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DISCOVERING THE WRITER'S VOICE:

ESL STUDENTS AND THE WRITING PROCESS

by

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ABSTRACT

This two-month study investigated the dynamics involved in the relationship between writers and their readers as a technique for developing writing ability in English as a second language (ESL) students.

The theoretical framework for this study was based on research on the composing processes of native speakers of English (Britton, Moffett and Murray, among others) and English as a second language student writers (Kaplan, Zamel and Taylor).

The subjects were twelve ESL students, four females and eight males, enrolled in a university remedial writing course. The language groups represented were Arabic, Cantonese, Farsi, French, Japanese, Mandarin, Spanish and Urdu.

The oral discourse techniques gave writers the opportunity to rehearse, through oral discourse with prospective readers, what they would write before they actually did so. When the first draft was written, readers gave feedback to writers regarding the clarity of the content, rather than the correctness of form. Interactions were observed and audiotaped. Analyses were made of a pre-treatment questionnaire, during-treatment verbal interactions and first and final drafts, and end-of-treatment interviews.

Results indicated that the oral discourse techniques were effective in helping ESL students develop good writing skills.

Discussion with a prospective reader before writing, together with feedback from the reader after writing, encouraged writers to clarify and revise. Revision strategies reflected those used by successful writers, as outlined in studies by Sommers (1980), Faigley and Witte (1981) and Schwartz (1983).

These findings were interpreted as support for an interactive model for the writing process, where writing is treated not as a separate skill, but one involving all of the language skills.

Contributions made by this study to both ESL research and pedagogical practice include: (1) the development of an ethnographic, qualitative instrument, ELLVISS (English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System); (2) the development of a model for the interactive process of writing; and (3) a new direction for the teaching of writing to ESL students.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Title Page	i
Abstract	ii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables	xii
Acknowledgements	xiv
CHAPTER 1 - Introduction to the Study	1
Purpose of the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Definition of Terms	4
CHAPTER 2 - Review of Relevant Literature	6
Pedagogy Relating to Oral Discourse	6
Oral Discourse and English-Speaking Student Writers	6
Oral Discourse and ESL Student Writers	8
The Processes of Discovery and the ESL Student	12
A Review of Relevant Verbal Interaction Coding Systems	18
A Review of Relevant Revision Analyses	21
The Researcher's Role	24
Summary	26
CHAPTER 3 - Procedures of the Study	28
Statement of Intent	28
Subjects	28
Questionnaire	29

	PAGE
Introduction of the Oral Discourse Techniques	31
Preparation for Partnering	31
The Introductory Lesson - Day 1	31
The Approach	31
Brainstorming	32
Speaker/Listener Modelling Techniques	32
After Modelling	33
The Introductory Lesson - Day 2	33
Reader/Writer Techniques	33
Day 3 and Beyond	35
End of Treatment Period Procedures	35
Analyses of Audio-taped Speaker/Listener and Writer/Reader Interactions	35
Oral Interviews	37
CHAPTER 4 - Results of the Study	38
Statement of Intent	38
Section 1 - Before Treatment Results: Questionnaire	38
Purpose of the Questionnaire	38
Question 1: Have you ever asked any of the following people to help you while you were writing an assignment in English ... ?	39
Question 2: If you checked one or more of the above, why did you choose that person or persons to help you?	39
Question 3: What did that person or persons do to help you?	41
Question 4: If you did not check [Question 1], why have you never asked for help ... ?	42

	PAGE
Question 5: What aspects of an English writing assignment do you find difficult ... ?	43
Question 6: What do you think you need to do to write more fluently?	44
Paragraph Question 1: What did you do before you started to write?	45
Paragraph Question 2: What did you do during the writing process?	47
Summary	48
Section 2 - Treatment Results	50
Part I - Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction Analyses	50
The Verbal Interaction Coding System	50
Verbal Interactions During the First Writing Assignment.	50
Verbal Interactions During the Second Writing Assignment	50
The Partnership between Subjects H and K	51
The Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K	51
Transcription of Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K	53
Use of the Six ELLVISS Categories	55
The Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects H and K	57
Categories Used by Subject K	58
Categories Used by Subject H	58
Summary of the Verbal Interactions between Subjects H and K	61
The Partnership between Subjects K and G	61
Transcription of Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects K and G	62
Verbal Interaction between Subjects K and G by Category	66

	PAGE
Breakdown of the Categories Used by Subjects K and G	67
Section 2 - Treatment Results	73
Part II - Writer/Reader Analyses	73
The Focus of the Writer/Reader Analyses	73
Writer/Reader Partnerships	73
The Writer/Reader Partnership of Subjects K and G	74
Subject G's First Draft	74
Transcription of the Writer/Reader Verbal Interaction between Subjects K and G	75
Verbal Interaction Categories Used by Subjects K and G during their Writer/Reader Partnership	80
The Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects K and G during their Writer/Reader Interaction	83
The Information Category	85
The Clarification Category	86
Clarification Request (CR) Type 2	87
Clarification Request Type 2, Repeated	88
Other Type 2 Clarification Requests	90
The Summarizing Category	91
Analysis of Subject G's Revisions in her Final Draft	93
Structural Differences between Subject G's First and Final Drafts	93
Paragraphs 1 and 6 of the First and Final Drafts	94
Paragraphs 2 and 3 of the Final Draft	95
Paragraph 4 of the Final Draft	98
Paragraph 5 of the Final Draft	99

	PAGE
Following the Completion of Subject G's Final Draft . . .	100
Summary of the Analysis of Subject G's Final Draft . . .	101
The Writer/Reader Partnership of Subjects H and K	103
Subject K's First Draft	103
Structural Differences between the First and Final Drafts	104
Title	105
Paragraph 1 of the Final Draft	105
Paragraph 2 of the Final Draft	107
Paragraph 3 of the Final Draft	111
Paragraph 4 of the Final Draft	115
Summary of the Analysis of Subject K's Final Draft . . .	117
Section 3 - End of Treatment Results: Oral Interviews . . .	120
Oral Interview with Instructor	120
Question 1: How would you describe student response to this technique?	120
Question 2: What is your opinion as to the effectiveness of oral discourse as a rehearsal for writing?	121
Question 3: What would say the instructor's role was in this format?	122
Question 4: (a) Would you use this technique in your classroom again? (b) If so, why? If not, why not? (c) What changes would you make, if any? . . .	123
Summary	124

	PAGE
Oral Interview with Subjects	126
Question 1: Does discussing with a partner what you plan to write help you with a writing assignment?	126
Questions 2 and 3: If "Yes", how does it help? If "No", what do you think is the problem?	127
Question 4: Does having a partner read your writing help you to write better?	128
Questions 5 and 6: If "Yes", how does it help? If "No", what do you think is the problem?	129
Question 7: Who do you write for?	131
Question 8: How does this affect your writing?	133
Summary	134
CHAPTER 5 - Classroom Observations	136
Class Assignments	136
Introduction of the Oral Discourse Techniques	137
Preparation for Partnering	137
Preparation for Understanding the Need for a Sense of Audience	138
The Introductory Lesson - Day 1	138
The Approach	138
Brainstorming	139
Speaker/Listener Modelling Techniques	141
After Modelling	145
Speaker/Listener Partnerships After Modelling	146
Speaker/Listener Partnerships - Beyond Day 1	147

	PAGE
Reader/Writer Partnerships - Beyond Day 1	148
The Researcher's Role	152
Summary	154
CHAPTER 6 - Summary and Discussion of the Study	156
Summary of the Investigation	156
Summary of Results	157
Before Treatment Results: Questionnaire	157
Discussion	158
Treatment Results: Part I - Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction Analyses	159
Discussion	160
Treatment Results: Part II - Writer/Reader and Revision Analyses	162
Discussion	163
End of Treatment Results: Oral Interviews	165
Discussion	167
Practical Implications	168
Brainstorming	168
Writer/Reader Interactions	168
Verbal vs. Written Feedback	169
Theoretical Implications	170
Model of an Interactive Writing Process	170
Contributions Made by the Study	171
The Development of a new Ethnographic Qualitative Instrument	171

	PAGE
The Development of a Model for an Interactive Process of Writing	173
A New Direction for Teaching Writing to ESL Students . . .	174
REFERENCES	176
APPENDICES	181
Appendix A - Permission Form	182
Appendix B - Questionnaire	183
Appendix C - Outline for Introduction of Oral Discourse Techniques	186
Appendix D - Outline for Brainstorming Rationale	187
Appendix E - English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System (ELLVISS)	188
Appendix F - Subject G's First Draft following Discussion with Partner, Subject K	190
Appendix G - Subject G's Final Draft following Discussion with her Reader, Subject K	192
Appendix H - Subject K's First Draft following Discussion with Partner, Subject H	194
Appendix I - Changes made by Reader, Subject H to Subject K's First Draft	196
Appendix J - Subject K's Final Draft following Changes made to his First Draft by his Reader, Subject H	198
Appendix K - Questions asked during Oral Interview with Instructor	200
Appendix L - Questions asked during Oral Interview with Subjects	201
Appendix M - Outcome of Introductory Brainstorming Session	202

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	Question 1: Have you ever asked any of the following people to help you while you were writing an assignment in English ... ?	39
2	Question 2: If you check one or more of the above, why did you choose that person or persons to help you?	40
3	Question 3: What did that person or persons do to help you?	41
4	Question 4: If you did not check [Question 1], why have you never asked for help ... ?	42
5	Question 5: What aspects of an English writing assignment do you find difficult ... ?	43
6	Question 6: What do you think you need to do to write more fluently?	45
7	Paragraph Question 1: What did you do before you started to write?	46
8	Paragraph Question 2: What did you do during the writing process?	47
9	Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K by Category	56
10	Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects H and K	57
11	Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects K and G by Category	66
12	Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects K and G	67
13	Breakdown of Categories Used by the Partners, Subjects H and K and Subjects K and G	69
14	Verbal Interaction Categories Used by Subjects K and G During the Writer/Reader Discussion of Subject G's First Draft	81

TABLE	PAGE
15	Comparison of Categories Used by Subjects K and G during the Speaker/Writer Interaction and the Writer/Reader Interaction 82
16	Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects K and G during their Writer/Reader Interaction 84
17	Verbal Interaction Following Reader's Type 2 Clarification Request (CR) 87
18	Question 1: Does discussing with a partner what you plan to write help you with a writing assignment? . . . 126
19	Question 2: If "Yes", how does [discussion with a partner] help? Question 3: If "No", what do you think is the problem? 127
20	Question 4: Does having a partner read your writing help you to write better? 129
21	Question 5: If "Yes", how does [having a partner read your writing] help? Question 6: If "No", what do you think is the problem? 130
22	Question 7: Who do you write for? 131
23	A Breakdown of Question 7 Responses: The Subjects' Sense of Audience 132
24	Question 8: How does [your audience] affect you writing? 133

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Purpose of the Study

This study examined the dynamics involved in the relationship between writers and their readers as a technique for developing writing ability in English as a Second Language (ESL) students. The technique gave writers the opportunity to rehearse, through oral discourse with prospective readers, what they would write before they actually did so. When these ideas were put into composition form, readers gave feedback to writers regarding the clarity, rather than the correctness, of the content.

In order to determine the effectiveness of these techniques, classroom observations were recorded, student interaction was audiotaped, and analyses were made of questionnaires, verbal interactions, first and final drafts, and interviews.

Results of this study are of theoretical and practical value.

Statement of the Problem

Written composition, "among the most complex of human activities" (Shaughnessy, 1976, p. 167), presents a major stumbling block for many ESL students at the higher levels of learning. Such students may be orally proficient, but they often lack writing proficiency. Because of this, they are usually assigned to a remedial, non-credit writing

program upon admittance to a college or university. Such students are likely never to have been in a remedial program before, as foreign students attending colleges and universities in North America are often among the top students in their country. The remedial ESL class, then, is likely to be viewed as a necessary evil to be gotten over with as quickly as possible. Canadian ESL students also share this view, as they, like their foreign counterparts, are usually bright science or mathematics students, anxious to get on with what they consider to be more important scientific endeavours -- for which they will receive credit.

The dilemma for the writing instructor is that she must keep in mind two factors which may not be easily reconciled:

- (i) the students' desire to get through the course as quickly as possible and
- (ii) the desire of the college or university to maintain a writing standard -- a standard based on the writing skills of native English speakers.

The instructor will, therefore, not only need to be clearly focussed and efficient, but also be seen to be focussed and efficient by the students. Student interpretation of what constitutes efficiency will vary according to culture and classroom experience. Nevertheless, ESL students' expectations for classroom procedures tend to be conservative, as many come from countries where the teacher is an authority figure and students are expected to learn rules and "facts". Given this situation, the ESL instructor may find it easier to meet

student expectations and follow traditional methods where students engage in exercises in vocabulary, syntax and mechanics as a pre-writing activity, followed by controlled writing in a rule-bound, error-conscious setting.

Although this may be a familiar setting, it often results in frustration for both students and instructor, as students will continue to write compositions full of errors and convoluted logic. Krashen's notion that learning a rule is very different from being able to use it (1982) is borne out in this all-too-common scenario.

Such a situation invites the following questions:

1. Is there an alternate route to the one outlined above that will allow students to use what they know during the writing task so that the process is less frustrating?
2. Is there a way of helping orally fluent ESL students develop good writing skills by building on their strength, i.e., their oral fluency?

Although the differences between speaking and writing have been well-documented (Vygotsky, 1962; Schallert, Kleiman & Rubin, 1977; Rubin, 1980), their similarities are of greater interest to researchers who lean towards oral discourse as an on-going activity for students engaged in the writing process. As Graves (1983) writes:

Writing and speaking are different but ... the human voice underlies the entire writing process (p. 162)

In this regard, oral discourse pedagogy directed at native speakers of English appears to have implications for ESL pedagogy.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are used in this study in the following ways:

Clarification: a subject's explanation of information, either verbal or written.

Elaboration: information added to information or clarification already stated, either verbal or written.

ESL: English as a second language.

Listener-Reader: a subject engaged in discussion of a writing assignment for which s/he will be an eventual reader.

Native speaker: someone whose mother tongue is English and who is orally proficient in this language.

Reader: a subject who, after reading a draft written by a writer, gives feedback regarding the clarity of the content, rather than the correction of form.

Rewrites: changes made to a text by someone other than the writer of that text.

Speaker/Listener: a partnership in which the participants discuss a writing assignment as a rehearsal for a first draft that each will write.

Speaker-Writer: a subject engaged in discussion of a writing assignment with a prospective reader.

Speech Acts: "communicative acts ... which are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes" (Brown, 1980, p. 193).

Verbal Interaction: a speech act or series of speech acts made by a speaker-writer or a listener-reader receiving a verbal response.

Writer/Reader: a partnership in which the reader gives feedback regarding a perceived lack of clarity in the content of the writer's draft, to which the writer responds by attempting to clarify.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Pedagogy Relating to Oral Discourse

The literature on oral discourse as it relates to the teaching of writing to native speakers appears to have implications for the teaching of writing to ESL students.

Oral Discourse and English-Speaking Student Writers

Britton (1975) states that "the relationship of talk to writing is central to the writing process" (p. 29). According to Britton, students need to articulate their views and listen to those of others. As he puts it:

The free flow of talk allows ideas to be bandied about, and opens up new relationships, so that explaining the whole thing to oneself may be much easier. (p. 30)

Supporting this notion, Judy (1980), states that

students need to draw on and develop their base of experience. The teacher must provide time for students to talk about, to expand, and even to relearn or reexamine their experiences. (p. 39)

Talk, then, is seen as an important writing activity for English-speaking student writers, as it provides students with an audience for their ideas and an immediate response to those ideas, both of which are absent when they sit down to write. The simulation of the writer-reader mode through oral discourse is a kind of rehearsal for the

writing act, a rehearsal which, in response to audience feedback, allows editing and reorganization by student writers before they commit themselves to paper. Such a procedure assumes a writer's involvement with a reader, from pre-writing to the final draft.

Moffett (1976) considers the active participation of readers and writers an essential element in the writing process of English-speaking student writers. He states:

It is easy to fall into the mistaken notion that composition can be practiced only while writing. ... People talking are composing; they are putting ideas into words and sentences. (p. 149)

Moffett claims that the need to affect one's audience may influence students to the extent that they will adjust "language, form and content" (1970, p. 47) in response to that audience. Talk, then, when used as rehearsal for the writing task, may facilitate the essentially lonely process of writing for an absent audience.

Without the benefit of an actual audience, student writers are required to engage in an internal monologue which Klein (1977) describes as "a sort of one-way directed rehearsal of a decided thesis" (p. 7). When an audience is present, however, rehearsal becomes a dynamic vehicle for the sounding out of inner thoughts, for the shaping and testing of ideas, for actually hearing what is on one's mind.

Wiener (1980) discusses the effect on student writers of having to engage in an internal monologue without the benefit of being able to articulate their thoughts. In this discussion, he advises teachers of composition that their student writers' "journey to competence"

(p. 87) should follow the composing processes of experienced writers.

He states:

Experienced writers advance through pre-writing and draft stages at least partially by means of some internal dialogue about their intended thought, about what reveals itself in ink, and about how intention modifies and is modified by the written statement. (p. 91)

He contends that, because most students have little experience with this kind of internal dialogue,

good instruction ... insists on doing out loud in class what a practiced writer does quietly at home by himself. (p. 91)

In summary, writing pedagogy directed at native speakers indicates that, as part of the writing process, students engage in oral discourse that includes discussion of their experiences and points of view. Following is an examination and comparison of what advanced ESL students do "out loud" as they, too, journey towards competence.

Oral Discourse and ESL Student Writers

There is little suggestion in advanced ESL writing programs that ESL students share their experiences, articulate their views or discuss their "intended thought" (Wiener, 1980, p. 91) as part of the writing process. Instead, oral discourse appears to be concerned with linguistic explanations and discussions on the mechanics of paragraph or essay construction. Writing tends to be treated as "a skill in its own right" (Paulston & Bruder, 1976, p. 204), different and separate from speaking and listening skills. While composition methodology for

native English speakers is often student- and content-centred, ESL composition instruction is usually teacher-centred and concerned with correctness, structure and control, rarely with content. According to Zamel (1976), this grammar-based approach to teaching ESL writing may have little to do with the composing process.

Few ESL writing programs take into account composition pedagogy for native speakers, although some ESL studies have expressed concern that non-native speakers are not being given the same opportunities for instruction in composition as native speakers (Raimes, 1978b, 1980, 1985; Van Schaik, 1978; Taylor, 1980, 1981; Zamel, 1976, 1982, 1983).

Zamel (1982) states:

Methods that emphasize form and correctness ignore how ideas get explored through writing and fail to teach students that writing is essentially a process of discovery. (p. 195)

Traditionally, ESL methodology has been directed primarily at giving practice to students in speaking and listening, often taught to beginning students as "survival" skills and, later, as "functional" skills. With the influx of advanced ESL students into our colleges and universities, reading and writing skills have been given greater prominence in the curriculum. But, as Paulston and Bruder (1976) point out:

Writing has been much neglected in the audio-lingual approach and less than efficiently dealt with in other approaches to language teaching. (p. 203)

As an answer to this neglect, their program deals with writing problems directly and efficiently. Pre-writing procedures include

pattern practice at the sentential level (p. 210-211), and teacher explanations of the writing task (p. 228). Oral discourse is confined to discussion of these procedures. Controlled and guided composition are an important part of the program; however, "free" composition is virtually ignored (p. 205-230). This rule-based approach, with its concern for correctness and control, is not uncommon in ESL writing programs.

Lawrence's program (1972) is no exception. In Writing as a Thinking Process, she advises the teacher to read explanations for writing exercises aloud from the text while students are told to read silently and, "'Repeat in your mind' what your teacher reads". This advice appears seven times in the first 11-page unit. Oral discourse in this program appears to be one-directional, teacher- and text-centred.

In Bander's newest edition of American English Rhetoric (1983), none of the suggested composing activities involves the student in the articulation of ideas. Discussions regarding the writing process focus on syntactic structures, with the teacher as explainer. A similar approach is used by McKay and Rosenthal (1980), who consider discussion to be necessary before students begin writing "in order to familiarize them with new vocabulary and the organization of the paragraph or essay to be written" (p. xii). Suggestions for pre-writing activities in Rutherford's program, Modern English, (1977), consist of practice in syntax, spelling, punctuation and error analysis, with each unit ending in suggestions for composition topics.

As in the other programs, discussion revolves around structure and form, rather than content.

The ESL writing programs of Wishon and Burks (1968) and Arnaudet and Barrett (1981) use the analysis of models to teach different prose styles. Other than this, their methodology is similar to previously-mentioned programs. At one point, Wishon and Burks hint at the notion of a writer's need for a sense of audience, but go no further:

The writer of exposition must understand his audience and must judge correctly how much it will know about the subject under discussion. (p. 372)

The audience, impersonalized as "it", appears to be an abstract, mysterious entity. How the writer manages to understand and judge such an audience is never explored.

Raimes' Focus on Composition (1978a) also uses the analysis of models to teach writing style, but she builds her program around the writer's need for a sense of audience. Students work in small groups to "discuss, plan, and edit their writing" (p. xx) in a classroom that operates as a kind of open workshop. This is a student-centred program where discussions on content are as important as discussions on form, where peer response is as important as the teacher's. Such a program appears to be an exception, however.

Although the writing programs under discussion are all aimed at advanced ESL students who are likely to have an oral fluency which would allow them to articulate their views, their experiences and their sense of the world, this fluency, for the most part, is not utilized. Paulston and Bruder (1977) suggest one possible reason for

this: writing is viewed as separate from other skills. Taylor (1981) suggests another:

Our central responsibility as teachers of ESL is to teach students to operate effectively in a language which they at best only partially control ... As long as ESL students continue to have serious written language problems (even though they may be orally proficient), many ESL writing programs will concentrate primarily on teaching language form and correctness, though this practice may well render the student unable to experience the processes of discovery. (p. 8)

From this statement, we may infer that because ESL students are not able to write "correctly", their writing experiences must be less than those of native speakers. If such is the case, how can advanced ESL students meet the writing standard set by native speakers when they are denied "the processes of discovery"?

The Processes of Discovery and the ESL Student

If, as Taylor contends, ESL students are being denied "the processes of discovery" because of a pedagogic concentration on error and its correction, a new direction for teaching writing needs to be explored.

A statement by Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979) with regard to the teaching of spoken language indicates a direction that appears appropriate for writing pedagogy directed at ESL students. In their discussion of the ESL student's need for creativity, i. e., for the processes of discovery, in the spoken language, they state:

Current thinking considers the student's creative involvement more important to the learning process than the mere avoiding of errors. (p. 20)

Given what we have learned from pedagogy directed at native speakers, it seems a logical step to apply this to the writing process. If concern with error interferes with students' creative involvement when they are speaking, it is likely that this concern will interfere with their creativity when they are involved in writing.

Such creative involvement is concerned with meaning. In a discussion directed at teachers of native speakers, Murray (1980) states:

The community of writers instinctively understands that each piece of writing is trying to work its way towards meaning. (p. 15)

Murray adds that at the beginning of the writing process, teachers and students should be aware that "language may race ahead to the point of incoherence" (p. 11). If this incoherence is to be expected in the writing of native speakers, ESL teachers need not be alarmed when it appears so consistently in the writing of their students. Murray further suggests that a student has to discover "what he has to say and how he wants to say it" (1968, p. 105) before he can bring balance and control to his writing.

Shuy (1979) declares that a pedagogic emphasis on right and wrong is a misdirected notion. He states:

Education tends to abhor the notion of being wrong, even if being wrong is evidence of a learning stage which is in the direction of rightness. We have learned, in language teaching, that there is no way

to learn a language without being wrong in it and without being allowed¹ to be wrong in it as one learns the right forms. (p. 3)

Being "wrong", even incoherent, is a developmental, "learning stage" in writing, and part of the discovery process that is essential to the process of writing.

Researchers interested in ESL composition are beginning to ask students about the processes they undergo when faced with a writing task. Zamel's study (1983) of advanced ESL student writers indicates that these students are more interested in getting their ideas down on paper than getting them down correctly. One student remarked, "If I worry about grammar, my thoughts will disappear" (p. 178). Another said:

If I have an idea, but I don't have the words, I write it in Chinese so I don't lose it. Language is not the big problem. Most of the difficulty is how to put the ideas together. (p. 179)

Like Murray's community of writers (1980), this small community of ESL writers appears to be trying to work its way towards meaning. Language, then, is not the "big problem". The problem is getting ideas and thoughts sorted out into some kind of logical coherence. This sorting-out process appears to be a valid pedagogic concern. In his comment to teachers of native speakers, Murray gives advice on where to start:

¹ Emphasis in the original.

