japanese EFL student writing through the comparison of a treatment group, which had explicit training in this method, with a control group.

7-1-2 BACKGROUND

Feedback and Revision Studies

Revision has played a central role in English writing (Beach, 1976; Sommers, 1980) with it occurring at various stages in the composing process (Faigley & Witte, 1981; Lam, 1991). It is common for a language teacher to provide some feedback before students actually revise their drafts. In order to identify what kinds of information and methods are effective, feedback has often been the focus of second language writing research.

Feedback is often either content- and form-focused. Form-focused feedback, which pays attention to accuracy of language, can be given with varying degrees of explicitness. The most direct is the complete correction of the surface errors with a target-like insertion. Less direct is where the teacher marks the place of error and indicates the type of error in the margin without actually providing target like correction. Even less explicit is underlining the errors to indicate only their presence. The first requires students to revise their writing by copying the corrections and the latter two require students to correct the errors on their own. Feedback on content consists mainly of comments written on drafts that usually point out problems and offer suggestions for improvements on future rewrites. Students are usually expected to incorporate information from the comments into later versions of their papers.

Of late, however, there have been some serious questions raised as to the usefulness of these kinds of error feedback. Recent research results indicate error feedback may not be assisting students to improve their accuracy in spite of the large amounts of teacher effort which goes into it (Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985; Cohen & Cavalcante, 1990; Truscott, 1996; Fregeau, 1999). For example, when direct error feedback on form is given, the majority of the students continue producing the same errors even though they have received feedback from their teacher (Graham, 1983). For this reason, some researchers have expressed skepticism regarding the effectiveness of error feedback offered in classroom instruction (Semke, 1984; Truscott, 1996). Graham (1983) found frequency of teacher feedback does not ensure better student writing.

Many researchers have found that teacher comment is often vague, contradictory, unsystematic and inconsistent (Fathman & Whally, 1990; Fregeau, 1999).

Robb, Ross, & Shortreed (1986) explored whether the salience of indirect feedback influenced Japanese students' accuracy, fluency, and syntactic complexity. They classified indirect feedback into three subcategories. All students were required to revise their essays after receiving feedback. Regardless of group membership, all students improved on the various accuracy ratios over time. Robb et al. concluded that there is no apparent benefit attached to more-explicit versus less-explicit correction methods, arguing that the time and effort expended by instructors to provide direct feedback or coded feedback is not justified by the results.

Given that explicit error correction may not have the desired effect of written accuracy improvement, some have suggested a student-centered approach to written revision. For example, Fathman and Whally (1990) found that students can write better compositions just by revising their drafts without any feedback, which suggests that rewriting is worthwhile and teacher intervention is not always necessary. Likewise, Raimes (1983) encourages revision without feedback and writing without teacher intervention.

Oikawa and Takayama (2000) provided some support for this with the Japanese EFL high school student participants in their study. They examined the effects of error feedback and revision. The students were divided into four groups in a 2X2 cell design, depending on whether or not they were given error feedback, and whether or not they were required to revise. Consequently, there was no significant difference between the error feedback group and the non-error feedback group. However, significant differences were found between the revision group and non-revision group: the former outperformed the latter in terms of accuracy, while the latter outperformed the former with respect to fluency. In other words, students improved their written accuracy as a result of the opportunity to revise a text regardless of whether feedback was provided.

Experienced writers versus inexperienced writers' revision

Several researches point out the differences in revision between experienced writers and inexperienced writers. Faigley and Witte (1981) found that experienced writers made meaning changes more frequently, whereas inexperienced writers mostly made surface revisions. Zamel (1982, 1983) also said that skilled writers have been seen to be more aware of variables such as audience, topic and organization. Pianko (1979)

said that the unskilled writer was seen to have a narrower outlook, in the case of L2 writing, and did not make changes in content and organization.

When teachers think about their time and energy constraints, it is difficult for them to provide feedback on all aspects of student writing. Also the research above has shown that the effectiveness of this is questionable. However, if inexperienced writers are given self-feedback strategy training, they might be able to revise their drafts more effectively. In addition to the saving in teacher time, students would have increased opportunities to improve their writing.

Self-feedback training studies

Several studies have suggested that such training would be effective. For example, Ferris (1995) says, “No matter how interesting or original a student’s ideas are, an excess of sentence- and discourse- level errors may distract and frustrate instructors and other readers.this may lead to harsh evaluation of the student’s overall writing abilities (p.18).” In this article, she introduces concrete strategies to assist students to be independent editors. These self-editing strategies require students to identify and edit their drafts by rereading their compositions. They may also enable students to have more autonomy in learning, requiring that they take responsibility in the process of monitoring their own errors.

However, as Ferris’s remarks, content and organization are not the focus of most revision training. When teaching Japanese college students who have little writing experience and instruction even in their L1, English writing teachers need to teach a method to help students revise the content and organization of their paper (Nakanishi, 2005a) in addition to surface editing.

Self-feedback seems to be a useful strategy that teachers might be able to introduce in their teaching of process writing. However, there are few studies which have investigated the effectiveness of self-feedback in increasing student writing quality.

7-1-3 THE PRESENT STUDY

The objective of this study, therefore, is to investigate the influence of training for self-feedback on writing outcomes of Japanese EFL writing beginners. It does so by comparing two groups, one trained in how to revise writing and one a control group that did not receive training. The following research questions form the basis of this study.

Research Questions

- 1) Does training in self-feedback influence knowledge of English writing?*
- 2a) Does a trained self-feedback group gain higher total scores in revised writing?*
- 2b) In what areas, if any, of revised writing do a group trained in self-feedback improve (e.g. Content, Organization, Language Use, Vocabulary, and Mechanics)?*
- 2c) What are the characteristics of a group trained in self-feedback?*

First we need to know if training is effective, and that knowledge of the writing process is improved based on the training. Then we need to know if this training yields higher total scores in revised writing. Thirdly, we should know what a trained group focuses on most in their revised writing. Finally we need to know what the characteristics of a trained group are.

Hypothesis

- (1) Training in English writing strategies will result in the treatment group having more metacognitive awareness of the writing than the control group.
- (2a) The treatment group will gain higher total accuracy scores in their subsequent writing when compared to the control group.

7-1-4 METHOD

Participants and Setting

A total of 293 Japanese first-year college students majoring in music initially sat an English Proficiency Test (Kirihara Shoten)¹⁾ and attained an average score of 54.34 out of 100 (S.D. = 14.24). From this population, 65 participants who attained more than 65% on the test were selected to participate in this study as they were deemed to have mastered the basic grammar and vocabulary required to produce English writing to a reasonable standard. Of these, questionnaires indicated that 23 had had writing instruction and had previously been required to produce at least one composition of more than 100 words in length and they were removed. This left 42 participants to take part in this study. Their ages varied from 18 to 20 years; with an average of 18.5 years. They had studied English for 6.6 years on average through the highly controlled formal Japanese system. Their English proficiency level was elementary to lower intermediate as determined by the proficiency test. The participants were enrolled in English for communicative purposes, rather than academic purposes in their current courses.

The students took two English classes, one Reading and Writing, and the other Listening and Speaking per semester. Each class was held once a week for 90 minutes and lasted for 12 weeks. In the Reading and Writing Class, improving writing skill was the primary focus. Students received basic instruction on how to write English compositions, along with some English grammar and expression lessons. They were required to write five compositions about 100-200 words on each topic, and revise and edit it for the following week. In the present study, the third and the fourth compositions were investigated.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study consisted of: a descriptive and a narrative written passage, an attitudes-to-self-feedback survey and a test of English writing knowledge. Each of these will be described in turn.

Writing topics

The students wrote on two short topics, one descriptive and the other narrative. Different writing genres were selected to investigate a broader selection of the

participants writing ability. Topics which were familiar to students were carefully chosen. The prompts for the two topics are given below.

The students were given 40 minutes to write both compositions in class. However, the time limit was not very strictly enforced. They were allowed to use a dictionary.

Table 7-1-1: Writing Topics

Writing Topic 1 (Descriptive Writing)	Write a process essay of about 100-200 words. Choose a topic where you know the process of writing very well. Make sure that your introduction states your purpose for explaining it. Remember to organize the steps of the process according to time order and use transition signals.
Writing Topic 2 (Narrative Writing)	Write an essay of about 100-200 words on the most impressive event in your life. Make sure that your essay has an introduction, body, and conclusion. Use connectors and relative pronouns.

Test of knowledge of English writing

The students were assessed on knowledge of English writing, such as awareness of topic sentences, concluding sentences and the pattern and organization of the writing. The test consisted of four sections: (a) reading a short paragraph and choosing the best topic and concluding sentences; (b) explaining terms such as a topic sentence and a concluding sentence; (c) reading a short paragraph and choosing the best transition words for several blanks; (d) choosing the best organized paragraph from among three alternatives.

Activities in Self-feedback and Attitudes to Self-feedback

Directly after completing the second draft of each topic, participants were asked to respond to questionnaires in Japanese. After completing Writing Topic 1, they were asked only what they actually focused on in self-feedback, but after Writing Topic 2, they were also asked about their attitudes toward self-feedback. The questions were: (a) what they actually focused on in self-feedback, (b) whether they knew what they were supposed to do in self-feedback, (c) whether they felt they could improve on their first drafts, and (d) what advice they wanted from a teacher to improve their drafts (See Appendix A).

Research Design

This study has a pseudo-experimental design. 21 students were placed in the control class, and the other 21 were in the experimental one. Both of the classes were intact existing classes at the researcher's college.

Training of self-feedback

The training program was developed over a period of 2 years by three Japanese College English teachers, and was based on suggestions provided in the literature (Ascher, 1993; Ferris, 2002; Fox, 1992; Lane & Lange, 1999; Peterson & Hagen, 1999) and writing textbooks (Blanchard & Root, 2004; Lin, 2000). The training consisted of 6 steps, ranging from 5 to 15 minutes each. These sessions were introduced in the framework of the classes from the first to fourth week and were repeated when necessary. These steps are described below.

For the first step, students in the experimental group were informed that there was no good writing, only good rewriting. It was explained to them that students could correct their errors and mistakes by checking their drafts before they handed them in. They were also told the importance of revising and editing in this session.

