UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

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An Investigation of Taiwanese Novice EFL Writers' Experiences of the Construction of Intercultural Genre Writing

by

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<u>ABSTRACT</u>

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<u>DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY</u>

AN INVESTIGATION OF TAIWANESE NOVICE EFL WRITERS'
EXPERIENCES OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF INTERCULTURAL
GENRE WRITING

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Based on a framework of linking intercultural rhetoric research to genre theories, the present study investigated Taiwanese EFL novice students' construction of generic structures and rhetorical features in writing in L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English). Quantitative and qualitative research methods were combined in the present study, including textual analysis of students' genre writing, a student questionnaire and interviews with students. The textual analysis focused on the construction of genre-rhetoric conventions in intercultural letters of job application and argumentative writing, respectively. The student questionnaire explored writers' reported writing instructional experiences in L1 and L2. The results of interviews suggested that writers' decisions on the genre-rhetoric construction were affected by a wider range of small culture factors, for example, familiarity with writing topics, L2 language proficiency, transferability of writing experiences, and contextual factors, together with writers' large cultural influence. The overall findings suggest that the way writers approach genre writing is significantly influenced and shaped by the context of situation. More importantly, writers' agency has to be highlighted as it triggers and mediates social processes of multidimensional negotiation between text, writer and context in L2 writing. It is therefore suggested that context of situation where writing is produced and writers' agency are two influential factors for shaping Taiwanese novice EFL students' intercultural genre writing.

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Academic Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

I, …………………………………………….. …………………….[please print name]

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

[title of thesis] …AN INVESTIGATION OF TAIWANESE NOVICE EFL WRTIERS' EXPERIENCES OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF INTERCULTURAL GENRE WRITING
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Chapter 1   Introduction

This chapter presents the research background, objectives of the study and research questions and the structure of the thesis. Firstly, the research background includes the general description of English language teaching in Taiwanese pedagogical contexts, introduces the importance of writing skills in the General English Proficiency Test and identifies the difficulties Taiwanese university-level students encounter when learning how to deal with academic writing in tertiary education. Next, it talks about the objectives of research targeted by the present study and how they can be achieved by answering the research questions. Finally, it introduces the organisation of the chapters of the thesis.

1.1   Research Background

1.1.1   English Language Teaching in Taiwan

The Taiwanese Government recognises the importance of English language instruction at all levels and English is a required subject at the elementary (Years 5–6), secondary (Years 7–12) and tertiary (freshmen) levels. The Nine-year Joint Curricula Plan for Elementary and Junior High Schools known as the new English language teaching curriculum explicitly outlines the goals for learning English as (1) to help students develop basic communication skills in English; (2) to cultivate students' interests in and develop in them a better method of learning English; (3) to promote students' understanding of local and foreign cultures and customs (TESEC, 2008). Students are expected to acquire fundamental English proficiency for "communication" as well as to develop their awareness of cultural differences. In order to achieve these goals, it is pointed out that "teachers should provide a variety of opportunities to have students work together as well as communicate with peers or adults, both orally and in writing, confidently and without fear" (Su, 2006, p. 267). At tertiary level, students are offered a wider range of English courses with aims of either pursuing higher education or seeking decent jobs after graduation. Chern (2002) succinctly offered an overview of English courses offered in universities in Taiwan in Table 1 below.

Table 1 An Overview of English Courses in Universities in Taiwan

First year	
Course options	General English: integrated skills
Skill-based	Conversation, Listening, Reading, Writing, etc.
Second Year and Beyond	
Course options	Content-based: Journalistic English, Business English, English of Curriculum Events, English for Science and Technology, News Reading, etc.
Skill-based	Oral-report Skills, Advanced Conversation, Practical English Composition, Listening Comprehension for Academic Lectures, etc.
Total Required Credits 4-14 (with 6 being the norm)	

As shown in Table 1, freshmen are expected to develop their knowledge of general English which assists them to acquire the knowledge of discipline-specific English when progressing to higher levels. However, there is a gap between pedagogical policy and pedagogical practice due to the influence of examination-oriented education. As pointed out by Pang (2009), "this is especially true in Taiwan, where tests are a major determinant of course designs and classroom practices" (p. 94). For instance, students are required to pass BCET (Basic Competency English Proficiency Test) for entering junior high schools and JCEE (Joint College Entrance Examination) is administered as an entrance examination for universities. As "an increasing number of universities and colleges have set English requirements for graduation" (Pang, 2009, p. 94) there is considerable pressure on students to improve their English proficiency.

A wider range of English proficiency tests are optional for university-level students as a graduation threshold, like the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), the Foreign Language Proficiency Test (FLPT) as well as the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT). As a result, English pedagogical practice often aims at helping students to achieve a particular certificate of English

proficiency (Pang, 2009) rather than enhancing their language skills and content-based knowledge (Chern, 2002).

1.1.2 Writing in the General English Proficiency Test

Among the available English proficiency tests, GEPT is the one organised and developed by the Taiwan government, aiming at promoting lifelong English learning. Since it was launched in 2000, the number of test-takers has been increasing with more than 4.6 million people so far reported to have taken the test by the Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC, source: www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw). According to LTTC, GEPT scores have been not only accepted by a number of universities as a valid graduation threshold, but also recognised as an important criterion for promoting civil servants as well as for establishing connections with global institutions (See Table 2 GEPT Accredited by Universities and Global Institutions).

Table 2 GEPT Accredited by Universities and Global Institutions

Universities in Taiwan
Public Universities: National Central University, National Chengchi University, National Cheng Kung University, National Chiao Tung University, National Chung Cheng University, National Chung Hsing University, National Sun Yat-sen University, National Taiwan University, National Taiwan Normal University, National Tsing Hua University, and National Yang-Ming University.
Private Universities: Fu Jen Catholic University, Providence University, Tamkang University, Tunghai University, and Yuan Ze University.
Global Institutions
Johannes Kepler University Linz, École Supérieure d'Électricité, Sciences Po de Paris, University Montpellier 2, Aachen University, Technische Universität Berlin, University of Hamburg, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Waseda University, Kookmin University, Maastricht University, Umeå University, University of Bern, Hertford College of Oxford University, King's College London, and University of California, Berkeley.

GEPT is implemented at five levels, including elementary, intermediate, high-intermediate, advanced and superior, with listening and reading in the first category, writing and speaking in the second category. The administration of GEPT has an interval of three months because the test-takers are required to pass the first category in order to qualify to move to the second category. The certificate of GEPT is awarded as long as the test-taker is able to pass the two stages. Similar to other English proficiency

tests, which prioritise receptive skills over productive skills, in terms of testing sequence, GEPT has been criticized for its emphasis on receptive skills in the first category and the washback effect that has on English language education, resulting in less attention on the development of productive skills (Pang, 2009). According to Pang, in order to assist students to be successful in GEPT, the pedagogical goals of English language education inevitably focus more on the development of receptive skills rather than productive skills.

Regardless of whether receptive skills are overemphasised in GEPT, it is worth studying the assessment criteria for writing at different levels in GEPT because they are an important clue to understanding the pedagogical practice of English writing instruction. These criteria are summarised in Table 3 .

Table 3 Assessment Criteria for Writing at Different Levels in GEPT

(source: www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw)

Format Level	Writing
Elementary	An examinee who passes this level can write simple sentences and paragraphs, such as those used in postcards, memos, and greeting cards. He/she can fill out forms and use simple written English to describe or explain topics related to daily life.
Intermediate	An examinee who passes this level can write simple messages and narratives. He/she can write about things he/she has learned and use simple English to write about his/her own experiences or about topics with which he/she is familiar.
High-Intermediate	An examinee who passes this level can write general work-related reports and messages. In addition to topics related to daily life, he/she can write about current events and more complex or abstract subjects.
Advanced	An examinee who passes this level can use English appropriately in writing several text types, such as reports, essays, news items or summaries of general/professional topics. They can express their opinions on different topics and discuss them in depth.
Superior	An examinee who passes this level can write many different types of documents, including proposals and reports, professional or academic abstracts, theses, news reports and editorials on current events. He/she can completely and effectively elaborate on, and carry out in-depth investigations into all sorts of subjects.

As shown in Table 3, English writing is seen as a staged and purposeful activity in Taiwan pedagogical contexts. Novice EFL writers start with building up their knowledge of sentence and paragraph structures in English. At the intermediate or high intermediate levels, they are able to write about simple or slightly complex subject matter in daily life, like narratives or reports. This is associated with the acquisition of knowledge of a variety of text types. At the advanced level, they are expected to manipulate a wider range of text types, expressing their opinions or stances on different topics aptly and confidently. At the final stage, EFL writers are expected to write across genre or disciplines as effectively as writers who are English-native speakers.

Based on the aforementioned descriptions, the development of EFL students' English writing proficiency is stage-oriented, moving from the smallest component of lexico-grammatical features of texts to the externality (contextual factors) of texts. However, a serious issue that emerged from Liu's (2008) study is students' multi-dimensional negotiation with academic writing when attempting to apply their knowledge of general English writing to deal with discipline-specific writing.

1.1.3   Students' Multidimensional Negotiation with Academic Writing at Tertiary Education

Implementing a sequenced writing approach to writing courses at a Taiwanese university, Liu (2008) claimed that consideration of students' prior literacy experience and their struggle to meet new expectations in the pursuit of academic success is an important factor for curriculum design and pedagogical practice. The contradiction between students' prior literacy experience and their current experience in academic writing refers to the distinction between knowledge display and knowledge transformation or construction (Liu, 2008). Liu pointed out that

> "In high school English writing, the topics focused on personal experiences and feelings, again promoting the expression of the self. In contrast, in academic English writing, the student was expected to speak about subject matter (not the self most of the time) in a somber, objective tone and to substantiate his or her arguments with clear logical reasoning and evidence" (p. 93).

This is echoed in Johns' (2003) perspective that the traditional writing assignment trains students to argue based on their personal opinions or perspectives. The pedagogical

goals of general English writing as a means of exhibiting one's knowledge led university-level students to misconceptualise academic English writing as a process of knowledge telling rather than knowledge construction or transformation. According to Liu, they often apply prior literacy experiences to deal with academic writing, due to a lack of awareness of generic variation. In addition to the influence of prior literacy experience on students' perceptions of academic writing, culture and context also play important roles in academic English writing (Liu, 2008). Students, while engaging in academic English writing, are imbued with Chinese culture where the pursuit of social harmony is claimed to be more important than individual interest. As a result, it is less likely for students to have a critical perspective on the subject matter. Meanwhile, it is cautioned that understanding the social process of EFL students' negotiation with textual construction is also important. For example, Liu said that "without recognizing the complicated negotiation process, I would have simply considered Pae-Ling as an unskilled writer and a lazy student" (p. 98). The social process of negotiation refers to the student's negotiation with writing tasks, including linguistic form as well as contextual factors, like time management and physical needs (Liu, 2008). In order to clarify students' negotiation with English academic writing, Liu referred to Canagarajah's categories and concluded that issues of the form (linguistic features and contextual factors), the self (influence of prior literacy experience), the content (knowledge transformation and construction) and the community (social values) form the complexity of academic English writing at a Taiwanese university.

Furthermore, EFL students' tendency to display knowledge in their academic English writing is also associated with their learning strategies. Lai (2009) investigated types of language learning strategies used by university freshmen in Taiwan and claimed from the results that "rote memorizing" is the most prioritised and preferred type of learning strategy (p. 273). This may be attributed to the test-oriented educational system and the lack of sufficient opportunities for the use of English in real life in Taiwan (Lai, 2009). According to Liu's (2008) and Lai's (2009) studies, it is implicitly suggested that novice EFL students have the tendency to transfer their writing experience across contexts, but this is negatively evaluated due to the lack of sensitivity in the expectations of rhetorical construction that vary considerably across teachers, disciplines, classes and institutions.

1.2   Objectives of the Thesis and Research Questions

The present study investigates how Taiwanese novice EFL students construct generic structures and rhetorical features in writing in Chinese and English, respectively. Specifically, it intends to explore a range of factors that could shape writers' decisions in the construction of textual form and content in intercultural genre writing. Meanwhile, it pays close attention to the ways writers interact with the contexts where the text is produced, highlighting the interrelationship between writers' agency, writing tasks and contextual resources. The study of the social processes of multidimensional negotiation between these elemental components is expected to recognise the value of small cultures in L2 writing. It may challenge the idea that L2 writers' failure in L2 writing can be associated straightforwardly with the negative influence of their L1 cultural rhetoric, or "big cultures" (Atkinson, 2004). The present study may offer useful reflexive thinking on current L2 writing pedagogical practices in Taiwan universities.

The present study has been primarily inspired by Liu's (2008) study where the researcher paid close attention to L2 students' efforts for multidimensional negotiation that normally underlie the superficial level of written discourse. Similarly, it aims at viewing L2 writing as a social communication where text, writer and context interact with one another in a very complex way in an EFL context. In order to achieve these goals, it utilises an integrated theoretical framework of genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research to understand the influences of multiple factors on novice L2 students' construction of generic structures and rhetorical features in writing rather than to evaluate their final products with stereotyping ideas about the cultural structure of rhetoric.

The research questions in the present study are listed as follows:

Research question 1

How did Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction vary when composing a letter of job application in Chinese and English?

1.1 What were the genre components employed by Taiwanese novice EFL students writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English? How did they articulate their intentions of deploying them?

1.2 What were the politeness strategies employed by Taiwanese novice EFL students writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English? How did they elucidate the communicative purposes of the pragmatic strategies?

1.3 To what extent did Taiwanese novice EFL students' writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English influence their genre-rhetoric construction when writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English?

Research question 2

To what extent did Taiwanese novice EFL students construct genre-rhetoric conventions in argumentative writing in Chinese and English after gaining three months of English writing instruction?

2.1 How did the organisation of component moves vary in novice EFL students' argumentative writing in Chinese and English after they gained three months of English writing instruction? How did novice EFL students articulate their intentions of deploying them?

2.2 How did the manifestation of cultural values embedded in linguistic features in Taiwanese novice EFL students' argumentative writing vary between Chinese and English after they gained three months of English writing instruction? How did Taiwanese novice EFL students interpret their decisions of using linguistic features characterised by culture-specific values?

2.3 To what extent did Taiwanese novice EFL students' writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English influence their genre-rhetoric construction when composing argumentative writing in Chinese and English?

1.3   The Structure of the Thesis

The thesis consists of 7 chapters. Chapter 1 introduces relevant the background information, objectives of the present study and research questions. Chapter 2 discusses an integrated theoretical framework linking intercultural rhetorical research to genre theories. It is intended to argue that the relationship between text, writer and context is inseparable. The meaning of language use in genre writing depends on its communicative purposes in a given social context. More importantly, it is the writers

who decide how to construct generic structures and rhetorical features based on their genre knowledge and the influences of context of situation. Chapter 3 includes information relating to methodological issues, for example, the participants, the research site, the adoption of quantitative and qualitative data and the process of data analysis. The use of mixed methods is to highlight the importance of triangulation among multiple data, including textual analysis, a student questionnaire and interviews with students. Chapters 4 and 5 primarily present the results of data analyses. Chapter 6 discusses the answers to the research questions, tentatively making suggestions that L1 influence in L2 writing is a purposeful writing behaviour and the development of novice EFL students' genre awareness is key to increasing their confidence in dealing with a wider range of genre writing across social contexts. Chapter 7 is the conclusion, aiming at offering a summary of the present thesis, presenting the pedagogical implications and the limitations of the study and making recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2   Integrated Theoretical Framework of Genre Theory and Contrastive Rhetoric Research to Understand L2 Students' Genre-rhetoric Construction in Inter-Cultural Genre Writing

2.1   An Overview of L2 Writing Research

Second language writing (L2) is understood as a multifaceted activity, entailing a diversity of complex issues, such as textual features, the writing process, and the characteristics of the participants as well as the social contexts. A historical account of theoretical frameworks explored and developed in L2 writing research is an efficient means of pinning down the research foci of the present study. The introduction to the theoretical frameworks adopted in the present study is based on the comprehensive reviews of L2 writing research conducted by Matsuda (2003) and Polio (2003).

Matsuda (2003) summarised the development of theories of L2 writing in a situated historical perspective, tracing backward to the modern appearance of the field of L2 writing in US higher education and presenting the subsequent developments chronologically. L2 writing received little or no pedagogical attention until a massive number of English as a second language (ESL) students came to study in higher education in United States in the late nineteenth century. In the 1960s, during which the teaching of spoken language was the core of pedagogical practice, writing instruction was regarded as a subdiscipline of teaching English as a second language, a remedial approach for ESL students' success in the required first-year composition courses. Since then, a number of pedagogical approaches have focused on different perspectives in relation to L2 writing, such as the focus on sentence-level structure, discourse-level structure, writing process and language use in context. The teaching of sentence-level structure for ESL emphasised the importance of accuracy although some pedagogical practice shared a different view, which proposed the concept of fluency over accuracy. With reference to discourse structure, Kaplan's (1966) study was a well-known pioneering work on the claimed differences of rhetorical

patterns across cultures. Based on textual analysis of university-level students' compositions who were from multicultural backgrounds, Kaplan identified a number of logical organisations. Subsequently, L2 writing researchers broadened their interest in processes of writing and writing contexts. In order to have a better understanding of the complexity of social, cultural, cognitive and linguistic factors, Matsuda (2003) pointed out that L2 writing should be viewed as "an interdisciplinary field" (p. 25), such as writing across disciplines in academic institutions. An accumulated body of knowledge about L2 writing in different institutional contexts therefore may provide reflexive thinking and constructive suggestions for current pedagogical L2 writing instruction.

Unlike Matsuda's (2003) historical perspective, Polio (2003) labelled the studies she reviewed according to their research aims, including "writer's texts," "writer's processes," "participants in the learning and teaching process," and "context of L2 writing both inside and outside the classroom" (p. 37). Polio provided a detailed discussion about methodological approaches adopted by these research domains. For example, studies of writers' processes show interest in exploring what a writer does or how a writer interacts with feedback on written discourse during the writing process. A range of methodological techniques could have been utilised for these goals, such as "stimulated recall, interviews, text analysis, observation and talk aloud protocols" (p. 44). Based on the review of a number of qualitative studies of writers' processes, Polio (2003) suggests that qualitative methodological designs must carefully consider the potential challenges, including small sample sizes, lack of statistical significance, lacking multiple sources for triangulation and generalisations to other writing tasks. The discussion of other domains was carried out in the same manner, and outlines a clearer picture of what has been investigated in L2 writing research so far and offers insightful clues to future researchers to find their own paths (Polio, 2003).

The comprehensive reviews of previous studies in L2 writing research conducted by Matsuda (2003) and Polio (2003) have led the present study to investigate the interconnection among the text, the writer and the context. These essential components are not hierarchical, but complementary to each other to explain

writing as a socially communicative act. Canagarajah (2002) argues that writing is an activity that brings a wide range of factors together, including "text-internal and text-external factors, discursive and historical forces, linguistic and social considerations", which have social context as a foreground (p. 8).

"People do not produce texts at random and without any purpose, but have specific intentions to communicate and certain goals to achieve" (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997, p. 14). In other words, language operates as a meaning making system, which is connected to its social contextualised use. The consideration of text and context "as ongoing dialogue processes which mutually feed into each other in a dynamic and complex relationship" (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997, p. 21) is an important concept for the three main schools of genre studies in Linguistics. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) put greater emphasis on the features of text, whilst New Rhetoric (NR) pays attention to the influence of context on the textual form. Genre theories are powerful approaches for studying the complexity of relations between text and context, but may consider little about how writers negotiate similarity and difference in rhetorical expectations of genres. This may be primarily applied to people whose first language is not English (See e.g., Connor, 1996). The consideration of influences of L2 writers' sociocultural views on L2 genre writing is essential, as "beyond the context of situation lies the context of culture, composed of social processes mediated by language" (Figueiredo, 2010, p. 125).

"When writers compose their texts, they draw upon models that have become normal within their culture" (Hoey, 2001, p. 12). L2 writers therefore are affected by their knowledge of writing conventions of the same genre in L1 to some extent when working on genres in the target language. Studying cross-cultural rhetorical differences is the core of contrastive rhetoric research. The traditional view of contrastive rhetoric research that different cultures have different preferred rhetorical patterns (Kaplan, 1966) has a limitation in that it "…view[s] writing merely as a reflection of cultural thought patterns rather than a social practice involving human agency" (Kubota and Lehner, 2004, p. 9). Recently, the focus of

contrastive rhetoric research thus has shifted from text-based to context-sensitive (Connor, 2004b), highlighting the influence of multiple social factors on writers' decisions on rhetoric.

The integration of intercultural rhetoric (a shift in approach from traditional contrastive rhetoric) into genre theories is used as a framework and as a source of analytical tools for the present study to investigate L2 writers' generic structure and rhetorical features in writing in different genres in L1 and L2. The ways in which L2 writers construct genres, not only reflect their knowledge of writing conventions of genres, but also show their negotiation with the potential conflict of rhetorical differences between L1 and L2, and their interactions with the social contexts where writing is produced. L2 writing is therefore realised in the present study as "a social practice", rather than just "an abstract activity" (Hyland, 2003, p. 25).

2.2   A Genre-based View of Text, Context and Discourse Community

The social, goal-oriented perspective of genre is broadly acknowledged in the field of applied linguistics (Hyland, 2007; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Kress, 1993; Johns, 2003 & 2008; Martin, 1993; Christie, 1993; Swales, 1990 and Miller, 1994). The three main schools of genre studies share a similar view that genres are socially communicative acts, but differ from one another with distinctive research directions. The most influential definition of genres in the English for Specific Purposes approach is proposed by Swales (1990). According to Swales,

> "A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style" (1990, p. 58).

The Swalesian concept of genres is exemplified in the Create a Research Space (CARS) model, the generic structure of which is presented as follows:

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Move 1   Establishing a territory
Move 2   Establishing a niche
Move 3   Occupying the niche

These moves account for writers' social communicative purposes and each of them has their optional textual elements known as steps. For example, Move 1 consists of three steps as follows:

Step 1   Claiming centrality
Step 2   Making topic generalization(s)
Step 3   Reviewing items of previous research
(See Swales, 1990, p. 141 for details).

The investigation of the regularities of textual features used by members of discourse communities to effectively respond to recurrent situations constitutes the rationale for claiming the existence of the genre.

In the perspective of systemic functional linguistics (SFL), Martin (1984) describes genre as "a staged, goal-oriented, and purposeful social activity that people engage in as members of their culture." (p. 25). Kress (1993) proposed "a concept of genre in which grammar makes meanings of social and cultural significance", in that here the use of grammar is required to "focus on function in texts and thus draw on social categories to explain texts" (p. 22), for example, Explanation, Argumentation and Exposition, which are viewed as genres. In addition to generic features, genre is conceptualised as socio-cognitive strategies for rhetorical problems (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996), referring to the adaptability of writers' textual approaches for responding appropriately to the demands of specific social contexts. In other words, researchers in the New Rhetoric (NR) tradition emphasise the social dynamics and social constitution of the regularities of form and content (Miller, 1994). The concepts of genres from these three different traditions of genre studies have been encapsulated by Bhatia (2004) as follows:

> Genre essentially refers to language use in a conventionalised communicative setting in order to give expression to a specific set of communicative goals of a disciplinary or social institution, which give rise to stable structural forms by imposing constraints on the use of lexico-grammatical as well as discoursal resources (p. 23).

Bhatia's (2004) perspective is relevant to the investigation of L2 writers' genre writing in L1 and L2 for two reasons. The first is the identification of the communicative purposes served by genres in recurrent situations, and the second is in relation to language use in social contexts. The understanding of communicative purpose underlying generic features is the key to establish the reciprocal relationship between text and context. In the social processes of relating text to context in a meaningful way, L2 writers may encounter potential challenges in language use, due to the consideration of cultural influence. Martin and Rothery (1986, p. 243 cited in Trosborg, 1997, p. 8) propose that "Genre refers to the staged purposeful social processes through which a culture is realized in a language." Based on the above, genre in the present study is perceived as a social communicative act where close attention is paid, not only to the reciprocal relationship between text and context, but also to writers themselves, for whom the influence of their L1 culture significantly constitutes part of the socio-cultural context in which writing is produced.

Genre is sometimes associated with text type, but these are different in fact, due to distinctive aims. Genre is used to achieve communicative purpose, which accounts for the overall aim of a text, whilst text type serves a rhetorical purpose which is "… made up of the rhetorical strategies which constitute the mode of discourse" (Trosborg, 1997, p. 15). The schematic structures of genres, although they are conventionally formulated, can vary considerably according to the social situations in which the texts are used, for example, academic essays across disciplines (Johns, 2008). It is very important for students to stay sensitive to generic variations, i.e. "that texts from genres can, and do, vary, sometimes radically, from situation to situation" (Johns, 2008, p. 241). In addition, generic

variations also may occur across cultures. On analysing sales letters written in Chinese and English, for example, Zhu (2000) identified that a pre-move greeting was used for establishing a long-term relationship between the writer and the reader in Chinese, but it is an atypical move in English.

Text type refers to an aspect of a text, and is shaped by factors of the social and cultural contexts in which genres are located (Paltridge, 2002). Every text type has its uniqueness of rhetorical features (Adam & Artemeva, 2002), the organisational or textual patterns of which reveal their rhetorical functions (Jordan, 1997). According to Jordan, the typology of text types includes descriptions, narratives, instructions, explanations, definitions, exemplifications, classifications, compare and contrast, cause and effect, discussion, and argumentation/problem-solution. The use of text types in academic settings varies significantly across disciplines (Paltridge, 2002) and within disciplinary writing tasks (Martin, 2002). Martin (2002a) illustrates the variations in linguistic features in history in terms of discipline-specific writing (at school level): personal recount and historical recount. Both comprise time sequence, but remarkably differ, in terms of the use of personal pronouns, for example, first person in personal recount and third person in historical recount.

Regardless of the difference between the concepts of genre and text types in terms of emphasising different levels of text making, the discussion above emphasises the dynamic nature of discourse, in response to recurrent situations. Existing typologies of genre and text type are based on recognisable communicative purposes and rhetorical purposes, but the conventionalised generic and linguistic features of a text have the potential to evolve and change according to social context.

The notions of context and discourse community are essential components of genre studies. Johns (1997) writes:

> "Context refers not merely to a physical place, such as a classroom, or a particular publication, such as a journal, but to all of the nonlinguistic and nontextual elements

that contribute to the situation in which reading and writing are accomplished" (p. 27).

In a writing classroom, the writing instruction, the process and strategies of students' learning and the goal of the teaching and learning share the responsibility of constituting a social learning context. Cumming (2001) proposed that context is part of the multi-faceted nature of writing, enabling students to learn different ways of tackling tasks, seek assistance from resources, gain situated knowledge, and modify new images of self in a particular social context. Casanave (1995) focused on "the importance of the local, historical, and interactive aspects of the contexts" (p. 88), suggesting that a context is a cognitive, social and cultural environment where a situated forum is constructed for meaning making through interactions among social, historical and local factors (Casanave, 1995). In a language classroom, Samraj (2002b) proposed multifaceted layers of contexts, which not only portrays the complexity of writing in academic contexts, but offers understanding of how the textual features can be shaped by a range of contextual factors. These layers of contexts are presented in Figure 1 .

Figure 1 Layers of Context (Samraj, 2002b, p. 165)
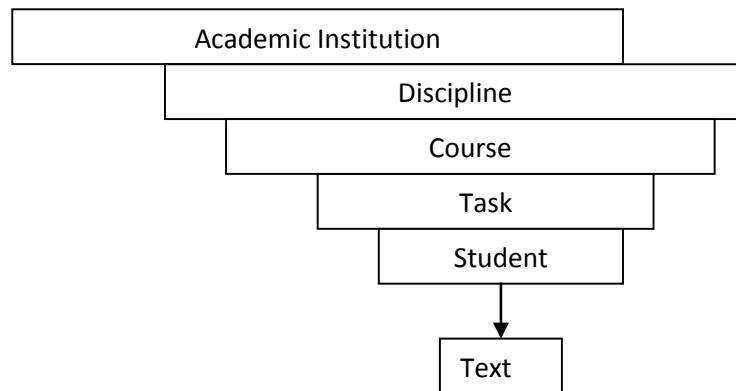
Based on Samraj's (2002b) multi-layers of context, it is important to evaluate students' final academic texts as a result of ongoing social processes of negotiation with a range of contextual factors.

In academic contexts, students are viewed as new members striving for entering

academic discourse communities, learning how the communicative purpose is achieved through the use of conventions by members of discourse communities. The concept of discourse community accounts for a group of individuals who have "shared forms, shared regulative rules and shared cultural concepts" for shared communicative purpose (Swales, 1990, p. 24). Concerning communicative needs, Swales elaborated that members of a discourse community are goal-oriented, socializing together for pursuing shared goals and developing functional linguistic behaviours. To become a new member of discourse communities, students are expected to encounter certain challenges. Prior (1995) argued more particularly that students in academic discourse communities, should be aware of the danger of becoming "academic dopes, re-encoding the abstract rules and conventions of monologic discourse" and inflexibly shuttling between communities (p. 78). As argued by Canagarajah (2002), students in a discourse community are expected to acquire new knowledge through participation rather than to learn abstract rules. In Cheng's (2007) study, it is reported that the application of ESP genre-based teaching successfully equipped L2 graduate students with the ability of recontextualising their genre awareness, fulfilling the expectations of generic features and rhetorical considerations when composing research introductions. Genre awareness is defined as "the ability to select and use an appropriate genre based on a number of factors, including the purpose of communication, the context, and the people involved" (Millar, 2011, p. 2). Likewise, Johns (2008) viewed genre awareness as "rhetorical flexibility necessary for adapting their socio-cognitive genre knowledge to ever-evolving contexts" (p. 238). It is therefore argued that the success of L2 students being initiated into academic discourse communities depends on the language being used for carrying out meanings and can be influenced by the social context where texts are used. They should be encouraged to explore how and why the texts are constructed in the way they are rather than to memorise the conventionalised patterns that are repeated frequently in the texts.

While entering into a new discourse community, L2 students may struggle and encounter levels of conflicts due to the "power-ridden" nature of discourse communities. Given that discourse communities are knowledge-making in orientation, the conventionalised discourse patterns for communication are under

the control of experts who have the power to maintain their vested interests for all members and to draw distinctive lines between insiders and outsiders. In order to be an insider of a new discourse community, L2 students are expected to undergo the process of conflict and negotiation (Canagarajah, 2002), which fosters the development of their genre awareness. However, as discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, such attention to raising awareness is overlooked in L2 writing instruction where the teaching of prescriptive rules of discourse patterns is predominantly encouraged, imposing a long list of conventions on L2 students rather than guiding them how to properly respond to the demands of rhetorical construction preferred by discourse communities in specific contexts.

In conclusion, this discussion about the genre-based view of text, context and discourse community has highlighted L2 writing as a social action where L2 writers consistently negotiate with multiple contextual factors in order to operate language in a meaningful manner to recurrent contexts of situation.

2.2.1   General Descriptions of Three Genre Schools

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and New Rhetoric (NR) are three broadly recognised genre-based approaches to the teaching of L2 writing, sharing a range of overlapping aspects of genre, but distinguished from each other, in terms of their focal points of interest and applications to the teaching of L2 writing. Hyon (1996) and Hyland (2004) have provided substantial comparative views of the three genre schools, in terms of definitions and focal points of analyses of genres, contexts and goals and pedagogical practice. Here, the three traditions of genre studies are introduced in a general sense to inform a robust theoretical framework for the present study.

SFL is interested in the "perpetual interaction between the culture and social context, and the purposes, organization, and language of texts" (Johns, 2003, p. 201), whereas the focus of ESP rests on the understanding of the ways community members achieve a certain purpose through the use of regular purposive actions (Hyland, 2007). Unlike SFL and ESP, the study of regulative linguistic forms is

less considered in NR. Instead, researchers in NR emphasise the social-cognitive perspectives that are helpful for social communications (Hyland, 2004).

SFL, often referred as the "Sydney School", has its prosperous development in Australia, initially aiming at young learners and adult migrant second language learners who knew little or nothing about the norms of mainstream culture (Johns, 2003). According to Hallidayan functional linguistics (Halliday, 1994), forms of language containing register variables are influenced by the context of situation−that is, field, tenor and mode. Field refers to social activity and what the text is about; tenor accounts for the relationship of the participants in the interaction and mode is the role of language, either in spoken or in written forms (Hyland, 2004). For example, Martin's (1993) contextual theory of language based on the analysis of the short paper on *Innovative Fisheries Management: International whaling* explicitly depicts how the linguistic choices are systematically constructed so as to have communicative goals achieved. Among "the four-part model of context" (Macken-Horarik, 2002, p. 24), it is worth noticing that the notion of tenor refers to not only the participants in the communication, but the "differential status (apprentice to expert)" and the "social distance between writer and reader" as well (p. 24). The linguistic choices imposed by the context of situation therefore are construed as purposeful.

According to Halliday (1994), language has three meta-functions, namely ideational, interpersonal and textual, which are systematically interdependent in the language system. They parallel the register of a text, and are manifested at discourse level. Ideational meta-function denotes human experience of the world, which realises field at the semantic level and is realised in the transitivity system. Interpersonal meta-function refers to interlocutors' social status and relations, which realises tenor at the semantic level and is realised in the mood system. Textual meta-function explicates the flow of information in a text, which realises mode at the semantic level, and is realised in the thematic structure, consisting of theme and rheme and cohesive components. Martin (2002b) provides a comprehensive review, reinterpreting the discourse semantics related to meta-functions, for a better understanding of Halliday's central argument, that is, the

context of situation. Bilal (2012) provides an easily readable text in the discourse analysis of the short story "Thank You Ma'am" , based on Halliday's meta-functions.

Genre in SFL is defined as the rhetorical construction that depends on the writer's social purposes in using the language (Hyland, 2004) has two subcategories that are "elemental genres" and "macro genres" (Martin, 1992 cited in Hyland, 2007, p. 153). Elemental genres refer to broad rhetorical patterns, such as narratives and expositions found in macro genres. For example, a resume (macro genre) for a job application may include narrative and argument (elemental genres). Researchers in SFL have made great contributions to describe the rhetorical functions and specific lexico-grammatical features of these elemental genres. The learning of the elemental genres of a culture can reduce the discomfort of disadvantaged students as they enter academic life and offer them the access to gain more cultural capital (Martin, 1993).

Similar to SFL, researchers in ESP also emphasise more the language than the context. As its name suggested, ESP has a long standing interest in the move analysis of academic discipline-specific writing or professional writing at the workplace. For example, John Swales's (1990) CARS Model (Create a Research Space Model) was developed to study the introduction of research articles (See Section 2.2). Influenced by Swale's (1990) pioneering work on ESP, Bhatia (1993) defines genre as "primarily characterized by the communicative purpose(s) that it is intended to fulfil. This shared set of communicative purpose(s) shapes the genre and gives it an internal structure" (p. 13). In other words, communicative purpose(s) of genres are served by the way a text is structured known as moves. Bhatia (1993) also pointed out that rhetorical strategies are employed differently according to individual writers to achieve these communicative purposes and moves. Based on the interrelationships among communicative purposes, moves and rhetorical strategies in a given genre-text, Bhatia (1993) has extended Swales' (1990) model to incorporate text-external factors into text-internal factors for genre analysis. Bhatia (1993) therefore advocated that an analysis of genres should combine "essential grammatical insights and adequate socio-cognitive and

cultural explanation" (p.1), which was illustrated by the examination of sales promotion letters and job applications in terms of communicative purpose, structural moves, flexibility in move structure and cross-cultural variation. The study of structural moves of texts and rhetorical strategies of individual writers is beneficial for understanding the ways members of a discourse community construct written discourses for a set of shared communicative purposes.

A controversial issue in relation to the application of ESP in academic contexts is that researchers have different views of the element "specificity". Adopting a narrow angle perspective, Spack (1988) argued that knowledgeable specialists should be responsible for the teaching of subject specific conventions, whereas language teachers should focus on the teaching of general features of language and rhetoric. In respond to Spack's viewpoint, Hyland (2002) noted that subject-matter specialists normally leave the job of teaching linguistic features to language teachers due to their lack of linguistic expertise and desire. Moreover, regardless of the fact that sets of linguistic features can be used commonly across disciplines, the function of communication they serve can vary considerably across discipline-specific contexts. For example, Johns (2003) suggested that it is feasible to teach undergraduate students sets of general conventions of academic writing due to the fact that a range of conventions of writing formats is shared among academic disciplinary writing. Hyland (2002) therefore urged that it is important to 'put the S back into ESP.' In line with Hyland's proposition of teaching the specificity in academic context, Huckin (2003) agreed that the notion of specificity in ESP equips students with ability for achieving communicative purposes in specific circumstances, but it is overtly associated with the potential risk of viewing ESP as a remedial approach, leaving more responsibilities to L2 writing instructors. Unlike Hyland (2002) who viewed the notion of specificity as content-based, Huckin defined it as "learner and his or her needs", encouraging the teaching of strategies rather than linguistic forms and urging the application of a wide-angle approach (p. 9). The aim of this approach is learner-centred learning in which students are expected to actively participate in the learning context. Whether or not L2 students can best be empowered through the application of Hyland's notion of ESP or Huckin's wide-angle approach, pedagogical practice has to take the role of context of teaching and learning into consideration, as discussed in Chapter 6.

NR, the third genre school, emphasises the social nature of genres, conceptualising genres "as the motivated, functional relationship between text type and rhetorical situation" (Coe, 2002, p. 195). The nature of generic structures is dynamic because it highlights ongoing negotiation with the contexts of use (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995). Unlike SFL, new rhetoricians are interested more in knowing how people know how to write and what to write although they sometimes work on textual analysis (Hyland, 2004). Berkenkotter and Huckin have developed five principles that constitute a theoretical framework:

1. Dynamism: Genres are dynamic rhetorical forms that develop from responses to recurrent situations and serve to stabilize experience and give it coherence and meaning. Genres change over time in response to their users' sociocognitive needs.

2. Situatedness: Our knowledge of genres is derived from and embedded in our participation in the communicative activities of daily and professional life. As such, genre knowledge is a form of "situated cognition," which continues to develop as we participate in the activities of culture.

3. Form and content: Genre knowledge embraces both form and content, including a sense of what content is appropriate to a particular purpose in a particular situation at a particular point in time.

4. Duality of structure: As we draw on genre rules to engage in professional activities, we constitute social structures (in professional, institutional, and organizational contexts) and simultaneously reproduce these structures.

5. Community ownership: Genre conventions signal a discourse community's norms, epistemology, ideology, and social ontology. (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1993, p. 478).

According to Berkenkotter and Huckin's (1993) sociocognitive perspective on genres, context of situation and human actions are the two main themes in the social processes of knowledge making. In other words, people engage in communicative activities conditioned by the norms and values of discourse communities; simultaneously, they constitute part of the context of situation and shape the way genres are used. "Human action, whether symbolic or otherwise, is interpretable only against a context of situation and through the attributing of

motives" (Miller, 1994, p. 24). As a result, genres are associated with the use of conventionalised form and content to achieve communicative purposes, which is mediated by both context of situation and participants involved in the communicative activities.

2.2.2 Concerns with Applications of Genre-based Approaches for Pedagogical Practice

While these three traditions of genre studies emphasise different aspects of form, context and social action, it is clear overall that the effectiveness of implementing genre-based approaches in the EFL/ESL classroom involves a consideration of the influence of a wider range of factors, like the influence of L2 students' pre-conceptualised genre theories (Johns, 2002b), avoiding adopting genre approaches as prescriptive approaches (Flowerdew, 2002) as well as making students active for learning writing (Coe, 2002). Recalling the memory of attending two international conferences (International Association of Applied Linguistics Conference in 1996 and International Genre Conference in Vancouver in 1998), Johns (2002b) was shocked that the pedagogical implication drawn from genre studies was the least discussed. The reason may be associated with the hypothesis that "there are direct contradictions between what the theoreticians and researchers continue to discover about the nature of genres and the everyday requirement of the classroom" (Johns, 2002b, p. 237). Johns argues that the main difficulty for adopting genre approaches in the language classroom is how to destabilise novice students' pre-conceptualised genre theories. Johns found that L2 students perceived the Five Paragraph Essay as the template for all types of genre writing, attempting to apply their previous high-school writing experience to learn academic writing. As a result, they felt discomfort and frustrated when they were directed towards specific academic writing genres. The conflict between L2 students' previous and current writing experiences across pedagogical contexts attracts attention to the significance of the influence of small cultures in L2 writing (See discussion in Section 2.3.1.1 on small cultures).

The influence of L2 students' academic backgrounds on the ways texts are constructed has been documented. For example, Swales & Lindemann (2002) taught international doctoral students how to write up literature review, showing that the same genre (literature review) can be constructed in different rhetorical modes by students who are from a range of disciplines for achieving the same purpose. Some students preferred problem-solution rhetorical patterns and some favoured general-specific rhetorical patterns. It is therefore claimed that the academic or disciplinary background of the students is an important factor for the construction of rhetorical modes; however, their pre-conceptualised genre theories are likely to be subtly reshaped or modified through appropriate modelling or peer discussions (Swales & Lindemann, 2002).

In addition, it has also been noted that the teaching of rhetorical structures of texts based on genre approaches can lead to prescriptive approaches or a grammar translation method. As noticed by Feez (2002), "when teachers first applied genre pedagogy, many superimposed the paradigms of the grammar-translation and structural approaches onto descriptions of text structure and language features" (p. 69). Teachers who favour SFL or ESP/EAP approaches may easily fall into the trap of falling back on a grammar-translation approach, for the primary focus of SFL and ESP/EAP approaches is "discourse structure and features" (Hyland, 2004, p. 50). According to Kay & Dudley-Evans (1998), the adoption of genre-based teaching approaches for the teaching of conventionalised linguistic features of texts may face the potential risk of disempowering the learners.

Nevertheless, learners can be empowered if writing instructors can raise their sensitiveness to "generic variation" found in "different text types from the same genres to across different genres" (Flowerdew, 2002, p. 102). As suggested by Bhatia (2002), some genres have similar generic structures across disciplines in EAP programme, but are slightly different, in terms of lexical choices. Such generic variations should be made explicit to students for not only avoiding the learning of formulae, but also increasing their knowledge of genres. For example, Samraj (2002a) demonstrated the generic variations of the abstract between the fields of wildlife behaviour and conservation biology, arguing that "this

systematic comparison of texts from the same genre but different disciplines has increased our understanding of the influence of genre and discipline on text structure" (Samraj, 2002a, p. 54). Different from Samraj's case, Pang (2002) adopted textual analysis and contextual awareness-building approaches to teach students how to write film reviews. The results showed that the teaching of lexico-grammatical features of texts increased learners' confidence of producing the same genre and they also utilised their schema of rhetorical knowledge to write in similar contexts. According to Samraj (2002a) and Pang (2002), it is suggested that although the acquisition of rhetorical structure is always the target of writing instruction in the language classroom, the implementation of genre-based approaches has positive effect on learners' awareness of the similarities and differences of rhetorical structures of genre writing within and across disciplines.

Among the three traditions of genre studies, NR approaches might be the least adopted for pedagogical purposes in academic contexts due to the fact that genres are seen as "textual tools, exploited for social, and sometimes hegemonic, purposes within communities by knowledgeable experts" (Johns, 2002a, p. 9). However, Coe's (2002) experience of having his university-level students write political briefs displayed a successful example. Conceptualising genre as "socially established strategies for achieving purposes in rhetorical situations" (p. 198), Coe argued that NR approaches can empower students with rhetorical flexibility for dealing with a wider range of writing tasks in their future lives. In the pursuit of raising students' awareness that every piece of writing has its rhetorical situation shaped by its purpose, Coe attempted to empower students' genre knowledge by offering them freedom for the selection of topic and rhetorical situation when the genre writing *political briefs* was assigned. In the writing process, students were actively negotiating and constructing rhetorical structure of their texts for achieving different purposes. The experience of writing political briefs made students "understand generic structures as rhetorical strategies and genres as social processes" (p. 207).

Coe's (2002) experience is viewed as a positive force to quell the critique that NR approaches have weaker pedagogical implications in comparison to SFL and ESP

approaches. Nevertheless, Coe's successful experience may display some contextual constraints, such as teachers' genre knowledge and L2 writers' English proficiency. The majority of English writing teachers in ESL or EFL contexts in general are specialised in academic writing (exposition, argumentative writing) or in specific disciplinary writing (business, engineering) so that they may have little knowledge about genres that they rarely come across within academic contexts. Coe's writing course "is defined not only as "'advanced,'" but also by its focus on preparing students for non-academic writing, for the worldly writing tasks they will face after graduation" (p. 203). The non-academic writing refers to those commonly used in the real world for specific communicative purposes which may not be taught in educational contexts, like political briefs in Coe's (2002) study. To manipulate these genres, the demands of writers' English proficiency are quite high because rhetorical situations are complex, fluid and negotiated in the process of social actions. Without acknowledging the influence of multiple factors on generic features, the application of NR approaches to students who are at beginning or intermediate levels may have a counterproductive effect. However, NR remains a useful source of ideas for research, as discussed in the next section.

Recently, the integration of genre approaches with other pedagogical approaches has been the innovative fashion for teaching writing. Badger & White (2000) proposed a process genre approach where the reciprocal relationship between text and context is highlighted. They created a replicated context of situation in which learners were encouraged to use their knowledge of form and content of genres to fulfil the communicative purposes. According to these authors, this process-genre approach could increase learners' knowledge of language use in situational context and raise their awareness of the interrelationship between the register and the meta-functions of language (Badger & White, 2000). Similarly, to recognise the dynamic and interactive nature of process genre writing approach, Yan (2005) devised pedagogical sequences to exercise a combined approach, which includes preparation, modelling and reinforcing, planning, joint constructing, independent constructing and revising. Each stage has its distinct aims. For example, the stage of preparation intends to evoke learners' internalised schemata of the targeted genre, such as its pronounced structural features. Firkins et al. (2007)

acknowledged the success of adopting genre approach combined with activity-based pedagogical approach for teaching writing to low proficiency EFL students, but raised the concern that it is time consuming due to the fact that learners always need more time to familiarise themselves with the taught language skills and practice vocabulary.

2.2.3   Justification for Adopting Genre-based Theoretical Frameworks

The present study investigates how L2 writers construct generic structures and rhetorical features in particular genre writing in L1 and L2. In other words, it explores how L2 writers make use of texts for communication in contexts of situation. Each of the three main schools of genre studies has provided insightful information in terms of the goals of the present study. First of all, SFL has informed the present study through the understanding that genre is a meaningful social activity embedded in the function of language. The choices of semantic and lexico-grammatical features of discourse are intimately linked to context of situation. In this regard, text and context are inseparable entities. The present study investigates two groups of writers' writing in L1 and L2 in terms of generic structures and rhetorical features. One group produced argumentative writing as an in-class activity, whilst the other group worked on letters of job application as a homework assignment. The purpose of the writing tasks is to study the influence of contextual factors on writers' choice of textual form and content in genre writing in L1 and L2. According to Samraj (2002b, See Figure 1), there are multiple layers of context. Language variables in genre writing in the classroom thus are associated with an individual's writing experiences across tasks, courses, disciplines and institutions. When the writing task is carried out outside the classroom, a wider range of contextual factors become accessible. Such a comparison allows the present study to understand how contextual factors shape L2 writers' construction of textual form and content.

Secondly, ESP has a strong impact on the analytical framework of the present study. The typology of genres in the ESP approach is based on communicative purpose served by move structure. In the present study, a letter of job application

and argumentative writing are used to investigate L2 writers' construction of textual structure. A structural description of a job letter consists of source of information, application for the position, arguments (applicants' background, and benefits for the hiring company and the applicants), desire for an interview, expressions of politeness at the end, additional information and résumé (Upton & Connor, 2001, See Table 4 in Section 3.4.1.1.1). In argumentative writing, Hyland (1990) proposed three stages of argumentative writing, including thesis stage−introducing the proposition to be argued, argument stage−discussing grounds for thesis and conclusion stage−synthesising discussion and affirming the validity of thesis (See Table 7 in Section 3.4.1.2.1). These ESP ideas are used here for analysing writers' letters of job application and argumentative writing in L1 and L2, in terms of generic structures.

Thirdly, influenced by NR, recognition of the dynamism of genres has shifted the focus of the present study from text to social processes of ongoing negotiation between text, writer and context. The interrelationships between these elemental components are complex and dynamic. They are complex because they are inseparable from one another in communicative activities. They are dynamic because genre is a social action where writers constantly shape their rhetorical strategies in response to recurrent social events. In other words, the writer is seen as a communicative medium, through which the reciprocal relationship between text and context is established. The focus on writers' influence on the textual form and content in response to recurrent social events is brought into prominence in the present study. Participants involved the present study are writers who have writing experiences in L1 and L2. The cross-cultural influence on textual form and content should be examined when genre theories are applied to L2 writers. It is because the use of rhetorical strategies by L2 writers to communication is not only shaped by the context of situation where writing activities take place, but also influenced by the writing knowledge they accumulated in L1.

Genre is a powerful approach for understanding the complexity of writing and has prominent influences on pedagogical practices. Yet, researchers in genre studies

have done little to explore the influences of L2 writers' L1 cultural background on textual construction. SFL has extensively studied the functional aspects of language in its context of situation. A few researchers in ESP have touched lightly on cross-cultural variation of rhetorical strategies within the construction of steps, for example, Bhatia's (1993) discussion about cross-cultural differences in letters of job application. NR, though it has emphasised the dynamism of genres, has not been commonly or effectively applied to contexts where English is taught and used as a second or foreign language. In other words, the influence of L2 writers' cultural background on the form and content conditioned by the norms and values of communities has not been explored. In light of limited knowledge about cultural influences within a genre-based framework, the present study argues that it is necessary to explore how writers' rhetorical functions in L2 writing are affected by their L1 culture. The cultural influence here is not constrained to ethnic or national perspectives, but interpreted in a broad sense, including the influence of contextual factors.

The discussion about cultural influence on L2 writing is the core of contrastive rhetoric studies. The following discussion presents basic tenets of contrastive rhetoric studies, controversial issues and intercultural rhetoric as a new direction for expanding the scope of traditional contrastive rhetoric studies.

2.3   Contrastive Rhetoric Research

The most frequently cited study in contrastive rhetoric (CR) research is Kaplan's (1966) study. Having the pedagogical intentions to come up with solutions for the difficulties college students who learned English as a second language (ESL) encountered as they wrote English academic essay, Kaplan (1966) undertook a textual analysis, comparing the texts written by ESL students with those produced by native English speakers in terms of paragraph organisation and came up with the conclusion that students who come from different cultural backgrounds display different cultural rhetorical practices in L2 writing.

According to Kaplan, native English students show linear development of paragraph organisation in texts, while those who have the tendency of delaying the main ideas to the middle or the end of their texts belong to Oriental languages, such as Chinese, Japanese, Thai, and Korean. In addition to the dichotomy of linearity and circularity, Kaplan argues that students who speak Semitic languages tend to use parallel coordinate clauses and those who speak either Romance languages or Russian always resort to digressiveness. It is then concluded that "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, and that part of the learning of a particular language is the mastering of its logical system" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 14). Due to the cross-cultural variation of rhetorical preference, the difficulty L2 students display while writing their English essays may be attributed to the influence of L1 rhetorical conventions on L2 writing that is always interpreted as interference (Grabe & Kaplan, 1989).

Liu (2011) claims that the definition of rhetoric in Kaplan's work is limited and his views of the relationship between L1 and L2 are deterministic. Casanave (2004) claims that rhetoric is conceptualised as discourse-level organisational patterns in applied linguistics literature. The discourse structure in writing can be equal to the creation of individual arguments by arranging the lexical and syntactic constituents logically and meaningfully (McDaniel, 1994). Compared with such views, Kaplan's definition of rhetoric realised in the organisation of paragraphs of a text can be seen as relatively narrow.

Another limitation of Kaplan's work is concerned with an essentialist view of cultures between L1 and L2, perceiving culture as a static object. In fact, the influence of writers' first cultural background on the construction of rhetorical conventions in L2 writing is a controversial issue in CR research. First of all, it subscribes to the claimed positive interrelationship between one's native language and thought patterns known as the Whorfian hypothesis. From this viewpoint, L2 students showed viewpoints on the world in texts that differed markedly from their English counterparts due to the interrelation among languages, mind and reality. In other words, it is a perspective that a person's thought and perception are controlled by his native language, thus impeding the second language

acquisition (Connor, 1996). However, this argument is said to "be too extreme and unprovable" by Casanave (2004, p. 29). Casanave (2004) contends that to judge writers' thought patterns based on analysing their writing is simplistic. By contrast, the opinion that the way people think is influenced by their native languages is more reasonable and acceptable for interpreting the relationship between mind and language (Hunt & Agnoli, 1991).