If the teacher wants the student to write with honesty and precision and grace, he must listen to the individual student to find out how he really sees the world. (p. 16)

Schema theory suggests that the way in which one sees the world is determined by one's background knowledge and experience. The literature on reading research in first and second language recognizes that a reader's schemata play an important part in his comprehension of text (Kintsch, 1974; Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert & Goetz, 1977; Johnson, 1982; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). This theory does not seem to have made the same impact on writing research, although it may be implicit in instructions to students to "write what you know about". Such instructions are inadequate for ESL students, however, as their native language, which is an integral part of their schemata, will, in part, reflect their way of viewing the world and, in consequence, affect the way they present those views on paper. On this point, Spitzer (1953) tells us:

Every language offers to its speakers a ready-made interpretation of the world, truly a Weltanschauung, a metaphysical word-picture which, after having originated in the thinking of our ancestors, tends to impose itself ever anew on posterity. (p. 83)

The first language may have a sense of logic quite different from the logic of English. Kaplan (1980) points out that

logic ... which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of a culture; it is not universal. (p. 400)

When he analyzed the compositions of students with Semitic, Oriental, Romance and Russian language backgrounds, Kaplan found a rhetorical style and sense of logic very different from that of English. It is likely, then, that ESL students will bring to their writing in English

a rhetorical style and sense of logic consistent with their language background and culture. Therefore, it seems sensible to give these students an opportunity to express their ideas, to talk about their interpretation of the world, before they sit down to write. By expressing their views through oral discourse with fellow students as audience, they will have the opportunity to discover whether their sense of logic makes sense to this audience. Audience feedback should encourage such students to find avenues for clarification whenever, as Kaplan puts it, they employ "rhetoric and a sequence of thought which violate the expectations of [their audience]" (p. 401).

Zamel (1983) reports that when ESL students write for each other the process sets up a dynamic relationship which gives writers the opportunity to tell their readers what they mean to say before² these writers are told what they ought to have done. (p. 182)

The dynamism of this relationship is surely reliant on the type of feedback occurring between students. As Moffett says, "the quality of the feedback is the key" (1970, p. 47). Since ESL students are not likely to have credibility if they attempt to give feedback regarding errors in form or grammatical structure, their feedback must be in an area in which they are competent and credible.

The present study, therefore, will examine the verbal interactions between students engaged in discussion before writing and

² Emphasis is in the original.

after writing the first draft. Before writing, students will, in dyadic partnerships, take the roles of speakers and listeners to discuss their writing assignment as rehearsal for the writing process. After writing the first draft, students will reform their partnerships, taking the roles of readers and writers, giving feedback regarding their understanding, or lack of understanding of the writer's draft, an area in which they should be competent, credible -- and comfortable. It is expected that this type of feedback will provide the motivation for revision of the first draft. These revisions will be examined in order to determine whether or not this is the case.

The verbal interactions, or oral discourse techniques, will be examined by means of audiorecording and observations.

The techniques described above have been designed to aid in developing ESL students' writing ability. Through these techniques, it is hoped that students will experience the process of discovery and, at the same time, more fully discover their writing voice.

In order to analyze the verbal interactions of speaker-writer and listener-reader partnerships, several coding systems were examined to determine their suitability for the purpose of this study. It was necessary to find a verbal interaction coding system for dyadic partnerships in which verbal feedback from partners could be systematically codified.

A Review of Relevant Verbal Interaction Coding Systems

Interaction, as defined by Bales (1950) is the influence of the behaviour of one individual on the behaviour of another. In his study of interaction, Mensel (1979) provides several basic principles as guidelines for interaction studies when he writes that

the problem of method and of theory is to render observable, explicit and quantitative that which was previously only inferred, implicitly assumed or qualitatively described; to discover the order that in fact exists in any apparent disorder; to describe and explain what is really going on out there; and to make it equally clear how one arrived at one's conclusions.
(p. 306)

A study that appears to adhere to the principles laid down by Mensel is that of Bales and Cohen (1979) who have developed a system for studying group interaction called, SYMLOG (A System for the Multiple Level Observation of Groups). Among the groups that SYMLOG has been designed to study are classroom groups, with the focus of interest on "the personalities of the specific persons involved and their relationships with each other" (p. 3). The SYMLOG coding system, then, is of interest to those concerned with non-verbal behaviour, in a setting larger than the dyadic partnerships required by the present study.

For the present study, it seemed important to focus on verbal behaviour, rather than non-verbal, as interaction between speaker-writers and listener-readers would involve ESL students with widely different cultural backgrounds. Although non-verbal cues mentioned by Brooks and Emmert (1980), such as "facial expression, posture,

gestures, sighs, tone of voice, and other bodily movements or physical responses" (p. 194) would provide relevant feedback to both partners, it would be very difficult to identify and interpret accurately, first, the type of feedback itself and, second, the individual's response to it, given the cultural differences involved.

Flanders' statement (1965) appeared to be a useful guide in this regard. In a discussion of classroom interaction analysis, Flanders states that verbal behaviour "can be observed with higher reliability than most non-verbal behaviour" (p. 19). Ekman (1982) gives further support to verbal behaviour being more reliable than non-verbal when he cautions that although facial expressions are capable of affecting feedback,

evidence that facial feedback can determine which³ emotion we experience is far more ambiguous. p. 171

With this in mind, it was apparent that the safest ground for the analysis of ESL student interaction would be in the area of verbal, rather than non-verbal, behaviour.

Amidon's 10-category verbal interaction analysis coding system (1970) designed for use in the classroom, is based on Flander's original system (1965). Both systems are concerned with coding teacher talk and students' verbal reaction to this talk. Much of the research in classrooms at this time appears to have been done as an

³ Emphasis is in the original.

aid in teacher training (Hough & Amidon, 1964; Simon, Boyer & Moskowitz, 1967; Lambert, 1969). Verbal interactions in these studies are concerned with talk between teacher and students, rather than student-to-student talk.

Dyadic interaction is the concern of Gottman's coding system (1979), CISS (Couples Interaction Scoring System). The system consists of both a verbal and a non-verbal series of codes. The verbal coding system is not overly complex and is illustrated with clear examples of each of the eight categories. It is, however, designed for couples having marital difficulties. Therefore, some of the eight coding categories were unsuitable for the purpose of the present study. Nevertheless, as CISS is based on a dyadic partnership, the system was employed by this study in a modified form.

A Review of Relevant Revision Analyses

Following verbal interaction with their partners, the subjects were expected to write a first draft and, after a second verbal interaction with partners, a final, revised draft. These procedures are outlined in greater detail in the next chapter. Revision procedures used by the subjects needed to be examined from the point of view of whether or not verbal interactions did, in fact, bring about changes in the final draft.

A review of literature on revision procedures indicates that many teachers and most students have, in the past, viewed revision as a cosmetic application, "the mop-up operation that students must endure for not getting it right the first time" (Schwartz, 1983, p. 549). And "getting it right" has meant that revision becomes

[a] copy-editing, a tidying-up activity aimed at eliminating surface errors in grammar, punctuation, spelling, and diction. (Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 400)

This type of revision is described by Graves (1983) as putting "a good manicure on the corpse". Rather than taking "ownership and control of the writing", students "change the spelling, make the penmanship more presentable, take out any heinous punctuation mistakes. But [they] don't change the information" (p. 4).

Recent studies of revision procedures used by experienced and inexperienced writers indicate that "writers of different abilities make different kinds of revisions" (Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 400).

Bridwell's study of Grade 12 writers (1980) supports this notion. She states:

there are developmental differences in both the tendency to revise and the ability to revise successfully. (p. 218)

Bridwell found that certain successful students "had internalized many writing conventions" (p. 218), enabling them to write effectively without many revision changes. Other successful students were frequent revisers at all levels of her revision classification scheme.

On the other hand, the unsuccessful writers either recopied their first drafts with few changes, or revised frequently, but only at surface levels, "labour[ing] through hundreds of spelling and punctuation changes" (p. 218).

In a study of the revision procedures of first-year students in their first term of a composition course at two universities and experienced adult writers at the same two universities, Sommers (1980) identified four revision operations: addition, deletion, substitution and reordering. She found that the experienced writers "[made] changes on all levels and use[d] all revision operations" (p. 386), with the highest number of changes being addition and deletion at the sentence level.

The student writers, on the other hand, "fail[ed] to use" addition and reordering operations -- operations that Sommers states:

seem to require a theory of the revision process as a totality -- a theory which, in fact, encompasses the whole of the composition. (p. 386)

Faigley and Witte's study (1981) of six professional writers, six advanced students in a university writing class and six inexperienced students in a university remedial writing class, supports the preceding findings. Faigley and Witte found that the inexperienced

writers' revisions were "overwhelmingly Surface Changes" (p. 407).

Meaning changes were of major interest in the above study, resulting in Faigley and Witte designing a classification scheme that takes into account not only meaning-preserving changes, but also text-based changes that "make more sweeping alterations" (p. 404). Faigley and Witte state:

Successful revision results not from the number of changes a writer makes but from the degree to which revision changes bring a text closer to fitting the demands of the situation. (p. 411)

Faigley and Witte found that advanced students were the most frequent revisers and made many more meaning changes than did inexperienced writers. Nevertheless, because Faigley and Witte found that the expert writers in their study varied greatly in their revision procedures, they caution that their results "should not be viewed as a mandate to demand that inexperienced writers revise more" (p. 410).

In her study of college students' revisions, Schwartz (1983) found that, to be successful revisers, writers need to (i) "[be] flexible enough to shift to a new strategy when another is not working", and (ii) learn how to produce "reader-sensitive texts that accommodate audience and purpose but still reflect a writer's true meanings" (p. 556).

The present study examined the revising behaviours of ESL students to determine what revisions were brought about by discussion with a reader and whether these revisions reflect the revising behaviours of successful or unsuccessful writers described in the

above review.

The Researcher's Role

In an exploratory study such as this, the researcher needs to be present at every class throughout the period of the study. There is always a concern in such a case, that the researcher's presence will interfere with the procedure and subsequent results. In facing this issue, Mills (1976) uses the analogy of the scientist using specialized instruments to study his/her subject and outlines principles that social scientists, those researchers investigating human groups, may follow. Regarding the former group, Mills writes:

Many scientists, as we know, use special instruments (the microscope and the telescope are common examples) to bring their phenomena closer to them. As the worlds these instruments open become familiar, the scientist senses additional realms, and often devises new instruments (such as the electron microscope and the radio telescope, to maintain the example) to read these new realms. In such instances, technology and the investigator work together both to increase the intimacy of contact and to extend the realm of phenomena with which the investigator may familiarize himself.

(pp. 26-27)

Mills then compares these scientists with those social scientists investigating the dynamics of human groups:

Much the same may be said for the social scientist, whose concern with groups causes him to find ways to be brought into ever closer and broader contact with group processes. But the technology through which this is accomplished is of a special kind. Because group processes occur within and among persons, and because both persons and groups surround themselves with boundaries which regulate access to these processes, the barriers separating groups and their investigators are more social, emotional, attitudinal, and cultural than they are physical.

Consequently, the barriers must be transcended by social, psychological, and cultural means. The special technology (and the first technical procedure) of the investigator of groups is to devise that quality of social relation between himself and groups which allows him to come into sustained and intimate contact with the group. (p. 27)

Mills' argument for the researcher coming "into sustained and intimate contact with the group", is an attractive one for those seeking to do studies in a classroom setting.

Much of Graves' study (1983) of the writing process of children was done with Graves in the role of participant-observer in classroom settings. Thus, the role of participant-observer seemed a logical and sensible one for a researcher studying the process of writing of ESL students involved in interactive behaviour in the classroom.

Summary

The review of literature related to the writing process of ESL students indicates that (i) ESL writing pedagogy tends to view writing as a skill separate from the other language skills (Paulston & Bruder, 1976), and (ii) many writing programs for ESL students focus on form and correctness (Taylor, 1981). Because of this focus, Taylor contends that ESL students are being denied "the processes of discovery" (p. 8). If ESL students are to experience the discovery processes, it is clear that a new direction for teaching writing needs to be explored.

Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979) suggest this direction in their discussion of the spoken language. They maintain that "creative involvement [is] more important to the learning process than the mere avoiding of errors" (p. 20). To take this a step further, if concern with error interferes with students' creative involvement while speaking, it is likely that such a concern will interfere with their creative involvement during the writing process.

The present study, then, will explore oral discourse techniques designed to creatively involve students in the process of discovery.

These oral discourse techniques, which will be more fully described in Chapter 3, will involve verbal interactions between writers and their readers. Although a search of the literature has not produced a coding system for such verbal interactions, Gottman's CISS (Couples Interaction Scoring System, 1980), which is based on a dyadic partnership, proved to be useful when modified.

Revisions resulting from verbal interactions between a writer and a reader will be examined in light of findings from recent studies that discuss the revising behaviours of successful and unsuccessful writers (Bridwell, 1980; Sommers, 1980; Faigley & Witte, 1981; Graves, 1983; Schwartz, 1983).

The focus of the present study, then, will be an exploration of the dynamics involved in oral discourse techniques designed to develop writing ability in ESL students. Such an exploration prompts certain questions, for which answers will be sought. Although it is likely that other questions will arise from this study, three main questions will be addressed. They are:

Question 1: Can oral discourse techniques aid ESL students in developing good writing skills?

Question 2: What happens when a speaker/listener format is used as a rehearsal for the writer/reader mode?

Question 3: Does audience feedback encourage writers to find avenues for clarification, that is, do changes occurring in the writing process bring about changes in the written product?

These questions and others arising from observations and analyses will be considered as the exploration of the writing process develops. Answers, tentative and otherwise, will be discussed in the final chapter. The procedures under which the study operated are outlined in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

Statement of Intent

The intention of this study was to explore the dynamics involved in certain oral discourse techniques to determine whether they would aid ESL students in developing their writing skills.

These techniques gave writers the opportunity to rehearse, through oral discourse with prospective readers, what they would write before they actually did so. After writing a first draft, based on discussion with their reader, writers gave their draft to their readers to read. Readers then gave the writers feedback regarding the clarity of the content of the draft, rather than the correctness of the form. These interactions were observed and audiotaped, and analyses were made of questionnaires, verbal interactions, first and final drafts, and interviews.

Subjects

The subjects of this study were twelve English as a Second Language students enrolled in a remedial writing program at the University of Victoria during the 1984-1985 fall and winter sessions. This non-credit program was designed for ESL students whose scores on the compulsory, pre-admission English Placement Test fell below 21 out of a possible 60 marks in the essay section, and 13 out of 20 in the

grammar section. The 1 1/2-hour class sessions were held twice weekly.

There were four females and eight males in the study, ranging in age from 16¹ - 24 years, with an average age of 20.5 years. The language groups represented were Arabic, Cantonese, Farsi, French, Japanese, Mandarin, Spanish, and Urdu. The number of years that the students had spent studying English ranged from 2.5 - 14 years.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire (Appendix B) was given to the subjects as an in-class, instructor-assigned activity before the oral discourse techniques were introduced. The questionnaire was designed to determine what strategies the subjects used during writing assignments. The rationale for the individual questions is outlined below.

Question 1: Have you ever asked any of the following people to help you while you were writing an assignment in English: teacher, classmate, friend, parent, brother/sister, other (please specify).

Question 2: If you checked one or more of the above, why did you choose that person or persons to help you?

Question 3: What did that person or persons do to help you?

¹ As one of the subjects was under 19 years of age, a permission form was prepared (Appendix A) for signature by the subject's guardian.

Question 4: If you did not check any of the people listed in Question 1, why have you never asked for help while you were writing an assignment in English?

Questions 1 - 4 were designed to find out (1) whether or not subjects had relied on others for help during previous assignments; (2) whom the subjects had chosen to help them; and, (3) what kind of help they had received. Those who had not previously asked for help were asked to state why they had not done so (4), as it was felt that these subjects might prefer not to work with others.

Question 5: What aspects of an English writing assignment do you find difficult: spelling, grammar, argument, organization, other (please specify).

Question 6: What do you think you need to do in order to write more fluently?

Questions 5 - 6 were designed to find out the subjects' perceptions of their writing problems and possible solutions to these problems. The subjects' perceptions of their needs were felt to be important in considering any attempt to introduce changes into their writing procedures.

After answering Questions 1 - 6, the subjects were asked to write a paragraph from a choice of three topics taken from recent English Placement Tests. Upon completion of the paragraph, the subjects were asked to answer two questions about the process that they had just been engaged in. These questions were:

Paragraph Question 1: What did you do before you started to write?

Paragraph Question 2: What did you do during the writing process?

The answers to these two questions would be important considerations, as the subjects' perceptions of their own writing process would likely play a part in how they viewed the techniques that were soon to be introduced.

Introduction of the Oral Discourse Techniques

Preparation for Partnering

In order for the subjects to become comfortable working with partners, activities requiring partnerships were introduced two weeks before the actual oral discourse techniques were put into practice. These activities included doing grammar exercises and checking homework with partners.

The Introductory Lesson - Day 1

The Approach

Throughout the introductory lesson (Appendix C), the instructor explained the rationale behind each step and modelled each new behaviour. She made it clear to the subjects that the point of the exercise was to give writers the opportunity to rehearse what they were going to write before they actually wrote it.

Brainstorming

As most ESL students have not experienced brainstorming techniques, the instructor explained brainstorming as an exercise in which everyone contributes orally, any idea that is related to the topic (Appendix D).

The instructor then gave the subjects the topic, What Makes a Good University Student?, and encouraged them to brainstorm, while she wrote their ideas on the board. After brainstorming, the instructor introduced the subjects to the roles played by a speaker and listener, roles which were part of the new oral discourse techniques.

Speaker/Listener Modelling Techniques

To introduce the roles of speaker and listener, the instructor called on one of the subjects to take the role of speaker, while she took the role of listener. The speaker was asked to select those ideas on the board that he planned to write about. At this point, the instructor again informed the class that, during this exercise, the speaker would have the opportunity to rehearse what he was going to write before he actually wrote his essay, and the listener's role was to help him make his ideas clear. The speaker was then asked to discuss his ideas with his listener, the instructor.

During the discussion, the instructor modelled the listener's role by being supportive, smiling, nodding, and saying, "Yes", "Right", "I understand", when appropriate. If a point was unclear, however, the instructor asked for clarification by saying, for

example, "Excuse me, I don't understand. Could you say that again?" or "Do you mean ...?", suggesting her interpretation of what the speaker had said, whereupon together, they negotiated the meaning of what had been said.

After Modelling

When the instructor judged that the modelling had been effective, she stopped the exercise and went over the strategies that had been used by both listener and speaker, indicating that by asking for clarification in this way, the listener would help the speaker to write more clearly.

The subjects then formed partnerships to discuss what they were going to write. The instructor circulated, listening to the discussions and, where necessary, modelling the role of speaker or listener.

Before the class ended, the instructor asked the subjects to include the ideas that they had discussed with their partners in an essay as a homework assignment. She explained that, during the next class, they would give their essay to their partners to read.

The Introductory Lesson - Day 2

Reader/Writer Techniques

At the beginning of the next class, the instructor discussed the roles of reader and writer. She explained that readers were to read their partner's essay carefully and wherever they found something that

they could not understand, or they felt needed clarification, they were to ask their partner to explain it, in order to make it clearer. The instructor emphasized that readers were not expected to correct or look for errors; instead, they were to look for what was not clear to them.

The instructor then told the subjects that, after readers and writers had discussed the necessary clarifications, writers were to make their revisions and when the final draft was ready, it was to be handed in for marking.

When the subjects had reformed their partnerships, the instructor again circulated, listening to the discussions, and, where necessary, modelling the roles of reader and writer.

During the first part of the treatment period, when the subjects were in the reader/writer mode, the instructor asked one partner to read the other's essay with the writer looking on. This allowed the reader to discuss areas of difficulty with the writer as the reading proceeded. Later in the treatment period, writers exchanged essays with their partners. Each read the other's essay, underlining, in pencil, those areas not understood or needing clarification. The essays were then returned; the writers checked the areas that had been underlined, and consulted with the reader before making revisions. When the writer was satisfied with the revisions and had incorporated them into the essay, the essay was handed in for marking.

Day 3 and Beyond

From time to time, throughout the treatment period, the instructor reminded the subjects of the roles of writer and reader. With each new writing assignment, the subjects were encouraged to change partners. Audiotaping of speaker/listener and writer/reader interactions was done in situ.

These procedures, with variations which will be discussed later, continued throughout the treatment period.

End of Treatment Period Procedures

Analyses of Audio-taped Speaker/Listener and Writer/Reader Interactions

The analyses of speaker/listener and writer/reader verbal interactions were based on a modified version of a coding system for dyadic partnerships developed by Gottman (1979), called CISS (Couples Interaction Scoring System). Because this system was designed for couples experiencing marital difficulties, half of the eight coding categories in the verbal series of codes were unsuitable for the purpose of this study. Therefore, it was necessary to make major modifications to CISS, the result of which is ELLVISS (English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System). Appendix E outlines and illustrates examples of each of the six ELLVISS categories and 16 subsets.

Gottman's CISS has eight verbal interaction categories with 27 subsets. The eight categories consist of: 1. Agreement;

2. Disagreement; 3. Communication Talk; 4. Mindreading: Attributing thoughts, feelings, motives, attitudes, or behaviours to spouse; 5. Proposing a solution to a problem or information exchange; 6. Summarizing Other; 7. Summarizing Self; 8. Problem information or feelings about a problem. The CISS categories that were judged to be useful for the present study, and, consequently, incorporated into ELLVISS were Categories 1, 2, 6 and 7, Agreement, Disagreement, Summarizing Other and Summarizing Self. The latter two categories, however, were collapsed into one category, Summarizing.

There are differences in the number of subsets for CISS and ELLVISS, as well. The Agreement and Disagreement categories for CISS contain five subsets each; for ELLVISS, two and one, respectively. The Summarizing Other and Summarizing Self categories for CISS contain a total of three subsets; for ELLVISS, the Summarizing category contains two.

To the CISS categories incorporated into ELLVISS, three others were added. These new categories describe what appears to be happening during the speaker/listener and writer/reader verbal interactions. These categories are: Information, Clarification and Elaboration.

Verbal interaction analyses using ELLVISS were done on two partnerships involving three subjects. Two partnerships were selected on the basis that one of the partners was common to both. These partnerships will be described more fully in Chapter 4.

Oral Interviews

Near the end of the treatment period, the instructor was asked a set of questions (Appendix K) during a private interview which was recorded on audiotape.

Each subject was also asked a set of questions (Appendix L) in a private interview which was audiotaped.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Statement of Intent

The results of this study are divided into the following sections:

Section 1 - Before Treatment Results: Questionnaire

Section 2 - Treatment Results:

Part I - Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction Analyses

Part II - Writer/Reader and Revision Analyses

Section 3 - End of Treatment Results: Oral Interviews

SECTION 1 - Before Treatment Results: QuestionnairePurpose of the Questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire (Appendix B) was to determine, before oral discourse techniques were introduced, what strategies the subjects used during writing assignments. Questions 1 - 4 were concerned with whether or not the subjects had asked for help during a writing assignment; whom they had asked for help and why; and what kind of help they had received. Only ten subjects out of the twelve studied in this project attended the class in which this questionnaire was presented.

Question 1: Have you ever asked any of the following people to help you while you were writing an assignment in English: teacher, classmate, friend, parent, brother/sister, other (please specify).

The first question was concerned with whom the subjects had asked for help during a writing assignment (Table 1).

Table 1

Questionnaire

Question 1: Have you ever asked any of the following people to help you while you were writing an assignment in English: teacher, classmate, friend, parent, brother/sister, other (please specify).

	Teacher	Classmate	Friend	Parent	Bro/Sis	Other
Subjects	7	1	2	0	1	1

Number of Subjects = 10

Out of the ten subjects who had attended the class in which the questionnaire was presented (Table 1), the majority, seven subjects, had asked a teacher for help during a writing assignment. Friends had been consulted by two subjects; while one subject had consulted a classmate; another a sister; and a third a dictionary.

Question 2: If you checked one or more of the above, why did you choose that person or persons to help you?

The seven subjects who reported that they had asked a teacher for help said that they had done so because, as one subject put it, "they always have the right answers". The help given by the teacher

was usually reported as correction, e.g., she "showed my mistakes" (Table 2).

Table 2

Questionnaire

Question 2: If you checked one or more of the above, why did you choose that person or persons to help you?

Responses	Teacher	Classmate	Friend	Sister	Dictionary
For correction	5	1	0	0	0
Was ESL teacher	2	0	0	0	0
For information/ explanation	2	0	2	1	1

The teacher was also viewed by these subjects as the one who could "explain whatever the problem was". It is clear, then, that for these seven subjects (Table 2), the teacher was the one with the answers, the arbiter of what was correct, the explainer.

Two subjects reported having asked friends for help. One said friends were "patient in explaining things"; the other subject reported that although her friends "[didn't] explain", they had helped her with "words or sentences".

Only one subject said that she had asked a classmate for help and that was "to be sure [her] work was correct".

Another reported asking help from a sister because he "could tell [his] problems to her in two languages".

The subject who had consulted a dictionary did so for "pronunciation and meaning".

Question 3: What did that person or persons do to help you?

The subjects' reasons for choosing certain persons for help was not always consistent with the kind of help they received (Table 3). Although friends were consulted for information or explanation, subjects indicated that the kind of help they received was correction. From responses regarding friends' help, however, it appears that the subjects valued the help, whether it was called information, explanation, or correction.

Table 3

Questionnaire

Question 3: What did that person or persons do to help you?