Secondly, the students were introduced to revision strategies. They were asked to answer several questions in Japanese such as (a) Is there a clear topic sentence, (b) Do all the sentences support the topic sentence, (c) Are the sentences organized in a logical order, (d) Are there transition words to guide the reader from one idea to the next (See Appendix B).

Thirdly, common written grammatical and expression errors were the focus of a lesson. The teacher chose two to three major error patterns from the students' writing and had them self-revise the errors. Ferris (2002) says that this selective error-correction

strategy helps students learn to make focused passes through their texts to find particular patterns of errors to which they may be most prone and to master grammatical terms and rules related to those specific errors.

Fourthly, the students were trained to check mechanics, such as spelling, paragraphing, capitalization, and punctuation.

Fifthly, they were given either former students' or peer compositions on the same topic they had just completed and were asked to locate written errors based on their revising strategies (See Appendix B). The trained participants then produced revised and edited versions of these papers.

Lastly, these students were asked to provide self-feedback on their own writing in 10-minutes. They finalized their writing out of class and it was then turned in to the teacher-researcher the following week.

The participants in the untrained group were also provided with information explaining the importance of revising and editing as in the first step. However, they were not introduced to revision strategies from step 2 to 6. In the place of the treatment, this group was given more opportunity to read, but not revise or edit, either former student's final drafts or peer writing other than that of the trained group. The teacher pointed out the errors in writing and corrected them. However, the teacher did not pattern the errors as she did in the trained group. Lastly, they self-revised and self-edited their own writing in 10-minutes. They were not given detailed direction as to how to go about doing this. This group also finalized their writing out of class and handed it in for teacher feedback.

Data-Collection

Data was collected through 5 weeks of the 12-week class. The class was held once a week for 90 minutes. For the students, Writing Topic 1 was the third assignment and Writing Topic 2 was the fourth. Figure 1 shows the design of the data-collecting sessions.

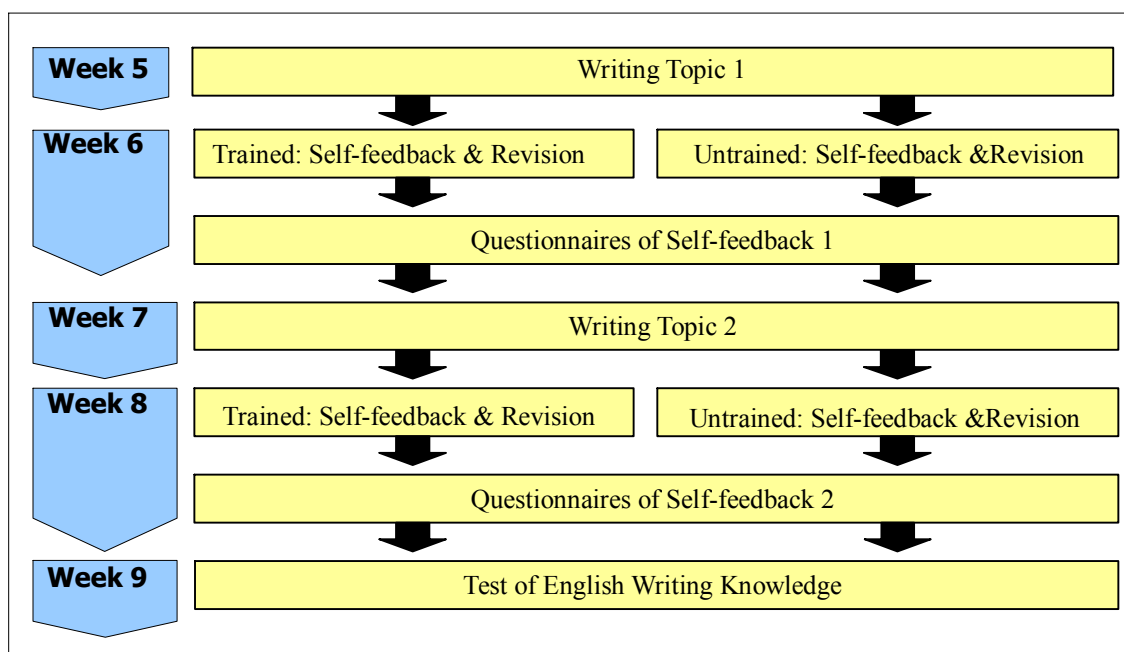


Figure 7-1-1: Design of Data Collection

Rating Procedures

The English texts were then rated by one experienced native English teacher and one experienced Japanese English teacher who work at a Japanese college, by EFL Composition Profile. It is the simplified ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et. al., 1981) which assigned 5 analytical criteria such as Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. The revision of the ESL Composition Profile was undertaken by three experienced Japanese college teachers of English. This was then revised again by two experienced native-speaker English teachers. The revisions and simplifications were made in order to rate the English writing of elementary to intermediate Japanese college students more effectively

Ratings were assigned on a scale from 1 to 5 points on five criteria: Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language use, and Mechanics. The two raters scores were then averaged for each participant and the five scores combined to give a maximum possible score of 25. The inter-rater reliability (Spearman Brown) was acceptably high (0.87).

A test of knowledge of English writing consisted of multiple-choice and description based questions. The total possible score was 100 points. The multiple-choice-questions were rated by one Japanese college English teacher and then the description-based-questions were rated by two Japanese college English teachers. The two raters' scores were averaged for each participant. The inter-rater reliability (Spearman Brown) was acceptably high (0.97).

The three questionnaires were analyzed by the researcher.

Analysis

In order to investigate the quality of the revised writing, all drafts written by the trained and untrained groups were analyzed quantitatively taking into account both the overall ratings and each individual criterion. Then, using a test of English writing knowledge the effects of training on this knowledge were analyzed quantitatively. Finally, the characteristics of the trained and the untrained groups were both quantitatively and descriptively analyzed.

The first hypothesis was investigated with a t-test comparing the writing knowledge test scores. Comparisons of the two groups writing were completed using a 2x2 repeated measures ANOVA, with the within subjects variable being the pre- or post-self-feedback writing. The between subjects variable was defined as the treatment and control.

7-1-5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question

1) Does training in self-feedback influence knowledge of English writing?

The average scores and standard deviations, and the t-value of the English writing knowledge test of each of the trained and untrained groups were calculated. The score of the trained group was 69.76 points (SD 8.18), and that of the untrained was 54.86 (SD 7.33). The trained group gained a significantly ($t(40) = 6.219, p < .05$) higher score than the untrained group. Thus our first hypothesis was confirmed.

A more detailed analysis of the tests showed the trained group could explain the meaning of ‘topic’ and ‘concluding’ sentences more effectively than the untrained group. One of the trained group students explained that the topic sentence “expresses the main idea in one or two sentences. It is the sentence in which the writer expressed what he/she wants to say most.” However, an untrained group student explained the topic sentence as “... is the first sentence of writing.” In addition, in the multiple-choice test of transition words, the trained group showed their understanding of how to connect sentences and paragraphs. In particular, the trained group understood transition words of contrast and comparison, such as ‘however, although and on the other hand.’

These results show that training in self-feedback influences knowledge of English writing. The trained group appeared to be more conscious of the role of sentences and transitions than the untrained group.

Research Question

2a) Does a trained self-feedback group gain higher total scores in revised writing?

Based on the two teachers' ratings of the trained and untrained groups' average scores, standard deviations (Table 7-1-2 & 7-1-3), and a repeated measures ANOVA were calculated. Mauchly's test of sphericity in each case produced a Mauchly's W of 1 which showed that the repeated measures ANOVA was appropriate for all comparisons.

In each of the Writing Topics the repeated measures ANOVA showed the self-feedback training provided to the trained group improved total scores, when compared to the untrained group, with a significant time/ group interaction. [Writing Topic 1: $F(1, 40)=8.94$, $p=.00$] [Writing Topic 2: $F(1, 40)=9.68$, $p=.00$] Thus, our second hypothesis was confirmed.

Table 7-1-2: Ratings of Total Scores in Writing Topic 1

	First drafts		Second drafts	
	Trained (n=21)	Untrained (n=21)	Trained (n=21)	Untrained (n=21)
Average score (Total Possible=25points)	14.00	14.43	16.48	15.00
SD	2.17	2.01	1.66	1.52

df = 40

Table 7-1-3: Ratings of Total Scores in Writing Topic 2

	First drafts		Second drafts	
	Trained (n=21)	Untrained (n=21)	Trained (n=21)	Untrained (n=21)
Average score (Total Possible=25points)	13.10	13.24	16.48	15.00
SD	3.35	2.69	2.10	1.52

df=40

Research Question

2b) In what areas, if any, of revised writing do a group trained in self-feedback improve (e.g. Content, Organization, Language Use, Vocabulary, and Mechanics)?

The average scores of 5 criteria were calculated for the trained and untrained groups (Table 7-1-4 & 7-1-5).

Table 7-1-4: Ratings of 5 Criteria of the Trained Group

	Writing Topic 1 (n=21)		Writing Topic 2 (n=21)	
Full score =5 points	First Drafts	Second Drafts	First Drafts	Second Drafts
Content	2.81	3.33	2.62	3.19
Organization	2.57	3.05	2.24	3.07
Vocabulary	2.86	3.00	2.67	2.67
Language Use	2.81	3.52	2.67	3.24
Mechanics	2.95	3.57	2.90	2.98

Table 7-1-5: Ratings on 5 Criteria for the Untrained Group

	Writing Topic 1 (n=21)		Writing Topic 2 (n=21)	
Full score =5 points	First Drafts	Second Drafts	First Drafts	Second Drafts
Content	2.95	3.19	2.67	2.79
Organization	2.81	2.86	2.43	2.76
Vocabulary	2.86	2.90	2.64	2.67
Language Use	2.81	2.90	2.62	2.67
Mechanics	3.00	3.14	2.88	2.71

The repeated measures ANOVA for 5 criteria in 2 Writing Topics was calculated (See Table 7-1-6). The ANOVA showed that the training provided to the treatment group improved Language Use in two topics when compared to the control with a significant time/ group interaction [Writing Topic 1: $F(1,40)=8.01$, $p=.01$); Writing Topic 2: $F(1,40)=7.35$, $p=.01$]

The ANOVA for Content and Mechanics in the 2 Writing Topics showed there was no interaction between group and time indicating that while there was overall improvement in two criteria between the first and the second draft, this was not due to the treatment.