Secondly, the shared knowledge of the subject matter between the reader and the writer also affects the comprehension of written discourse even though it is characterised by different rhetorical styles (McCagg, 1996). For example, Hinds (1987) suggests that Japanese-specific rhetorical structure *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* is a reader-responsible prose style, whereas English rhetoric is writer-responsible, accounting for the writers' responsibility to create coherence and cohesion of the texts and to guide the reader to follow the flow of arguments. Due to the different expectations of rhetorical structures across cultures, it is assumed that readers would have difficulties for following the development of writers' thoughts if the text is written with a rhetorical structure that is different from that of their L1 cultural background. Nevertheless, McCagg (1996) argues that texts from a Japanese newspaper used in Hinds' (1987) study were written specifically for Japanese audience; therefore, readers who do not have the contextual knowledge would suffer pain from reading with little comprehension, regardless of rhetorical differences. The expectations of rhetorical structures of genres are not universally shared, but contextually influenced.

Kubota (1998) also questions the legitimacy of viewing *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* as Japanese traditional rhetoric in academic contexts. According to Kubota, many Japanese scholars do not tend to use the cultural-specific structure *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* and many Japanese students claim that it is rarely taught in school. Kubota claimed that the *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* appeared only in a small number of writing samples, while the deductive style was adopted by the majority, based on the study of 46 Japanese students' writing. Instead of echoing Hind's (1987) view of culture-specific rhetorical conventions, Kubota stresses that ESL students'

performance on their L2 writing is affected by other factors, such as their ability in L1 writing, L2 proficiency or their writing experience in L2 (Kubota, 1998).

McCagg's (1996) promotion of the importance of shared knowledge and Kubota's (1998) awareness of the influence of writers' language proficiency and writing practices have weakened the claims about the direct influence of writers' L1 cultural background on the construction of rhetorical convention and highlighted the significance of the influence of contextual factors. It is suggested that the final product is not the result of simply projecting the rhetorical tradition of the writers' L1 cultures, but of a social process of writers' negotiation with the social contexts where the texts are composed and used.

Thirdly, the claim that the construction of rhetorical conventions is part of cultural heritage becomes untenable in the eyes of Mohan & Lo (1985) and Kirkpatrick (1997). The findings of Mohan & Lo's study contrasted with Kaplan's (1966) early work by proposing that there is no remarkable difference in Chinese and English writing in terms of organisational pattern due to the influence of developmental factors and composition practices. Without receiving proper writing instruction and pedagogical practice, NES (native English speakers) also have difficulties in developing logical arguments at the discourse level in English writing. The notion of developmental factors therefore sheds light on the importance of adequate writing instruction on the acquisition and development of knowledge of rhetorical conventions across cultures. For example, Yang & Cahill (2008) report that effective English writing instruction has equipped Chinese students with the ability of producing English expository writing as nearly deductively as their American counterparts; moreover, they also tend to transfer the new knowledge of rhetorical conventions to their Chinese writing, indicating fluidity and transmutation of cultures in nature as in the yin-yang schema (Li, 2008). According to Li,

> "In that scheme, although yin and yang are distinctly different and oppositional to each other, they are not separated by a razor sharp line; they are intertwined, curving into each other's sphere. Yin is found deep in the greatest citadel of yang, and yang in yin's. When tipped, yin can be transmuted into yang, and yang into yin" (2008, p. 16-17).

In this regard, cross-cultural differences of rhetoric are not static entities, irrelevant to each other, but dynamic in nature due to the mediation of developmental factors.

2.3.1   Multiplicity of Rhetoric and Dynamism of Culture in CR

According to the preceding discussion about limitations of Kaplan's work, it is argued that the perspective on rhetoric and culture in CR is simplistic without considering the influence of context. In order to have a better understanding of these two themes, multiplicity of rhetoric and dynamism of culture are emphasised in the present study. In her article *Contrastive Rhetoric: An American Writing Teacher in China*, Matalene (1985) defines the concept of rhetoric as follows:

> "If we define rhetoric as a way of thinking about the relationships that exist among speaker, subject matter, purpose, and audience, then we might think of rhetoric as the verbal equivalent of ecology, the study of the relationships that exist between an organism and its environment. Both rhetoric and ecology are disciplines that emphasize the inescapable and, to a great extent, decisive influence of local conditions" (p. 785).

The central argument in Matalene's perspective on rhetoric indicates that the nature of writing involves bilateral communications on the subject matter between the writer and the audience through the medium of written languages, the effectiveness of which is constrained by some contextual factors. In this regard, the definition of rhetoric is similar to the perspective of genre theories (See e.g., Johns, 2008), seeing rhetoric not as a static object, but a communicative bridge between the writer and the reader, the construction of which thoroughly depends upon communicative purposes within a particular social context. Consequently, rhetoric in the present study refers to the construction of writers' flow of thoughts at the syntactic and lexico-grammatical levels to exhibit the ways they deal with communicative purposes in a particular place and time. For L2 writers, their rhetoric strategies in a text are influenced or mediated not only by the constraints of immediate contextual factors, but also the influence of wider L1 cultural background. They therefore are expected to learn and understand the operations of rhetorical practices in one's own culture and other cultures. The sociocultural

view of rhetoric is to claim that the influence of cultures is captured not only at the paragraph level, but also across the text as a whole.

Similarly, Kirkpatrick (1997) proposes that traditions of rhetoric in a culture are shaped and influenced by a range of factors. Kirkpatrick traced historical origins and developments of *ba gu wen* structure and *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* structure, rejecting their influence upon the structure of Chinese contemporary writing. More importantly, the influence of Western culture, since the May 4 Movement of 1919, has immensely permeated through Chinese culture. It is suggested that the influence of Western culture may be much stronger and more powerful than those of traditional prose styles upon the textual organisations of English essays of Chinese students, as evidenced in the use of English rhetorical structures in their Chinese writing (Yang & Cahill, 2008). Therefore, Kubota (1997) promotes the notion of multiplicity of rhetoric, suggesting that the construction of rhetorical conventions in writing is influenced by multiple factors rather than solely determined by writers' cultural backgrounds.

With regard to the definition of culture in CR, it is problematic that L2 students who are from the same L1 cultural background are viewed as culturally homogeneous due to the overlooking of dynamism of cultures and idiosyncratic characteristics. Matsuda (1997) proposes "a dynamic model of L2 writing" to visualise the relationship between the essential elements in L2 writing, as shown in Figure 2 (p. 52).

Figure 2 The Dynamic Model of L2 Writing
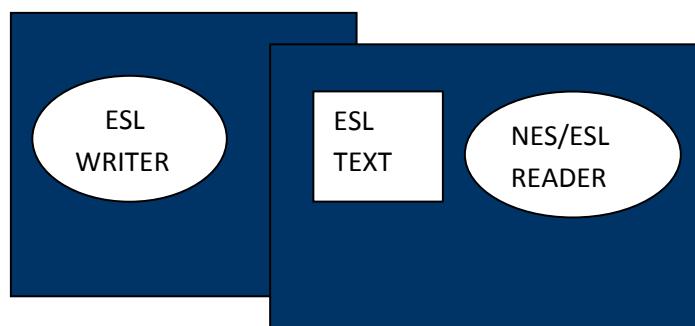
According to Matsuda, the dynamic model of L2 writing includes both the writer and the reader along with their backgrounds, the dark areas that account for the backgrounds of the writer and the reader, and the text itself. The context of writing offers a dynamic environment, in which the text functions as communicative bridge where the encounter of the writer and the reader occurs. There are four significant features in the dynamic model of L2 writing. First, it is suggested that it is difficult to define the writers' L1 cultural background. It is asserted that even if two writers are from the same backgrounds, there is no guarantee that they share the same writing experiences or the same perspective on rhetorical conventions (See discussion in Section 2.3.1.1 below on 'small' versus 'large' cultures). Secondly, the notion of "the shared discourse community" is revised in the dynamic model of L2 writing, referring to the space surrounding the text, which acts as "mechanisms of intercommunication among its members" (Swales, 1990, p. 25)－the writer and the reader. According to Matsuda (1997), the area of the shared discourse community can be modified to be larger or smaller, depending on how the different levels of discourse expertise and different backgrounds of the writer and the reader are interrelated. Thirdly, the bi-directionality of the interrelationship among its elements is another salient feature of the dynamic model of L2 writing (Matsuda, 1997). Precisely speaking, the interaction of the different backgrounds of the writer and the reader results in not only the creation of the shared discourse community, but the transformation of the writer's background as well. It denotes that the writer, while writing, should be sensitive to the rhetorical and discourse conventions preferred by readers and code them into the text to show his/her consideration about their expectations and to demonstrate the rhetorical knowledge of genre writing in the shared discourse community. Finally, arguments about the prioritisation of the norm of English writing can be considerably reduced because both NES and ESL readers are included in the dynamic model of L2 writing. More importantly, it is worth noting that the repertoire of rhetorical structure of the writer can evolve from the negotiation with the rhetorical conventions the reader expects across social contexts.

Along with Matsuda's (1997) dynamic model of L2 writing, it is therefore assumed that the perspective of cultural homogeneity is blurring and weak because it seemingly ignores the dynamic nature of culture itself. "Culture is an elusive construct that shifts over time and according to who is perceiving and interpreting it" (Harklau, 1999, p.110). It is explicit that culture is not static nor can it be bound to any particular places and time. Conversely, culture is in flux and can be embodied through individual interactions or communications with other people who could differ from each other in terms of individual behaviours or identity and membership of a group (Scollon & Scollon, 2001). Spack (1997) points out that it is problematic to view L2 students as a culturally homogenous group based on their L1 cultural background. The notion of cultural homogeneity ignores other variables that L2 students bring with them while writing in English, such as their writing experiences, intentions for learning, L2 language proficiency and schematic knowledge of the subject matter.

2.3.1.1 Large Cultures and Small Cultures

In order to make sense of the context of situation and its influence on L2 writing, several researchers (Holliday, 1999; Holliday et al., 2004; and Atkinson, 2004) have proposed a useful distinction between what they term "large cultures" and "small cultures". In his discussion of the complexity of culture and how it relates to contrastive rhetoric studies, Atkinson (2004) emphasises the crucial role of small cultures, which interact with large cultures complexly in EFL settings. According to Atkinson (2004), large cultures account for "big-picture political groupings like nation states and ethnic communities" (p. 280), whilst small cultures include student culture, youth culture, classroom culture and professional culture. The interactions between these cultural forces may contribute to the complexity of writers' cultural thoughts, and their realisation in textual forms. Atkinson's perspective on culture in L2 writing has a vital role for interpreting the results of textual analysis in this study.

Large cultures in this study are thus viewed as national or ethnic cultures, such as "Western Anglophile nationalities (U.S., Australian, Canadian) and Confucian-influenced Eastern culture" (Wu & Rubin, 2000, p. 148), which may lead to some differences of rhetorical conventions across languages and cultures such as those claimed by e.g. Kaplan (1966). For example, Wu & Rubin (2000) compared and contrasted rhetorical features in argumentative essays written by U.S. students and Taiwanese students, suggesting that U.S. students' texts were characterised with individualism, whilst Taiwanese students showed a higher level of collectivism. The influence of large cultures on rhetorical construction may apply across genres. For example Zhu (2000), while analysing sales letters written in English and Chinese, found that Chinese letters were characterised with moves that seek to establish a long-term relationship with the reader, which tends to be atypical in English letters. Although many studies have cautioned that large cultures are associated with essentialism, viewing culture as product and overlooking other variables in L2 writing (e.g., Mohan & Lo, 1985, Spack, 1997), large cultures may be viewed as cultural resources, which may allow writers to become sensitised to preferred rhetorical features in different cultures.

However, one-sided attention to the essential features of a particular group (ethnic, national or international), i.e. to large cultures, leads to the neglect of the influence of small cultures on the construction of rhetorical conventions. According to Holliday (1999), they are not subordinate to large cultures and should be viewed as a heuristic device for better understanding and interpretations of behaviours of any social groups. Atkinson (2004) proposes that it is worth investigating the influence of small cultures, such as classroom culture, individual experiences and so on, on the ways L2 students make their rhetorical decisions in L2 writing. Researchers interested in the role of small cultures particularly emphasise writer-related factors, such as writers' L1/L2 writing expertise, L1/L2 language proficiency, familiarity with topic (Mohan & Lo, 1985) and "individual writers' agency reflected in their intentions and preferences" (Kubota & Lehner, 2004, p. 12). Small cultures, whilst large cultures are associated with essentialism, tend to be dynamic and may be constantly changing across social contexts. For example, in EFL settings, writers' writing expertise, language proficiency and writing

experiences with different topics may develop gradually when writers are consistently involved in various writing tasks. In a broad sense, globalisation results in intracultural variation in the texts written by cultural groupings of writers, as seen for example in the emergence of an individualistic tendency in Taiwanese students' English argumentative writing (Wu & Rubin, 2000). Kubota & Lehner (2004) suggested that "individual learners are exposed to and bring with them multiple forms of language and rhetoric, with the result that their writing performances and views of writing are unlikely to be permanently static" (p. 20).

The interrelationship between small cultures and large cultures is important as it directs the focus of this study to the social process of writers' negotiation with writing context beyond textual forms. The investigation of the influences of multiple cultural forces on rhetorical decisions inside and outside EFL settings has emphasised the role of writers who activate the interrelationships between the text, the writer and the context in L2 writing. It also encourages the comparison of rhetorical features produced in different social contexts. In formal EFL settings, writers are trained to follow specific instructions about how and what to write and may be constrained by limited time to deal with assigned writing tasks. Therefore, rhetorical patterns produced in EFL settings may be more predictable, as writers may barely activate their existing internalised store of forms of rhetoric and negotiate with new knowledge acquired from pedagogical practices (See Chapter 4). By contrast, while outside formal EFL settings, writers need to make rhetorical decisions by themselves, which may result in more varied rhetorical patterns in the texts. The influence of small cultures may become greater than that of large cultures as the interactions between writers and contexts vary across individual writers (See Chapter 5).

The discussion about multiplicity of rhetoric and dynamism of culture in CR is important for the present study for the following reasons. First of all, it is important to realise that cultural influence on textual features is not constrained to paragraph organisation, but takes place also at the syntactic and the lexico-grammatical level (See e.g., McDaniel, 1994). In other words, the investigation of cultural influence on L2 writers' textual features in the present study includes not

only paragraph organisation, but also other perspectives on textual form. Secondly, it is problematic to apply an essentialist view of cultures to interpret the results of textual analysis because of the dynamism of cultures and the involvement of multiple factors. Atkinson's (2004) notion of large cultures and small cultures is useful for studying the interplay of different cultural influences on textual structures effectively. Thirdly, a link between text and writer has been emphasised in contrastive rhetoric research, which has traditionally used textual features to study similarity and difference of rhetoric conventions across cultures. However, subsequent studies documenting both cross-cultural similarity and variability in rhetorical conventions have implicitly suggested that the interpretation of the relationship between text and writer is less culturally biased if the influence of both large and small cultural contexts is considered. The interrelationship between these elemental components in L2 writing based on Matsuda's (1997) dynamic model of L2 writing is adopted in the present study.

2.3.2   Shifted Focus: Text-based to Context-sensitive as the New Direction of CR Research

Culture still remains a controversial topic in CR research, but as noted in the discussion above, the focal point has moved from the influence of large cultures to small cultures (Atkinson, 2004). This has led subsequent CR studies to pay more attention to the influence of social contexts on the construction of rhetorical conventions. In other words, CR research has moved from text-based to context-based (Connor, 2004b).

Connor (2004a) states that contrastive rhetoric research over the past forty years has often been criticised because the cross-cultural analysis of textual structures based on writers' behaviours has tended to view culture as static. The initial intention of Kaplan's (1966) work was pedagogical in orientation, offering implications for teaching L2 writing based on the assumption of linguistic and cultural differences across cultures. The notion of culture is viewed as static and not in flux because of the presumed cultural homogeneity of L2 students. In subsequent contrastive rhetoric research, however, it is noted that the nature of

culture remains no longer static, but is rather dynamic and fluid, as illustrated above Matsuda's (1997) dynamic model of L2 writing and Atkinson's (2004) typology of cultures.

Given the current state of contrastive rhetoric research and its ongoing interest in relationships between linguistic norms and cultural values across cultures, the new term intercultural rhetoric research is proposed. As Connor (2004b) points out:

> "Changing definitions of written discourse analysis — from text-based to context sensitive — and of culture — from static to dynamic — contribute to the changing focus of intercultural rhetoric research, a new term that better reflects the dynamic nature of the areas of study" (p. 302).

In order to study how the discourse organisation of written product is shaped by any given social context, Connor (2008) proposes that postmodern mapping methods can be appropriately adapted in intercultural rhetoric research. This framework encompasses three maps, which are not exclusive mutually, but rather closely overlapped. The first map regards writing as socially constructed, calling for a need to examine the social surroundings beyond the text. The second map laid over the first map draws attention to the perspective of small cultures, such as student culture, interacting with cultural features of writing. The third map laid over the first two maps distinguished "intercultural vs. cross-cultural communication" (Connor, 2008, p. 309). The cross-cultural communication has its value "for the understanding of language universals as well as for the enhancement of interethnic communication" (p. 309), whereas intercultural communication investigates how individuals adopt the styles in interethnic communication that deviate from their L1 culture and language norms. It is therefore summarised that "these new models consider the complexities of production and consumption of writing, complexities of multiple intergroup and intragroup behaviours, and the face-to-face interaction of much of today's writing" (p. 312).

The new label 'intercultural rhetoric research' has been discussed by Li (2008) and Matsuda & Atkinson (2008). According to Li (2008), contrastive rhetoric

researchers should consider different supplemental research approaches due to the fact that writing is socially constituted and "each situation may entail special consideration to audience, to purposes, and to level of perfection, and correspondingly may require varying amounts of revision, collaboration, and attention to detail" (p. 3). In addition to scrutinising differences of rhetorical practices across cultures, it is worth studying how individuals formulate their own discourse meaningfully in a specific context. Meanwhile, it is also cautioned that although culture remains important in intercultural rhetoric, our understanding of how cultures influence a writer's writing process or product is too vague to reach the conclusion that culture is the deterministic variable in L2 writing.

Matsuda & Atkinson (2008) discuss the future possibilities and implications of the new term intercultural rhetoric. They are specifically concerned by the "inter" of intercultural because there are two potential problems in relation to the new label. One is that it may mislead researchers to scrutinise either "the interaction of two different rhetorical traditions" or "something like an interlanguage" (p, 283), while the other indicates that "everything exists in an in-between space" (p. 285). They argued that the new term intercultural rhetoric, despite the divergence of literal explanations for the part "inter," has its heuristic value, attempting to move the direction of contrastive rhetoric forward to investigating how the contextual variables, such as individual factors or context of tasks, are connected to textual analysis. One direction for intercultural rhetoric can be "the study of discourses in contact" (p. 295). For instance, as a writer is acquainted with knowledge of different rhetorical practices, how does it shape his own rhetorical practices when he/she writes in his/her L1 language? Specifically, it is worth studying how L2 writers negotiate with the different expectations of rhetorical conventions across cultures and social contexts.

Intercultural rhetoric is prioritised over contrastive rhetoric in the present study, as the term is better suited for the interpretation of L2 writing as a social, contextual, cultural and rhetorical communication. Despite the fact that contrastive rhetoric research has made prominent contributions to the understanding of similarities and differences in rhetorical traditions across large cultures, it has studied little

about the influence of immediate contextual factors (i.e. small cultures) on textual features. L2 writing as a social activity, the central argument of intercultural rhetoric research, is therefore expected to revitalise contrastive rhetoric research.

2.4   Writers' Agency within the Relationship between Text and Context

As discussed above, it is writers who construct the meaning of textual forms based on the knowledge of rhetorical conventions, intentions and perceptions they bring to the writing activity as well as on their interaction with contexts, including pedagogic input. Writers' agency is therefore central to understanding the writing process, even in instructional settings. Here, it is understood as the interaction between internal forces (writers' knowledge of rhetorical conventions, intentions and perceptions) and external forces (social contexts), which makes the social practices of L2 writing meaningful and purposeful.

In EFL settings, there has often been only limited acknowledgement of novice writers' agency. However, one indirect manifestation of writers' agency is shown by evidence that L2 writers commonly transfer their knowledge of rhetorical conventions across writing tasks in L1 and L2. Kobayashi & Rinnert (2008), Connor & Mayberry (1996), and Uysal (2008) have investigated this transfer of rhetorical structures in L1 and L2 writing. To study the impact of pedagogical instruction on text construction in L1 (Japanese) and/or L2 (English) essay writing, Kobayashi & Rinnert (2008) undertook an exploratory study where 28 first-year Japanese university students were given intensive training on L1 and/or L2 essay writing. The overall findings showed that bidirectional transfer of writing skills occurred within the group of students who had both L1 and L2, and L1 only intensive training, whereas the group of students who had only L2 intensive training did not show any evidence of L2 writing rhetorical structures, such as a position statement and a counter-argument, in their L1 essays.

Connor & Mayberry (1996) did an exploratory study with the aim of investigating the influence of writer's "native culture and language on second language (L2) acquisition, specifically those aspects of the culture reflected in rhetorical conventions" (p. 231). One of their findings suggested that a range of rhetorical constructions used by Finnish graduate students in English writing are prototypical of Finnish writing, such as "the absence of thematic clarification" (p. 248). It is thus implied that without L2 writing instruction, L2 writers have the tendency of doing one-way transfer from their L1 to L2 writing, in particular for aspects of rhetorical conventions.

In contrast to one-way transfer from L1 to L2 writing, Uysal (2008) claims that there is strong evidence of bidirectional transfer in L1 and L2 essay writing. Uysal conducted a study among eighteen Turkish native speaker adults who formed a heterogeneous group, in terms of their English proficiency. The results of Uysal's (2008) study tended to be more complex than those of Kobayashi & Rinnert (2008) and Connor & Mayberry (1996). Uysal argued that there is evidence of both one-way transfer and bidirectional transfer in L1 and L2 essay writing. For example, the "frequent use of transition signalling" may be the evidence of one-way transfer from English to Turkish, whereas "the separate example paragraph patterns and having obscure and collections of topic sentences" may be the evidence of one-way transfer from Turkish to English. More importantly, "overall organizational patterns and coherence" may illustrate the existence of bidirectional transfer across languages (p. 195).

In addition, direct transfer of lexical items or syntactical structures is the writing strategy used most frequently by less proficient L2 writers. As shown in Wang & Wen's (2002) study, less proficient Chinese students used Chinese more frequently to generate ideas and organise text in English essays than those who are more L2 proficient. Liu & Braine (2005) found that Chinese L2 writers have difficulties with cohesive devices and markers in English essays, like lexical devices, citations of references and conjunctives, because they literally transferred Chinese words and sentences into English. These behaviours can be explained from a perspective of writer agency, as novice writers trying to compensate for

their limited level of L2 proficiency (a small culture feature). However, the transfer of rhetorical structures and linguistic features is problematic when "the discourse practices L2 writers are expected to reproduce clash with what they know, believe and value in their L1 writing" (Steinman, 2003, p. 80). In order to avoid the risk of such experiencing cultural collisions, Steinman suggested that L2 writers could benefit from discussing the similarities and differences of conventions of written discourse in L1 and L2 as well as sharing their L1 writing experience with peers.

Salomon & Perkins (1989) state that near transfer and far transfer are two major categories of the transfer of learning, depending on the similarities and differences of the contexts and texts. Near transfer is known as low-road transfer, referring to "automatic triggering of well-learned behaviour", whist far transfer is associated with high-road transfer, accounting for "intentional mindful abstraction" (Salomon & Perkins, 1989, p. 113). For example, James's (2010) article showed that English-for-specific-academic-purposes (ESAP) can more readily lead to near transfer and English-for-general-academic-purposes (EGAP) is associated with far transfer. To investigate if learning outcomes of L2 students made in the EGAP instruction can be transferred to different contexts and texts, James conducted a case study, together with semi-structured interviews and the collection of students' written works. James suggested that L2 students who had EGAP instruction transferred parts of learning outcomes to other different writing contexts and texts, i.e. showed greater writer agency. However, this was also influenced by a range of factors, such as disciplines and writing tasks. For example, L2 students who are in the Humanities or the Social Sciences transferred more frequently than those in the Natural Science. Rhetorical organisation was the most frequently transferred category of learning outcome. As a result, it was inferred that the nature of transfer is complex and the development of learner agency in transfer depends upon a range of factors (here seen as aspects of small cultures), such as individual needs for learning and learning contexts (James, 2010).

The importance of the discussion above is that it must be "the students who are empowered to make rhetorical decisions according to what they believe to be best for their writing" (Kobayashi, 2005, p. 66). To highlight the importance of writers' agency within the reciprocal relationship between text and context is one of the main themes in the present study. Tardy (2006), while carefully examining L1 and L2 genre writing between practice-based and instructional contexts, argued that a wide range of factors affect the development of one's genre knowledge, and consequently agency as a writer, including writing instructional experiences, textual modelling, composing strategies and transferability. Tardy therefore called for further studies as to how the same writers write when traversing different social domains. Along with Kobayashi's (2005) and Tardy's (2006) general emphasis on the importance of writers' agency, it is important to view L2 writers as individual agents because of individual writing experiences. This will help our understanding of individual variation and creativity in textual forms produced in a given social context.

2.5   Necessity of Integrating Intercultural Rhetoric Research into Genre Theories

The preceding discussion about theoretical frameworks of genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research aims at providing a framework for the present study. Based on similarities and differences in rationale between these two influential theories in L2 writing, it is a necessary to integrate intercultural rhetoric into genre theories, in order to achieve a comprehensive understanding of nature of writing, in particular in EFL contexts in the present study. The relationship between genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research is construed as two sides of the same coin, to further explain the complexity of interrelationship between text, writer and context.

Genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research share a similar view that L2 writing is a social action where text, writer and context are elemental components. Textual construction is a purposeful communicative activity in a particular given social context, in which writers make use of language in order to achieve certain

communicative purposes. Researchers in genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research have taken different approaches to investigate the social processes of multidimensional negotiation. Those of genre studies have emphasised not only the relationship between linguistic features of text and context of situation, like SFL and ESP, but also the social processes of writers' rhetorical strategies for fulfilling communicative purposes in social communication, like NR. In spite of a wealth of contributions, genre theories have investigated little about the influence of writers on genre writing within a given social context, in particular those whose first language is not English (See e.g., Connor, 1996). On the other hand, researchers in intercultural rhetoric research have extensively studied variation in organisational patterns in a text and shifted their focus to study the influence of multiple contextual factors on textual construction, including factors deriving from both large and small cultures. However, the analysis of textual features in intercultural rhetoric research has been limited.

The linking of intercultural rhetoric research to genre theories is important because they are complementary to each other under the premise that L2 writing is a social, purpose-oriented communicative activity. The lens of an integrated framework of genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research has led the present study to focus on (1) communicative purposes of genres, (2) textual features consisting of generic structures (moves) and rhetorical features (steps), and (3) influences of cultures (big cultures and small cultures, See Atkinson, 2004). According to ESP approach, communicative purposes of genres are realised in generic structures and rhetorical features. The rhetorical features are defined here slightly differently from Swale's definition (See discussion in Section 2.2). Rhetorical features are realised as writers' rhetorical strategies, which can be embedded in move structures or appear at semantic, syntactic and lexicogrammatical levels. In order to understand how writers construct generic structure and rhetorical features (equal to genre-rhetorical construction in the present study) in writing, the influences of large cultures and small cultures on L2 writers' choice of language should be carefully considered. As we have seen, large cultures denote L2 writers' broad L1 cultural background, whilst small

cultures are defined to include more immediate contextual factors and individual experiences.

The decision to adopt an integrated framework of genre theories and intercultural rhetoric research in the present study is influenced by evaluation of previous studies of the two text types researched in this study: letters of job application and argumentative writing. Many previous studies have investigated the generic structures and rhetorical features of letters of job application and argumentative writing. However such studies often assume a deterministic influence for large culture on the writer. For example, the reciprocal relationship between text and large culture is emphasised in Bhatia's study (1993). Bhatia offered a cross-cultural comparison of structural descriptions of job application letters in Western and South-Asian cultures, pointing out that English letters consisted of 'self-promotion' as an elemental move, which is atypical in South-Asian letters. This is linked to the social context where letters of job application are used. In a Western cultural context, job application letters are a means of selling their strengths to a prospective employer (the reader), but those in a South-Asian cultural context are used as an opportunity to simply attach a curriculum vitae (CV) (Bhatia, 1993).

With reference to letters of job application, Connor et al. (1995) also claimed similar findings about the cross-cultural variation in job application letters between US and Flemish in terms of pragmatic perspectives of the moves. For example, a lengthy discussion on personal and professional experiences, and the benefits for the hiring company appeared in American letters; in contrast, Flemish letters are less informative about qualifications, offering shorter and general statements instead (Connor et al., 1995). In addition, distinctive textual feature identified between US and Flemish letters is how to make a request for an interview. Writers in US letters were less direct than those in Flemish letters.

Along with Connor et al. (1995), Upton & Connor (2001) investigated how Americans, Belgians and Finns employed politeness strategies for making a

request for an interview or further contact and expressing politeness at the end of the letters. It is claimed that American letters are characterised with formulaic expressions, the function of which is "to couch personal desires and wishes behind genre-accepted formulas." Belgian letters are less confined to certain linguistic patterns, showing a higher degree of individuality. The identified politeness strategies in American and Belgian letters can be traced in Finnish letters (Upton & Connor, 2001, p. 322). Hou & Lin (2011) conducted a cross-cultural rhetorical analysis of internship cover letters between Canadian and Taiwanese, in particular generic structure and politeness strategies within the moves. With regard to generic structure, the most noticeable claimed difference between Canadian and Taiwanese letters is the move of describing the benefit for the hiring company; over 50% of Canadian letters contained explicit statements about it, but only 30% (8 out of 26) Taiwanese letters described it, in only a few words (Hou & Lin, 2011). As for the politeness strategies, Canadian and Taiwanese used different politeness strategies in their job application letters for making a request for an interview or further contact and expressing politeness at the end of the letter, as in Upton & Connor's study. Drawing from the findings of Upton & Connor's and Hou & Lin's studies, it may be inferred that English-native speakers tend to make their job application letters more informative about individual qualifications. Moreover, the job application letters written by English-native speakers were claimed to have linguistic features for politeness strategies that were distinctive from those who are non-English native, like the frequent use of formulaic expressions. To sum up, in all of these studies, claims are made about the influence of strongly bounded 'large culture', while within-group variation and the influence of small cultures are neglected.

In argumentative writing, studies can also be found which attribute differences in student performances to the influence of 'large culture'. For example, Wu & Rubin (2000) claimed that Taiwanese students influenced by their L1 cultural background frequently used linguistic features, such as proverbs, expressions of humaneness and collective virtues, in English argumentative essays. On the other hand, the arguments presented by American students in their essays were

characterised with a high degree of individualism and directness, which are said to be rated of low value in Chinese rhetorical tradition.

However, other studies of argumentative writing acknowledge the influence of some aspects of small culture. Gilbert (2004) compared argumentative essays written by Japanese EFL students and Australian English native speakers at an Australian university. Textual analysis was applied to investigate the macrostructures and microstructures of writing by the two groups. According to Gilbert, the macro-structural level of text refers to

> "the ability to establish a focus of argument by raising key points of argument that are closely related to the main issues contained within the essay question and by employing chains of embedded arguments to formulate appropriate depths of discussion in relation to these points are strong indicators of successful argumentation in student writing" (p. 59).

A microstructural organisation refers to "the Claim-Data complex", the primary unit of argument structure (p. 61). It is interestingly noted that writers from both groups whose argumentative essays were marked with good scores formulated strong macro-structural and micro-structural organisations. Moreover, while offering evidence to support their positions, both groups of writers used facts and logical explanations frequently, but rarely recounted their personal experiences. Regarding the complexity of sub-claim structures, Japanese students however were found to be weaker than Australian students, an outcome which could be attributed to lesser English proficiency (viewed here as a 'small culture' factor).

Likewise, based on Toulmin's model of argument, Cheng & Chen (2009) studied the similarities and differences between Taiwanese EFL undergraduate students and American undergraduate students in terms of development of arguments through the use of various rhetorical structures. The study was quite complex because of the involvement of both between-group and within-group comparisons. In comparison to their American counterparts, Taiwanese EFL students' English argumentative essays were less competitive in terms of "complexity of argument size (including a claim and data)", and quantity of optional structures (p. 42).

Nevertheless, Taiwanese EFL students used optional structures more frequently and diversely in their Chinese than English argumentative essays, suggesting once again that language proficiency (a small culture feature) was affecting their EFL performance.

In contrast to between ethnic groups, Hirose (2003) conducted a within-group study. Hirose investigated the rhetorical organisation of argumentative writing produced by Japanese EFL undergraduate students in L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English), in terms of location of main ideas, macro-level rhetorical patterns and presence or absence of summary statements. Regarding the location of main ideas, Japanese EFL students tended to write their English argumentative essays deductively, stating the thesis statements at the beginning of the text. Their Japanese argumentative essays, however, were found to be mixed with deduction and induction. With reference to the macro-level rhetorical patterns, they had a tendency for enumerating the evidence to support their positions in both English and Japanese, but showed greater variations in Japanese (L1) writing. The majority of writers regarded a summary as a requisite component in both L1 and L2 writing. It was therefore concluded that although some differences of rhetorical organisations in argumentative essays written by Japanese EFL students in Japanese and English could be discerned, overall, there was a high degree of similarities shared between them (Hirose, 2003). The author concludes by downplaying the influence of supposedly competing large cultures on student writing in English and Japanese, and stressing the importance of small culture factors such as prior instructional experience and beliefs about good organisation.

As illustrated in this chapter and discussed in later Chapters 4, 5 and 6, connecting intercultural rhetoric research to genre theories as the foundation of framework allows the present study to understand L2 writing in an EFL context as a social, contextual, cultural, and purposeful communicative activity.

Chapter 3   Methodology

This chapter concerns the employment of mixed methods in the present study in order to answer two main research questions, which shed light on the influence of Taiwanese EFL students' writing instructional experiences on their genre-rhetoric construction in specific intercultural genres. Two academic institutions located in Southern Taiwan and two groups of Taiwanese EFL students who are novice L2 writers were selected, and students' writing, student questionnaire and student interviews were collected and analysed. The research design of combining quantitative and qualitative data was expected to provide substantial insights for understanding the influence of writers' writing instructional experiences, construed as small cultures, on their genre-rhetorical construction in intercultural genre writing, together with the influence of writers' knowledge about L1 rhetorical tradition.

The following discussion presents the research questions, details of research sites and participants, details of collection of data including students' writing, a student questionnaire as well as student interviews, and the procedures of data analyses.

3.1   Research Questions

Two research questions, which consisted of three sub-questions respectively, were proposed for exploring how Taiwanese EFL students constructed generic structure and rhetorical conventions in intercultural genre writing. They are listed below.

Research question 1

How did Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction vary when composing a letter of job application in Chinese and English?

1.1 What were the generic components employed by Taiwanese novice EFL students writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English? How did Taiwanese novice EFL students articulate their intentions of deploying them?

1.2 What were the politeness strategies employed by Taiwanese novice EFL students writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English? How did Taiwanese

novice EFL students elucidate the communicative purposes of the pragmatic strategies?

1.3 To what extent did Taiwanese novice EFL students' writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English influence their genre-rhetoric construction when writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English?

Research question 2

To what extent did Taiwanese novice EFL students construct genre-rhetoric conventions in argumentative writing in Chinese and English after gaining three months of English writing instruction?

2.1 How did the organisation of component moves vary in Taiwanese novice EFL students' argumentative writing in Chinese and English after they gained three months of English writing instruction? How did Taiwanese novice EFL students articulate their intentions of deploying them?

2.2 How did the manifestation of cultural values embedded in linguistic features in Taiwanese EFL students' argumentative writing vary between Chinese and English after they gained three months of English writing instruction? How did Taiwanese novice EFL students interpret their decisions of using linguistic features characterised by culture-specific values?

2.3 To what extent did Taiwanese EFL students' writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English influence their genre-rhetoric construction when composing argumentative writing in Chinese and English?

The study aimed at investigating the influences of multiple cultural forces on novice EFL writers' rhetorical decisions and generic structures, in particular the influence of small culture factors, when they dealt with intercultural genre writing in different social contexts. Two research questions, consisting of 3 sub-questions each, were proposed as goals for the study. EFL students' generic construction, rhetorical features and reported writing instructional experiences were the main themes shared by the two research questions. One research question investigated genre-rhetoric constructions in a job application letter, whilst the other looked at those in argumentative writing. The purpose

of choosing these two different genres was based on the premise that multiple factors can affect writers' decisions on written discourse, which vary according to social context where text is produced and used. A job application letter is widely used for an interview in the real world, whereas argumentative writing is one of the basic writing styles commonly taught and practiced in educational contexts. It is assumed that due to past instruction, Taiwanese novice EFL students are more familiar with writing conventions in argumentative writing than those in a letter of job application. This study therefore had expectations to further explain the influences of multiple factors on L2 writers' approaches for different genres in an EFL context.

3.2   Participants

Two classes of Taiwanese novice EFL students from different universities participated in the present study. Those who composed the letter of job application were English-major freshmen in National Kaohsiung University (hereafter NKU), whilst those who wrote argumentative writing were second-year students in Private Kaohsiung University (PKU) who are double-major in languages.

One class of 50 novice EFL students who are freshmen and English majors in the department of applied foreign languages in NKU participated in the present study. There were 47 female and 3 male students, whose ages were between 18 and 20. The majority had taken an English composition test in University Entrance Examination and a few were recommended students through special admission quotas programme. Regardless of the type of access to university, they all had acquired general English writing proficiency in senior high school. In NKU, it was mandatory for them to take 3-hour English writing courses per week in the academic semesters of the first-year, mainly focusing on how to do brainstorming before writing and how to write a hook to attract the reader's attention. Detailed information about the participants is provided later in section 4.3, including their academic background, instructional experiences across Chinese and English, and individual writing difficulties.

The other class who participated in the present study consisted of 50 novice EFL second-year students studying at PKU. They were aged between 17 and 19, and all

double-language majors, either English as major and other foreign languages ranging from Japanese, German, Spanish or French as minor or the reverse because students enrolled in the department of 5-year Junior College at PKU are required to major in two languages before upgrading to fourth-year.

By the time of their participation, they had had one-year and two-month experiences of receiving general English writing instruction. In the first-year English writing course, they were instructed on how to write complete English sentences and use these correctly. In the beginning of the second-year, they had 3-hour classes for English reading and writing per week, primarily spending two hours on reading through the modelled texts provided in the teaching material and familiarising themselves with the overall structure of the text, new vocabulary, conjunctive words and phrases. After that, they had one hour to reproduce a similar text in English with peer discussion, attempting to replicate the structural organisation and to use new vocabulary or conjunctive words or phrases in the source texts. When this study was carried out, they had had the experience of producing two English argumentative essays as assignments and just finished the mid-term examination. Information about their academic background, writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English, and individual writing difficulties is presented in section 5.3.

Regardless of the fact that the inclusion of the two groups was mainly associated with limited access to academic institutions, their participation for the present study was quite positive for understanding how Taiwanese novice EFL or inexperienced L2 writers dealt with genre writing in different cultures and social contexts. Close attention has to be paid to the variety of influencing factors, which may provide deeper insights into Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural genre writing. As discussed in Chapter 2, two groups of participants constituted a cultural heterogeneous group in this study. Chinese traditional rhetoric is an aspect of the large culture, which may influence some features of their texts. However, variations of textual features may also be expected to appear, which can be connected to the influence of aspects of classroom or student cultures, such as writers' familiarity with genre writing, their language proficiency and interactions between writers and the social context where writing is produced (i.e. the classroom or other social settings).

3.3   Research Method: Mixed Methods Research

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are traditional paradigms of research methods in applied linguistics, but more and more researchers in applied linguistics tend to use both research methods in their research, which is acknowledged as mixed methods research, the third paradigm of research methods (Dörnyei, 2007). The general and fundamental distinction between quantitative and qualitative oriented research appears to be that the former is characterised with numerical data and the latter is interested in non-statistical data. Mixed methods research encompasses both numerical and non-statistical data.

Mixed methods research was explicitly initiated by Campbell and Fiske (1959, cited in Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003), who introduced a "multitrait-multimethod matrix," applying more than one research method to conduct research inquiries in a single study. The most prominent feature of mixed methods research is triangulation, which was proposed by Denzin (1978, cited in Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003), referring to the use of multiple research methods to study the same social phenomenon. The concept of triangulation was further redefined by Jick (1979, cited in Teddlie & Tashkkori, 2003), denoting that the weakness of a research method can be minimised by the strength of another method. The purpose of triangulating the data attained from multiple methods is to ensure the validity of research, but it is worth noting that how to "interpret any divergence in the triangulated findings" remains challenging (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 165).

In terms of knowledge claims, Creswell (2003) summarised that the quantitative method is known as positivism or post-positivism, referring to the fact that the development of knowledge is through "careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists "out there" in the world" (p. 7), whereas the qualitative method is understood as constructivism, referring to the fact that the development of knowledge is through interactions with individuals who attempt to understand the world they live through their own historical and cultural lenses. Mixed methods research is termed pragmatism by Howe (1988, cited in Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). According to Wheeldon and Ahlberg (2012), the pragmatic view of using multiple methods allows researchers to "consider the value of consensus or intersubjective agreement about various beliefs as a

means to understanding provisional or conditional truths" (p. 118). In the same vein, Creswell (2003) pointed out that one of the important features of mixed methods research is that a researcher can attend to both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to fulfil different purposes and needs.

Since the purpose of mixed methods research is to expand the understanding of a complex phenomenon from different angles and to provide elaborate and comprehensive findings that are triangulated from multiple methods (Dörnyei, 2007), mixed methods research is considered to be the best choice of research method for the present study. It aimed at investigating the influence of a range of large and small cultures on Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in particular genres in L1 and L2, such as the conflict of rhetorical expectations between previous and current writing instructional experiences. In order to fulfil the research purpose, quantitative data obtained from textual analysis and a student questionnaire, and qualitative data obtained from interviews, were important sources for attempting to offer a holistic perspective on how novice EFL students made their decisions on the genre-rhetoric construction when dealing with intercultural genre writing.

The research design of the present study consisted of three phases. The first phase aimed at the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, the second phase analysed the quantitative data prior to the qualitative data, and the last phase involved integrated interpretation of the analysis of the entire data set. Such a sequence of data collection and analyses originated in the "sequential explanatory design" presented in a visual model with notation of figures in Figure 3 (Creswell, 2003, p. 213 & 214).

Figure 3 Sequential Explanatory Design

```
        ┌────────┐                    ┌────────┐
        │  Quan  │ ─────────────────► │  Qual  │
        └────────┘                    └────────┘
```

```
    Quan            Quan              Qual            Qual            Interpretation
    Data    ──►  Data Analysis  ──►   Data    ──►  Data Analysis ──► of Entire Analysis
  Collection                        Collection
```
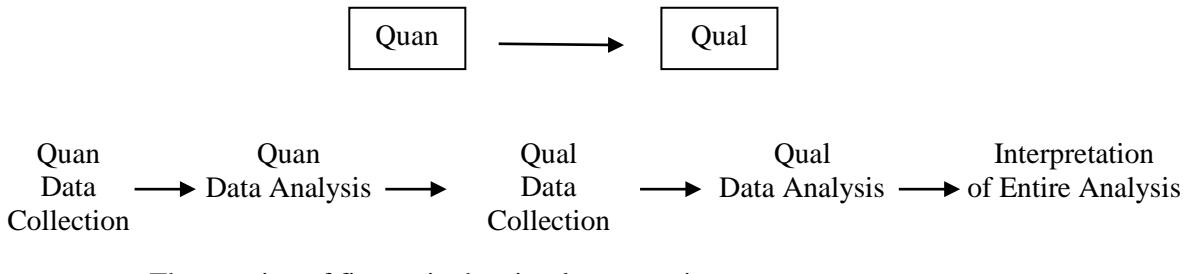
The notation of figures in the visual presentation:

- A "➤"indicates a sequential form of data collection.
- Capitalization indicates an emphasis or priority on the quantitative or qualitative data and analysis in the study.
- "Quan" and "Qual" stand for quantitative and qualitative, respectively.
- Boxes highlight the quantitative and qualitative data collection.

According to Creswell (2003), sequential explanatory design is the most straightforward research design. The quantitative data obtained prior to qualitative data has the function of assisting in the interpretation of qualitative data. The process of interpreting the whole data set is described as "adding flesh to the bones" (Dörnyei, 2007, P. 171).

Although the strength of sequential explanatory design is straightforward, the major weakness of this design is associated with the length of time for data collection and analysis in separate phases (Creswell, 2003). Thus, there was a slight modification of the sequential explanatory design adapted in the present study in that the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data had been accomplished prior to the analysis of the entire data. The adjustment occurred due to the limited time of data collection constrained by the teachers and the participants. Due to the concern that both groups of participants had intensive curricula and fixed timetables, both teachers kindly managed to spare limited time for the present study. The one in NKU made use of the last two weeks in the academic semester, including one for delivering the assigned writing task to the students and the other for collecting their writing and implementing the questionnaire with the researcher in the classroom. The interviews with students were

done through one-to-one conversation and accomplished in the last week of the semester. Similarly, the group of participants in PKU were assigned the writing task and accomplished it in the classroom in the week before the final examination. The interviews with them were carried out after the completion of the writing task.

The mapping of research questions onto multiple methods in this study for the gathering and the analysis of the data is shown in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4 Mapping of Research Questions onto Multiple Methods
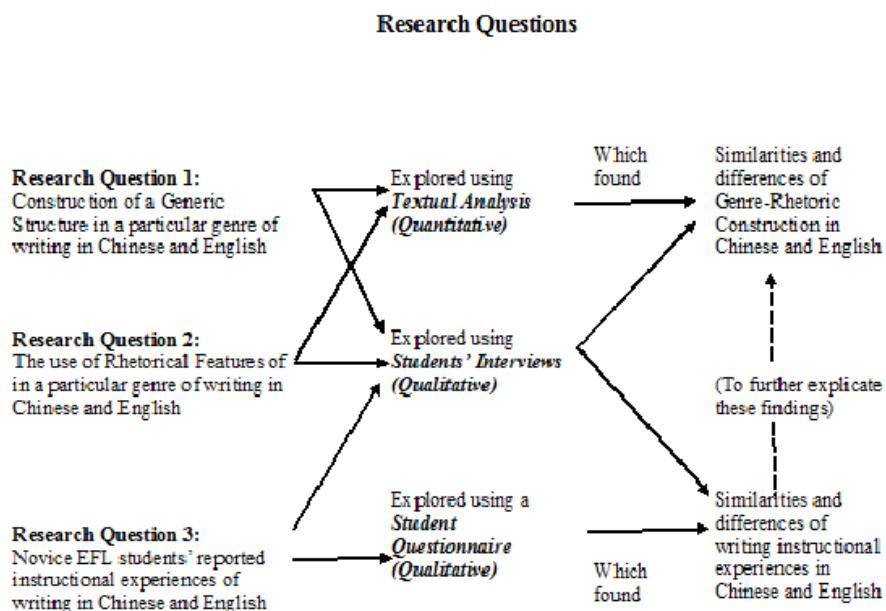
Figure 4 represents the rationale for the research questions and the use of multiple methods in the present study. As shown in the left column, the design of the study involved three main research questions for exploration, referring to the generic structure and rhetorical features of a particular genre of writing, and the investigation of novice EFL students' reported writing instructional experiences. Textual analysis, students' interviews and a student questionnaire shown in the middle column were used for generating information. Research questions 1 and 2 were explored using textual analysis, whilst a student questionnaire was carried out for research question 3. At the same time, additional information was obtained in the interviews concerning the three themes. After collection and analysis of the whole data set, quantitative information revealed

similarities and differences in EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural genre writing, and reported writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English. The results of research questions 1 and 2 showed "what" Taiwanese novice EFL students wrote about in their texts. They were further interpreted by the results of research question 3 and the qualitative data from the students' interviews to understand "why" they constructed genre writing in particular ways. The combination of quantitative and qualitative data is preferred in much writing research in order to "gain a more complete picture of a complex reality" (Hyland, 2010, p. 195).

Texts, questionnaires and interviews are methods commonly used in writing research (Hyland, 2010). The justifications for the use of textual analysis, a student questionnaire and students' interviews in this study are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.1   Textual Analysis

The decision to use textual analysis arose from the fact that "a major source of data for writing research is writing itself; the use of texts as objects of study" (Hyland, 2010, p. 198). In this study, the analysis of EFL students' written discourse aimed at investigating their knowledge about the communicative purpose of genre writing via the analysis of their genre-rhetoric construction and discussing the influencing factors on the textual features. This is in line with Paltridge & Wang's (2010, p. 257) opinions about the aims of textual analysis, as follows:

a)   "knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication."

b)   "the relationship between language and the social and the cultural contexts in which it is used."

It was hoped that the investigation of EFL students' organisation of generic structure in particular genres, based on an ESP approach, would provide information as to how they organised texts for a particular communicative purpose. In addition, the study of the influence of culture on EFL students' written discourse was one of the research foci because both large and small cultures could affect the ways in which they wrote in L2.

The exploration of cultural influence on rhetorical features was based on contrastive rhetoric studies. In order to expand the scope of this study, the decision to use two genres emphasised the influence of context in determining how EFL students worked in different genres that had a specific communicative purpose in response to different social contexts. Based on the preceding reasons, textual analysis was therefore adopted.

3.3.1.1 Students' Chinese and English Writing Prompts and Collections of Their Essays

There were two groups of novice EFL students composing specific intercultural genres in the present study. Those in NKU dealt with a letter of job application as a take-home assignment and those in PKU composed argumentative essays in the classroom. The collection of novice EFL students' intercultural writing of specific genres was to facilitate the analysis of genre-rhetoric construction found in the texts, which accounted for the organisation of generic components and rhetorical preference of genres.

The choice of these two genres for study of genre-rhetoric construction in students' writing aimed firstly at investigating the influence of writing instructional experiences. Argumentative writing had received considerable attention in the classroom, while job application letters had not. It was hypothesised that argumentative writing particularly in Chinese, might reflect the influence of local 'large culture', e.g. through the appearance of collectivist cultural values underlying the choice of linguistic features. However it was also hypothesised that such influences might be two-way, e.g. it was possible that Western 'large culture' values such as individualism might influence argumentative writing in both English and Chinese. Finally, it was hypothesised that the explicit teaching of argumentative writing in the EFL classroom may result in a high level of unity of generic components in English, and may also have an impact on the generic structure in Chinese argumentative writing.

Regarding job application letters however, it was hypothesised that the influence of writing instructional experiences may tend to be limited because this genre was not highlighted in the classroom. It was hypothesised that when the influence of novice EFL

students' writing instructional experiences tended to be weak, the influence of their L1 cultural background as well as other small culture factors such as the social context where the text is written, or peer influence, may impact on the expressions of cultural values, and that this would be reflected through the use of specific linguistic features, such as expressions of politeness. The coding scheme for analysing generic components and cultural values in the intercultural argumentative writing is provided in the section 3.4.1.2.

50 novice EFL students in NKU were assigned a writing task on the topic "***Write a letter of job application in Chinese and English. The word limitation is at least 150 in both languages***", which was collected in the week before the final examination. The agreement on the letter of job application as the writing task was reached between the researcher and the teacher, Susan, who has had more than 10-year experience of teaching university students English writing. According to Susan, how to write a good impressive letter of job application is quite important, but it receives less attention in English writing instruction and also in Chinese writing instruction. Without explicit instruction from the teacher, novice EFL students may have limited knowledge about generic components and politeness strategies in intercultural letters of job application and therefore resort to the use of translation as the major writing strategy (Sasaki, 2004). However, it was still felt that the similarity of the assigned writing task in Chinese and English may have its advantage for understanding how novice EFL students perceive the relationship between communicative purpose and genre-rhetoric construction of a particular untaught genre, in both L1 and L2. The coding scheme for analysing genre-rhetoric construction in the intercultural letters of job application is provided in the section 3.4.1.1.