Responses	Teacher	Classmate	Friend	Sister	Dictionary
Corrected	5	1	2	0	0
Explained	3	0	0	1	1

It would have been valuable to have had information on the level of English competency of these friends, as it is interesting to note that one of the subjects reported during her oral interview at the end of the treatment period that she did not want a reader to correct her, as such correction proved confusing. Although it is impossible to be

definite, perhaps she found readers from outside of her cultural and language group not as credible correcters as friends who may or may not have greater English competency.

Question 4: If you did not check any of the people listed in Question 1, why have you never asked for help while you were writing an assignment in English?

Three subjects reported never having asked for help during a writing assignment (Table 4). Two said that they had not had many writing assignments, so had not needed help.

Table 4

Questionnaire

Question 4: If you did not check any of the people listed in Question 1, why have you never asked for help while you were writing an assignment in English?

	Composition is Personal	Few English Assignments
Subjects	1	2

Number of Subjects = 3

One subject said that a composition was a "personal" expression and wanted the satisfaction of finishing it by himself. This subject's response seemed to indicate that he might have some resistance to working with others. Such resistance did not materialize, however.

Question 5: What aspects of an English writing assignment do you find difficult: spelling, grammar, argument, organization, other (please specify).

When asked what aspects of a writing assignment were difficult for them, six of the ten subjects reported that they found the argument difficult (Table 5). This was not surprising, as the subjects had been assigned to the remedial writing program as a result of their below-standard grade on the expository or argumentative essay required by the English Placement Test.

Table 5

Questionnaire

Question 5: What aspects of an English writing assignment do you find difficult: spelling, grammar, argument, organization, other (please specify).

	Spelling	Grammar	Argument	Organization	Other
Subjects	5	4	6	4	5*

* No more than 1 in each category.

Number of Subjects = 10.

Five subjects found spelling difficult; while four listed grammar and four, organization.

In the "Other" category, one of the subjects reported that he found it difficult "to develop the idea [he had]"; another reported three areas of difficulty: (1) it was difficult for him to "choose the right word"; (2) he needed "a lot of time to think of a good idea or argument"; and (3) it was "hard to write on a topic which [he was]

not interested in". A third subject said that she had difficulty speaking. This difficulty was noted particularly in light of the oral technique that was to be introduced. During the subsequent discussion with her partner on Day 1 of the treatment period, it was apparent that this subject was having difficulty with aural comprehension and oral production. After Day 2 of the treatment period, the subject was asked by the researcher if she was finding the technique too difficult. The subject said that she wanted to continue with the technique, and in order to improve her oral fluency, she and another French-speaking student, who was also a subject in this study and with whom she shared accommodation, had agreed to speak English exclusively each day, except during the hour in which they ate their evening meal. It appeared that these two subjects were sincere in their determination to improve their fluency, as they were observed, on several occasions by both the instructor and the researcher, speaking English to each other, and to other French speakers, outside of class time. It was not surprising, then, that as time went on, their fluency improved noticeably.

Question 6: What do you think you need to do in order to write more fluently?

When the subjects were asked what they thought they needed in order to write more fluently, their perceptions of the possible solutions produced a wide variety of answers (Table 6).

Table 6

Questionnaire

Question 6: What do you think you need to do
in order to write more fluently?

	More Practice	Vocab. Work	Think Logically	Learn to Develop Topic	Be More Careful	Be Corrected	Read More	Other
Subjs.	4	3	2	2	2	2	2	3

In the "Other" category (Table 6), one subject felt he needed a personal explanation of his mistakes; another felt she required more grammar practice; and a third, sounding a despairing note, claimed that he had no idea what he needed.

All subjects, but one, had some idea as to what they needed to do in order to improve. It is interesting that all of the responses to this question reflect current writing pedagogy -- even, perhaps, the response of the student in despair.

Paragraph Question 1: What did you do before you started to write?

After the subjects finished writing the paragraph requested of them in the Questionnaire, they were asked to answer two questions. The response to the first question appears in Table 7.

Table 7

Questionnaire

Paragraph Question 1: What did you do before you started to write?

	Thought About Topic	Wrote Notes	Thought About Word Choice	Organized Ideas	Made Outline	Thought About Making Sense
Subjects	8	3	2	2	1	1

When asked what they did before they started to write their paragraph, eight of the ten subjects mentioned that the choice of topic was a concern (Table 7). From the three topics offered (Appendix B), five of the subjects chose to write about the best teacher they had ever had; three chose to describe a perfect summer holiday; one chose to write on a significant idea related to the word, crowds, and another, the word, poetry.

Six subjects said that they either made an outline, tried to organize their ideas, jotted down a few points, or wrote a rough draft. In fact, only one of these subjects made any written notes. This subject reported that he had written a rough draft, but he actually only jotted down a few points, comprising five words. It appears that these six subjects may have reported either what they had been taught was the correct way to write a paragraph, or what they thought the instructor expected them to do.

Only one subject said she was concerned whether "what [she] was going to write would make sense or not".

One subject, who had reported that speaking was an area of difficulty in her response to Question 5, said that in writing her paragraph, she had thought in her first language and then translated into English.

Paragraph Question 2: What did you do during the writing process?

When asked what they did during the writing process, nine out of the ten subjects said they were concerned with grammar and/or sentence structure (Table 8). Such a concern reflects a focus on form rather than content, a focus that tends to be restrictive rather than enabling. As indicated previously, it does, however, reflect common ESL writing pedagogy.

Table 8

Questionnaire

Paragraph Question 2: What did you do during the writing process?

	Attended to Grammar &/or Sentence Structure	Attended to Organization	Attended to Spelling	Attended to Vocabulary
Subjects	9	5	4	3

Five of the subjects expressed concern with organization (Table 8), four with spelling and three with vocabulary.

One subject said that, like another above, she had translated from her native language into English, adding that "sometimes my [first language] help me with some ideas but other times I was

confused".

None of the subjects expressed concern about making their writing clear and understandable.

Summary

The responses to the questionnaire indicated that, in previous writing assignments, seven of ten subjects who had consulted a teacher received help in the form of correction or explanation.

Of the three subjects who had not asked for help, two had not had many writing assignments, while the third said that a composition was a personal expression. This response indicated that the subject might have some resistance to working with others. This did not occur, however.

All subjects expressed writing difficulties including difficulties with argument, spelling, grammar and organization. Nine out of the ten subjects could articulate their perceptions of what they required in order to improve their writing. In this regard, their responses reflected current ESL writing pedagogy with its concern for correctness and form.

This concern was reiterated when, after writing on a choice of topics, the subjects were asked to indicate what they did before and during the writing process. Six out of ten subjects reported that they either made an outline, tried to organize their ideas, jotted down a few points, or wrote a rough draft, when, in fact, only one of them actually wrote anything -- notes comprising five words. These subjects may have reported what they thought was expected of them or

what they had been taught was the correct way of going about a writing task.

While all the subjects expressed a concern for form and correctness, none expressed a concern for making their writing clear and understandable to a reader.

SECTION 2 - Treatment Results

Part I - Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction Analyses

The Verbal Interaction Coding System

The verbal interaction coding system used in this study is based, in part, on Gottman's CISS (Couples Interaction Scoring System) (1979). However, because CISS is designed to code interactions of couples experiencing marital difficulties, a number of the coding categories in the system proved to be unsuitable for the purpose of this study. Therefore, it was necessary to make major modifications to CISS, the result of which is ELLVISS (English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System). Appendix E outlines and illustrates examples of each of the six ELLVISS categories and 16 subsets.

Verbal Interactions During the First Writing Assignment

Verbal interactions during the first, or introductory, writing assignment were not audiotaped. Observations, noted at that time, are discussed in Chapter 5, Classroom Observations.

Verbal Interactions During the Second Writing Assignment

Following the introduction of the new speaker/listener-writer/reader procedures with the first topic, What Makes a Good University Student?, in which the subjects brainstormed in a whole-class situation, and practised the speaker/listener and writer/reader

techniques over a period of three classes, a second writing assignment was given. After reiterating the techniques of brainstorming and speaker/listener partnerships, the instructor outlined three topics on which the subjects could write and asked them to choose one for discussion with their partner. Some subjects immediately went to the partner that they had had for their first writing assignment. Those whose previous partner was absent either paired up with another subject in the same circumstances, or had a partner selected for them by the instructor. Some of these new partnerships brainstormed silently with pen and paper before beginning their discussion.

Following are observations, a transcription of a verbal interaction, and analysis of that interaction which describe a new partnership, where each of the partners brainstormed silently.

The Partnership between Subjects H and K

The subjects in this partnership were both male. Subject H spoke Farsi; Subject K spoke Cantonese. Both had had three years of formal English language study. However, there was a marked difference in their oral fluency, as Subject H had lived in an English-speaking community for six years and managed a downtown business; whereas Subject K was a recent arrival in the country.

The Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K

After ten minutes of silent brainstorming on the topic,
Mathematics is Called a Universal Language -- and for Good Reason

(Bander, 1983, p. 23), Subject H declared himself ready for discussion. When his partner, Subject K, said he needed more time for his own brainstorming, Subject H turned to the researcher, who was sitting beside him, and began to discuss his topic, based on the following ideas that he had written during his brainstorming session:

What is mean by universal language
 teaching in school
 High schools and higher education
 relationship computar
 Mathmatic in other subjects
 People understanding of the sign's used

Subject H discussed the topic in general terms, then tried to define and enlarge on the term "universal". After experiencing some difficulty with this task, he stated that he was "a little lost in the subject of this whole thing", shook his head and added, "I need to write three paragraphs". After noting aloud that he had already spent ten minutes discussing the topic, he repeated, "Three paragraphs". At this point, his partner, Subject K, indicated that he was ready to begin a discussion of his topic, The Computer has Changed the Business World (Bander, 1983, p. 23).

It is interesting to note here that during the discussion with his partner, Subject H resolved the problem of having to write those three paragraphs (see transcript of verbal interactions 5 and 6, following).

Much of the discussion between Subjects H and K was based on Subject K's silent brainstorming on the topic, The Computer has Changed the Business World, transcribed below:

1. bank - translate money - speed up bank services
2. computers store all data in computer.
3. gave more informations for the business.

During the discussion, Subject K made frequent reference to these points, which had taken him twenty minutes to write.

The verbal interaction between the partners is transcribed below, together with the coded scoring system, ELLVISS (Appendix E). For convenience, an explanation of abbreviations from the coding system precedes the transcription.

ELLVISS Abbreviations

AG	- Agreement	CL	- Clarification
AR	- Agreement Request	CR	- Clarification Request
DG	- Disagreement	CRP	- Clarification Repeated
INF	- Information	CRRP	- Clarification Request Repeated
IR	- Information Request	EL	- Elaboration
IRP	- Information Repeated	ER	- Elaboration Request
IRRP	- Information Request Repeated	ERP	- Elaboration Repeated
SO	- Summarizing Other		
SS	- Summarizing Self		

Transcription of Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K

1. H: What are you going to write? (IR)
K: From country to country, it's very fast and bank can use the computer. Twenty years ago, not like this. (INF)

IR/INF

2. H: So there is more efficiency. (SO)
K: Yeah. (AG) And use the computer data informations. (INF)

SO/AG + INF

3. H: To improve their ... (INF)
K: Yeah, their ... (AG)

INF/AG

4. H: Productivity and their efficiency. (INF) That's quite a bit. (SO)
K: Yeah. (AG)

INF + SO/AG

5. H: You got three different aspects. The bank is very important and data. You just have so much data information put together. And third, you got the, ah, you can get graphs and different charts, so you can use that for better business. (SO)

K: Yeah. (AG)

SO/AG

6. H: So you got three good points and you can write a paragraph for each one. (SO) As a matter of fact, that's what I'm going to write. (SS) Is that OK? (IR)

K: Yeah. (AG) OK, but, (DG) the first, the second, the second point. I'm talking about computer functions, not change. (CL)

SO + SS + IR/AG + DG + CL

7. H: So, in second one, you think the only thing that's changed is the ... (SO) What is your second one? (CR)

K: I thought about the computer stores the data for business. (CL)

SO + CR/CL

8. H: Well, sure it does. (AG) It could be used as a security. (INF) Right? (AR)

K: Right. (AG)

AG + INF + AR/AG

9. H: What they do, they put all the information that they file in the business in a computer and those files only sitting on that key go into that business. (EL) Right? (AR) They can have more idea and also go back to their history. (INF) They can put everything from ten years ago in the data. (EL) Then, they can work it every year by year. (INF) Right? (AR)

K: Right. (AG)

EL + AR + INF + EL + INF + AR/AG

10. H: They can work it every year. Like if they want to know how they did in 1978, they push a key and it shows 1978. They can operate on that. (EL)

K: But I'm talking about how computer change the business. (SS)

EL/SS

11. H: Well, ten years ago you weren't able to think about how you did twenty years prior to that, because you didn't have any information. You know how much it takes to store information as far as money. How many paper it would be in ten years? (CL) And what did I did on this day? On November 25, 1960? How much money I made that day? (EL) Right? (AR)
 K: Yeah. (AG)

CL + EL + AR/AG

12. H: How many pairs of this I sold; how many pairs of that I sold. The computer you can push the buttons and ... (EL)
 K: I think it's off the topic for the second data. (SO)

EL/SO

At this point, the instructor announced to the class that, as it was time to leave, the subjects could write outside of class on the topic that they had just discussed with their partner and, for the next class, they were to be ready to give their written work to their partner to read.

Use of the Six ELLVISS Categories by Subjects H and K

The following table indicates the type and number of categories used by the partners during the twelve verbal interactions that make up their discussion, together with the total number of categorized speech acts.

Table 9

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K
by Category

Categories	Subjects H and K	
	(12)*	
Agreement	5	8
Disagreement	0	1
Information	7	2
Summarizing	6	2
Clarification	2	2
Elaboration	5	0
Total Number of Categorized Speech Acts	25	15
Total Number of Categories Used	5	5

* Number of Verbal Interactions

From this table, it is clear that Subject H used the Information, Summarizing and Elaboration categories most frequently, while Subject K made most use of the Agreement category. The twenty-five speech acts, used by Subject H, were considerably greater than the fifteen used by his partner, Subject K; although, out of the six

categories available, each used the same number, five. A breakdown of these categories will allow a closer analysis.

The Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects H and K

Table 10

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects H and K

Categories	Subjects H and K	
Agreement		
AG	1	8
AR	4	0
Disagreement		
DG	0	1
Information		
INF	5	2
IR	2	0
IRP	0	0
IRRP	0	0
Summarizing		
SO	5	1
SS	1	1
Clarification		
CL	1	2
CR	1	0
CRP	0	0
CRRP	0	0
Elaboration		
EL	5	0
ER	0	0
ERP	0	0

Categories Used by Subject K

Although Subject K used the Information (INF) category twice (Table 10), these instances occurred in the first two interactions only. From that point on, he seemed to have been reduced to "straight man", supplying Subject H with positive reinforcement in the form of verbal assent, assent often demanded by Subject H's Agreement Requests (AR), and denied only once by Subject K in Interaction 10.

It is interesting to note Subject K's strategies in dealing with his much more verbally fluent partner. When Subject K summarized, his strategy appears to be an attempt to get his partner back on track -- his track (Interaction 10: "But I'm talking about how computer change the business", and Interaction 12: "I think it's off the topic for the second data). However, he was unsuccessful, as his partner responded, in Interaction 10, by clarifying what he had said previously, and, after Interaction 12, the instructor announced that the class had ended.

Let us now examine, the categories -- and strategies -- used by Subject H.

Categories Used by Subject H

When the discussion between Subject H and K came to an end because the instructor announced that the time was up, Subject H turned to the researcher and said:

Brainstorm is probably the hardest thing for me to get used to. But it made my essay a lot more easier today. I could think about it because I try to write an essay

before and it was impossible. I just got frustrated. When I brainstorm it, then I have an idea where I'm going.

Although Subject H used the term "brainstorm", it is clear from the context that he is referring to the discussion he had just had with his partner, Subject K. Subject H, then, found that oral discourse made his essay "easier" to write. Instead of becoming "frustrated", he was able to discover, through discourse with his partner, where he was headed. This discovery included changing his topic.

When we retrace the steps taken by Subject H, from the time he chose his original topic and began brainstorming, to the time that his discussion with his partner ended because the class was over, the role he took during the verbal interaction becomes clearer.

Subject H spent the first ten minutes choosing his topic and brainstorming silently. The next ten minutes were spent discussing his topic. It was not until he had spent twenty minutes on the writing assignment that he discovered that he was "a little lost in the subject". If there had been pressure on him, at this point, to write something and hand it in for marking, it is likely that he would, indeed, have found it, as he says, "impossible". At this point, he appeared to be experiencing a sense of frustration as indicated by (i) his concern that he needed to produce three paragraphs and (ii) his noting of the time that he had already spent -- or indeed, "wasted" -- on a topic that seemed to be going nowhere.

A question that comes to mind at this juncture is: if the subject had spent all of this time, i. e., twenty minutes, writing

silently rather than half of it in oral discourse, would he have felt committed to the written word and continued to write, even though lost? It is difficult to say, of course, even with the subject's comment that when he "[tried] to write an essay before ... it was impossible". There is evidence in the verbal exchange above that interaction with his partner allowed the subject time and opportunity to experience the process of discovering a topic about which he had information and upon which he could elaborate. Further evidence that verbal exchange with a partner aided Subject H in his writing is indicated in his before-treatment and after-treatment essays. Examples of these essays are illustrated in Chapter 5 in Writer/Reader Partnerships - Beyond Day 1.

During the fifth and sixth interactions between Subject H and his partner, Subject H summarized Subject K's points, saying that Subject K had "three different aspects" and "three good points". It is at this point that Subject H appears to make the decision to switch topics as he concluded his summary with, "As a matter of fact, that's what I'm going to write"; although by adding, "Is that OK?" he asked Subject K's permission before doing so.

Upon receiving permission, Subject H appears to take over the speaker's role, supplying information and elaborating upon it -- in spite of indications from time-to-time from Subject K (Interactions 10 and 12) that he had no intention of relinquishing this role.

Summary of the Verbal Interaction between Subjects H and K

The verbal interaction between Subjects H and K appears to have worked well for Subject H's purposes. But what about his partner, Subject K? Are his purposes served? To gain an insight into an answer to this question, we need to examine Subject K's written work resulting from this partnership, before passing judgment. After such an examination, we may agree that the partnership was beneficial to both parties. Subject K's written work is discussed later in this chapter in Section 2, Part II.

Before examining Subject K's written work, however, we should look at another speaker/listener partnership in which he was a member. This new partnership is very different from the one just described.

The Partnership between Subjects K and G

The partnership between Subjects K and G began on Day 7, two weeks after the commencement of the one described above. Subject G was a female Spanish speaker, who had studied English for five years, two more than her partner, Subject K, who was a male Cantonese speaker. Like her partner, she was a new arrival in the country.

On Day 7, the class was given the following topics from their text (Azar, 1981) and asked to write on one:

Do you agree with the following statements? Why or why not?

1. People of different religions should not marry.
2. No family should have more than two children.
3. Books, films, and news should be censored by government agencies. (p. 180)

After both subjects had brainstormed silently, Subject G opened their discussion. The verbal interaction between Subjects K and G is transcribed below, together with the coded scoring system, ELLVISS (Appendix E). An explanation of abbreviations from the coding system precedes the transcription.

ELLVISS Abbreviations

AG	- Agreement	CL	- Clarification
AR	- Agreement Request	CR	- Clarification Request
DG	- Disagreement	CRP	- Clarification Repeated
INF	- Information	CRRP	- Clarification Request Repeated
IR	- Information Request	EL	- Elaboration
IRP	- Information Repeated	ER	- Elaboration Request
IRRP	- Information Request Repeated	ERP	- Elaboration Repeated
SO	- Summarizing Other		
SS	- Summarizing Self		

Transcription of Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction
between Subjects K and G

1. G: I choose the second point because I think it's very important to everybody to don't have a lot of children. Because if you have money, it doesn't important if you have a lot of money. You can maintain to pay the maintenace of ten children. (INF) But what happen with all the world? (AR)
K: Population. (INF)

INF + AR/INF

2. G: Yes. (AG) We have a lot of problems with jobs, education, money and food and we have to think about the world, not the money, because we have ... (INF) This is my opinion, in conclusion. (SS) And you? (IR)
K: I choose the second, same as you. The ideas most the same. (Exchange of smiles) The world populations ... (The word, "populations", is mispronounced.) (INF)

AG + INF + SS + IR/INF

3. G: Pororation? (CR)
K: So crowded. (CL)

CR/CL

4. G: Yes. (AG)
K: And, um, how you say ...? (IR)

AG/IR

5. G: A lot of people? (INF)
K: Two people per family. Their parents make easy to take care of their childrens. (INF)

INF/INF

6. G: Uh huh. (AG)
K: Provide a good education for their children. If, if ... doesn't matter for the man. (INF)

AG/INF

7. G: The woman? (CR)
K: No, the parents can pay more for each the children. (CL)
And the second point. There are so many people in the world.
There not a, there not a ... (INF)

CR/CL+INF

8. G: Felaty? (INF) (Word unknown to researcher.)
K: There are not many jobs for them and ... (INF)

INF/INF

9. G: lobs? (CR)
K: 'Chob.' J-o-b. (CL) (This is spoken very quietly; Subject G does not hear the spelling.)

CR/CL

10. G: 'Chob.' (CRP) What is 'chob'? (CR)
K: Work. (CL)

CRP + CR/CL

11. G: Work, (CRP) oh, OK. (AG)
 K: If there too many people in the world, the population increase. There may be years later we do not have enough to eat, (INF) like rice or bread to eat (EL)
 (He looks up at her and smiles when he says 'bread'.)

CRP +AG/INF + EL

12. G: Yes. I think the same. (AG)
 K: Yeah. That's right. (AG)

AG/AG

13. G: Because I was born in a country that is very different like Canada and when I was born, I lived in a very different country than is now. (INF) When I was born in Mexico, Mexico was very different. (EL)
 K: Yeah. (AG)

INF + EL/AG

14. G: And people are very good life. In ten years, you can't believe me, but really, in ten years, one woman have five, seven children and, suddenly, these children grow up and now they need jobs, education and food. (INF)
 K: Yeah. (AG) I was born in Beijing. There is also so many people in China. (INF) (He laughs.)

INF/AG + INF

15. G: Yes. (AG) (They are both smiling and nodding.)
 K: Almost ten million. (INF) We have a limited rice and things to eat. So that is the problem. (EL)

AG/INF + EL

16. G: Yes. (AG) Do you have unemployment in China? (IR)
 K: No. (INF)

AG + IR/INF

17. G: All people, everybody have a work? a job? (CR)
 K: In China, there is different ... (INF)

CR/INF

18. (K and G speak almost simultaneously)
K: Country. (INF)
G: System. (INF)

INF/INF

19. K: System. Yes, (AG) system. (IRP)
G: Yes. (AG)

AG + IRP/AG

20. K: You work for the country, for the government. (INF)
G: Yes. (AG)

INF/AG

21. K: No for yourself. (INF)
G: Yes, I know. (AG)

INF/AG

22. K: So, you can say everybody got a job. (EL)
G: A job. (ERP) (This is said in unison with Subject K)

EL/ERP

23. K: Yeah. (AG) OK, that's it. (SS)
G: That's good. (SO)

AG + SS/SO

When Subjects K and G concluded their discussion, the researcher commented that they were good partners. To this, Subject G responded, "Yes, we are agree". It does, in fact, appear to be an agreeable partnership (Table 11), one in which both partners had an opportunity to share information.

Verbal Interaction between Subjects K and G by Category

Table 11

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction between Subjects K and G
by Category

Categories	Subjects K and G (23)*	
Agreement	5	11
Disagreement	0	0
Information	16	9
Summarizing	1	2
Clarification	4	7
Elaboration	3	2
Total Number of Categorized Speech Acts	29	31
Total Number of Categories Used	5	5

* Number of Verbal Interactions

Table 11 above indicates the type and number of categories used by the partners during the twenty-three verbal interactions that made up their discussion, together with the total number of categorized speech acts.

The only category not used by the partners from the six available was the Disagreement category. Subject G used the Agreement

category eleven times, more than twice Subject K's use. Subject K, on the other hand, used the Information category sixteen times, almost twice as many times as Subject G. A breakdown of these categories (Table 12) allows a closer analysis.

Breakdown of the Categories Used by Subjects K and G

Table 12

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects K and G

Categories	Subjects K and G	
Agreement		
AG	5	10
AR	0	1
Disagreement		
DG	0	0
Information		
INF	14	7
IR	1	2
IRP	1	0
IRRP	0	0
Summarizing		
SO	0	1
SS	1	1
Clarification		
CL	4	0
CR	0	5
CRP	0	2
CRRP	0	0
Elaboration		
EL	3	1
ER	0	0
ERP	0	1

In the breakdown of the Information category (Table 12), Subject K supplied information fourteen times, twice as often as his partner, although his speech acts were usually shorter than hers. He requested information only once and repeated information given to him by his partner once.

Subject K clarified four times, three times because of clarification requests by his partner regarding his mispronunciation of the words, 'population' and 'jobs'. His attempts at clarification were successful when he substituted other words, 'so crowded' and 'work', respectively. Subject G's use of the Clarification category was made up of five Clarification Requests and two Clarification Repetitions. The two repetitions occurred when she was puzzled by her partner's clarification attempts (Interactions 10 and 11). However, her Elaboration Repetition appears to be an affirmation that her partner was on the right track (Interaction 22).