The ANOVA for Vocabulary in 2 writing topics showed there was no interaction between group and time and there was no overall improvement between the first and the second draft.

The results of ANOVA for the Organization measure for the 2 topics were different. In Writing Topic 1, the ANOVA showed there was no interaction between group and time. Also there was no overall improvement in Organization between the first and second drafts ($F(1,40) = 4.09$, $p = .05$). On the other hand, in Writing Topic 2, the ANOVA for Organization showed that the training provided to the trained group improved Organization when compared to the untrained group with a significant time/ group interaction ($F(1,40) = 5.17$, $p=.03$).

The results showed that the training in self-feedback was most effective in Language Use. In the training, the teacher patterned the common grammatical errors and had students correct two or three typical error patterns themselves. It seemed that training was useful in that students revised their errors in Language Use and improved their scores.

The results for Content and Mechanics showed that revision itself played an important role in increasing these scores on two criteria. Regardless of training, the students could revise their first draft in Content and Mechanics.

However, the results for Vocabulary showed the training did not work effectively. In the training, the teacher reviewed common expressions in each topic. Because the errors and mistakes in expression varied, the teacher's explanation did not cover all of the student's errors and mistakes. Therefore they seemed not to recognize many of them. To help with vocabulary, it might be better for the teacher to provide individual feedback.

The results for Organization were different for each of the 2 topics. The difference might have been triggered by two factors. One factor might be the difference of genre of the writing topic, one being descriptive and the other narrative. Carrell and Connor

(1991), Dvorak (1987), and Koda (1993) consider that different modes of writing require different writing abilities. The other factor might be that because of the practice effect students may make better use of the strategies after the class had finished. In Writing Topic 2, the trained students successfully revised their Organization of ideas in their second drafts. Though these two factors were noted, this experiment did not set out to take them into account.

Table 7-1-6: The results of the repeated measures ANOVA for 5 criteria in 2 Writing

	Writing Topic 1		Writing Topic 2	
	Overall Improvement	Effect of training	Overall Improvement	Effect of training
Content	p<.01	n.s.	p<.01	n.s.
Organization	n.s.	n.s.	p<.01	p<.01
Vocabulary	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Language Use	p<.01	P<.05	p<.01	p<.01
Mechanics	p<.01	n.s.	p<.01	n.s.

Research Question

2c) What are the characteristics of a group trained in self-feedback?

What the trained and untrained groups actually did in self-feedback was investigated retrospectively using questionnaires. Then what both groups thought about self-feedback was examined. Lastly, requests to the teacher for writing advice from both groups were investigated.

Activities in Self-Feedback

The trained and untrained groups were shown to be different in what they actually focused on in the self-feedback session. The trained group reported that they revised and edited their first drafts based specifically on the criteria for Content, Language Use and Mechanics. (a) Sixty two percent (62%) of the trained group added/deleted sentences; (b) Eighty six percent (86%) of them corrected grammatical errors; (c) Fifty two percent (52%) of them corrected spelling errors.

On the other hand, the percentage of the students in the untrained group who revised and edit was less than that in the trained. Based on their retrospective self reports the untrained group reported that they did not much revise and edit their first drafts. (a) Forty five percent (45%) of them added/deleted sentences; (b) Thirty eight percent (38%) of them corrected grammatical errors; (c) Forty seven percent (47 %) of them corrected spelling errors (See Table 7-1-7).

Table 7-1-7: The total number of Trained and Untrained students' activities in self-feedback

		Trained (n=42)	Untrained (n=42)
Content	Added / Deleted a few sentences.	26	18
Organization	Added / Changed a topic sentence / a concluding sentence.	12	6
	Changed the order of sentences.	6	0
	Added / Changed transition words.	6	4
Vocabulary	Added / Changed words or vocabulary.	8	2
Language Use	Corrected grammatical errors.	36	16
Mechanics	Corrected paragraphing.	4	2
	Corrected punctuation.	0	0
	Corrected spelling.	22	19
	Corrected capitalization.	6	2

Attitudes to Self-Feedback

The trained group and the untrained groups produced different responses to the question regarding the gaining of a strategy. First, fifty seven percent (57%) of the trained group said they had acquired new strategies to deal with self-feedback, whereas only twenty four percent (24%) of the untrained were confident of this. Secondly, fifty two percent (52%) of the trained group thought self-feedback was useful to improve their drafts. They thought that they would now be able to improve their first drafts by themselves, if even just a little. On the other hand, twenty nine percent (29%) of the untrained found self-feedback important. Seventy one percent (71%) of them thought self-feedback was unimportant or trivial. They felt it was too difficult to revise by themselves, and explicitly wrote that they wanted their teacher to correct errors.

Request for Advice

The two groups were also different in the areas about which they would like to request advice from their teacher. About half of the trained group felt the desire for more feedback in Content, Organization, Language Use, and Mechanics. However, all of the participants in this group indicated they would have liked the teacher's assistance with vocabulary as they explained they did not know if their English sounded natural. On the other hand, most of the untrained group indicated they wanted advice in all areas, including vocabulary (See Table 7-1-8).

Table 7-1-8: The number of Trained and Untrained students who wanted advice on the 5 criteria

	Trained (n=21)	Untrained (n=21)
Content	9	12
Organization	10	20
Language Use	13	20
Vocabulary	21	21
Mechanics	10	20

The results of the quantitative analysis and those of the qualitative analysis were complementary. First, teachers' scores of the second drafts of the trained group increased on the criteria of Content, Organization, and Language Use, and also in their questionnaires, the trained group said that they felt they had improved their second drafts in Content, Organization, and Language Use.

Secondly, scores in Vocabulary did not increase in the second drafts for either the trained and untrained groups. In the questionnaires, both groups also said that they did not feel they improved their vocabulary. Based on the participants' comments it appears that they were unable to check the appropriateness of Vocabulary by themselves. In the area of feedback on Vocabulary, the teacher's assistance seems to be necessary to improve the quality of EFL writing.

7-1-6 CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study was undertaken to measure the effects of training in self-feedback on Japanese EFL students' writing quality. The assumption was made that training writing beginners to revise and edit their drafts would improve the quality of their revised drafts. To some extent this belief was confirmed by the data provided by the present study. It revealed that:

- (1) The training in self-feedback influenced knowledge of English writing. The training group yielded significantly higher scores in a subsequent test of knowledge of specific aspects of English writing. The trained group was able to understand some essential points about English writing through the self-feedback training.
- (2) The trained self-feedback group gained higher total scores in their revised writing than the untrained group.
- (3) The self-feedback training was most effective in Language Use and least effective in Vocabulary.
- (4) Regardless of training, revision only was effective in yielding higher scores in Content and Mechanics.
- (5) The effects of training on Organization were not consistent for the two different topics.
- (6) The trained group indicated that they had gained self-feedback strategies and that they had improved their first drafts by using them.
- (7) Some of the results of the quantitative analysis and those of the qualitative analysis

were mutually supportive.

From these results which show improvement in the quality of second writing through self-feedback, we can conclude that for these participants, Japanese EFL writing beginners, appropriate training can lead to better quality writing. The important classroom implications of these results are (1) that teachers who desire to use self-feedback as part of their approach to teaching writing beginners in the EFL classroom can take these results as evidence that it can improve writing and (2) that, in order for self-feedback to work, training seems to be essential.

However there were some limitations to the present study. Firstly, the study only examined beginners. Because these beginners had only limited experience in writing English, they seemed initially to have difficulties even in sentence writing. We need to extend these studies to higher intermediate and advanced level writers. Secondly, the period of the study was short. As writing does not develop over a short period of time (Chenoweth, 1987; Taniguchi, 1991), this study needs to be continued over a longer period. In the future, we need to investigate better ways of training for self-feedback at differing student writing levels.

Notes

1) The English Proficiency Test consisted of listening, structure, and vocabulary sections with a maximum possible score of 100 points.

Appendix A

*Activities in Self-Feedback and Attitudes to Self-Feedback (Excerpt)**

1. What did you focus on in self-feedback? Explain what you actually did in self-feedback.
2. Did you know what you had to do in self-feedback? Explain in detail.
3. Do you think you could improve your first drafts by yourself? Explain in detail.
4. What was difficult for you in self-feedback? What advice do you want from your teacher to improve your drafts?

Appendix B

*Self-Feedback Checklists for Writing (Excerpt)**

	Criteria
Content	• Is there enough information to support the topic? • Is there enough opinion on the topic?
Organization	• Is there a topic sentence / concluding sentence? • Do all the sentences support the topic sentence? • Are there transition words to guide the reader from one idea to the next? • Are the sentences organized in a logical order?
Vocabulary	• Can you use a variety of words and idioms? • Do you think you can express ideas well in English?
Language Use	• Can you write using correct grammar? Check the following grammatical points. (Subject-verb agreement, tense, number, word order, articles, pronouns, reflexive pronoun, and prepositions)
Mechanics	• Check the following points. (Spelling, paragraphing, capitalization, and punctuation)

* The original version of the checklist was written in Japanese.

Appendix C

Rating Criteria

EFL Composition Profile

5 points: Excellent	4 points: Very Good	3 points: Satisfactory	2 points: Fair	1 point: Poor
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Criteria	Checklists	Score
Content	• Does a writer answer a writing topic appropriately? • Is all the necessary information (who, what, where, how) included?	
Organization	• Does a draft have a topic sentence? • Does a draft develop based on the topic sentence? • Are logical connectors used appropriately? • Is the order of a draft appropriate?	
Vocabulary	• Are the choices of words appropriate? • Are a variety of words and expression used?	
Language Use	• Is grammar (subject-verb agreement, tense, numeral, article, preposition, pronoun, and reflexive pronouns) accurate?	
Mechanics	• Are paragraphing, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization accurate?	
Total (25 points)		

SECTION 2

THE EFFECTS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF FEEDBACK ON REVISION

The purpose of the present study is to examine the effects of feedback and revision on the writing of Japanese EFL learners. The students were divided into four groups, depending on from whom they were given feedback.