50 novice EFL students in PKU were required to present their arguments about different topics in Chinese and English in the classroom and the writing tasks were completed with an interval of a week in the end of the semester. The writing prompt in Chinese was "*全球愈來愈多人學習英文。請論述你認為學習英文的重要性或者不重要性。至少 200 個字。*" ("***The population who learn English have been increasing globally. Please write down your opinions about the importance or unimportance of learning***

English. Write at least 200 words."), whereas the one in English was "***Write down your arguments about offering people help. Give at least three reasons, use 5 new vocabulary and the conjunctive words or phrases learned from the reading material. Write at least 120 words.***" The topic in Chinese argumentative writing was agreed between the writing teacher and the researcher. Because it was closely related to students' current English learning experience, it would be easier for them to talk about their opinions. The writing topic in English was assigned by the English writing teacher because it was part of the routinised in-class writing practice of the semester, during which this study was carried out. In this semester, novice EFL students were taught to write one-paragraph argumentative writing in English, including stating a topic sentence at the beginning of the text, giving three supporting arguments joined by conjunctive words or phrases and using new vocabulary. Moreover, the English argumentative writing had to be formally assessed by the teacher so that there were explicit requirements students were expected to achieve in the writing prompt, which did not appear in Chinese.

The comparison of genre-rhetoric construction in students' intercultural argumentative writing aimed at investigating the influence of writing instructional experiences. It was assumed that the explicit teaching of argumentative writing may result in a high level of unity of generic components in English and have an impact on the generic structure in Chinese argumentative writing. Regarding the manifestation of cultural values through the examination of specific linguistic features, the influence of writing instructional experiences may tend to be limited because it was not highlighted in the classroom. Therefore, it might be suggested that when the influence of novice EFL students' writing instructional experiences tended to be weak, the influence of their L1 cultural background and other influencing factors, such as the social context where the text is written, may be likely to have strong impact on the expressions of cultural values through the use of specific linguistic features. The coding scheme for analysing generic components and cultural values in the intercultural argumentative writing is provided in the section 3.4.1.2.

3.3.2   A Student Questionnaire

Questionnaires have been one of the most common research methods in the social sciences due to the "cost-benefit considerations." (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 6). According to Dörnyei, questionnaires have the advantage, allowing researchers to systematically collect a massive amount of information in a short period. A questionnaire can be conducted by a researcher or other people, which has limited influence on its validity and reliability. In addition, the results of questionnaires can be easily quantified by the use of a software package. However, there are also some potential disadvantages. First of all, an ill-constructed questionnaire may elicit simple and superficial answers. Secondly, respondents skip some questions if they feel less benefited or motivated or the questions are difficult to understand in a questionnaire. Thirdly, fatigue effects occur if a questionnaire is too long for the respondents. Lastly, after the questionnaire has been implemented, the researcher has little chance to confirm the answers with the informant when s/he notices erroneous responses.

Questionnaires are widely used for eliciting self-report information from informants in writing research (Hyland, 2010). A questionnaire was beneficial in this study for collecting information about reported writing instructional experiences in both Chinese and English among the 100 novice EFL students in a systematic manner. In order to elicit valid answers from respondents and to eliminate fatigue effects, a Chinese version of the questionnaire was used to improve the informants' understanding of questions. A talk between the researcher and respondents was carried out to increase motivation. The design of the questionnaires utilised mainly closed questions, with a few open-ended questions because interviews sought to elicit more detailed information.

3.3.2.1 Design of Student Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research technique, the purpose of which "is to collect a considerable amount of data from a wide ranging population and make generalizations from the findings" (Basit, 2010, p. 78). A questionnaire is conducive to eliciting factual information, personal beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviours of the participants through different question types (Dörnyei, 2007).

The design of a questionnaire can be a very demanding task for a novice researcher who is not equipped with professional knowledge of item wording, types of questions, developing and piloting questionnaires; consequently, it is allowed for a novice researcher to draw on the design of questionnaires in previous similar studies (Dörnyei, 2007). Following this perspective, the design of the questionnaire in the present study was based on previous studies, including Uysal (2008) as the main source and Mohan & Lo (1985) as the minor source, with slight adjustment in order to serve the purpose of research questions in the present study (See Appendix III). The questionnaire used in Uysal's study was deemed as an appropriate example for the present study for its intention of examining the existence of bidirectional transfer of L2 writers between their L1 and L2 writing, which is a major focus in the present study. Another key issue was the contextual influence on rhetorical preferences in L2 writing, which is termed as developmental factors by Mohan & Lo (1985). The design of the questionnaire in the present study therefore was integration of the questions appearing in Uysal's and Mohan & Lo's studies.

The questionnaire in the present study contained both factual and behavioural questions. The purpose of factual questions aimed at providing general understanding of personal information and English proficiency of the participants, whereas the behavioural questions intended to investigate their writing experiences across Chinese and English, including writing instructional experiences and writing difficulties. Due to the large number of questions in the questionnaire and the consideration of time for carrying out the questionnaire, attitudinal questions that explore EFL students' beliefs and attitudes toward English and Chinese writing were eliminated. However, attitudinal questions were essential components in the interviews.

3.3.2.2 Description of Questionnaire Items

The design of questions in a questionnaire can be generally characterised by the use of closed questions and open ended questions. Closed questions include dichotomous questions, multiple choice with either single response (category) or multiple response (list), ranking questions, rating questions, matrix or grid questions, and quantity

questions (Basit, 2010), whereas specific open questions, clarification questions, sentence completion and short-answer questions are the four main types of open ended question (Dörnyei, 2007). Closed questions are preferable than open ended questions in the questionnaire due to the fact that people prefer to talk more than to write (Basit, 2010); as a result, a large number of open ended questions in the questionnaire may have negative impact on the willingness of the participants (Basit, 2010). Therefore, the majority of questions in the questionnaire in the present study were closed questions with a few open ended questions.

The format of the questionnaire was constructed with four main parts (See Appendix III). The first part is Personal Information, eliciting general information on the participants' academic studying experience. The second part is English Language Level, investigating their current English proficiency. The third part is Experience with English Writing Instruction, getting an overview of information about the participants' English writing instructional experiences, and the writing process, including paragraph organisation, lexical and syntactic concerns, teacher feedback and writing difficulties. The fourth part is Experience with Chinese Writing Instruction where the structure of questions, apart from the question of translating words or ideas, was identical to those in the third part. The paragraph at the end of the questionnaire is to inform the participants of the confidentiality of the data and to further invite volunteers to participate in interviews.

Part I: Personal Information

Questions 1 to 4 are factual questions in part I. Questions 1 to 3 are closed questions and question 4 is a short-answer question. Question 1 is an indication that the participants are eligible for participating in the questionnaire without their parents' guardianship. Question 2 is to ask their gender although the issue of gender in L2 writing is not a main focus in the present study. Questions 3 to 4 are about their academic background, illustrating their academic year and their majors in the academic institution.

Part II: English Language Level

Questions 1 to 4 in part II are factual questions. Questions 1 to 3 are closed questions and question 4 is a short-answer question. Question 1 is associated with the length of studying English. Question 2 in part II is similar to question 3 in part I, but they differ from each other due to the fact that it puts the answers from students who may be suspended for reasons and return to schools into consideration. Questions 3 and 4 are about participants' current English proficiency and question 4 has an additional function as corroborating the answer from question 3. For example, a student may claim that his/her English proficiency is advanced, but he/she couldn't offer valid evidence in question 4. That may result in the decrease of reliability of his/her answer to question 3.

Part III: Experience with English Writing Instruction

There are 15 questions in part III, aimed at investigating the participants' English writing instructional experiences, writing process and writing difficulties. Question 1 is a rating question where they need to evaluate their current English writing levels by themselves. Question 2 is a quantity question, eliciting the years of receiving formal English writing instruction. The definition of formal English writing instruction excludes the activities of receiving language drill training, such as exercises on grammar or vocabulary. Question 3 is a list question, figuring out the types of genres taught in the classroom. Question 4, a sub-question of question 3, is a ranking question, requiring participants to rank the frequency of answers provided in question 3. It is specially tailored for the participants in the present study because of the consideration that they may be more familiar with text types rather than the concept of genre. Note that the notions of genre and text types, with reference to written discourse, correlate to each other in the extent to which genre sets up an occasion within which the purpose of communication can be achieved effectively as the meanings are expressed in the conventional rhetorical styles known as text types that can be recognised by a particular discourse community (Biber, 1989). The notion of text types therefore is subordinate to the notion of genres and was expected to increase participants' comprehension of the intentions of the questions in the questionnaire.

Question 5 is a list question, investigating the types of teaching methods in the classroom. Question 6, a sub-question to question 5, is a ranking question, requiring participants to rank the frequency of answers provided in question 5. Question 7 is a list question, investigating the features of writing that English writing instructors emphasise. Question 8, a sub-question to question 7, is a ranking question, seeking what are the most and the least emphasised among the answers in question 7. Question 9 aims at exploring how participants organise paragraphs in English writing. It is an open ended question, making them recall the memories of what they have been taught about paragraph organisation in English/Chinese writing. Questions 10 to 14 are category questions, investigating participants' writing process, such as the aspects of grammar and lexical choices, translation and teacher feedback. The final question, question 15, is a list question, intending to understand individual's difficulty with English writing. Figure 5 below is the summary of the design of the questions in part III of the questionnaire.

Figure 5 Summary of the Design of Questions in Part III

Purpose of Questions	Number of Questions Main Questions	Number of Questions Sub-questions	Types of Questions
Current English Writing Level	Question 1		Rating Question
Formal Writing Instruction in English	Question 2		Quantity Question
Genres in the classroom	Question 3		List Question
		Question 4	Ranking Question
Teaching Methods	Question 5		List Question
		Question 6	Ranking Question
Criteria for evaluation of English Writing	Question 7		List Question
		Question 8	Ranking Question
Paragraph Organisation	Question 9		Open Ended Question
Writing Process (translation of ideas, grammar and lexical choices and teacher feedback)	Question 10		Rating Question
	Question 11		Rating Question
	Question 12		Rating Question
	Question 13		Rating Question
	Question 14		
Individual Difficulty in English Writing	Question 15		List Question

Part IV: Experience with Chinese Writing Instruction

Questions in part IV of the questionnaire were designed for understanding participants'
Chinese writing instructional experiences and all the questions were identical to those in
Figure 5 with the slight change that the word "English" is substituted by "Chinese". For
example, question 1 in the part III Rate your current Writing level in English on a scale
of one to ten was reformulated as Rate your current Writing level in Chinese on a scale
of one to ten as question 1 in the part IV. In addition to the wording substitution,
question 10 in the part III was completely discarded in part IV because Chinese is the
first language of the participants. The question of translating ideas into Chinese
therefore was meaningless and redundant.

3.3.2.3 Administration of Student Questionnaire

The student questionnaire was delivered to the two participant groups in the classroom
shortly after the completion of the assignment writing tasks. Before they worked on it,
the researcher, who received permission from the teachers, had spent approximately 10
minutes on explaining the purpose of using the questionnaire in the present study. This
face-to-face interaction was expected to reduce the risk of misunderstanding the
questions and put emphasis on the concept of "writing experiences" in parts III and IV,
which should refer to formal writing instruction rather than the exercises on lexical or
grammatical accuracy. Meanwhile, the participants were told that they had the right to
ask questions if they did not understand the questions and formally informed about the
confidentiality of the data that was highly secured. Given the fact that the questionnaire
administration procedure is associated with the quality of elicited responses (Dörnyei,
2007), the explanations of the intentions of the questionnaire and participants' rights
were done in Chinese. About 40 minutes was allowed for questionnaire completion.

3.3.3   Interviews

3.3.3.1 Characteristics of Interviews: Definitions, Advantages and Disadvantages

The last measure for data collection in the present study is interviews. These are the
most frequently used method in qualitative inquiries (Dörnyei, 2007) and beneficial for
exploring interviewees' perspectives. An interview can be defined simply as a

purposeful conversation or specifically as a means of information gathering (Berg, 2007). Kvale (1996) provides a more succinct definition of interviews that "An interview is literally an interview, an inter-change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest" (Kvale, 1996, p. 14). Berg's notion of "information gathering" is explicitly refined in Kvale's perspective as a means of sharing similar or different opinions about a matter of mutual interest between, at least, two people through verbal interactions. Following Kvale's definition, Hobson & Townsend (2010) pointed out that

> "Research interviews are normally conducted on a one-to-one basis involving a single interviewer and a single interviewee" or sometimes "in a 'group interview' －that is, an exchange of views between an interviewer and several interviewees" (p. 224).

However, Richards (2003), while Kvale's definition is broadly embraced by researchers, reminds that

> "In interviews we are concerned only with encouraging the speaker, not with putting our own point across, so the skills we need are still collaborative but they are focused on drawing from the speaker the richest and fullest account possible." (p. 50)

In Richards's words, although an interview is a collaborative activity between the interviewee(s) and the interviewer, the targeted goal of conducting an interview is the gaining of the speaker's account without attention to the interviewer's perspectives. However, in reality, it is natural that an interviewer and an interviewee (s) may sometimes take turns during the process of interviews, allowing the interviewee (s) to ask questions. In summary, an interview therefore is a social context where both interviewer and interviewee(s) are able to share and discuss individual's perspectives of the real world. (Cohen et al., 2000).

The typology of interviews is not consistently agreed by a range of researchers. For example, Dörnyei (2007) includes multiple sessions, structured interviews, unstructured interviews and semi-structured interviews as the four major types of interviews. Fraenkel & Wallen (2008) list structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, informal interviews and retrospective interviews in their categories of interviews. Hatch's (2002) classification of interviews includes informal interviews, formal interviews and standardized interviews. According to Hatch, informal interview is

frequently used alongside observations, aimed at seeking clarifications of information observed on the spot, whereas formal (semi-structured) interview is characterised by flexibility, allowing the researcher to conduct the interview with guiding questions and probe into interviewees' response. In light of the research questions of the present study, informal (semi-structured) interview was adopted to understand EFL students' perspectives about writing in Chinese and English.

Regardless of different typologies, research interviews share a range of advantages and disadvantages in general. Research interviews allow the researcher to find out a wider range of issues, to attract higher understanding of questions, to probe into informants' responses and to increase response rates, which are woven interchangeably in the process of interviewing (Hobsen & Townsend, 2010). The design of research interviews is associated with the extent of these advantages. For example, a researcher attempting to test hypotheses is more likely to use predetermined questions in interviews, which may lead to a downside effect on the aforementioned advantages, whereas a researcher taking a constructivism stance is likely to have semi-structured questions prior to interviews or to create interviewing scenes to have in-depth understanding of individual's perspectives of the world. The general advantages of interviews can be ascribed to their interactive nature, which can reversely be associated with disadvantages.

Due to the fact that an interview provides interviewer(s) and interviewee(s) with opportunities to co-construct knowledge of specific subject matters, it may be interpreted as an "unreliable" method through the lens of positivism (Hobsen & Townsend, 2010, p. 228). The unreliability is ascribed to the researcher's influence. It is known that the generation of knowledge is varied when interviews are conducted by different interviewers. Moreover, it is noticed that "trustworthiness of interview data" and "time-consuming" are the weaknesses of interviews (Hobsen & Townsend, 2010, p. 228-229). As interviews involve human beings, people may give untruthful answers in the interviewing for reasons, such as their personality, interpersonal relationship with the interviewer or interests in the topics. Meanwhile, it is also noted that the intentions of questions can be interpreted differently among interviewees. As a result, the validity and the comparability of interview data can be violated (Walford, 2001). A detailed

description of strengths and weaknesses of types of interview is presented in Cohen et al. (2000).

3.3.3.2 Semi-structured Interviews

In light of the advantages and disadvantages of interviews, a semi-structured interview was employed in this study. The purpose of semi-structured interviews is to "capture participant perspectives" (Hatch, 2002, p. 102), but such interviews are normally conducted in a way that the interviewee(s) answers questions that are predetermined based on the research aims and purposes. The rationale for constructing questions in this study was based on Hatch's strategies, which include background questions and essential questions. The background questions are posed at the beginning of the interview, eliciting demographic information about the participants, like age, gender and educational background, whereas essential questions contain descriptive questions, structural questions and contrast questions, each of which has their specific purposes and can be realised through the given examples as follows:

> Descriptive questions: Could you describe a typical day in your kindergarten?
>
> Structural questions: What qualities, characteristics, or abilities typify a successful kindergarten student?
>
> Contrast questions: Can you compare your kindergarten program with kindergarten programs five years ago?
>
> (Hatch, 2002, p. 104-105).

The interview protocol in this study is presented in Appendix IV. There are two main parts of the listed questions, including background questions and essential questions. The background questions targeted interviewees' academic background and English proficiency, whist the essential questions had multiple functions with the integration of descriptive, structural and contrast questions, namely paying attention to their writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English.

3.3.3.3 Conducting the Interviews

10 participants volunteered for the interviews, 5 in each research site respectively. The interviewees in NKU were Doris, Eileen, Amber, Grace and Miranda (pseudonyms), whilst those in PKU were Naomi, Nina, Peggy, Tina and Jenny. In NKU, Doris and

Eileen were interviewed in the afternoon of the same day after accomplishing the assigned writing tasks in the morning, whereas the rest were interviewed on the following day. The length of the interviews varied slightly across individual interviewees for a range of factors, such as personality, interest in the topic and the interaction with the researcher. The average lengths of the interviews in NKU were between 45 and 55 minutes. Compared to those in NKU, interviewees in PKU tended to talk less because the average lengths of the interviews were between 35 and 45 minutes. One of the potential challenges in PKU might be the fact that they did the interviews one week later after completing the assigned writing tasks, during which they had had a number of examinations. Due to the practical difficulty that interviewees in both research sites were quite busy with their study, one-off interviews were adopted in this study, which may limit the collection of information. Nevertheless, the loss of potential data was compensated by the use of pre-determined questions in the interviewing protocol (See Appendix IV) as they were particularly designed for the goals of this study.

All the interviews were done one-to-one, primarily because of the confidentiality of data. There was a potential problem that when an interview took place, the person's opinions who was interviewed might affect the way the next interviewee(s) talked. For example, Doris and Eileen were the first two interviewees in this study. Their interviews were done in the same day on the classroom and Doris did hers before Eileen. When being asked about her opinions about Chinese traditional rhetoric, Eileen struggled because she believed that Doris's opinions were better than hers, based on the information she carelessly heard from Doris's interview. To prevent the repetition of this situation, in the rest of the interviews, one-to-one talk without the presence of other interviewees was exploited. For example, when an interview was carried out in the classroom, other interviewees were kept outside the classroom. Aware that the decision on one-to-one talk may increase interviewees' psychological stress and anxiety during the interviews, the researcher had negotiated with all the interviewees and had attained their permission for doing so. All the interviews were recorded with a tape recorder and the other recording device, a HTC Sensation XE mobile. Both recording devices had been tested to make sure that they functioned without any unexpected problems in the interviews.

3.3.4   Research Ethics

Prior to data collection, the researcher had delivered the participant information sheet and consent form (See Appendix I & II) to the teachers and the participants and had their signatures on the consent form. This was important not only for making them aware of the purpose of the present study, their rights about asking questions and withdrawal at any times, but also legitimising the intrusion of the researcher into the research sites for collecting data. In addition, the main ethical issue involved in the data collection was to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. Confidentiality refers to the action of eliminating any elements that can indicate the participants' identity, whereas anonymity refers to keeping participants' names unknown (Berg, 2007). For the sake of keeping a high level of confidentiality and anonymity, names of the classes, teachers and students were changed and mentioned pseudonymously when they were referred to subsequently in the report of the present study.

3.4   Data Coding and Analyses

This section talks about how the quantitative and qualitative data were coded and analysed. In order to answer research questions 1.1, 1.2, 2.1 and 2.2, the coding schemata used in previous research were applied for investigating Taiwanese EFL students' organisation of generic moves and rhetorical features in the letter of job application and argumentative writing across cultures. The research questions 1.3 and 2.3 were expected to be answered by the analysis of student questionnaire data. The qualitative data were to consolidate the results of the quantitative data analysis.

3.4.1   Quantitative Data: Textual Analysis and Student Questionnaire

This section primarily focuses on how to draw on the quantitative data to answer research questions, including the textual analysis and the questionnaire. The coding scheme is introduced which was adopted for analysing Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in specific genre writing in Chinese and English (the letter of job application and argumentative writing). The genre-rhetoric construction referred to the organisation of generic moves in both genres, the use of politeness strategies in the letter of job application and the cultural values embedded into linguistic features in

argumentative writing. In addition, it also talks about the procedures of generating statistical information.

Unlike textual analysis, the student questionnaire data were less complicated and these were mainly computed in Excel and the results were presented in Tables (See Sections 4.3 & 5.3).

3.4.1.1 The Letter of Job Application: Coding Scheme and Descriptive Statistics

3.4.1.1.1 The Generic Moves

Upton & Connor's (2001) coding scheme for generic moves of the letter of job application subsequently employed in Hou & Li's (2011) study was adopted in the present study. The coding scheme is presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4 Coding Scheme For Generic Structure of Job Application Letters (p. 318)

---

1. Identify the source of information (Explain how and where you learned of the position).
2. Apply for the position (State desire for consideration).
3. Provide argument, including supporting information, for the job application.
4. Implicit argument based on neutral evidence or information about background and experience.
5. Argument based on what would be good for the hiring company.
6. Argument based on what would be good for the applicant.
7. Indicate desire for an interview or a desire for further contact, or specify means of further communication/how to be contacted.
8. Express politeness (pleasantries) or appreciation at the end of the letter.
9. Offer to provide more information.
10. Reference attached résumé.

The adoption of Upton & Connor's coding scheme was beneficial for fulfilling the objectives of the present study for the following two reasons. First, the participants involved in the present study were similar to those in Upton & Connor's study in that they lacked professional experience dealing with the letter of job application. Secondly, Upton & Connor also paid particular attention to politeness strategies within moves

used by three different cultural groups. One of the objectives in the present study was to investigate Taiwanese EFL students' pragmatic expectations when composing letters of job application in different languages, in particular their politeness strategies.

However, the appropriateness of employing a single coding scheme for analysis of generic moves in Chinese and English could be challenged because the writing conventions of particular genre writing can vary according to cultures and languages. For example, Zhu (2000) investigated the structural moves in English and Chinese sales letters, employing the same coding scheme for analysis of structural moves in both languages. This study claimed that English and Chinese sales letters in general contain similar structural moves, except for the unique move for building a business relationship in Chinese sales letters. According to Zhu, this is associated with collectivism, a traditional socio-cultural value and belief in a Chinese-speaking context (i.e. a local large culture feature) so that building business relationships appears as one of the communicative purposes in Chinese sales letters. Therefore, it was necessary to conduct a brief comparative study of communicative purposes between English and Chinese letters of job application to legitimise the adoption of Upton & Connor's coding scheme across Chinese and English.

The communicative purpose of a Chinese job application letter is to get an opportunity for an interview (ARTEMIS, 2009). According to ARTEMIS, the main contents of a Chinese job application letter should contain 1) the purposes and motivation for the job vacancies, including specific description of the source of job vacancy, 2) individual's skills and experiences that make you the best candidate, 3) the names of persons who recommend you for the job and 4) in conclusion, a request for an interview. Among these moves, the one which involves the names of the persons who recommend you for the job is atypical in English job application letters. This can be in line with Zhu's (2000) claim that maintenance of good interpersonal relationships is a specific value and belief in a Chinese context (i.e. in Chinese large culture).

In another Chinese website (Cover letters, 2012), it is also confirmed that the purpose of writing a Chinese job application letter is to introduce and promote the applicant himself to the employer and obtain a chance for an interview. This site not only

introduces the prototypical letter format of a job application letter, but also includes detailed guidance for what to write in the main body. A Chinese job application letter should contain three main paragraphs. The first paragraph aims at explaining how you know about the job vacancy and showing your interest in it, the second paragraph lists points of educational background, skills and working experience, and the arguments to be the best candidate and the last paragraph should make a request for an interview and end with polite expressions (Cover letters, 2012).

For people who want to work in China, the following guidance for the main body of a Chinese job application letter provides detailed descriptions of what to write (Career Advices, 2011).

The first paragraph should include:
- the title and reference number of the position
- how you came about the job offer
- the name of a mutual contact
- your interest, motivation, etc.

The body should
- highlight your experience, education and skills that match the job criteria.
- explain why you want to work for this specific company or in this particular field.

The final paragraph should include
- a statement summarizing your profile
- a call to action: restate your interest and say that you wish to be contacted
- a "thank you for considering" formula
- your contact information (your home, business and mobile telephone numbers including area or country codes and your email address with a decent username)

Table 5 below illustrates the results of the cross-examination between Upton & Connor's coding scheme (2001, p. 318) and the structural development of Chinese job application letters gathered from online sources. The overlapping moves, like move 1, 2, 3, 6 and 7, are the essential components shared by both sources although ARTEMIS excludes move 7 as an important element. Compared to English letters of job application described by Upton & Connor, Chinese excludes some moves, including the benefits for the hiring company and the applicant (move 4 and 5), providing additional

information (move 8) and referring the attached résumé (move 9). As a result, it is
inferred that the rhetorical moves of job application letters are not formulaic, but may be
negotiable for fulfilling communicative purposes in intercultural contexts.

**Table 5 Tabulation of Generic Structures in a Letter of Job Application in Chinese
and English (O=yes; X=no)**

Chinese / English	ARTEMIS	Cover Letters	Career Advices
Coding Scheme in Upton & Connor's (2001, p. 318) study			
1. Identify source of information	O	O	O
2. Apply for the position/State desire for the consideration	O	O	O
3. Provide arguments – background and experience	O	O	O
4. Provide arguments – good for the hiring company	X	X	X
5. Provide arguments – good for the applicant	X	X	X
6. Desire for an interview or further contact	O	O	O
7. Express politeness or appreciation at the end of the letter	X	O	O
8. Offer to provide more information	X	X	X
9. Reference attached résumé	X	X	X

The employment of Upton & Connor's (2001) coding scheme as the main means for the
analysis of generic moves in the present study was considered appropriate for it is
conducive to examining the mutual influence of cultures on EFL students' writing. For
instance, if EFL students have a strong tendency for talking about the benefits for the
hiring company as the major communicative strategy in their Chinese job application
letters, it may be indicated that they may be influenced by English, attempting to apply
their English writing experience to Chinese writing, and the reverse.

3.4.1.1.2 Politeness Strategies

Based on Brown & Levinson's (1987) model of politeness strategies, many previous studies have investigated similarities and differences of the use of politeness strategies using linguistic features employed by different cultural groups in the letter of application (Maier, 1992; Upton & Connor, 2001; Hou & Li, 2011; Al-Ali, 2008). Upton & Connor (2001) examined the similarities and differences of politeness strategies employed by three cultural groups in a corpus of English letters of application for the moves of "stating a desire for an interview or further contact" and "expressing politeness or appreciation at the end of the letter." For example, Americans used formulaic expressions, like "Thank you for your consideration," more than Belgians and Finns. Belgians demonstrated a high level of individual distinctive features in terms of politeness strategies, whilst Finns were inclined not only to use formulaic expressions, but also showed individualistic styles. The frequent use of formulaic expressions is regarded as a negative politeness strategy to "couch personal desire and wishes behind genre-accepted formulas" (Upton & Connor, 2001, p. 322). Based on their findings in the use of politeness strategies, Upton & Connor suggested that the cross-cultural differences for politeness strategies can be attributable to a variety of influencing factors, like language proficiency, and influence of writing instruction (treated here as small culture factors), but also writers' awareness of reader's expectations and writers' perception of politeness expressions (which can be interpreted as large culture factors).

Unlike the comparison among writers who are all from western cultures, Hou & Li (2011) investigated the politeness strategies in English cover letters written by Taiwanese and Canadian students, a comparison between writers who are from eastern and western large cultures. Hou & Li replicated the methodologies for analysis for politeness strategies within moves used in Upton & Connor's (2001) study and obtained the following three findings. First, Taiwanese students used qualifying modals, like would, may, and might, far less frequently than Canadian students. "The reason for this may be the lack of such forms as modals in their mother tone language and the unfamiliarity of Taiwanese writers in applying them in the English" (Hou & Li, 2011, p. 10). Second, in terms of positive politeness, the use of phrases, like "You can…" or "Please + action verb," the number of Taiwanese students (68.18%) who used the positive politeness was nearly twice that of Canadian students (34.62%), suggesting that

direct strategies were preferred by non-English native writers. The last is the similarity that both cultural groups were bound to formulaic expressions at the end of the letters, like "Thank you for your (time and) consideration" although the proportion of Canadian students (100%) was slightly greater than that of Taiwanese students (90.91%). Although there were some differences in the use of politeness strategies between Canadian and Chinese students, Hou & Li also claimed that "there is no distinction between Taiwanese and Canadian writers in their use of positive or negative politeness strategies exclusively" (p. 12). Thus there were no clear differences between these two groups of writers in terms of large culture influences, and small culture factors such as language proficiency accounted for some of the differences that were found.

Although Upton & Connor's and Hou & Li's studies showed interesting insights into the intercultural politeness strategies employed by different cultural groups, the model for analysis of politeness strategies in their studies was considerably less useful than the one used in Al-Ali's (2006) study. Upton & Connor paid attention to the politeness strategies embedded into particular linguistic features, whereas Al-Ali's categorisation of politeness strategies shed light on the relationship between the politeness strategies and the moves. Nevertheless, Al-Ali's exclusion of formulaic expressions as negative politeness strategies may not be suitable for the present study, given their association with cultural values found in the studies of Hou & Li (2011) and Upton & Connor (2001). As a result, Al-Ali's categorisation of politeness strategies was adopted in this study, slightly modified by adding the use of formulaic expressions as part of negative politeness strategies. The coding scheme is presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Coding Scheme for Politeness Strategies in the Present Study

	1. Showing interest
	2. Offering a contribution or a benefit
Positive politeness strategies	3. Showing directness
	4. Being optimistic
	5. Glorifying the addressee
	1. Giving deference
Negative politeness strategies	2. Self-degradation
	3. Formulaic expressions

3.4.1.1.3 The Analysis of Generic Moves and Politeness Strategies and Descriptive Statistics in Job Application Letters

Fifty EFL students were required to produce two letters of job application in Chinese and English over a week. 100 scripts were collected in total, 50 in each language respectively. However, only 90, which included 45 in each language, were valid for textual analysis for 5 out of 50 were either characterised with unreadable handwriting or left unfinished. When participants' essays were collected, a copied version was used for analysis for the sake of keeping the original data secured.

The analysis of generic moves focused merely on the main body of the letters and ignored the prototypical letter format, such as "return address of the letter writer, date, complete name, title and address of the recipients, salutation, closing, and enclosure" (Hou & Li, 2011, p. 7), which are less important for the research questions in this study. The purpose of textual analysis was to investigate EFL students' organisation of the contents rather than to specifically examine their knowledge in the writing of English business letters. The demonstration of work on the analysis of generic moves of EFL students' intercultural letters of job application is shown in Appendix V. Notably, the pragmatic function of each single paragraph consists of more than an elemental move. For example, the first paragraph of the sample letter (see Appendix V) contains three elemental moves, including providing background information (My name is Sherry. I am 18 years old.), identifying source of information (I just got the information that your English cram school needs a teaching assistant two days ago.), and applying for the position (I decide to apply for this job.). EFL students' letters of job application in Chinese were processed in the same way. The full analysis of generic moves in EFL students' letters of job application in Chinese and English is presented in section 4.1.3.

The frequency of elemental moves was computed in Excel, the total occurrences of which were divided by the total number of participants. For example, the frequency of Move 1: Pre-Move: Greeting was 38%, which was calculated in an equation (17/45) x100%. The frequency of elemental moves is available in section 4.1.3.

Similarly, the analysis of politeness strategies in novice EFL students' intercultural letters of job application is presented in section 4.2, including the results of textual analysis and statistical information.

3.4.1.2 Argumentative Writing: Coding Scheme

3.4.1.2.1 The Generic Moves

To examine the extent to which Taiwanese novice EFL students employed the overall organisation in argumentative writing in Chinese and English, Hyland's model (1990) was adopted in this study and considered to be more salutary than Toulmin's model, which was extensively employed by other researchers, such as Crammond (1998), Gilbert (2004) and Cheng & Chen (2009). For example, Cheng & Chen (2009) investigated the relationships among functional elements, such as the relationship between (a) data and warrants and (b) warrants and backings, found in Taiwanese and American students' argumentative texts based on the application of Toulmin's analytic framework of arguments. The investigation of the interrelationships between these argumentative elements was not connected closely to the research aims in this study. On the other hand, Hyland's (1990) framework of generic structure of argumentative writing was selected, which was primarily associated with participants' English writing instructional experience. Participants at PKU were taught about the basic structure in English argumentative writing this semester, including topic sentences followed by supporting examples, and then a conclusion in the end of the text. This rhetorical sequence can be found in Hyland's (1990) stage-oriented framework of argumentative writing, which is illustrated in Table 7 below. The application of Hyland's model was therefore seen as a useful approach to examine whether or not participants were aware of the distinctive generic structure of argumentative writing.

Table 7 Hyland's Model (1990): Generic Structure of Argumentative Writing

Stage	Move
1. Thesis Introduces the proposition to be argued.	**(Gambit)** Attention Grabber – controversial statement of dramatic illusion. **(Information)** Presents background material for topic contextualization. **Proposition** Furnishes a specific statement of position. **(Evaluation)** Positive gloss – brief support of proposition.
2. Argument Discusses grounds for thesis. (four move argument sequence can be repeated indefinitely)	**Marker** Signals the introduction of a claim and relates it to the text. **(Restatement)** Rephrasing or repetition of proposition. **Claim** States reason for acceptance of the proposition. **Support** States the grounds which underpin the claim.
3. Conclusion Synthesized discussion and affirms the validity of thesis.	**(Marker)** Signals conclusion boundary **Consolidation** Presents the significance of the argument stage to the proposition. **(Affirmation)** Restates proposition **(Close)** Widens context or perspective of proposition.

According to Hyland (1990), each of the proposed stages has its own essential and optional moves, which can be distinguished with the use of round brackets. For example, in the first stage Thesis, the proposition move is an essential component and the rest are optional. The same rationale was applicable to the rest of stages. The analysis of EFL students' intercultural argumentative writing is presented in Appendix VI.

3.4.1.2.2 Cultural Values

The coding scheme for studying the impact of collectivism and individualism in Wu & Rubin's study (2000) was adopted in the present study for textual analysis of cultural values embedded in linguistic features in the argumentative writing, i.e. for tracing the influence of large cultures in the texts. A slight modification was made that "assertiveness" was eliminated due to the consideration of the participants' L2 writing knowledge and experience, and the category of "the use of rhetorical questions" was added to the coding scheme. The use of rhetorical questions is claimed to be a prototypical textual feature in Chinese writing (Matalene, 1985; Hinkel, 1997). According to Matalene (1985), the purpose of using rhetorical questions is a reader-responsible writing style, making the readers interpret the writer's stances, intentions and implications. The modified version of Wu & Rubin's model is presented in Table 8.

Table 8 Modification of Wu & Rubin's Model (2000) for Overall Writing Variables in Argumentative Writing

Writing Variables	Descriptive Definition	Operational Definition
Indirectness	Delay of the claim/thesis statement	The location of the claim/the placement of thesis statement
Personal Disclosure		
First person singular pronouns	Cognition about personal attributes, that is independent from in-group	"I," "my," "me"
Personal anecdotes	The revelation of personal experiences and stories	Personal experiences and stories
Use of Proverbs	A short saying in frequent and widespread use	The number of proverbs
Use of Rhetorical Questions	The statement is formulated in the form of questions	Inviting readers to interpret the writer's intentions
Collective Self		
First person plural pronouns	Cognition about group social entity, that is interdependent with in-group	"We," "our," "us"
Humaneness	Embracing all those moral qualities that guide a person in his relationship with each other	Benevolence; caring, loving or commiserating with others
Collective virtues	Appealing to virtues that uphold group solidarity	Taking responsibility or loyalty to the ingroup; filial piety to parents

3.4.1.2.3 The Analysis of Generic Moves and Cultural Values and Descriptive Statistics in Argumentative Writing

In total, 90 students' argumentative essays were collected, 45 in each language respectively, due to the unexpected absence of 5 participants. However, the number of participants' essays for textual analysis was cut down to 44 in each language, for one participant excluded any statement of proposition from their writing in both languages. According to Hyland (1990), proposition (thesis statement) is the essential element of an argumentative text. The English and Chinese essays were each hand-written in class within a 50-minute class period. While writing their essays, the participants were allowed to utilise contextual resources, like discussion with peers, paper or electronic dictionaries or advice from the teacher. The English composition was finished one week earlier than Chinese because it was part of the assigned writing tasks according to the curricular requirements. After the collection of participants' essays in both languages, copies of them were made to be used for textual analysis in the present study. A sample of participants' intercultural argumentative texts is provided in Appendix VI.

With reference to generic moves (Table 7), the percentages of each move identified in the different stages were calculated by summing up the occurrences of each move, which was divided by the total number of participants. For example, the occurrences of information move were 27, so the percentage was calculated as (27/44) x 100% = 61%. Regarding the linguistic expression of cultural values (Table 8), the occurrences of each writing variable were counted first and then the percentages were calculated by dividing the sum into the total number of sentences or words. For example, 2 occurrences of the use of proverbs in an essay consisting of 10 sentences was calculated as 2/10 = 20%. 10 occurrences of personal singular pronouns in an essay consisting of 100 words was calculated as 10/100 = 10%. In addition to first personal singular and plural pronouns that were computed by using the total number of words as the denominator, the rest of the eight linguistic features were computed by dividing the sum into the total number of sentences.

Concerning the calculation of the total number of words in Chinese argumentative writing, the criterion for calculation was based on the meaningful unit rather than on the single word. For example, the Chinese sentence "學習日文很重要的。" was counted as 4 words, including 學習 (Learning) 日文 (Japanese) 很 (very) 重要的 (important) as meaningful units. Furthermore, if a Chinese proverb or maxim appears in the sentence, it should be seen as a meaningful unit. For example, the sentence "他的前途是不可限量的。" consisted of 5 words, including 他的 (His) 前途 (future) 是 (is) 不可限量 (bù kě xiàn liàng, equally to be "bright" in English) 的 (the indication as an adjective).

The similarities and differences in terms of the frequency of each variable were computed using analysis of variance (ANOVA analysis). The statistical test was to investigate the effect of the language on the performance of the linguistic features; therefore, the language (Chinese versus English) was the independent variable and the eight linguistic features were the dependent variables in the ANOVA analysis.

The statistical results of analysing EFL students' argumentative writing across Chinese and English are presented in section 5.1 for organisation of generic moves and section 5.2 for linguistic features.

3.4.2   Qualitative Data: Student Interviews

The source of qualitative data in this study was audiorecorded student interviews to provide data for triangulation with quantitative material. When all the interviews had been completed, backup copies were made and stored in different places, such as a personal lap-top, external hard disks and USB storage disks. The transcription of the interviews was facilitated using Soundscriber 1.2, which made data retrieval more convenient for coding and entering onto computer files.

A basic set of conventions for transcripts adapted from Powers (2005) and Humble (no date) were used in the present study. The decision on the use of general conventions was to "turn the spoken word into a more easily read text─that is, into a written document rather than one that tries to capture the nature of speech" (Powers, 2005, p. 41). The general conventions are exemplified as follows:

[#01 PKU] This interview was conducted at 14:50pm on the 11th of November, 2011.

1   R: 你覺得中文寫作和英文寫作有沒有類似的地方?

2   T: … 就是第二段，中間那一段。就是內容那一段，就是－也是都要有舉例。

3   R: 好，那有不同的地方嗎?

4   T: 就是寫中文的話，就是不一定－就是不一定要在第一段就要講明。[她一邊看中文作

5   文，一邊看英文的作文]

1   R: Do you think there are similarities between Chinese and English writing?

2   T: … It is the second paragraph, the middle. It is the content, that is－that is to

3   give examples.

4   R: Ok. Are there any differences?

5   T: In Chinese writing, it is an option－it is an option to make points clear at the

6   beginning. [She looks at her Chinese writing and English writing at the same

7   time.]

Transcription Conventions

[#01 PKU]	Tape Counter
R	Researcher
M	Initials of interviewee names

NKU→		PKU→	
Miranda	M	Naomi	Na
Doris	D	Nina	N
Eileen	E	Peggy	P
Grace	G	Tina	T
Amber	A	Jenny	J

Pause	… (an ellipsis) longer pauses, more than 3 seconds
Non-verbal communication	[ ]: the use of brackets for non-verbal communication

Inaudible material	( ): the use of parentheses for inaudible material
Confidentiality	Pseudonyms are applied for all names that interviewees refer to
Miscellaneous	－: a long dash signifies the moments when an interviewee trails off on a word
Intonation	, marks low rise ? marks high rise (questions) . marks end of utterance

After all the interviews had been transcribed, the next step was to identify the themes that emerged from the data, a process also known as content analysis (Kumar, 2005). The design of the coding categories primarily sought information that could further corroborate the results of the quantitative data, including participants' elaboration on their own genre writing, writing instructional experiences, personal beliefs about textual features of good writing, comparing and contrasting writing conventions in L1 and L2 and personal writing difficulties. There were six sub-themes for systematically categorising the interview data, as indicated in Table 9 below.

Table 9 Sub-Themes of the Coding Categories

Sub-themes

Coding Number 1	Coding Number 2	Coding Number 3
EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction	**Writing instructional experiences**	**Features of good writing**
▪#01 PKU, pp. 50-52: topic sentence 就是整句的主旨。他就是－就是你的文章的主旨。	▪#03 PKU, pp. 31-32: 就是要用他教的就是課本裡面的單字。	▪#03 PKU, pp. 150-153: 共鳴,所以還是讀者很重要。
Coding Number 4	Coding Number 5	Coding Number 6
Similarities between Chinese and English writing	**Differences between Chinese and English writing**	**Individual Writing difficulties**
▪#05 PKU, pp. 72-74: 都要符合題目的要求。	▪# 02 PKU, pp. 85-87: 中文要由淺入深,漸入佳境而英文就是要開門見山。	▪# 04 PKU, pp. 222-225: 因為中文其實感覺就比較少接觸。

Each sub-theme was first numbered to facilitate the coding of huge amounts of information. Next, when specific information was found in the transcriptions, the interview number, location and content were entered in the coding grids, as shown in Table 9. As the interviews were conducted in Chinese, the information in the coding grids is also Chinese. Lastly, when interpreting the overall results of the qualitative data, the presentation of the identified information was not only in Chinese, but also translated into English by the researcher. Meanwhile, the English version of the translated information was reviewed by the researcher's friends, who had more than 5 years' experience of teaching English in universities in Taiwan. The coding of the data was important, as it was beneficial in recognising the themes, concepts and examples contained in the data (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). After each interview had been marked with coding categories, it was easier to examine individual perspectives for the same issue across interviewees, and to offer integrated insights to answer the research questions. The results of the interview analysis are presented in sections 4.4 and 5.4, respectively.

3.5   Implementation of Pilot Study and Reflection on the Research Journey

3.5.1   Conduct of the Pilot Study

A pre-test was carried out to test the effectiveness of using a student questionnaire for data collection for the purpose of the present study. It took place at the Avenue Campus in the University of Southampton, involving seven postgraduate students who were Chinese-native speakers. Before they consented to participate in the pilot study, explanations of the purpose of the present study and the goals of the questionnaire were explicitly made clear. A summary of the overall results of the questionnaire piloted is presented as follows:

Sections I & II: Personal Information and English Language Level

All participants were female Chinese students aged in their early twenties, who varied in their academic majors, including one in English, two in Arts and the rest in Business Management. With more than ten-year experiences of studying English, 3 out of 7 reported that they were at intermediate level, 3 at advanced level and 1 rejected to provide any information about her English proficiency level. Regarding certificates of English proficiency, it was reported that 2 out of 7 had IELTS 6.5 and the rest passed College English Test with a score of 6.

Section III: English Writing Instructional Experiences

The English writing level reported by the participants was 6 on a scale of one to ten, but only 2 out of 7 stated that they had at least 10-year experiences of having formal writing instruction and the rest had merely 1-year or 3-year experiences. With reference to types of texts taught in the classroom, the influence of participants' academic background played an important role. The English-major student came across all the types of texts, whilst the rest ticked off essays, short answers in examinations, summaries and journals. The view that essays and summaries were the most common type of writing and poem was the least common type of writing was agreed by all the participants. Likewise, a similar view of teaching methods appeared between participants: that the teacher assigned writing topics and asked students to write was the most prominent, and that the teacher asked students to revise the corrected essays by themselves occurred

infrequently. Clarity of main ideas, organisation of ideas and title were selected as the most emphasised features of English writing.

When responding to the question about structural organisation in English writing, participants showed limited knowledge. Three out of seven reported that the sequential organisation, *Introduction-Body-Conclusion*, was a useful guide for packing information in English writing, whereas three did not express their opinions and one talked about grammar and vocabulary. With reference to reasons for stopping writing, only one participant reported that she "always" stopped writing for translation and grammatical accuracy, but the rest "sometimes" did. Four out of seven said that they "usually" stopped writing for vocabulary and the rest "sometimes" did. When being asked about teacher feedback, five out of seven pointed out that teachers "usually" gave feedback on their essays and teachers' feedback was "very important." "A large enough vocabulary" and "an adequate variety of sentence patterns" were ticked off as the most common difficulties participants encountered in English writing.

Section III: Chinese Writing Instructional Experiences

The total number of the pilot participants went down to 6 because one refused to fill in the questions in this section. The reasons remained unknown. The average number of their writing level in Chinese was 8 on a scale of one to ten. 4 out of 6 had at least 15-year experiences of writing instruction in Chinese, but the rest reported that they only had 6-year experiences. Except for "reports" and "research papers", the participants came across all types of text types and ticked off "essay" and "argumentative writing" as the most common types. Regarding the teaching methods, it was pointed out that the most common was that the teacher assigned writing topics and asked to write and the least common was to have the teacher correct errors on their papers.

With reference to paragraph organisation in Chinese writing, 75% of the participants reported that the sequence "Introduction-Body-Conclusion" was the guideline, but 1 out of the remaining stated that the sequence "qi-cheng-zhuan-he" was the traditional rhetoric in Chinese writing. While in the writing process, 5 out of 6 reported that they

"never stopped writing because of grammatical accuracy and vocabulary, but 1 "sometimes" did. When asked about teacher feedback, all the participants shared a similar view that teachers "always" gave feedback on their essays and teachers' feedback was "very important" to them. The major difficulties in Chinese writing included "content: having sufficient ideas to write about" and "an adequate variety of sentence patterns."

3.5.2   Revisions of the Student Questionnaire for the Goals of this Study

Although the scope of the pilot study was quite small, on reflection, it led to three minor, but nonetheless important, changes, in terms of the goals of the present study. First of all, due to the low rate of responses to the open-ended question about "paragraph organisation" in Chinese and English, question 9 was revised to attract a higher response rate and to elicit short answers from participants. The original question "*Please talk about "paragraph organisation" in English/Chinese. Give detailed examples.*" was revised to "*Can you please briefly describe "Paragraph Organisation" in English/Chinese writing*?" The revision was based on one of the participants' opinion that "I'd love to talk about it, but please do not ask me to write a lot." Secondly, in the sections on Experience with English and Chinese Writing Instruction, questions 4, 6 and 8 were revised to eliminate ambiguity in the answers. The original intention was to have participants rank their answers in the order, "the most", "the second" and "the third most common". The results of the pilot study showed a high level of confusion about the answers. For example, one participant ranked "essay" as both the most and the second most common. In order to make clear distinctions between the answers, questions 4, 6, and 8 were revised to "the most" and "the least" common or emphasised. Finally, a Chinese version of the questionnaire was highly recommended by the participants. Many of the participants pointed out that it was too difficult to go through all the questions and some questions were quite long. If the postgraduate participants struggled to complete the questionnaire, the use of an English version for freshmen must have posed greater practical difficulties. As a result, a Chinese version of the questionnaire (See Appendix III) was devised, not only to increase the response rate, but also to improve the efficiency of implementation of the questionnaire.

In addition to the amendments to the questionnaire, the pilot questionnaire results had a positive impact on the goals of this study, in particular the importance of comparing genre-rhetoric construction between L1 and L2. For example, an overlapping result was found, suggesting that the rhetorical sequence "Introduction-Body-Conclusion" is a typical writing convention shared between Chinese and English. Although the researcher did not check the answers with respondents, it was assumed that L2 writers displayed limited knowledge about distinctive large culture rhetorical organisations in L1 and L2. Due to small culture factors of limited L2 language proficiency and writing experience, novice L2 writers inevitably emphasised the linguistic features in L2 writing with little attention to comparing and contrasting writing experiences in L1 and L2. The investigation of novice L2 writers' perspectives of similarities and differences in writing conventions in L1 and L2 was therefore brought into prominence in the present study and interviews were carried out to elicit individual writers' writing experiences in L1 and L2. The triangulation of the results from multiple methods served to further consolidate the findings from the resourceful data material to better understand novice L2 writers' approaches to genre writing.

3.5.3   Personal Reflection on the Research Journey

Engagement in research into L2 writing has given the researcher invaluable experience, in particular in the practical skills for carrying out research to investigate specific themes, though the procedure was full of challenges. Prior to the design of the study research, the first challenge was to clearly identify focal points in the field. The motivation to study factors influencing L2 writers' genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural genre writing was inspired by a large number of studies in genre theory and contrastive rhetoric. Since genre theory has strong implications for pedagogical practice, in particular the teaching of generic structure in ESP/EAP writing tasks, and, as contrastive rhetoric studies highlight the importance of influences of large cultures and small cultures on L2 writers' writing performance, the interest was to see how those factors interacted to affect L2 writers text production in an EFL context. This study therefore had the aim of exploring L2 writers' genre-rhetoric construction, in both taught and untaught genre writing in L1 and L2.

The use of multiple methods, including textual analysis, a student questionnaire and interviews with students, was expected to provide rich information to support the goals of this study. Due to the practical challenges for data collection, interviews with teachers were eliminated, as they were quite busy with teaching and preparation for final examinations. Textual analysis was essential in this study, as it provided concrete evidence of "*what*" L2 writers produced in their writing, which was further supported by the results from the student questionnaire and the interviews to understand "*why*" they wrote in particular ways. The collection of students' texts and the implementation of the student questionnaire had been highly supported by the teachers' assistance, but difficulties arose in the process of the student interviews because some interviewees needed a lot of encouragement for them to express their opinions. After the data collection, much time and effort were devoted to how to analyse the data effectively, in particular the analyses of texts and the interview data. It was quite difficult to calculate the frequency of linguistic features found in L2 writers' texts. For example, the frequency of proverbs was based on the total number of sentences, whilst that of first personal pronouns was determined by the total number of words. In addition, the word counts in Chinese and English were quite different because of the different linguistic characteristics of the two languages. Regarding the interview data, general coding of categories presented difficulties, as different pieces of information from the transcriptions could end up in different categories, thus making interpretation of the results and effective textual analysis problematic.

After data analysis, the next step was to search and integrate the useful information that had emerged from the multiple sources of data to fulfil the goals of this study. The overall findings from the data highlighted the inseparability of the generic structures and rhetorical features in genre writing. They are both essential components for the achievement of successful communicative purpose in which the pragmatic views of the structural moves closely relate to the embedded rhetorical features. For example, while formulating a claim-support pair move in argumentative writing, L2 writers might demonstrate individualism in Chinese and collectivism in English. As discussed in this study, a wide range of factors could affect the ways L2 writers convey the pragmatism of rhetorical features within the structural moves. One of the prominent factors was the influence of L2 writers' L1 large culture, a unique phenomenon in the EFL context.

Therefore, it is suggested that L2 writers be sensitised to the potential influence of their L1 cultural background on the genre-rhetoric construction, which may facilitate their agency and decision making in L2 writing.

The recognition of the relationship between genre theory and contrastive rhetoric studies as two sides of the same coin contrasted with the researcher's original perspective that genre theory and contrastive rhetoric studies were irrelevant to each other due to different foci in their research. However, at the end of the intelligent research journey, genre theory should be conceptualised as an umbrella term, under which contrastive rhetoric studies are subsumed. It is argued that the integration of contrastive rhetoric studies into genre theory has benefits for L2 writing instruction in the EFL context where L2 writers are able to perceive L2 writing tasks as socially, culturally and contextually situated.