At this point, it is interesting to compare the two partnerships in which Subject K was a member. A breakdown of the categories used by the two partnerships are indicated in Table 13, below:

Table 13

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Breakdown of Categories Used by the Partners,
Subjects H & K and Subjects K & G

Categories	H and K (12)*		K and G (23)*	
Agreement				
AG	1	8	5	10
AR	4	0	0	1
Disagreement				
DG	0	1	0	0
Information				
INF	5	2	14	7
IR	2	0	1	2
IRP	0	0	1	0
IRRP	0	0	0	0
Summarizing				
SO	5	1	0	1
SS	1	1	1	1
Clarification				
CL	1	2	4	0
CR	1	0	0	5
CRP	0	0	0	2
CRRP	0	0	0	0
Elaboration				
EL	5	0	3	1
ER	0	0	0	0
ERP	0	0	0	1
Total Number of Cate- gORIZED Speech Acts	25	15	29	31
Total Number of Categories Used	5	5	5	5
Total Number of Subsets Used	9	6	7	10

* Number of Verbal Interactions

When we compare Subject K's verbal production in both partnerships (Table 13), we can observe him behaving in a fashion similar to Subject G, producing 29 speech acts to her 31. In his partnership with Subject H, he produced approximately the same number of speech acts proportionally as he did with Subject G (15 speech acts in 12 interactions and 29 speech acts in 23 interactions), but the kinds of speech acts are very different. A comparison of the Information category in both partnerships is particularly interesting.

In his partnership with Subject H, he supplied information only twice, less than half as often as his more fluent partner. In this partnership, Subject K's use of the information INF subset occurred only in the first and second interactions. On the other hand, in his partnership with Subject G, a partner of approximately equal fluency, Subject K's use of the information INF subset was dispersed throughout the interaction and he supplied information fourteen times, twice as often as his partner and more than three times as often as he had done with his fluent partner, Subject H. In both partnerships, however, Subject K's speech acts were usually shorter than those of either of his partners.

The total number of categories used by all of the subjects is the same, at five. It is interesting to note that Subject K was the only one to use the Disagreement category. In fact, of four speaker/listener partnerships recorded in their entirety during the study, the Disagreement category was used only by Subject K and only in this particular instance. It should also be noted here that of the six

verbal interaction categories available, all of the partners in the four partnerships mentioned above used the same number, five.

In the two partnerships transcribed in this chapter, the total number of subsets used by the subjects appears to be a more difficult task to come to terms with. Of the sixteen subsets available, Subject H used nine in twelve verbal interactions; Subject G used ten in twenty-three verbal interactions; while Subject K used six and seven in twelve and twenty-three interactions, respectively. These figures bring certain questions to mind:

1. Do these figures indicate that Subject K has fewer verbal strategies available to him than the other speakers?
2. Is this a condition of his lack of oral fluency, or perhaps, his educational background?
3. Or is it cultural, related to the first language, or, even an aspect of personality?

It should be noted that although Subject G appears to approximate Subject K's fluency, she used the greatest number of subsets.

Whatever the reason for the lower number of subsets in Subject K's verbal production, it is interesting to note that in his partnership with Subject G, Subject K's clarifications, and more particularly, his elaborations demonstrate that he had a sense of the audience to whom he was speaking (Interactions 11, 15 and 22).

Although there were eleven fewer verbal interactions in the partnership of Subjects H and K, the orally-fluent Subject H managed to produce twenty-five speech acts. Such verbal production brings two

further questions to mind:

1. Do orally fluent speakers produce more speech acts in a given number of verbal interactions than their less orally fluent partners?

2. Do partners of equal oral proficiency influence the number and length of speech acts produced?

It would be interesting to determine whether or not an equally fluent partner in the same circumstances would have increased Subject H's production of speech acts, as appears to have happened in the partnership of Subject K and G.

At this point, we should examine the written products resulting from the two partnerships. These are dealt with in Section 2, Part II, which follows.

SECTION 2 - Treatment Results

Part II - Writer/Reader Analyses

The Focus of the Writer/Reader Analyses

Two final drafts resulting from writer/reader partnerships will be analyzed in this section. The analysis of each final draft will have two focal points.

1. A search will be made to determine what revisions were brought about by discussion with the reader.

2. An examination of these revisions will be looked at in light of the revising behaviours described in A Review of Relevant Revision Analyses, in Chapter 2. There, unsuccessful, inexperienced student writers were described as seeing revision as an activity wherein the writer re-copied the first draft, making few changes. If any revisions were made, these consisted of changes in spelling, punctuation and grammar. Successful writers, on the other hand, were concerned with meaning and text-based changes (Faigley & Witte, 1981), and revised using four revision operations: addition, deletion, substitution and reordering (Sommers, 1980). These successful writers made changes that brought the text "closer to fitting the demands of the situation" (Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 411).

Writer/Reader Partnerships

After discussions with a partner regarding what they were planning to write about a topic, all of the subjects usually began

their writing in class and finished their first draft outside of class. They then presented this draft to their partner, who took the role of reader.

The drafts to be considered in the present study evolved from writer/reader partnerships of Subjects H and K and Subjects K and G.

For the partnership of Subjects K and G, Subject G's written work with Subject K as reader will be examined; for the partnership of Subjects H and K, Subject K's written work, with Subject H as reader will be examined.

Subject K's partnership with Subject G, in which he read his partner's first draft following their discussion, will be discussed first.

The Writer/Reader Partnership of Subjects K and G

Subject G's First Draft

Subject G's first draft (Appendix F), following her discussion with partner, Subject K, was written outside of class. During the reading of this draft, Subject K asked questions and commented as he read.

Following is the transcription of the verbal interaction between Subjects K and G, together with the coded scoring system, ELLVISS (Appendix E). An explanation of abbreviations from the coding system precedes the transcription. In order to facilitate the understanding of the analysis of Subject G's first draft, paragraphs from the draft

have been inserted into the transcription, when appropriate. These paragraph insertions are indicated by parentheses {}.

ELLVISS Abbreviations

AG - Agreement	CL - Clarification
AR - Agreement Request	CR - Clarification Request
DG - Disagreement	CRP - Clarification Repeated
INF - Information	CRRP - Clarification Request Repeated
IR - Information Request	EL - Elaboration
IRP - Information Repeated	ER - Elaboration Request
IRRP - Information Request Repeated	ERP - Elaboration Repeated
SO - Summarizing Other	
SS - Summarizing Self	

Transcription of the Writer/Reader Verbal Interaction between
Subjects K and G

{Paragraph 1: I think that if the parents have or not money, they shouldn't have more than two children. The world will have more people year after year and this can cause a terrible catastrophe. Because people wouldn't have enough food and enough territory to live. Consequently they wouldn't have jobs, too.}

(The reader, Subject K, began the interaction.)

1. K: What's this word? (CR) {Paragraph 1}
- G: Catastrophe? (CR) Catastrophe. (CL)

CR/CR + CL

2. K: What's that? (CR)
- G: Umm, very big problem when, like, when the authorities and the buildings fall down. Something, but is same meaning. (CL)

CR/CL

3. K: OK. (AG)
- G: Do you understand? (IR)

AG/IR

4. K: Yeah. (AG) (He laughs; she joins in.) (Reads) "territory to live". Why? (CR) {Paragraph 1}.

G: Huh? (CR)

AG + CR/CR

5. K: Why "Wouldn't have enough food and enough territory to live"? (CRRP) {Paragraph 1}

G: Because the world would have more people year after year if the parents don't, if the parents have more children. The world will have more people. And this is the cause for the people have no food and no territory to live. (CL) OK? (AR)

CRRP/CL + AR

{Paragraph 2: Nowadays everybody, women and men may have contraceptives to prevent for having children. But I think one of the most important enemy of these is the Church. The Church oughtn't to tell people to have the children that the god sends. The people have to do the best for the all world, because this is a problem to concern everybody.}

6. K: OK. (AG) (Continues reading.) This should be "nowadays". (INF) {Paragraph 2}

G: Nowadays? (CR)

AG + INF/CR

7. K: N-o-w-a-d-a-y-s. Should be a "a". (CL)

G: "a". (CRP) Like this? (CR)

CL/CRP + CR

8. K: Yeah. (CL)

G: OK. (AG)

CL/AG

9. K: What does this mean? (CR) (He has tried to pronounce the word, "contraceptives", several times before asking this question.) {Paragraph 2}

G: For not have children. (CL) You know? (IR)

CR/CL + IR

10. K: (He nods his head and continues reading.) Can you explain your ideas about the church? (CR) {Paragraph 2}

G: The church doesn't, I think the church in some places ... (CL)

CR/CL

11. K: Yeah. (AG)
 G: In the world don't have, don't want to the people be educated about some subjects because in this way the church can dominate the people. (CL)

AG/CL

12. K: Uh huh. (AG) (Sounds and looks doubtful.)
 G: And they, and they don't want that the people know about the pregnancy, the children, the sex relations. Because if the people doesn't know, doesn't know, if the people don't know about these things, they can be dominated by the people that know. (EL)

AG/EL

13. K: It still not clear. I can't figure out. (CR)
 G: Because of the church. (CL)

CR/CL

14. K: Yeah. (AG) (Sounds and looks doubtful.)
 G: I am going to write the explanation. I'll change it, explain more. (SS)

AG/SS

{Paragraph 3: But it isn't only a problem in the cities, I think it is a bigger problem in the undeveloped countries where the people can't have education and they always listen to the priest.}

15. K: This whole part. What are you trying to say? (CR) {He indicates Paragraph 3.}
 G: Hmm? (CR)

CR/CR

16. K: What are you trying to say? {He reads from Paragraph 3 but changes the text.} "The underdeveloped country, they can't have education and they always listen to the priest." (CR)
 G: Explain me exactly what you don't understand. Cause I understand, but I have to know exactly whether you want to know. (CR)

CR/CR

17. K: What is this: it's the problem? (CR) {He indicates both Paragraph 2 and 3.}
 G: About the children and the church. (CL) Maybe I have to put these. I don't know. (SS)

CR/CL + SS

18. K: In some country, they don't have a church. In some country, they don't have a church. (INF)
 (His partner looks very puzzled and remains silent. There is a long pause.)
 In some country, they don't have a church. (IRP)
 G: Yes. (AG)

INF + IRP/AG

19. K: You should say "some countries". (INF)
 G: Yes. (AG) This is important. (SS)

INF/AG + SS

20. K: Do you think the church makes people give the idea to people born, to increase the people, this the reason? (CR)
 G: Repeat, please, the church? (CR)

CR/CR

21. K: Do you believe that the church like you say, is ... (CR)
 Ahh, I don't know how to explain it. (SS) (He laughs.) Do you think the church is the reason? (CR)
 G: Of this? (CR)

CR + SS + CR/CR

22. K: Of this? (CRRP) Yeah. (CL)
 G: No, not completely. But I think in some persons, yes. Because I ... (CL)

CRRP + CL/CL

23. K: What I'm trying to say is the topic's, "The Family Shouldn't Have More than Two Children", (SS) but what you here say is that the church encourage people to born, to have more children, (SO) so what's the relation with your topic? (CR)
 G: I don't know. I didn't read too well. I'll have to read it again. (SS)

SS + SO + CR/SS

At this point, Subject K turned to the researcher and said:

One thing. I want to clear the topic. The topics are set. "The Family Should Not Have More than Two Children". Should we just discuss if correct or not if more than two children, what problem will they cause -- or if you agree?

The researcher replied:

You may take whichever point of view you wish. You may agree or disagree. ... In Canada, you may disagree with the topic if you wish. Whichever point of view you took would be considered correct, as long as you supported your arguments, your points.

Subject K then turned back to Subject G's draft.

{Paragraph 4: I'm not against the Church, but it doesn't want to the people be educated about the pregnancy, children, and sexual relations. I think people ought to be educated by the other people who knows about it. The women groups about freedom and others women's right should help the poor and uneducated women who have children on the worst situations.}

24. K: (Reads from Paragraph 4.) "I think people ought to be educated by the other people who knows about it." (CR)
 G: Yes, I am talking about this. (SS) (She indicates the previous paragraph.) Because you have to read everything together. (SO)

CR/SS + SO

25. K: Yeah. OK. (AG)
 G: Or you don't understand. (SO) (They both laugh.)

AG/SO

{Paragraph 5: I'm not in favour of the abortion, but I think it's criminal, too, that women have children worse than animals. And in many times men don't import about that.}

26. K: I don't understand this phrase. (CR) {He indicates the word, "abortion", Paragraph 5.}
 G: It's to kill the children. (CL)

CR/CL

27. K: To kill the children. (CRP) (He then reads to the end and heaves a big sigh. We all laugh.)
G: I will explain better. (SS)
K: Alright. We have finished. (SO)

CRP/SS/SO

Verbal Interaction Categories Used by Subjects K and G during their
Writer/Reader Partnership

After this 22-minute exchange, Subject G began the revision of her first draft. Table 14, below, indicates the type and number of categories used by the partners during the 27 verbal interactions that made up their discussion, together with the total number of categorized speech acts.

Table 14

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Verbal Interaction Categories Used by Subjects K and G
during their Writer/Reader Discussion of Subject G's First Draft

Categories	Subjects K and G	
	(27)*	
Agreement	7	4
Disagreement	0	0
Information	4	2
Summarizing	4	8
Clarification	21	19
Elaboration	0	1
Total Number of Categorized Speech Acts	36	34
Total Number of Categories Used	4	5

* Number of Verbal Interactions

The major category employed by the partners in this interaction is the Clarification category. At this stage, it is interesting to compare the categories used before writing, during the speaker/listener interaction (Table 11), and those used after writing, during the writer/reader interaction (Table 14). This comparison is made in Table 15, below.

Table 15

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Comparison of Categories Used by Subjects K and G
during the Speaker/Listener Interaction
and
the Writer/Reader Interaction

Categories	Speaker/Listener Interaction		Writer/Reader Interaction	
	Subjects K and G (23)*		Subjects K and G (27)*	
Agreement	5	11	7	4
Disagreement	0	0	0	0
Information	16	9	4	2
Summarizing	1	2	4	8
Clarification	4	7	21	19
Elaboration	3	2	0	1
Total Number of Categorized Speech Acts	29	31	36	34
Total Number Of Categories Used	5	5	4	5

* Number of Verbal Interactions

In Table 15, the major category employed by the partners before writing, during their speaker/listener interaction, is the Information category; whereas, after writing, during their writer/reader interaction, it is the Clarification category. This appears a logical enough occurrence, as information is what is likely to pass between a

speaker and listener in the discussion of a new topic; whereas, once information is in written form, discussion is likely to turn to whether that information is clear to the reader. Given the instructor's directions to the reader to ask the writer to clarify if something was unclear, these results are encouraging.

The Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects K and G during their Writer/Reader Interaction

At this point, we should look at the breakdown of the categories used by Subjects K and G during their writer/reader interaction in Table 16 following.

Table 16

English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System
(ELLVISS, Appendix E)

Breakdown of Categories Used by Subjects K and G
during their Writer/Reader Interaction

Categories	Subjects K and G	
Agreement		
AG	7	4
AR	0	0
Disagreement		
DG	0	0
Information		
INF	3	0
IR	0	2
IRP	1	0
IRRP	0	0
Summarizing		
SO	2	2
SS	2	6
Clarification		
CL	3	10
CR	15	8
CRP	1	1
CRRP	2	0
Elaboration		
EL	0	1
ER	0	0
ERP	0	0

The Information Category

The breakdown of categories in Table 16 reveals that only the reader, Subject K, used the Information INF subset. This information took the form of:

1. a spelling correction of the word "nowadays" — the writer wrote the word as she pronounced it (Interactions 6 - 8);
2. information that in some countries, "they don't have a church" (Interaction 18);
3. a suggestion that the writer "should say, 'some countries'" (Interaction 19).

The writer's response to this information, during the verbal interaction, was:

1. to write the correct spelling of "nowadays" on her draft, immediately upon receiving the correction (Interaction 7 - 8);
2. to acknowledge the reader's information, by saying, "Yes", when he told her that there wasn't a church in some countries, even though she was clearly puzzled by this information (Interaction 18);
3. to acknowledge that she should qualify her statement, by saying, "Yes. This is important" (Interaction 19).

The writer's verbal reactions to her reader's information appear to indicate that she viewed him as a credible informant. Later, during the revision of her first draft, Subject G spoke to the researcher about the information given to her by the reader that "they don't have a church" in some countries. Their short exchange follows.

Subject G: In his country, they don't have a church?

Researcher: No, he comes from Beijing, in China, and they don't have a church there.

Subject G: Oh, I don't know this.

Subject G then went on with the revision of her first draft. It is interesting to note that in her final draft (Appendix G), the writer, Subject G, heeded all of the information provided by her reader, Subject K. This draft will be discussed more fully later.

The Clarification Category

The breakdown of categories in Table 16 also reveals that Subject K used the Clarification Request CR subset 15 times. He appears to use two types of Clarification Request (CR). These consist of:

CR Type 1: a request for the meaning of vocabulary items (Interactions 1-3, 9 and 26-27);

CR Type 2: a more general request, such as, "Territory to live. Why?" (Interaction 4-5. See also Interactions 10-14, 15-17, 20-23 and 24-26);

In response to the two types of Clarification Request, Subject G reacted in the following ways:

CR Type 1: When asked for the meaning of vocabulary items, Subject G defined the word and, in two cases out of the three, checked to determine whether or not her reader understood. In the third case, she indicated that she would explain it more fully in her revision.

CR Type 2: To a more general request, Subject G responded in a variety of ways. These will be dealt with in Table 17 below.

It is interesting to note, at this point, that both types of Clarification Request appear to have prompted the writer, Subject G, to make revisions in her final draft (Appendix G). These revisions will be discussed later.

Clarification Request (CR) Type 2

Table 17, below, details the verbal interactions between writer and reader following a general clarification request (CR Type 2) from the reader.

Table 17

Verbal Interaction

Following Reader's Type 2 Clarification Request (CR)

Inter-action	Writer Asks to have CR Repeated	Writer Attempts to Clarify/ Summarize	Writer Asks if Clarifi-cation Understood	Reader Confirms Clarifi-cation Understood	Reader Changes Tactics
4-5	1	1/0	1	1	0
10-14	0	4/1	0	0	0
15-17	2	1/1	0	0	1
20-23	2	1/1	0	0	1
24-26	0	1/2	0	0	1
TOTALS	5	8/5	1	1	3

Clarification Request Type 2, Repeated

During the five sets of Type 2 Clarification Request interactions detailed in Table 17, the writer asked to have the reader's Clarification Request repeated five times — once in Interaction 4-5, and twice in Interactions 15-17 and 20-23.

In Interaction 4-5, the reader's Clarification Request, "territory to live. Why?", was rephrased by the reader to become, "Why wouldn't [they] have enough food and enough territory to live?". The writer appears to have found this Clarification Request clearer as she attempted to clarify. In this interaction, her clarification was followed by the reader's confirmation that he understood, and the partners went on to another point.

In Interaction 15-17, the writer asked to have the Clarification Request repeated twice. In the first Clarification Request, the reader had indicated an entire paragraph requiring clarification (Paragraph 3), and asked the writer what she was trying to say. In his second request, the reader again asked what the writer was trying to say but, this time, read a portion of the paragraph aloud. When the writer indicated that she was still not certain what he wanted and asked him to "explain ... exactly what [he didn't] understand", the reader homed in on an even smaller portion of the paragraph. The writer then attempted a clarification, but, sensing that it was inadequate, summarized her situation by saying, "Maybe I have to put these. I don't know" (Interaction 17).

An examination of this interaction indicates that the reader

moved from a general clarification request to increasingly more specific requests. When this did not seem to be effective, i.e., the writer indicated that she was uncertain about the adequacy of her clarification, the reader changed tactics and switched to the Information category, supplying information that "in some countr[ies], they don't have a church" (Interaction 18). The reader repeated this statement and when his partner looked puzzled and did not respond, he repeated it again. Although the reader's lack of oral fluency did not, perhaps, allow him to elaborate on this point, he had pinpointed the crux of the problem. Because he had had no experience of the Roman Catholic church in the Republic of China, the writer's assumption that the church was the source of all over-population problems was puzzling to him. When, at last, the writer responded by agreeing with him, the reader suggested that the writer insert "some countries" into her next draft. The writer agreed to this suggestion, adding, "This is important".

In Interaction 20-23, the writer asked to have the reader's Clarification Request repeated twice. In his first request, the reader had asked, "Do you think the church makes people give the ideas to people born, to increase the people, this the reason?" When the writer asked for clarification, the reader told her that he was having difficulty phrasing the question, saying, "I don't know how to explain it". Although both reader and writer were having difficulty clarifying, the writer began a clarification attempt. This attempt was interrupted by the reader who changed tactics by switching to the

Summarizing category to sum up his view as to what she had written. He then asked, "So what's the relation with your topic?"

This rather abrupt Clarification Request caused the writer to summarize, saying that she would have to read that section again, "I don't know. I didn't read too well. I'll have to read it again." On hearing this, the reader turned to the researcher for information regarding the "correct" approach to the topic. When he returned to his interaction with the writer, Subject G, he did not return to the topic of Interaction 20-23, but, instead, went on to a different point in a different paragraph.

Other Type 2 Clarification Requests

(i) Interaction 10-14

Although the writer, Subject G, did not ask to have the reader's Clarification Request repeated in Interaction 10-14 as she did with the other Type 2 Clarification Request interactions above (Table 17), she made four separate attempts to clarify after the first Clarification Request by the reader, Subject K. During the first two clarification attempts by the writer, the reader gave a verbal agreement to what the writer was saying, but at the same time, he sounded and looked doubtful. Following the writer's third attempt to clarify, the reader indicated that her explanation was still unclear. After the writer's fourth attempt to clarify, the reader once again gave a verbal agreement to what the writer was saying, but once again, sounded and looked doubtful. At that point, in spite of the fact that

the reader had been agreeing with her, the writer summarized, saying, "I am going to write the explanation. I'll change it, explain more". This response appears to have been a reaction more to the reader's non-verbal signals than to his verbal acquiescence. Immediately upon hearing the writer's summary statement, the reader went on to another point.

(ii) Interaction 24-26

In Interaction 24-26 (Table 17), the writer responded to the reader's Clarification Request concerning Paragraph 4 by summarizing, rather than clarifying. She indicated to her reader that Paragraph 4 referred to the preceding one and that he had "to read everything together ... or [he wouldn't] understand". At this, the reader changed his tactic and became more specific, asking about a particular word which the writer then clarified.

The Summarizing Category

Before leaving the writer/reader verbal interaction of Subjects K and G, we should look again at the breakdown of the Summarizing category in Table 16. The Summarizing category, as used by the writer, Subject G, is particularly interesting when examined along with the responses by the reader, Subject K. Subject G used the Summarizing Other (SO) subset two times and the Summarizing Self (SS) subset six times.

When the writer, Subject G, summarized, the reader, Subject K,

appears to have made three types of response:

1. When the writer summarized by informing the reader that he needed to read more carefully, "... you have to read everything together ... or you don't understand" (Interactions 24-25), the reader became more specific in his Clarification Request and the writer then clarified.

2. When the writer was unable to clarify to the reader's satisfaction and could do nothing more (Interactions 15-17 and 20-23), she said, "I don't know". After this response, the reader changed his tactics and either gave or sought information. In Interaction 15-17, he supplied necessary information to the writer; in Interaction 20-23, he sought information from the researcher. Following both interactions, he went on to discuss a point different from the one that he had been discussing.

3. When the writer summarized by telling the reader that she needed to expand on her clarification, "I am going to write the explanation. I'll change it, explain more" (Interaction 14; see also Interaction 27), or when she accepted information from the reader that she would incorporate into her next draft, "Yes. This is important", the reader accepted this and, as he did above, went on to discuss a different point.

Subject G's use of the Summarizing category indicates a sense of audience, a sense that if her draft was to be made clear to her reader, she would need to revise. At one point, she told her reader that she would "write the explanation ... change it, explain more"

(Interaction 14). An examination of the revised version of her first draft will illustrate what kinds of changes actually did occur.

Analysis of Subject G's Revisions in her Final Draft

Following discussion with her reader, Subject G immediately began revising her first draft.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section (Section 2, Part II), the examination of her final draft will attempt to answer two main questions.

1. What revisions did the writer make that were apparently brought about by discussion with the reader?

2. How do these revising behaviours resemble those behaviours of successful and unsuccessful student writers as described in

A Review of Relevant Revision Analyses, in Chapter 2?

A short description of the structural differences between the first draft (Appendix F) and the final, revised version (Appendix G) follows.

Structural Differences between Subject G's First and Final Drafts

When Subject G revised her first draft, she (i) rewrote the first paragraph, making no changes; (ii) added a new paragraph; (iii) rewrote the second paragraph of the first draft, which became paragraph 3 in the revised version; (iv) collapsed the next two paragraphs into one, and; (v) kept the final, one-sentence-long summary paragraph intact. Consequently, the first draft and the final

version contain the same number of paragraphs, six. The first draft is shorter, however, with 239 words; while the revision contains 265, a difference of 26 words.