Group A: required to revise after self-feedback

Group B: required to revise after peer-feedback

Group C: required to revise after teacher-feedback

Group D: required to revise after peer & teacher-feedback

Forty students participated in this study. The participants were trained to give both self-feedback and peer-feedback in class. After writing first drafts, the students were given feedback in one of the four forms of feedback. The result was that the scores of all groups became higher after each type of feedback, and there was no significant difference according to feedback method. However, the questionnaire indicated that the peer & teacher feedback group most often reported that the comments were useful in revising their drafts.

7-2-1 INTRODUCTION

Much previous research of L1 and L2 English writing has suggested that revision plays an important role in writing (Beach, 1976; Sommers, 1980). Some feedback is necessary to assist writers to revise their first drafts. Therefore researchers and teachers have had a keen interest in determining what kind of feedback has the greatest effect on improving students' writing proficiency. Various kinds of feedback have been compared in previous studies.

Studies on Feedback and Revision

Many researchers have pointed out that teacher feedback of any type is more likely to benefit student writing if it comes primarily at intermediate, rather than final, stages of the written process-specifically, when students are allowed or even required to revise or rewrite their papers after receiving teacher feedback (Ferris, 1995b, 1997; Krashen, 1984; James 1998; Zamel, 1985). A number of studies provide evidence that when

students revise their papers after receiving feedback; their accuracy improves, either in the short or long term (Chandler, 2000; Fathman & Whalley; Ferris, 1997, Ferris et al. 2000; Lalande, 1982).

On the other hand, in two studies in which one group of students revised their papers while another group did not, there was no benefit as to superior accuracy for the group that revised (Frantzen, 1995; Polio et al. 1998). Finally, in three additional studies the effects of revision are not clear from the data presented (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Semke, 1984; Sheppard 1992). It is important to note that in this body of work; only one study specifically isolates revision as a key variable (Chandler, 2000). In the rest, other variables in addition to revision differ across groups. For instance, in Lalande's (1982) study, his experimental group received indirect, coded feedback and revised their marked papers during in-class editing sessions, while the control-group students received direct correction and did not revise their papers. He found that indirect feedback with the use of an error code produced significantly greater gains than direct correction.

Revision after Peer Feedback

Another line of feedback has been concerned with the effect of changing the source of feedback from teacher to peer. Research on peer feedback has been primarily concerned with the beneficial effects that this collaborative process can have on students. Peer feedback can give students an authentic audience, provide opportunities for the negotiation and elaboration of meaning (Daiz, 1986; Keyes, 1984; Mittan, 1989).

Some of the peer feedback studies focus on revision after peer feedback. Urzua (1987) reported that revising with trusted peers resulted in acquiring a sense of audience, a sense of voice, and a sense of power in language. Keh (1990) said that peer feedback is superior to teacher feedback in that the former can be more at the learner's own developmental level, and that the reader can learn more about writing by reading others' drafts.

Connor and Asenavage (1994) found that ESL students made both text-based and surface revisions. They reported that the impact of peer feedback on revision was extremely limited (5%) and about 35% of the revisions appeared to derive from teacher suggestion. They described their results as to the effects of peer response "disappointing" and suggested that L2 writing teachers "may expect too much from peer response groups without understanding how effective collaboration works among ESL writers"(p.267). Connor and Asenavage suggested that students may need more explicit

instruction on revision and better peer response training. Paulus (1999) also focuses on the effects of feedback on revision using Faigley and Witte's (1981) taxonomy and compares findings across teacher and peer feedback. She found that students made both meaning and surface changes. Paulus found that peer feedback influenced 32% of the revisions and teacher feedback (57%) but that the source of the majority of revisions overall was self/other (52%). Compared with Connor and Asenavage's study, Paulus's study shows that the impact of peer feedback was much greater. The finding in both studies that self/other was the major source of revision changes argues that the mere act of rereading and rewriting, even without feedback from peers or teacher, may lead not only to substantive changes but improved writing quality.

Berg (1999) focused on the effects of training for peer feedback on the types of revisions made by ESL writers. She found that the training group wrote higher quality revisions than the control group and made more meaning changes as opposed to surface changes. She suggested that her results imply that appropriate training can lead to more meaning-type revisions, which in turn may result in better quality writing in a second draft.

Revision after Self-feedback

The last line of feedback was self-feedback. There is much research that points out how invaluable error feedback from teachers and peers are. However, experts in L2 writing are unanimous that students need to develop self-editing skills and that classroom strategy training may well be useful to them (Bates et.al., 1993; Ferris 1995a, 1995c, 1999b; Ferris et.al., 1998; James, 1998; Reid, 1998b; Truscott, 1999). Among these researchers, Truscott (1996, 1999) who opposes error correction in any form in L2 writing classes, admits that there may be a legitimate role for strategy training and grammar instruction as an alternative means of helping students to edit their writing.

Ferris (2002) points out several components which are essential in developing strategies for self-editing.

1. Helping students become aware of their most pervasive patterns of error
2. Educating students about principles of second language acquisition and successful self-editing
3. Sharing specific editing strategies
4. Training students to make focused passes through a text to look at specific issues
5. Encouraging students to track their progress in self-editing

6. Teaching students how to edit under time pressure
7. Providing in-class or individualized grammar support (pp.78-98)

As is shown, it is essential to teach peer and self feedback strategies, when giving feedback is included as a part of classroom activity.

Japanese studies on feedback and revision

It is true most of this research was implemented in ESL settings and only a little of this research was implemented in EFL settings. Moreover, the research which specifically investigates the effects of feedback and revision on Japanese students was very limited. Hatori et al. (1990), Kanatani et al. (1993), and Touno (1995) undertook a project of feedback and revision involving Japanese EFL students at Tokyo Gakugei University. Their project was based on a position in which teachers' would not be rewarded for their time spent correcting students writing (Touno, 1995). They reported that feedback under these conditions would not yield much difference in students' rewriting and revising.

Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) studied Japanese EFL university students and divided them into 4 treatment groups that received progressively less explicit feedback (ranging from direct feedback to totals in the margin). All students were required to revise their essays after receiving feedback. All students in different groups improved on various accuracy ratios over time. Robb et al. argued that there is no apparent benefit attached to more-explicit versus less-explicit correction methods, arguing that the time and effort expended by instructors to provide direct feedback or coded feedback is not justified by the results. It means that highly detailed feedback on sentence-level mechanisms may not be worth the instructor's time or effort.

Oikawa and Takayama (2000) studied Japanese EFL high school students and examined the effects of error feedback and revision. The students were divided into four groups, depending on whether or not they were given error feedback, or whether or not they were required to rewrite. Apparently, there was no significant difference between the error feedback group and the non-error feedback group. However, some significant differences were found between the revision group and non-revision group: the former outperformed the latter in terms of accuracy, while the latter outperformed the former with respect to fluency. In other words, the students did not improve their writing regardless of whether or not they received teacher's error feedback, but their grammatical correctness was improved when the students themselves revised their

drafts.

Shizuka (2000) explored EFL students' views on four different editing methods: editing based on direct teacher correction, editing based on teacher's uncoded indication of the location of error, editing by peer feedback, and unaided self-editing. The results indicated that the students perceived editing based on teacher's indication of the location of the error most effective, and direct teacher correction and self-editing the least effective.

Student views on different types of feedback

One important area of research about student writing is surveys of students' opinions about different types of feedback on their writing. Ferris (2003) summarized previous studies about student views on various forms of feedback, despite differences across studies in context and research design. She pointed out three significant generalizations on various research projects:

1. Although L2 writers appreciate response on all aspects of their writing, they feel very strongly about receiving feedback about their language errors.
2. If they had to choose between forms of feedback, they clearly prefer teacher feedback, whether written or oral.
3. Students feel that a combination of feedback sources (teacher, peer, self) can also be beneficial to them. (p.114)

Timson, Grow, and Matsusoka (1999) studied Japanese students' error correction preferences and revealed that a majority of them desire to have their errors corrected. Students report that the responsibility for most correction should lie primarily with the teacher; the only exception being the correction of spelling errors. For the most part, Japanese students prefer to have teachers show students their errors by either providing the correct answer or indicating cues for self-correction. The authors believe these preferences are due to the authoritarian role that students perceive the teacher as having.

As is shown, revision seems to play an important role in improving the quality of ESL / EFL writing. In classrooms it is common that students revise after some types of feedback. As students feel that a combination of feedback sources (teacher, peer, self) can be beneficial to them, appropriate training in peer and self feedback which leads to higher quality writing is essential. Much research has been done to explore the effects of and preferences in feedback. However, none of the previous research compared teacher feedback with trained peer and self feedback in their effects on student writing. Therefore, this should be explored.

7-2-2 THE PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of the present study is to examine the effects of feedback and revision on the writing of Japanese EFL learners. The students were divided into four groups, depending on from whom they were given feedback.

Group A: required to revise after self-feedback

Group B: required to revise after peer-feedback

Group C: required to revise after teacher-feedback

Group D: required to revise after peer & teacher-feedback

The following two questions form the basis of this study.

Research Questions

- 1) *Whose feedback was most effective when the students revised their first drafts?*
- 2) *What were the students' preferences and attitudes toward different types of feedback?*

The first question was addressed quantitatively, whereas the second question was addressed qualitatively.

7-2-3 METHOD

Participants and Setting

A total of 51 Japanese second-year college students majoring in music, participated in this study. They took the English Proficiency Test¹⁾ (Kiritara Shoten) at the beginning of the year. The average score of the whole year group at this college was 54.15 points and the SD was 14.66. The 115 students who gained higher than 62 points seemed to have mastered basic grammar and vocabulary. From these 115 students, 51 students were chosen to participate in this study. These 51 students were in two separate classes. However, due to some students' absence from the data-collecting sessions and others' failure to complete a required task, 40 students remained at the end. Their ages ranged from 19 to 21 years, with an average of 19.7 years. They had studied English for an average 8.0 years through highly controlled formal education in Japan. The majority had an English proficiency level of lower to middle intermediate. Their main goal of studying English in their current courses was not for academic purposes but for communicative ones.