Chapter 4 Data Analyses: EFL Students' Letters of Job Application in Chinese and English

This chapter presents the results of quantitative and qualitative analyses of Taiwanese EFL students' letters of job application in Chinese and English. Sections 4.1 and 4.2 present the results of textual analysis, including the organisation of component moves and politeness strategies; section 4.3 shows the results of student questionnaires and section 4.4 discusses Taiwanese EFL students' perspectives for dealing with the assigned writing tasks based on the results of interviews.

4.1 The Organisation of Generic Moves of Letters of Job Application in Chinese and English

Section 4.1 presents the quantitative textual analysis, including direct translation, number of paragraphs and the elemental components of generic structures.

4.1.1 Direct Translation

In this study, direct translation was a writing strategy frequently adopted by a large number of EFL students (71%, 32 out of 45). They normally did word-by-word translation. The following excerpt was an example of word-by-word translation.

> 1 My name is Wang Yi-ting. I have majored in foreign language department since I was a senior high school student. I study English, Japanese and a little Franch. When I started to study foreign language, I had decided to be flight attendant. I have great passion for it and I view this career as my dream and the goal I strive for.
>
> 我叫王依葶，從我上高中時，我就開始主修應用外語。我學習英文，日文和略些的法文。而從我開始學習外語，我就決定要成為一位空服員。我對於這份工作有相當大的興趣，我也將這份工作視為我的夢想及努力的目標。(Participant 1)

The writer began the job application letters in both languages with a brief introduction of basic information that is her names, language skills, and the interest in being a flight attendant. Due to a very high level of similarity in terms of organisation of main points, it was clear that the writing strategy he/she used was to translate word by word.

However, translation may be a less tedious activity, not merely doing word-by-word translation, but offering additional information in the mother tongue language, as illustrated in the following excerpt.

2   Hi, My name is Kelly. I want to apply for a executive of your company. I have not only good ability of management but also domination. My English is pretty good. I'm able to talk to foreigners fluently.

您好，我是王曉婷，畢業的科系是應用外語系，我的英文能力很好，不論是聽、說、讀、寫都行，我想應徵這部門的主管，領導及管理的能力更是不可或缺的，並要有良好的溝通技巧和處理事情的能力。(Participant 10)

In spite of the fact that excerpt 2 was more than just doing translation as excerpt 1, it is categorised as direct translation due to the inclusion of identical main ideas in the two languages. The introduction of the writer's name, English proficiency, desire for applying for an executive position in a company were the main arguments of the application letters in both languages. Nevertheless, English was characterised with ellipsis of some information and additional information occurred in Chinese to augment the main arguments. For example, the writer mentioned her confidence in English speaking with foreigners in English, but placed an emphasis on all aspects of English proficiency in Chinese, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. When it came to the point to talk about the job vacancy, the writer shortly described the title of the job in English, but included a detailed description of qualifications for the job as an executive in a company in Chinese, like outstanding leadership (領導的能力), excellent management (管理的能力), good communicative ability (良好的溝通能力) as well as the ability for dealing with assigned tasks (處理事情的能力). The writing that displayed similar main arguments with slight imbalance of information between languages as excerpt 2 was classified as direct-translation writing.

4.1.2   Number of Paragraphs

Table 10 below shows the number of paragraphs identified in Taiwanese EFL students' English (45) and Chinese (45) job application letters respectively. In English letters of application, 19 out of 45 EFL students (42%) wrote with 2 paragraphs, and 3-paragraph

writing was preferred by 38%. Only 6 out of 45 (13%) wrote with one paragraph and 7% wrote with four paragraphs. In Chinese letters of application, one-paragraph writing was the most preferred pattern written by nearly 49% (22 out of 45). 12 out of 45 (27%) were inclined to write with 2 paragraphs, which was slightly more than those (20%, 9 out of 45) who wrote with 3 paragraphs. Only 2 out of 45 EFL students (4%) wrote with four paragraphs.

Table 10 Number of Paragraphs per Letter

	English		Chinese	
Number of Paragraph(s)	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 Paragraph	6	13.3%	22	48.9%
2 Paragraphs	19	42.2%	12	26.7%
3 Paragraphs	17	37.8%	9	20%
4 Paragraphs	3	6.7%	2	4.4%

With regard to the overall paragraph organisation, the similarity shared between EFL students' English and Chinese letters of job application is that only 4% (2 out of 45) in Chinese and 7% (3 out of 45) in English, wrote with 4 paragraphs. The most striking difference was that one paragraph writing was the most frequent approach used by EFL students in Chinese used by 49% (22 out of 45), but was the second least frequent in English, only 13% (6 out of 45). With regard to 2-paragraph and 3-paragraph writing in Chinese, 27% (12 out of 45) wrote with 2 paragraphs while 20% of them (9 out of 45) wrote with 3 paragraphs. Both increased prominently in English. 19 out of 45 (42%) wrote their English job application letters with 2 paragraphs and 17 out of 45 (38%) wrote with 3 paragraphs.

4.1.3   Textual Analysis of Generic Moves

According to the coding scheme of job application letters (See Table 4 in Section 3.4.1.1.1), the overall occurrences of move components shown in Table 11

exhibited a high level of similarities rather than differences between English and Chinese. With regard to the similarities, for example, move 4 and move 3 were the most frequently used in both English and Chinese, the former accounting for 37.7% of all moves in English and 32.3% in Chinese and the latter accounting for 30.7% in both English and Chinese. Unlike them, move 9 and move 10 were the least frequent, making contributions to 1.4% and 0.5% in English respectively and receiving no attention in Chinese.

In addition to the general description of the overall results, the following sections pay attention to the discussion of Taiwanese EFL students' deployment of generic moves with in-depth examples, and commentary on the possible reasons for the similarity between Chinese and English letters. Any statistical information mentioned in the following discussion can be referred back to Table 11.

Table 11 Frequencies and Percentages of Component Moves in English and Chinese Letters of Job Application

Move Components	English		Chinese	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
1. Pre-move: Greetings	17	7.9%	22	11.6%
2. Identify source of information	15	7.0%	17	9.0%
3. Apply for the position/ state desire for consideration	66	30.7%	58	30.7%
4. Provide arguments–background and experience	81	37.7%	61	32.3%
5. Provide arguments–good for the hiring company	2	0.9%	3	1.6%
6. Provide arguments–good for the applicant	7	3.3%	4	2.1%
7. Desire for an interview or further contact	4	1.9%	7	3.7%
8. Express politeness or appreciation at the end of the letter	19	8.8%	19	10.1%
9. Offer to provide more information	3	1.4%	0	0.0%
10. Reference attached résumé	1	0.5%	0	0.0%
Total	215	100.0%	189	100.0%

4.1.3.1 Pre-Move Greetings

The pre-move "Greetings" is seen as an introductory move, establishing the relationship with readers and creating a positive image in a polite manner (Zhu, 2000). Zhu further claimed that such an introductory move is unique to Chinese business letters, which can be affected by social and cultural factors. Consequently, the inclusion of the pre-move "Greeting" in English business letters might be considered atypical or improper.

According to the results in Table 11, 22/45 Chinese job application letters and 17/45 English job application letters included the pre-move "greetings". In Chinese letters, formulaic expressions "您好 (Nínhǎo)" or "你好 (Ninhǎo)"were frequently used for greetings. 15 out of 22 greetings were in the form of 您好(Nínhǎo), whilst 5 out of 22 were expressed as 你好 (Ninhǎo). The remaining two, due to the small number of writers, cannot be considered as formulaic expressions, but as an individual decision; one was 不好意思(excuse me) and the other was 大家好(Hi, everyone). Both 您好 (Nínhǎo) and 你好 (Ninhǎo) are polite expressions in Chinese culture, but can be differentiated from each other at the level of politeness. In general, the former is an honorific (您 Nín) and formal term, frequently being used to those who are elderly or in a superior social status, whilst the latter is a less formal term, always being used to those who are in a similar or inferior social status. For the large number of the use of 您好 (Nínhǎo) as an introductory move, it was indicated that audience expectation may be an important factor to affect EFL students' writing performance. Aware of the inequality of social distance between the employer (the reader) and the employee (the writer), they frequently used 您好(Nínhǎo) as a communicative strategy in order to increase success for obtaining a further interview. On the other hand, EFL students who used 你好 (Ninhǎo) as an introductory move may have the belief that the elimination of social distance can bring about a positive effect for successfully achieving the communicative purpose.

Similarly, the use of pre-move "greetings" also appeared in some EFL students' English job application letters (17/45), suggesting that EFL students, while writing in English, were influenced by their Chinese sociocultural views on politeness and accordingly attempted to transfer their L1 writing knowledge to L2 writing. The most frequent use

of greetings in English letters was Hello (12 out of 17) and the rest included Hi (2), Excuse me (1), Hi, Everyone (1) and Greetings to Mr. Smith, manager of Speedtech Co. Ltd. (1). The English greetings, Hello (more formal) and Hi (less formal), can be related to the Chinese greeting phrases, 您好(Nínhǎo) and 你好(Ninhǎo). "Greetings to Mr. Smith, manager of Speedtech Co. Ltd.," offers a particularly clear example of cultural influence. However examples of direct translation were also found, in the use of Excuse me (不好意思) and Hi, Everyone (大家好). It may be suggested that the appearance of pre-move in English letters can result from direct translation as well as the influence of students' L1 sociocultural views (i.e. a mix of small culture and large culture factors is at work).

4.1.3.2 Identify Source of Information

The frequency of move 2 "identify source of information" was low, found in 15/45 letters in English and 17/45 in Chinese, which might indicate EFL students' limited knowledge about business communication. For example,

3 I just got the information that <u>your English cram school</u> needs a teaching assistant two days ago.

我最近得知<u>貴補習班</u>徵求一位英語助教的消息。

(Translation: Recently, I have learned the news that you are recruiting an English assistant at your English cram school.) (Participant 5)

4 In these days, I got some information which is <u>your esteemed company</u> is looking for an international translator.

近日，於人力銀行得知<u>貴公司</u>正在誠徵一名國際翻譯人員。

(Translation: Recently, I got information from Human Resource Bank that your company has been looking for an international translator.) (Participant 25)

5 I saw that there is a vacancy offered by <u>your company</u> in the newspaper.

我是從朋友口中知道<u>貴公司</u>正在招募服務生。

(Translation: I got the information from my friends that <u>your company</u> has been recruiting for waiters/waitresses.) (Participant 28)

6 It is fortunate that I saw your advertisement for requiring a secretary in business department.

很高興在報紙上得知<u>貴餐廳</u>正在應徵短期的外場服務生。

(Translation: It is happy to see the job advertisement in the newspaper that your restaurant has been recruiting short-term waiters/waitresses.) (Participant 42)

The underlined words in examples referred to the names of institutions. In English letters, "your + the names of institutions" was the most preferable expression, whilst "貴 ＋the names of institutions" was the formulaic expression in Chinese letters. It was worth investigating the politeness embedded into the formulaic expression "貴＋the names of institutions". While addressing to the institutions in the job application letters, writers could alternatively use 你的 (Ninde, your) as a substitution for 貴(Guei), like 你 的公司(your company, an identical term in English), but they did not. In Chinese culture, 貴(Guei, a honorific) is always associated with a high degree of politeness and respect. Writers who used "貴＋the names of institutions" as a formulaic expression in Chinese job application letters attempted to relate the assigned writing tasks to their L1 cultural background. Moreover, example 4 showed evidence of cultural influence from Chinese to English in that the writer used the expression "your esteemed company" rather than "your company", reflecting his/her belief that the idea of being polite and respectful to the reader (the employer) embedded into the expression was shared by different large cultures.

4.1.3.3 Apply for the Position/State the Desire for Consideration

The use of move 3 accounted for 30.7% of all moves in both English and Chinese letters, the second highest frequency in the overall results. The extremely large number was primarily attributed to the use of the move as the application for the position (26 occurrences in English letters and 16 in Chinese letters) and the statement of desire for consideration (40 occurrences in English letters and 42 in Chinese letters).

Concerning the application for the position, a similarity between English and Chinese letters was the frequent use of the verb phrase "apply for," underlined in the following examples.

7   And that is why I apply for this job for a translator. (Participant 13)

8   Therefore, I want to apply for the cram school teacher's job. (Participant 21)

9   I want to apply for a tour guide job. (Participant 33)

10 我想要應徵這份工作。 (Translation: I would like to apply for this job) (Participant 22)

11 所以今天寫這封求職信來應徵這份工作。

   (Translation: I am therefore writing an application letter to apply for the job.) (Participant 5)

12 我想應徵這部門的主管。

   (Translation: I would like to apply for a job as a manager in the department.) (Participant 10)

Some other interesting non-formulaic expressions used by writers are listed in the following examples.

13 I got the information about your esteemed company's translator need that <u>I think I may fit it</u>.
   (Participant 24)

14 I felt that I met the requirements of the job and I hope that I will be given a chance to get the job.
   (Participant 28)

15 由於我非常嚮往貴公司的工作內容,一邊環遊世界,一邊賺錢,這是我理想的工作型態。

   (Translation: The job vacancy offered by your company attracts me a lot because traveling
   around the world and making money in the meantime is the description of my ideal job.)
   (Participant 19)

Example 13 was an integration of move 2 "identify source of information" and move 3 "apply for the position". This seems to have been regarded as a strategy the writer employed intelligently to make the letter of job application more vivid than those in which the verb phrase "apply for" was massively repeated. The other strategy to avoid the dullness of using formulaic expressions was captured in examples 14 and 15 where the writers applied for the job vacancy by earnestly showing that they had carefully read the requirements and the description of the job vacancy. As a result, it was indicated that while the majority of EFL students used formulaic expressions to apply for the position, some attempted to be creative to achieve the goal in both English and Chinese.

The other function of move 3 was to state the desire for the position, the communicative purpose of which was seen as a supplementary aid to applying for the position. The strategies used in move 3 mainly included "self-glorification" and "self-degradation" (Bhatia, 1993). According to Bhatia, self-glorification is a strategy, making "an unsupported claim of the writer's own superiority based simply on feelings or desires rather than on rational judgment" (p. 70), whereas self-degradation is to invoke the reader's (employer) compassion and pity. Although self-glorification and self-degradation are regarded as individual moves in Bhatia's study, in this study, they are

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treated as politeness strategies rather than individual moves (See further discussion in Section 4.2.2.2).

There was a difference in the employment of self-glorification and self-degradation between English and Chinese job application letters. In English, self-glorification was employed as frequently as self-degradation, whilst in Chinese letters self-degradation was the predominant strategy, although self-glorification was employed by a small number of writers. With reference to the employment of self-glorification, it was always associated with the claim that the writers were the best choices or candidates for the position in both languages, as shown in the following examples.

16 As a result, I will be the <u>best choice</u> for this volunteer. (Participant 4)

17 I am <u>the best</u> in this field, choose me and you won't regret it. (Participant 9)

18 I believe that to choose me will be the <u>best choice</u> you'll make. (Participant 17)

19 I think there are <u>not anyone more suitable</u> for the job than I. (Participant 10)

20 I believe your <u>best choice</u> is I. (Participant 45)

21 因此我深信我會是<u>最適合</u>這份志工工作的人。(Participant 4)

   (Translation: Therefore, I truly believe that I am <u>the best</u> candidate for the volunteer job.)

22 選擇我將是您<u>最好的選擇</u>。 (Translation: I am your <u>best choice</u>.) (Participant 15)

23 我相信自己<u>有能力可以勝任</u>這份工作。

   (Translation: I believe I am <u>capable of</u> doing this job well.) (Participant 20)

24 我<u>有自信能勝任</u>此工作。

   (Translation: I have <u>confidence of</u> doing this job well.) (Participant 32)

In English letters, the employment of self-glorification was always connected to the phrase "the best choice" or other similar expressions, like the one in example 18, to convince the reader (employer) of accepting their applications. Similarly, such expressions were also identified in Chinese letters, like 最適合(the best) and 最好的選擇 (the best choice), alongside a greater variety of expressions, like 有能力可以勝任 (capable of doing) or 有自信能勝任(have confidence of doing), to glorify the writers' capability or confidence in taking up the job based on his/her emotional opinions.

Self-degradation was the other strategy employed frequently to state the desire for consideration, in particular in Chinese letters, the purpose of which, according to Bhatia

(1993), is to invoke the reader's (employer) compassion or pity. The following examples illustrate the ways writers employed self-degradation in their application letters.

25 I really hope I have the pleasure to get this job. (Participant 6)

26 I hope the esteemed company could give me an opportunity to improve myself. (Participant 25)

27 我熱切地希望能進入貴公司。

(Translation: I earnestly would like to work in your company.) (Participant 6)

28 希望貴公司能給予我這個機會,讓我在這發揮我的才能。

(Translation: I do hope I can be offered an opportunity to work in your company with my talent.) (Participant 18)

29 懇請貴公司能給我一個機會進入這間響譽國際的大公司。

(Translation: I earnestly hope I could have the opportunity to work in the international known company.) (Participant 27)

30 希望貴公司可以給我一個機會好好表現,讓我有榮幸可以成為您們的職員。

(Translation: I hope I could have an opportunity to work in your company and it is my honour to become one of the staff.) (Participant 35)

31 十分渴望能夠擁有這份職位。
(Translation: I want the job with thousands and hundreds of desires.) (Participant 43)

In English letters, EFL students had the tendency of beginning their sentences with first personal pronoun and frequently used phrases, like "give me the opportunity/chance" as formulaic expressions. Similar syntactic structures were also identified in Chinese letters where EFL students were inclined to start their sentences with a verb "希望/渴望 (hope)" which were always accompanied with the expression "給我這個/一個機會 (give me an opportunity)."

4.1.3.4 Provide Arguments: Background & Experiences, Good for the Hiring Company and Good for the Applicant

Relevant arguments to support the application were provided within moves 4, 5 and 6, including the applicants' personal and educational backgrounds, professional certificates and working experiences－within move 4, their potential contributions to the hiring companies within move 5, and the advantages they can offer within move 6. Among all moves in letters of job application, move 4 was a key move in both English, 37.7% of all moves and Chinese, 32.3%, mainly talking about the applicants' names, ages, personalities and academic majors in the university and occasionally mentioning

their working experiences or certificates of specific skills. Such arguments were
frequently located in the beginning of the application letters, a typical textual feature
shared between English and Chinese, as displayed in the following example:

32 <u>My name is Yolanda Wu. I am 18 years old. I major in Applied Foreign Language in National
Kaohsiung University of Applied Sciences</u>. I get the information your restaurant is looking for
short-term waitress from newspaper. Though I don't have this kind of experience, I still want
the job.

您好，<u>我的名字是吳玉，我是來自高雄應用科技大學的應用外語系</u>，我從網路上得知貴
公司將招募空姐，希望有這個機會可以成為貴公會的一員。

(Translation: Hi, my name is Yi Wu, majoring in Applied Linguistics in National Kaohsiung
University of Applied Sciences. I read the news online that you're looking for flight attendants.
I hope I will have the opportunity to work with you.) (Participant 34)

The underlined words referred to move 4, providing the writer's name and major in the
university, which came ahead of move 2 "identify source of information" and move 3
"state desire for consideration." Such a strategy to start the opening of an application
letter was used by the majority of EFL students in both English and Chinese letters.
Moreover, they were also inclined to talk about their personalities, with arguments of
working experiences and certificates of specific skills interchangeably, as the main body
in application letters. For example:

33 I'm a positive, diligent, and independent girl. When I do assignments, I can do well and hand in it
on time. I deal with other people very well. And I can do well not only by myself but also work
with other people. When I face difficulties, I have the ability to solve the problems. And I am
willing to help others who need help.

我是一個積極、勤奮、獨立的女孩。我跟人相處融洽，我能自己做好工作也能跟同事合
作完成，我能接納與尊重他人意見。我也很樂意幫助他人，遇到問題時，我有能力解決
問題及詢問他人意見。(Direct translation from English.) (Participant 32)

The writer focused on talking about her personality as supporting arguments for the
application, including her character, problem-solving ability and attitudes for
independent and collaborative work. With a lack of working experiences, it is
understandable that the writers placed an emphasis on their personalities. The tendency
to add personal information in the application letters might also reflect the influence of

their L1 sociocultural background (large culture). As noted in Zhu's (2000) study, the communicative purposes of some moves in Chinese sales letters aim at building a long-term relationship and creating a polite image. To deliver much information about the writer's personalities may be seemingly less relevant to the application, but can be beneficial for establishing a relationship with the reader (employer).

In addition to the argument of personality, some writers provided examples of their previous working experiences or certificates of specific skills as enhancement for their application. With regard to their academic background, writers placed an emphasis on their certificates of language proficiency, like TOEFL, TOEIC, GEPT, as an important indication for their outstanding English proficiency. In example 34, the writer talked about his/her working experiences and certificates of languages to convince the reader that he/she is the best candidate for the job in both English and Chinese letters.

> 34 I studied and work through my college life. I learn more and gain lots of working experiences. I got GEPT elementary and intermediate license and TOEIC 750 up score. With these academic license and working experiences, I believe I can adapt to the job quickly. My personality is passionate and responsible.
>
> 在大學生涯中，我半工半讀，學得更多也得到了許多工作經驗。我已考取全民英檢初級和中級證照以及多益 750 分證照。有了這些學術證照和工作經驗，我有信心可以很快適應這份工作。我的特質就是熱情與負責。(Direct translation from English.) (Participant 3)

Apart from move 4, moves 5 and 6 also have the function of providing supporting arguments or information to the application, the former emphasising the advantages to the hiring company and the latter referring to the advantages to the applicants themselves. According to the statistics, both move 5 (2 occurrences in English and 3 in Chinese) and move 6 (7 occurrences in English and 4 in Chinese) were less usual move components in the application letters. In move 5, EFL students talked about the profit or improvement they can bring to the hiring company in a general statement; on the other hand, they had more deliberate thoughts about the benefits they can obtain from the job in move 6, as exemplified in the following 2 sets of examples:

Set A: 1). I can help your company improve and make everything perfectly. (Participant 10)

2). It is my first time to apply a job, so I don't need to earn too much money. What I want to do is to sharpen my skills in every aspect and apply what I learn from school. (Participant 33)

Set B: 1). 一旦進入貴公司，將全力為公司帶來最大的利益，為公司爭取更多的客戶。

(Translation: Once serving in your company, I would do my best to increase the number of profit and customers for the company.) (Participant 9)

2). 若我能勝任這份工作，我想我不但能學到與人的相處之道，也能學到各國的文化。當然也能增進我的英文能力。我能擁有更多機會與人對談，尤其是用英文和外國人對話，這是我在學校無法學到的事。

(Translation: If I could get this job, I think I can learn not only how to get on with people, but also different cultures as well as the improvement of my English proficiency. I hope I could have more opportunities to talk to people, in particular English talks with foreigners. That is something I haven't practiced in school.) (Participant 19)

Each set consisted of two examples, one each from move 5 and 6 respectively. According to set A (in English), the advantage for the hiring company was expressed in a broad sense in A(1), associated with "improvement" and "perfectly," whereas example A(2) delivered the message about the advantage for the applicant in more detail, like the development of skills and the application of his/her knowledge from school. The difference between moves 5 and 6 became more apparent in Chinese application letters, as was revealed in the set B. In example B(1), the writer mainly talked about the increase of profit and customers for the hiring company in a general statement; the message delivered from example B(2) illustrated the benefit for the applicant in multiple aspects, like the maintenance of good interpersonal relationships, the development of knowledge about different cultures and the improvement of English proficiency, in particular the skill of maintaining an English conversation with foreigners. The difference between moves 5 and 6 where they were used can be attributable to two factors deriving from the 'small culture' of student life. Firstly, without plenty of working experiences, writers had limited knowledge about the possible advantages for the hiring company, thereby talking about them in a general statement in the letters of job application. However, they were very conscious of what they desired or the benefits they could seek when looking for a job. Secondly, the difference between Sets A and B may be associated with their limited English

proficiency, which can be a hindrance for the expression of their thoughts. Based on the discussion above, it is suggested that individual writer's life experience, in this case lack of work experience, is an important small culture factor that could shape writers' construction of structural moves in the letter of job application, alongside L2 proficiency whose influence has been noted before.

4.1.3.5 Desire for an Interview or Further Contact & Express Politeness or Appreciation at the End of the Letter

As shown in Table 11, 11 students used move 7 in some form, 4 in English letters and 7 in Chinese letters, whereas equal attention was paid to the expression of politeness or appreciation at the end of the letter (move 8: 19 students in both English and Chinese). With reference to move 7, professional writers regard this move as an important component of letters of application (Upton & Connor, 2001). However, it was noted that participants did not make any requests for an interview, but either provided their phone numbers or e-mail addresses for further contact or implied their wishes to be contacted in the future. For example,

35 My number is 0912-345-678.
　　我的手機號碼是 0912-345678。 (Participant 5)

36 My e-mail is Maggie 30424@yahoo.com.tw.
　　我的 email 是 maggie30424@yahoo.com.tw. 。 (Participant 7)

37 Please call me 0910532680.
　　請撥空聯絡我,0910532686。 (Participant 11)

38 My phone number is 091234567.
　　這是我的聯絡電話 091234567 或可以寄個 e-mail: 222812345@yahoo.com.tw。
　　(Translation: My phone number is 091234567 or my e-mail is 222812345@yahoo.com.tw.)
　　(Participant 17)

39 也希望貴公司在看完此信後,能儘快給我回覆。
　　(Translation: I am looking forward to hearing from you soon after you read my letter.)
　　(Participant 6)

40 我非常希望能有這個機會加入,<u>也盼望能接獲您的通知</u>。

   (Translation: I am looking forward to joining your team as well as hearing from you soon.)
(only underlined section refers to move 7.) (Participant 8)

41 以及期望以後能有機會獲得您的指教。

   (Translation: Also, I am looking forward to having a contact with you.) (Participant 27)

According to examples 35 to 41, writers took advantage of move 7 mainly for specifying a means of further communication in English and Chinese letters, but had an additional option to indicate their desire to be contacted in Chinese letters, as shown in examples 39, 40 and 41. These results contrast with Hou & Li's (2011) study. They claimed that Taiwanese students frequently state their desire for an interview or further contact in English application letters. The difference might be attributed to my participants' limited knowledge of application letters due to their life stage and lack of instruction in this genre.

By contrast, the analysis of move 8 demonstrates a high level of agreement with Hou & Li's (2011) study that Taiwanese EFL students paid much attention to the expression of politeness at the end of the letter. Nearly half used formulaic expressions for politeness or appreciation in the closing paragraph in both English and Chinese letters, as illustrated in the following examples.

42 Thank you for your consideration. (Participant 5)

43 Thanks for spending so much time reading this letter. (Participant 31)

44 Thank you. (Participant 35)

45 謝謝您看完這封信。 (Translation: Thank you for reading this letter.) (Participant 29)

46 謝謝您花費寶貴時間閱讀這封信。
   (Translation: Thanks for your time reading this letter.) (Participant 5)

47 謝謝。 (Translation: Thank you) (Participant 38)

4.1.3.6 Offer to Provide More Information & Reference Attached Résumé

With regard to moves 9 and 10, writers rarely made offers to provide more information nor mentioned the enclosure of résumé in the closing paragraph. None of them employed these moves in their Chinese letters; however, there were a few examples in their English letters. For instance,

48 If you want to know more information about me, please contact me without hesitation. (Participant 5)

49 If you have any problem or want to know more information about me, please call or send an e-mail to me. (Participant 7)

50 If you were looking for a tutor and wanted to know more information, please call me 0910532680. (Participant 11)

51 Lastly, I attached my CV and certificate of achievements with this letter for your reference. (Participant 28)

The underlined sections in examples 48, 49 and 50 referred to the use of the move "offer to provide more information" and example 51 was the evidence of the use of move "reference attached résumé (CV and certificate of achievements attached to the letter of job application)." It was hard to surmise reasons for the low frequency of using these two moves, apart from lack of familiarity with the genre.

4.1.3.7 An Additional Move: Stipulating Terms and Conditions of Employment

The move "stipulating terms and conditions of employment" is not a component in Upton & Connor's (2001) coding scheme, but 4 out of 45 writers included this move in their letters of job application. According to Henry & Roseberry (2001), the move "stipulating terms and conditions of employment" allows the applicant to talk about their "expectations regarding salary, working hours, and other relevant contractual matters", which is considered quite essential for the letter of application (p. 159). Except for one student who only used this move in their English letter, the other three talked about their expectations for the job in both English and Chinese letters, mainly focusing on salary and working days or hours. 2 examples are shown in the following:

52 As for my salary, I expect I can get $20,000 per month. I can start to work next month.

至於我的薪水部份，我希望我的月薪是兩萬元。我從下個月開始便能開始上班。 (Participant 5)

53 My require of the job is work two days a week, 2 or 3 hours a day, and if it can on Monday and Tuesday, it will be perfect. The place can be your house or another place. At least NT$200 per hour.

我對這份工作的要求是希望在星期一及星期四，一天二小時，每小時２００元。 (Participant 11)

Talking about the salary or working hours may put the applicants at a disadvantage regarding the communicative purpose of the letter of application; that is to grant an opportunity for an interview. Although there was a lack of evidence to clarify writers' intentions of including this move in their letters of job application, it may be suggested that this may link to individual writers' varied expectations about the communicative purpose of genres, prior to receiving any instruction or having any actual life experience of using the genre..

4.2   The Investigation of Politeness Strategies of Letters of Job Application in Chinese and English

In the present study, politeness strategies were investigated following the scheme presented in Section 3.4.1.1.2 (Table 6). The overall results showed that positive politeness strategies were more frequently used in both Chinese and English letters in comparison to negative politeness strategies. Examples of how writers used politeness strategies are presented in the following sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 respectively.

4.2.1   Positive Politeness Strategies

With reference to positive politeness strategies, "show interest," "offering a contribution or a benefit," "showing directness," "being optimistic" and "glorifying the addressee" are the main categories (See Table 6). In the context of job application letters, showing interest refers to writers' expression of their interest or desire for the job to the addressee, which can be witnessed within move 3 "apply for the position or state desire for consideration." With reference to offering a contribution or a benefit, writers demonstrated their personalities, working experiences, skills and qualifications as advantages to be utilised by the addressee, which could be bound within moves 3, 4 and 5. Being optimistic as a positive politeness strategy is not constrained to moves, but associated with linguistic features, like "looking forward" and "hope." Glorifying the addressee can be identified within move 3 where writers emphasise the opportunity to work in the target companies or organisations as a great honour.

4.2.1.1 Showing Interest

While composing letters of job application, more than 90% of writers employed this positive politeness strategy. In both English and Chinese letters, the phrase "apply for/ 應徵" was frequently used as an indication of applicants' interest for the job, as shown in examples 54 and 55.

54 I would like to <u>apply for</u> the position as an International Trade Manager at your company. (Participant 9)

55 我想應徵貴公司導遊的工作

(Translation: I would like to <u>apply for</u> the job as a tour-guide in your company.) (Participant 33)

While stating personal desire for consideration, writers liked to attract the addressee's attention through making a commitment to the job. For example,

56 But I will do my best to do my job to <u>reach your expectation</u> if you are willing to give me the job. (Participant 40)

57 I will <u>do my best and hard-working</u>, if you give me the chance. (Participant 22)

58 If I can enter your esteemed company, I will <u>try my best to do this job</u>. (Participant 27)

59 如果我順利錄取,我一定<u>盡最大的努力去做好這份工作</u>。(Participant 5)

(Translation: If I could get the job, I promise I will <u>do the job with all effort</u>.)

60 如果有這機會,這將是<u>我的榮幸</u>在這學校教書。(Participant 3)

(Translation: If I could get the opportunity, it will be <u>my honour</u> to be a teacher in the school.)

61 如果你肯給我這個機會,我將會<u>盡全力做到最好</u>。(Participant 23)

(Translation: If you could offer me the opportunity, I will <u>do it with my best</u>.)

In examples 56 to 61, the underlined sections referred to writers' commitments to the job by stating that they would do their best with the job if they could be offered an opportunity. Regardless of the diversity of linguistic features to show interest or state desire for consideration, writers used this positive politeness strategy extensively in both English and Chinese letters.

4.2.1.2 Offering a Contribution or a Benefit

One of the key elements in a letter of job application is to provide relevant working experience, qualifications and personal strength as solid evidence to do self-promotion

for the job vacancy. In English letters, 49% of writers (22/45) tended to show a high degree of their strength as follows:

62 I am <u>the best in this field</u>, choose me and <u>you won't regret it</u>. (Participant 9)

63 As the following reasons, I thought <u>I am qualified this job</u>. (Participant 7)

64 All the abilities mentioned above, I have <u>confidence that I have and the most suitable for this job</u>. (Participant 27)

65 With these academic license and working experiences, <u>I believe I can adapt to the job quickly</u>. (Participant 3)

66 I can help your company improve and make everything perfectly. (Participant 10)

Except for example 66 which was found within move 5 "provide arguments–good for the hiring company", the rest were bound to move 3 "apply for the position/state desire for consideration". The communicative purpose of examples 62 to 66 was aimed at promoting the applicants as the best candidate for the job with the emphasis either on the writers' strength or their contribution to the hiring company in the future. Such a positive politeness strategy was also identified in Chinese letters although the percentage of users slightly dropped to 33% (15/45). Examples are provided below:

67 我覺得<u>我有這個能力勝任</u>。

(Translation: I believe <u>I am capable of doing this job well</u>.) (Participant 16)

68 根據以上的理由,我覺得<u>我適任這份工作</u>。(Participant 7)

(Translation: According to the preceding arguments about my strength, I believe <u>I am able to do it well</u>.)

69 我認為<u>我是這個職務的最佳人選</u>,希望您能給我這個機會來證明。

(Translation: I think <u>I am the best candidate</u> and hope you could give me an opportunity to prove my words.) (Participant 10)

70 一旦進入貴公司，將全力為公司帶來最大的利益，為公司爭取更多的客戶。

(Translation: Once serving in your company, I would do my best to increase the number of profit and customers for the company.) (Participant 9)

Some researchers on politeness have suggested tha emphasising the applicants' strength with a high level of confidence can be quite risky because it might put the applicants at a disadvantaged position. As noted by Al-Ali (2006), this positive politeness strategy threatens the independence of the addressee. Al-Ali therefore suggested that "this assertion of one's strong qualification needs to be modified with a hedge or

indirectness." (p. 130). It seems likely that these novice writers were unaware of this possibility, due to their lack of real life experience and/or instruction about job letters.

4.2.1.3 Showing Directness

Directness can be expressed through imperative sentences and "other verbal means that name the act as a request" (Al-Ali, 2006, p. 130). Similarly, in Upton & Connor's (2001) study, it is claimed that directness is expressed through two linguistic structures, including "Please + action verb" (p. 234) and "sentences that begin with "I", "you", or "my"" (p. 321). The results of analysis showed that only 4 writers asked directly further contact in English letters using these structures. The linguistic structures included:

71 My number is 0912-345-678. (Participant 5)
72 My e-mail is Maggie 30424@yahoo.com.tw. (Participant 7)
73 Please call me 0910532680. (Participant 11)

In Chinese letters, 7 writers used this strategy. However, none of the writers took advantage of this positive politeness strategy for making an explicit request for an interview, in either English or Chinese letters.

74 請撥空聯絡我,0910532686。
     (Translation: Please contact me at 0910532686 at your convenience.) (Participant 11)
75 這是我的聯絡電話 091234567。(Translation: My phone number is 091234567.) (Participant 5)
76 這是我的 e-mail: Johns32@hotmail.com。
     (Translation: This is my e-mail: Johns32@hotmail.com.) (Participant 40)

4.2.1.4 Being Optimistic

While stating desire for an interview or further contact, or expressing politeness at the end of the letter of job application, the applicants studied by Upton & Connor (2001) normally opted for expressing their optimism through the phrase "look forward to" or with the verb "hope". In Al-Ali's (2006) study, less than half of Arabic-English bilingual writers (nearly 45%) expressed optimism in English letters of application. In the present study, the number of Chinese-English bilingual students who expressed optimism through explicit linguistic features was far smaller, only 3 in Chinese and none in English letters. The underlined words below are examples in Chinese letters:

77 也希望貴公司在看完此信後,能儘快給我回覆。(Participant 6)

   (Translation: I am also <u>looking forward to</u> hearing from you soon after you read my letter.)

78 我非常希望能有這個機會加入,也盼望能接獲您的通知。(Participant 8)

    (Translation: I am <u>looking forward to</u> joining your team as well as hearing from you soon.)

79 以及期望以後能有機會獲得您的指教。(Participant 27)

   (Translation: Also, I am <u>looking forward to</u> having a contact with you.)

The purpose of expressing optimism using explicit linguistic features in Chinese letters was to elicit a positive feedback from the addressee or to be contacted in the future. Again, it seems that these uninstructed writers were mostly not aware of this possible strategy.

4.2.1.5 Glorifying the Addressee

A few writers, 3 in English letters and 6 in Chinese letters, employed this politeness strategy, which was expressed through explicit words, like "honour" and "esteemed company" in English, which can be equal to "榮幸" and "享譽國際的大公司" in Chinese, as an indication of a high degree of desire for working with reputable organisations. Examples of glorifying the addressee in the present study are underlined in the following:

80 It's my <u>honour</u> to teach in this school, if I get the chance. (Participant 3)

81 I hope the <u>esteemed company</u> could give me an opportunity to improve myself. (Participant 10)

82 如果有這榮幸到此工作,我會更努力。(Participant 31)
    (Translation: If I have honour to work here, I would work harder.)

83 懇請貴公司能給我一個機會進入這間響譽國際的大公司。(Participant 27)

   (Translation: I earnestly hope I could have the opportunity to work in the <u>international known company</u>.)

Once again, it seems that the participants were mostly not aware of this strategy.

4.2.2   Negative Politeness Strategies

The purpose of employing negative politeness strategies in a letter of job application is to maintain the interaction politely due to the inequality of social and power distances between the applicant and the addressee. Being less powerful than the addressee, it

might be expected that the applicants who were brought up with or influenced by Chinese large culture may pay special attention to the use of negative politeness strategies, showing respect to independence of the addressee's negative face. In Al-Ali's (2006) study, it is shown that negative politeness strategies are less frequently used than positive politeness strategies by Arabic-English bilingual writers. Similar results were also obtained in the present study in that only a few negative politeness strategies were used by Chinese-English bilingual undergraduates in their English and Chinese letters of job application. The negative politeness strategies used included "giving deference", "self-degradation" and "formulaic expressions".

4.2.2.1 Giving Deference

In the study of Al-Ali (2006), while expressing deference to the addressee, the applicant used the explicit sentence structure "I would be grateful if you…" (p. 131). This sentence structure can be translated into Chinese as "我會感謝/感激如果你…." In the present study, no similar sentence structures occurred in Chinese letters, but two examples were identified in English letters, as were shown in the following:

    84 I will be appreciated if you give me a chance to work in your company. (Participant 33)
    85 I will be very thankful if you give me a chance to achieve my dream. (Participant 36)

Due to the fact that these two writers did not use translation for the assigned writing tasks, there was no direct evidence to see how they expressed their deference to the addressee in Chinese letters of application. But overall, the absence of this strategy seems to reflect limited large culture influence.

4.2.2.2 Self-degradation

As seen in section 4.1.3.3 above, this strategy was somewhat more likely to be used in Chinese letters than in English letters. The purpose of using self-degradation as a negative politeness strategy is to earnestly beseech support from the addressee (Al-Ali, 2006) or to "invoke compassion and pity" (Bhatia, 1993). The EFL students who used this strategy were inclined to Bhatia's perspective, attracting the addressee's attention to

their earnest requests for the job through some linguistic features, as are illustrated in the following examples:

86 I really want this job. I wish you could give me a chance, I'll show you greats. (Participant 8)
87 I hope the esteemed company could give me an opportunity to improve myself. (Participant 25)
88 我熱切地希望能進入貴公司。(Participant 6)
    (Translation: I earnestly would like to work in your company.)
89 十分渴望能夠擁有這份職位。(Participant 43)
    (Translation: I want the job with thousands and hundreds of desires.)

These writers preferred stating their desire for consideration in an indirect manner. They frequently used adverbs, like "really", "熱切地" and "十分渴望", to place an emphasis on their desire for the job. Alternatively, they put themselves at a disadvantage, looking forward to gaining improvement if they were offered the job, as was shown in example 87. Although the preceding examples were not identical to either Al-Ali's or Bhatia's perspectives of self-degradation, the politeness strategy embedded was termed as self-degradation because writers put themselves at a disadvantaged position, and did so similarly in English and Chinese.

4.2.2.3 Formulaic Expressions

As suggested by Upton & Connor (2001), "the intent of many formulaic expressions is to couch personal desire and wishes behind genre-accepted formulas" (p. 322). According to Table 11, 19 writers used formulaic expressions within move 8 "Express politeness or appreciation at the end of the letter", in each language. While ending the letters of application in both languages, EFL students frequently used "Thank you/謝謝 or "Thank you for your time (reading)/謝謝您閱讀(看完)這封信", except for one student who used "Thank you for your consideration" in English letters.

4.3   Taiwanese EFL Students' General Writing Experiences in Chinese and English (NKU Group)

The investigation of Taiwanese EFL students' general writing experiences in Chinese and English was very critical to the purpose of the present study, in order to consider the influence of large and small cultures including past writing experiences on their writing.

This investigation aimed at providing the quantitative information in terms of their academic background, length of writing experience, language proficiency, categories of text types, writing instructional experiences including teaching methods, features of writing and paragraph organisation, and writing difficulties.

4.3.1   NKU Students' Academic Background

Sections I and II in the questionnaire provide information about participants' academic background, including their ages, genders, majors, and English proficiency, as well as the English certificate they have obtained. The fifty freshmen participants at NKU included 47 females and 3 males, aged between 18 and 20 and majoring in English. The average length of learning English as a foreign language is 9 years. When asked about their overall English proficiency, the majority of the participants (43 out of 50) claimed that they are at the intermediate level, 5 out of 50 believe that they are at the high-intermediate level and only 2 out of 50 reported that they are at the elementary level. In fact, these results of self-assessment for English proficiency may be worth trusting because participants demonstrated their success in passing GEPT (General English Proficiency Test), including 11 who passed the elementary level, 15 who passed the intermediate level and 1 who passed the high-intermediate level, and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) where 16 out of 50 passed with an average score of 716. Furthermore, 9 out of 50 passed both GEPT and TOEIC.

Although the number of participants who passed tests in GEPT and TOEIC was quite high, it is important to note that TOEIC only emphasises the assessment of the examinees' reading and listening proficiency, whereas GEPT considers the examinees' integration of the four skills in the test. According to LTTC (The Language Training & Testing Center http://www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw/), the level of GEPT writing tasks increases with the level of tests. For example, examinees are expected to write simple sentences and paragraphs in the elementary level. As they advance to intermediate level, they are expected to use simple English for writing feedback and comment or to write about topics they are familiar with. In order to pass the test in the high-intermediate level, they have to be able to write about daily life topics or to express their opinions about the current events. As a result, it is surmised that the participants in the present study may

be capable of dealing with writing tasks for feedback, comment or topics they are familiar with.

4.3.2   Lengths of Writing Experiences, Writing Levels & Experiences of Categories of Text Types (NKU Group)

Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 in the third and fourth sections explored NKU participants' lengths of writing experiences, writing levels and experiences of categories of text types in English and Chinese. With reference to writing experiences, the average length of learning to write in Chinese was 8 years, which was comparatively stronger than 2.4 years in English. The advantage diminishes in relation to writing levels in that the average score for writing levels in Chinese was 6.5, which was slightly better than 5.1 in English. That is, participants who had learned English for less than 3 years claimed that their writing levels in English were close to those in Chinese, the language that they have been learning for 8 years. Nonetheless, these differences between lengths of writing experiences and writing levels may implicitly suggest that participants may make use of their Chinese writing experience for dealing with writing the same genre in English.

Participants' reported experiences of categories of text types and the frequency of text types practiced in Chinese and English are presented in Table 12 below.

Table 12 Text Types and the Frequency of Practice in the Classroom (NKU)

	Categories of Text Types Practiced		The Most Common Practiced		The Least Common Practiced	
	Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
Story	86.0	70.0	14.8	15.5	11.3	9.8
Essay Writing	74.0	84.0	35.2	41.4	1.9	0.0
Argumentative Writing	64.0	18.0	9.3	0.0	13.2	8.2
Reports	86.0	84.0	13.0	12.1	5.7	4.9
Poems	58.0	4.0	1.9	0.0	22.6	36.1
Journals	6.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.9	18.0
Research Paper	46.0	14.0	0.0	0.0	17.0	18.0
Short answers in examinations	92.0	84.0	14.8	13.8	1.9	1.6
Summary	74.0	70.0	9.3	15.5	7.5	0.0
Others	6.0	0.0	1.9	1.7	0.0	0.0

The overall results suggest that participants had more experiences of dealing with the nine text types in Chinese writing instruction than in English. For example, with reference to the categories of text types participants learned, only journals and research paper were ticked by less than 50% of the participants for Chinese, whereas argumentative writing, poems, journals and research paper were reported for English by less than 20% of the participants. Furthermore, while talking about text types in Chinese, two of participants mentioned that they also learned how to write diaries and one wrote that she/he learned how to write a reflective report on the news. However, there was an exception that English had a higher percentage than Chinese in terms of essay writing, which may suggest that while writing in English, they dealt with essay writing more frequently than other categories of text types in the classroom. In fact, this shows

agreement with the results of the most common practiced text types. Essay, story and summary were the first three in English writing instruction with 41.4%, 15.5% and 15.5% respectively. Similarly, the three most common text types in Chinese writing instruction included essay (35.2%), story (14.8%) and short answers in examinations (14.8%). There was similarity not only in the categories of the most common, but also in the categories of the least common in that poems, journals and research paper were the three least common text types in both languages, accounting for 22.6%, 18.9% and 17.0% in Chinese and 36.1%, 18.0% and18.0% in English respectively.

It seems reasonable to assume that the transfer of their writing experiences from Chinese to English writing may occur while participants were engaged in the same text type. Their earlier and more frequent writing experiences in Chinese may be a useful resource to facilitate their writing development in English. The overlapping results of the most common text types practiced in Chinese and English writing instruction may reinforce this assumption.

4.3.3   Writing Instructional experiences: Teaching Methods (NKU Group)

Questions 5 and 6 in the third and fourth sections provided information on teaching methods students reported in Chinese and English writing instruction. The results presented in Table 13 below included types of teaching methods and their frequencies of use in the classroom. According to Table 13, there were both similarities and differences between Chinese and English writing instruction. The former accounted for the role of teachers who assigned writing topics and corrected students' essays. The latter included pre-writing discussion and the role of students. As the writing topics were assigned, 90.0% of participants reported that they had pre-writing discussion in English writing instruction, which was much higher than for Chinese (50.0%). Similarly, 82.0% of participants stated that they had experiences of revising their own corrected essays in English, which was greater than for Chinese (50.0%). Moreover, the fact that participants were given opportunities to discuss and edit each other's essays appeared to be unique in English writing instruction.

Table 13 Teaching Methods in the Classroom (NKU)

	Teaching Methods		The Most Common Teaching Methods		The Least Common Teaching Methods	
	Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
The teacher assigned writing topics and asked us to write	100.0	100.0	88.7	56.5	0.0	1.9
The teacher assigned writing topics with pre-writing discussion	50.0	90.0	1.9	15.9	18.2	9.6
The teacher corrected errors on my essays	94.0	96.0	9.4	11.1	12.7	13.5
The teacher asked students to revise the corrected essays by themselves.	50.0	82.0	0.0	3.2	18.2	21.2
Student groups discussed and edited each other's essays.	0.0	80.0	0.0	14.3	50.9	53.8

Another main point shown in Table 13 was teacher's approach to the corrected essays as reported by participants. More than 90% of participants (94.0% in Chinese and 96.0% in English) reported that they had experiences of receiving corrected essays from their teachers. The value of teachers' feedback is seen in the results of questions 13 and 14 in the third section and questions 12 and 13 in the fourth section. The results showed different frequency of teacher's feedback between Chinese and English teaching methods. It was reported that teachers usually (62.0%) do it in Chinese and always (76.0%) in English. Furthermore, 72.0% of participants stated that teacher's feedback is important for them in Chinese, which was slightly higher than for English (60.0%). This

suggests that teachers may have a dominant role in the teaching and learning strands of classroom culture.

The comparison between the most common and the least common teaching methods also suggests that the dominant role of teachers may influence the ways students interact within the small culture of the classroom. For example, over half of participants (50.9% in Chinese and 53.8% in English) reported that the least common teaching method involved mutual interactions with their peers. Yet mutual interactions may help students extend their views to other useful resources rather than teachers in the classroom, bringing them more ideas of what to write and what writing strategies their peers may utilise.

4.3.4   Writing Instructional Experiences: Features of Writing (NKU Group)

Discussion in this section continues exploring participants' writing instructional experiences, focusing on more specific features of writing based on the results of questions 7 and 8 in the third and fourth sections presented in Table 14 below.

Table 14 Features of Writing in Chinese and English Writing Instruction (NKU)

	Features of Writing		Emphasised the Most		Emphasised the Least	
	Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
Grammatical correctness	38.0	86.0	3.3	15.6	9.4	3.2
Mechanics and spelling	10.0	58.0	1.6	4.7	26.4	4.8
Clarity of main idea	86.0	94.0	26.2	34.4	1.9	0.0
Topic sentence in each paragraph	26.0	92.0	1.6	17.2	5.7	0.0
Thesis statement	36.0	66.0	0.0	3.1	3.8	3.2
Using beautiful language	76.0	4.0	9.8	0.0	7.5	14.5
Expressing your true feelings honestly	78.0	10.0	9.8	1.6	3.8	4.8
Persuasiveness	64.0	38.0	1.6	0.0	0.0	1.6
Organisation of ideas	76.0	66.0	6.6	1.6	3.8	9.7
Length of paper	60.0	24.0	3.3	1.6	1.9	1.6
Neatness and beautiful handwriting	68.0	10.0	1.6	0.0	9.4	16.1
Originality and imagination	66.0	20.0	0	0.0	3.8	3.2
Chinese proverbs, maxims or idoms	84.0	8	8.2	0.0	1.9	8.1
Truth of your ideas	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.4	21.0
Using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas	72.0	44.0	0.0	1.6	0.0	4.8
Content	88.0	78.0	19.7	3.1	1.9	0.0
Coherence at paragraph level	72.0	88.0	6.6	15.6	3.8	0.0
Title	38.0	54.0	0.0	0.0	5.7	3.2
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

According to Table 14, there are again also similarities and differences in features of writing dealt with in Chinese and English writing instruction. Clarity of main idea (86% in Chinese and 94% in English), organisation of ideas (76% in Chinese and 66% in English), content (88% in Chinese and 78% in English) and coherence at paragraph level were the main similarities shared by Chinese and English writing instruction. The emphasis on grammatical correctness (38%) and mechanics and spelling (10%) was much smaller in Chinese than 86% and 58% in English, which may be attributed to the fact that participants are novice writers in English, but medium- or advanced-level writers in Chinese. However, while dealing with Chinese writing instruction, participants were expected to pursue a much larger variety of features than English, including aesthetic features, such as the beauty of language and the use of proverbs.

The overall results show consistency with the results of questions about the most and the least common features of writing. First, clarity of main ideas which accounted for 26.2% in Chinese and 34.4% in English is the most common feature of writing emphasised in Chinese and English writing instruction. Otherwise, s ome discrepancy of features of writing emphasised in Chinese and English writing instruction was captured. For example, English emphasised much more the ideas of a topic sentence in each paragraph (17.2%) and coherence at paragraph level (15.6%), , whilst Chinese writing instruction paid more attention to content (19.7%) and using beautiful language (9.8%) in terms of the second and the third positions of the most common features of writing. Secondly, mechanics and spelling, 26.4%, and grammatical correctness, 9.4% were the two least common emphasised in Chinese and the pursuit of using beautiful language was one of the least common emphasised in English,which accounted for 14.5%. This may be attributable to the fact that participants have higher level of language proficiency in Chinese than in English.