Many, if not all, of the structural changes described above appear to be the result of the writer attempting to clarify points brought up by the reader during the writer/reader verbal interaction. This will be demonstrated by a close paragraph-by-paragraph examination of the final draft.

Major structural changes to this draft, such as adding and collapsing paragraphs appear to be behaviours of a reviser who reflects not those behaviours of inexperienced student writers described in Chapter 2, but rather those of successful, advanced writers.

Paragraphs 1 and 6 of the First and Final Drafts

In the final draft of Subject G's essay, Paragraphs 1 and 6, the introductory paragraph and summary statement, respectively, remain unchanged. The introduction is a general statement about the consequences, the "terrible catastrophe", resulting from over-population. The ensuing paragraphs become increasingly specific, and in the final paragraph there is a suggestion that the impending catastrophe is a situation that should be addressed: "Everybody must do something about all of this". The title and introductory paragraph appear below.

No family should have more than two children.

I think that if the parents have or not money, they shouldn't have more than two children. The world will have more people year after year and this can cause a terrible catastrophe. Because people wouldn't have enough food and enough territory to live. Consequently they wouldn't have jobs, too.

(Title and Paragraph 1, original and revised)

Each of the paragraphs in the body of the revised version has a topic which is either an elaboration of the preceding paragraph or a consolidation of material from the original draft.

Paragraphs 2 and 3 of the Final Draft

After her introductory paragraph in the revised version of her essay, Subject G added a new paragraph, Paragraph 2. The topic of this paragraph deals with population and territorial concerns, and appears to be an elaboration of Paragraph 1. It is interesting to note here that the reader, Subject K, asked her to clarify the clause, "wouldn't have enough food and enough territory to live" (lines 5-6, Paragraph 1). This new paragraph may be an attempt by the writer to deal with this request. The new Paragraph 2 appears below.

People are living in a few cities and there are many places without too many people. In some places there are more people than in others. The territory of some cities isn't enough for people to live in.

(Revised Paragraph 2)

As well as attempting to clarify her first paragraph for the reader by adding this explanatory paragraph, the writer also heeded his words when he said that she should use the qualifier, "some", in

order to represent her topic more clearly (Interaction 19). She did this by adding the qualifier to the phrases, "in some places" (line 2) and "of some cities" (line 4).

In this paragraph and the succeeding one, the writer seems to be trying to work out the problem of writing too generally.

In order to facilitate the analysis of the revised Paragraph 3, the original second paragraph and Paragraph 3, with revisions underscored, are reproduced below.

Nowdays everybody, women and men may have contraceptives to prevent for having children. But I think one of the most important enemy of these is the Church. The Church oughtn't to tell people to have the children that the god sends. The people have to do the best for the all world, because this is a problem to concern everybody.

(Original Paragraph 2)

Nowadays everybody, women and men may have contraceptives to prevent for having children. Unfortunately in some countries where the Church role is very important, we have serious problems with too many births. In these countries women can't take contraceptives and consequently they have to have more than two children. The Church, in these cases, oughtn't to tell women to have the children that the god sends.

(Revised Paragraph 3)

The writer deals with the problem of writing too generally by attending to her reader's suggestion that, because her essay did not include all countries, she should say "in some countries". This phrase appears in line 3 of the revised third paragraph.

The writer indicates a further awareness of the need to write with more specificity in order to clarify for an audience when she continued her note of qualification in the phrases, "in these

countries" (line 5) and "in these cases" (line 7), and when she replaced "people" in the original with the more specific word, "women" (line 8).

The reader had also asked for clarification of the writer's reference to "a problem" in Paragraphs 2 and 3 of the first draft (Interaction 17). The second sentence of Paragraph 3, above, appears to be an attempt to clarify this reference. The original sentence, in the final position in Paragraph 2 of the first draft, states:

The people have to do the best for all world, because this is a problem to concern everybody.

(Original Paragraph 2, Final Sentence)

In the revised version, the writer moved the sentence from the final position in the original Paragraph 2 to the second sentence of the revised Paragraph 3, and made it more specific. The two sentences that follow this revised sentence serve as elaborations of the first and second sentences in the paragraph (Paragraph 3). This revising behaviour not only addressed the reader's interests, but also reflects a revision operation called "reordering" by Sommers (1980), an operation used only by the experienced adult writers in her study.

Two further responses by Subject G to her reader are indicated in the revised Paragraph 3 with the writer correcting the spelling of "nowadays", as suggested by her reader (Interactions 6-7), and attempting an explanation of the word, "contraceptives" in the third sentence, an explanation requested by her reader (Interaction 9).

The topic of Paragraph 3 which deals with the need for contraception is elaborated upon in the paragraph that follows.

Paragraph 4 of the Final Draft

The topic of the fourth paragraph is concerned with the lack of education that keeps people ignorant regarding sexual matters. This paragraph appears to be an elaboration of the previous paragraph as well as a consolidation of material in the original draft. The writer incorporated a revised version of the original Paragraph 3, together with a sentence from the original Paragraph 4, into a new Paragraph 4. The original third and fourth paragraphs and the revised Paragraph 4 appear below with revisions underscored.

But it isn't only a problem in the cities,
I think it is a bigger problem in the undeveloped
countries where the people can't have education and
they always listen to the priest.

(Original Paragraph 3)

I'm not against the Church, but it doesn't want
to the people be educated about the pregnancy,
children, and sexual relations. I think people
ought to be educated by the other people who knows
about it. The women groups about freedom and others
women's right should help the poor and uneducated
women who have children on the worst situations.

(Original Paragraph 4)

In the undeveloped countries where the people can't have
education and they always listen to the priest this problem
is bigger. Sometimes the Church doesn't want to the people
be educated about the pregnancy, children, and sexual
relations. If people were educated, they wouldn't have
more than two children.

(Revised Paragraph 4)

Again in the revised paragraph, we witness the writer attempting
to qualify a statement with the addition of the phrase, "Sometimes the

Church" (line 3). The topic of this paragraph is elaborated upon in Paragraph 5.

Paragraph 5 of the Final Draft

In Paragraph 5, the writer appears to see education as a solution to the problem of over-population. This paragraph, then, is an elaboration of the revised Paragraph 4, and is a reworking of the original fourth and fifth paragraphs. The original Paragraph 5 and the new Paragraph 5, with revisions underscored, are reproduced below (see the original fourth paragraph in the analysis of Paragraph 4 above).

I'm not in favour of the abortion, but I think it's criminal, too, that women have children worse than animals. And in many times men don't import about that.

(Original Paragraph 5)

... People ought to be educated by the other people who knows about it. The women groups about freedom and others women's right should help the poor and uneducated women who have children on the worst situation. ... It's criminal ... that women have children worse than animals. And in many times men don't import about that.

(Revised Paragraph 5)

This paragraph is the result of the writer's collapsing the original Paragraphs 4 and 5 into one paragraph, Paragraph 5. Thus, this paragraph is not only an elaboration of the preceding paragraph but also a consolidation of material from the original draft. This reordering and adding of material again reflects the revising behaviours of successful writers.

In the revised version of Paragraph 5, the writer's deletion of the word, "abortion" in the first sentence of the original Paragraph 5, may be the result of the reader's request for clarification of the word, "abortion" (Interaction 26), and his response to her clarification (Interaction 27).

The writer also deleted "I" references, such as, "I think ...". (These deleted references appear as ... in Paragraph 5, above.) It is interesting to note here that, in the revised version, the only reference that the writer made to herself is in the unchanged first paragraph in, "I think...". All of the other six references in the original were deleted in the revised version. These deletions, together with the added qualifications, tend to make the essay appear more objective.

Following the Completion of Subject G's Final Draft

Before handing in the revised draft to the instructor for marking, Subject G asked her reader, Subject K, to read it. This second reading by the reader was not a requirement; it was done at the writer's own behest. After taking the revised draft back to his desk and reading it through silently, Subject K turned to Subject H who had been his partner previously, and asked him to read the fifth paragraph, saying, "I don't know about this". Subject H read the paragraph and said, "If she believe this, you got to leave it". Subject K then returned the final draft to Subject G, requesting clarification of the word, "contraceptives", in Paragraph 3.

Subject G attempted to clarify by first quoting directly from her essay, saying, "to prevent for having children", and then adding, "to stop for having children". Subject K nodded his head as though in understanding. After he had returned to his desk, the writer turned to the researcher and said that, although her reader had asked her to clarify the word, "contraceptives", she would not change her essay as she felt that most other readers would understand the term, without further definition.

Summary of the Analysis of Subject G's Final Draft

After a close analysis of Subject G's final draft, it is clear that discussion with her reader had an effect on her revising behaviours, in her clarification and elaboration of points raised by the reader. In writing with this reader in mind, she made meaning and text-based changes (Faigley & Witte, 1981), using all of the four revising operations described by Sommers (1980). Some examples of these operations outlined below are taken from Subject G's final draft.

1. Addition: (i) a new Paragraph 2, consisting of three new sentences; (ii) words and phrases that changed generalities to specifics, such as: the qualifier, "some", "in these countries" and "Sometimes the Church"; (iii) new sentences, as in Paragraph 3, Sentences 2 and 3 and Paragraph 4, Sentence 3.

2. Deletion: (i) the word, "abortion", likely as a result of the reader's query; (ii) five of the six "I" references, as in "I think".

3. Substitution: (i) changing "people" to "women" to make a general term more specific.

4. Reordering: (i) sentences, such as:

(Original) I think it is a bigger problem in the undeveloped countries where the people can't have education and they always listen to the priest.

(Revised) In the undeveloped countries where the people can't have education and they always listen to the priest this problem is bigger.

(ii) paragraphs, as in Paragraphs 3 and 4, where material from different paragraphs in the original was consolidated into one paragraph in the revision. This consolidation brought about a more cohesive text, i. e., each paragraph had a topic that appeared to flow from the preceding paragraph.

In Sommers' study (1980), student writers "fail[ed] to use" addition and reordering operations, operations that, according to Sommers, require an ability to view a composition as a "totality" (p. 386). As a result of discussion with her reader, Subject G's revising strategies reflect those of successful advanced writers, using as she does, all four of the revisions operations, which include meaning and text-based changes. According to Faigley and Witte (1981), it is not the number of revisions that the writer makes that brings success, but "the degree to which revision changes bring a text closer to fitting the demands of the situation" (p. 411). With the reader's aid, this writer appears to have been able to achieve a sense of her audience and so fit her writing to the demands of the situation.

Let us turn now to the next writer, Subject K, as he attempts to achieve a sense of his audience.

The Writer/Reader Partnership of Subjects H and K

Subject K's First Draft

Subject K's first draft (Appendix H), following his discussion with partner, Subject H, was written outside of class. Two weeks after this discussion, at the end of a class period, Subject K, gave the draft to his partner to read. Because there was insufficient time to read it adequately, his partner said he would read it at home. Students had been told by the instructor that when readers read an essay outside of class, they were to underline, in pencil, those parts of the essay which required clarification. During the next class, readers were to return the essay to the writer and discuss the underlined areas that required clarification. Subject H was reminded of this procedure before he left the class with a photocopy of Subject K's essay. At the end of the next class, the reader, Subject H, returned the essay to the writer, Subject K. Subject H explained to Subject K that he had read the essay and had made changes on the essay where he thought they were necessary (Appendix I). These changes are termed, "rewrites", in this study, as the term, "revision", is usually reserved for changes made by the writer him/herself. As there was no time to discuss the rewrites made by his reader, Subject K took the essay home with him, and made his revisions there. Because of this change in procedure, there was no writer/reader verbal interaction

between the partners. Nevertheless, it is worthwhile examining the writer's original draft, the rewrites made by the reader, and the writer's final draft.

Subject K's final draft will be dealt with in a similar fashion to that of Subject G. An examination of the draft will attempt to answer the following questions.

1. What revisions did the writer make that were apparently brought about by the reader's feedback?
2. How do these revising behaviours resemble those behaviours of successful and unsuccessful student writers, as described in A Review of Relevant Revision Analyses, in Chapter 2?

A short description of the structural differences between the first draft (Appendix H) and the final, revised draft (Appendix J) follows.

Structural Differences between the First and Final Drafts

Subject K's first and final drafts consist of four paragraphs. The first draft, however, is shorter with 261 words; while the final one contains 318, a difference of 57 words. The writer appears to have kept the original topics and paragraphing intact, while changing the internal structure of each paragraph with the addition of new sentences or the reworking of original sentences in an attempt to clarify or elaborate upon preceding sentences.

The writer's revisions, at the sentence level, appear to reflect the revising behaviours described in Sommer's study of

experienced writers (1980). This will be discussed further as each paragraph is examined separately.

Subject K's revising behaviours appear to be triggered by the reader's rewrites. These seem to have served as a cue to the writer that clarification was required. The writer did not incorporate the reader's rewrites into his final draft, in spite of the fact that they were often idiomatic, though not always grammatically correct, turns of phrase; rather, the writer revised using his own ideas and strategies. However, it is clear that the reader's rewrites acted as a cueing device. In almost every case, where the reader's rewrites occurred, the writer revised.

Let us now look at Subject K's final, revised draft in detail.

Title

The title, "Computer has changed the bussiness world.", in the final draft is unchanged from the original, except for the spelling of the word, business. Throughout the revised essay, Subject K changed the spelling of the word, business, to "bussiness", a surface or cosmetic change, one of several, that did not improve the essay.

Paragraph 1 of the Final Draft

In the original version, Paragraph 1 consists of 3 sentences. In the final version, it consists of 7 sentences.

For ease of analysis, the original draft, the reader's rewrites, and the final draft, with revisions underscored, are reproduced below.

Nowadays, computer has become the most common tools in business world. Many of the large companies strongly lean on those computers to increase the efficiency on the business, to save labours, to connect with foreign trade to form a large computer network. Those major advantages of computer has changed the business world.

(Original Paragraph 1)

Nowadays, computer has become the most common tools in ^{the} business world. Many of the large companies strongly lean on those ^e computers to increase the ⁱⁿ efficiency ~~on the business,~~ ^{to} save labours, ^{time, and also} to connect with ^{contact} ~~foreign trade~~ ^{other companies} to form a large computer network.

^{These} Those ~~major~~ advantages of computer ^{has} ~~have~~ changed the business world.

(Original Paragraph 1, with reader's rewrites)

Nowadays, computer has become the most common tool in bussiness world. Many of the large companies strongly lean on those computer to help their work. Computers help companies to increase the efficiency on their own bussiness and to save companies labours. All of those will deduct companies' expenditure. Furthermore, computer can form a large computer network with foreign trade market. The good thing for this is more fast information supplies for bussiness man. All of those are computer's advantages, and which has changed the ordinary way of bussiness.

(Revised Paragraph 1)

There are two changes in the revised version of the first sentence. First, the writer took the reader's correction and omitted

the plural ending in the word, "tool" and, second, he continued to misspell the word, business.

The revision of the original second sentence appears to have brought about the increase in the number of sentences in this paragraph. This increase occurred when the writer revised the long, complex second sentence into a series of shorter sentences, five in number. The reader's extensive rewrites to this sentence appear to have been the signal that cued the writer to the need for clarification. While taking the reader's "correction" of the word, "the", to "their", and substituting "their" twice, in revised Sentences 2 and 3, the writer ignored the rest of the reader's rewrites. Instead, he attempted to clarify, in his own way, the rather unwieldy second sentence.

The final sentence in the revised first paragraph, like the one in the original, is a summary statement of the paragraph. Though, once again, the writer ignored his reader's written additions to this summary statement, he did omit the word, "major", that had been crossed-out by the reader in the original.

Paragraph 2 of the Final Draft

The second paragraph, like the first, shows an increase in the number of sentences in the revised version. This version of Paragraph 2 contains six sentences; whereas the original contains four. Again, the increase signifies an attempt by the writer to clarify a long, involved sentence by breaking it into smaller parts.

And once again, the reader incorporated few of his reader's rewrites, although they continued to provide the stimulus that motivated the writer to attempt clarification procedures.

Following are the original Paragraph 2, along with the reader's rewrites and the final, revised version with the revisions underscored.

One of the most major advantage for using computer on business is to increase efficiency. Checking data and saving records are two main functions of computer, and that save a lot of time for people checking records in the record case. Computer can find out data and showing it on screen instantaneously. This is not just save our time, it save labours too.

(Original Paragraph 2)

One of the most major advantage ⁱⁿ for using computer
^{for} on business is to increase efficiency. Checking data
 and ^{recording information} saving records are two main functions
 of computer, and that save ^s a lot of time for ^{the} people
^{who wants to find certain information.} checking records in the record case.
 Computer can find ~~out~~ data and ^{show} showing it on ^{the}
 screen instantaneously. ^{This not only saves time,} This is not just save our time,
^{it} it save ^{as well.} labours too.

(Original Paragraph 2, with reader's rewrites)

Using computers to increase bussiness efficiency is a main advantage in bussiness world today. For instance, the most common function for computer is check datas or records. Using computer really save a lot of time. The computer can found out data and shows it on computer's screen in a second. By compare this with checking data from record case, we know computer's power and its advantage. Using computer not just save our time, it saves labours too.

(Revised Paragraph 2)

The only changes suggested by the reader's rewrites in the first sentence were preposition corrections which the writer ignored. Instead, he reordered the original first sentence, moving the main point of the sentence to the front from its final position, and introducing a gerundive phrase, "Using computers", as the subject. Since the original Sentence 1 was almost a repetition of the final sentence in the preceding paragraph, this revision produces greater variety in style.

The next four sentences in the revised second paragraph appear to be a reworking of ideas in two sentences of the original, Sentences 2 and 3. When the writer encountered the reader's rewrites, he relied on his strategy of breaking up a long, involved sentence into smaller sentences. This operation, outlined below, is rather complex.

In the original, the first part of the second sentence, "Checking data and saving records are two main functions of computer, ... " was written as a separate sentence in the revision: "For instance, the most common function for computer is check datas or records." The added transition, "For instance", appears to indicate that this sentence was intended as an elaboration of the preceding, opening

statement.

The middle portion of this original second sentence, "... and that save a lot of time ..." became a separate sentence, as well: "Using computer really save a lot of time."

The final portion of the original second sentence, "... for people checking records in the record case.", appears as the fifth sentence in the revised version: "By compare this with checking data from record case, we know computer's power and its advantage."

The original third sentence, "Computer can find out data and showing it on screen instantaneously.", became the fourth sentence in the revised version: "The computer can found out data and shows it on computer's screen in a second."

We can observe here, as we can throughout this revised draft, a writer struggling, with limited resources, to work his way towards meaning changes. Although his attempts are awkward, the meaning of each sentence is apparent, and therefore, often clearer than in the original. The writer's revising behaviours also seem to be at a certain stage in development, as he copes with the perceived incomprehension of his reader, by reducing long sentences to several shorter ones. This will be dealt with later in this section. It is interesting to note, at this point, that the writer's revising behaviours reflect those of experienced writers who made the greatest number of revision changes at the sentence level (Sommers, 1980).

The final sentence in the revised second paragraph is similar to the original in that it is a summary statement for the paragraph.

However, the writer made some revisions. In this sentence, the writer repeated the gerundive phrase, "Using computer" that began the first and third sentences of the paragraph. Such repetition, which will be discussed more fully later, appears to be an attempt by the writer to write clearly and specifically for his reader. Nevertheless, the writer disregarded the reader's correction of the third person singular verb, "saves", in the first half of the sentence, but heeded his correction of the same verb in the second half of the same sentence in "... it saves labours ...". This correction by the reader is the only one accepted by the writer in this particular paragraph.

Paragraph 3 of the Final Draft

Unlike the previous paragraphs, there is no difference in the number of sentences between the original and revised versions of Paragraph 3. Both contain seven sentences. However, as in the previous paragraphs, the writer virtually ignores the reader's rewrites, attempting to clarify by his own means.

In order to facilitate the analysis of Paragraph 3, the original, the reader's rewrites and revised version are reproduced below.

Using computer controlling business has become a popular thing in today's business. It is also a good way to save labour. More and more large factories use computer control systems to control machine instead of man. obviously, the advantage of computer controlling machines are better than humans' work because the computer are unexhausted. For instance, cash machine gives us 24 hours per day and 7 days per week service. we can do banking anytime as we want to. That changed our ordinary way of banking way and this is the thing of bank business which changed by computers.

(Original Paragraph 3)

Running

Using computer ~~controlling~~ business has become a popular thing ~~in today's business. It is also a good way to save labour.~~ More and more large factories *are computerized today. Therefore, they use* use computer controller systems to *computers to operate* control machines instead of man. Obviously, the advantage of *using* computer ~~controlling~~ machines *is* are better than *using* humans', ~~work~~ because the computer are unexhausted^{able}. For instance, cash machine gives us 24 hours ^a per day and 7 days ^a per week service. we can do banking ^{at} anytime as we ^{wish} ~~want to~~. That changed our ordinary way of banking way ~~and this is the thing of bank business~~ *Thus, using computer's has* ~~changed banking system.~~ *changed banking system.* ~~which changed by computers.~~

(Original Paragraph 3, with reader's rewrites)

...Computer controlling business has become more popular thing on business than before. It is ... a good way to save labour. Today, most of large factories are using computer control system to control machine instead of men. Obviously, The advantage of computer controlling machine are better than humans' work, it is because ... computer are unexhausted. For example, cash instance machine give us 24 hours per day and 7 days per week service. We can ...banking anytime as we want to. It changes our ordinary way of banking ... and that is the thing of bank business which changed by computer.

(Revised Paragraph 3)

The reader rewrote much of this paragraph, but, as usual, the writer disregarded these additions, and instead, revised the text by his own means.

In the opening sentence of the revised third paragraph, the writer introduced a comparative form "more ... than before", and omitted the gerundive phrase, "Using computer", perhaps, after having used it three times in the preceding paragraph. Otherwise, the topic of this sentence remains the same.

Although the reader crossed-out the entire second sentence in the third paragraph of the original, this sentence remains in the revision, except for the word "also", which is omitted. This sentence is a repetition of the idea in the final sentence of the previous paragraph. Nevertheless, the writer keeps it in his revision, perhaps, viewing repetition as a device for writing clearly and specifically. (See also the repetition of "Using computer" in the previous paragraph.)

To start the third sentence off, the writer added the adverb, "Today"; then, replaced "More and more", which he used as a comparative adjectival in the original, with the superlative adjective, "most". Once again, he ignored the extensive rewriting done by the reader, who suggested dividing this sentence into two parts, and joining the second part of the divided sentence to the fourth sentence. Instead, the fourth sentence was kept very much like the original one.

The only revisions that the writer made to the fourth sentence

appear to be cosmetic. But the effect of a cosmetic application usually depends on the skill of the applicant. In this case, only one of the changes, the capitalization of the first word in the sentence, suggested by the reader, was successful. The writer then proceeded to capitalize the second word in the sentence as well; omitted the plural form on the word, "machine", but kept the plural form of the verb and; inserted a second subject and verb, "it is" in what appears to be an over-correction. It could be suggested here, of course, and will be suggested later, that the writer was more concerned with meaning changes, than with correct form.

In the fifth sentence of the third paragraph, the writer replaced the transition, "For instance" in the original, with the transition, "For example"; added the word, "instance" as an adjectival and; omitted the third personal singular ending to the verb that he had written correctly in the original.

The sixth and seventh sentences in the revised version are virtually the same as the originals, with no change in meaning. The sixth sentence appears to be copied directly from the original, except for the verb, "do", an omission that seems to be a proofreading error. The seventh and final sentence in the paragraph, underwent a major rewrite by the reader. The writer's revisions appear, however, to be merely cosmetic changes: "that" replaced by "it" and "this"; "changed" by "changes"; and "computers" by "computer".

Paragraph 4 of the Final Draft

Like the revised first and second paragraphs, the revised fourth and final paragraph show an increase in the number of sentences, with the original containing four sentences and the revision, six. As in all the other paragraphs, the writer again ignores the reader's rewrites, using these rewrites, instead, as a cue for the need to clarify.

For the purpose of analysis, the original, the reader's rewrites and the revised version of Paragraph 4 appear below.

Computer occupies an important position on the trade.
A large computer net-work which makes traders faster and easier to know the foreign trade information.
Computers will also do analysis information and give out some logical decisions for trader. It is really a great helpful thing for today business.

(Original Paragraph 4)

Computer ^{plays} ~~occupies~~ an important ^{role in today's} ~~position~~ on the
^{economic} trade. ^{Consequently} ~~A~~ large computer net-work ^{would} ~~which~~ makes
^{communication and trade much} ~~traders~~ faster and easier. ^{to know the foreign}
trade information. Computers will also do analysis

information and give out some logical decisions for trader.

It is really a great helpful thing for today business.)

(Original Paragraph 4, with reader's rewrites)

Computer also are very important thing on the foreign trade. Computer can connect with other computers. In foreign trade market, computers form a large computer net-work. The adventages for this is give the traders more information, particular price at the particular time, list of some other price, the amount of good etc. Computer could also analyzes the information and it give out a logic decision for trader. it ... really give a great help_ for ... bussiness.