The students took four English classes as a requirement for graduation. They took two classes in their first-year and the other two classes in their second-year. Each class was held once a week for 90 minutes and lasted for 24 weeks per year. The present study was held in one of the second-year classes. In this class, the students received instruction on how to write and give presentation along with some English grammar and expression lessons. They wrote seven compositions of about 100-300 words at equal intervals during the academic year. They also learned strategies for revising and editing. In the present study, the fourth and the seventh compositions were discussed.

The class was conducted by the same teacher-researcher.

Instruments

The instruments consisted of two opinion based writing topics and questionnaires on the effects of different types of feedback on their writing quality.

Writing topics

The students wrote on one of two topics stating their opinion. That is they took one of the two positions offered and supported it. The topics that were familiar to students were carefully chosen. The students were expected to write about 200-300 words in a composition that had an introduction, body, and conclusion on the following topics. The prompts for the two topics are given below.

Table 7-2-1: Writing Topics

Writing Topic 1	School Uniform: Do you think school uniforms should be a requirement? or Do you think school uniforms improve students' morals and decrease school disturbances?
Writing Topic 2	Women and Work Do you want your future husband to support you economically after you get married? or Do you expect your future husband to share housework?

The students had 40 minutes to write the English composition. However, the time limit was not very strict. They were allowed to use a dictionary.

When they submitted their first drafts, they were expected to write an annotation in Japanese that answered two questions: (1) What are the strengths of your draft? What do you like about your draft? (2) What weakness did you notice in your draft? Do you want any advice on content, organization, language use, vocabulary and mechanics?

Questionnaires of effects of different types of feedback on writing quality

The students were asked to answer questionnaires in Japanese on each type of feedback, which affected the writing quality of their second drafts. The purpose of the questionnaires was to find what the students thought about the effects of different types of feedback on writing quality.

The questions asked for information on the following: (1) who gave them feedback, (2) whether they thought feedback was useful to revise, (3) if they thought some feedback was useful and what it was, (4) if they thought feedback limited their revision, they were asked what the limitation was and what advice they wanted to improve their drafts (Appendix A).

Interviews

After each Writing Task, one student from each of the 4 groups was chosen and interviewed for about 5 to 10 minutes in Japanese. This made a total of 8 students, that is two students from each group interviewed. They were asked what they thought about feedback and what feedback they liked. They were also interviewed on their writing products and questionnaires. Each interview was tape-recorded with their prior consent and then transcribed for the analysis.

Research Design

Forms of different types of feedback

Four different types of feedback that is teacher, peer, peer & teacher and self-feedback were introduced and included in the process of writing seven assignments. First the students were trained to revise and edit their drafts after teacher-feedback. Secondly, they were trained to revise and edit with peer-feedback. In these two types of feedback, the teacher and a peer were supposed to include comments that responded to the student's annotation. Thirdly, they were trained to revise and edit with teacher & peer feedback. Lastly they were trained to revise and edit with self-feedback. Because the present study dealt with the fourth and seventh writings, the students were familiar with the different types of feedback and revision at these times.

The teacher assigned one type of feedback to each group. Also the same students were not assigned to give the same type of feedback in the second topic. That is, different types of feedback were assigned in Writing Topic 1 and 2

Teacher-feedback

The students revised and edited their own drafts after teacher-feedback. The basic forms of teacher-feedback were the following.

- (1) Marking a place where the meaning was unclear.
- (2) Writing comments on good points and points to be improved.

Comments written in Japanese were given in response to the student's annotation of their own work. After receiving this teacher-feedback, the students were given opportunities to reread and revise their own drafts. They were expected to use a revising and editing checklist (Appendix B).

Training of Peer-feedback

The students were trained to give useful feedback in 4 steps, which took from 5 to 15 minutes time. After training they were expected to give feedback to at least two peers using the peer feedback sheet (Appendix C).

The basic forms of peer feedback include the following points.

- (1) Marking a place where the meaning was unclear.
- (2) Underlining a topic sentence and a concluding sentence.
- (3) Writing comments on good points and points to be improved.
- (4) Writing a summary of the draft in Japanese.

After receiving peer-feedback, the student writers were given opportunities to reread and revise their own drafts. They were expected to use the revision and editing checklist (Appendix B).

Training of Self-feedback

Thirdly, the students were trained to use self-feedback on their first drafts. The basic forms of self-feedback include the following points.

- (1) Marking a place where they lack confidence.
- (2) Underlining a topic sentence and a concluding sentence.
- (3) Writing comments on good points and points on which they need advice.
- (4) Writing a summary of their first drafts in Japanese.

After self-feedback, the students were expected to revise their first drafts using the same revision and editing checklist (Appendix B) as was used for teacher and peer feedback.

Data Collection

Data was collected in 9 weeks during the 24 weeks session. Figure 1 shows the design of the data-collecting sessions. Figure 2 shows the whole year class procedure. All of the forty students learned to write and revise after four different types of feedback. They were trained in how to do self-feedback and peer-feedback as mentioned before. Two experiments were done in the middle and at the end of the year. In these two experiments the students were divided into four groups of 10 each in which they were given four different types of feedback and required to revise.

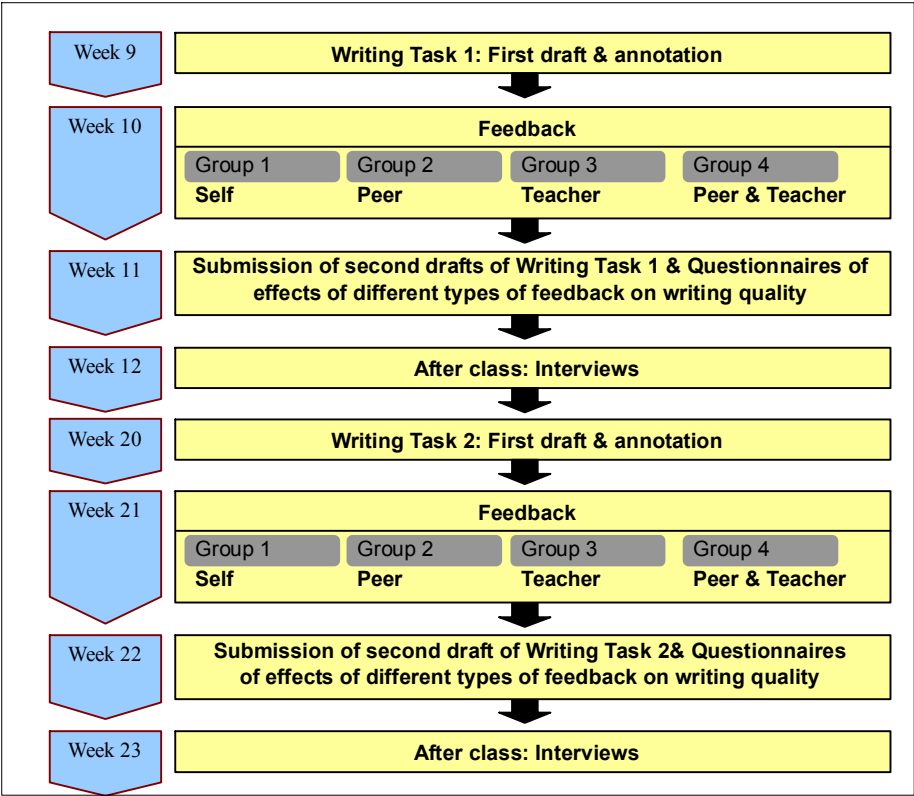


Figure 7-2-1: Design of Data Collection

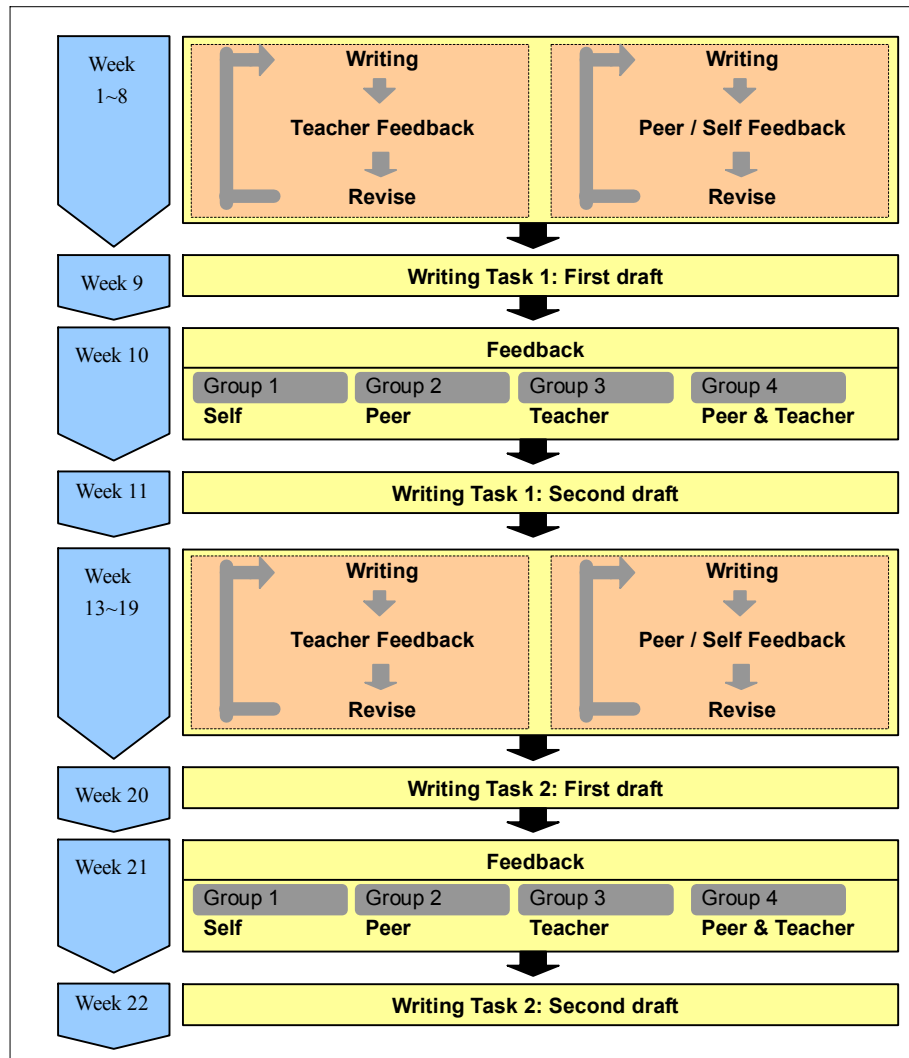


Figure 7-2-2: Design of Whole Year Class Procedure

Rating Procedures

The English texts were rated by one experienced Japanese college English teacher and one experienced native English teacher at the college. These ratings were based on EFL Composition Profile which was the revised and simplified ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et. al 1981) (See Appendix D). The revision of the ESL Composition profile was undertaken by three experienced Japanese college teachers. This was then checked by two experienced native-speaker college English teachers. The revisions and simplifications were made in order to rate lower intermediate Japanese college students.