4.3.5   Writing Instructional Experiences: Paragraph Organisation (NKU Group)

While responding to question 9 in the third and fourth sections, participants showed a variety of answers concerning paragraph organisation in Chinese and English writing. In Chinese writing, 10 out of 50 did not talk about their opinions for paragraph organisation and the rest showed different opinions. 21 out of 40 pointed out that the

traditional rhetorical sequence "*qi-cheng-zhuan-he*" (承起轉合) was the predominant structure they used in Chinese writing, but it was unfortunate that none of them provided in-depth explanations. Similar to *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* sequence, 16 out of 40 said that the basic Chinese structure for paragraph organisation included four paragraphs, one with the goal of attracting the reader's interest, two with the purposes of developing the writer's main ideas about the writing topic and one with the intention of making a conclusion. For example, participant 3 expressed his/her opinion that "第一段先慢慢引出這篇文章的想法，第二、三段開始論述，第四段結論。" (The first paragraph takes slow steps to lead the reader to the discussion of main ideas. The second and the third paragraphs intend to start developing main ideas. The fourth paragraph makes a conclusion.) However, not everyone preferred using a fixed structure to organise their ideas in the paragraphs, as 3 participants said that the writing topic was an important influencing factor for paragraph organisation. For example, participant 34 responded to the question with the answer that "針對題目，有時侯開門見山的點出主題，有時先敘述再點明主旨。" (For different writing topics, I sometimes use the strategy *kāi mén jiàn shān (開門見山)* to go direct to the main ideas, but sometimes I prefer talking about something else ahead of the main ideas.)

In English writing, 6 out of 50 left the question blank and the rest shared a similar view. 43 out of 44 claimed that while organising ideas in English writing, they preferred using controlling ideas in the topic sentence in the first paragraph, continuing developing main ideas with supporting arguments in the following paragraph and making a conclusion in the end. For example, participant 1 talked about his/her strategy for paragraph organisation that "以 controlling idea 引導 topic 的方向開頭，簡要敘述主題，下一段為文章中心的支持句，提出一些舉列來證明自己的論點，最後一段則為自己的文章下結論，簡短的描述整篇文章所要表達的。" (I start using controlling idea in the topic sentence to briefly describe the theme. There are supporting sentences in the following paragraph, giving some examples to strengthen my viewpoints. The last paragraph is to make a conclusion, a short summary of my words.) Participant 5 was the only one, who talked about a strategy for organising supporting examples, stating that "如果是舉例的話就是一個例子一個例子排，一般的話是由大方向到小方向。" (If it means the sequence of the examples, it normally refers to the sequence from the general

to the specific.) Although participant 5 misunderstood the intention of the question, this answer showed awareness that supporting examples can be an important element in English writing and they had to follow specific sequences to strengthen the main ideas.

4.3.6   Writing Difficulties (NKU Group)

The last questions in the third and fourth sections aimed at investigating participants' writing difficulties in Chinese and English writing and the results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15 Writing Difficulties in Chinese and English (NKU)

Categories of Writing Difficulties	Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English
A large enough vocabulary	26.0	86.0
An adequate variety of sentence patterns	28.0	54.0
Use of connectors and transitional phrases	8.0	24.0
Grammatical accuracy	4.0	62.0
Content: having sufficient ideas to write about	88.0	74.0
Organisation in composition	48.0	40.0
Punctuation	20.0	16.0

According to Table 15, a large number of participants writing in Chinese (88%) and English (74%) claimed that they struggled for idea generation. Apart from the lack of ideas to write, they reported different perspectives on writing difficulties in Chinese and English writing. For example, participants writing in Chinese were less concerned with grammatical correctness, insufficient vocabulary and sentence patterns, and discourse markers, but such concerns soared dramatically when they wrote in English. The discrepancy in relation to linguistic features in Chinese and English writing can be attributed to the influence of their language proficiency and writing experiences. For example, regarding the overall results of questions 10, 11 and 12 in the third section and 10 and 11 in the fourth section, when participants were asked about the reasons for

making a pause in English writing, only 16% of them were "never" confounded with insufficient vocabulary, only 12% "never" stopped writing for translation and only 8% "never" struggled for grammatical accuracy. In contrast, when they wrote in Chinese, 56% "never" paused for grammatical accuracy and 22% "never" had difficulties for insufficient vocabulary. However, it was worth noting that up to 80% of participants still struggled with using vocabulary in Chinese writing, which might be associated with the fact that using beautiful language was frequently emphasised in Chinese writing instruction. With reference to the influence of writing instruction, more than half of participants, 52% in Chinese and 60% in English, did not consider organisation as an obstacle for writing, due to the fact that clarity of main ideas was the feature of writing the most frequently emphasised in both Chinese and English writing instruction (See Section 4.3.4).

4.4 Taiwanese EFL Students' Articulations of Construction of Letters of Job Application in Chinese and English

The interview analysis reveals how Taiwanese EFL students dealt with the assigned writing tasks, including their writing experiences in Chinese and English, the sources for idea generation and paragraph organisation, their perspectives of politeness strategies, writing convention for paragraph organisation, textual features of good writing and individual writing difficulties.

For the NKU interviews, five participants volunteered, including Doris, Eileen, Amber, Grace and Miranda. All the names mentioned in the excerpts in the following discussion are pseudonyms and the initials of their names were used. For example,

R: Researcher// D: Doris// E: Eileen// A: Amber// G: Grace// M: Miranda

4.4.1 Interviewees' Writing Experience in Chinese and English

Table 16 below summarises the five NKU interviewees' English proficiency and writing experiences in Chinese and English writing.

Table 16 Interviewees' Chinese and English Writing Experience (NKU)

		English (L2)		Chinese (L1)	
	English Proficiency	Lengths of studying English	English writing experiences	Lengths of studying Chinese	Chinese writing experiences
Doris	Intermediate	10 years	4 years	13 years	9 years
Eileen	Intermediate	10 years	7-8 years	13 years	7-8 years
Amber	Intermediate	4 years	4 years	12years	5 years
Grace	Intermediate	9 years	4 years	13 years	9 years
Miranda	Intermediate	8 years	4 years	13 years	8 years

The length of their experiences of studying Chinese was quite similar, more than 10 years, but their Chinese writing experiences varied slightly. On the other hand, regardless of the fact that there was a variation with the length of studying English, all of them had been learning English writing for 4 years except Eileen, who claimed that she started simple English writing in junior high school, like story writing. When asked about individual writing experiences in senior high school, Grace said that "我們之前其實在寫作的時侯都是在寫那個 paragraph, 都一段一段而已。" (Actually, we only worked on one-paragraph writing in senior high school.). Unlike others, Amber was the only one, who regularly studied in English-speaking countries in summer and winter vacations since senior high school. According to Amber:

Excerpt 1

R: 每年都有出國?

A: 對，第一次出國是到美國。是到那個，就是代表學校去當地，然後就是體驗他們的上課方式，然後順便去做交流，跟當地學生。然後就是去澳洲，一樣也是這樣的方式去的，可是比較不同的是我們順便去那邊做旅遊，也去訪問和探討當地人的生活。

R: 那請問你在美國或澳洲寫英文 essay 的經驗多嗎?

A: 不多，主要是體驗生活而己。

R: Do you study abroad every year?

A: Yes, the first time was in America. I mean I went there to experience how they had lectures and communicated with local students as a representative of my school in Taiwan. Then, I went to Australia with the same purpose, but it was a little bit different because I not only had a trip there, but also interviewed local people and explored their life styles.

R: Do you have a lot of experiences of writing essays in American or Australia?

A: Not a lot because I mainly went there for experiencing different living styles.

In fact, none of them had attended formal writing courses in English until they studied in universities. Eileen described her English writing instructional experiences in this semester as follows:

Excerpt 2

R: 可以請你大概的敍述一下這學期老師上課的方式嗎？英語寫作上課他所偏向的重點是什麼？

E: 這個學期有二個重點耶。第一是腦力激盪。

R: 腦力激盪？

E: 嗯，就是他會先丟一個東西給我們，然後讓我們討論，就是有點互相比較這樣子。就是互相激勵出更好的句子，想法等等。

R: 那第二個重點是？

E: 這學期老師還有強調 hook，就是要怎麼寫好一個 hook，才能吸引別人看你的文章。這樣子，對，然後再來的話，就是分一個 paragraph，一個 paragraph 這樣子，就是 body 跟那個 conclusion，分開介紹。

R: Could you please talk about the lecture of English writing this semester? What are the main points the teacher emphasised?

E: There are two main points in this semester. The first one is brainstorming.

R: Brainstorming?

E: Hm. He gave us something to discuss and compare our opinions about it. That is the way of getting better English sentences, ideas and so on.

R: How about the second main point?

E: He also emphasised the writing strategy "hook" in this semester. A good hook can attract readers to read your writing. Furthermore, he also introduced us how to write body and conclusion within paragraphs respectively.

This introduction of a course in English writing in this semester was echoed by other participants. As a result, it was surmised that they might be at the level of learning the basic structure of English essays, beginning to write a text in English.

4.4.2   Generation of Ideas

While dealing with the letter of job application in Chinese and English, the interviewees showed a variety of strategies for generating ideas and organising paragraphs due to the fact that they were not formally instructed about what and how to write for this genre in either language. Eileen in the interview said that she had the experience of composing a letter of job application in Chinese because of seeking some part-time job opportunities while studying in senior high school. However, she did not have any experiences of writing letters in English. According to Eileen,

Excerpt 3

R:當你看到寫作題目是求職信時，你心中有任何的想法嗎？例如說要寫些什麼，要怎麼寫，等等？

E: 其實我之前有打工過！可是英文的求職信完全沒碰過，但我想應該跟中文一樣吧！只是差在一個是中文，一個是英文而己！

R: 你以前有寫過中文求職信的經驗

E: 嗯。就簡單的而己，寫的也不多。

R: 那你這二篇求職信的內容安排對你來說是種挑戰嗎？

E: 我覺得還好。我是先把英文信寫好，然後再寫中文信。

R: 為什麼是先寫英文而不是中文？

E: 其實英文比較難，我是覺得英文信先寫完，中文其實不用花太多時間。雖然中文寫作的話就是通常比較偏向於就是會寫的比較長，因為你會一直想要強調你想要講的點，然後你就不會想要簡潔有力，你會想要把他敍述的好一點或是可能長一點，讓別人比較能夠理解這個樣子。英文的話我就會覺得就可能要比較簡潔一點，因為可能別人就不希望看到太過冗長。

R: 那你對中英寫作差異性的理解，這個想法是怎麼來的？

E: 就是我個人累積的經驗，然後其實之前就是老師都這樣講。

R: 那你二篇求職信的內容分別都寫些什麼？

E: 大同小異啊！英文就先介紹自己的學歷背景，在那看到求職內容的，然後我要應徵的職位是什麼。再來就是強調我個人的優勢，然後看能不能有更進一步面談的機會，留下聯絡的電話。中文內容差不多也是如此，不過可能是母語的關係，所以會講的比較詳細。

R: 所謂的比較詳細是指那方面？

E: 呃，我看一下喔。中文我會比較突顯自己吧！像中文有提到"我會比別人更專注於這份工作，因為外文是我熱愛的也是我最自豪的，有了認真的態度加上我對外文的熱情，相信選擇我當您身邊的助手，一定不會讓您後悔。"這些東西我在英文只有短短的二句話，"All of these personal traits I have, and I also focus on this job well. If I can have the chance to work with you, I will do my best."

R: As you realised "A letter of job application" as the writing topic, did you have any ideas in mind? For example, what to write, how to write and so forth?

E: In fact, I had experiences of taking part-time jobs, but I am new for a letter of job application in English. I think it should be the same as Chinese and the only difference is that one is in Chinese and the other is in English.

R: Have you had the experience of writing a letter of job application in Chinese?

E: Hm. I wrote simple version of letter of job application in Chinese and did not write a lot.

R: Do you think it was a challenge for you to deal with the assigned writing tasks?

E: I think it was ok. I finished English letter first and then Chinese letter.

R: Why did you work on English letter first, but not Chinese letter?

E: It is because English was more difficult. I think if I could finish English letter first, I would not have to spend much time on Chinese letter. Nevertheless, I think that Chinese writing normally contained longer sentences because you needed to emphasise your viewpoints all the time. You needed to make them comprehensive to the reader so that you needed to expand the lengths of your sentences. By contrast, English writing had to be concise and simple because the reader did not expect longer sentences.

R: How are you aware of such a difference between Chinese and English writing?

E: It is because of the accumulation of my writing experiences and the influence of the teachers.

R: What did you write in Chinese and English letters respectively?

E: They were quite similar in a general sense, but with minor differences. In English letter, I introduced my academic background first, then where I saw the job advertisement and talked about the job title that I wanted to apply. Next, I focused on my personal advantages for the job vacancy and left my phone number for being contacted for a further interview if possible. These main points appeared in Chinese letter as well, but were in more details.

R: What do you mean by "in more details"?

E: Uh, let me take a look. I talked more about the advantages I have in Chinese letter. For example, in Chinese letter, I said that "I will be more focused on the job than others because I love studying foreign languages and am quite proud of my language proficiency. With the sincere attitudes and enthusiasm about languages, I believe I am your best choice and you will never regret.", whereas in English letter, I solely said that "All of these personal traits I have, and I also focus on this job well. If I can have the chance to work with you, I will do my best."

Unlike Eileen, who completed the writing task based on her past working experience plus her beliefs about English and Chinese writing styles, Grace discussed with her

sister, Jessica who has 3-year working experiences, about how to write a good impressive letter of job application. Grace described how she generated ideas of what to write in the letters of job application in Chinese and English as follows:

Excerpt 4

R: 那你都沒有寫過求職信，那怎下筆呢？

G: 一開始我也不知道啊，還好是回家寫，因為我姐工作 3 年了，她當初也是自己求職的。 我回到家就和姐討論要怎麼寫。

R: 那你姐姐給了你什麼樣的建議呢？

G: 她說其實不難啊！像是那看到職缺的，介紹你自己的學經歷，家庭背景，或者是工作經驗，展現你想得到工作的企圖心，最重要的是別忘了要爭取進一步溝通的機會，所以信的最後一定要留通訊方式。她說說穿了，求職信就是考驗你如何利用一張小小的 A 4 來獲取面試的機會。

R: 那可以請你說明一下你當初是如何完全這二篇求職信呢？

G: 我是先構思，把重點都寫下來，分三段。第一段就是說明我那看到職缺的。那第二段大概就是以家庭背景，學歷和我自己本身的優點來爭取工作的機會。最後一段就是再次爭取進一步的連繫，然後給 e-mail。

R: 那中英文求職信的內容都是一樣的嗎？ 還是有什麼不一樣的地方？

G: 基本上是一樣的，英文有的中文也都有。不過，中文我有特別強調我的優點，像是我的個性，還有，還有，我很喜歡小孩。所以我認為我很適合幼稚園老師的工作。

R: 為什麼會有這樣的差異？ 我是指中文就比較多資訊，那英文就比較簡單的介紹？

G: 因為有些東西我很難用英文表達出來，所以乾脆就省略。

R: Since you never wrote a letter of job application, how did you work on it?

G: I really had no ideas of what to do at the very beginning. Fortunately it was homework because I could discuss it with my sister who has been working for 3 years and applied for the job by herself. As soon as I got home, I discussed this assignment with her.

R: What kind of advices did your sister offer?

G: She said it was not a tough task. A job application letter should include where you find the job advertisement, your academic background, family background or related working experience, your ambition for the job vacancy. The most important point was to demand for a further contact. It was necessary to mention how to be contacted in the end of the letter. According to her, the main purpose of job application letter was a little test for how to get a chance for interview based on your work in a small piece of A4 paper.

R: Could you please talk about how you finished two letters of job application?

G: First, I listed what I wanted to say and organised my ideas in three paragraphs. I talked about the source of job advertisement in the first paragraph, introduced my academic and family background, and the advantages I have in the second paragraph and demonstrated my ambition for the job and the desire for being contacted via my e-mail in the last paragraph.

R: Did you write the same points in both job application letters or were there any differences?

G: In general, they were the same. What I wrote in English letter appeared in Chinese letter as well. However, I put more emphasis on the advantages I have in Chinese letter, for example, my personality and I love kids so much. So, I believed I can be the best candidate for the job as a teacher in a primary school.

R: Why did such a difference appear? I mean Chinese letter was more informative, but English letter was concise and simple.

G: It is because of my limited English proficiency. Anything that I was unable to express in English would be eliminated.

That is, Grace did not report perceptions of writing style differences between English and Chinese, but attributed differences between her letters to her language proficiency. In addition to personal working experience and discussion with experienced people, working with peers was commonly reported to deal with this writing task. According to Miranda, she quite enjoyed the moments of brainstorming with peers in English writing classes because she could listen to different opinions that always helped her with the generation of ideas although she did not like writing at all. In the interview, she reported the influence of brainstorming with peers, as well as of her own language level, on writing in both languages:

Excerpt 5

R: 當你看到寫作題目時，你有什麼感想？

M: 沒什麼感覺，因為我比較不喜歡，也不擅長寫作。

R: 那請問一下你怎麼完成這二篇中英文的求職信呢？

M: 我花很久時間跟同學討論的，因為我一點想法都沒有。

R: 那請問為什麼要跟同學討論，而不是自己去找資料？那討論的時侯，都討論了些什麼呢？

M: 因為這學期老師都強調要 brainstorming，所以我想是一種習慣。而且我真的沒什麼興趣，所以也懶的自己去找資料。討論喔，就說各自的看法啊！像我就提說介紹自己很重要。然後我覺得有一個很有趣是，Linda 竟然說要要求薪水。我本來覺得很好笑，但是後來我覺得很有道理，就把這個點寫進去了。

R: 那我們來看一下你的這二封求職信。我發現有不一樣的地方。很明顯的英文長過中文，但中文有薪資要求，＂對於薪資方面，只要符合勞動基準法即可，薪資方面不甚要求。＂，英文沒有。可以請你大概解釋一下嗎？

M: 喔，我看一下可以嗎？

R: 好。

M: 其實我也沒想那麼多。寫英文的時侯，就覺得介紹自己很重要，所以我就講了很多關於自己的優點。那英文沒寫薪資要求，我是覺得要把中文的東西翻譯英文很麻煩，所以就算了。

R: 那中文不用多強調自己的優點嗎？

M: 不用啊！

R: 為什麼呢？

M: 呃，呃，我是想說面試時侯再強調就好了。

R: What did you think about the writing topics?

M: Nothing because I do not like writing and am not good at it.

R: Then how could you finish two letters of job application in Chinese and English?

M: I spent much time on discussion with my classmates because I had no ideas at all.

R: Then why did you prefer discussing with classmates rather than looking for information by yourself? In the discussion, what did you talk about?

M: It is because the teacher emphasised on brainstorming this semester so that I think it was just like a habit. Moreover, I was really less interested in it and felt lazy for finding information by myself. In the discussion, everyone talked about their own perspectives. For example, I talked about the importance of introducing myself. One of the interesting points in the discussion was that Linda unexpectedly talked about the issue of the salary. I thought it was so funny at the very beginning, but I felt it really made sense after a while. So, I wrote this point in my letter of job application.

R: Let's take a look at your letters of job application. I found some differences between them. It is obvious that the length of English is longer than the one of Chinese, but the demand for salary only appeared in Chinese letter that "As for salary, there are not many demands of it as long as it complies with Labour Standards Law.", but not in English letter. Could you please explain the differences?

M: Oh, may I have a look, please?

R: Sure.

M: In fact, I did not think about them so much. When writing English letter, I felt it was very important to introduce myself so that I talked a lot about my own advantages. As for the omission of the demand for salary in English letter, I think it was so difficult to translate it from Chinese. So, I left it out.

R: Didn't you have to talk about your advantages in Chinese letter?

M: I don't think so.

R: Why?

M: Uh, Uh, I think I could talk about it in the interview.

The qualitative data analysis provides more in-depth understandings of how Taiwanese EFL students wrote letters of job application in Chinese and English in reality and may have two important implications when they are related to the results of textual analysis. First of all, the organisation of generic moves in their letters of job application in Chinese and English shows differences from the coding scheme derived from past research (See discussion in Section 4.1). In the absence of classroom instruction, this is connected to the influences of a variety of other resources in the small cultures where letters of job application were written. For example, students could rely on personal working experiences, seek assistance from experienced people and work with their peers. Consequently, they tended to organise generic moves in letters of job application that are notably different from the expected norm of writing conventions of such genre writing. As evidenced, they sometimes talked about the salary in Chinese letters and some even forgot to leave either phone number or e-mail addresses for a further contact in the end of their letters.

Secondly, this qualitative analysis of the interviews may suggest that limited language proficiency can be a major influencing factor for the selection and organisation of generic moves. For example, writers writing in English may have difficulties for translating their ideas from Chinese into English appropriately, therefore discarding or simplifying what they intended to talk about, such as the deletion of move "stipulating terms and conditions of employment" in Miranda's English letter of job application and the simple version of move "providing arguments for background or experience" in Grace's English letter of job application.

4.4.3   Interviewees' Perspectives on Politeness Strategies

Even though the number of interviewees was quite small, the qualitative data showed that they could reflect useful on politeness strategies. Doris expressed her perspective in Excerpt 6.

Excerpt 6

R: 可以請你說明一下當初你是如何構思這二篇中英文求職信的嗎？

D: 我花蠻久時間想內容的 。呃，雖然我沒有求職的經驗，可是求職信就是為了找工作，不是嗎？

R: 對，這個問題會影嚮你寫作嗎？

D: 會，因為求職信就是要去 catch others' attention。

R: Catch others' attention？你指的 others 是指？

D: 就是老闆。我知道他們都不會花太多時間看，因為求職的人很多，所以簡單明瞭是關鍵。

R: 難怪你的二封信都短短的而己。

D: 沒錯！

R: 那你在信裡有用到任何的技巧來幫你自己爭取工作的機會嗎？

D: 我 take a look。

R: 你講話很 local 耶！

D: 這樣訪談才不會尷尬啊！其實我個人認為是強調自我的信心，讓老闆感受到我的自信，這是唯一的技巧。

R: 所以你在中英文信中都有提到？

D: 提到？

R: 我是指如何讓老闆知道你的自信心？

D: 這裡啊，你看，中英文我都有提到＂我認為我有足夠的能力去擔任這工作並且盡力去達成。＂

R: 還有嗎？

D: 我覺得在信中多少要提到公司的名聲吧！

R: 嗯嗯，還有嗎？

D: 我不知道這個算不算耶！就＂期望以後能有機會獲得您的指教。＂

R: 為什麼你無法決定這是技巧之一呢？

D: 我只是覺得找工作時，態度要有禮貌。大家都認為我們草莓族不能教，所以我要特別強調我是可以受的起指教的。

R: 那可以請問一下，為什麼在二封信的結尾，你並沒有留下任何聯絡的方式？

D: 有必要嗎？現在求職網路都有表格啊，填一填就好了，很方便。有必要在求職信中又多此一舉嗎？

R: Could you please explain how you organised two letters of job application in Chinese and English?

D: I spent a lot of time on thinking about the contents. Uh, although I don't have any working experiences, I assume that a letter of job application is to get a job, isn't it?

R: Yes. Does it affect the way you write?

D: Yes, it's because the letter of job application is to catch others' attention.

R: Catch others' attention? What do you mean by "others"?

D: Employers. I know they don't spend much time on reading the letters because there are many applicants. So, I think letters have to be simple and concise.

R: No wonder that your letters are quite short in length.

D: That's right!

R: Did you use any strategies in the letters to help you have the job vacancy granted?

D: Let me take a look.

R: The way you talk is quite local!

D: It makes the interview less awkward. In fact, I personally think about the emphasis of my confidence. The only strategy is to make the employer feel my confidence.

R: So, in the letters you mentioned?

D: Mentioned about what?

R: I mean how you show your confidence to the employer in the letters?

D: Here it is. Look, in both letters I mentioned that "I think I am qualified for the job and will try my best to reach your expectation."

R: Anything else?

D: I think it is necessary to mention the reputation of the hiring company in the letters.

R: Hm. What's more?

D: I am not sure if this is a strategy that "I look forward to learning some experiences from you."

R: Why are you not sure about it?

D: I just think that politeness is a must for a job seeker. Everyone thinks that we as strawberry generation are not teachable. So, I need to say that I can put up with stress.

R: Can I ask that why you did not talk about the ways for a contact in the end of the letters?

D: Is it a must? Nowadays the forms of job application are available online. It is convenient to just fill them out. So, is it necessary to do it again in the letter of job application?

According to Doris' elucidation for the construction of letters of job application, she was aware of the need to employ politeness strategies embedded into linguistic features, but she does not distinguish at a 'large culture' level between politeness in English and Chinese. For example, the positive politeness strategy "showing interest" identified in Doris' letters can be shaped by her understanding that the communicative purpose of the

genre writing was to get the job and therefore to create a communicative bridge between the reader and the writer. Furthermore, Doris' awareness of shared reader's expectation apparently influenced the lengths and contents of both letters, which tended to be simple and concise to attract the reader's attention. This resulted in the use of positive politeness strategies including "offering a contribution or a benefit", "being optimistic" and "glorifying the addressee". The lack of the positive politeness strategy "showing directness" at the end of both letters could be attributed to the local influence of computer technology. Doris' personal experience leads her to the belief that rapid development of internet technology may make the on-line applications as an alternative channel for hunting jobs. The changes of communicative medium within a local small culture may slowly influence writers' perceptions about the norms of writing conventions of job application letters, especially in the absence of normative writing instruction.

Influenced by personal experiences of studying abroad periodically, Amber said that it was not her first time to work on an English letter of job application because she had working experiences in Australia. However, it was quite difficult for her to independently compose a Chinese letter of job application because she had rarely practiced Chinese writing since senior high school. Consequently, she sought assistance from her peers, whose major contribution was to revise the syntactical and semantic mistakes in her Chinese letter. According to Amber's writing experience in the following excerpt, it may be suggested that her previous writing experience of the same genre (in English) was the main influencing factor for the presentation of politeness strategies in the letters of job application, including the positive politeness strategies "showing interest", "showing directness" and the negative politeness strategy "formulaic expressions" (in both languages).

Excerpt 7

R: 我們今天要比較你的二篇中英文求職信。可以請你簡單說明當你看到這題目的時侯，你是怎樣構想你的 ideas，你是怎樣完成的？
A: 怎麼把他完成？
R: 對，怎麼完成。任何細節都可以講，如當你看到題目時侯的想法等等。
A: 英文求職信我有寫過，在澳洲打工的時侯。英文信我很快好，可是中文很久。
R: 你是指中文求職信你反而花了比較久的時間嗎？

A: 對。

R: 有什麼特別的原因嗎？

A: 可能是中文寫作到高中就斷了。因為高中其實沒有什麼機會去寫中文。

R: 嗯嗯。可是我看你的中文求職信寫的跟英文一樣好。

A: 因為我找了同學幫我看，幫我改，花了幾天時間才完成的。

R: 那可以請你說明一下求職信的用處嗎？

A: To get the interview.

R: 那中英文求職信的功用是一樣的嗎？

A: 英文我很確定，但中文沒有經驗，不太清楚。

R: 所以你的中文求職信是從英文翻譯過來的嗎？

A: 對。

R: 那我們來看看你的英文求職信。可以請你簡單說明信的重點嗎？

A: okay. 一開始是工作的來源和 apply for it，然後是 introduce 我自己，在第二段。最後一段就強調我真的很想要這份工作，然後結尾留下連聯電話和感謝。

R: 請問你有正式受過英文求職信的寫作方式嗎？

A: No，可是我有寫過 2 － 3 封的經驗，有自己去問過老師。

R: 是在台灣嗎？還是國外？

A: 在澳洲，找打工時。

R: 那我可以請問一下，為什麼你要提到 salary？

A: 這個我本來沒有寫，但是同學幫我修改中文時侯，他們說 salary 很重要，所以我就把他加進來。

R: 所以這是受同學的影嚮嗎？

A: 對！

R: 另一點我好奇的是，班上同學幾乎沒有人提到"If you want to know more information about me, please contact me without hesitation." 那你怎會提到這點呢？

A: 這很重要吧！代表我很想要這份工作，我之前也會寫這個。

R: 那所以你才會接著寫聯絡電話嗎？

A: 對。

R: 那最後為什麼要 Thanks for your consideration？

A: 這是書信的基本禮貌吧！

R: Today we're going to compare your letters of job application in Chinese and English. Could you please simply talk about how you organised your ideas when reading the writing topics and how you finished them?

A: How did I finish them?

R: Yes, the completion of them. You can talk about anything, like what you thought about the writing topic, etc.

A: I have the experience of writing English letter of job application while taking part-time jobs in Australia. I finished it quite soon, but spent much time working on Chinese letter.

R: Do you mean that Chinese letter, on the contrary, cost you longer time to finish?

A: Yes.

R: Any particular reasons?

A: Perhaps I did not continue Chinese writing in the senior high school. I rarely practiced Chinese writing since then.

R: Hm. But I think your Chinese letter is as good as English one.

A: It's because I asked my classmates for help. It took them days for revision.

R: Could you please explain the function of the letter of job application?

A: To get the interview.

R: Are there any difference of the purpose of letters between Chinese and English?

A: I am sure for English letter, but know nothing about Chinese letter because I never write it.

R: So, your Chinese letter is the translation of English letter?

A: Yes.

R: Okay, let us take a look at your English letter. Could you please explain the main points in it?

A: Okay. I talked about the source of job advertisement and applied for it at the beginning, then introduced myself in the following paragraph and emphasis my wish for having this job in the last paragraph. I left my phone number for a contact and thankfulness in the end of the letter.

R: May I know that if you have any experience of receiving formal writing instruction for English letter of job application?

A: No, but I wrote 2 to 3 English letters and asked my teachers for advice.

R: Was it in Taiwan or abroad?

A: It was during the time I looked for part-time jobs in Australia.

R: May I ask that why you talked about salary in the letter?

A: I did not include it, but when my classmates revised my Chinese letter, they said it was very important. So, I added it to my English letter later.

R: So, it's the advice from your classmates?

A: Yes.

R: I am quite curious about the inclusion of "If you want to know more information about me, please contact me without hesitation." because nearly none of your classmates mentioned it.

A: This is very important because it shows my strong desire for the job. I wrote it in my previous English letters as well.

R: So, is that the reason you have your phone number for a contact right after it?

A: Yes.

R: Then, why do you include "Thanks for your consideration." in the end of the letter?

A: This is the basic manner for politeness in a letter.

The comparison of Doris' and Amber's writing experiences revealed that the politeness strategies embedded into the linguistic features in the letters of job application may not be seen as products of traditional large cultures (Chinese versus Western). Rather, the results of qualitative data were in a line with Upton & Connor's study (2001) that multiple factors can influence the presentation of politeness strategies in the letters of job application, including the writer's understanding of the communicative purpose of the genre, awareness of reader's expectation, influence of technology and previous writing experience of the same genre, all of which are construed as small culture factors

in this study. Moreover, analysis in this study contrasts with Upton & Connor's study claim that people from different cultures have distinctive linguistic features for politeness strategies, because intra-group homogeneity was not identified in the present study. This may be associated with the lack of formal writing instruction for the letter of job application in either language. The results of qualitative data alongside with the textual analysis (see section 4.2) may illustrate writers' limited knowledge of traditional politeness strategies in the letter of job application associated with the large culture of either language. Instead, the participants drew on a range of small culture factors, such as their perception of the general communicative purpose of the letter of job application, their past experience with the genre, and advice from peers, to create what they viewed as polite letters in both languages.

4.4.4   Paragraph Organisation, Textual Features of Good Writing & Individual Writing Difficulties

In addition to the exploration of interviewees' perspectives on organisation of generic moves and politeness strategies in the letters of job application, the interviews also touched on paragraph organisation, textual features of good writing and individual writing difficulties in the writing in Chinese and English.

4.4.4.1 Paragraph Organisation

Participants' comments on Chinese and English writing can be shaped by writing instructional experiences, but there was a gap between their acknowledgement and actions, in particular in Chinese writing. In Chinese writing, all the interviewees pointed out that qi-cheng-zhuan-he (起承轉合) sequence is the traditional rhetorical structure in Chinese writing, but none of them applied it to the writing tasks because of its inappropriateness for the communicative purpose of the letter of job application. According to Doris:

Excerpt 8

R: 當你看到求職信這個題目的時侯，你是怎麼分段落，然後各段落要寫些什麼？

D: 嗯，就中文的作文裡，就是承起轉合，懂嗎？

R: 嗯。

D: 起就是一個開頭，然後承就是去 support 你第一段講的話，然後轉就是去打翻你前面講的，就一個但是，然後合，就是綜合以上你說的這些話，然後你做一個 summary.

R: 所以你講的起承轉合在你的觀念裡，他就是一個基本的架構？

D: 嗯。

R: 那我們來看一下，你這篇中文求職信只有 3 段，為什麼呢？

D: 我覺得我用在這篇求職信有點不太恰當，因為求職信都一直在講你好的東西，所以不會有轉的部份。

R: When you realised a letter of job application as the assigned writing topic, how and what did you organise the paragraphs?

D: Hm. In Chinese writing, it refers to qi-cheng-zhuan-he sequence. Do you get it?

R: Hm.

D: Qi refers to an introduction, then cheng is to support your words in the first paragraph, then zhuan is to reject what you say in the previous paragraphs, referring to a turning and then he is to summarise everything aforementioned.

R: So, do you think it is a basic structure for paragraph organisation in Chinese writing?

D: Yes.

R: Let's take a look at your writing. There are only 3 paragraphs in your Chinese letter. Could you explain the reasons?

D: I think it was slightly inappropriate for the letter of job application because you needed to continue talking about your strengths and would not include a "zhuan".

However, influenced by previous writing instructional experiences that English writing includes an introduction, a body and a conclusion as a basic structure for paragraph organisation, Amber, Doris and Eileen employed this pattern strictly in English letters. Amber clearly stated her opinion in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 9

R: 所以 brainstorming 對你來講是中英寫作裡面一個非常大的差異性嗎？
A: 對。
R: 那除了這個之外，還有什麼讓你覺得不習慣？

A: 不習慣喔，就寫的架構，他們就很基本的架構，可是中文就沒有。

R: 那我可以請問一下你有聽過起承轉合這個東西嗎？

A: 有耶！可是你真的寫作文就是中文作文的時侯，你就不會去按照起承轉合，可是英文就很要求。然後不同的是在中文的寫作方式，他不用在第一句的時侯就讓讀者很明白你想要說什麼，可是像那個英文的話，topic sentence 就要人家很明的說大概知道你在講什麼，然後要去 support 你的東西。

R: So, is brainstorming a big difference between Chinese and English writing for you?

A: Yes.

R: Apart from it, what other differences can you think about?

A: Differences? The writing structure, I think. English has a fixed one, but Chinese does not.

R: May I please ask that have you ever heard about qi-cheng-zhuan-he sequence?

A: Yes! While writing in Chinese, you wouldn't stick to it at all. However, it is a compulsory to have a fixed structure in English. The other difference between Chinese and English writing is that you do not have make the reader aware of your intention of writing in the first sentence in Chinese, but it is a convention in English that the reader can realise your intentions based on your topic sentences and you have to support them in the following paragraphs.

Doris and Amber seem to believe that there is a distinctive difference in relation to paragraph organisation between Chinese and English writing, the former preferring qi-cheng-zhuan-he as the traditional rhetorical structure and the latter including an introduction, a body and a conclusion as essential components for the development of paragraphs within the text. However, the decision on the use of so-called traditional rhetorical structures may be influenced by at least two factors. One was the writer's response to the writing topics as was exemplified in Doris' rejection of qi-cheng-zhuan-he on this occasion, and the other one may be associated with the level of familiarity with languages as was implicitly indicated in Amber's writing experience as well as in Miranda's words that "我中文想寫什麼就寫什麼，英文就不能。主要是來自於我對這個語言的熟悉度。" "(I can write whatever I want in Chinese writing, but I cannot do it in English writing, which is associated with the level of familiarity with the two languages.)"

4.4.4.2 Textual Features of Good Writing

Table 17 below summarises interviewees' beliefs about textual features of good writing in Chinese and English. The overall results showed these beliefs may be less based on their cultural background than on language proficiency and influence of writing instructional experiences. Use of proverbs in Chinese writing can be seen as cultural influence (Matalene, 1985). The reason that use of proverbs was not regarded as one of the textual feature of good writing in English writing was mainly associated with the interviewees' limited English proficiency. Grace said that "英語用成語有點難耶。如果我英語夠好，我應該會用吧!" (It is a little bit difficult to use proverbs in English. If my English was good enough, I would've used it!) Unlike others who suffered from limited English proficiency, Amber was the only one who suffered from limited Chinese proficiency, expressing the belief that simple words can be a textual feature of good Chinese writing. In addition to the use of proverbs, the pursuit of beautiful language was an important element for good Chinese writing based on Miranda and Eileen's opinions. This was seen as an influence of writing instruction, in a line with the results of the questionnaire (See Section 4.3.4). Doris was the only person who thought that a clear structure was the most prominent textual feature of good writing and was shared by Chinese and English writing; this can also be categorised as influence of writing instructional experiences.

Table 17 Interviewees' Concepts of Features of Good Writing in Chinese and English (NKU)

	Textual Features of Good Chinese Writing	Textual Features of Good English Writing
Miranda	• 用詞不要太簡單。 Language is not too simple. • 內容要有知識性。 New knowledge in the content	The same as Chinese writing
Doris	• 架構要清晰。 Clear structures. • 成語運用。 Use of proverbs.	• Catch my attention in the first sentences • 字詞沒有太過於簡單。 Language is not too simple. • 文章的安排：結論要和首段相呼應。 The structure: correspondence between the conclusion and the introduction.
Eileen	• 讀懂作者的意思。 Understanding of the writer's intentions. • 字詞的要求。 The requirement for languages. • Ideas 的連結性。 The connection between ideas.	• Good Title. • 用字別太深。 No big words.
Grace	• 盡量避免口語化。 To avoid colloquialism. • 成語的使用要妥當。 Appropriate use of proverbs.	• 看的懂就好。 As long as it is understandable.
	Textual Features of Good Chinese Writing	Textual Features of Good English Writing
Amber	• 內容表達清楚。 Simple and clear contents. • 字詞簡單。 Simple words.	• 要有能吸引我的句子和內容。 Interesting sentences and contents to attraction my attention.

4.4.4.3 Individual Writing Difficulties

The qualitative results showed similarities with the quantitative results (See Section 4.3.6), referring primarily to insufficient language proficiency while participants write in English. Grace pointed out that while generating ideas in Chinese first, she had great difficulties in translating them properly into English so that many ideas were eliminated. Likewise, Eileen expressed her opinion as follows:

"我覺得最大的問題應該就是常常想了之後，然後可能自己的英文功力不夠，然後你就會沒有辦法，就是想要表達的那麼完整。就會覺得不夠多，然後就常常會覺得好像要縮減

一些你本來想要寫的一些東西。" (I think the biggest difficulty is that while having a lot of ideas in mind, I would suffer from my insufficient English proficiency, being unable to fully express them in English. Then I think that the content is quite hollow and always have the feeling that I need to eliminate what I intent to write.)

The insufficient English proficiency may refer to limited knowledge of vocabulary, sentence structures and grammatical accuracy documented in Table 15 (See Section 4.3.6). Furthermore, the demonstration of literary style was a difficulty in Chinese writing in qualitative analysis (See Section 4.3.4). Grace shared her experience of setbacks because of inability of avoiding colloquialism:

"當我遇到英文寫作有點白話時，我就會努力去想說我要怎麼去修正，才能讓他看起來比較好，比較漂亮的句子。中文我也會想要去修飾，可是怎麼修還是只是稍為一點點的起色，還是感覺很白話的在講所有的事情。" (When my English writing was slightly characterised with colloquial language, I attempted to make some changes and to make them more beautiful. In Chinese writing, I also attempted to modify the colloquial language, but my efforts did not work efficiently because I still had the feeling that I expressed my ideas colloquially.)

Such a viewpoint may implicitly suggest interviewees' ambition for advancing their current writing proficiency to a higher level, which can be the reflection of Amber's opinions. Unlike the rest of the interviewees, Amber who had better English proficiency and considerably poor Chinese proficiency said that the challenge for her English writing was to be an expert, like the editors on BBC News. However, Chinese writing was completely difficult for her, because of her lack of language proficiency and writing experience. As a result, it may be concluded that language proficiency as well as individual ambition of developing writing ability can be important influencing factors for perception of writing difficulties.

4.5   Summary

The overall analyses of qualitative and quantitative results suggest that there are both similarities and differences in EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in the letters of job application in Chinese and English. It is quite difficult to offer fuller perspectives because of multiple influencing factors involved. However, there is a strong similarity in the overall deployment of research moves, as well as in the choice of politeness strategies, across the two sets of letters. In the absence of formal writing instruction for this genre, these similarities seem to be primarily shaped by the influence of small

culture factors, including writers' awareness of the communicative purpose of the genre, their assumptions about reader's expectations and the role of on-line media, their general intercultural beliefs about good writing, the influence of previous writing experiences, and consultations with peers. Differences between the two sets of letters seem largely due to different levels of language proficiency.

The background influence of 'large cultures' can be seen nonetheless in some aspects of the writing. For example the inclusion of formal greetings in both English and Chinese letters has been interpreted as a trace of Chinese large culture politeness (See Section 4.1.3.1). Similarly, inclusion of details about personality has been interpreted as reflecting a Chinese large culture wish to build long term relationships (See Section 4.1.3.4). Regarding politeness, somewhat greater use of negative politeness strategies was noted in the Chinese letters (See Section 4.1.3.3). The participants are able to talk about other differences between Chinese and English writing styles, even if they have not implemented these in their letters (see sections 4.4.4.1 and 4.4.4.2).

The letters produced through this mix of influences (small cultures, large culture, L1/L2 proficiency) do not conform in all respects to the expectations set out in previous research. For example, the participants did not use some expected moves, and used a limited range of mostly positive politeness strategies, rather than the full range of positive and negative strategies described by other researchers. These gaps presumably reflect their lack of instruction and relative lack of life experience with the genre. However, the letters show that EFL students can draw on the resources of both large and small cultures, in varied ways, to create reasonably coherent texts in an unfamiliar genre.

Chapter 5 Data Analyses: EFL Students' Argumentative Writing in Chinese and English

This chapter presents the results of quantitative and qualitative analyses for Taiwanese EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in argumentative writing in Chinese and English in the EFL classroom. Sections 5.1 and 5.2 present the results of textual analysis, including the organisation of generic structure and the large cultural values embedded in the linguistic features; section 5.3 displays the results of student questionnaires and section 5.4 discusses Taiwanese EFL students' perspectives for dealing with the assigned writing tasks.

5.1   Taiwanese EFL Students' Organisation of Generic Structure of Argumentative Writing in Chinese and English

The following section discusses the tripartite rhetorical structures of EFL students' intercultural argumentative writing according to the results in Table 18 below. The table presents the number and percentage of texts in which individual generic moves appear, for each language, within the thesis, argument and conclusion stages.

Table 18 Organisation of Generic Structure in Taiwanese EFL Students' English and Chinese Argumentative Writing

	Chinese Texts with Individual Moves		English Texts with Individual Moves	
Rhetorical Organisation	Frequency (N=44)	%	Frequency (N=44)	%
Thesis				
(Gambit)	0	0.0	0	0.0
(Information)	27	61.0	8.	18.0
Proposition	40	91.0	44	100.0
(Evaluation)	3	7.0	0	0.0
Argument				
(Markers)	16	36.0	44	100.0
(Restatement)	4	9.0	0	00

Rhetorical Organisation	Chinese Texts with Individual Moves		English Texts with Individual Moves	
	Frequency (N=44)	%	Frequency (N=44)	%
Claim	44	100.0	44	100.0
Support	28	64.0	44	100.0
Conclusion				
(Marker)	16	36.0	29	66.0
Consolidation	17	39.0	19	43.0
(Affirmation)	14	32.0	15	34.0
(Close)	0	0.0	10	23.0
(Recommendation)	4	9.0	0	0.0

5.1.1 The Thesis Stage

As shown in Table 18, writers used the move "proposition" with similar frequency in Chinese and English argumentative writing, but showed a remarkable difference between languages in the use of the move "information" in the thesis stage (27 occurrences in Chinese, 8 in English). They did not employ the move "gambit" in the introductory section in either language, which may be due to lack of sufficiently sophisticated writing skills (Hyland, 1990). Likewise, the move "evaluation" was infrequently used, by only 3 writers in Chinese and none in English. The examples of evaluation in Chinese writing are as follows:

90 在現在的社會中，學習英文或是第二語言是很重要的，因為在現在競爭激烈的社會中，如果沒有其他專長，那麼可能被淘汰的機率就會很大。

(It is important to learn English or other second languages today because without it, you might not be able to survive in a competitive society.) (Participant 22)

91 隨著經濟的繁榮，英文也變得越來越重要，現代社會中，不會英文的人就已經輸在起跑點了。

(With the economic prosperity, English has gained its significant position because people who are unable to use English are doomed to start behind others in the society today.) (Participant 23)

92 活在二十一世紀全球化的時代，<u>絕不能不會英文</u>。<u>英文是國際通用語言，也是和世界接軌的橋樑</u>。

(Living in 21st globalization era, <u>everyone has to learn English</u>. <u>English is an international language as well as a communicative bridge to the world</u>.) (Participant 34)

The purpose of using evaluation is said to be to consolidate the writer's propositions with further comments and directed at eliciting agreement from the reader. While using evaluation, examples 90 and 91 offered negative comments and only example 92 offered a positive comment, differing slightly from Hyland's suggestion (1990) that an evaluation move provides positive comment to strengthen the writer's propositions. Overall, the scarcity of evaluation moves in either language may reflect these writers' general limited experience with argumentative writing

The frequency of using the proposition move in the thesis stage was relatively high, 40/44 occurrences in Chinese and 44/44 in English, indicating that this is an important move shared in English and Chinese argumentative writing. With their English instructional writing experiences in the semester, during which the study was carried out, EFL students started to follow the prototypical features of rhetorical organisation in English argumentative writing. In one-paragraph English writing, they learned to place thesis statements (main arguments) in the first sentence, to present supporting arguments after the location of thesis statements and to make a conclusion in the end. Examples 93, 94 and 95 below show the first sentences in their English argumentative writing.

93 <u>There are a number of reasons</u> why someone might help out a stranger in need. (Participant 15)
94 Most people help other <u>with many reasons</u>. (Participant 21)
95 Everyone needs help. (Participant 11)

Examples 93 and 94 were the most common pattern used by up to nearly 90% of writers. It may be associated with the underlined linguistic features, the discourse function of which was to be a signpost for the reader to notice the upcoming arguments/reasons to support the propositions. The evidence that all writers located a proposition in the thesis

stage in English writing may be attributed to the influence of English writing instructional experiences (See Section 5.4.2.2). Moreover, 91% of the writers preferred including a proposition statement in the thesis stage of their Chinese essays, though a few of them (4/44) delayed their propositional statements to the argument stage. The sentence structures in Chinese propositional statements, due to a greater level of language proficiency, showed a higher level of variation and complexity as illustrated in the following:

96   我想學習英文之所以很重要，是因為英語系的國家都是強國吧! (Participant 9)
(I think it is important to learn English because English native countries are powerful nations.)

97   學習英文在現代已經成為一種潮流，不學英文就顯得跟不上時代的腳步。(Participant 10)
(Learning English is a culture of fashion and you are old-fashion if you don't learn it.)

98   在現在，英文已經成為了生活中不可缺少的語言。
(Nowadays, English is a requisite language in life.) (Participant 32)

99   為了能夠溝通並表達自己的想法，學習世界共通語言—英文，已變越來越重要。
(Learning English as a global language has become more and more important because of communications and self-expressions.) (Participant 37)

However, none of the discourse features used for signposting in English writing appeared in Chinese writing. That is, in Chinese writing, writers did not use explicit linguistic features to inform the reader of the location of the supporting arguments for the main propositions. This may be associated with the influence of writers' L1 large culture, which leads to the claim that Chinese writing is more reader-responsible oriented than writer-responsible (Hinds, 1987). Based on the evidence above, it is suggested that the typical location of propositions in the thesis stage in both Chinese and English was influenced by a small culture factor (writers' reported writing instructional experience). Regarding the use of discourse signposts within the proposition, however, this may be associated with the influence of large cultures in that English is writer-responsible oriented, while Chinese is reader-responsible. As for the relative complexity of sentence structure, this was associated with language proficiency (Mohan & Lo, 1985).

The most remarkable difference in the thesis stage was exhibited in the use of information. 61% of writers provided information moves in Chinese writing, with only 21% doing so in English. This might be attributed to Chinese traditional rhetoric; it has been claimed that Chinese students have a predilection to "cleaning the terrains before getting to the core" (Leki, 1992, p. 96) and to offering background knowledge for the reader (Matalene, 1985). For example,

> 100 在使用人數上，英文是世界上第二大語言；而在使用的便利性及普及性上是世界第一。<u>可想而知，英文是非常重要且在世界上極具地位的語言</u>。(Participant 19)
>
> (English is the second largest language in terms of population and is in the first position in terms of convenience and popularity in the world. <u>Therefore, English is an extremely important language in the world.</u>)

> 101 面對這個全球化的時代，每個人都需跨出自己國家，發展寬廣的視野。<u>為了能夠溝通並表達自己的想法，學習世界共通語言—英文，已經得越來越重要</u>。(Participant 37)
>
> (In the global era, everyone is required to be able to step out from his/her countries to widen their knowledge. <u>In order to gain the capability of communicating and expressing ideas in a global context, learning the worldwide language, English, is getting more and more important.</u>)

> 102 在現今地球村的時代，英文可說是每個人必備的語言能力。身為世界大老的美國，控制著全球政治、軍事、經濟的動向。<u>對我而言，學習英文有許多重要的之處</u>，例如：到任何國家時，可以統一使用英文與人溝通。(Participant 14)
>
> (English is the language that everyone has to learn in the era of global village. United States has its predominant power over the issues of politics, military technology and economy in the world. <u>In my opinion, learning English has a lot of advantages</u>. For example, you can talk to people as travelling to any countries in the world.)

When attempting to argue the importance of learning English in Chinese argumentative essays, a large number of writers tended to introduce background information first and state their propositions later, as shown in examples 100, 101 and 102 (with propositions underlined). In example 102, instead of presenting the proposition at the outset of the thesis stage, the writer intended to establish a communicative bridge with the reader by sharing the general information about the importance of English in a global context. However, the investigation of the construction of information moves in English appeared to be that writers merely used two arguments as information moves, as displayed in examples 103 and 104.

> 103 When we were born, everyone had a sympathy. (Participants 20, 27, 28 and 34)
> 104 Humans are social creatures in this world, so we rely on others' help. (Participants 35 and 39)
> 105 People say "It is better to give than to receive". (Participants 36 and 41)

Examples 103, 104 and 105 were regarded not only as information moves, providing relevant information to the reader in relation to the writing topic, but also as implicit thesis statements, implying the writers' propositions corresponding to the writing topic. As a result, it was suggested that the information move had dual functions in English writing compared to Chinese writing. However there is no clear evidence that the more limited use of information moves in the English texts were due to anything more than differences in language proficiency (apart from the use of a proverb in example 105, which is a prototypical feature of traditional Chinese writing: Wu & Rubin, 2000).

5.1.2   The Argument Stage

5.1.2.1 Discourse Marker Move

According to Hyland (1990), discourse markers refer to listing signals and transition signals. In the present study, only 6 out of 44 (16%) writers utilised discourse markers to facilitate the reader's understanding of the relationships between the sub-arguments in Chinese, but the number dramatically soared to 100% in English. Writers demonstrated similar tactics for using discourse markers in Chinese and English argumentative writing in spite of the numerical difference. Listing signals were extensively used in English and also used in Chinese, including first(ly), first of all, second(ly), next, third(ly), finally, at last in English and 還有,而且, 再說, 再者(all refer to "furthermore"), 最後(finally), 第一(first of all) in Chinese, as seen in the underlined words in the following examples.

106 First of all, you might want people help you if you have the same situation. (Participant 1)

107 The second reason is we have an altruistic behaviour even since we are at a very young age. (Participant 5)

108 Finally, helping people makes us feel happy. (Participant 29)

109 […]。而且，將英文學好不僅能和不同國家的人溝通也能有比較好的工作機會。

([…]. Furthermore, learning English not only makes you able to communicate with people from different nations, but also guarantees you for better jobs.) (Participant 16)

110 […]。再者，近幾年最吃香的語言莫過於中文以及英文。(Participant 27)

([…]. Furthermore, Chinese and English have become the most popular languages in recent years.)