(Revised Paragraph 4)

Although the writer disregards the reader's rewrites throughout this paragraph, in the first sentence, the writer seems to have revised the key words to which the reader had some objection. In doing so, the writer changed the topic of the sentence from trade, in general, to specifically foreign trade.

The second, short, simple sentence in the revised version is a new addition which appears to explain and clarify the first sentence.

The second sentence of the original was extensively rewritten by the reader who suggested shortening it by adding a full stop. In the third sentence of the revision, the writer seems to have followed this advice, but, as usual, did so in his own way, reducing the sentence length and also the number of topics from three to two. The topics of foreign trade and computers connecting with other computers, discussed in the first and second sentences of this revised paragraph, are elaborated upon in this sentence.

The revised Sentence 4 elaborates on the topic of a computer network discussed in the previous sentence, providing new, specific details.

The final two revised sentences are, in the main, the same as those in the original, except for surface or cosmetic changes which do not improve the essay.

Summary of the Analysis of Subject K's Final Draft

After analyzing Subject K's final draft, it is clear that, although the reader's rewrites were almost always disregarded by the writer, that is, they were not copied by the writer, these rewrites served as feedback, as a cuing device, that signalled the need for clarification to the writer. The reader's feedback, then, made an obvious impact on the writer's revising behaviours.

Reader feedback appears to result in an increased use of repetition, particularly in Paragraph 3, where the writer uses the gerundive phrase, "Using computers" as a nominative three times in the same paragraph. He also repeats ideas from different paragraphs in the phrases, "saves time" and "saves labours". Such repetition may be viewed by the writer as a method of writing more clearly and more specifically on his topic. West (1985), noting that speakers with low oral fluency tended to repeat nominatives in oral narratives, suggests that such repetition may be an attempt by speakers to make themselves clear, an "overcompensat[ion] for their limited language proficiency" (p. 108).

It is clear from the writer's response to his reader's feedback that he considered his own ideas to be valid. The writer indicated in his essay that he wanted to communicate complex ideas using complex

sentence structures, but he was ready to concede, on indications from his reader, that certain of his ideas were better served when they were contained within more simple structures. Thus, he reduced long, unwieldy sentences containing several topics to shorter, simpler sentences, with fewer topics. This seemed to be one of the writer's main strategies and may reflect a developmental stage in the revision process. In turning to a more simple sentence structure, the writer was often able to simplify communication which resulted in a clearer text.

It is tantalizing to suggest, at this point, that the reader aided the writer in monitoring what he had not learned completely in the second language. This reader-aided monitoring effect, similar in certain aspects to Krashen's monitor model (1977), seemed to trigger in the writer coping strategies that allowed him to keep his ideas intact, while changing their form. After monitoring, the writer was able to sort out many of his ideas into manageable parts, even with a limited command of English syntax. Like the ESL subjects in Zamel's study (1983), Subject K is not concerned so much with grammar, with surface changes, as he is with the content of his ideas.

It is interesting and encouraging that Subject K's struggle to put his ideas together, to make meaning and text-based changes reflects revising behaviours of successful writers (Faigley & Witte, 1981). Like Subject G, his concern leads him to make use of all of Sommers' four revising operations (1980). Some examples of these operations taken from Subject K's final draft are outlined below.

1. Addition: (i) new sentences, as in Paragraph 1, Sentence 6 and Paragraph 4, Sentences 2 and 4; (ii) phrases, such as in Paragraph 4, "In foreign trade market" (Sentence 3) and "also are very" (Sentence 1); (iii) transitions, "for instance" (Paragraph 2, Sentence 2) and "Furthermore" (Paragraph 1, Sentence 5), to indicate an elaboration of the previous sentence; (iv) words, such as "foreign" into the phrase "on the trade" in Paragraph 4, Sentence 1.

2. Deletion: (i) letters, such as the plural ending of "tool", Paragraph 1, Sentence 1; (ii) proofreading errors, such as the verb, "do", Paragraph 3, Sentence 6.

3. Substitution: (i) phrase to phrase, "the most major advantage" to "a main advantage", Paragraph 2, Sentence 1; (ii) word to phrase, "instantaneously" to "in a second", Paragraph 2; (iii) phrase to word "more and more" to "most" Paragraph 3, Sentence 3; (iv) word to word, such as the four in the final sentence of Paragraph 3.

4. Reordering: (i) Sentences 2-5 in Paragraph 1, Sentences 2-5 in Paragraph 2, and Sentence 3 in Paragraph 4.

Not all of these changes are beneficial, of course; still, the writer is going about the revision process, "in the direction of rightness" (Shuy, 1979, p. 3), on his journey towards writing competence, using all of the four revising operations employed by experienced writers who have travelled in the same direction, on the same journey.

SECTION 3 - End of Treatment Results: Oral Interviews

Oral Interview with Instructor

The questions asked of the instructor in a private, audiotaped interview at the end of the treatment period appear in Appendix K. This interview lasted a little more than one hour and resulted in a transcription of 8 1/2 single-spaced, typed pages.

The instructor, who had taught ESL for seventeen years, nine at this level, was very interested in discussing the oral discourse techniques, her observations of the subjects' responses during the treatment period, and her own evaluation of the procedures. Her comments and responses were thoughtful, comprehensive and well-articulated.

Question 1: How would you describe student response to this technique?

When the instructor was asked how she would describe her students' response to the oral discourse technique, she said that she had made a point of questioning the subjects individually regarding the technique and all had responded positively. The instructor also noticed that the atmosphere in the classroom was "much warmer and friendlier than in past years", and felt that this may have led to "a certain amount of concern about the reader being able to understand one's point of view". In her observation of the class, the instructor had noted that there was "a real sense of joy and enthusiasm" in

sharing with partners, and that there was "no sense of embarrassment" amongst the subjects, or fear that "someone [was] going to be critical of them". Instead, she said, there was a sense that the partner "[was] going to help".

She also reported that in discussing the technique with the subjects, they said that it was "very beneficial" as it helped them in organizing their thoughts; [in] coming to terms with what they really believed was important about the topic; and then [in] being able to organize their subject matter according to those points.

Question 2: What is your opinion as to the effectiveness of oral discourse as a rehearsal for writing?

When the instructor was asked what her opinion was of the effectiveness of oral discourse as a rehearsal for writing, she began her answer by comparing this group of students with those that she had instructed in past years using other techniques. She stated that the students participating in this study "demonstrated a greater sense of purpose in their writing". According to her,

they [were] very concerned to match their thoughts to their topics, very concerned to expand these topics and say the things they want[ed] to say in structures that show[ed] their intelligence.

The instructor commented that because the emphasis with this technique is on content, the students were concerned with "getting their ideas across". In addition, according to the instructor, papers written by this particular group of students "tended to be full of elaboration". She observed that these students exhibited "sophisticated sentence usage -- not always right by any means -- but

an attempt".

Question 3: What would you say the instructor's role was in this format?

To the question inquiring about her view of the instructor's role in a classroom using these techniques, the instructor responded that she found it "a little difficult, at times", as she was accustomed to "an instructor-oriented class ... in which [she was] the focus". With this new technique, she said:

I have felt more of a helper and less of a teacher, perhaps more of a friend. ... It's like we're working together. I'm not making judgments.

According to the instructor, this technique allowed her "more one-to-one time with students ... while they [were] writing". During this extra time with individual students, she was able to discuss style rather than organization of ideas; something she said, she was not always able to do previously. As the instructor put it:

I feel that I'm able to say things about [the students'] ideas and style, which, in a formal instructor-student situation, I couldn't say before. ... [The students] are already convinced that they know what they want to say and what they're looking for. ... I'm the key to helping them find ways that are appropriate to express the ideas they already have. ... I might add that I've always felt that this was my role in a class [at this level].

Commenting on the differences between a classroom using traditional methods and one using this technique, the instructor said:

... in a regular classroom, you sit for 30 minutes and write your three paragraph essay. Silence. The teacher sits there and marks papers and eventually she gets three

dry paragraphs with subject-verb-object, repeated over and over again, joined with 'and' or 'or' or a comma and [the teacher has] not had any interaction, not any opportunity to say anything while the student was writing. ... [Now] I'm able to look over someone's shoulder because there's someone else looking over their shoulder anyway.

According to the instructor, this work-in-progress, teacher-student interaction means that

you get to know the students as individuals, because you are seeing the development of their ideas. You are seeing all this as the process is going on, not just the finished, dry product, but the actual process.

The instructor reported that while she was busy with individual students during this procedure, she noticed that students tended to ask their partners or other students if they had a question. The instructor felt she was called on only if student resources proved unsatisfactory. The instructor described this effect as "really positive".

- Question 4: (a) Would you use this technique in your classroom again?
- (b) If so, why? If not, why not?
- (c) What changes would you make, if any?

Asked if she would use this technique in her classroom again, the instructor replied that although she found the format "time-consuming", she would use it again with another academically-oriented class, as an ice breaker at the beginning of the academic year, and continue it for one to two months. However, if she were teaching a course in composition for non-academic purposes, she said that she would "just continue" following the oral discourse techniques.

With this particular group of subjects, the instructor planned to continue having the writer give his work to a reader, but, she said, "the initial part, the thinking, the organization and the writing, [would be done] privately" because of time constraints and because, "ultimately, [the students] must learn to write for themselves".

The instructor felt that involving students in this technique for a month or two at the beginning of an academic year would focus them on the fact that "academic students have to ... make sure that what they say is significant, is finished, and makes sense".

Summary

The instructor's comments during the interview were focussed mainly on her observation and evaluation of the oral discourse techniques. She appeared very concerned about the subjects' progress, as these students, like those described in Chapter 1, were bright, highly-motivated students, anxious to pass from this remedial, non-credit course into courses for which they would receive credit.

Asked to comment on student response to the techniques, the instructor replied that students reacted positively, saying it was "very beneficial" in helping them to organize and share their ideas; to focus in on what points were important enough to write about; and to gain a sense of their audience in a warm and friendly atmosphere.

The instructor's own response to the techniques was to compare the writing of the subjects in this study with that of students whom she had taught in the same course from past years. According to the

instructor, the subjects' writing demonstrated a "greater sense of purpose" and concern with content and meaning, and a greater attempt to use "sophisticated" syntax.

The instructor, who had been accustomed to a teacher-centred class, said that the instructor's role with the oral discourse techniques, was that of a helper, or even a friend. This role gave her more time with individual students, and discussions with students dealt more with style than in previous years, when discussions were concerned with organization of ideas. With the new techniques, she was able to see the development of ideas in process, rather than "just the finished, dry product". In this type of class, the instructor also noticed that students asked each other questions, turning to her only when they were unable to get an answer. Thus, students became more responsible for their own learning.

The instructor said she would use the techniques again, although she found them "time-consuming". It is interesting to note here that this instructor, at the time of writing, is teaching a new class of students and has reported that she is using the oral discourse techniques once again, because they "are effective".

Oral Interview with Subjects

The audiotaped private interview with each of the twelve subjects was between 10 and 20 minutes in length (Appendix L). The subjects appeared to respond comfortably and candidly during their interview, possibly because the researcher had attended every class during the treatment period, had worked with them, and on occasion, had modelled the oral discourse techniques.

The questions asked during this interview are outlined in Appendix L and the responses to each question appear in the tables that follow.

Question 1: Does discussing with a partner what you plan to write help you with a writing assignment?

Table 18

Oral Interview with Subjects

Question 1: Does discussing with a partner what you plan to write help you with a writing assignment?

Responses	Total
Sometimes	8
Yes	4

Number of Subjects = 12

The response to the above question did not elicit any negative responses (Table 18); however, eight of the subjects did not give an entirely affirmative answer.

Questions 2 and 3: If "Yes", how does [discussion with a partner] help?

If "No", what do you think is the problem?

All of the subjects who answered, "Sometimes", said that helpful discussion depended on their choice of partner (Table 19). One subject who was especially proficient orally said that he liked a partner who had "confidence" and wanted to "get involved rather than take a back seat".

Table 19

Oral Interview with Subjects

Question 2: If "Yes", how does [discussion with a partner] help?

3:* If "No", what do you think is the problem?

Responses	"Sometimes" Responses	"Yes" Responses	Total
Depends on choice of partner	8	0	8
Gets new ideas from partner	4	4	8
Having to clarify improves writing	7	4	11

* This question was not asked, as no one answered, "No".

Two subjects, one a "Sometimes" respondent, the other a "Yes", said that it did not matter whether the partner was as fluent as they were, as discussions were "basically about ideas". These two subjects also mentioned that hearing themselves talk about their ideas helped

them. As one said:

Even if you're talking to the wall, by speaking your ideas, you may find some others. Hearing yourself talking is important, because when you write, it's very hard. Even if [your partner] doesn't react, this way is better because you are trying hard to make the person understand and you might find something new.

Eight of the twelve subjects said that the discussion technique gave them the opportunity to get new ideas from their partner (Table 19). Observations indicated that with this technique, subjects were able to explore their topic to the extent that none appeared to suffer what might be termed blank-page syndrome, a common complaint of students who "can't think of anything to write".

Eleven of the subjects said that having to make explanations or clarifications to their partner helped them when it came time to write their assignments (Table 19). Some gave examples of this help by mentioning that they were "more focussed", that their ideas were more developed and ordered than before. As one student put it:

I can test if my ideas are clear if I talk to a partner and, if they can't understand, I think my idea is not clear enough so I have to make it more clear when I write.

Question 4: Does having a partner read your writing help you to write better?

When the subjects were asked if having a partner read their writing helped them to write better (Table 20), ten out of twelve responded, "Yes". The two who responded, "Sometimes" and "No", were Subjects G and K respectively, whose partnerships were examined earlier.

Table 20

Oral Interview with Subjects

Question 4: Does having a partner read your writing help you to write better?

Responses	Total
Yes	10
Sometimes	1
No	1

It is clear that the majority of subjects felt that having a partner read their writing helped them write better. Table 21 indicates the help given and the problems encountered.

Questions 5 and 6: If "Yes", how does [having a partner read your writing] help?

If "No", what do you think is the problem?

Of those who found having a partner read their writing helpful, eight subjects said that having such a reader made them explain themselves more, that they were more aware of having to clarify. One of these said:

You always assume too much, so having a partner read is helpful.

Another said:

You always want to write your best, because your fellow student's going to read it.

Table 21

Question 5: If "Yes", how does [having a partner read your writing] help?

6: If "No", what do you think is the problem?

Responses	Yes Responses	No Responses	Sometimes Responses	Total
Made helpful changes	10	0	1	11
Confused by partner's corrections	0	1	1	2

All of the eleven out of twelve subjects who found a reading partner helpful, said that their partner's questions or requests for clarification made them make changes in their writing. As one subject, who was the "Sometimes" respondent, said:

I need to think about other people's minds, not only my mind.

The dynamics of the interaction between reader and writer was underscored by one subject who said:

You can always add more [to your writing]. Even when you hand your assignment in, your ideas don't stop.

Two subjects (Table 21) said that when readers corrected, rather than asked for clarification, they became confused. Both, however, stated that the technique was helpful to them when their reader asked for clarification. The "No" respondent, Subject K, said:

I'll change [my writing] if it isn't clear, but if he thinks I'm wrong, I don't know whether to believe or not.

The "Sometimes" respondent, Subject G, said:

I don't know if [the readers] are right when they correct me. ... [But], when they say they don't understand, I reread and think, 'Oh yes, this is confusing. I have to explain better'.

The responses of these two subjects, who were successful revisers following reader feedback, underline the importance of the instructor reiterating, from time to time, the role of the reader as one who seeks meaning, rather than error.

Question 7: Who do you write for?

Table 22

Oral Interview with Subjects

Question 7: Who do you write for?

Responses	Total
Teacher	9
Partner	7
Reader	4
Self	2

Number of Subjects = 12

Because the researcher was interested in determining the subjects' sense of audience, the subjects were asked who they considered their audience to be (Table 22).

Although it is not surprising that nine out of the twelve subjects wrote for the teacher as audience (Table 22), it is encouraging to see that ten subjects wrote for a wider audience.

A breakdown of each subject's sense of audience follows in Table 23. In this breakdown, two of the subjects regarded the teacher as their only audience. Nine of the subjects reported that they wrote for an audience wider than just one individual, with the audience of partner and/or reader playing a significant role.

Table 23

Oral Interview with Students

A Breakdown of Question 7 Responses: The Subjects' Sense of Audience

Audience	Number of Subjects
Teacher	2
Teacher/Partner	4
Teacher/Partner/Reader	1
Teacher/Reader	2
Partner/Reader	1
Partner/Self	1
Self	1
Total	12

Question 8: How does [your audience] affect your writing?

When asked how their sense of audience affected their writing, nine out of the twelve subjects said that they were concerned about their grammar or sentence structure. Seven of these nine reported the teacher as audience. It is interesting to note here that there was continued concern for form when the teacher was seen as the audience.

When considering their audience, ten of the twelve subjects paid attention to clarifying their vocabulary and ideas. Five of these reported their partner as audience; three, the teacher; one, the reader; and one, himself.

Table 24

Oral Interview with Subjects

Question 8: How does [your audience] affect your writing?

Responses	Teacher	Partner	Reader	Self	Total
Attention to grammar/sentence structure	7	2	0	0	9
Attention to clarification of vocabulary & ideas	3	5	1	1	10
Attention to development & organization	1	0	1	0	2

It is interesting to note here that, before the treatment period, in their responses to Paragraph Question 2 of the Questionnaire which asked subjects what they had done during a writing exercise, none of the subjects reported that they had been concerned about clarification of any sort during the writing process. It is encouraging that, although the subjects may not always have been successful in their clarification attempts during the treatment period, most were aware, at this time, that they needed to write clearly for their audience.

Summary

According to the subjects, discussion with a partner before writing was helpful, although in more than half the responses, subjects said that successful discussion depended on their choice of partner. However, there was no consensus in this group regarding the kind of partner who was helpful. Help came in the form of getting new ideas from the partner and having to clarify for that partner. One said that discussion helped test ideas for clarity; others added that hearing oneself was helpful; several said that they were able to focus on developing and ordering their ideas.

All but two of the subjects said unequivocally that having a reader helped them write better. The two that were not part of this group reported that corrections by readers confused them. They added that if a reader asked for clarification they would revise, however. Such a response by two subjects who were successful revisers following reader feedback (see the first and final drafts of Subjects G and K,

Appendices F and G, and H and J, respectively), underlines the importance of making certain that the reader understands his/her role as one who seeks meaning, rather than error.

Ten out of the twelve subjects reported writing for an audience wider than that of the teacher. In writing for this wider audience, subjects reported attending to the clarification of vocabulary and ideas. Of the nine subjects reporting a concern for grammar or sentence structure, seven of these reported the teacher as audience, indicating a continued concern for form when the teacher is seen as audience.

It is encouraging that, while none of the subjects expressed concern for their audience before the treatment period, most were aware by the end of the treatment period that it was necessary to write with a sense of audience.

CHAPTER 5

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

The following classroom observations were recorded by hand and on audiotape over a ten-week period, from September 24 to November 29, 1984. Before the observation period began, the class had been in session for two weeks, a total of four classes.

Class Assignments

The assigned texts for this class were Bander's American English Rhetoric, 3rd edition (1983) and Azar's Understanding & Using English Grammar (1981). During each class, exercises from these texts, together with occasional supplementary handouts, were assigned as homework. As well, a one and a half page, five-paragraph essay was due each week. However, students could choose, instead, to write a three-page essay to cover two weeks' work. In the seventh week of the session, (the fourth week of the observation period), a further assignment was added. Students were to read three magazine news articles of one or more pages in length and write a paragraph summary of each. In addition, they were to select two unfamiliar words from each article, consult a dictionary, and write appropriate sentences containing these words. The three summaries and six sentences were to be handed in each week.

Usually, the first half hour of each one and a half hour class was occupied with the assignment of homework and going over homework

from the previous class. The last hour of the class was devoted to writing, with topic choices taken from the Bander or Azar texts, or assigned by the instructor. During this time, the instructor marked and discussed with individual students, essays that had been handed in for homework.

Introduction of the Oral Discourse Techniques

Preparation for Partnering

Activities requiring partnerships were introduced two weeks before the actual oral discourse techniques were put into practice. These activities included doing grammar exercises and checking homework with partners.

Only one of the partnering sessions was observed before the treatment period. During this 15-minute session, students worked with partners on certain grammar points in one of their texts. Observations indicated that, during the grammar exercises, when one of the partners suggested an answer, the other usually agreed. The only partnership that did not appear to follow this pattern was one in which one partner was clearly more in control of the language than the other. This partnership seemed like a teacher-student relationship with the "teacher" answering vocabulary questions asked by the "student". The following is an example of one of the exchanges:

Subject I: What are cheers?

Subject C: When people go for cheers. (He raises his arms as though he were cheering.)

Subject I: (Nods and smiles to indicate that she understands, then writes the word in her own language.)

Subject I valued this type of help and continued to seek out Subject C as a partner when the oral discourse techniques were introduced. Another of their partnerships is described in Writer/Reader Partnerships - Beyond Day 1, later in this chapter.

Observations from this period, corroborated by the instructor's observations of other partnering sessions, indicated that the subjects accepted partnering with equanimity.

Preparation for Understanding the Need for a Sense of Audience

As part of the preparation for the oral discourse techniques, the instructor discussed the writer's need for a sense of audience. This discussion took place during the last class before the techniques were introduced. The instructor invited student participation as she talked about the types of audience for different media and the ways in which writers address different audiences. After this discussion, the instructor urged the students to keep their audience in mind during their writing assignments.

The Introductory Lesson - Day 1

The Approach

Throughout the introductory lesson, the instructor explained the rationale behind each step and modelled each new behaviour.

It was decided that the subjects would be more motivated to

accept the new procedures if the rationale upon which the techniques were based appeared to come from the instructor rather than the researcher. Therefore, the instructor did not read notes during her introduction of the techniques. Instead, although based on an outline (Appendix C), the introduction was delivered in an extemporaneous style.

During her introduction, the instructor emphasized that speakers should elaborate on points that they wished to make and that listeners could help speakers to elaborate by asking them to clarify points. The instructor was also careful to emphasize that the point of the exercise was to give speakers the opportunity to rehearse what they were going to write before they actually wrote it.

With the oral discourse techniques satisfactorily introduced, the instructor presented the next step in the procedure, brainstorming.

Brainstorming

The instructor told the students that together, they were going to brainstorm the topic for their next writing assignment, What Makes a Good University Student? She then gave an outline of the rationale upon which brainstorming was based (Appendix D), and concluded by explaining that the students would involve themselves in this exercise by contributing orally, any idea that they might have that was related in any way to the topic.

The instructor then modelled the brainstorming technique by writing the word, "orange", on the chalkboard, saying that she was

going to think of all the associations she could for this word and write them down in point-form. In quick succession, she then said and wrote the following on the board:

a colour
something to eat
something from California
it makes juice
is from Florida

Commenting on her list, the instructor told the subjects that these ideas, though different and sometimes contradictory, were all valid. She reminded the class, once again, of the topic that they were going to brainstorm, What Makes a Good University Student?, and wrote it at the top of the board. During the brainstorming session, whenever an idea was contributed, the instructor wrote it on the board.

In order to start participation in the brainstorming, she called on a student teacher who was observing at the time. After his contribution, she asked a second observing student teacher. Then, she called on one of the orally fluent subjects, after which the researcher was asked to make a contribution. Following this, the instructor called on each subject in no particular order. Everyone made a contribution, with three of the subjects volunteering one additional idea each. Those making humorous contributions appeared pleased when the class laughed in appreciation. The outcome of this session appears in Appendix M.

The instructor made adjustments to three of the contributions when she wrote them on the board. These contributions and their subsequent adjustments are outlined below:

Student: hard work
Instructor: willingness to work hard

Student: not insane
Instructor: mental stability

Student: study as you are able to run a marathon forever
Instructor: study endurance

The instructor's adjustments did not appear to affect the subjects' rate or amount of brainstorming contributions. Occasionally, the instructor found herself giving positive feedback to some of the contributions and indicated to the subjects that she should not have done so. Although the instructor and researcher had agreed that judgmental comments should not be part of brainstorming, the instructor's positive feedback with regard to certain contributions appeared to fit into the situation quite naturally. In fact, such feedback appeared to be essential for the encouragement of a free flow of ideas.

When all subjects had had an opportunity to contribute to the brainstormed list, which the instructor called "a collection of our ideas", she introduced and modelled the speaker/listener modelling techniques.

Speaker/Listener Modelling Techniques

After the brainstorming session, the instructor told the subjects that she wanted them to talk about the ideas that they were going to write and suggested that they use the ideas on the board as their guide. She reminded them again that when speaking with their partner they were to keep in mind that they were explaining their ideas so

that they could write those ideas down clearly. She then told the subjects that she was going to show them what she wanted them to do.

She called on one of the subjects to come up to the front of the class to help her model the speaker/listener roles. This subject had been decided upon by the instructor and researcher beforehand, because he had an outgoing personality and was at approximately the mid-range of oral competency in this particular class. He was considered the best choice for the modelling session as he was unlikely to intimidate the less orally proficient speakers and yet would not cause the more orally proficient to lose interest. The subject was also chosen because he was likely to be entertaining and would, thereby, keep the other subjects interested in the proceedings. He proved to be a good choice.