Ratings were assigned on a scale from 1 to 5 points on five criteria: Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language use, and Mechanics. The two raters' scores were then averaged for each participant and the five scores combined to give a maximum possible score of 25. The inter-rater reliability (Spearman Brown) was acceptably high (0.81).

Analysis

In order to investigate the quality of the revised writing, all drafts written by the participants were analyzed quantitatively taking into account both the overall ratings and each individual criterion. Then the characteristics of the revision resulting from different types of feedback were qualitatively analyzed using descriptive research methods. The first research question was completed using a 2x2 repeated measures ANOVA, with the within subjects variable being the pre- or post-feedback writing.

7-2-4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question

1) Whose feedback was most effective when the students revised their first drafts?

Based on the two teachers' analytical ratings of all drafts, average total scores, standard deviation, average gains between first draft and second draft (See Table 7-2-2, Table 7-2-3) and a 2x2 repeated measures ANOVA were calculated (Table 7-2-4, Table 7-2-5).

Table 7-2-2: Ratings of total scores of Writing Topic 1

	First drafts		Second drafts		Average gains between first drafts & second drafts
	Average scores	SD	Average scores	SD	
Group A	12.60	3.44	13.65	3.15	1.05
Group B	12.45	3.22	14.25	2.24	1.80
Group C	12.65	2.85	14.75	2.96	2.10
Group D	12.30	2.58	16.55	1.66	4.25
Average	12.50	2.89	14.80	2.67	2.30

each n=10, total possible=25 points,

Table 7-2-3: Ratings of total scores of Writing Topic 2

	First drafts		Second drafts		Average gains between first drafts & second drafts
	Average scores	SD	Average scores	SD	
Group A	13.95	2.78	15.50	2.09	1.55
Group B	14.05	2.51	16.83	1.59	2.78
Group C	13.75	2.25	16.44	1.71	2.69
Group D	14.20	2.26	18.17	1.42	3.97
Average	13.99	2.05	16.06	1.93	2.08

each n=10, total possible=25 points,

The repeated measures ANOVA for Writing Topic 1 showed there was no interaction between groups and feedback methods ($F(3,72)=1.189$, $p=0.32$). It indicates that while there was overall improvement in the first and second drafts it was not due to a difference in the feedback methods.

The repeated measures ANOVA for Writing Topic 2 also showed there was no interaction between groups and feedback methods ($F(3,72)=1.277$, $p=0.289$). It indicates that while there was overall improvement between first draft and second draft writing, it was not due to a difference in the feedback methods.

In these experiments, the change of scores pre and post feedback was measured. The experiment results show students report no significant difference relating to who gave feedback. It could be said that students might have perceived a need to gain favor with their teachers and so performed abnormally and that when we investigate differences in feedback, we need to have a long-term experiment to identify and remove such influences. However, such experiments in actual class settings are difficult.

Table 7-2-4: Two-way ANOVA of different feedback methods impact on revision

Writing Task 1

	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between groups	105.8	1	105.800	13.346	0.0004881
Between feedback methods	19.375	3	6.458	0.814	0.4898981
International effect	28.275	3	9.425	1.188	0.320077
Error	570.75	72	7.927		
Total	724.2	79			

Table 7-2-5: Two-way ANOVA of different feedback methods impact on revision

Writing Task 2

	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between groups	109.278	1	109.2781	28.955	0.0000000
Between feedback methods	22.8343	3	7.6114	2.016	0.1191650
International effect	14.4593	3	4.819	1.277	0.2887438
Error	271.725	72	3.773		
Total	418.296	79			

Research Question

4) What were the students' preferences and attitudes toward different types of feedback?

What the students thought about the effects of different types of feedback on writing quality was investigated based on the questionnaires and interviews. The number of students involved in answering this question was the total number who wrote Topic 1 and 2. It means that a total number of 80 students answered this question.

Usefulness of different types of feedback

All students were asked how useful they thought each type of feedback was for revising and editing. Ninety percent of Group D students considered that peer and teacher feedback was useful. On the other hand, only 25% of Group A students considered self-feedback was useful (Table 7-2-6).

Table 7-2-6: The number of students who thought each type of feedback was useful in revising and editing their own drafts by group

Usefulness	Group A Self-feedback	Group B Peer-feedback	Group C Teacher-feedback	Group D Peer & Teacher Feedback
Number of students	5	14	16	18

each n=20

Common preferences and attitudes

Some descriptions of preferences and attitudes were common to three of the groups; Group B, C, and D. First they said they could improve their first drafts by using written feedback. They also said that concrete comments were useful. One of the students in Group B was given the comment from a peer. "It is hard to tell the difference between 'r' & 'v', and 'f' & 't' in small letters. Please write them clearly." The writer tried to differentiate these small letters in her second draft. Similarly one of the Group D students mentioned the following comment from a teacher was useful. "Your topic sentence does not work as a topic sentence. It just introduces a topic which you are going to explain. You have to write a topic sentence which you want to emphasize most." She said she improved her topic sentence so that it stated her main theme. From these remarks, it appears concrete comments play an important role in the editing and revision of drafts.

Secondly, many of the students said that it was a joy to get written feedback. One of the students in Group B said, "I was moved that a peer pointed out what I didn't notice at all. I felt I would like to make friends with that person." One of the students in Group C said, "I was glad to read a teacher's comment. She praised my way of thinking and my future plan. I am motivated to rewrite my draft." As one of the Group C students mentioned, the positive feedback seemed to motivate students' revision.

Indirect feedback

The students of three groups, Group B, C, and D accepted the indirect feedback in different ways. In indirect feedback the place where there is an error or where the meaning is unclear is marked. Forty-three percent (43%) of the students (5 students in Group B, 6 in C, 6 in D respectively) said by being marked "?" they could find the errors and correct errors by themselves. On the other hand a total of 38 % of the students (4 students in Group B, 6 in C, and 5 in D) said that just having errors underlined or marked "?" did not help to improve their drafts. These students said that they wanted a direct correction. The effects of indirect feedback need further research.

Preferences and attitudes toward peer and teacher feedback

Group D students who were given feedback from both a peer and a teacher thought written comments were not only useful but also fun. Eighty percent (80%) of the students in this group seemed to enjoy feedback.

Thirty-five percent of the students mentioned that the nature of feedback from peers and from the teacher was different. One of them explained that what a peer pointed out was her grammatical and mechanical errors and what the teacher commented on most was her content and organization. She thought that peer and teacher feedback were complementary and both were useful in helping her revise and edit her draft. Another student said that a peer commented on her content and a teacher commented on the overall draft. She thought it was a lot of fun to get an authentic reader. Yet another student said, “One of peers wrote a comment which agreed my opinion of school uniform and a teacher commented my explanation was to the point. I was happy to know that I could make myself understood in English.”

Thirty percent (30%) of the students said that they revised their drafts overall with peer and teacher feedback. They changed the content and organization of their first drafts and took a different position in second drafts. These students said they could better express their opinions in second drafts after feedback, though it took a lot of time. The other three groups did not revise their drafts overall. (peer-feedback: 10%; teacher-feedback :15%; self-feedback: 0%).

Only a few students pointed out the limitations of peer and teacher feedback. One of them commented that when the content of feedback from a teacher and a peer disagreed, she did not know which feedback she should act on.

Preferences and attitudes toward teacher-feedback

Group C, which was given teacher-feedback also, considered feedback was useful. Most of the students mentioned that teacher-feedback was more effective than any other kind. Six of the students said that the teacher’s written feedback was encouraging. One of the students said that she was very happy to read the teacher’s comment that is ‘Your anecdote of a uniform was very interesting and persuasive. It explains why you think a school uniform is not necessary.’ because she was pleased to hear the positive feedback from the teacher on content, she said she did her best to correct errors which were underlined. In addition, some of the students said that by having their errors marked, they could find their own errors and correct them by themselves.

However four of the students said that teacher-feedback was not very useful in

revising their drafts, either because they did not know how to apply the written feedback to their drafts or they did not know what the teacher meant. Moreover, one of the students confessed when the teacher pointed out their errors; they believed that they had to correct every single point to respond to the teacher's expectation.

Preferences and attitudes toward peer-feedback

Many students in Group B who were given peer-feedback thought peer-feedback was not only useful but also enjoyable. Eight of them said that it was fun to receive authentic feedback from their peers. Two of them also commented that they felt they were communicating through peer-feedback.

Seven of the students mentioned that the summary of their drafts in Japanese was very useful. It worked as an indication of how the reader understood their drafts. By reading the summary, one of the students said they knew their intention was conveyed. On the other hand, another student said her intention was not conveyed but misinterpreted to mean the opposite.

However, five of the students said that the quality of peer-feedback was unstable. They complained that its usefulness depended on who gave them feedback. They also found that the people who were good at English did not always give them useful feedback. One of the students commented, "Because I was not sure if either peer feedback on vocabulary or my original thought was right I could not improve my draft." Another student also commented, "Some peer feedback does not work at all. One peer gave me only short superficial comments such as "good". I don't know what was good from such a comment."