111 但進了國中後，就有漸漸的體會到英文的重要及實用性。

第一，能在日常生活中更容易去聽說讀。

(Since junior high school, I gradually realised the importance and pragmatic value of English. <u>First of all</u>, it is easier to learn how to listen, speak and read English in daily life.) (Participant 29)

The extensive use of listing signals in English was attributed to the influence of English writing instructional experiences. In order to achieve the requirement of the writing prompt that the proposition has to be supported by three reasons (See Section 3.3.1.1), every single piece of English argumentative writing contained three reasons, the relationships between which were established through discourse markers, as shown in examples 106, 107 and 108. The discourse markers were presumably used to increase the reader's comprehension of the writer's organisation of supporting sub-arguments for the propositions, thereby making the listed reasons more convincing. Likewise, this writing tactic also appeared in Chinese argumentative writing, but with a lesser degree of frequency. In Chinese, writers had a predilection for using the listing signals, 而且 and 再者 (furthermore), to connect reasons, as can be seen in examples 109 and 110. (The square brackets in examples 109 and 110 referred to the location of previous reasons). The writer in example 111 was the only one who might be possibly influenced by his/her English writing experience to use 第一 (First of all) for the anticipation of upcoming reasons. In contrast to listing signals, transitional signals were used in participants' Chinese and English writing rarely. While indicating the changes of discussion, they used the transitional signals, "another reason" in English and "但是" (however) in Chinese, as demonstrated in the following examples 112 and 113.

112 <u>Another reason</u> we help is because we have responsibility. (Participant 15)

113 <u>但是</u>隨著時代在改變，在求學階段英文也出現在課程裡。(Participant 16)

(<u>However</u>, due to the changes of era, English has become part of the curricula for studying.)

The use of the transition signal "another reason" was found to be a common option. While indicating the second reason in English, the participants used either "second(ly)" or "another reason" to make the connection to the first reason. This was indicative of the fact that writers who are inexperienced in L2 writing had a limited knowledge of English discourse markers and their English writing instructional experiences became the only important linguistic resource. However, regardless of the greater amount of writing experiences and linguistic knowledge in Chinese, they infrequently utilised the power of discourse markers to inform the reader of the flow of supporting reasons. This

may reflect the claim that the style of Chinese writing can be characterised as reader-responsible rather than writer-responsible (Hinds, 1987), i.e. a large culture influence.

5.1.2.2 Restatement of Proposition Move

The restatement of the proposition move was not identified in the writers' English writing, but a few examples occurred in Chinese writing. The following examples 114 and 115 demonstrate the tactics the writers used to restate their propositions before the presentation of supporting sub-arguments.

> 114 (a) 英文成了最強勢的語言，也成為最多人學習的語言。(Participant 11)
> (English is the most powerful language and learned by the most populations.)
> (b)靠著美國的強勢，英文也確實被世界各地的人們學習。
> (Due to the overwhelming power of U.S.A., English has been learned by people all over the world.)
>
> 115 (a)學習英文的必要性是顯而易見的。(Participant 10)
> (The important of learning English is apparent.)
> (b)到底我們為什麼要學英文?
> (Why do we have to learn English?)

Both examples 114 and 115 consisted of (a) and (b) sentences, (a) referring to the proposition and (b) indicating the restatement of proposition move. In example 114, the writer used the tactic of simply repeating his/her proposition that learning English is important because of its power, whereas the writer in example 115 used a rhetorical question to implicitly restatement his/her proposition that learning English is important and invite the reader to the discussion. According to Matalene (1985) and Hinkel (1997), Chinese have the tendency of inviting the reader to interpret their intentions through the use of rhetorical questions in the writing. However due to its infrequent occurrence, no general trends can be identified for this move.

5.1.2.3 Claim and Support Moves

According to Hyland (1990), there is an intimate relationship between the proposition move, the claim move and the support move. The claim move is in relation to the validity of the proposition move and the support move aims at reinforcing the strength of the claim move in relation to the proposition move. Consequently, the claim-support pair is an essential element of the argument stage.

In the present study, 100% of writers utilised the claim move to increase the validity of their propositions in both Chinese and English argumentative writing; however, while 100% of them provided support moves in English, only 64% of them did so in Chinese.

In English, the claim moves were always constructed based on shared expectations or assumptions about the topic, as shown in the following:

116 First of all, <u>we live in human's society</u>. [For example, there are many neighbours in where we live. If we barely chat with them that might lead to we aren't friendly people. So, we have to help others then can increase our relationships.] (Participant, 34)

117 Finally, <u>it is better to give than to take</u>. [When we give something to the poor, they feel extremely happy and thankful. Although we give a little, they feel full of happiness.] (Participant, 23)

118 First of all, <u>we help other people is because we have altruistic behaviours</u>. [According to the research, biological desire influences us to help people in need. It makes us compassionate people who need help.] (Participant, 44)

The lines in the square brackets were support moves, further providing concrete information or evidence relevant to the claims. Without the support of claim-support pairs, the propositions are likely to become contentious arguments.

In Chinese, 28 out of 44 writers opted for using claim-support pairs to augment their propositions, but the rest presented claims without any follow-up support moves. Compare examples 119 and 120.

119 <u>在職場上，英文也是相當重要的</u>。國際化的社會，假若不會英文，就會失去許多機會。應徵工作時，上司也都十分注重英文能力，因為它已成為一種人類之間共同語言。

(<u>English has its important role for jobs</u>. In an international society, if you can't speak English, you will lose many job opportunities. In a job interview, the employer also pays more attention to the interviewee's English ability because English is a common language among people.)   (Participant 14)

120 <u>職場上，老闆找的是精通英文的秘書</u>。(Participant 10)

(<u>For jobs, the employers hire the secretaries who can master English</u>.)

Both writers in examples 119 and 120 talked about the importance of English for jobs. The underlined words are their claim moves in response to propositions. In example 119, the writer supported his/her proposition by mentioning the importance of English for jobs as the claim move, which was reinforced by the support move that English is international language. Lacking any support moves, the claim move in example 120 can be more vulnerable in comparison with the claim-support pair in example 119.

In Chinese, writers frequently constructed the claim moves based on shared expectations, as shown in examples 119 and 120. Nevertheless, one example of using opposing views was identified in Chinese.

121 在國際上，也是有某些國拒學英文，例如：法國。除非國家本身有著強大的經濟實力，否則就必須學習英文。(Sample 11)

(English is rejected by some countries in the world, such as France. You will not have to learn English if the status of your nation's economy is quite powerful.)

The writer who used the opposing view as the claim move may have the intention of demonstrating to the reader his/her awareness of adopting a balanced view about the topic. Although this counterargument may not be well framed, it may be seen as a sign of more sophisticated argumentation (Cheng & Chen, 2009).

To sum up, during the argumentation stage in both English and Chinese, the students produced claim moves relevant to their propositions, and these were mostly followed by further supporting moves. In detail the English texts reflected the writing instruction provided as part of the classroom small culture very closely (as seen in the use of discourse markers and claim-support pairs). The Chinese texts were a bit more varied, and local large culture may have influenced these to some extent (especially the lesser use of discourse markers).

5.1.3   The Conclusion Stage

The purpose of offering a conclusion is to "consolidate the discourse and retrospectively affirm what has been communicated" (Hyland, 1990, p. 74). According to Hyland (1990), four moves are likely to be involved in the conclusion stage, including discourse markers (again), the affirmation and the close as optional moves and the consolidation as the central move. The discourse markers inform the reader of the position of the conclusion. The affirmation move normally appears to restate the proposition. The consolidation move has a retrospective function, referring back to the previously mentioned arguments and their relevance to the proposition, whereas the close move has a prospective function, looking forward to bringing the discussion into a wider context. The results below present how writers constructed their conclusion in intercultural argumentative writing.

5.1.3.1 Discourse Marker Move

In English argumentative writing, writers attempted to apply the knowledge of English writing they have learned in the class and 63% of them therefore used discourse markers to inform the reader of the location of the conclusion. However, the number dropped to 36% in Chinese argumentative writing.

A variety of discourse markers were identified in both Chinese and English argumentative writing. In Chinese, "總而言之 (all in all)", "因此/所以 (Therefore)", "正如同以上所說的 (According to the aforementioned reasons)" were frequently preferred, whilst "above all the reasons", "overall", "according to these reasons" and "in short" were commonly used in English.

5.1.3.2 Affirmation Move

A minority of writers used the affirmation move almost equally in both languages, with 32% dong so in Chinese and 30% in English. The following examples show how they used the tactic for making a conclusion.

> 122 According to those reasons, there are many factors make us to help each other (Participant 7)

123 Overall, the factors I mentioned above are just three of many reasons why we help others. (Participant 16)

124 Overall, we live in the same world. Though we are individuals, there are many problems we should help for others. (Participant 35).

125 總而言之，學習英文是重要而且必備的。

(All in all, learning English is important and necessary.) (Participant 9)

126 所以說學習英文是無語倫比的重要。

(Therefore, learning English is extremely important.) (Participant 17)

5.1.3.3 Consolidate Move

In comparison to the affirmation move, the consolidate move was more frequently used, with 39% using it in Chinese and 47% in English. The writers made the conclusion by confirming relevance of their previously mentioned arguments to the proposition, as shown in the following examples.

127 Overall, we give a hand to people who need our help, although living separately. We should be altruistic to offer help because we are family. (Participant 11)

128 Overall, giving others a help is a happy thing. And also when we need help the people who once received our help will help us. (Participant 20)

129 因此學習英文能夠讓我們跟不同國家，不同文化的人們溝通，讓我們的視野更國際化，不再單單限制於自己的國家。學習英文便是如此的重要。

(Therefore, learning English enables people to communicative with people who are from different nations and cultures, to make us more internationalized as well as to widen their perspectives. Learning English is so important.) (Participant 13)

5.1.3.4 Close Move & Recommendation Move

In addition to the affirmation move and the consolidation move, an option for making a conclusion was the close move. 23% of writers employed it in English, but none of them used it in Chinese. Examples of the close move in English are presented below.

130 Overall, if we could help each other, the world will full of happiness and love. (Participant 4).

131 Overall, helping other people is part of human nature. We help each other because we want to create a perfect and peaceful world. (Participant 13).

132 I think although people have different reasons for helping people, the importance of all is it can let the world full of love. (Participant 18)

Based on examples 130, 131 and 132 above, it may be suggested that the difference of using the close move in the conclusion stage in Chinese and English might be associated with the influence of the writing topics. In English, the conclusions which

consisted of the close move were associated with the possible advantages of helping people in the world. All the writers emphasised the happiness, love and peace of the world if people can help others. Concerning the writing topic in Chinese, it may be more difficult for the writers to have a prospective view of the importance of learning English in a wider context. However, 9% of writers called for an action to learn English in the conclusion stage, as shown in the underlined words in the following examples.

> 133 所以學習英文是為了讓我們以後可以和外國人溝通順暢，應對如流；也會為我增加就職機會。一起認真學習英文吧!
>
> (Consequently, learning English makes us communicate with foreigners fluently as well as increase the job opportunities. <u>Let's learn English!</u>) (Participant 30)

> 134 <u>如果你有一個好的機會，好的環境讓你好好學習英文，請好好把握，你將會受益無窮</u>。
>
> (<u>If you have a good opportunity and good environment for learning English, seize the chance. You will be benefited a lot</u>.) (Participant 23)

Such recommendations to the reader can be categorised as a recommendation move, an additional option to Hyland's (1990) model of the conclusion stage.

Overall, it seems that the conclusion stage of argumentative writing was created quite similarly in English and Chinese, where no 'large culture' influences were detected, and the main differences seemed due to topic, a small culture factor.

5.2   Taiwanese EFL Students' Linguistic Features of Argumentative Writing in Chinese and English

The results of textual analysis of the eight linguistic features of Taiwanese EFL students' Chinese and English argumentative writing judged to reflect cultural values (Wu & Rubin, 2000) is shown in Table 19 below. According to Table 19, while locating the thesis statement in the argumentative writing, writers preferred indirectness in Chinese slightly more than in English. They used first personal pronouns in Chinese more frequently than in English. Likewise, they extensively used personal anecdotes as supporting arguments in Chinese, but none in English. Moreover, they produced proverbs in Chinese more frequently than when writing in English. They preferred the writing strategy of using rhetorical questions in Chinese more frequently than when

writing in English. On the other hand, they manifested a stronger attitude for collectivism in English argumentative writing than in Chinese, including the use of first personal plural pronouns in English much more frequently than in Chinese; humaneness that was only produced in English, not in Chinese as well as collective virtues that did not appear in Chinese, but frequently in English.

Table 19 Mean Frequencies and Standard Deviation of Eight Linguistic Features Related to Cultural Values

Linguistic Features	Chinese Argumentative Writing N= 44		English Argumentative Writing N=44	
	Mean Frequency Per Texts	Standard Deviation	Mean Frequency Per Texts	Standard Deviation
Indirectness	1.09	0.291	1.00	0.000
First Personal Singular Pronouns	1.07	1.516	0.57	0.728
Personal Anecdotes	22.18	9.176	0.00	0.000
Use of Proverbs	1.45	2.637	3.36	4.813
Use of Rhetorical Questions	3.02	7.645	1.93	4.267
First Personal Plural Pronouns	0.82	1.126	6.61	3.883
Humaneness	0.00	0.00	13.59	7.231
Collective Virtues	0.00	0.00	16.27	6.514

The results of analysis with ANOVA for each variable are summarised in Table 20. The ANOVA analysis for the effect of the languages on the performance of the eight linguistic features revealed statistically significant differences, for all except the use of rhetorical questions. It may thus suggest that Taiwanese EFL students showed consistent attitudes only toward using questions as a rhetorical strategy in Chinese and English writing.

Table 20 Results of Analysis with ANOVA

Linguistic Features	*F* value	*P* value
Indirectness	$F(1,86) = 4.30$	$= .041$
First Personal Singular Pronouns	$F(1,86) = 4.428$	$= .042$
Personal Anecdotes	$F(1,86) = 257.13$	$< .001$
Use of Proverbs	$F(1,86) = 5.324$	$= .023$
Use of Rhetorical Questions	$F(1,86) = .683$	$> .05$
First Personal Plural Pronouns	$F(1,86) = 90.397$	$< .001$
Humaneness	$F(1,86) = 155.417$	$< .001$
Collective Virtues	$F(1,86) = 274.564$	$< .001$

In summary, apart from the use of rhetorical questions, there is a statistically significant difference in the use of the rest of linguistic features in intercultural argumentative writing. The similarities and differences between Chinese and English in the performance of the eight linguistic features in the argumentative writing are further explored with detailed examples below.

5.2.1 Differences in Chinese and English: Indirectness, Individualism and Collectivism & Use of Proverbs

5.2.1.1 Indirectness

The quantitative analysis for indirectness of Taiwanese EFL students' intercultural argumentative essays suggest that their English texts were influenced by English writing instruction, stating the topic sentences at the outset. As novice L2 writers, their English argumentative essays tended to strictly follow the English writing conventions they were being taught, containing introduction (the thesis stage), body (the argument stage) and conclusion (the conclusion stage). Furthermore, with limited English proficiency, they were merely capable of dealing with single-paragraph writing so that the length of each stage tended to be quite short. As a result, their topic sentences appeared in the

thesis stage of English argumentative essays even if they were occasionally not located in the first sentence.

On the other hand, a few writers (4/44) delayed the thesis statement to the argument stage in Chinese argumentative writing. This may be seen as the influence of large culture that it reflects writers' acknowledgement of "clearing the terrains before getting to the core" as the value of Chinese traditional rhetoric (Leki, 1992, p. 96). For example, writers may have begun talking about broader contextual issues in Chinese writing, such as the relationships between languages, global communications, development of technology and the promotion for future jobs, in the thesis stage and then delayed the location of thesis statement to the argument stage. Therefore, they, unlike their English writing, might make the thesis stage more informative and intriguing to the reader with the use of the informative move (See Section 5.1.1).

In conclusion, concerning the placement of the propositions in their texts, writers' decisions were found be to connected to a mix of the influence of both large culture and small culture factors. All writers showed conformity to normative forms in English argumentative writing, which may be mainly due to the influence of a small culture factor (the classroom culture). However, in Chinese writing, a few examples of delaying the propositions were found, which might be associated with the influence of writers' L1 large culture, though the majority of Chinese argumentative essays were characterised with English traditional rhetoric.

5.2.1.2 Individualism versus Collectivism

The linguistic features relevant to examining individualism and collectivism are the use of first person pronouns (singular and plural), and references to humaneness and collective virtues. Traditionally individualism is associated with western large culture, and collectivism with Chinese/ Confucian large culture. However, the statistical information showed that Taiwanese EFL students in this study preferred collectivist ideation in their English argumentative writing, as evidenced with the frequent use of first personal plural pronouns and references to humaneness and collective virtues. On

the other hand, they demonstrated a high level of individualistic features in their Chinese argumentative writing, with the frequent use of personal singular pronouns and personal anecdotes.

The results of the present study were partially consistent with Wu & Rubin's findings (2000) that their Taiwanese participants frequently use first personal singular pronouns in Chinese and first personal plural pronouns in English. According to Wu & Rubin, both intercultural influence and limited L2 proficiency can be the causes of these writing behaviour of their Taiwanese participants, which were unexpected in terms of predicted large culture influence. Wu & Rubin also pointed out that their participants were inclined to heighten the value of humaneness and collective virtues and only rarely used personal experiences and stories as supporting arguments, in both Chinese and English argumentative writing, findings which are remarkably different from those of the present study. The similarities and differences of individualism and collectivism of Taiwanese participants across studies may illustrate the influence of large cultures and small cultures on writers' rhetorical decisions, shown in the following discussion.

In addition to the influence of large cultures, close attention should be paid to the impact of small culture factors, such as limited L2 proficiency (Wu & Rubin, 2000). With limited L2 proficiency, Taiwanese participants in Wu & Rubin's study frequently used singular and plural first personal pronouns as sentence subjects. Similarly, Taiwanese participants in the present study had limited ability for managing complex sentence structures in English, resulting in frequent use of the plural first personal pronoun (we) as sentence subjects.

> 135 When we helped in the charity, we can see their smile and feel happy. (Participant 20)
>
> 136 We think we have responsibility to help people in need. (Participant 43)
>
> 137 For example, we can help someone volunteer when we saw they're in troubles and save them immediately (Participant 8)

Secondly, the choice of writing topics can be another example which mediate the influence of large cultures in writing (See small cultures in Section 2.3.21.1). The writing topics can be an important influencing factor concerning the use of personal anecdotes, humaneness and collective virtues as supporting arguments in writing in Chinese and English. In Wu & Rubin's study (2000), participants were required to work on "Abortion" and "Euthanasia" as writing topics. As freshmen, with limited life experience, their participants may have felt less connected to. This may explain why the use of personal anecdotes in both Chinese and English was quite low in Wu & Rubin's study. However, the influence of topic was reversed dramatically in the present study due to the intimate relationship between the writer's lived experience and the writing topic "The importance of learning English" in Chinese. As learners of English as an academic subject, the participants were able to argue for it based on their own experiences or stories as in the following example:

138 從國小就開始學習英文，到現在已經擁有與外國人基本會話的能力。英文是日常生活中常接觸到的語言，如果不學好英文那去外國時可真有些不方便。即便不是英語系國家，例如韓國，他們有些標示上有寫英文對於我們真的方便許多。(Participant 43)

(Since primary school, I have started learning English and now am able to have a basic conversation with foreigners. English is used quite frequently in daily life. Without good English proficiency, it is inconvenient to travel abroad. Even if we travel to non-English native speaking countries, like Korea, we can still feel comfortable if English translation is attached to the signs.)

In example 138, the writer talked about his/her experience of learning English and used traveling abroad as an example of the advantages of learning English to strengthen the validity of his argument for the reader. The strategy for using personal anecdotes was frequently used in Chinese argumentative writing. As a result, it may be suggested that the use of personal anecdotes in the writing can be associated with the influence of small culture factors, such as the match of a particular topic and writer's experience, as much as the writer's L1 cultural background.

Nevertheless, some writing topics such as those which involve ethical issues or interpersonal relationship, may be open to large culture influence, for example in terms of the use of humaneness and collective virtues as supporting arguments. For example,

the writing topics "Abortion" and "Euthanasia" in Wu & Rubin's study (2000) led to a high level of reference to humaneness and collective virtues as supporting arguments in their Taiwanese participants' argumentative writing, in both Chinese and English. Likewise, the Taiwanese participants in the present study, while responding to the writing topic concerning the reasons for offering help to others, tended to show a considerably high level of collectivism in their English writing. For instance:

139 The third reason is we all have a kind heart. Helping others is our natural actions. We are sympathetic for helping others if we think they need our help. (Participant 5)

140 Second, people might feel responsibility. For instance, if you see someone in front of you fall down and you are aware of it, you will help the person in need. (Participant 9)

141 Another reason, it's indeed we can figure out the similar situation that people need help. For instance, when our classmate who don't know how to answer the question that teacher asks, we'll want to help them up because we had the same experience before. (Participant 20)

142 Another reason we are sympathetic because human brain is designed to be altruistic. For instance, we want to cheer up someone who is in a sad emotion and help out him or her. (Participant 32)

Regardless of their limited English proficiency, these writers intended to argue in a way that people should be caring and kind to others as our collective responsibility. This manifestation of collectivism in writers' English argumentative writing was strongly influenced by the writing topic, which invoked their background awareness of collectivism.

This analysis shows a range of influencing factors that shape writers' decisions on textual form and content, such as differences in large culture, L2 proficiency and the relationship between the writing topic and the writer. As claimed by Wu & Rubin (2000), work on demystifying the relationship between large culture factors such as collectivism or individualism, and intercultural writing practices influenced by small culture factors, has a long way to go.

5.2.1.3 Use of Proverbs

The use of proverbs in Taiwanese novice EFL students' intercultural argumentative writing based on the ANOVA results in Table 20 ($p = 0.23$) showed a statistically

significant difference. The use of proverbs occurred more frequently in English (3.36%) than in Chinese (1.45%) according the numerical information in Table 19, though with a lower level of variation when compared to that in Chinese. For example, In English, while arguing the reasons for helping people, writers tended to use the proverb, "It is more blessed to give than to receive." (施比受更有福: shī bǐ shòu gēng yǒu fú). On the other hand, they used a wider range of proverbs to strengthen their arguments in Chinese writing. For example,

> 143 學以致用 (xué yǐ zhì yòng; to study for practical applications.) (Participant 1)
> 144 日新月異 (rì xīn yuè yì; to make development every day.) (Participant 8)
> 145 一技之長 (yī jì zhī cháng; proficiency in a particular field.) (Participant 8)
> 146 爭先恐後 (zhēng qián kǒng hòu; to strive to be first and to fear to be last.) (Participant 19)
> 147 應對如流 (yìng duì rú liú; to respond fluently.) (Participant 30)

The use of proverbs in writers' intercultural argumentative writing could be categorised as drawing on both Chinese proverbial tradition and the wisdom of other cultures. Traditional Chinese proverbs are rigidly characterised with four words, as shown in examples 143 to 147, which can be related to Chinese historical events. For example, example 143, 學以致用 (xué yǐ zhì yòng; to study for practical applications.), originates from the Confucian Analects (論語) in which Confucius taught his students that knowledge learned from books must be practically applied to daily life. However, the proverb used in English argumentative writing, consists of more than four words and comes from the Bible, Acts 20:35. The wisdom of other cultures is shared and commonly used in Chinese writing, and can be regarded as a type of proverb in the present study. The reason that writers used two types of proverbs in their writing could be attributable to their writing experiences and language proficiency. Presumably, writers who have greater L1 writing experiences and L1 language proficiency were capable of applying a variety of proverbs in Chinese writing, demonstrating their level of literariness in Chinese rhetoric. In English, they may lack the English proficiency to express their intended meanings based on the translation of Chinese proverbs.

The use of proverbs is encouraged in Chinese rhetoric because of the influence of Confucian wisdom, though it may conflict with the writing norms in Western rhetoric where originality and creativity are highlighted. Participants' general willingness to use proverbs may reflect the influence of Confucian big culture. However the use of proverbs in English writing, and their low variation, may also be connected to writers' response to the writing topic and their L2 language proficiency, which is further verified by qualitative data (see section 5.4.4).

5.2.2   Similarities in Chinese and English: Use of Rhetorical Questions

The use of rhetorical questions is a pronounced discourse feature in Chinese traditional rhetoric (Matalene, 1985). According to the quantitative data in Table 20 (p > .05), Taiwanese novice EFL students used rhetorical questions similarly in Chinese (n = 12) and in English (n = 10). It seems the writers' intentions to ask rhetorical questions were to raise the reader's interest or to reinforce the proposition. For example,

> 148 為什麼現代這麼重視英文? 英文到底那裡重要? 學習英文到底可以做什麼? <u>英文之所以重要的原因，是因為英文是國際間的通語言</u>。(Participant 25).
>
> (Why do people pay much attention to English? Why is English so important? What are the benefits of learning English? The importance of English is because it is an international language.)

> 149 Do you have an experience about helping other people? Why we will help them? <u>There are several reasons why we help the people we don't know</u>. First of all, …(Participant 10)

The underlined sentences state the proposition in the thesis stage. In example 148, the writer, instead of arguing his/her proposition firstly, asked three questions consecutively to the reader in Chinese, inviting the reader to think about the topic from their own perspective. Asking questions may also be seen as an effective strategy for making the reader more interested in the topic in English, like example 149.

Occasionally, the use of rhetorical questions appeared in the conclusion stage, aimed at making the writer's propositions more persuasive to the reader by revisiting the supporting arguments, as displayed in examples 150 and 151.

150 Overall, after help others, we will get the appreciation, happiness and also others' help. So, I think "<u>Helping others has so many benefits, so why we don't help others?</u>" (Participant 41)

151 總而言之，…而我相信，唯一能與全世界溝通的語言，除了英文之外沒有第二種語言。<u>你認為英文不重要嗎</u>?

(All in all,...However, I believe English is the only language which can be used for global communications. Do you think learning English is not important?) (Participant 10)

In short, the examples of use of rhetorical questions in Chinese and English, though the number was quite small, suggest that writers used questions as a rhetorical strategy for different communicative purposes. Their use may be associated both with the influence of writers' L1 writing expertise and writers' intentions of communicating with the reader to promote interaction with the topic. Therefore, this rhetorical feature may be seen as the product of the influence of multiple factors.

5.3 Taiwanese EFL Students' General Writing Instructional Experiences in Chinese and English (PKU Group)

The investigation of Taiwanese EFL students' general writing experiences in Chinese and English included basic information about their academic background, lengths and abilities of writing, the categories of text types, teaching methods, features of writing, paragraph organisations and the difficulties for writing. In the case of the PKU students, the quantitative information on their general writing experiences in Chinese and English was used to investigate the extent to which their writing instructional experiences influenced their genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural argumentative writing.

5.3.1 PKU Students' Academic Background

Sections I and II in the questionnaire revealed the participants' academic background. The 49 participants in the present study, were second-year students in PKU, including 41 girls and 8 boys with the average age between 16 and 17. With reference to their academic backgrounds, 24.5% of them were majors in English, 38.8% in Japanese and 36.7% in Spanish. All the participants were double majors, accounting for the fact that those who major in English have to learn another language as their minor, such as

French, Spanish, German and Japanese, and vice versa. Moreover, due to the institutional pedagogical policy, their minors were equally proportioned to their majors in the curricula in the first three years. As a result, the concern that the participants who are English-minor might be disadvantaged in terms of English learning experiences compared with those who are English-major was eliminated for purposes of the study.

The average length of learning English as a foreign language for the participants was 10 years. In other words, they had started learning English at the age 6 or 7. Although they had been learning English for at least 10 years, the majority (93.9%) claimed that their English proficiency was at the intermediate level, but 4.1% ranked themselves at upper-intermediate level and surprisingly, 2% considered themselves as just beginners. With reference to English proficiency, less than half (38.8%) had any certificate, including 8 who passed the Elementary level in General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), 6 who passed the Intermediate level in GEPT and 5 who passed the College English Proficiency Test (CEPT) with average scores of 200.

The quantitative information of the participants' academic background was helpful for understanding their overall English proficiency; they were capable of manipulating basic English and still moving towards the higher level. But it provided less information about their English writing abilities. The following discussions therefore focus on presenting information in relation to their writing experiences in Chinese and English, including the categories of text types, teaching methods, features of writing, paragraph organisation and writing difficulties.

5.3.2   Lengths of Writing Experiences, Writing Levels and Categories of Text Types (PKU Group)

Regarding the length of learning how to write in English, the participants, despite the fact they have learned English for at least 10 years, reported that their English writing experience was 2.5 years on average, which appeared to be strikingly smaller than their Chinese writing experience that was 8.3 years on average. With reference to the self-assessment of their writing levels, they reported that their writing ability in Chinese was

6.7 on average on a 1-10 point scale, slightly better than their ability in English that was 5.1 on average.

The categories of text types students practiced in Chinese and in English, and the frequency of text types in the classroom are presented in Table 21 below.

Table 21 Text Types and the Frequency of Practice in the Classroom (PKU)

	Categories of Text Types		The Most Common Practiced		The Least Common Practiced	
	Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
Story	83.3	79.2	20.4	16.7	4.2	10.4
Essay Writing	72.9	25.0	32.7	12.5	8.3	4.2
Argumentative Writing	64.6	22.9	6.1	6.3	14.6	20.8
Reports	91.7	29.2	14.3	0.0	2.1	16.7
Poems	75.0	8.3	2.0	2.1	18.8	12.5
Journals	18.8	12.5	0.0	0.0	18.8	0.0
Research Paper	35.4	2.1	0.0	0.0	20.8	27.1
Short answers in examinations	100	91.7	24.5	29.2	2.1	4.2
Summary	83.3	77.1	0.0	33.3	10.4	2.1
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

According to Table 21, there were similarities and differences about the categories of text types PKU students learned in Chinese and English. The text types the majority of students learned in both Chinese and English included short answers in examinations (100% in Chinese and 91.7% in English), story (83.3% in Chinese and 79.2% in English) and summary (83.3% in Chinese and 77.1% in English). Meanwhile, the number of

students who reported that they learned how to write journals in Chinese was 18.8%, which was as nearly small as the one in English, only 12.5%. For all other categories the numbers of students in reporting practice in Chinese were much larger than those in English, for example, argumentative writing (64.6% in Chinese and 22.9% in English).

With reference to the frequency of text types students practiced in the classroom, Essay writing (32.7%), short answers in examinations (24.5%) and story (20.4%) were ticked off as the top three in Chinese, while in English, summary (33.3%), short answers in examinations (29.2%) and story (16.7%) had highest frequency. Regarding the three least common text types, the results were inconsistent between Chinese and English. Chinese writing referred to research paper (20.8%), poems (18.8%) and journals (18.8%), whereas English accounted for research paper (27.1%), argumentative writing (20.8%) and reports (16.7%).

The results in Table 21 may raise a question about students' understanding of text types. During the time the study was carried out, as reported in section 3.2, students had been taught about how to write argumentative essays in English. However, argumentative writing was ranked among the three least commonly practiced text types in English. The inconsistency may reflect students' lack of familiarity with the names of different text types.

5.3.3   Writing Instructional Experiences at PKU: Teaching Methods

After the investigation of the PKU participants' Chinese and English writing experiences, questions 5 and 6 in the third and the fourth section revealed their reported writing instructional experiences. Table 22 summarises their Chinese and English writing instructional experiences, including the most and the least common teaching methods they experienced in the classroom.

Table 22 Teaching Methods in the Classroom (PKU)

	Teaching Methods		The Most Common Teaching Methods		The Least Common Teaching Methods	
	Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
The teacher assigned writing topics and asked us to write	97.9	100.0	81.6	72.0	0.0	4.1
The teacher assigned writing topics with pre-writing discussion	43.8	100.0	4.1	16.0	13.0	10.2
The teacher corrected errors on my essays	91.7	97.9	8.2	8.0	8.7	4.1
The teacher asked students to revise the corrected essays by themselves.	43.8	95.8	4.1	4.0	21.7	14.3
Student groups discussed and edited each other's essays.	12.5	58.3	2.0	0.0	56.5	67.3

The overall results showed that "the teacher assigned the writing topics" and "the teacher corrected the errors on the essays" were the most prevalent methods in Chinese and English writing instruction. The former was reported by 97.9% participants in Chinese and 100% in English and the latter by 91.7% in Chinese and 97.9% in English. These figures suggest that regardless of language, the role of teachers remains powerful and dominant in the classroom. Teaching methods differed to some extent between languages. For example, the percentages of pre-writing discussion between the teacher and the student and peer-discussion were higher in English than in Chinese, and less than 50% of participants reported their experiences of revising a corrected essay in Chinese, but more than 90% did in English. These differences might be attributed to the discrepancy of the participants' writing levels (See Section 5.3.2), or to differences in classroom small cultures.

Participants' acceptance of the teacher's traditional leading role was reflected in their answers to questions 13 and 14 in the third and the fourth sections in the questionnaire. Here it was reported that teachers "always" (35.4%) or "usually" (45.8%) corrected English essays and offered feedback, and none of the participants negatively evaluated the importance of this teacher's feedback. Teachers "always" (22.9%) or "usually" (52.1%) did the same laborious work in Chinese writing, which was evaluated by only 6.3% of the participants as not important.

5.3.4   Writing Instructional experiences: Features of Writing (PKU Group)

The results of questions 7 and 8 in the third and the fourth sections presented in Table 23 below show the percentages of PKU students' reported writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English for selected features of writing.

Table 23 Features of Writing in Chinese and English Writing Instruction (PKU)

	Features of Writing		Emphasised the Most		Emphasised the Least	
	Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)		Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
grammatical correctness	39.6	97.9	0.0	28.3	10.6	3.8
mechanics and spelling	18.8	85.4	0.0	3.3	25.5	9.4
clarity of main idea	83.3	93.8	28.0	28.3	0.0	1.9
topic sentence in each paragraph	52.1	87.5	0.0	20.0	2.1	1.9
thesis statement	54.2	52.1	0.0	0.0	4.3	0.0
using beautiful language	91.7	2.1	14.0	10.0	6.4	13.2
expressing your true feelings honestly	83.3	10.4	26.0	0.0	4.3	0.0
persuasiveness	77.1	20.8	2.0	0.0	2.1	3.8
organisation of ideas	83.3	41.7	12.0	0.0	4.3	5.7
length of paper	64.6	60.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9
neatness and beautiful handwriting	72.9	22.9	0.0	0.0	6.4	7.5
originality and imagination	81.3	6.3	2.0	0.0	0.0	5.7
Chinese proverbs, maxims or idioms	93.8	2.1	2.0	0.0	6.4	17.0
truth of your ideas	10.4	6.3	0.0	0.0	14.9	11.3
using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas	79.2	41.7	0.0	0.0	4.3	3.8
content	85.4	83.3	10.0	3.3	0.0	5.7
coherence at paragraph level	85.4	62.5	4.0	1.7	0.0	3.8
title	47.9	64.6	0.0	5.0	8.5	3.8
others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

There were considerable differences between the features receiving attention in Chinese and English, which might be attributed to Taiwanese EFL students' writing experiences, writing levels and language proficiency. For example, grammatical correctness (39.6%) and, mechanics and spelling (18.8%) received less attention in Chinese than in English (97.9% and 85.4%), due to the fact that they are novice English writers with limited knowledge of English, and inevitably L2 writing teachers paid much attention to the language itself. It is also worth noting that the percentage of participants reporting instruction in using beautiful language was 91.7% in Chinese, and only 2.1% in English, suggesting that they were taught to pursue the use of Chinese language in an artistic way after gaining the ability of controlling the language maturely. Regarding using proverbs, maxims or idioms, 93.8% of students expressed their opinions that i this is an instructed feature of writing in Chinese, while only 2.1% claimed this for English. This is consistent with previous rhetoric studies (Matalene, 1985; Wu & Rubin, 2000; Yang & Cahill, 2008; Cheng & Chen, 2009) that use of proverbs is one of the most salient features of Chinese texts.

Regarding the top three most and least emphasised features of writing, similarities appeared in Chinese and English that clarity of ideas was an important feature of writing, accounting for 28.0% in Chinese and 28.3% in English, while less attention was paid to truth of ideas, chosen by only 14.9% in Chinese and 11.3% in English. As for the differences, expressing your true feelings (26.0%) and using beautiful language (14.0%) were two prominent features of writing emphasised in Chinese, whereas English emphasised grammatical correctness (28.3%) and including a topic sentence in each paragraph (20.0%). Moreover, less attention was paid to mechanics and spelling (25.5%) and grammatical correctness (10.6%) in Chinese, while Chinese proverbs, maxims or idioms (17.0%) and using beautiful language (13.2%) received little attention in English. The comparison of the features of writing between Chinese and English may suggest that how to present ideas clearly in the text could be an important feature of writing shared between Chinese and English regardless of students' writing experiences and language proficiency, but the truth of their ideas was not the central point. Furthermore, students' language proficiency may have impact on the features of writing emphasised in writing instruction. For example, the attention to grammatical correctness on the one hand, and literary style on the other, was different between Chinese and English.

5.3.5   Writing Instructional Experiences: Paragraph Organisation (PKU Group)

Question 9 in the third and the fourth sections was the only open question, aimed at eliciting the participants' perception of the ways of organising paragraphs in Chinese and English writing. 6 out of 48 participants left this blank and the rest gave short answers. The results showed that participants shared similar views on paragraph organisation in English writing, whilst there were apparent variations in Chinese writing. Influenced by their current English writing instructional experiences, the participants agreed that the sequential order "topic sentence→supporting examples using conjunctions→conclusion" was the prototypical way of organising ideas in an English paragraph. For example, "要馬上切入主題(不可鋪陳)，中間列舉，結尾。" (Go straightforward to the main ideas without beating around the bushes, then give examples and a conclusion at the end.) according to participant 41.

By contrast, different opinions appeared when students talked about organising paragraphs in Chinese writing. 28 out of 42 participants pointed out that 起承轉合(qi-cheng-zhuan-he) is the typical feature of paragraph organisation in Chinese writing, in line with claims in previous contrastive rhetoric studies (Kaplan, 1972; Matalene, 1985; Liu, 1989). Perhaps influenced by their current English writing instructional experiences, 11 out of 42 pointed out that both Chinese and English shared the same paragraph structure, stating the main point at the beginning, then listing supportive examples and ending with a conclusion. It might be inferred that the acquisition of L2 writing instructional experiences can infuse influence into the participants' L1 writing experience. In addition, 3 out of 42 claimed that Chinese writing was freer than English writing, in terms of oganising paragraphs. For example, participant 41 expressed his/her opinion that "中文寫作在我看來比英文寫作更加自由，沒有過多的限制，唯一需注意的為首末段的呼應，這也是評分看得最重的部份。" ("In my opinion, Chinese writing is freer than English writing, referring to there is no excessive limitation to paragraph organisation. However, the correspondence between first and final paragraphs is the main criterion for assessment.") In brief, participants' opinions on paragraph organisation in intercultural writing can be influenced by their writing instructional experiences in both languages, and cross linguistic influence may occur.

5.3.6   Writing Difficulties (PKU Group)

The last question in the third and the fourth sections investigated the PKU participants' difficulties in Chinese and English writing, the results of which are presented in Table 24 below.

Table 24 Writing Difficulties in Chinese and English (PKU)

Categories of Writing Difficulties	Percentage (%)	
	Chinese	English
A large enough vocabulary	22.9	93.8
An adequate variety of sentence patterns	14.6	64.6
Use of connectors and transitional phrases	16.7	37.5
Grammatical accuracy	8.3	60.4
Content: having sufficient ideas to write about	72.9	58.3
Organisation in composition	35.4	16.7
Punctuation	25.0	10.4

The overall results illustrated that participants, while writing in Chinese, had more difficulties in content and organisation rather than language-related issues, but this reversed in English writing. As English novice writers, they were more concerned with linguistic features in English writing, such as vocabulary (93.8%), sentence patterns (64.6%), connectors and transitional phrases (37.5%) and grammar (60.4%). The results were further supported by the responses to questions 10, 11 and 12 in English writing experience and questions 10 and 11 in Chinese writing experience. While asked the reasons for making a pause in writing in English, students pointed out that only few "never" stopped for translation (4.2%), grammar (6.3%) and vocabulary (4.2%), but these numbers soared in Chinese writing, including grammar (70.8%) and vocabulary (33.3%). The result that only 33.3% of the students "never" stopped for vocabulary in Chinese may be related to the fact that they were instructed to pursue the beauty of language (91.7%). However, students writing in Chinese were more worried about content (72.9%) and organisation (35.4%). The discrepancy might be attributed to the influence of their writing instructional experiences, and/ or to the possibility that their writing goals in Chinese were more ambitious.

5.4 An Investigation of Taiwanese EFL Students' Perceptions of Chinese and English Argumentative Writing

The qualitative analysis of the PKU interview data revealed how Taiwanese EFL students' dealt with argumentative writing in Chinese and English, including their studying and writing experiences in Chinese and English, the concept of generic structure, opinions about similarities and differences about structural organisation, influence of contextual factors and factors that influenced the manifestation of collectivism and individualism.

Naomi, Nina, Peggy, Tina and Jenny were the five PKU interviewees and the following initials refer to the researcher and their names in the excerpts in the following discussion.

R: Researcher//Na: Naomi// Ni: Nia// P: Peggy// T: Tina// J: Jenny

5.4.1 Interviewees' Chinese and English Studying and Writing Experiences

Table 25 Interviewees' Chinese and English Studying and Writing Experiences (PKU)

		English (L2)		Chinese (L1)	
	English Proficiency	Lengths of studying English	English writing experiences	Lengths of studying Chinese	Chinese writing experiences
Naomi	Intermediate	8 years	1.5 years	11 years	7 years
Nina	Intermediate	8-9 years	1.5 years	12 years	7 years
Peggy	Intermediate	10 years	1.5 years	11 years	7-8 years
Tina	Intermediate	10 years	1.5 years	11 years	8 years
Jenny	Intermediate	13 years	4.5 years	11 years	8.5 years

Table 25 summarises the interviewees' Chinese and English studying and writing experiences. It is worth noting that regardless of the slight difference in the length of studying, there was a striking gap between Chinese and English writing experiences, which may indicate that L2 writing ability develops much more slowly than L1 ability. Jenny had the smallest gap due to her three-year L2 writing experiences in a bilingual

primary school. In Excerpt 10, Jenny talked about her memories of English writing experience in primary school.

Excerpt 10

R:那你覺得你開始會用英文寫作文是從什麼時侯?

J: 就是國小期中期末考會考。

R:國小會考英文作文?

J:對啊!可是老師一直沒有講說在寫作的時侯考。

R:所以基本上你國小就有用英文來寫作文的經驗嗎?

J:嗯。而且我們學校也會徵一些英文稿寫作。

R: When did you start writing in English?

J: Since the mid-term and final examinations in the primary school.

R: You had English Composition examinations since the primary school?

J: Yes, but the teacher did not mention that the examinations would be held in the writing course.

R: So, you basically had English writing experiences since the primary school, didn't you?

J: Hm. And there were some English writing activities at school.

However, in spite of Jenny's primary school experience, it was frustrating to learn that the teaching of English in the junior high school normally excludes English writing as part of the curricula in Taiwan, as none the interviewees reported any English writing experiences in the junior high school. As a result, the striking gap between the interviewees' Chinese and English writing experiences may be attributed at least partly to the influence of pedagogical policy for L2 learning.

5.4.2 Interviewees' Concepts of Generic Structure in Chinese and English

While being asked about overall structural organisation in Chinese and English writing, all the interviewees showed a high level of vagueness about the fundamental structure *Introduction-Body-Conclusion* in English writing, but confidently expressed strategies for organising paragraphs with the use of the rhetorical sequence *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* in Chinese.

5.4.2.1 Chinese Writing

All interviewees reached the agreement that the rhetorical sequence *qi-cheng -zhuan-he* is the predominant structural organisation in Chinese writing. In Excerpt 11, Nina shared her knowledge about the traditional Chinese rhetorical sequence and offered explanations for the function of each element.

Excerpt 11

R:可以請問一下，你什麼時侯接觸到起承轉合這個寫作的架構？
Ni: 國小的時侯。
R:國小？
Ni:國小老師就會提到。
R:那起承轉合你可以大概解釋一下他的功用是什麼嗎？
Ni:起就是先開啟一個頭，然後讓你漸漸地進入你要講的主題。
R:所以他的功用就是試著把讀者帶到你的主題裡面去嗎？
Ni:對對對！
R:然後承呢？
Ni:就是要連接你要講的主題，然後就加以敍述。
R:所以是更進一步？
Ni:說明。
R:那轉呢？
Ni:轉就是，就是像是另一個意見，另一個論點。
R:為什麼？為什麼要另一個論點？
Ni:就是，因為如果只有一個論點，可能沒辦法支持你說的主題，所以可能要有另一個論點。
R:那為什麼不是起承承合？而是起承轉合呢？
Ni:這個，我也不知道耶！
R:所以你不覺得在起承轉，在承跟轉之間的連結有問題嗎？
Ni:不會耶!
R:那合呢？
Ni:就是也是重整，呼應第一段說的，呼應主題。

R: May I ask that when you learned the sequence qi-cheng-zhuan-he?
Ni: Since the primary school.
R: In the primary school?
Ni: The teacher mentioned it.

R: Can you explain the function of the sequence qi-cheng-zhuan-he in a general sense?

Ni: Qi refers to the opening, leading the reader gradually to the discussion you intend to talk about in the text.

R: So its main function is to bring the reader to your discussion?

Ni: Yes, yes, yes.

R: How about "cheng"?

Ni: Cheng is the connection to qi, providing additional information.

R: So it is further?

Ni: Explanations.

R: How about "zhuan"?

Ni: Zhuan is, it is to give another opinions or perspectives.

R: Why? Why do we need other opinions?

Ni: It, it is because an opinion may not be able to fully support your main ideas. So, it is possible to include other opinions.

R: So why is it not qi-cheng-cheng-he, but qi-cheng-zhuan-he?

Ni: This, I don't know it either.

R: So, you don't think the connection between cheng and zhuan, the connection between them can be problematic?

Ni: I don't think so.

R: How about he?

Ni: It is a summary, corresponding to the main ideas.

While describing the function of elemental components in the rhetorical sequence, Nina was confident of her statements, but struggled for the connection between cheng and zhuan. Nina showed her confusion about the feasibility of using the sequence qi-cheng-cheng-he as an alternative for the traditional one. In fact, the same doubt about the use of zhuan was expressed by other interviewees as well, to a lesser or greater level. Naomi cleverly provided a re-interpretation of the function of zhuan shown in Excerpt 12.

Excerpt 12

R:所以就連接性上來講，你覺得就你個人而言，承跟轉之間的關連性會很強嗎？

Na:會。

R:會？那你會覺得很突兀嗎？突然來個轉？

Na:嗯。就是在寫的時侯不會覺得突兀。但是就是人家可能外國人覺得為什麼要叫轉。所以我也不太懂為什麼他叫轉。可是我會用我自己的方式去解釋他，是一種高潮。就寫出來就對了。

R: So, thinking about the connection, do you personally think that the connection between cheng and zhuan is quite strong?

Na: Yes.

R: Yes? So, you don't think it as an interruption? To indirect the reader suddenly?

Na: Hm. I don't treat it as an interruption while writing. I think zhuan might be the term for foreigners, so I don't understand why it is named in that way. However, I have my own way to interpret it, a climax of the writing, just write it down.

Regardless of the difficulty in interpreting the element *zhuan* literally, in reality, the traditional rhetorical sequence was seen as a bonus rather than as an obstacle in writing because of its flexibility. Peggy and Nina claimed that they have gained numerous Chinese writing experiences by employing it since the primary school, and saw it as natural and practical to use it without too many difficulties. Jenny and Naomi emphasised its flexibility and unified the elements cheng and zhuan into a single paragraph in their Chinese writing. As a result, it may be suggested that the traditional Chinese rhetorical sequence is an important cultural heritage emphasised in contemporary schooling in Taiwan. However, writers were aware that they could change the rhetorical sequence for different communicative purposes in different contexts.

5.4.2.2 English Writing

As novice English writers, all the PKU interviewees shared their English instructional experiences, pointing out that they had learned how to write one-paragraph English writing during the semester. That is, they were formally instructed in English writing conventions entailing the location and the function of topic sentence, the use of examples to support their main ideas and a conclusion for summarising previously mentioned points. For example:

Excerpt 13

R:那我可以請問一下，你們現在寫英文都是寫一段式的作文嗎？

Na:嗯，對，都寫一段而已。

R:這是上課老師的要求還是學校目前二年級學一段式作文？

Na:應該是二年級只學到一段。

R:那你知道英文寫作有什麼樣的基本結構或架構嗎？

Na:就是如果說只寫一段的 para，就是第一句是 topic sentence，就是一定要，那一句就是整句的主旨，他就是你的文章的主旨，就是在講你的 topic sentence。然後，他就是最重要的一句。然後要給例子來支持你的 topic sentence。然後，最後一句，concluding sentence，他就是跟 topic sentence 差不多的意思。就是在講，就是那一句，就是要整個代出這一篇文章在寫什麼。

R: Are you writing one-paragraph in English if you don't mind I ask?

Na: Hm, yes, just one-paragraph.

R: Is it the writing requirement from the teacher or do the sophomores learn one-paragraph English writing?

Na: It should be that all the sophomores are instructed to do it.

R: Do you know anything about the basic structural organisations in English writing?

Na: If it is one-paragraph English writing, the first sentence is the topic sentence. That is a must because it is the gist of the whole writing, the most important sentence. Then, some examples must be given to support your topic sentence. Then, the last sentence is the concluding sentence, the function of which is similar to the topic sentence. That means that sentence has to summarise what the writing is about.

Naomi's interpretations of the structural organisation in English writing were echoed by other interviewees as well. In regard to the placement and function of the topic sentence, the consensus was reached that it has to be located in the first sentence because it tells the readers what the writing is about, followed by some supporting examples which have to be connected by conjunctions. The concluding sentence has to appear at the end of the writing, aimed at giving the reader a summary of the main points of the whole writing. However, all the interviewees were confounded and struggled when responding to the question about their knowledge of the structure *Introduction-Body-Conclusion* in English writing. For example, In Excerpt 14, Jenny who claimed to have more English writing experiences than others expressed her uncertainty about it.

Excerpt 14

R:你知不知道英文寫作的一些結構？ 不曉得你有沒有聽過 Introduction-Body-Conclusion？

J:有。

R:那你知道 Introduction 的功用是？ 你自己覺得呢？

> J:嗯。應該是，應該是，就是介紹題目吧！
>
> R:介紹題目？
>
> J:嗯。
>
> R:那 Body 呢？
>
> J:就是可能舉例吧!
>
> R:那 Conclusion 呢？
>
> J:就是結論。

> R: Do you know anything about English writing structures? I am wondering if you have ever heard about Introduction-Body-Conclusion?
>
> J: Yes.
>
> R: Do you know the function of Introduction? What do you think about it?
>
> J: Hm. It should be, should be, should be the introduction of the writing topic.
>
> R: Introduction of the writing topic?
>
> J: Hm.
>
> R: How about Body?
>
> J: It might be giving some examples.
>
> R: How about Conclusion?
>
> J: Just a conclusion.

While attempting to talk about the structure *Introduction-Body-Conclusion*, she used auxiliary verbs, like "should" and "might", to hedge her discourse, which indicated her hesitation. In fact, the one-paragraph English writing the interviewees produced in this semester was the manifestation of the prototypical English writing structure *Introduction-Body-Conclusion*, but they seemed not to be aware of it.

5.4.2.3 Similarities and Differences of Generic Structure in Chinese and English

In the interviews, the PKU interviewees were asked about similarities and differences in overall structures between English and Chinese writing, the results of which are summarised in Table 26.