When the subject came up to the front of the room, the instructor told the class that, after they had put down all of the ideas that they could think of on a topic, they had reached the point where they could then start to make judgments about their ideas. Before this point, the instructor said, "It's too soon, because we don't have a full range of ideas, of feelings and concepts about the topic".

She then asked the subject to check off, with a piece of chalk, those points on the board which he felt he would like to discuss and write about (see Appendix M for the complete list). The subject indicated seven points. The following are the points checked off in the order that they appeared on the board:

the desire to learn
 willingness to work hard
 likes to read
 organized
 self-discipline
 good concentration
 ability to sleep in class

The subject had volunteered the last idea, "ability to sleep in class", but did not choose his first contribution, "good ears".

From this point on, during the speaker/listener modelling, the instructor took the role of listener, while the subject took the role of speaker. Following is a transcription of the interaction concerning the subject's first point:

Instructor: What do you think is important about your first point [the desire to learn]?

Subject: I would say desire to learn gives you the help to work hard and ... (pauses)

Instructor: Uhuh. (smiles and nods head)

Subject: ... help you do other things.

Instructor: What kind of other things? Can you be explicit?

Subject: The desire to learn means that even ... (pause) that it's going to help you in any subject.

Instructor: Uhuh. (smiles and nods head) Okay.

During the above exchange, the instructor encouraged the subject by giving positive feedback with smiles and nodding her head affirmatively. Although the subject's response to her request to be more explicit was not fully developed, she was accepting of this answer.

The interaction between speaker and listener with regard to the

second, third and fourth points followed a similar pattern. By the time the subject reached his fifth point, "self-discipline", he did not have to be prompted to elaborate. Following is the interaction on this point:

Instructor: Okay. What about self-discipline? How does that affect the university student?

Subject: If you're organized and make yourself a schedule or something. If you don't have self-discipline, it's no good for you because you won't follow what you have to do.

Instructor: Uhuh. (nods head affirmatively)

Subject: So, if you don't have any self-discipline, you will, like, if you know that you can spend, I don't know, five hours of sport per week, but you like sport a lot, or you like tennis, you will be good at tennis, but you'll have a problem at university.

Instructor: Nicely said.

From this exchange, the subject appeared to be learning the speaker's role, that is, he explained his point and then further elaborated on that point to make it clearer to the listener. This elaboration had its effect, as the instructor did not ask for further clarification as she had done in previous exchanges.

During the speaker/listener modelling, the instructor introduced each new point for discussion with a question, such as, "What about self-discipline? How does that affect the university student?" or "What about concentration? How does that fit?" After the explanation of each point was considered satisfactory, the instructor brought the discussion to a close by giving some form of affirmation, such as,

"Okay", "Good", or "Nicely said", as a comment on the last explanation that the speaker had made.

The teacher modelled good listening behaviour by giving positive feedback which the subject appeared to find encouraging. By the time he had progressed to his final point, he was clearly at ease and enjoying himself when he suggested that the ability to sleep in class was his "most important" point. Laughter from his fellow students indicated that they had, as planned, maintained their interest in the proceedings.

After Modelling

When the speaker/listener modelling was completed, the instructor went over the strategies used during the procedure. In her role as the listener, she said:

I tried and I hope I succeeded in encouraging [the speaker] to say what he thought. If I didn't understand, I said, "Can you say that another way?" "Can you give me an example?" There are lots of ways to encourage a person to say more, to be more precise and more specific, to give more examples and, at the same time, not be critical of [the speaker's] ideas. We want to encourage each other to express ourselves as fully as possible, and, at the same time, we don't want to find errors in each other.

Next, she went on to explain the rationale for the technique once more, by saying:

We want to listen to each other in preparation for writing for each other. We want to be able to express our ideas fully by speaking and listening first. Then, we'll be able to write our ideas more clearly.

She then asked the subjects to find a partner who did not speak

their own language, and instructed them to use the brainstormed list on the board to discuss their ideas with their partner. To illustrate her point, she chose two of the subjects as examples, saying:

First, [Subject A] will tell [Subject F] what she thinks and I want [F] to ask her to be more specific, ask her to say it again, please, if he doesn't understand. Then, I want [A] to do the same thing for [F].

The instructor concluded by saying:

We're going to be listeners, good listeners, helpful listeners and speakers, careful, elaborate speakers.

With this, the students paired off and proceeded to take on the roles of speaker and listener for a discussion of the brainstormed topic.

Speaker/Listener Partnerships After Modelling

When instructed to find a partner whose language was different from their own, the subjects behaved as they had with previous partnerings. They immediately moved towards an appropriate partner, in most cases, someone sitting adjacent to them. When the subjects had settled down with their partners, the instructor selected individuals who had handed in homework assignments and worked with them one at a time. Whenever one of the partners left the partnership for a discussion with the instructor, the other partner worked on his/her own and often began writing. No audiotaping was done at this time as it was important that the subjects feel comfortable with the new techniques first. In general, the subjects spoke quietly and seriously to each other. One partner seemed to take the role of

speaker and the other, listener. Speakers discussed all their points with listeners nodding, smiling or adding comments. Then the partners reversed roles.

Before the class ended, the instructor told the subjects to include the ideas that they had discussed with their partners in an essay as a homework assignment. She explained that, during the next class, they would give their essay to their partners to read. The partnership of Subjects D and H called the instructor over to explain the writing assignment once more. After this explanation, the instructor said, "When you've written your paragraph, let [Subject D] read it". Subject H responded, "So we'd better write really nice and clear", a comment with which his partner, Subject D, concurred.

Subject H's essay, which was the result of the above partnership, is reproduced later in this chapter, under the heading, Writer/Reader Partnerships - Beyond Day 1, together with an earlier writing assignment.

Speaker/Listener Partnerships - Beyond Day 1

Although, at first, speaker/listener partnerships tended to be subdued and serious, as time went on, the subjects appeared to become more comfortable with the techniques. The subjects were encouraged to change partners after each assignment. From time to time, however, some partnerships remained intact over two successive assignments.

Brainstorming soon became a fairly silent activity with most

subjects writing a few points down before beginning a discussion with their partner. This seemed to give the subjects time to focus on their topic, but observations indicated that silent brainstorming should not continue for more than ten minutes. If the activity went on longer than this, subjects tended either to (i) look perplexed, frustrated or bored, or (ii) begin their writing assignment without the benefit of discussion with a partner. Most of the subjects required a silent brainstorming period of five minutes or less.

Silent brainstorming seemed for the most part, to be an efficient way of approaching the discussion period, as the partners appeared to focus on these points, develop them during the verbal interaction and add to them when their partner's points appeared attractive. The verbal interactions, then, often became sharing sessions, something that many of the subjects mentioned that they appreciated in their interview at the end of the treatment period (Chapter 4).

Writer/Reader Partnerships - Beyond Day 1

At this point, it is interesting to note the early effect of the oral discourse techniques through the examination of two writing assignments done by Subject H, one written before the oral discourse techniques were introduced and one written immediately following the introduction of the techniques. The latter resulted from his partnership with Subject D, mentioned earlier in this chapter, under the heading, Speaker/Listener Partnerships After Modelling. It should

be noted that Subject H has already been discussed in Chapter 5, Results of the Study, in connection with his partnership with Subject K.

One of the assignments was written and handed in by Subject H on September 10, approximately two weeks before the oral discourse techniques were introduced. The other assignment was written and handed in on September 27, immediately after the introduction of the oral discourse techniques. These two assignments are reproduced below for comparison:

Assignment 1:

My ideal vacation his with in French Island called MARTINQ. The island furnished by a group of people which organized one of the best packaged vacation. Their name is club Med. The fee paid is for acommodation, breakfast, lunch, dinner, appitizer wine and over 20 different sports and facilities. ALL free and with instruchons. An island of Sunshine, exclusive, elegant, tastfulness, careing and loving and finaly freedom of thoughts.

(Writer: Subject H, September 10, two weeks before the oral discourse techniques were introduced.)

Assignment 2:

To me a good student is whom which has determination, dedication and concentration.

To be determine for any task, a person has to have the desire and appreciation for that task. A person who has determination makes systems which would work for him. His determination helps him to work out peroblems easier and not to give up easy. Attend the classes regularly and participate in the corses full-heartedly. Determination would help his concentration towards his goal.

The main objection in university is learning, which included tasks like reading, writing and searching.

For each of these tasks, a person needs to concentrate on each of them separately. Reading a book is not a easy thing, because of vast number of material put together in vast number of pages, so the time provided for each text does not cover it all, unless the person who is reading it has full concentration. Writing and reashering are the same way, and that demands dedication from the person who is a student.

Therefore, a person has to be dedicated towards his studing. Dedication has many sarses like, decipline, saerifice and desir to be successful.

A good student would set goals for his studings and he would set the right priorities with in the right frame of time for him to achieve his goals. He would know why he is in unversity and what are his priorities, then he has to dedicat his time, energy and concentration to-wards a education.

(Writer: Subject H, September 27, immediately after oral discourse techniques were introduced.)

The instructor's comments on the September 27th draft were:

Your ideas are very rich. Spelling continues to be a problem as does your choice of vocabulary. We'll keep working on your writing. This is much¹ clearer than your past work.

It is clear, from the length of the two essays alone, that something has freed up this writer's writing fluency. The topic of the first essay seems to be of great interest to the writer, yet he appears unable to express himself, except in general terms. The last sentence gives a hint that the writer, if he could only find his writing voice, might have more to say. It is apparent that in the second essay,

¹ Emphasis is in the original.

he has discovered his voice after talking with a partner. Such verbal interaction appears to have allowed this subject the opportunity to express himself more fully, and encouraged him to clarify his position and elaborate on it. Later, during the second writing assignment (see Chapter 4, Section 2, Part I), the subject remarked to the researcher that this type of discussion made his writing "easier". He said that before the oral discourse techniques had been introduced, writing "was impossible" as he "just got frustrated".

As the oral discourse techniques proceeded, there was not always sufficient time in class for readers to read and discuss their partner's essay. Because of this, the instructor told readers that when there was not enough time during class to read an essay, they were to take it home, read it, and underline, in pencil, those parts which needed clarification. During the next class, the reader and writer discussed any areas requiring clarification. All essays were photocopied before the reader took them home, as a precaution against loss. It should be noted that, in fact, no losses occurred.

During the reading at home, readers sometimes pencilled in questions on the writer's essay. One reader, Subject D, who returned an essay with three questions he had written in the margin for the writer, Subject E, said that such questions helped him remember why a particular section was unclear. Because such reasoning made good sense, it was suggested that all readers could do this if it proved helpful.

From time to time, the instructor reminded the subjects about the

role of the reader. During one such reminder, the instructor said, in part:

Always check to see that each sentence is clear and then make sure each paragraph is clear to you. Make sure that you let the writer know if any information is missing that needs to be added.

At another time, the instructor reminded the subjects that they were not expected to correct their partner's work, saying:

You are not expected to look for errors. Look instead for what is not clear to you, what you don't understand. Underline these parts and discuss them with the writer. This will help him or her write better.

Readers, did, in fact, see errors, even though they may not have been looking for them. And seeing errors, they sometimes added corrections or suggested corrections to the writer during their discussion. For example, Subject C, an orally-fluent, Cantonese speaker, during a reading of a first draft of his partner, Subject I, a French speaker with low oral fluency, circled prepositional errors and crossed out incorrect verb endings. When he finished reading, he went through each paragraph and explained his corrections and supplied answers when the writer was unable to do so. At the same time, the discussion focussed on those areas that were unclear. The less fluent partner, Subject I, appeared to value Subject C's feedback, and often, during the course of the study, asked him to be her reader.

The Researcher's Role

As discussed in Chapter 2, the researcher acted as a participant-observer, following the principles outlined by Mills (1967), which

describe the barriers between social scientists and groups under investigation. Mills states that because these barriers are social, emotional, attitudinal and cultural, the investigator needs "to devise that quality of social relation between himself and groups which allows him to come into sustained and intimate contact with the group" (p. 27).

From the beginning of the study, the researcher's role, together with that of observer, appeared to be that of teacher. This role was established in two ways. First, one of the subjects was a former student in an ESL class taught by the researcher at the university in which the present study took place. The subject made this fact known to the others in the class. Second, the instructor introduced the researcher as an ESL teacher. During observations and audiotapings, the subjects occasionally turned to the researcher for answers. These requests were always given a response. Usually, the researcher asked the questioner to query his/her partner first. If the partner could not provide the answer, the researcher did so. However, it was noted that after receiving help from the researcher during a verbal interaction with a partner, subjects often tended to address their subsequent remarks to her. To overcome this, the researcher looked at the listener while the speaker was talking. This usually re-focused the speaker on his/her partner.

At the mid-point of the study, October 29, the instructor and researcher modelled the writer/reader mode for the class. The instructor explained to the class that she and the researcher were

each preparing to give papers at an upcoming seminar and were required to write a description of this seminar. The instructor described how she and the researcher had brainstormed together and then had separated to write their ideas into a paragraph. The instructor told the subjects that while they were working with partners on their writing assignments, she and the researcher were going to do the same, by reading each other's paragraph, underlining what was not clear or where information needed to be added and then, by discussing the shape of the final draft. The subjects appeared to smile indulgently at this news, and then turned back to their work. This reaction seemed to indicate that the subjects had already accepted these procedures as a valid process for writing, one that required no further demonstration -- or convincing.

Summary

Partnering sessions introduced prior to the introduction of the oral discourse techniques indicated that the subjects accepted partnering with equanimity. This attitude continued throughout the study. Subjects were encouraged to change partners after each writing assignment, but some partnerships remained intact over two successive assignments.

In order for the subjects to be accepting of the techniques, procedures were introduced by the instructor in an extemporaneous style, although they were based on written material prepared by the researcher. Positive feedback from the instructor during the

introduction of the brainstorming and speaker/listener techniques appeared to encourage subjects to articulate their ideas.

Brainstorming soon became a silent activity for most subjects. Observations indicated that brainstorming should not continue for more than ten minutes as the most productive activity appeared to occur in the first five minutes.

Throughout the study, the instructor reiterated that listeners were helping speakers rehearse what they were going to write before they actually did so, and that readers were looking for areas in a writer's draft requiring clarification, not correction.

As the study progressed, readers often took the writer's draft home where they underlined sections which were unclear or wrote questions in the margin requesting clarification of certain points.

During the period of the study, the researcher's role was that of participant-observer, a role which appeared to be an acceptable one for subjects, instructor, and researcher alike.

An example of a before-treatment essay written by one subject compared with an example of the same subject's first essay written after the procedures were introduced clearly indicates that oral discourse with a listener/reader can aid a student writer in discovering his/her writing voice. This will be discussed at further length in the chapter following.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY

Summary of the Investigation

This study was designed to investigate the dynamics involved in the relationship between writers and their readers as a technique for developing writing ability in ESL students. The technique gave writers the opportunity to rehearse, through oral discourse with prospective readers, what they would write before they actually did so. After writing a first draft, and giving it to their reader, writers then received feedback from the reader regarding the clarity of the content of the draft, rather than the correctness of the form. These interactions were observed and audiotaped, and analyses were made of a pre-treatment questionnaire, during-treatment verbal interactions and first and final drafts, and end-of-treatment interviews.

The subjects were twelve ESL students, four females and eight males, enrolled in a remedial writing course at the University of Victoria. The language groups represented were Arabic, Cantonese, Farsi, French, Japanese, Mandarin, Spanish, and Urdu.

The study explored three main questions:

1. Can oral discourse techniques aid ESL students in developing good writing skills?

2. What happens when a speaker/listener format is used as a rehearsal for the writer/reader mode?
3. Does audience feedback encourage writers to find avenues for clarification, that is, do changes occurring in the writing process bring about changes in the written product?

An examination of the results of the questionnaire, verbal interactions, revision strategies, and interviews of the subjects indicates that the oral discourse techniques were effective in helping ESL students to develop good writing skills. Discussion with a prospective reader before writing, as rehearsal for writing, together with feedback from the reader after writing, encouraged writers to clarify and revise.

Summary of Results

Before Treatment Results: Questionnaire

The responses to a questionnaire given to ten of the twelve subjects who were present in class before the oral discourse techniques were introduced, indicated that, in previous writing assignments, subjects who had asked a teacher for help during an assignment, received help in the form of correction or explanation.

All subjects reported having writing difficulties, including, argument, spelling, grammar and organization. They gave a variety of suggestions with regard to what they thought they needed in order to write more fluently. These suggestions included: more practice, vocabulary work, being corrected, thinking logically, learning to

develop a topic, taking more care, and reading more, among others.

When given a writing assignment, the majority of the subjects reported that, before writing, they were concerned about their choice of topic. Although more than half of the subjects reported that, before writing, they had either made an outline, tried to organize their ideas, jotted down a few points or wrote a rough draft, only one actually wrote something on paper and this consisted of five words.

While all of the subjects reported a concern for form and correctness, none expressed a concern for making their writing clear and understandable to a reader.

Discussion

The responses to the pre-treatment questionnaire are not surprising. The ESL teacher is seen by the subjects as being the arbiter of what is correct, the one with the answers. The availability of native-speaking help, credible help, is usually confined to one person in an ESL classroom, the teacher. Such help is usually not available outside of the classroom to a group like this, as most are newcomers to the country. Such a situation tends towards a teacher-centred, rather than student-centred, venue.

The subjects' perceptions of what they required in order to improve their writing and what they reported they did before writing reflect current ESL writing pedagogy with its concern for correctness and form, a concern outlined in the review of ESL literature in Chapter 2. Although none reported a concern for writing clearly for

their audience, one of the focusses of this study was to ascertain whether or not oral discourse techniques would foster such a concern. This will be discussed further in the section dealing with treatment and end-of-treatment results.

Treatment Results: Part I - Speaker/Listener Verbal Interaction Analyses

A verbal interaction scoring system, ELLVISS (English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System), based on Gottman's CISS (Couples Interaction Scoring System, 1979) indicated that six categories, with 16 subsets were sufficient to describe the verbal interactions of subjects involved in discussion as rehearsal for writing. These categories included: Agreement, Disagreement, Information, Summarizing, Clarification and Elaboration (Appendix E).

The speaker/listener verbal interactions of two partnerships were analyzed. These interactions occurred before the subjects undertook to write their first draft. One subject, a speaker with low oral fluency, was common to both partnerships. In one partnership, he was paired with a speaker with approximately equal fluency; in the other, he was paired with a speaker having good oral fluency.

The good speaker produced significantly more speech acts during discussion than did the two speakers with low oral fluency. The good speaker elaborated as often as he gave information; whereas the speakers with low oral fluency rarely elaborated.

The partner common to both partnerships gave information more than three times as often with a partner of equal fluency than one

with greater fluency.

It is likely that because of the small number of participants (three) and because the scoring system had not been used before between writers-to-be (speakers) and their prospective readers (listeners), more questions than answers emerged from the analyses. These questions will be dealt with in the discussion that follows.

Discussion

Several questions, requiring further study, arose from the analysis of the verbal interactions between subjects involved in discussion before writing:

1. Do orally fluent speakers produce more speech acts in a given number of verbal interactions than their less orally fluent partners?
2. Do partners of equal oral proficiency influence the number and length of speech acts produced?
3. Are the number of speech acts in a given number of verbal interactions an indication of the number available to the individual employing them? That is, do these speech acts indicate a developmental stage?

These questions are important to any study examining the effect of peer feedback, as "the quality of the feedback is the key" (Moffett, 1970, p. 47) to successful interactions. However, because the number of subjects examined in the present study was limited, any attempt to answer the above questions, based on the results, would be

speculative. Nevertheless, the results of the present study indicate that it would be worthwhile pursuing these questions, using the verbal interaction coding system, ELLVISS (Appendix E).

A fourth question may be answered with a greater degree of certainty, a response based on observations during treatment and oral interviews at the end of the treatment period:

4. Do verbal interactions aid the writing process?

Observations indicated that, during the treatment period, no subject suffered from "blank-page syndrome", that complaint of students who cannot think of anything to write. During their oral interviews, subjects mentioned that discussion with a partner often gave them new ideas related to the topic, its development and organization. Verbal interaction with a partner, then, simulates the writer-reader mode. It is a kind of rehearsal for the writing act, a rehearsal, which, in response to audience feedback, allows editing and reorganization by student writers before they commit themselves to paper. When the audience is present during the writing process, rehearsal becomes a dynamic vehicle for the sounding out of inner thoughts, for the shaping and testing of ideas, for actually hearing what is on one's mind.

When student writers have experienced this discovery process, they are ready to commit their ideas to paper. That commitment to paper, the first and final drafts, is discussed below.

Treatment Results: Part II - Writer/Reader and Revision Analyses

One of the partnerships studied engaged in a writer/reader verbal interaction to discuss a first draft. The other partnership relied on a written exchange between the reader and writer. The verbal interaction was coded using ELLVISS (Appendix E), the system by which the speaker/listener verbal interactions were also analyzed.

A comparison of speaker/listener with writer/reader verbal interactions indicated that before writing, the partners tended to give information, which was coded as part of the Information category; after the first draft had been written, they switched mainly to a clarification mode, which was subsequently coded as part of the Clarification category. Information that came from the reader after the first draft was in the form of correction or explanation, a reminder of the kind of help students received from teachers in the questionnaire already discussed. Clarification requests from the reader after the first draft caused the writer either to attempt verbal clarification or to tell the reader that she would explain further in her final draft.

In analyzing the revisions made in the final drafts resulting from the two partnerships, two questions were asked:

1. What revisions did the writer make that were apparently brought about by feedback from the reader?
2. How do these revising behaviours resemble those behaviours of successful and unsuccessful writers as described in the review of literature on revision in Chapter 2?

The answers to these questions are explored below.

1. The final drafts of two of the partners from each of the partnerships indicated that feedback from readers apparently brought about revisions. The partnership in which there was verbal feedback resulted in the writer attempting to make revisions based on her reader's clarification requests. The partnership in which there was written feedback resulted in the writer making revisions based on signals from the reader that clarifications were necessary.

2. The revising behaviours of the two writers resembled those of successful writers, as they both made meaning and text-based changes, using all of Sommer's revising operations (1980).

Discussion

Revision changes made by the two subjects described above clearly indicated that feedback from readers gave writers the impetus to revise. While both writers made many revisions, the kinds of changes were considered more important than the number of changes.

As Faigley and Witte (1981) point out:

Successful revision results not from the number of changes a writer makes but from the degree to which revision changes bring a text closer to fitting the demands of the situation. (p. 411)

The study was concerned, then, not with discrete changes, i.e., changes in verb tenses, adjective to adverb changes, etc., but in meaning changes and the kinds of revision operations that brought about such changes, i. e., the ability to see the process of revision "as a totality" (Sommers, 1980, p. 386). The study was also concerned

to determine whether subjects could demonstrate the flexibility required to change strategies in order to write a "reader-sensitive text [that] still reflect[ed] a writer's true meanings" (Schwartz, 1983, p. 556).

The subjects demonstrated the use of all of the revision operations employed by successful writers; attempted to fit their texts to the situation; changed strategies where necessary to make their drafts more "reader-sensitive"; yet, at the same time, remained true to their own ideas, their "true meanings".

While the subjects described above may not always have been successful in their revisions because they were not in full command of the language, in carrying out the strategies of successful writers, the subjects went about the revision process "in the direction of rightness" (Shuy, 1979, p. 3), a direction aided by feedback from their readers.

One of the revising strategies often used by one of the writers may indicate a developmental stage in the writing process. This subject indicated in his first draft that he wanted to communicate complex ideas using complex sentence structures. However, on a signal from his reader that these long, complex sentences were unclear, the writer reduced their length in his final draft, but retained his ideas, containing them in shorter, simpler structures.

There is a suggestion here that the reader's feedback allowed the writer to monitor the complex sentence structures that had not yet been mastered in the second language. This reader-aided monitoring

effect, similar in certain aspects to Krashen's monitor model (1977), seemed to trigger in the writer coping strategies that allowed him to keep his ideas intact, while changing their form.

Another revision strategy, the use of nominative repetition by the same writer, may also be indicative of a developmental stage in the writing process. West (1985) suggests that certain ESL speakers may repeat nominatives as an overcompensation for low oral proficiency. This repetition may have been viewed by the writer as a way of writing more clearly and specifically, of anchoring his ideas more securely to his topic.

Such stages in development are likely to be part of the process of discovery, part of the important and necessary struggle associated with each learning stage.

End of Treatment Results: Oral Interviews

At the end of the treatment period, private oral interviews were conducted with the instructor and each of the subjects.

According to the instructor, the oral discourse techniques created a warm, friendly, student-centred classroom that gave the subjects the opportunity to share, explore and organize ideas about which they were going to write. While she was more accustomed to a teacher-centred classroom, the instructor found that her new role gave her more time with individual students.

Comparing the subjects with students in classes she had taught before, the instructor said that her discussions with the subjects

were more concerned with style than in other years when there was more concern with the organization of ideas; that the subjects attempted more complex syntax; had a "greater sense of purpose" and expressed more interest in content and meaning than previous classes had.

Although the instructor found value in being able to hear and see the development of ideas in process, she also found the techniques "time-consuming". Nevertheless, at the start of a new term, she reported using the techniques once again because they "are effective".