Preferences and attitudes toward self-feedback

Unlike the other three types of feedback, Group A students who used self-feedback did not consider feedback was useful. They pointed out more limitations of self-feedback than good points. Seven of Group A students who gave feedback on their own drafts pointed out the limitations of self-feedback. They said though they knew something was wrong with their drafts, they could not correct it with their limited English writing proficiency and writing knowledge. Two of them said it was frustrating to revise their own drafts. They wanted feedback from either peers or teacher.

On the other hand, three of the students found self-feedback useful. One of the students felt she could read her draft from a reader's point of view. She said she was

happy to correct her mistakes by herself. Another student said that she could read her own writing from the point of view of her peers. She still thought more time was necessary to revise her draft properly.

7-2-5 CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

I started this study, aiming to measure the effects of four types of feedback on Japanese EFL students' revision and writing quality. I assumed that students would improve the quality of revised drafts most when they gained feedback from both peer and teacher on the same draft. However, the results did not completely confirm my assumption.

To some extent my belief was confirmed by the present study. It revealed that:

- (1) Revision had an influence on the students' writing quality regardless of types of feedback.
- (2) Peer and teacher feedback seemed to be the most effective of the four types of feedback when the students revised their first drafts. However, there was no significant difference among attitudes to and results of the four types of feedback.
- (3) The students considered peer and teacher feedback was the most useful, whereas self-feedback was the least useful. Concrete comments seemed to play an important role in revising and editing their drafts.

The effects of different types of feedback on writing quality and the results of the questionnaires and interviews suggest a method of teaching English writing.

- (1) Revision might be included in writing activities more frequently. Teachers who teach writing might give students many opportunities to revise.
- (2) Feedback from both teacher and peer appear to be effective in improving students' writing quality.
- (3) When a teacher and a peer give feedback to students, they might be better to write concrete comments to help improve the quality of writing.
- (4) A better way of training for peer and self-feedback should be developed.

However, there were some limitations to the present study. Firstly, because of the course requirements, the frequency of revision dealt with here was limited to two sessions. As a teacher researcher, I could not implement both experiment and control group settings, as I would have liked when I had my students experience four different types of feedback and consider the educational effects. Secondly the study only examined a limited number of students. Bigger sample size and greater frequency of experience of the feedback and revision cycle is necessary to generalize the results.

Notes

¹⁾ The English proficiency test (by Kirihara Shoten) consisted of listening, structure, and vocabulary sections with a maximum possible score of 100 points.

Appendix A

*Questionnaires of effects of different types of feedback on writing quality (Excerpt)**

- (1) Who gave you feedback?
- (2) Do you think feedback was useful to help revise?
- (3) If you think some feedback was useful, what was it?
- (4) Fill in the following blanks.

	What did you revise and edit?	Why did you revise?
Content		
Organization		
Language Use		
Vocabulary		
Mechanics		

- (5) What do you like about your draft?
- (6) Do you think there was any limitation in revising your draft with feedback?
Students were also asked what limitations they had and what advice they wanted to improve their drafts.

* The original version was written in Japanese.

Appendix B

*Checklist for Revising Writing (Excerpt)**

	Criteria
Content	• Is there enough information to support the topic? • Is there enough opinion about the topic?
Organization	• Is there a topic sentence / concluding sentence? • Do all the sentences support the topic sentence? • Are there transition words to guide the reader from one idea to the next? • Are the sentences organized in a logical order?
Vocabulary	• Can you use a variety of words and idioms? • Do you think you can express well in English?
Language Use	• Can you write using correct grammar? Check the following grammatical points. (Subject-verb agreement, tense, number, word order, articles, pronouns, reflective pronoun, and preposition)
Mechanics	• Check the following points. (Spelling, paragraphing, capitalization, and punctuation)

* The original version was written in Japanese.

Appendix C

Peer-feedback Sheet

エッセイを読み、次の質問に答えてください。

(1)構成： Organization - Topic sentence に、波線の下線を引いてください。 その Topic sentence は、エッセイの中心文として適切だと思いますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。 - Topic sentence にそって、エッセイが発展していますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。 - Concluding sentence に、下線を引いてください。 その Concluding sentence は、まとめとして適切だと思いますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。
(2)内容： Content - どんな内容のことが説明されていましたか。 - 要約してください。 - ひとつの立場に立って、説明ができていたと思いますか。 はい・いいえ・わからない いいえと答えた人へ：それはなぜですか。

・各項目を 5～1 点で評価してください。評価できない、判断できない時は「？」と書き入れてください。

5: Excellent	4: Very Good	3: Satisfactory	2: Fair	1: Poor
評価観点				点
[内容] Content	- エッセイでは、質問を説明するのに、有効な情報や事実が充分にあったか。 - 情報や事実に対して、筆者の考えがあったか。			
[構成] Organization	- Topic Sentence があるか、Topic Sentence が発展して本文になっているか、Concluding sentence (結びの文)があるか。 - 文と文との関係がわかるように、接続詞が効果的に使えているか。 - 文と文がばらばらではなく、説明に一貫性があるか。			
[語彙/表現] Vocabulary	- いろいろな単語や熟語や表現が使えているか。 - 英語らしい表現ができているか。			
[文法] Grammar	- 主語と動詞の活用的一致、時制、冠詞、代名詞、前置詞、関係代名詞などが正しく使えているか。 - いろいろな構文が使えているか。			
[メカニクス] Mechanics	- スペリング：正しいスペルで書けているか。 - 段落下げ：新しい段落では、文字が下がっているか。 - 大文字：最初の文字や固有名詞などが大文字になっているか。 - 文の途中で大文字になっていないか。 - 句読点：ピリオドやコンマは、正しくうてているか。			
[合計] Total	合計点を出そう。(25 点満点)			

・エッセイについて具体的に書いてください。

(1)よいところ、好きなところは何ですか。
(2)改善すべき点を示し、書き直しに役立つようにアドバイスをしてください。

Appendix D

Rating Criteria

EFL Composition Profile

5 points: Excellent	4 points: Very Good	3 points: Satisfactory	2 points: Fair	1 point: Poor
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Criteria	Checklists	Score
Content	Does a writer answer a writing topic appropriately? Is all the necessary information (who, what, where, how) included?	
Organization	Does a draft have a topic sentence? Does a draft develop based on the topic sentence? Are logical connectors used appropriately? Is the order of a draft appropriate?	
Vocabulary	Are the choices of words appropriate? Is a variety of words and expression used?	
Language Use	Is grammar (subject-verb agreement, tense, numeral, article, preposition, pronoun, and reflexive pronoun) accurate?	
Mechanics	Are paragraphing, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization accurate?	
Total (25 points)		

Appendix E

*Sample Writings***Group A student**

First Draft

I don't want my hasband to support me economically after I get married. I want to live a life of independence.

Both my father and my mother work. But my mother works part-time. And my father give some money to my mother every month. My mother does housework, too. I want to be as my mother. But I wish to get a lot of money. Because I don't want use some money what what get my hasband. I like to do housework. And I will do housework. But I don't want my hasband to make a complaint about housework.

There are another reason, too. If when I take a dislike to my hasband, I can't get a divorce from my hasband. If I don't have a lot of money and work, I can't live alone.

I wont to couple is equality. And I don't wont my hasband to support me economically after I get married. (156 words)

Second Draft

I don't want my husband to support me economically after I get married.

Both my father and mother work. My mother works part-time ad she get a little money. My father supports my family. He gives some money to my mother every month. My mother likes to work. She does housework, too. When my father comes home late, he makes his own meal. Because my mother gets up early to go to work. She goes to bed early.

I want to be as my mother. But I want to work full-time and I get money. I don't want my husband to have an air of importance. I want to work as my husband and get money. I like to do housework. And I will do housework. But I don't want my husband to make a complaint about housework.

There are another reason, too. If I take a dislike to my husband, I can get a divorce from my husband. If I don't have lot of money and work, I can't live alone.

I will not stay home from morning till night. I want to work. And I don't want my husband to support me economically after I get married. (199 words)

Group D student

First Draft

I don't want my husband to support me economically after I get married.

My parents are in love with each other. My mother does house work and my father supports my family economically. But my mother don't only do house work but also is piano tacher and accompanist. And she is a member of the autonomy. She is satisfied with her life now. Her life is full with these things. My father has an old idea. So he thinks man works to support his family economically and he want his wife to wait for him. He has a lot of sense of responsibility. But he didn't do house work at all until my mother was sick. Though she is vigor now, he helps house work. Then they are happy.

My reason for living is doing music. And music is not a hobby. I want to work for music action. My parents's life is good. But I'm going to do other way. I want to do house work with my husband, and help each other. Important things is not who does work and earns but what thinking of eachother. So if we have kindness we can do well and enjoy our life. I like cooking. My boyfriend is delighted when I cook. This is our happins. I don't forget this mind. On the other hand, I'm not going to depend on husband economically. Because what I live my own life is my aim.

My father has former idea. I have told about how to live in the future. He doesn't understand my thought. But he says that days are chinging.

I think that there are many sstyles that each cuple want to do and each life style is forming between wife and husband. (301 words)

Second Draft

"My reason for living"

Music is my religion. I often answer my own question. "Why was I born?" I think what I do is bringing down my music. I believe . So music is not hobby but my job.

I don't want my husband to support me economically after I get married. Because I will work and earn by composing. But my father don't understood. my opinion. My parents are in love with each other. My mother does house work and my father supports my family economically. But my mother doesn't only do house work but also teaches piano and does plays the piano as accompanist. And she is a number of the autonomy. She is satisfied with her life now. Her life is full with these things. My father has an old idea. So he thinks man works to support his family economically and woman does house work and wait for him. He has a lot of senses of responsibility. He didn't do house work at all until my mother had been sick. Though she is vigor now, he helps house work. Then they are happy.

But my ideas changed since I entered college. These are different from my family's style. I quarreled about each other's idea with my parents. But finally my father said me that "Follow family's course while you are supported economically". I was regrettable then. Living my own life economically is one of my life object.