Table 26 Similarities and Differences in Overall Structures between English and Chinese Writing (PKU)

	Similarities	Differences
Naomi	Naomi did not talk about anything relating to them.	
Nina	• The content of writing has to be consistent with the writing topics. • Both have Introduction-Body-Conclusion.	In the beginning of the writing, • The first sentence is not necessary to be the topic sentence in Chinese. • The first sentence cannot talk about something else, but the main themes in English.
Peggy	• The content of writing has to be consistent with the writing topics. • Examples to support your main ideas. •Conclusion: a summary of the aforementioned points.	In the beginning of the writing, • Chinese likes to beat around the bush before getting to the main themes. •English has to be straightforward to the main points.
Tina	• Examples to support your main ideas. • Conclusion: a summary of the aforementioned points.	In the beginning of the writing, • It is an option to be direct or indirect in Chinese. • It is a must to be direct in English.
	Similarities	Differences
Jenny	•Both have Introduction-Body-Conclusion.	•In the introduction, Chinese writers are allowed to talk about something else before presenting the main ideas. Topic sentences have to appear in the first sentence in English.

Apart from Naomi who had no opinions about this issue, the others shared their own opinions which frequently overlapped. They shared the view that both English and Chinese writing consist of an introduction, a body and a conclusion as the basic structure. Examples to support the main ideas have to be given in the body and a conclusion aims at summarising the aforementioned points. In addition, it was also mentioned that the link between the writing topic and content has to be consistently retained as well. The most striking difference occurred in the comments concerning the placement of the topic sentences in English and Chinese writing. In Chinese, to be indirect or direct in the introduction is an option for the writer, although indirectness is

always encouraged, whereas English is characterised by directness. The recognition of similarities and differences in overall structure between English and Chinese writing may be associated with instructional experiences. Their three-month English writing instructional experiences provided interviewees with knowledge about argumentative writing in English, in particular the importance and the placement of topic sentences, the reasons for including supporting examples and the conclusion to signify the end of the writing. Nevertheless, they reported similar views that indirectness in the introduction is always advocated in Chinese writing because Chinese writing was far less taught and practiced than English during the semester the study was carried out. Hence, it may be suggested that the traditional Chinese rhetorical sequence *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* has its prevailing influence on how writers think about paragraph organisation in Chinese writing, but the sequential order between the first three elemental components is seen amendable in order to fulfil different writing purposes in the context, like the combination of *cheng* and *zhuan* proposed by Jenny and Naomi in the present study.

5.4.2.4 Influence of Writing Prompts

In addition to the influence of general writing instructional experiences, the manifestation of the rhetorical structures in the writing can be influenced by more immediate contextual factors. In this study, the small culture of the classroom included the additional requirements in the writing prompts (see section 3.3.1.1) that the teacher expected students to meet, for example, the inclusion of topic sentences, the use of new vocabulary, syntactical structures, and conjunctions, and a word limitation as well as a time limitation. In English writing, all the interviewees pointed out that they were required to produce one-paragraph English writing within 50 minutes in which they had to write at least 120 words, to place the main ideas of the whole writing in the first sentence, to use at least 5 new vocabulary items, new grammar or sentence patterns learned from the teaching material and to connect the supporting examples by conjunctions. Although it was demanding and stressful to respond to the pedagogical demands, some interviewees talked about their reactions positively. For example, Tina expressed her opinions in Excerpt 15.

Excerpt 15

R:那你覺得這個題目跟老師額外的要求對你來講會是一種負擔嗎？額外的要求可能會限制你在寫作上的發揮嗎？

T:有耶！

R:那特別是那一方面你覺得這樣的要求會比較局限你在寫作方面的發揮？

T:就單字吧！

R:單字？

T:嗯，就是要運用新的單字，就還要想說要怎麼加進去。

R:那老師有限制說單字一定要用幾個嗎？

T:有，他說 5 個。

R:那如果未達到老師的要求會有什麼樣的結果嗎？

T:成績會比較低。

R:那假設今天你是寫作老師，那你會針對這一點做任何改變嗎？如果你是老師，你會怎樣要求你的學生？

T:呃，應該也是不會變吧！也會做一樣的要求。

R:為什麼？

T:因為這樣才會逼學生學會用新的單字。

R: Do you think it is challenging to deal with the writing topic and the teacher's additional requirements? Can your writing performance be constrained by them?

T: Yes!

R: Do you think which one of them is the most challenging?

T: Vocabulary!

R: Vocabulary?

T: Yes, I mean the use of new words. I have to think about how to use them in my writing.

R: Did the teacher mention the number of new words you have to use?

T: Yes, she said five.

R: What would be the result if you fail to meet her expectation?

T: Get the lower mark.

R: Let's make a hypothesis that if you were a teacher today, would you make any changes with it? If you were the teacher, how would you do to your students?

T: Ur, I won't bring any changes to it. I would do the same.

R: Why?

T: Because it pushes the students to learn how to use the new vocabulary.

Unlike English, the Chinese writing produced for the study had fewer requirements, including only a length requirement of 150 words and the completion of the writing task within 50 minutes due to the fact that the participants had a strictly fixed timetable. None of the interviewees writing in Chinese claimed any difficulties for dealing with these requirements although they had rarely produced Chinese writing since studying in PKU. With reference to the influence of contextual factors, therefore, it can be inferred that English writing produced under these conditions can be characterised with a high level of unity, but Chinese writing may be more free to vary, in terms of rhetorical structure (and therefore perhaps to give greater scope for writer's agency).

5.4.3   Factors influencing Interviewees' Collectivism in English and Individualism in Chinese

5.4.3.1 Cultural Influence: Sharing of Ideas

In an attempt to investigate students perspectives on the appropriateness of collectivism and individualism in intercultural argumentative writing, all the interviewees were asked to articulate how they constructed their texts. The interviews showed consistency with the findings of textual analysis reported above, i.e. a preference for collectivism in English writing and individualism in Chinese writing, associated with the influence of both large cultures and small culture factors. The small cultures of text production accounted for the relationship between the writer and the writing topic. For example, students typically had group discussions to share their opinions about the writing topics before working on their own English writing. In Excerpt 16, Tina explained how she constructed supporting examples via a group discussion.

> Excerpt 16
> R:那你剛才提到你用了 3 個 reasons。可以請你大概解釋一下你第一個 reasons 講了什麼東西？
> T:就是我們幫助別人就是為了要生存。
> R:所以在你第一個例子講了說幫助別人是為了生存。那這個例子是來自於自己的生活經驗還是課本有相關的例子？
> T:組員的生活經驗。
> R:那第二個例子講了什麼呢？
> T:嗯，因為幫助別人可以使我們很快樂。
> R:那同樣的問題，這是你自己的經驗還是大家都有，還是其他人的經驗？

T:大家都有耶！

R:大家都有？所以你自己也有？

T:嗯嗯。

R:那你怎樣構思這些想法呢？

T:就大概先想一下。

R:是用中文還是用英文呢？

T:用中文。

R: You just mentioned you used three reasons. Could you please explain your first reason?

T: We help others for survival.

R: So your first reason means we help others for survival. Is it from your own living experience or the example from the textbook?

T: From my group member's living experience.

R: What is it about your second example?

T: Hm, it is because helping others makes us very happy.

R: The same question to you. Is it your own or everyone's or some other people's experience?

T: Everyone has the same experience!

R: Does everyone have it? So you have it as well?

T: Hm,hm.

R: How do you organise these ideas?

T: Just think about them in mind.

R: In Chinese or English?

T: Chinese.

Although Tina did not directly talk about the group discussion in detail, it was revealed in Excerpt 16 that she borrowed the lived experiences from other group members as collective supporting examples, in her own English writing. Meanwhile, she also talked about utilising Chinese for generating ideas in English writing, and the rest of the interviews showed similar views. So it seems that novice L2 writers, while generating ideas for L2 writing, can be influenced by their L1 cultural background through use of their L1. As a result, elements of both large cultures and small cultures can significantly shape and influence writers' decisions, in terms of processing and generating ideas.

5.4.3.2 Familiarity with Writing Topic

The manifestation of individualism in Chinese argumentative writing and collectivism in English argumentative writing produced for this study has already been noted (section 5.2.1.2). It was suggested this may be accounted for by the 'small culture' factor of the choice of writing topic, and its connection with writers' lived experience. In Excerpts 17 and 18, Tina and Nina expressed their own perspectives relating to this issue respectively.

Excerpt 17

R:你覺得 50 分鐘要寫 120 個字，這個對你來說很吃力嗎？

T:要看題目耶！

R:看題目？什麼意思？

T:就是有些題目比較好寫就沒問題。

R:你覺得怎麼樣的題目對你來講比較好發揮？

T:就跟生活經驗有關係的。

R:那你覺得這次英文和中文的題目，對你來說那個比較容易發揮？

T:當然是中文，因為我每天都要唸英文。

R: Do you think it is quite challenging for you to write 120-word English writing in 50 minutes?

T: It depends on the writing topic.

R: Writing topic? What do you mean by that?

T: It means that some of the writing topics are easy to deal with.

R: What kind of writing topics do you think it is easier for you?

T: Those are in relation to my lived experiences.

R: Which one is easier for you to write if you compare the writing topics between English and Chinese writing tasks?

T: Of course, Chinese because I need to study English per day.

Excerpt 18

R:那你寫英文寫作，你覺得他對你最大的挑戰是什麼？

Ni:我覺得看是什麼主題耶，因為有些主題英文很難去說明，也很多字詞都不會用。

R:所以是看題目跟你個人的相關性嗎？

Ni:嗯嗯嗯。

R:那你覺得你個人的生活經驗會影嚮嗎？

Ni:會啊，就是因為要舉例子的時侯就會不知道要舉什麼樣的例子。

R: What is the biggest challenge for you to write in English?

Ni: I think it is about the writing topics because some are hard to talk about and I don't know a lot of words.

R: So, you mean the relevance between you and the writing topics?

Ni: Hm,hm,hm.

R: Do you think your personal lived experiences influences your English writing?

Ni: Yes, it is because when giving some examples, I don't know what to talk about.

Tina and Nina shared a similar opinion that the relationship between the writing topic and writers' lived experiences can be an important factor for constructing the text. For example, Tina stated that the writing topic in Chinese was less difficult to deal with than the one in English due to its being closely related to her own lived experiences. This may explain the higher frequency of using first personal singular pronouns and personal anecdotes in Chinese. The writing topic in English was less concerned with writers' own stories, but had stronger emphasis on interpersonal relationships. This topic provided an opportunity for the expression of 'large culture' values, and as a result, their English writing was extensively loaded with collectivism. It seems that writers' familiarity with the writing topic can moderate the level of influence of large cultures and small cultures in the text.

5.4.4   Use of Proverbs

As seen in section 5.2.1, the use of proverbs is highlighted as a traditional feature in Chinese writing. Matalene (1985) viewed the use of proverbs in English writing written by Chinese native writers as a sign of lack of individuality and originality. However, according to the data from the interviews, the intercultural writers in this study suggested that the use of proverbs should be selective and depending on context:

Excerpt 19

R:一般來說，你寫中文會使用成語嗎？

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P:有時侯，如果覺得用成語會比較好表達的話就會使用。

R:所以你覺得成語的使用是一種加分嗎？還是一種扣分？

P:這要看你怎麼使用耶。

R:那如果一篇文章內大量的使用成語，你覺得？

P：扣分吧！大量不代表好，但要用的適當。

R: Generally speaking, do you use proverbs in Chinese writing?

P: Sometimes if I think it is appropriate to use them.

R: So, do you think the use of proverbs is an advantage or a disadvantage?

P: It depends on how you do it.

R: What do you think if proverbs are extensively used in an essay?

P: A disadvantage! It is not good when you extensively use them. You have to use them appropriately.

Nina in Excerpt 20 shared a similar view to Peggy (Excerpt 19):

Excerpt 20

R:成語對你來，他是一種加分還是減分的動作？

Ni:你說成語嗎？

R:嗯，成語在中文寫作上？

Ni:加分啊！

R:加分？為什麼呢？

Ni:因為就感覺比較不會那麼口語化，而且聽起來比較有深度。

R:那你在這一篇中文寫作上，我沒有看到任何成語的使用。是為什麼？

Ni:題目不合適。

R:那如果今天有合適的題目，你會考慮使用成語嗎？

Ni:會啊！

R: Is the use of proverbs a plus or a minus for you?

Ni: Do you mean "proverbs"?

R: Hm. I mean the use of proverbs in Chinese writing?

Ni: A virtue.

R: Why is it a virtue?

Ni: It is because of less colloquialism, but a sense of literariness.

R: I don't see any proverbs in your Chinese writing. Why is it?

Ni: The wrong topic.

R: Would you think about using proverbs if you think the writing topic is appropriate?

Ni: Yes!

Nina's opinion was positive towards the use of proverbs in Chinese writing. She pointed out that the purpose of using proverbs was to decrease colloquialism and to increase Chinese literariness, indicating her perception of writing as a formal activity where the use of language should be well considered. More importantly, the writing topic also had its influence on the use of proverbs.

These interview data confirmed that using proverbs is a salient feature of Chinese writing, in the view of the participants. Second, writing is perceived as a formal activity where the writer can make use of proverbs to demonstrate his/her levels of literariness and avoid being colloquial. Finally, the use of proverbs has to take into consideration the writers' response to the writing topics.

The influence of the writing topics was evident in this study, leading to greater use of proverbs in the English texts rather than the Chinese texts, even though participants did not know many English proverbs. While responding to the writing topic which focused on the interaction between the giver and the receiver, the proverb "*It is more blessed to give than to receive.*" *(施比受更有福: shī bǐ shòu gēng yǒu fú),* occurred repeatedly in writers' English argumentative writing. This may be interpreted as an example of using proverbs appropriately. IN Excerpt 21, Jenny commented on the appropriacy of proverbs in both languages, though her limited L2 proficiency meant she used them less in English:

Excerpt 21

R:我想請問一下，若是在中文有機會用到成語，你會去使用嗎？

J:會。

R:那在英文方面也會使用嗎？

J:可是英文方面，我不太知道有什麼，就是接觸比較少，知道的很有限。

R:那假設今天你剛好知道 ”施比受更有福 " 的英文說法，你會把他用到你的英文
　寫作裡面去嗎？

J:會。

R:為什麼？

J:因為文章會變的更強而有力。

R: May I ask that if you have the opportunity to use proverbs in Chinese writing,
　would you do it?

J: Yes.

R: Would you do it in English writing as well?

J: But I don't know much about the English expressions. I rarely learn them and
　have limited knowledge about them.

R: Let's make a hypothesis that if you knew the English expression of *施比受更
　有福: shī bǐ shòu gēng yǒu fú*, would you put it into your English writing.

J: Yes.

R: Why?

J: It's because it makes my assertions more powerful and persuasive.

It seems that Jenny was unaware of different traditional 'large culture' expectations of rhetorical conventions in Chinese and English, based on her opinions that using proverbs can make her writing persuasive in both languages.

In brief, the interviews showed that for the participants, the use of proverbs is a prototypical textual feature of Chinese writing, which signifies writers' level of literariness and the avoidance of colloquialism. Influenced by L1 large culture, L2 novice writers may hold the perspective that the use of proverbs may be a shared rhetorical feature in both Chinese and English writing. However, the tendency to use proverbs in writing was not merely determined by large culture influence, but was influenced by small culture factors as well, for example, the frequent use of 施比受更有福 (shī bǐ shòu gēng yǒu fú) as a response to the English writing topic "Why do we help others?". Moreover, L2 writers' limited stock of English expressions or English proficiency was undoubtedly another influencing factor. Again it seems that the use of

proverbial phrases in texts cannot be predictable based on writers' L1 cultural background alone, but results from a mix of large and small culture factors.

5.4.5   Use of Rhetorical Questions

As discussed in section 5.2.2, the use of rhetorical questions in Chinese written discourse has its multiple functions, attracting reader's participation and increasing their understanding of the writer's stance (Wong, 1990 cited in Hinkel, 1997). Even though some writers used rhetorical questions in both languages (see Tables 18 and 19), none of the interviewees talked about them in the interviews. On the other hand, they mentioned that they frequently translated thoughts from L1 to L2, which may explain the similar occurrence of rhetorical questions in the intercultural argumentative writing in both English and Chinese. One of the difficulties Taiwanese novice EFL students had in writing English was how to translate their thoughts precisely from Chinese into English as demonstrated in Excerpts 22 and 23.

Excerpt 22

R:當你在腦中想 ideas 的時侯，你是用中文還是用英文？

Na:用中文耶.

R:用中文,所以那你寫的時侯是用英文嗎？

Na:對對對，就是因為是英文作文。因為我本來就是接觸中文比英文久，所以當然就是會用中文去想，寫的時侯就是自己會去翻譯，就是自己想該怎麼翻譯，然後再確認文法有沒有問題。英文有英文的文法，跟中文不太一樣，像講中文，隨便講別人都聽的懂。但是就是英文有一定的文法，用錯的話整個句型就會很怪。

R: Do you use Chinese or English to generate ideas in mind?

Na: Chinese.

R: Chinese for idea generations. So, do you write in English?

Na: Yes, it's because it's English writing. I've learned Chinese longer than English and it is natural for me to think in Chinese and translate my ideas into English. I mean I translate in my way and check if there is something wrong with my grammar. English has its own grammar that is slightly different from Chinese. In Chinese, people can understand me no matter how I talk, but English has certain rules for grammar. If you make any mistakes, the meaning of the whole sentence sounds awkward.

Excerpt 23

R:那你覺得目前為止，英文寫作對你來講最大的挑戰是什麼？

P:就是要怎麼把句子用英文寫出來。就是通常想法都是中文，然後就是要怎麼把他變成英文。

R:為什麼這個轉換過程來講特別有挑戰性？

P:就是因為我們通常用中文去想事情，所以突然要轉成英文，然後單字又沒有學的那麼多，就會比較難。

R: What is the biggest challenge for you in English writing?

P: How to write English in complete sentences. I mean I usually think in Chinese and try to translate my thoughts into English.

R: Why is the process of translation challenging for you?

P: It's because we usually think in Chinese, but it is so difficult to translate because I don't have a lot of vocabulary.

Translation was a writing strategy for dealing with L2 writing because of novice EFL students' insufficient stock of L2 lexical items and syntactical structures. Based on writers' opinions in excerpts 22 and 23, L1 is an important resource for generating and organising ideas in both Chinese and English writing. Presumably, the use of rhetorical questions in English in this study may reflect the influence of writers' use of L1 for generating ideas and had the intentions of attracting reader's participation and enhancing writers' arguments, although there was a lack of direct evidence.

5.4.6   Salient Textual Features in Chinese and English

While being asked about the textual features for good Chinese and English writing, with regard to their instructional experiences, the interviewees showed a high level of variation concerning Chinese, but persistently emphasised structure and language points for English (see Table 27).

Table 27 Concepts of Good Writing in Chinese and English

	Chinese	English
Naomi	• Beautiful language	• Topic sentences • Large Vocabulary • The numbers of examples
Nina	• Modified Language to avoid colloquialism	• Good organisation of structures • Good examples to convince the reader
Peggy	• Consistency between the topics and the contents	• Topic sentences • Persuasive examples • Complexity of syntactical structures
Tina	• Simple language • Clear expressions of the main ideas	• Clear structures • Creative main ideas • Syntactical structures
Jenny	• 扣人心弦(kòurénxīnxián: thrill and excitement): to boost the reader's interest and attention	• Clear structures • Stunning vocabulary • Good interactions with the reader

In Chinese writing, there was a discrepancy in the perspective on language usage. Naomi and Nina shared a similar opinion that written language should be more formal than spoken language, whereas Tina claimed that the 'beautiful' language usage always distracted her attention from the comprehension of writer's intentions. Peggy put her focus on consistency between the writing topic and the content. Drawing from her previous writing experiences in the primary school and junior high school, she said that she enjoyed reading the writing in which the writing topics and the contents consistently matched. Jenny was the only one who emphasised the importance of readers' response to the writing. According to Jenny, her consideration of the reader has been influenced by her English writing experiences. She also talked about her experience of managing conflict between previous English writing experience in school and her current English writing experience in PKU in Excerpt 24.

Excerpt 24

R:那你覺得你接觸英文寫作四年多了，你覺得英文寫作對你來講最大的挑戰？

J:其實我進文藻之前，我都覺得我的英文寫作還不錯。可是我不知道為什麼我進來大學,大學老師給我的分數都還蠻低，所以挑戰應該還是要懂老師要的是什麼。

R:所以是指讀者嗎?

J:對，讀者的胃口。以前的寫作經驗在新的環境已經不適用了。我要學習做自我調整。

R: Since you have been studying English writing for more than four years, what is the biggest challenge for you in English writing**?**

J: Actually, I think my English writing ability was quite nice before entering the university. However, I don't know the reason that the teachers here always gave me lower marks on my English writing. So, I think the biggest challenge for English writing is to understand what the teachers expect.

R: So, you mean the reader?

J: Yes, the reader's expectation. My previous English writing experience did not work in a new environment. I need to learn how to do some adjustments.

Jenny was also influenced by her new instructional experiences in English writing, pointing out that clear structures and vocabulary are the salient textual features of good English writing, like other interviewees. In this regard, it was confirmed that participants' concept of textual features of good English writing was associated with their current instructional experiences. All in all, it might be concluded that the small culture of the learning context can significantly shape the writers' concepts of good writing. The more similar the learning experience is, the fewer variations the writers show. However, if conflict emerges between the previous and the current instructional experiences, this can be seen as an opportunity for the writer to advance his/her knowledge in writing if the adaption to a new discourse community is successful.

5.5   Summary

The results of analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data had significant implications for understanding the influence of large cultures and small cultures on Taiwanese EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in Chinese and English argumentative writing. In some key respects, their argumentative writing was similar in both languages, in terms of how they used key moves at all three argument stages (propositions in the thesis stage, claims in the argument stage, consolidation and affirmation in the conclusion stage). However, the students tended to be influenced by

their L1 sociocultural background in some respects, making arguments from a collectivistic perspective, such as the supporting arguments in their English argumentative writing. They also favoured the use of proverbs and rhetorical questions, and when writing in Chinese, used more flexible rhetorical organisation (e.g. more information moves which sometimes preceded propositions, and claims without support moves). However the influence of large cultures was found to be bidirectional as students' Chinese writing had features of English rhetorical conventions, including directness and individualism. In interview, the students showed awareness of unique rhetorical conventions which they saw as attaching to each culture (whether or not they implemented these in their writing for the study).

Nevertheless, the study has also traced the influence of small cultures on argumentative writing, which appeared to interact with large cultures to affect L2 writers' genre-rhetoric construction. The additional requirements in the writing prompts, the relationship between writing topics and writers, writers' instructional experiences and language proficiency have been construed as small culture factors in this study, which have influenced writers' decisions, as shown in the analysis of texts and discussion of the interviews. It seems that large and small cultures can both have significant impact on L2 writers' construction of texts. Large cultures, which may be associated with writers' L1 cultural background, or introduced through classroom instruction, are characterised by relatively predictable and less dynamic cultural preferences for rhetorical conventions, and students are aware of these. On the other hand, small cultures are more flexible and can evolve when writers travel across different contexts, as seen in Jenny's awareness of teachers' expectations in different writing contexts in Excerpt 25. We have seen how these influences interact in L2 writers' genre-rhetoric construction, and this is further discussed in Chapter 6.

Chapter 6 Discussion: Promotion of Novice EFL Students' Ability of Handling Conflict of Rhetorical Expectations between Previous and New Writing Instructional Experiences and Their Genre Awareness

Drawing upon the results from Chapters 4 and 5, this Chapter aims at answering all the research questions and making further comparison and contrast of the two groups of Taiwanese EFL students dealing with particular genre writing in different social contexts. Sections 6.1 and 6.2 are organised similarly, providing answers for research questions 1 and 2 respectively. The former looks at the genre-rhetoric construction of the group of Taiwanese EFL students writing letters of job application as an assignment (the NKU Group), whilst the latter investigates that of the other group composing argumentative writing in the EFL classroom (the PKU Group). The last section 6.3 argues that it is important for L2 writing instructors to sensitise novice EFL writers to the conflict of rhetorical expectations they will encounter when traversing academic discipline-specific domains.

6.1 Discussion of Taiwanese EFL Students' Genre-Rhetoric Construction in Letters of Job Application in Chinese and English

The main research question consisted of three sub-questions, exploring EFL students' organisation of component moves and politeness strategies in the letter of job application in Chinese and English, and how their writing instructional experiences and other large and small culture factors influenced the ways they dealt with the genre. Drawing upon the results in Chapter 4, the following sections 6.1.1, 6.1.2 and 6.1.3 present discussion to answer the sub-questions and section 6.1.4 presents a summary to answer the main research question 1.

6.1.1 What were the Generic Components Employed by Taiwanese Novice EFL Students Writing a Letter of Job Application in Chinese and English? How did Taiwanese Novice EFL Students Articulate Their Intentions of Deploying Them?

According to overall results presented in section 4.1.3, it is affirmed that Taiwanese EFL students' letters of job application in Chinese and English were characterised by many similarities, but slightly differentiated from each other by the relative frequency of the moves (see Table 11 in 4.1.3). The overall results are linked to frequent use of direct translation because the majority of writers included generic moves in their job application letters in Chinese and English identically or similarly. For example, participant 31 included identical moves "apply for the position", "provide argument–background and experience", "provide argument– good for the applicant" and "express politeness or appreciation at the end of the letter" in her Chinese and English letters. However, some participants varied their letters slightly. For example, participant 24 composed her letters in a similar way overall, but showed a slight difference by deploying an additional move in her Chinese letter as follows:

> With the features mentioned above, I think I will have a great time working as a team with your esteemed company if I have the honour.
>
> 就上述各點，我認為如貴公司提供這寶貴的職位，我會非常努力，與團隊一同創造 Discovery 的光輝未來。
>
> (Translation: With the features mentioned above, I think I will have a great time working as a team with your esteemed company if I have the honour and create a brighter future for Discovery.)

The underlined words were interpreted as the additional move "provide argument – good for the hiring company." Although the writer's intention in excluding it from her English letter remains obscure, this may be attributable to L2 proficiency issues, based on the qualitative data. Grace's comment quoted in 4.4.2 that her Chinese letter was "more informative" than English due to her limited English proficiency may suggest that similarity of generic structure in intercultural letters of job applications can be viewed as the result of frequently using L1 linguistic resources as compensation for insufficient L2 language proficiency (Cumming, 1989). Small variations such as move omissions can be attributed to the same issue.

However, it is worth noting that the use of direct translation did not lead to the adoption of the rhetorical structure "*qi-cheng-zhuan-he*" associated with Chinese 'large culture' for the organisation of paragraphs, in either language. The qualitative data in 4.4.4.1 confirmed that Taiwanese novice EFL students still learned "*qi-cheng-zhuan-he*" as the traditional rhetorical structure in Chinese writing instruction, but it was not considered suitable for every type of writing. At least, it was seen as inappropriate for the letter of job application because the elemental component "*zhuan* (turning)" may hinder the communicative purpose according to Doris' opinion in 4.4.4.1. Moreover, Amber in 4.4.4.1 compared the flexibility of rhetorical structure in writing in Chinese and English, concluding that the well-known rhetorical structure "*qi-cheng-zhuan-he*" in Chinese writing was much more flexible than the tripartite structure in English writing. Consequently, individuals' perceptions about rhetorical structure and communicative purpose of specific genres could shape their decisions on how to organise their letters, and led to similar solutions.

Because of their limited life experience and lack of instruction in the genre in either English or Chinese, these EFL students had limited knowledge about the genre-rhetoric construction of the letter of job application expected in either large culture. In comparison to Upton & Connor's (2001) model for English letters, writers massively used moves "apply for the position/state desire for consideration" and "provide argument – background and experience" in the letters of job application in both languages, but rarely appealed for a further interview or contact, implicitly indicating their limited knowledge about the promotional genre (Bhatia, 1993). Without formal writing instruction, the novice EFL students who completed the writing tasks as a take home assignment employed different writing strategies for coping with the lack of genre knowledge, such as seeking help from experienced people, depending on previous writing experience in L1, and working with peers (see section 4.4.2). Their active agency and ability to utilise different sources within local social contexts may have an implication for revitalising the role of students in the classroom, which refers to the increase of their engagement in pedagogical contexts.

As novice L2 writers, EFL students were trained to reproduce what they were taught in the classroom, but rarely offered opportunities for seeking knowledge on their own feet.

Nevertheless, the assigned writing task offered them a new experience of writing without L2 writing instructors' support and the results were positive in that they applied a variety of writing strategies arising from the contexts where the writing was produced. This interaction with contexts construed as the influence of small cultures may have benefits for students in that they could move slowly from the phase of prescriptive knowledge to declarative knowledge (Anderson cited in Weijen et al., 2009). For example, even though Miranda included the move "stipulating terms and conditions of employment" in her Chinese letter of job application, which can be regarded an atypical feature (see Excerpt 5 in section 4.4.2) by readers who are Chinese-native speakers, her interaction with peers had allowed her to develop her understanding of the job application process.

Notwithstanding that small culture may have a positive influence on EFL students' writing practice, its negative side has to be carefully addressed as well. Firstly, regardless of the increasing use of writing strategies, students may have difficulties in meeting the expectations of particular genres, the knowledge of which is not acquired through instruction yet. For example, the quantitative data shown in Table 11 (see 4.1.3) reveal that only two moves "apply for the position/state desire for consideration" and "provide arguments–background and experience" were considered as essential components of application letters, and the rest remained as optional. Writing instruction can expected to empower students, in terms of knowledge about the expected generic structures of specific genres, which may further enhance students' interactions with social contexts.

Secondly, awareness of intercultural variation at the level of large cultures is an important aspect in L2 writing, which is neglected by L2 writers in this study, as evidenced in the inclusion of the move "pre-move: greetings" in EFL students' letters of job application in both Chinese and English. (See Section 4.1.3). This move implies EFL students' general awareness of inequality of social status between the employer and the employee. However it also shows the lack of intercultural variation in their genre writing. As we have seen in section 4.1.3.1, the use of pre-move greetings at the beginning in Chinese letters of job application may have a positive cultural value, that is to establish a long-term relationship (Zhu, 2000), but can be an extraneous move in

English letters. It is therefore suggested that EFL students need continuing awareness of intercultural variations while attempting to transfer linguistically in different cultures.

In brief, there are more similarities than differences in Taiwanese EFL students' letters of job application in Chinese and English, in terms of organisation of component moves. This may be primarily attributable to their limited L2 language proficiency, which resulted in the frequent use of direct translation from Chinese to English and the elimination of some component moves in English letters. In addition, it also appears that EFL students who have limited knowledge of particular genres can broaden their range of writing strategies through interaction with the social context, i.e. through drawing on small culture resources. However, not only do small cultures affect students' choice and organisation of moves in intercultural letters of job application, but large culture factors also play a role. For example, while transferring linguistically, students may transfer norms expected by the large culture underlying the linguistic features, as seen here in the case of pre-move greetings.

6.1.2   What were the Politeness Strategies Employed by Taiwanese Novice EFL Students Writing a Letter of Job Application in Chinese and English? How did Taiwanese Novice EFL Students Interpret the Communicative Purpose of the Identified Pragmatic Strategies?

The overall results in EFL students' letters of job application in Chinese and English show that positive politeness strategies were more frequently adopted than negative politeness strategies (see section 4.2). The results are in line with Maier's (1992) study that non-English native speakers use positive politeness strategies more frequently than negative politeness strategies in business letters. It is worth noting that the percentages of politeness strategies were normally less than 10% except for "showing interest" (used by 90% in both languages) and "offering a contribution or a benefit" (used by 49% in English and 33% in Chinese), indicating EFL students' use of only a limited range of pragmatic strategies to sustain successful communication in different social contexts. Politeness strategies were sometimes used inappropriately according to large culture norms, as evidenced in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2.

Previous researchers have suggested that non-English native speakers use politeness strategies quite differently than those who are English native (Maier, 1992; Bhatia, 1993; Upton & Connor, 2001; Hou & Lin, 2011). However, this study has shown that the influence of large cultures alone did not determine the ways novice EFL students made use of politeness strategies in their intercultural letters of job application. Without pedagogical input, the EFL students relied on individual belief, deriving from a mix of large and small culture factors.

For example, Doris in 4.4.3 pointed out that her awareness of communicative purpose, inferior social status relative to the addressee, bad reputation of the generation she belongs to and advanced internet technology shaped her belief about the essential elements in a letter of job application. The rich input of different sources satisfied her desire of what to write, but did not encourage her to visualise the interaction with the addressee via the use of linguistic features reflecting politeness strategies. Likewise, Amber in 4.4.3 not only relied on her personal experience, but also considered the advice from peers to construct her letters. Doris's and Amber's writing experiences may illustrate a stronger impact of small cultures than large cultures; their resulting insensitiveness to politeness norms in intercultural letters of job application could lead to failure in obtaining a job interview.

These findings indicate a need for genre writing instruction, which may not only instruct EFL students what to write, but also attract their attention to the interplay between language use and communicative purposes of the genre, across social contexts. As Al-Ali (2006) noted, "bilingual participants' cover letters were not constructed in an appropriate way to articulate the communicative purpose of this particular genre" (p. 133) and therefore "should be instructed to pay attention to the pragmatic strategies in different social contexts" (p. 134).

All in all, the quantitative data show that EFL students used positive politeness strategies more frequently than negative politeness in intercultural letters of job application and the information from interviews indicates that EFL students lack awareness of pragmatic strategies in business communication. The frequent use of

positive politeness strategies could be attributable to the influence of small cultures, such as students' lack of instructional experiences and their interactions with the contexts, whereas the influence of large cultures was found to be connected to the pragmatic strategies underlying the linguistic features, not always appropriately. These multiple cultural influences on textual forms imply a reflexive thinking about L2 writing pedagogical practice, where the links between the communicative purpose and the linguistic features of particular genre writing associated with different large cultures should be emphasised and presented explicitly to EFL students.

6.1.3   To What Extent did Taiwanese Novice EFL Students' Writing Instructional Experiences in Chinese and English Influence Their Genre-Rhetoric Construction when Writing a Letter of Job Application in Chinese and English?

This question intended to investigate how EFL students dealt with an unfamiliar or untaught genre based on the influence of their writing instruction. Before answering it, it is prerequisite to outline the similarities and differences of their writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English.

There are at least four main considerations according to the overall results of the student questionnaire for the NKU group (see section 4.3). First, the examination of the categories of text types students reported in Chinese and English writing instruction shows overlapping results, which may implicitly indicate that the internalised knowledge of rhetorical structure in Chinese is interwoven with the acquisition of the same text types in English. Certain doubts may be cast on this finding, due to the fact that the research paper is a specific writing genre where sophisticated language skills are required, which tends to be inappropriate for novice English writers. Secondly, it is commonly reported for both Chinese and English that teachers still did the laborious work in the classroom, usually assigning the writing topics and correcting essays. However, the opportunity for discussing with teachers and peers was offered more frequently in English writing courses than in Chinese.

Next, with reference to features of writing, clarity of main ideas in writing was equally emphasised in both languages, but a discrepancy appeared that English writing instruction emphasised more the pursuit of basic L2 linguistic features, whilst Chinese instruction paid attention to exquisiteness of language (see section 4.3.4). Likewise, as influenced by writing instructional experiences, EFL students showed a high level of consistency in describing paragraph organisation in English writing, which normally contains topic sentences with controlling ideas, followed by supporting evidence or arguments and a conclusion at the end of the whole text. In Chinese writing, students seemingly agreed that the traditional rhetorical structure "*qi-cheng-zhuan-he*" still remains the predominant discourse pattern for paragraph organisation although writing topics appeared to be an influencing factor. Finally, EFL students' writing difficulties can be associated with their writing instructional experiences and language proficiency. Students have difficulties in generating sufficient ideas to write about, which was the greatest obstacle for writing in both languages, but the emphasis placed on the pursuit of basic linguistic features in English was greater than in Chinese.

The aforementioned discussion of EFL students' writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English provides two considerable insights into their language use in an untaught writing genre. First of all, the organisation of paragraphs in the letter of job application appears to be more predictable in English than in Chinese. A considerable number of students employed the tripartite structure in their letters in both English and Chinese, but a few included the notable four-part rhetorical sequence *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* in their Chinese letters. It may be that they are more confident of altering what they are expected to write for topics in Chinese than in English, according to the qualitative data (see 4.4.4.1). As evidenced in both quantitative data (see section 4.3.2) and qualitative data (see section 4.4.2), EFL students showed their limited knowledge of this untaught promotional genre (Bhatia, 1993). As influenced by writing instructional experiences (see sections 4.3.4 and 4.3.6) and individual writing experience (see section 4.4.2), it may be affirmed that students paid more attention to the content and the language rather than the relationship between the language use and the communicative purpose while dealing with the letter of job application. Likewise, a similar view appeared in the investigation of politeness strategies in students' intercultural letters (see section 4.4.3). Positive politeness strategies were found to be used more frequently than negative

politeness strategies, in both English and Chinese letters. This may be attributable to the influence of students' L1 cultural background where the maintenance of interpersonal relationships is highly emphasised. This influence was not counteracted by any specific instruction in the norms of English business letters.

6.1.4   Summary

Drawing upon the discussions in the sections 6.1.1, 6.1.2 and 6.1.3, EFL students constructed genre-rhetoric conventions quite differently across individuals, but quite similarly across languages while writing the letter of job application. While writing this untaught genre, they actively engaged in gathering information from different sources in different social contexts as compensation for their lack of genre knowledge, which resulted in notable differences of arranging component moves across individuals. Due to their limited L2 language proficiency, the majority of EFL students directly translated their letters from Chinese to English, leading to the similarities of component moves as well as the decrease of informativeness in English letters.

In addition, EFL students are insensitive to pragmatic perspectives in promotional genre writing in English (Bhatia, 1993), as evidenced in how they used politeness strategies in the letters. Positive politeness strategies were preferred over negative politeness strategies, reflecting local large culture norms.

The examination of EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in promotional genre writing offers useful information about how large cultures and small cultures can affect students' genre-rhetoric decisions. When approaching the assigned writing tasks, students, who are novice L2 writers, were found to inevitably utilise their L1 and their English writing therefore tended to be characterised by some rhetorical features of Chinese writing. However, the influence of big cultures was combined with influences of small cultures, such as, students' writing instructional experiences, language proficiency, individuals' perspectives on genres and interactions with the peer group and other contextual factors. For example, without genre-specific instructional experiences, students were unaware that genre writing has its recognisable linguistic features, which may derive from large culture influence, though these may be flexibly

changed to serve particular communicative purpose according to the social contexts (Johns, 2008).

6.2 Discussion of Taiwanese EFL Students' Genre-Rhetoric Construction in Argumentative Writing in Chinese and English

Section 6.2 is intended to provide answers to research question 2 according to the results of data analyses presented in Chapter 5. The following sections 6.2.1, 6.2.2 and 6.2.3 present discussion to answer the sub-questions of research question 2 and section 6.1.4 presents a summary to answer the main research question 2.

6.2.1 How did the Organisation of Component Moves Vary in Taiwanese Novice EFL Students' Argumentative Writing in Chinese and English after They Gained Three Months of English Writing Instruction? How did Taiwanese Novice EFL Students Articulate Their Intentions of Deploying Them?

According to the overall results of textual analysis in section 5.1, there are three considerations in relation to Taiwanese EFL students' organisation of generic structure in the argumentative writing in Chinese and English. First, as the examination of component moves in the thesis stage shows (See Section 5.1.1), all EFL students included the proposition move in the thesis stage in English, but while the proposition move in Chinese was found mostly in the thesis stage, a few students placed this in the argument stage. Moreover, they commonly put an information move ahead of a proposition move in Chinese, but rarely employed these in English. The generic structure in the thesis stage in Chinese can be attributable to the influence of writing instructional experiences and L1 cultural background. Starting the thesis stage in English with a proposition move conforms with English writing instruction, though the lack of information moves in English may be due to limited L2 proficiency, rather than any competing 'large culture' influence.

The qualitative data (see section 5.4.2), revealed that participants saw *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* (起承轉合) as the predominant sequence for rhetorical structure in Chinese writing, whereas English writing was understood to follow the rhetorical sequence

Introduction→Body→Conclusion. Their newly-formed English writing instructional experiences made EFL students aware of this rhetorical writing convention in English, supporting the placement of a topic sentence at the outset of their texts. Interestingly, the deductive reasoning taught for English writing may have conflicted with their reported knowledge of rhetorical organisation in Chinese (see section 5.4.3.2) and somewhat influenced their Chinese writing, as evidenced that some stated the proposition at the beginning of the thesis stage in Chinese. It seems that the newly introduced L2 writing knowledge can interact intricately with internalised L1 writing knowledge.

Secondly, listing signals were found in the argument stage in both Chinese and English argumentative writing, but they occurred much more frequently in English than in Chinese because of the compliance with the writing requirements of the English task. In addition, writing in their L2, they were strictly required to construct solid claim-support pair moves to strengthen their arguments to the readers, but they only sometimes did this when writing in Chinese. In addition to strictly following the writing requirement for English (see section 3.3.1.1), this difference may have been influenced by the rhetorical tradition that Chinese is a reader-responsible style and English is a writer-responsible-style (Hinds, 1987).

Finally, when moving to the conclusion stage, EFL students tended to use discourse markers to signify to the reader the position of the conclusion more frequently in English than in Chinese, again primarily in response to the writing requirements. When concluding their arguments, participants opted for consolidation or affirmation, with nearly equal frequency in Chinese and English. Nevertheless, Chinese and English texts were characterised with unique component moves respectively, the recommendation move in Chinese and the close move in English. Neither writing instructional experiences nor cultural influence led to this difference, but the influence of writing topics did (See Section 5.1.3).

Overall, the analysis of the component moves in EFL students' argumentative writing in Chinese and English has again captured the influence of large cultures and small

cultures, which mutually interacted with each other. For example, after students had instructional experience of argumentative writing in English, the influence of Western cultural norms could be seen e.g. in the early use of the proposition move in the thesis stage in both English and Chinese. On the other hand, in the conclusion stage, writers' response to the writing topics was a major influencing factor, which is construed as the influence of small cultures.

6.2.2 How did the Manifestation of Cultural Values Embedded in the Linguistic Features in Taiwanese Novice EFL Students' Argumentative Writing Vary in Chinese and English after They Gained Three Months of English Writing Instruction? How did Taiwanese Novice EFL Students Interpret Their Decisions of Using Linguistic Features Characterised by Culture-Specific values?

The manifestation of Taiwanese EFL students' cultural values embedded in linguistic features has been investigated through textual analysis and student interviews. The overall results show intriguing findings. First, EFL students tended to use rhetorical questions similarly in argumentative writing in Chinese and English, not only as an invitation for the reader to join the discussion in the thesis stage, but also as a positive force to strengthen the proposition in the conclusion stage (See Section 5.2.2). The qualitative data (See Section 5.4.5) may suggest that EFL students writing in English resort to L1 for generating ideas and superficially translating them into English, without reflecting on the culture-specific value of particular linguistic features. The rhetorical question is a pronounced textual feature in Chinese writing (Hinds, 1997) and it is surmised that its occurrence in English is the result of direct translation from L1 to L2.

Secondly, it appears that EFL students' English argumentative writing was apparently characterised with directness, but their Chinese argumentative writing showed both directness and indirectness (See Section 5.2.1.1). The appearance of directness in their Chinese writing was associated with the influence of English writing instruction according to the qualitative data (See Section 5.4.2.3). Thirdly, it is worth noting that collectivism was found in their English writing and individualism was captured in their Chinese writing, which contradicts the 'large culture' expectations described in Wu &

Rubin's (2000) study (See Section 5.2.1.2). Here, an explanation was found in the small culture factors of the writer's life experience and the writing topic (See Section 5.4.3.2). According to Tina's and Nina's comments, they had the feeling that when the degree of familiarity with the writing topic increased, it was easier to relate it to their lived experiences, resulting in more individual expression (as here, in the topic assigned for the Chinese task). Finally, the analysis shows participants' awareness that using proverbs is one of the most salient linguistic features in Chinese writing, and an important index of writer's repertoire of Chinese literariness. Proverbs were used in both English and Chinese, but writing topics and writer's language proficiency were shown to have considerable impact on the types of proverbs selected (See Sections 5.2.1.3 and 5.4.4).

The examination of linguistic features in EFL students' argumentative writing in Chinese and English has obtained evidence of bi-directional influence of big cultures similar to those in Uysal's (2008) study. EFL students writing English essays are likely to be influenced by aspects of Chinese rhetorical tradition, exhibiting collectivism and using rhetorical questions and proverbs. Likewise, their Chinese writing appears to be characterised with individualism and directness claimed to be features of a Western rhetorical tradition, although it is not as linear as their English writing. The overall results go with Wu & Rubin's suggestion that "writing reflects a complex, contextually contingent activity" (2000, p. 172).

Based on the previous discussion, it seems that certain linguistic features reflect the interaction between large cultures and small cultures in discourse formulation. Writing, as noted by Wu & Rubin (2000), is more than a cultural artefact and is constituted by different social factors. Consequently, the investigation of EFL students' rhetorical conventions in intercultural argumentative writing not only reveals the interplay between collectivist ideation in English and intrusion of individualism in Chinese, but also demonstrates the impact of writing instructional experiences, L2 language proficiency, the translation of ideas directly from L1 into L2, topic familiarity and contextual factors such as task requirements and peer group influence.

6.2.3   To What Extent did Taiwanese Novice EFL Students' Writing Instructional Experiences in Chinese and English Influence their Genre-Rhetoric Construction when Composing Argumentative Writing in Chinese and English?

The investigation of Taiwanese EFL students' writing instructional experiences was intended to unveil the influence of writing instructional experiences on EFL students' composition, in particular the use of generic structures and rhetorical features. The investigation dealt with categories of text types taught, teaching methods, features of writing, paragraph organisation and writing difficulties (See Section 5.3). With reference to categories of text types, the results suggest that EFL students have only limited concepts of genres, and of their associated rhetorical styles. Regarding teaching methods, participants generally reported teacher-dominant instruction in both languages. However, the extent of collaborative learning with peers and individual work on revision was larger in English than in Chinese writing courses. There are variations of emphasis in Chinese and English writing instruction, for example, grammatical accuracy is more frequently emphasised in English. When talking about how to organise paragraphs, participants reached a consensus on the tripartite structure in English, but their opinions about Chinese writing slightly varied although more than 60% of them recognised *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* as the traditional Chinese rhetorical sequence. As for writing difficulties, their anxiety with language accuracy was much greater in English than in Chinese, but their worries about content and paragraph organisation were higher in Chinese than in English.

The examination of EFL students' writing instructional experiences reinforces the findings of textual analysis and interviews. First of all, it shows that Chinese and English writers have preferred generic structures to present arguments; nonetheless, they are adaptable according to the situated social contexts. For example, the unity of tripartite rhetorical structures which appeared in EFL students' English argumentative writing reflected their compliance to the writing prompt stipulated by the teacher inside the classroom. In Chinese writing, however, they were inclined to present the reader with relevant contextual information before the appearance of the main arguments, and always eliminated the rhetorical element "*zhuan*". Whether or not such a transformation of rhetorical sequences in Chinese writing is judged acceptable, this was a purposive

strategy for strengthening the connection between the students' arguments and the writing topic (See Section 5.4.2.3). In addition, whilst being introduced English writing conventions, they showed bi-directional cultural influence on the organisation of component moves (See Section 5.1). Similar bi-directional cultural influence on rhetorical features was also captured in Uysal's (2008) findings that bilingual writers (Turkish-English) frequently used transition signalling in Turkish writing and had obscure topic sentences in English writing.

Secondly, EFL students' reported writing instructional experiences had quite limited influence on the selection of linguistic features, apart from directness and indirectness. This may be primarily attributable to the fact that writing instruction does not make students aware of the influence of big cultures. For example, the students agreed that proverbial features are beneficial for good scores in writing and would have used them in English if they had a sufficient stock of English idiomatic expressions (See Section 5.4.4). This assumption about the equal value of proverbial features in writing in Chinese and English implies a need for L2 writing teachers to consider the influence of big cultures with students as an important element in the classroom. The comparison of rhetorical conventions and features of genres in L1 and L2 may allow L2 students to become sensitised to variations and alternative options in intercultural genre writing.

In brief, students' reported English writing instructional experiences assisted them to produce English argumentative writing in adopting the conventionalised formats appropriately, but has its constraints on the recognition of cultural values embedded in the linguistic features. With reference to the development of students' agency and empowerment of their writing performance, opportunities should be given to L2 students to compare and contrast the generic structures of argumentative writing preferred by different big cultures in the classroom.

6.2.4   Summary

Findings indicate that EFL students' English writing instructional experiences may raise their awareness of intercultural preferences for generic structure in argumentative writing, but barely influence their attention to the influence of multiple cultural forces

underlying the selection of linguistic features according to the discussions in sections 6.2.1, 6.2.2 and 6.2.3. With reference to generic structure, some intercultural variation is captured in that EFL students showed a high level of consistency for deductive reasoning in English, whilst they preferred presenting their arguments somewhat more inductively in Chinese. This finding partly echoes previous studies of contrastive rhetoric (e.g., Kaplan, 1966) that every culture has its unique rhetorical structure. However, there is also clear evidence of bi-directional cultural influence on generic structure, reflecting fluidity as a prominent characteristic of culture in L2 writing. The teaching of English writing therefore can expand students' writing options in another culture and language.

Compared to the organisation of generic components, EFL students' English writing instructional experiences have limited impact on the micro-level of written discourse, such as the choice between collectivism versus individualism, in intercultural argumentative writing. This is associated with the fact that EFL students are typically instructed on "what" to write rather than "why" the discourse is constructed in a particular way. Hence, their awareness of the pragmatic functions of linguistic features tends to be comparatively weak in comparison with that of generic structure. Another interesting finding in relation to cultural values is the inconsistent results between Wu & Rubin's (2000) study and the present study. This has suggested that when arguing their opinions, EFL students are inevitably influenced by small culture factors, like the relationship between the writers' lived experiences and the writing topics. This evidence responds to Connor's (2004b) appeal that studies in contrastive rhetoric should consider the influence of contexts on rhetorical construction.

In brief, the aforementioned discussion has explained the similarities and differences of EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural argumentative writing in the EFL classroom, through reference to a diversity of factors, like writing instructional experiences, L1 cultural background, L2 language proficiency, familiarity with writing topics, task instructions and peer influences. It has been shown that English L2 writing instruction enables students to experience how generic moves of argumentative writing can vary in Chinese and English although it has so far barely attended to the communicative purpose underlying the choice of linguistic features.

6.3   An Integrated Overview of the Influence of Taiwanese EFL Students' Writing Instructional Experiences on Genre-Rhetoric Construction in Intercultural Genre Writing

Admittedly, the present study is limited in scope, but some significant indications can be made in relation to the teaching of L2 writing to novice EFL students at tertiary education.

6.3.1   The Introduction of Writer' Agency in Academic Settings

As we have discussed in section 2.4, it is the writers who construct meaning of textual forms based on the intentions and perceptions they bring to the writing activity as well as on their interactions with contexts. As seen in the discussion in Chapters 4 and 5, writer's agency has been captured differently between the NKU and the PKU groups.

While dealing with a letter of job application, participants at NKU have demonstrated limited knowledge about the generic structure and the politeness strategies of this particular genre. Influenced by Chinese large culture, many of them tended to be polite in their letters by using a pre-move "greeting", which illustrates writers' inferior social statues to the reader. Due to the lack of writing instructional experience, individual writers had to make use of contextual resources, leading to the use of a wider range of strategies, such as seeking advice from experienced people, working with peers and the computing technology. These writing strategies construed as small culture factors are shaped by writers' intentions and perceptions about this particular genre and their interactions with contexts.

By contrast, the findings from the PKU group may suggest that writer's agency has a weak role in an academic setting. PKU participants who had been instructed how to write an argumentative essay in English showed similar generic structure in their English texts. This may be mainly associated with the fact that their English texts had to be formally assessed. However, the generic structure and the linguistic features of this

genre varied slightly across individual writers in Chinese. As we have discussed in Chapter 5, the variations of textual forms may be influenced by a mix of large culture and small culture factors.

The investigation of writer's agency in two cases has suggested that writer's agency should be introduced to academic settings. While facing unfamiliar or untaught genre, writers are able to use different strategies to compensate their inability in different contexts, though they may be unaware of different expectations of rhetorical conventions and generic structure of particular genre in different large cultures. The active role of writer's agency may suggest that writers' intentions and perceptions about particular genre continuously be shaped and reshaped by the context where the writing activity takes place. By the same token, students' writing ability may be empowered if they are encouraged to share individuals' perspectives on the taught genre in academic settings.