According to the subjects, discussion with a partner before writing, helped in most cases, depending on the partner, although there was no consensus regarding the kind of partner who was helpful. Subjects said that discussion helped them to test their ideas, gain new ideas, and to develop and organize shared ideas.

The majority of subjects felt that having a partner read their writing helped them to write better and more clearly. All of the subjects said that it was helpful when readers asked for clarification and all said that they would revise if their writing was unclear to a reader.

Two subjects mentioned that corrections confused them and did not cause them to revise as the partner's credibility was in doubt.

The majority of subjects reported writing for an audience which included partners and readers, as well as the teacher. In writing for this wider audience, subjects reported attending to clarification of vocabulary and ideas. Of the subjects reporting the teacher as audience, the majority expressed a concern for grammar or sentence

structure, indicating a continuing concern for form when the teacher was seen as audience.

It is interesting to note, at this point, that in their responses to the pre-treatment questionnaire, none of the subjects expressed any concern for making their writing clear and understandable to an audience. By the end of the treatment period, however, most had gained a sense of audience.

Discussion

While the subjects were still as concerned with form as they were in the pre-treatment questionnaire, it is encouraging that, by the end of the treatment period, most had gained a sense of audience with their added concern for clarification of their vocabulary and ideas.

Although the oral discourse techniques may appear to be, as the instructor remarked, "time-consuming", they do not appear to have been wasteful of time. None of the subjects complained about the techniques being time-consuming, perhaps because writing for them had always been a time-consuming task. It is possible that the subjects considered time spent in discussion with their partner as time well-spent if it resulted in ideas and possibilities for developing and organizing those ideas. Because the subjects had a sense of organization after discussion with their reader, the instructor was able to deal with higher level problems, such as questions of style.

Discussion with a reader, then, allowed the subjects time and opportunity to discover and explore their ideas before consigning them

to paper. When one considers the length of the silent period in actual pen-to-paper writing during most classroom writing assignments, it does not appear unreasonable to suggest that ten to twenty minutes be spared from the manual task and put to good use by substituting instead, the verbal task of rehearsing with a partner.

Practical Implications

1. Brainstorming

Classroom observations indicated that the brainstorming activity of students should be monitored carefully by teachers, as certain students can become bogged down at this early stage. While many of the subjects in this study were able to progress to a silent five-minute-or-less brainstorming session before discussion with a partner, others were not able to do this. They worried over words, phrases or sentences, often crossing out and erasing, and, in general, appeared to produce little that helped in the discussion that followed. These subjects seemed to require additional time engaged in brainstorming as a thinking-out-loud activity, getting used to jotting down ideas as they occurred, without worrying about their "correctness".

2. Writer/Reader Interactions

The verbal interactions of the subjects in this study indicate that it may be possible to teach feedback strategies to student writers that would allow them to gain the most benefit from their writer/reader interactions.

In their role as reader, students should be advised to (i) read for content, not error; (ii) try to be specific about what is unclear in the writer's draft; (iii) make suggestions to the writer only after the writer has asked for help or after the writer has attempted to clarify, but is still unclear.

In their role as writer, students should be advised to (i) ask the reader to repeat a question if the clarification request is unclear; (ii) ask the reader to point out in the draft exactly what is unclear if they still don't understand the clarification request; (iii) tell the reader that they will attempt to explain more fully in their revised draft if they find that they cannot clarify or find that their explanation is still unclear to the reader.

3. Verbal vs. Written Feedback

Although both verbal and written feedback caused writers to revise, observations in the classroom indicated that verbal feedback resulted in a more dynamic relationship between writer and reader. When readers took the writer's photocopied draft home, they underlined sections that were unclear and/or added clarification requests to the draft and then returned the draft to the writer during the next class. Verbal interactions between writer and reader following this procedure were often very few in number. Such interactions resulted in the following typical format. In handing over the draft, the reader might read aloud to the writer the questions s/he had added or read the parts s/he had underlined; the writer would thank the reader, then return to his/her desk and begin to revise, occasionally turning to

the reader, who was busy doing something else, to ask a question regarding a clarification request or underlined section.

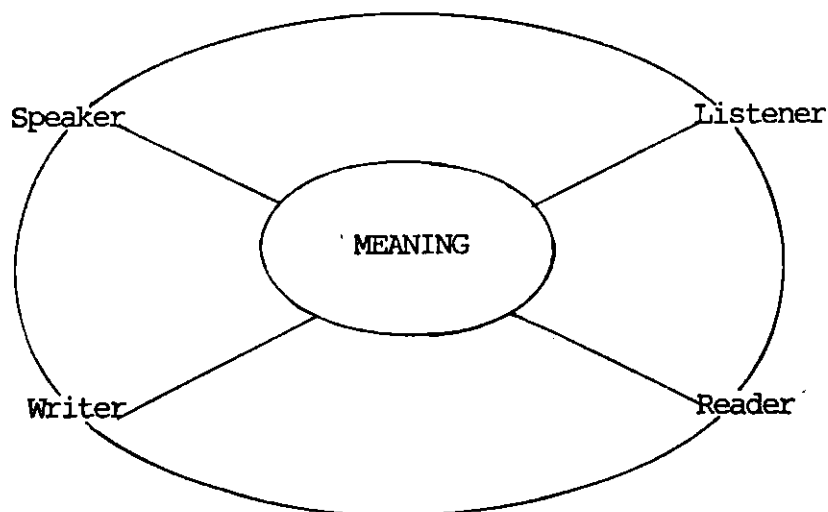
Although, at the time, this procedure seemed to be efficient, the dynamic relationship between writer and reader was lost, leading the researcher to suggest that, efficiency should not be the priority when these techniques are introduced. Over time, efficient procedures may gradually replace those that are "time-consuming", but it should be remembered that student writers and especially ESL student writers need both opportunity and time for the process of writing.

Theoretical Implications

Model of an Interactive Writing Process

The model below depicts the interactive nature of the oral discourse techniques outlined in this study.

MODEL OF AN INTERACTIVE WRITING PROCESS



In this model, the roles of all the participants are interconnected through the process of, at one and the same time, seeking and providing meaning. Meaning, then, is at the centre of the process. In this model, writing is not a skill separate from other skills, but an integral part of an interactive process involving all of the language skills, speaking, listening, reading, as well as writing.

This model, then, illustrates the dynamic relationship between writers and their readers as they engage in oral discourse in order to fully discover their writing voice.

Contributions Made by the Study

Several contributions to both ESL research and pedagogical practice are made by this study. Contributions include:

(1) the development of an ethnographic, qualitative instrument, ELLVISS (English Language Learners' Verbal Interaction Scoring System);

(2) the development of a model for the interactive process of writing;

(3) a new direction for the teaching of writing to ESL students. These contributions are elaborated upon below.

1. The Development of a new Ethnographic Qualitative Instrument

The new ethnographic instrument, ELLVISS, which categorizes and describes verbal interactions between writers and their readers is useful in documenting a writer's search for and discovery of ways to

make his/her ideas clear, first in a spoken context, then in a written context or, as Nystrand (1982) puts it, drawing on "the resources of language in order to set in motion the possibility of meaning" (p. 25).

A further study might replicate this study using ELLVISS to test whether or not the six categories and sixteen subsets are, in fact, sufficient for documenting verbal exchanges between writing partners, as suggested by this study. On this point, during the development of ELLVISS, a Help category was introduced as partners appeared to be concerned about "helping" each other. This category was finally excluded, however, because of the difficulty of deciding (i) what constituted a request for help (a pause? several repetitions of a word? an outright request?) and (ii) whether the giving of help was, in fact, actual help (an interjection or interruption that is (a) accepted, (b) not accepted? an interjection or interruption that is resented? information that is accepted that is incorrect?)

It is clear from experience gained, that in developing an instrument expected to accurately describe verbal interactions, the selection of categories must be carefully considered. In this regard, by excluding the Help category, it was felt that this study, and future studies that may use this instrument, would be better served if the instrument contained fewer rather than a greater number of categories. These fewer categories, six in all, have the potential, then, of becoming more finely-tuned to the purposes for which they are required.

It is possible that ELLVISS may also be useful in describing

verbal exchanges taking place in classroom settings other than those between an ESL student writer and his/her reader. The ELLVISS categories and subsets are not complex and are, thus, easily learned and applied to a transcription. In addition, the instrument has been designed to be flexible enough so that other researchers could find it useful for ethnographic studies involving second language learners.

2. The Development of a Model for an Interactive Process of Writing

When student writers search for and discover ways to make their ideas clear for their readers, in both a spoken and written context, they are involved in an active process with meaning at its centre. Such a process involves students in all of the language skills as, at one and the same time, they seek and provide meaning whether they are speakers, listeners, readers or writers. These roles are multi-directional, part of a dynamic interplay that is continuous while the writing task is in process. The speaker-writer, in attempting to provide meaning for a listener-reader, is also, at the same time, seeking a meaningful response from the listener-reader concerning the clarity of the message. From the results and observations of this study, it is apparent that speaker-writers are alert to this interactive process, as they attempt to clarify the spoken message after feedback from a listener and revise their written message after feedback from a reader. In a similar fashion, listener-readers seek meaning from the speaker-writer's message, and simultaneously provide a meaning for that message. When the two meanings do not coincide, the message is unclear, signalling the need for feedback directed at

the speaker-writer.

The value of such a model for an interactive process of writing is that it underlines and makes explicit, a process that occurs quite naturally for human beings, the desire to take part in meaningful communication. Thus ESL writing pedagogy no longer needs to be considered a skill separate from other skills, but an integral part of an interactive process involving all of the language skills.

3. A New Direction for Teaching Writing to ESL Students

The oral discourse techniques outlined in this study explore a new direction for teaching writing to ESL students. This direction is concerned more with content than with form. Through these techniques, ESL student writers are encouraged to become creatively involved in the discovery process, to take more responsibility for their own learning, and to develop a sense of audience.

The techniques involve an interactive process, in which the writer talks with a prospective reader about what s/he is going to write before actually doing so and, later, discusses with the reader those areas in the written draft requiring clarification. This interaction teaches student writers to write with a sense of audience and encourages them to clarify and revise using the strategies of successful writers. A future study, done over a longer period of time than the present study, might indicate whether, over time, student writers make fewer revisions as they gain a clearer sense of their audience.

The oral discourse techniques outlined in the present study require that both teacher and students hold their concern for discrete entities, i.e., form and correctness, in abeyance until the discovery process, that process which involves global concerns, i.e., content and meaning, has been explored. While these global concerns are being explored, it is necessary for the teacher to stand aside a little, in order to give students the opportunity to undergo the important and necessary struggle for meaning, that struggle entered into by the "community of writers [who] instinctively understands that each piece of writing is trying to work its way towards meaning (Murray, 1980, p. 15).

It is possible that this struggle for meaning may reveal stages of development in the revision process. Bridwell (1980) has suggested that there are "developmental differences in both the tendency to revise and the ability to revise successfully" (p. 218). If discussion with a reader causes a writer to revise, a future study analysing these revisions may indicate learning stages "in the direction of rightness" (Shuy, 1979, P. 3) which could lead to pedagogic insights.

The pedagogic insights gained from the present study indicate that the direction of rightness for ESL student writers is one in which they are enabled, through oral discourse techniques, to discover a sense of their audience, and in so doing, discover, as well, their writing voice.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
PERMISSION FORM

I hereby give permission for _____
(Student's Name)

to participate in a study designed to aid in the writing process
during the 1984-85 session at the University of Victoria.

(Parent or Guardian)

If you wish, you may see the results of this study upon its
completion.

Elinor Rhynas,
M. A. Student

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____

Please write on the other side of the paper if
there is not enough space provided for your answer.

1. Have you ever asked any of the following people to help you while you were writing an assignment in English? You may check more than one.

Teacher _____
Classmate _____
Friend _____

Parent _____
Brother/Sister _____
Other (Please specify) _____

2. If you checked one or more of the above, why did you choose that person or persons to help you?

Teacher _____

Classmate _____

Friend _____

Parent(s) _____

Brother/Sister _____

Other _____

3. What did that person or persons do to help you?

Teacher _____

Classmate _____

Friend _____

Parent(s) _____

Brother/Sister _____

Other _____

4. If you did not check any of the people listed in Question 1, why have you never asked for help while you were writing an assignment in English?

5. What aspects of an English writing assignment do you find difficult?

Spelling _____

Grammar _____

Argument _____

Organization _____

Other (Please specify) _____

6. What do you think you need to do in order to write more fluently?

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out what you do when you receive a writing assignment.

I am interested in finding out: (i) what you do before you start to write;
(ii) what you do during the writing process.

This information will be very useful because I will be able to examine your writing strategies and make suggestions for improvement or change.

Here are 3 topics taken from a recent English Placement Test (EPT):

1. Identify the person you think was the best teacher you ever had and then define specifically the qualities that made that person so successful at instructing others.
2. The world of travel and tourism now offers a wide range of vacation opportunities. Describe what in your opinion would be the perfect summer holiday.
3. Select one of the following words or phrases as a starting point and then write on one central and significant idea related to the word you choose: CROWDS, MUSEUMS, POETRY, and SMALL COMMUNITIES.

Now, write a paragraph on one of these topics on a separate piece of paper. When you have finished writing your paragraph, please answer the following questions in as much detail as possible.

1. What did you do before you started to write? If necessary, use the other side of this paper.

2. What did you do during the writing process? If necessary, use the other side of this paper.

APPENDIX C

OUTLINE FOR INTRODUCTION OF ORAL DISCOURSE TECHNIQUES

(Used only as a guide by instructor)

The instructor will tell the students that there are many ways to teach writing and to learn to write. She will list a few that students are likely to be familiar with, such as, making an outline, jotting down notes, etc.

She will then outline the roles a speaker and a listener play in a discussion. It will be important to emphasize that they all take part in such roles every day -- without too much difficulty. As speakers, they are able to make themselves clear to their listeners; as listeners, they just ask the speaker to explain if something isn't clear. Speaking and listening, therefore, are usually not very difficult tasks for them. But when they are asked to write something rather than speak it, it is a different matter. They worry about grammar, about correct spelling, and about getting their meaning across -- all at the same time -- with the result that they sometimes feel dissatisfied with their efforts.

The instructor will then go on to explain that in order to help them write more easily, students will speak about what they are going to write with a partner, before they write it. The point of the exercise will be to make their ideas clear to the listener before they put them down on paper. After they have written their ideas, their listener will become their reader. And once again, it will be important to make these ideas clear, but this time, to their reader.

APPENDIX D

OUTLINE FOR BRAINSTORMING RATIONALE

(Used only as a guide by instructor)

The rationale for brainstorming is based on the following points:

1. The exercise allows ideas to flow freely.
2. All ideas are allowed. There are no right or wrong ideas.
3. The time to make judgments is following brainstorming; otherwise, the free flow of ideas will be interrupted.

APPENDIX E.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS' VERBAL INTERACTION SCORING SYSTEM
(ELLVISS)

This system is based, in part, on Gottman's CISS
(Couples Interaction Scoring System, 1979).

Agreement

AG - Agreement

Ex.: Yes, Yeah, OK, Uh huh.

AR - Agreement Request

Ex.: 1. Right? Eh?

2. Rhetorical Questions: ... if you have a lot of money ...
you can maintain ... ten children. But what happen
[to the rest of] the world?

Disagreement

DG - Disagreement

Ex.: No; OK, but ...

Information

INF - Information

Ex.: From country to country, it's very fast and bank can use
the computer. Twenty years ago, not like this.

IR - Information Request

Ex.: He had, he has, he has?

IRP - Information Repeated

Ex.: First Speaker: He has.

Second Speaker: He has to change many things.

IRRP - Information Request Repeated

Ex.: First Speaker: Why?

Second Speaker: Why?

Summarizing

SO - Summarizing Other

- Ex.: 1. Maybe you can choose another person other than Kennedy ...
 or you may choose another topic like topic number two.
 2. Maybe we can talk and ...

SS - Summarizing Self

- Ex.: I am not sure of these things, really.

Clarification

CL - Clarification

- Ex.: I'm talking about computer functions, not change.

CR - Clarification Request

- Ex.: 1. So, in your second one, you think the only thing
 that's changed is the ... What is your second one?
 2. It still not clear.

CRP - Clarification Repeated

- Ex.: First Speaker: 'Chob'.
 Second Speaker: 'Chob'.

CRRP - Clarification Request Repeated

- Ex.: First Speaker: On your birthday?
 Second Speaker: Yeah.
 First Speaker: On your birthday?

Elaboration

EL - Elaboration

- Ex.: First Speaker: Education program, like what?
 Second Speaker: Some programs talk about lectures ...

ER - Elaboration Request

- Ex.: Education program, like what?

ERP - Elaboration Repeated

- Ex.: First Speaker: Some programs talk about lectures,
 like jungles.
 Second Speaker: Geography.
 First Speaker: Geography. Yeah.

APPENDIX F

SUBJECT G'S FIRST DRAFT

FOLLOWING DISCUSSION WITH PARTNER, SUBJECT K

No family should have more than two children.

I think that if the parents have or not money, they shouldn't have more than two children. The world will have more people year after year and this can cause a terrible catastrophe. Because people wouldn't have enough food and enough territory to live. Consequently they wouldn't have jobs, too.

Nowdays everybody, women and men may have contraceptives to prevent for having children. But I think one of the most important enemy of these is the Church. The Church oughtn't to tell people to have the children that the god sends. The people have to do the best for the all world, because this is a problem to concern everybody.

But it isn't only a problem in the cities, I think it is a bigger problem in the undeveloped countries where the people can't have education and they always listen to the priest.

I'm not against the Church, but it doesn't want to the people be educated about the pregnancy, children, and sexual relations. I think people ought to be educated by the other people who knows about it. The women groups about freedom and others women's right should help the poor and uneducated women who have children on the worst situations.

I'm not in favour of the abortion, but I think it's criminal, too, that women have children worse than animals. And in many times men don't import about that.

Everybody must do something about all of this.

APPENDIX G

SUBJECT G'S FINAL DRAFT

FOLLOWING DISCUSSION WITH HER READER, SUBJECT K

(Revisions are underscored)

No family should have more than two children.

I think that if the parents have or not money, they shouldn't have more than two children. The world will have more people year after year and this can cause a terrible catastrophe because people wouldn't have enough food and enough territory to live. Consequently they wouldn't have jobs, too.

People are living in a few cities and there are many places without too many people. In some places there are more people than in others. The territory of some cities isn't enough for people to live in.

Nowadays everybody, women and men may have contraceptives to prevent for having children. Unfortunately in some countries where the Church role is very important, we have serious problems with too many births. In these countries women can't take contraceptives and consequently they have to have more than two children. The Church, in these cases, oughtn't to tell women to have the children that the god sends.

In the undeveloped countries where the people can't have education and they always listen to the priest this problem is bigger. Sometimes the Church doesn't want to the people be educated about the pregnancy, children, and sexual relations. If people were educated, they wouldn't have more than two children.

... People ought to be educated by the other people who knows about it. The women groups about freedom and others women's right should help the poor and uneducated women who have children on the worst situation. ... It's criminal ... that women have children worse than animals. And in many times men don't import about that.

Everybody must do something about all of this.

APPENDIX H

SUBJECT K'S FIRST DRAFT

FOLLOWING DISCUSSION WITH PARTNER, SUBJECT H

The computer has changed the business world.

Nowadays, computer has become the most common tools in business world. Many of the large companies strongly lean on those computers to increase the efficiency on the business, to save labours, to connect with foreign trade to form a large computer network. Those major advantages of computer has changed the business world.

One of the most major advantage for using computer on business is to increase efficiency. Checking data and saving records are two main functions of computer, and that save a lot of time for people checking records in the record case. Computer can find out data and showing it on screen instantaneously. This is not just save our time, it save labours too.

Using computer controlling business has become a popular thing in today's business. It is also a good way to save labour. More and more large factories use computer control systems to control machine instead of man. obviously, the advantage of computer controlling machines are better than humans' work because the computer are unexhausted. For instance, cash machine gives us 24 hours per day and 7 days per week service. we can do banking anytime as we want to. That changed our ordinary way of banking way and this is the thing of bank business which changed by computers.

Computer occupies an important position on the trade. A large computer net-work which makes traders faster and easier to know the foreign trade information. Computers will also do analysis information and give out some logical decisions for trader. It is really a great helpful thing for today business.

Using computer ^{Running} ~~controlling~~ business has become a popular thing

~~in today's business. It is also a good way to save labour. More and~~

more large factories ^{are computerized today.} use computer controller systems ^{Therefore they}

^{use computers to operate} to control machines ^{instead of man} Obviously, the advantage

of ^{using} computers ^{to} controlling ~~ing~~ machines ^{is} better than ^{using}

humans', ~~work~~ because the computer are unexhausted ^{able}. For instance,

cash machine gives us 24 hours ^a per day and 7 days ^a per week service.

we can do banking ^{at} anytime as we ^{wish} ~~want to~~. That changed our ordinary

way of banking way ^{Thus, using computer's has} ~~and this is the thing of bank business which~~

^{changed banking system.} ~~changed by computers.~~

Computer ^{plays} ~~occupies~~ an important ^{role in today's} ~~position~~ on the

^{economic} ~~trade.~~ ^{consequently} ~~A large computer net-work~~ ^{would} ~~which~~ ^{communication} ~~traders~~

^{and trade much} faster and easier. ^{to know the foreign trade information.}

Computers will also do analysis information and give out some logical

decisions for trader. It is really a great helpful thing for today

business.)

APPENDIX J

SUBJECT K'S FINAL DRAFT

FOLLOWING CHANGES MADE TO HIS FIRST DRAFT

BY HIS READER, SUBJECT H

(Revisions are underscored)

Computer has changed the bussiness world.

Nowadays, computer has become the most common tool_ in bussiness world. Many of the large companies strongly lean on those computer to help their work. Computers help companies to increase the efficiency on their own bussiness and to save companies labours. All of those will deduct companies' expenditure. Furthermore, computer can form a large computer network with foreign trade market. The good thing for this is more fast information supplies for bussiness man. All of those are computer's adventages, and which has changed the ordinary way of bussiness.

Using computers to increase bussiness efficiency is a main advantage in bussiness world today. For instance, the most common function for computer is check datas or records. Using computer really save a lot of time. The computer can found out data and shows it on computer's screen in a second. By compare this with checking data from record case, we know computer's power and its advantage. Using computer not just save our time, it saves labours too.

...Computer controlling bussiness has become more popular thing on bussiness than before. It is ... a good way to save labour. Today, most of large factories are using computer control system_ to control

machine instead of men. Obviously, The advantage of computer controlling machine are better than humans' work, it is because ... computer are unexhausted. For example, cash instance machine give us 24 hours per day and 7 days per week service. We can ... banking anytime as we want to. It changes our ordinary way of banking ... and that is the thing of bank bussiness which changed by computer.

Computer also are very important thing on the foreign trade. Computer can connect with other computers. In foreign trade market, computers form a large computer net-work. The advantages for this is give the traders more information, particular price at the particular time, list of some other price, the amount of good etc. Computer could also analyzes the information and it give out a logic decision for trader. it ... really give a great help for ... bussiness.

APPENDIX K

QUESTIONS ASKED DURING ORAL INTERVIEW

WITH INSTRUCTOR

1. How would you describe student response to this technique?
2. What is your opinion as to the effectiveness of oral discourse as a rehearsal for writing?
3. What would you say the instructor's role was in this format?
4. (a) Would you use this technique in your classroom again?

(b) If so, why? If not, why not?

(c) What changes would you make, if any?

APPENDIX L

QUESTIONS ASKED DURING ORAL INTERVIEW

WITH SUBJECTS

1. Does discussing with a partner what you plan to write help you with a writing assignment?
2. If yes, how does it help?
3. If no, what do you think is the problem?
4. Does having a partner read your writing help you write better?
5. If yes, how does it help?
6. If no, what do you think is the problem?
7. Who do you write for?
8. How does this affect your writing?

APPENDIX M

OUTCOME OF INTRODUCTORY BRAINSTORMING SESSION

Topic: What Makes a Good University Student?

iron buttocks
an ability to do without sleep
good ears
the desire to learn
willingness to work hard
likes to read
organized
good conduct
writing ability
good attendance
mental stability
good teachers
ability to keep up
determination
self-discipline
good concentration
good circumstance - having good family
and friends around
active
willing to starve
being able to sleep with eyes open
knows his goals
physical capability
responsible person
study endurance

VITA

Surname: RHYNAS Given Names: ELINOR JEAN

Place of Birth: Toronto, Ontario Date of Birth: May 3, 1936

Educational Institutions Attended, with Dates of Entering and Leaving:

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA 1966 to 1974

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA 1979 to 1980

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Degrees, Diplomas, Etc., Awarded, with Dates and Names of Institutions:

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Honors and Awards:

University of Victoria Fellowship, 1980

Publications:

Rhynas, E. J. (1979). Conversation starters: Practice in using correct
verb tenses and transition devices. In Bright Ideas, I, (pp. 52-53).
Vancouver: Association of B.C. Teachers of English as an Additional
Language.

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DISCOVERING THE WRITER'S VOICE:

ESL STUDENTS AND THE WRITING PROCESS

Author


Elinor Jean Rhynas