My parent's life is good but I'm going to do other way. I want to do house work with my husband, and help each other. The important things are not who does house work and earns but thinking each other. So if we have kindness, we can do well and enjoy our life. I like cooking. My boyfriend is delighted when I cook. He cooked too when I went his house. I was very happy. These customs make us be happy. I want to keep this state in the future.

I think there are many styles that each couple want to do and each kindness supports us. Life style is forming between wife and husband.

My reason for living is music. So I do my best so that everyone will be satisfy that my music work and I want to support a lot of people mind by my music. (404 words)

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

8-1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this research is to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of Japanese college students' English writing and develop a method of teaching writing based on their needs. Specifically the study was designed to answer the following questions.

- 1) What influences the quality of Japanese college students' English writing?*
- 2) Do students improve their writing by using writing guideline worksheets to assist their focus on content and organization before starting to write?*
- 3) Do Japanese English teachers and native English teachers rate differently?*
- 4) Do students and Japanese English teachers rate differently?*
- 5) Do students rate differently when their feedback is anonymous or when it is identified?*
- 6) What influence does training in self-feedback have?*
- 7) Whose feedback is most effective when students revised their first drafts?*

In order to answer these questions, a combination of quantitative and qualitative data was analyzed. In this chapter, a summary of findings for each of these questions, followed by a discussion of the pedagogical and research implications is provided.

8-2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The research was summarized by answering seven research questions.

Research Question

1) What influences the quality of Japanese college students' English writing?

- (1) There were correlations between the quality of Japanese college students' descriptive writing in English and other factors, such as their English proficiency, the quality of their Japanese descriptive writing, and their knowledge of English writing.
- (2) Among the three factors, the quality of Japanese descriptive writing correlated most highly to the quality of English descriptive writing.
- (3) There were relatively high correlations between ratings of Content and Organization in both Japanese and English writing.
- (4) The good writers had instruction in and experience of writing both in Japanese and English. In addition, the good writers planned the organization of their writing using a separate sheet of paper and took into account their readers to be, whereas the weak writers planned the organization only mentally, and seldom took their readers into account.

Research Question

2) Do students improve their writing by using writing guideline worksheets to assist their focus on content and organization before starting to write?

The students who chose to use guideline worksheets scored higher in content and organization, wrote more words, and finished writing in a shorter time. The material in the guideline worksheets seemed to be useful in increasing the quality and quantity of students' writing.

Research Question

3) Do Japanese English teachers and native English teachers rate differently?

- (1) In 1 to 5 point scale evaluation, the scores by J.E.T. were higher than those by N.E.T. Among twenty-four items, fifteen of them were significantly different between the two groups.
- (2) The differences of scores seemed to be from the differences in the standards against which rating was done. J.E.T. seemed to refer to the proficiency level of “Eigo Kentei Shiken”, whereas N.E.T. seemed to evaluate based on whether the speech was appropriate in their English speaking countries’ culture.
- (3) Both in point scale and descriptive comments, J.E.T. and N.E.T. were different in how they dealt with organization. J.E.T. regarded organization as meaning “flow”, “stream”, and “structure”, whereas N.E.T. regarded organization as including paragraphing and linking.
- (4) In descriptive comments, both groups focused most on content. Secondary focus was J.E.T. on vocabulary, whereas for N.E.T. it was on organization.

Research Question

4) Do students and Japanese English teachers rate differently?

- (1) In rating by scores, the students ranked the three samples in the same order as the teachers regardless of their writing ability. However, the absolute rating points of students and teachers were not sufficiently consistent. The students tended to give higher points than the teachers. Therefore, the absolute rating points produced by peer feedback were not valid enough.
- (2) In descriptive feedback, the comments by the teachers were the most useful, S.H.W. comments were the next in value and S.L.W. comments were the least useful. There were significant differences between S.H.W. and S.L.W. in the length of comments and the number of categories focused on. The validity of peer feedback was different depending on the writing ability of the students who gave it.
- (3) In descriptive feedback, most comments were focused on content regardless of the raters.
- (4) Raters gave feedback in the categories where they had knowledge or interests. They did not give feedback about areas they did not know much about or that they were not interested in.

Research Question**5) *Do students rate differently when their feedback is anonymous or when it is identified?***

- (1) Japanese students seemed to rate differently with / without names on their peer feedback.
- (2) Without their names, the students rated giving lower scores.
- (3) Without their names, the students commented on more points to be improved. They commented more specifically and directly.
- (4) With their names, the students rated giving higher scores.
- (5) With their names, they gave higher overall point scores.
- (6) With their names, they commented more on good points. They used more polite forms than without their names.

Research Question**6) *What influence does training in self-feedback have?***

- (1) The training in self-feedback influenced knowledge of English writing. The training group yielded significantly higher scores in a subsequent test of knowledge of specific aspects of English writing. The trained group was able to understand some essential points about English writing through the self-feedback training.
- (2) The trained self-feedback group gained higher total scores in their revised writing than the untrained group.
- (3) The self-feedback training was most effective in Language Use and least effective in Vocabulary.
- (4) The training was effective in increasing the scores for Content and Mechanics. Regardless of training, revision only was effective in yielding higher scores in the trained group.
- (5) The effects of training on Organization were not consistent for the two different topics.
- (6) The trained group indicated that they had gained self-feedback strategies and that they had improved their first drafts by using them.
- (7) Some of the results of the quantitative analysis and those of the qualitative analysis were mutually supportive. The training seemed to be effective in the areas of Content, Language Use, and Mechanics, but not of Vocabulary.

Research Question

7) Whose feedback is most effective when students revised their first drafts?

- (1) Revision had an influence on the students' writing quality regardless of types of feedback.
- (2) Peer and teacher feedback seemed to be the most effective of the four types of feedback when the students revised their first drafts. However, there was no significant difference among attitudes to and results of the four types of feedback.
- (3) The students considered peer and teacher feedback was the most useful, whereas self-feedback was the least useful. Concrete comments seemed to play an important role in revising and editing their drafts.

8-3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

- (1) Weak English writers might become more proficient by being given the same opportunities as good writers have had, which is to have writing experience, instruction, and feedback, and revision practice in Japanese at high school and in English at college. Frequency of writing should also be increased to improve weak writers' composition.
- (2) In order to improve weak English writers' compositions, instruction in how to generate ideas using a separate sheet of paper before writing and in awareness of their readers seemed to be very important.
- (3) If teachers both in high school and college could cooperate across languages and subjects, they might be able to improve students' composing competence. Teachers in various subjects might be well advised to give students opportunities to write, consider feedback and revise.
- (4) The writing guidelines worksheets were an appropriate teaching material for those students who chose to use them.
- (5) Whether the worksheets matched students' learning styles or not was directly related to how much they learned. It is necessary to develop various kinds of teaching materials so that the learners could choose from among them to suit their learning styles.
- (6) Japanese English Teachers (J.E.T.) should teach not only accuracy in English, but also the socioculturally appropriate language of English speaking countries. In order to do this, it might be effective to design and use teaching materials based on

socioculturally clear scripts.

- (7) J.E.T. should focus on organization more in teaching writing.
- (8) When we introduce rating by scores, we might be better to ask students only to broadly rank samples. Rating using subcategories on 1-5 point scale might be too difficult for them.
- (9) We have to be careful to choose the most appropriate way to give peer feedback, and take into account students' writing ability.
- (10) We can predict certain effects, if we introduce descriptive peer feedback to the S.H.W. classroom.
- (11) It might be easier for students to write comments focusing on content.
- (12) It might be easier for students to write comments only on areas in which they have knowledge or interest or have previously been taught. Teachers might be better give feedback in areas which the students do not know about or are not interested in.
- (13) Teachers who desire to use self-feedback as part of their approach to teaching writing beginners in the EFL classroom can take these results as evidence that it can improve writing.
- (14) In order for self-feedback to work, training seems to be essential.
- (15) It is profitable to frequently include revision in writing activities. Teachers who teach writing should give students as many opportunities to revise as possible.
- (16) In order to improve student writing quality, feedback from both teacher and peers appears to be very effective.
- (17) When a teacher and a peer give feedback to students, they might be better to write concrete comments to help improve the quality of writing.
- (18) A better way of training students in peer and self feedback should be developed.

8-4 RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

This study illustrates the importance of both quantitative and qualitative data in educational research and indicates a need for research into writing based on a greater number of students and more longitudinal studies.

Chapter 4 posits further research questions. First, the present study dealt only with a descriptive mode of writing. We need to examine whether patterns of correlations between Japanese and English writing may be similar, when the same participants write using various other modes of writing. Secondly, we also need to examine in detail the content of writing instruction both in Japanese and English at high school and college.

Chapter 5 indicates that we need to improve writing worksheets and guidelines and develop a variety of pre-writing activities to suit students learning styles.

Section 1 of Chapter 6 indicates that we should investigate why Japanese English teachers do not focus on the sociolinguistic contexts of English language as much as native English teachers. The results seem to have implications for the teacher education of Japanese English teachers.

Section 2 of Chapter 6 investigated whether feedback was effective from teachers' points of view. Students were also asked what feedback was useful for them and their criteria for useful feedback was investigated.

Section 3 of Chapter 6 focuses on whether identifying the rater by name, influences the quantity and quality of peer feedback or not.

Section 1 of Chapter 7 examined only writing beginners. Because these beginners had only limited experience in writing English, they seemed initially to have difficulties even in sentence writing. We need to extend these results to higher intermediate and advanced level writers. Secondly, the period of the study was short. As writing does not develop over a short period of time (Chenoweth, 1987; Taniguchi, 1991), this study needs to be continued over a longer period. In the future, we need to investigate better ways of training for self-feedback based on differing student writing levels.

Section 2 of Chapter 7 only examined two revision episodes. As the frequency of revision seems to influence the quality of revision and of writing, it is necessary in future studies to look at the effects of more frequent revision over a longer time span.

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LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

“A STUDY OF IMPROVING JAPANESE COLLEGE STUDENTS’ EFL WRITING”

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- [1] Chiharu NAKANISHI, (2005). “What influences the quality of Japanese College Students’ English Writing as a Foreign Language?”, *The Journal of ASIA TEFL* Vol.2 No.1 (Spring 2005), pp.155-180.
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