6.3.2   Novice EFL Students' Purposefulness-Oriented Writing Behaviour: Effectiveness of L1 Use in L2 writing

The influence of L1 cultural background on L2 writing has been the focal point in traditional contrastive rhetoric in which culture is viewed as "a set of rules and patterns shared by a given community" (Connor, 1996, p. 101), indicating that every culture has its cultural uniqueness of rhetorical features in written communication. For example, Chinese native speakers have been said to prefer the four-part rhetorical sequence *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* (Hinds, 1983), and this has been claimed to conflict with the acquisition of English writing characterised with deductive reasoning style (e.g., Kaplan, 1966). The status of *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* as part of traditional Chinese rhetoric was echoed by the two groups of EFL students in the present study who agreed that this four-part rhetorical convention has been taught and encouraged in their contemporary Chinese schooling. Traces of traditional Chinese rhetorical conventions were also found in the students' writing. A considerable number of EFL students started their job application letters with a pre-move greeting, attempting to establish an interpersonal relationship with the reader (See Section 4.1.3). When writing Chinese argumentative writing, EFL students had a tendency to present the reader with information relevant to

the theme they intended to argue later (See Section 5.1.1). However, the stereotyping Chinese cultural conventions were not necessarily preferred. For example, Doris claimed that the rhetorical element "*zhuan*" was inappropriate to her Chinese letter of job application (See Section 4.4.4.1) and EFL students' Chinese argumentative writing was generally characterised with deductiveness (See Section 5.1).

The above discussion illustrates explicitly that the large culture background of EFL students does not precisely predict the rhetorical construction of their written discourse, in line with Spack's (1997) argument against L2 writers as homogenous groups according to their shared languages and cultures. The extent to which EFL students resort to L1 rhetorical conventions can be influenced by their perceptions about the purpose of writing in a specific genre (Kubota, 1997), as evidenced here by the absence of the rhetorical element "*zhuan*" in EFL students' Chinese letters of job application. The labelling of EFL students as a culturally homogenous group ignores the influence of individual differences on rhetorical construction and overlooks the multiplicity of rhetoric (Kubota, 1997). The textual analysis contributes to understanding students' internalised knowledge of rhetoric in L1 and L2 writing, and suggests that the influence of large cultures is not the sole determining factor for shaping rhetorical construction

The influence of large cultures in L2 writing can be evaluated negatively or positively. Examples found in the literature are the potential negative impact of transfer of internalised meta-knowledge about rhetorical structure in L1 for L2 reading comprehension (Chu et al., 2002) or the positive transferability of rhetorical structures in Japanese and English due to the influence of specialised writing instruction (Kobayashi, 2005). As evidenced in the EFL students' intercultural letters of job application, the organisation of generic structure and rhetorical features in L2 writing were influenced by L1 cultural background, both linguistically and culturally. They approached L2 writing with similar writing strategies to L1, utilising L1 as a resource for generating ideas and compensating for insufficient L2 proficiency, which resulted in the frequent use of direct linguistic transfer (See Section 4.4.2) and variations of generic structure (See Section 4.1.3). Interestingly, Amber, who is the only one influenced by L2 rather than L1 due to her family and educational background (See Section 4.4.3), showed the same writing strategy in reverse, viewing L2 as a resource for her L1 letter.

In addition to this large cultural influence, however, there are other small culture factors shaping EFL students' composition, for example, personal beliefs, peer discussion and awareness of on-line job application formats (See Sections 4.4.2 and 4.4.3). For some researchers, this complexity is viewed positively as "multiplicity of rhetoric" (Kubota, 1997), while others view the influence of writers' L1 cultural background as interference with their L2 writing due to the lack of awareness of intercultural variations of generic structure and rhetorical features in a genre such as the letter of job application (e.g., Upton & Connor, 2001).

Conversely, when EFL students are introduced through instruction to rhetorical conventions in L2 writing, they may become sensitised to similarities and differences of preferred rhetorical conventions between L1 and L2. For example, the PKU students were quite aware of the danger that their L2 writing would be assessed with low scores if they delayed their topic sentences to the middle or the end of their texts. Such a prescriptive teaching approach may risk decreasing EFL students' abilities of recontextualising their genre awareness (Cheng, 2007), but it clearly raises their awareness of how rhetorical conventions are preferably constructed in different cultures and languages, as shown in section 5.4.2.3.

The evidence of bilateral cultural influence captured in EFL students' intercultural argumentative writing concurs with Matsuda's (1997) claim that the nature of culture in L2 writing is fluid and evolving. For example, their L2 writing was characterised with proverbs (See Sections 5.2.1.3 and 5.4.4), whereas their L1 writing took the perspective of individualism (See Sections 5.2.1.2 and 5.4.3.2). Overall we have shown that both large cultures and small cultures impact on written discourse, (Atkinson, 2004), increasing the complexity of rhetorical construction in L2 writing. For instance, EFL students' reaction to writing topics increased the use of collectivism in L2 writing and individualism in L1 writing (See Sections 5.2.1.2 and 5.4.3.2), which runs against Wu & Rubin's (2000) study. Wu & Rubin suggested that their Taiwanese participants were influenced by L1 sociocultural values so that their L2 writing was characterised with indirectness, humaneness, collective virtues and limited use of personal anecdotes, and the vice versa. The difference of rhetorical construction between Wu & Rubin's study and the present study can be associated with writers' personal responses to the writing

topics. As argued in section 6.2.2, as the relationship between topic familiarity and writers' lived experiences intensifies, bi-directional cultural influence on textual construction may emerge. In addition, the L2 argumentative writing of the PKU group rigidly adhered to the taught rhetorical formats reflecting the influence of large culture mediated through small classroom culture, e.g. task requirements (See Section 5.4.2.4). The findings of this study concerning the influence of small cultures on EFL students' intercultural argumentative writing are in line with the concept of multiplicity of rhetoric (Kubota, 1997).

The examination of how both groups of EFL students fell back on L1 cultural background to deal with particular genres in different social contexts suggests that the occurrence of L1 use in L2 writing is a purposeful behaviour regardless of its positive or negative evaluation. The recognition of multiplicity of rhetoric is important for understanding EFL students' world views underlying the rhetorical construction in their writing and offers substantial reflection to improve the quality of L2 teaching and learning. As Kobayashi (2005) noted, "it is the students who are empowered to make rhetorical decisions according to what they believe to be best for their writing" (p. 66).

6.3.3   Equipping Novice EFL Students with Ability of Negotiating with Conflict between Previous and New Writing Instructional Experiences and Promoting their Genre Awareness for Their Success in Academic Discipline-Specific Writing

Findings reviewed in sections 6.1 and 6.2 illustrate the influence of small cultures on writers' genre-rhetoric construction of specific genres in Chinese and English. The small culture factors identified in this study included individual writers' reported instructional experiences, language proficiency, and perspectives on genres, and contextual factors, including the relationship between writers and writing topics, peer interaction and other resources for generating ideas, and the pre-set writing requirements. From these findings, it may be suggested that the L2 writing instruction should equip students with the ability to negotiate any conflict between previous and new writing instructional experiences and promote their genre awareness in the context of academic discipline-specific writing. Given that novice EFL writers are capable of

transforming genre knowledge acquired in one language context and applying it to another language context (Yasuda, 2011), sensitising them to similarities and differences of rhetorical expectations of genre writing in different languages should be an integral part of L2 writing instruction. Participants in this study felt quite uncomfortable and insecure due to the incompatibility of rhetorical expectations in English argumentative writing with those in Chinese (See Section 5.4.2). Despite the fact that their L2 writing instructors did not assist them to negotiate with the invisible cultural collision (Steinman, 2003), their concepts of genre and their repertoire of genre knowledge were somewhat reshaped and expanded, as seen in their reflective thoughts about the similarities and differences of rhetorical conventions in different cultures. Furthermore, conflict of writing instructional experiences also occurs across institutions, as seen in the case of Jenny (See Excerpt 25 in Section 5.4.6). Johns (2002b), while co-teaching with a history instructor in an American public university, pointed out that a number of university freshmen who are multicultural L2 students shared a belief that the five paragraph essay was suitable for history essays in both high schools and universities. This static concept of genre-specific writing needs to be destabilised (Johns, 2002b), and the teaching of L2 writing to novice EFL students should "encourage them to see every context and task as somehow new" (Johns, 1995, p. 186) when they travel across academic contexts.

The teaching of general English writing at universities should equip novice EFL students with ability not only of recognising the "genre-identifying features", but also understanding genre as socially constituted (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1993, p. 311). As evidenced in the present study, both groups of EFL students heeded the linguistic aspects of the written discourse excessively, and gave limited consideration to its social context and its intended communicative purpose. This implies that the teaching of L2 writing at tertiary education remains prescriptive rather than descriptive, as seen here in the evidence that EFL students at PKU replicated the generic structure learned from the teaching material because of meeting the writing requirements imposed by the L2 instructor. On the other hand, the NKU evidence shows that students directly reproduced the information they collected from different sources without paying much attention to the intended reader and communicative purpose when writing the intercultural letters of job application. Although these two groups of novice EFL

students produced their writing in different social contexts, there is a common prioritisation given to what to say rather than why the discourse is structured the way it is in their own writing.

The teaching of language divorced from context strengthens EFL students' knowledge of normative rhetorical principles of genre writing, but simultaneously weakens their awareness of the communicative purpose of genre writing in social contexts. In the case of intercultural argumentative writing, the frequent use of L1 cultural writing conventions in L2 writing and the reverse may hamper the reader's comprehension of the intention or communicative purpose, in particular those who do not share a cultural background with the writers. For instance, the use of proverbs and maxims may not be appreciated by readers who are from a low-context culture (Hall, 1977) where the creativity of the writing is highlighted. In the case of EFL students' letters of job application in L1 and L2, the tendency of frequently using positive face politeness strategies may not be beneficial for achieving the communicative purpose of the genre. The lack of consideration for audience and communicative purpose in these EFL students' intercultural writing indicates that they are unskilled or novice L2 writers (Raimes, 1985). However a key question is how such novice EFL students can learn to transfer their L2 writing experience appropriately across contexts where they would be using the target language for communication, in particular the context of academic disciplinary writing where the complexity of rhetorical realisations and disciplinary variations increase (e.g., Spack,1988; Hyland, 2008). The recognition of "sociological features of the contexts within which the text is used and the discourse community that will read and judge the text" could provide significant assistance (Dudley-Evans, 2002, p. 235).

The arguments above tentatively suggest that L2 writing instruction for novice EFL students in Taiwan should aim at integrating the development of "genre awareness" into current L2 teaching approaches that focus on "genre acquisition" (Johns, 2008, p. 238). According to Johns, genre acquisition is denoted as abilities to reproduce texts with conventionalised formats in predictable ways, whilst genre awareness refers to the "rhetorical flexibility necessary for adapting their socio-cognitive genre knowledge to ever-evolving contexts" (p. 238). The promotion of genre awareness assists them not

only in viewing L2 writing as socially constituted, but also facilitating their L2 writing in understanding how to transfer the learned rhetorical conventions and use them appropriately in new contexts. This may help them succeed in academic disciplinary writing in universities, where success in academic discipline-specific writing requires a higher sensitiveness to the rhetorical expectations that are implicitly informed (Johns, 2002b). It may be argued that the development of genre awareness is a burdensome task for L2 writing teachers, but what is needed is not to teach conventionalised features required by discipline-specific faculty, but to make novice EFL students become academic ethnographers (Johns, 1997), who can independently analyse the complexity of linguistic and rhetorical expectations in academic discipline- and subdiscipline-specific writing (Spack, 1988).

Traditionally, learning opportunity in the EFL classroom is controlled by L2 writing teachers who give instruction in what to write and how to write, although teacher-led or peer-to-peer discussion occasionally occurs (see sections 4.3.3 and 5.3.3). However, when writing outside the classroom where teachers' expectations and guidance vanished, EFL students were more capable of interacting with the writing context actively, utilising diverse resources for generating ideas for the letter of job application. Despite the fact that the rhetorical construction in their intercultural genre writing shows differences from the accepted conventionalised formats of promotional genres (e.g., Upton & Connor, 2001), such a writing experience may increase their engagement in the process of composing, thus reconstructing their current writing experience accumulated within the classroom and developing individual genre awareness.

A wealth of L2 writing research has been dedicated to how to promote EFL/ESL students' genre awareness (Badger & White, 2000; Paltridge, 2001; Yan, 2005; Cheng, 2007; Johns, 2008; Millar, 2011). Cheng (2007) adopted a "discovery-based approach" to develop L2 graduate students' ability of recontextualisation (p. 290), whilst Badger & White (2000) and Yan (2005) promote a process genre approach to teaching writing. Paltridge (2001) & Millar (2011) offered strategically devised genre and context awareness activities to foster EFL students' genre awareness, whereas Johns (2008) promotes "interdisciplinary learning communities" or "disciplinary grouping of literacy responses into 'macro-genres'" to facilitate different groups of L2 students at different

levels (p. 246 & 248). The proliferation of teaching approaches foregrounds the significance of acquiring the knowledge of language and context, assisting L2 students at different levels to map the links between the language, the reader and the communicative purpose in a social context. For example, Cheng's (2007) discovery-based approach is beneficial for developing L2 graduate students' ability for *"writerly"* reading of genre and *"readerly"* writing of genre" (p. 304), whereas Millar (2011) suggested a stage-oriented activity to promote EFL students' genre awareness in a general EFL class, introducing them the concepts of text type, audience and purpose step by step. In Taiwanese universities, the curriculum for freshmen in universities is always a blend of reading and writing, so that the promotion of novice EFL students' genre awareness may seem an impracticable plan for L2 teachers who have to teach skills for reading and writing in the same time. Nonetheless, as Johns (2008) advised, they can encourage L2 students to ask "WHAT DOES A GOOD RESPONSE TO YOUR ESSAY QUESTIONS LOOK LIKE?" (P. 247). In doing so, L2 students may become aware of the similarities and differences of rhetorical expectations of written essays across teachers and classes, and develop more autonomy.

However, the promotion of novice EFL students' genre awareness at tertiary education in Taiwan can pose enormous challenges for L2 writing teachers and students alike. For example, L2 writing teachers who have limited understanding of genre-based teaching approaches are likely to be unaware of the pitfalls, implementing them as "rigidity of formula-type teaching" (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 311). Their difficulty in effectively integrating genre-based frameworks into their current L2 teaching approaches can be associated with "departmental demands" and "institutional constraints" (Hyland, 2002a, p. 392), including time constraints (Firkins et al., 2007). For L2 students, there may be conflict with their previous learning experience and personal interest for learning. As evidenced in Liu's (2008) study, EFL students in tertiary education experience greater levels of failure in learning academic writing, which conflicts with their prior writing experience in senior high schools where "opinion-writing practice" is predominantly practiced (Kobayashi, 2005, p. 43). Likewise, Jenny's personal experience in Excerpt 25 (See Section 5.4.6) further illustrates the need to manage the conflict of writing instructional experiences across classes and institutions. Furthermore, many writing courses at universities in Taiwan are

undertaken only to meet formal credit requirements, demotivating EFL students' learning interest. Unquestionably, it is a long-term goal to put a genre-based conceptual framework into practice for novice EFL students, but what needs to be urgently clarified is the idea for avoiding the divorce of language from contexts (Hyland, 2002). Without being situated in an appropriate context, the use of linguistic conventions is meaningless, after all.

In brief, the preceding discussion highlights the importance of the influence of small cultures on novice L2 writers' genre-rhetoric construction. It is suggested that the development of novice EFL students' genre awareness is important, not only helping them view L2 writing as socially constituted, but also equipping them to notice the implicit rhetorical expectations of discipline-specific writing when traversing academic discipline-specific domains. In addition, it is also beneficial for them to cope with genre writing in the real world, permitting them to transform the learned rhetorical knowledge of genre writing and transfer it appropriately to different social contexts.

Chapter 7   Conclusion

7.1   Introduction

The study set out to investigate Taiwanese EFL students' construction of genre-rhetoric conventions in intercultural genre writing. The research interest was rooted in Liu's (2008) findings that Taiwanese EFL students entering universities were found to have difficulties for adapting themselves to writing conventions in academic writing due to the fact that

> "In high school English writing, the topics focused on personal experiences and feelings, again promoting the expression of the self. In contrast, in academic English writing, the student was expected to speak about subject matter (not the self most of the time) in a somber, objective tone and to substantiate his or her arguments with clear logical reasoning and evidence" (p. 93).

Liu's study reveals that EFL students have suffered pain from not only the negative influence of previous writing experience, but also insensitiveness to rhetorical expectations of academic discipline-specific writing. In other words, the students presumed a high level of similarities relating to rhetorical conventions of genre writing across academic disciplines, thus encountering setbacks from adapting themselves to new social contexts where their attempt to follow the template from previous writing experience was not appreciated and devalued. In order to offer significant insights into EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural genre writing in different social contexts, the study therefore investigated two groups of Taiwanese EFL students' writing, including one group for argumentative writing with formal L2 writing instruction in the classroom, and the other dealing with a letter of job application outside the classroom, a particular writing genre that had not been taught in L1 or L2.

Two main research questions, each consisting of three sub-questions, were formulated, paying particular attention to the construction of generic moves, rhetorical conventions and influence of writing instructional experiences in L1 and L2. A mixed method approach, including textual analysis, questionnaire and interviews, was adopted for co-constructing a holistic view of how Taiwanese EFL students' genre-rhetoric constructions are shaped by a variety of influences from large and small cultures.

In following sections the Conclusion also presents the discussion of main issues based on the empirical findings, implications for pedagogical practice, limitations of the study and recommendation for further research.

7.2   Empirical Findings

The main empirical results are presented in Chapter 4 Data Analysis: Taiwanese EFL Students' Letters of Job Application in Chinese and English, and Chapter 5 Data Analysis: Taiwanese EFL Students' Chinese and English Argumentative Writing. Detailed discussion is available in Chapter 6: Promotion of Novice EFL Students' Ability of Handling Conflict of Rhetorical Expectations between Previous and New Writing Instructional Experiences and their Genre Awareness. This section aims at synthesizing discussions based on the overall empirical findings to answer the two main research questions in the study.

*1. **How did Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction vary when composing a letter of job application in Chinese and English?***

The examination of construction of generic moves and politeness strategies in Taiwanese EFL students' letters of job application revealed more similarities than differences in Chinese and English. EFL students paid much attention to lexical and syntactical correctness resulting from the impact of L2 writing instruction (Kubota, 1998). In addition, they frequently used L1 to compensate for insufficient L2 language proficiency. The writing strategy of falling back on L1 as a linguistic resource in L2 writing is a typical characteristic of low L2 proficient writers. As noted by Woodall (2002), a remarkable difference between low and high fluent L2 writers in relation to language switching is that the former mainly use it for a low-level operation, in compensation for an insufficient stock of lexical items, whereas the latter switch languages in more complicated ways, reflecting an integration of low-level and high-level operations. Consequently, novice EFL students writing a letter of job application in Chinese and English primarily focused on the surface level of discourse patterns and

used translation as a major strategy, reflecting their limited L2 language proficiency and the influence of L2 writing instructional experiences.

Regardless of L2 proficiency and L2 instructional experiences, it is worth noting that EFL students writing in an unfamiliar or untaught genre attempted to compensate for their limited knowledge of the genre via actively searching for useful contextual resources, for example, seeking advice from people who have experience of composing the genre or discussing with peers for sharing and generating ideas. In spite of the fact that the genre-rhetoric construction in their intercultural genre writing differed noticeably from that used by experienced members of the discourse community, writers actively engaged in social processes of multidimensional negotiation, using small culture resources. This was different from a routinized writing process, meeting teachers' requirements in the classroom (Tardy, 2006) and may allow them to view L2 writing from different perspectives. However, the influence of local large culture was also apparent in the frequent use of positive face politeness in both L1 and L2, which may be encouraged by the fact that translation is a frequent writing strategy for learning new genres (Tardy, 2006).

The answers to research question 1 reveal that EFL students, when encountering unfamiliar or untaught genres, could benefit by learning how to interact with various contextual resources actively and expand the scope of their genre knowledge. However, this encounter could make only a limited contribution to raising their awareness of the socio-rhetorical expectations of the genre writing expected by different large cultures. The findings contrast with Tardy's (2006) perspective that writing in practice-based settings is beneficial for writers' socio-rhetorical knowledge. It may be due to the fact that EFL students regarded the assigned writing task as homework, an informal writing practice after class rather than an authentic one in the real world.

2. To what extent did Taiwanese novice EFL students construct genre-rhetoric conventions in argumentative writing in Chinese and English after gaining three months of English writing instruction?

The explicit L2 writing instruction experienced by EFL students in this study placed particular emphasis on the location of topic sentences and the use of discourse markers to create a "logical" way of reasoning. Due to their limited L2 language proficiency, students were trained to produce one-paragraph L2 argumentative writing where they practised the deductive style preferred in Western culture, which apparently contrasts to their previous writing experience influenced by Eastern large culture. Regardless of the fact that their L2 teachers did not pay attention to cultural collisions (Steinman, 2003), their L2 writing instructional experiences not only enhanced their sensitiveness to some rhetorical preference of argumentative writing in L1 and L2, but also brought about bidirectional cultural influence, so that their L1 writing showed elements of deductive style, and the reverse. This finding that the construction of rhetorical conventions was less predictably dependent on L1 cultural background runs against the finding of Wu & Rubin's (2000) study,   and may be associated with the small culture factors of topic interest and topic familiarity (Chu et al., 2002). As a result, it may be concluded that Taiwanese EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in argumentative writing in L1 and L2 in the classroom is a multifaceted activity, involving a complicated interplay between previous and current writing instructional experiences, including introduction to L2 rhetorical large culture norms, the influence of L1 cultural background, and their interest in, and familiarity with, the writing topics assigned.

7.3   Pedagogical Implications for L2 Writing Instructors and Students in Tertiary Education in Taiwan

The empirical findings relating to research questions 1 and 2 have significant implications for L2 teachers and students in Taiwanese university pedagogical contexts. First, the influence of big cultures should be highlighted in L2 writing instruction. The findings suggest that the two groups of students were unaware of the influence of their L1 cultural background, which was found to be an important factor for genre-rhetoric construction in L2 writing. For example, as influenced by their L1 sociocultural values,

students frequently used positive politeness strategies in their English letters of job application, and a high level of collectivism appeared in students' English argumentative writing. As noted by Al-Ali (2006), L2 writing instruction needs to enhance bilingual students' awareness of the influence of their L1 socio-cultural values. However, as shown in this study, L2 writing instruction emphasised the teaching of L2 genre-rhetoric conventions and the development of students' L2 language proficiency, but did not provide students with opportunities to discuss the genre-rhetoric conventions preferred by L1 and L2. A comparative view of the similarities and differences of genre-rhetoric conventions in L1 and L2 therefore is recommended to be incorporated into L2 writing instruction, which may not only encourages L2 students to evaluate their L1 and L2 writing instructional experiences, but also develop their awareness of the preferred genre-rhetoric conventions of genres in L1 and L2.

Secondly, the investigation of the influence of small cultures on novice L2 students' genre-rhetoric construction of genres in L1 and L2 also suggests that close attention be paid to students' genre awareness and rhetorical flexibility (Johns, 2008). Although genre traditions can be differentiated from each other based on their focal points, intellectual basis and pedagogical practice (Hyland, 2004), they share the similarity that writing is a socially constituted activity, which emphasises the influence of social contexts construed as small cultures on the written discourse. In academic contexts, Johns (2008) suggests that the repeated practice of disciplinary macro-genres writing, such as problem-solving in project reports and proposals in Engineering, can be beneficial for raising students' awareness of the influence of small cultures, including awareness that teachers' expectations of macro-genres writing can vary in detail according to disciplines, classrooms and other influencing factors. The development of novice L2 students' genre awareness and rhetorical flexibility, including awareness of small culture factors, is expected to help them mitigate the potential negative impact resulting from their previous writing experience on any current writing experience.

Finally, novice EFL students should be encouraged to evaluate their writing instructional experiences across social contexts due to the fact that "it is the students

who are empowered to make rhetorical decisions according to what they believe to be best for their writing" (Kobayashi, 2005, p. 66). Students' writing instructional experiences are not static, but consistently changing and evolving. For example, Jenny talked about the difference of her writing instructional experiences across institutions, in terms of teachers' expectations (See Excerpt 25 in Section 5.4.6). This experience had an impact on Jenny's genre awareness, which may facilitate her learning of L2 writing in different institutional contexts. Therefore, it is suggested that novice EFL students be taught to evaluate writing instructional experiences in different learning contexts, to prepare them better to meet genre-rhetoric expectations of genre writing across classes, disciplines and workplaces. Parks (2001), for example, noticed students' failure of efficiently applying their knowledge of nursing care plans acquired in classroom-based instruction to their workplace, and argued this was due to the lack of rhetorical and social awareness of such genre writing. L2 writing instruction in Japan has encountered a dilemma between the explicit teaching of form or the understanding of writing as socially constituted (Kobayashi, 2005). This is also a hindrance in Taiwan pedagogical context, but it is argued that the development of novice EFL students' ability of self-evaluation may be the solution, not only increasing their formal knowledge of genre writing, but also shaping their awareness of transferability.

7.4   Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

In spite of the tentative suggestions offered by the present study, it has the following limitations. First, the two groups of Taiwanese EFL students involved in the present study are novice L2 writers, primarily using L1 as a resource to meet the concerns of content and language in L2 writing. The study therefore does not offer comparative insights into how skilled Taiwanese EFL students utilise L1 writing instructional experiences in L2 writing, and how they develop genre awareness for discipline-specific writing when being initiated into academic discourse communities. Skilled or fluent L2 writers are claimed to use L1 for a diversity of reasons, such as planning, revising and editing (Woodall, 2002) or dealing with overloaded cognitive stress (Centeno-Cortés & Jiménez Jiménez, 2004). In addition to the effectiveness of L1 use in L2 writing, it is worth studying the strategies adopted by experienced EFL students to develop their genre awareness, and to overcome the limitations of L2 writing instruction which is

predominantly characterised with a product approach in the Taiwanese pedagogical context. The investigation of experienced EFL students' strategies for the effectiveness of L1 use in L2 writing and the development of genre awareness can be beneficial in developing guidance for novice EFL students to succeed in L2 writing.

Secondly, it is necessary to investigate L2 writing instructors' attitudes and reaction to the idea of developing novice EFL students' genre awareness in general English writing courses. The benefit of developing students' genre awareness may offer a remedy for the conflict of rhetorical expectations between previous and current writing instructional experiences. However, the findings of the present study concur with previous studies (e.g., Kubota, 1998; Kobayashi, 2005; Hirose, 2006) that L2 writing instruction in EFL teaching and learning contexts concentrates on vocabulary and grammar exercises. If L2 writing instructors prefer teaching fixed writing formats only in the general English writing courses, it can be anticipated that novice EFL students will fall on their faces when attempting to use the learned template to deal with disciplinary writing. It is therefore worth study how L2 writing instructors conceptualise L2 writing, especially those who are in charge of teaching general English writing. The understanding of their opinions is a critical clue to making novice EFL students' prepared for dealing with multiple writing tasks in academic discipline-specific faculties later. As a result, the exploration of L2 writing instructors' concepts of the teaching of L2 writing is an important issue, which has not been explored in the present study yet.

Thirdly, although the present study advocates genre-based teaching approaches for novice EFL students, the gap between theoretical framework and pedagogical practice has not been studied here. As suggested by Kay & Dudley-Evans (1998), genre-based teaching brings the danger of being prescriptive, making L2 students incapable of responding appropriately to the social contexts where texts are used. Therefore, it is also important to carefully examine how L2 writing instructors make use of genre-based teaching approaches, how EFL students respond to them and how the knowledge gap between the theoretical framework and pedagogical practice can be bridged in tertiary

education in Taiwan. The answers to these questions are critical for the improvement of the quality of L2 writing teaching and learning at different levels in universities.

Finally, the methodological design of the present study has limitations, in particular concerning the decisions on the genres which were studied, and the subjectivity of the data. The present study aimed at investigating the influencing factors on Taiwanese novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction of particular genres in Chinese and English through the use of multiple methods. The overall findings suggest that Taiwanese novice EFL students, in addition to the influence of their Chinese socio-cultural views, were affected by small culture factors, such as writing instructional experiences, language proficiency, the context and the task. Meanwhile, they approached taught and untaught genres quite differently in this study. For example, when working on the genre taught in the classroom, EFL students can be empowered by L2 writing instruction, following the expected rhetorical sequences in L2 writing, which may shape their knowledge of the same genre in L1 and the reverse. When encountering the untaught genre, they strategically made use of a range of sources in the local context to compensate for their lack of genre knowledge, with resulting slight variations.

The decision to focus on two different genres has made it possible to provide an outline picture of the influences of large cultures and small cultures on novice EFL students' genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural genre writing. At the same time, this meant a potential limitation on a solid comparative view of the same genre writing. The comparison of similarities and differences of the same genre written by two groups of EFL students could have led to greater in-depth discussion of themes within particular genre writing. For example, when working on the untaught genre, a letter of job application, two groups of EFL students might have shown greater variation in their approach to the genre-rhetoric construction, and allowed fuller investigation of the process of how EFL students lay out their implicit knowledge of a letter of job application in the written discourse.

Another potential limitation in relation to methodological design relates to the subjectivity of the data analysed and interpreted. The researcher, while working individually on data collection, analyses and interpretations, paid attention to the fact that the process of analysing and interpreting the whole data was likely to be influenced by personal bias. However, the triangulation of the results from the use of multiple methods in this study remedies the influence of personal bias on the data and allows for a more holistic view of the themes which emerged from different sources of data.

According to the discussion of the results and limitations, the present study is intended to offer direct suggestions for future research in L2 writing. First of all, it is worth studying how L2 writing pedagogical practice can help EFL students negotiate the conflict of rhetorical expectations of genre writing not only associated with large cultures (Western and Chinese), but also across teachers, classes, disciplines and institutions. The f influence of small cultures, in particular the writers and the contexts, must be a focal point in future research. For example, Liu (2008) made use of a sequenced writing approach to make EFL students aware that a research paper involves multidimensional aspects of the self, content, community and form and is different from their high-school essays. Cheng (2007) adopted a discovery-based approach to heighten his graduate students' genre awareness. Close attention has been paid to the relationship between writers and contexts because "it is the students who are empowered to make rhetorical decisions according to what they believe to be best for their writing" (Kobayahi, 2005, p. 66).

Secondly, it seems that that the effectiveness of L1 use in L2 writing can be associated with L2 writers' language proficiency and writing experience. If unskilled L2 writers tend to use L1 negatively in L2 writing, primarily associating it with lexical and grammatical correctness, what do skilled L2 writes do with L1 resources and in what ways do their strategies for L1 use differentiate from those adopted by unskilled? If any differences between the two groups are identified, do these include any positive correlation between the effectiveness of L1 use and L2 writers' L2 language proficiency and writing experience? Such questions can be beneficial for rethinking how novice L2

writers can be empowered by utilising L1, the invaluable resource that is unique to bilingual and multilingual writers.

Finally, as genre-based approaches have strong implications for pedagogy (e.g., Hyland, 2004), in what ways can they improve L2 writing teaching and learning in tertiary education in Taiwan? This is a complicated question to be answered, but L2 writing instructors' perspectives can be a critical factor due to their dominant role in the EFL classroom. Consequently, it is important to explore L2 writing instructors' perceptions of genre-based approaches in the EFL classroom as well as L2 students' feedback on these.

To conclude, the investigation of genre-rhetoric construction in L1 and L2 genre writing has showed that the influence of large cultures is not the sole influencing factor for the construction of written discourse as the influences of small cultures are involved as well, such as students' writing instructional experiences, L2 language proficiency, the influence of individual writers' genre knowledge, and the context of situation. Of importance is EFL students' struggle for fulfilling the rhetorical expectations of genre writing when traversing to different discipline-specific contexts. The study thus calls for the need of developing novice EFL students' genre awareness and rhetorical flexibility. It is difficult to validate with confidence the empirical findings in the present study, based on a small number of participants, in two different institutions.. It is therefore strongly recommended for future research to include larger number of participants at different levels of L2 writing proficiency in different social contexts The more we, as L2 writing researchers and instructors, know about the influence of big cultures and small cultures in L2 writing, the more we could do to assist L2 students to face a variety of genre writing when being initiated into academic disciplinary contexts.

Appendices

Appendix I: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

**Project Title: An Investigation of Influence of Taiwanese novice EFL Students'
Writing Instructional experiences on the Construction of Intercultural Genre
Writing.**

Researcher: Chia-Hsiung Chuang

Ethics number:

RGO Ref: 8340

**Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research.
If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.**

What is the research about?

I am a research student at the University of Southampton, UK. Based on the integrated
theoretical framework of genre theory and contrastive rhetoric research, the present
research aims at exploring how Taiwanese novice EFL students' writing instructional
experiences influences the genre-rhetoric construction in intercultural genre writing.

Method

I will include textual analysis, questionnaire and interview as the major methods for
data collection.

Participants

My potential participants are Taiwanese university-level students, including one group
of freshmen in a National Kaohsiung University and the other of sophomores in a
Private Kaohsiung University.

Procedure

Both groups will compose specific genre writing in Chinese and English. Freshmen will
deal with the letter of job application, whilst sophomores will work on argumentative
writing. In addition, they will fill in the questionnaire, which aims at exploring their
writing instructional experiences in Chinese and English. After the completion of genre

writing and questionnaire, five from each group will be interviewed for talking about how they deal with the assigned writing tasks.

Why have I been chosen?

You are eligible to take part in this research project because your academic background (the university level and English major) helps you understand and respond appropriately to my research questions.

What will happen to me if I take part?

You will need to write short essays in both Chinese and English, to fill in a questionnaire and to be interviewed for less than 1 hour.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

The potential significance is to understand the similarities and differences of genre-rhetoric conventions in English and Chinese writing. It is beneficial for not only gaining a better understanding of different writing conventions between Chinese and English, but also raising awareness that writing is not merely a practice of grammar and syntactic structures, but a socially constructed activity for achieving particular purposes.

Are there any risks involved?

There are no risks in your involvement.

Will my participation be confidential?

I am as a researcher compliant with the Data Protection Act/ University policy. A pseudonym will be used at any time to protect your information and identity. The records of questionnaires, interviews and textual analysis will be kept on a password protected computer and only used by the researcher for the research purpose.

What happens if I change my mind?

You have the right to withdraw freely from my research project at any time.

What happens if something goes wrong?

Contact the chair of the Ethics Committee, the School of Humanities, University of Southampton, Prof Ros Mitchell (email R.F.Mitchell@soton.ac.uk).

Where can I get more information?

If you want to get more information about this research project, please contact me (email cc8g08@soton.ac.uk) or email my supervisor, Dr Alasdair Archibald aa3@soton.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet (Chinese)

研究題目: 探討台灣大學生的寫作教學經驗如何影響他們在中英文寫作的表現。

研究者: 莊家雄

請仔細閱讀下列有關此研究資料，然後決定是否參與此研究。如果你想參加此研究，請於同意表上簽名。

此研究是關於：

我目前就讀於英國 University of Southampton 的博士研究生。此研究主要是基於 genre theory 和 contrastive rhetoric 為理論基礎，來探討台灣的大學生的寫作教學經驗如何影響他們的中英文寫作。

研究方法：

此研究將以分析學生的中英文寫作，學生問卷以及學生訪談為主要資料來源。

研究對象

主要的研究對象分別為國立高雄大學的大一新生以及私立高雄大學的大二新生。

程序

二組大學生將會著手不同種類的中英寫作。大一生寫的是求職信，而大二生寫的是議論文。除了寫作之外，他們還要填一份有關於寫作教學經驗的問卷調查。之後，每組各 5 位自願者參與最後的訪談，主要是針對他們對於中英文寫作的看法與感想。

為什麼我是參與者?

因為你的學術背景，包括學籍和英文主修，都能讓你理解以及適當的回答研究者所要探討的議題。

在參與過程中有任何危險嗎？

沒有。

參與研究有什麼好處？

實質的好處可以幫助參與者跳脫傳統對寫作的認知，進而了解寫作不只是文字的表達，而是透過文字的結合與讀者進一步的互動。因而，能將學習英文寫作的注意力從文字結構轉移到其他相關的影響因素。

我的參與是保密的嗎?

此研究遵守資料保護條款／學校政策。在任何時間，此研究使用匿名的方式來保護參與者的資料與身份。所有的相關資料會被保存在有密碼的電腦中而且只供此研究使用。

我可以改變我的心意嗎？

你有隨時隨地的表達退出參與此研究的權力。

如果發生任何問題?

請連絡 the chair of the Ethics Committee, the School of Humanities, University of Southampton, Prof Ros Mitchell (email R.F.Mitchell@soton.ac.uk).

如何可以取得更多有關此研究的資料?

請連絡我 (email cc8g08@soton.ac.uk) 或者連絡我的指導教授， Dr Alasdair Archibald aa3@soton.ac.uk

Appendix II: Consent Form

Consent Form

Project Title: An Investigation of Taiwanese Novice EFL Writers' Experiences of the Construction of Intercultural Genre Writing.

Researcher name: Chia-Hsiung Chuang

Study reference:

Ethics reference: 8340

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet

and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to

be used for the purpose of this study.

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw

at any time without my legal rights being affected .

Name of participant (print name)……………………………………………………

Signature of participant…………………………………………………………..

Name of Researcher (print name) …………………………………………………

Signature of Researcher…………………………………………………………..

Date…………………………………………………………………………

Appendix III : Students Questionnaire

(English Version)

I.   Personal Information

1.   Age:_____

2.   Gender: Male / Female

3.   School Year: 1st /2nd /3rd/4th

4.   Your major in the university: _____

II.   English Language Level:

1.   How many years have you received English language education:_____

2.   How many years have you been studying in Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages/National Kaohsiung University of Applied Sciences: _____

3.   Rate your current English language level: Beginner / Intermediate / Advanced

4.   Do you have any valid English certificate: Yes / No

   If YES, what is it? _____

III. Experience with English Writing Instruction

1.   Rate your current **Writing level in English** on a scale of one to ten (one=minimal, ten=excellent) :_____

2.   How many years have you received formal writing instruction in English? (Formal writing instruction in English **does not** mean the writing activities that are done to practice new grammar and vocabulary in regular English language course) _____

3.   Tick off (√) the type(s) of writing you wrote as part of your writing instruction in English from the following list.

   _____a) story
   _____b) essay
   _____c) argumentative writing
   _____d) reports
   _____e) poems
   _____f) journals
   _____g) research papers
   _____h) short answers in examinations
   _____i) summaries

_____j) others (specify:_____)

4. Which one from the above list was the most common and which one was the least common? (fill in the blank with <u>the letter</u> of the choices)

   The most common_____

   The least common_____

5. Tick off (√) the type(s) of teaching methods you experienced.

   _____a) The teacher assigned writing topics and asked us to write.
   _____b) The teacher assigned writing topics with pre-writing discussion.
   _____c) The teacher corrected my errors on my essay.
   _____d) The teacher asked students to revise the corrected essays by themselves.
   _____e) Student groups discussed and edited each other's essays.

6. Which teaching method from the above list was the most common and which one was the least common? (fill in the blank with <u>the letter</u> of the choices)

   The most common_____

   The least common_____

7. During your educational experience, what features of writing did your English language writing teachers generally emphasize? (Tick off (√) the choices that apply)

   _____a) grammatical correctness
   _____b) mechanics and spelling
   _____ c) clarity of main idea
   _____d) topic sentence in each paragraph
   _____e) thesis statement
   _____f) using beautiful language
   _____g) expressing your true feelings honestly
   _____h) persuasiveness
   _____i) organization of ideas
   _____j) length of paper
   _____k) neatness and beautiful handwriting
   _____l) originality and imagination
   _____m) quoting experts, important names and using other sources
   _____n) truth of your ideas
   _____o) using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas
   _____p) content
   _____q) coherence at paragraph level

_____r) title

_____s) other (specify_____)

8. Which one from the above list was emphasized the most and which one was emphasized the least? (fill in the blank with <u>the letter</u> of the choices)

Emphasized the most_____

Emphasized the least_____

9. Can you please briefly describe the "Paragraph Organisation" in English writing?

_____

_____

_____

10. Did you stop writing to translate your ideas into English? (Circle one)
    Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

11. Did you stop writing because of grammatical accuracy? (Circle one)
    Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

12. Did you stop writing because you don't know the words in English? (Circle one)
    Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

13. Did you receive feedback on your essays from your English teacher? (Circle one)
    Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

14. How important is teacher's feedback on your essay for you? (Circle one)
    Very important   Important   Not important at all

15. What are your problems in English Writing? (Please tick off (√) the choices that apply)

_____a) A large enough vocabulary
_____b) An adequate variety of sentence patterns
_____c) Use of connectors and transitional phrases
_____d) Grammatical accuracy
_____e) Content: having sufficient ideas to write about
_____f) Organization in composition
_____g) Punctuation

IV. Experience with Chinese Writing Instruction

1. Rate your current **Writing level in Chinese** on a scale of one to ten (one=minimal, ten=excellent) :_____

2. How many years have you received formal writing instruction in Chinese? (Formal writing instruction in Chinese **does not** mean the writing activities that are done to practice new grammar and vocabulary in regular Chinese courses) _____

3. Tick off (√) the type(s) of writing you wrote as part of your writing instruction in Chinese from the following list.

_____a) story
_____b) essay
_____c) argumentative writing
_____d) reports
_____e) poems
_____f) journals
_____g) research papers
_____h) short answers in examinations
_____i) summaries
_____j) others (specify:_____)

4. Which types of writing from the above list were the most and the least common? (fill in the blank with the letter of the choices)

The most common_____

The least common_____

5. Tick off (√) the type(s) of teaching methods you experienced.

_____a) The teacher assigned writing topics and asked us to write.
_____b) The teacher assigned writing topics with pre-writing discussion.
_____c) The teacher corrected my errors on my essay.
_____d) The teacher asked students to revise the corrected essays by themselves.
_____e) Student groups discussed and edited each other's essays.

6. Which teaching methods from the above list was the most common and which one was the least common? (fill in the blank with the letter of the choices)

The most common_____

The least common_____

7. During your educational experience, what features of writing did your Chinese language writing teachers generally emphasize? (Tick off (√) the choices that apply)

_____a) grammatical correctness
_____b) mechanics and spelling
_____c) clarity of main idea
_____d) topic sentence in each paragraph
_____e) thesis statement
_____f) using beautiful language
_____g) expressing your true feelings honestly
_____h) persuasiveness
_____i) organization of ideas
_____j) length of paper
_____k) neatness and beautiful handwriting
_____l) originality and imagination
_____m) Chinese proverbs, maxims or slangs
_____n) truth of your ideas
_____o) using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas
_____p) content
_____q) coherence at paragraph level
_____r) title
_____s) other (specify_____)

8. Which one from the above list was emphasized the most and which one was emphasized the least? (fill in the blank with <u>the letter</u> of the choices)

Emphasized the most _____

Emphasized the least_____

9. Can you please briefly describe the "Paragraph Organization" in Chinese writing?

_____

_____

_____

10. Did you stop writing because of grammatical accuracy? (Circle one)

Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

11. Did you stop writing because you don't know the words in Chinese? (Circle one)

Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

12. Did you receive feedback on your essays from your Chinese teacher? (Circle one)

Always   Usually   Sometimes   Never

13. How important is teacher's feedback on your essay for you? (Circle one)

Very important   Important   Not important at all

14. What are your problems in Chinese writing? (Please tick off (√) the choices that apply)

_____a) A large enough vocabulary
_____b) An adequate variety of sentence patterns
_____c) sets of connectors and transitional phrases
_____d) Grammatical accuracy
_____e) Content: having sufficient ideas to write about
_____f) Organization in composition
_____g) Punctuation

Thank you so much for your participation in the questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to serve the purpose of the present study only and the information is kept confidential. If you are interested in sharing your opinions about your own experience of English and Chinese writing and have willingness to be interviewed, please leave your name and e-mail address for further contact or you can contact me through my e-mail address provided below.

Your name:_____

Your e-mail address:_____

My e-mail address: cc8g08@soton.ac.uk OR lake_js@hotmail.com

學生問卷調查 (Chinese Version)

I. 個人基本資料

1. 年紀:_____

2. 姓別: 男性 / 女性

3. 年級: 1 年級/ 2 年級/ 3 年級/ 4 年級

4. 主修: _____

II. 英語程度:

1. 你學習英語幾年了? :_____

2. 你在文藻外語學院/高雄應用科技大學學習英語幾年了?: _____

3. 你目前的英語程度: 初學者/ 中級/ 高級/ 優級

4. 你是否擁有英語能力證照: 是 / 否

如果是，英語能力證照的種類和級別(分數): _____

III. 英語寫作經驗

1. 若是以總分:1 分到 10 分來區分,你目前的英語寫作能力是幾分?

   (1 分=初學, 10 分=優級) :_____

2. 你學習英語寫作多少年? (英語寫作的定義不包含一般的文法或單字課程)
   _____

3. 下列選項為常見的寫作種類。根據你個人的英語寫作經驗，勾選 你曾經學習過的寫作種類 (可複選) 。

   _____a) 故事寫作 (story)
   _____b) essay 寫作
   _____c) 議論文寫作 (argumentative writing)
   _____d) 報告(reports)
   _____e) 詩詞寫作 (poems)
   _____f) 期刊寫作 (journals)

_____g) 研究報告 (research papers)

_____h) 考試簡答 (short answers in examinations)

_____i) 摘要寫作 (summary)

_____j) 其他 (請說明_____)

4. 上述寫作文章種類中，那一項是你在學校最常練習的? 那一項是你最不常練習的? (以選項前的英文字母填寫即可)

最常練習:_____

最不常練習:_____

5. 從下列的教學方式中，勾選你曾經在學校接觸過的 (可複選).

_____a) 教師指定寫作題目並且要求同學按指定題目寫作。

_____b) 教師指定寫作題目並且透過討論的方法來幫助同學寫作。

_____c) 教師訂定文章上的錯誤。

_____d) 教師要求學生自己修改已訂正過的文章。

_____e) 學生分組討論並且幫同學訂定文章。

6. 上述的教學方式中，那一項是你在學校最常接觸的? 那一項是你最不常接觸的?(以選項前的英文字母填寫即可)

最常接觸_____

最不常接觸_____

7. 下列為英文寫作的注意事項。根據你個人的學習經驗，那些注意事項是寫作教師在課堂上強調的項目? (請勾選，可複選)

_____a) 英語文法正確性

_____b) 拼字正確性

_____c) 主要想法(main ideas)是否表達清楚

_____d) 段落的主題句 (topic sentence)

_____e) 主旨句 (thesis statement)

_____f) 優美的文詞

_____g) 個人情感表達的真實性

_____h) 說服力

_____i) 個人想法的安排 (ideas organization)

_____j) 字數是有否有達到指定的範圍

_____k) 字跡工整與整齊

_____l) 寫作的想像力

_____m) 引用名言或者專家說過的話

_____n) 抄襲他人的想法

_____o) 例子的引用 (good examples)

_____p) 內容

_____q) 段落與段落的連貫性

_____r) 標題

_____s) 其他 (請說明_____)

8. 上述的英文寫作注意事項中，那一項是教師最常強調的? 那一項是教師很少要求的? (以選項前的英文字母填寫即可)

    最常強調_____

    最少要求_____

9. 請你簡述英文寫作中，段落是如何安排的?

_____

_____

_____

10. 你是否為了將想法翻譯成適當的中文而停止寫作? (請圈選)
    總是　　　通常　　　　有時候　　　　從不

11. 你是否為了英語文法的正確性而停止寫作? (請圈選)
    總是　　　通常　　　　有時候　　　　從不

12. 你是否為了想不到適合的英語單字而停止寫作? (請圈選)

　　總是　　　通常　　　　有時候　　　從不

13. 英語寫作教師是否幫你訂正文章而且給予相關的建議? (請圈選)

　　總是　　　通常　　　　有時候　　　從不

14. 教師的建議(teacher feedback)對你而言是否重要? (請圈選)

　　非常重要　　　重要　　　　一點都不重

15. 從下列的選項中勾選你個人的英語寫作困難?

　　_____a) 英語單字量不足
　　_____b) 英語句型的掌控
　　_____c) 連接詞的使用
　　_____d) 英語文法的正確性
　　_____e) 內容:缺少足夠的想法
　　_____f) 段落的安排
　　_____g) 標點符號

IV. 中文寫作經驗

1. 若是以總分:1 分到 10 分來區分，你目前個人的中文寫作能力是幾分? (1 分=初學, 10 分=優級) :_____

2. 你學習中文寫作多少年? (中文寫作的定義不包含一般的字語練習課程，例如國字的筆劃，造句等等)_____

3. 下列選項為常見的寫作種類。根據你個人的中文寫作經驗，勾選你曾經學習過的寫作種類 (可複選)。

　　_____a) 故事寫作 (story)
　　_____b) essay 寫作
　　_____c) 議論文寫作 (argumentative writing)
　　_____d) 報告(reports)
　　_____e) 詩詞寫作 (poems)
　　_____f) 期刊寫作 (journals)
　　_____g) 研究報告 (research papers)

_____h) 考試簡答 (short answers in examinations)
_____i) 摘要寫作 (summary)
_____j) 其他 (請說明_____)

4. 上述寫作文章種類中，那一項是你在學校最常練習的? 那一項是你最不常練習的? (以選項前的英文字母填寫即可)

最常練習:_____

最不常練習:_____

5. 從下列的教學方式中，勾選你曾經在學校接觸過的 (可複選)

_____a) 教師指定寫作題目並且要求同學按指定題目寫作。
_____b) 教師指定寫作題目並且透過討論的方法來幫助同學寫作。
_____c) 教師訂定文章上的錯誤。
_____d) 教師要求學生自己修改已訂正過的文章。
_____e) 學生分組討論並且幫同學訂定文章。

6. 從上述的教學方式中，那一項是你在學校最常接觸的? 那一項是你最不常接觸的?(以選項前的英文字母填寫即可)

最常接觸_____

最不常接觸_____

7. 下列為中文寫作的注意事項。根據你個人的學習經驗，那些注意事項是教師在課堂上強調的項目? (請勾選，可複選)

_____a) 中文文法的正確性
_____b) 字詞的筆劃
_____c) 主要想法(main ideas)是否表達清楚
_____d) 段落的主題句 (topic sentence)
_____e) 主旨句
_____f) 優美的詞句
_____g) 個人情感表達的真實性
_____h) 說服力
_____i) 個人想法的安排 (ideas organization)
_____j) 文章的長度要否有達到要求
_____k) 字跡工整與整齊
_____l) 寫作的想像力

_____m) 成語或名言的使用

_____n) 抄襲他人的想法

_____o) 例子的引用 (good examples)

_____p) 內容

_____q) 段落與段落的連貫性

_____r) 標題

_____s) 其他 (請說明_____)

8. 上述的中文寫作注意事項中，那一項是教師最常強調的? 那一項是教師最少強調的? (以選項前的英文字母填寫即可)

最常強調 _____

最少強調 _____

9. 請你簡述中文寫作中，段落是如何安排的?

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. 你是否為了中文文法而停止寫作? (請圈選)

總是　　　通常　　　　有時侯　　　從不

11. 你是否為了中文字詞的考量而停止寫作? (請圈選)

總是　　　通常　　　　有時侯　　　從不

12. 中文寫作教師是否幫你訂正文章而且給予你相關建議? (請圈選)

總是　　　通常　　　　有時侯　　　從不

13. 教師的建議(teacher feedback)對你而言是否重要? (請圈選)

非常重要　　　　重要　　　　一點都不重要

14. 從下列的選項中勾選你個人的中文寫作困難?

_____a) 中文單字量不足
_____b) 中文句型的掌控
_____c) 連接詞的使用
_____d) 中文文法的正確性
_____e) 內容:缺少足夠的想法
_____f) 段落的安排
_____g) 標點符號

感謝你參與本次的問卷調查。問卷調查是為了學術的研究而且資料內容絕對保密。 如果你對於中文寫作是否受英語寫作經驗影響的研究有興趣，請留下你個人的姓名及電子郵件信箱或者可以寫信到我的個人電子郵件信箱。我會更進一步安排 interview 的時間，主要是分享彼此的認知及看法。

Your name:_____

Your e-mail address:_____

My e-mail address: cc8g08@soton.ac.uk OR lake_js@hotmail.com

Appendix IV: Interviewing Protocol

Guiding Questions for English major students

Background Questions

1. Could you tell me something about yourself, like age, education (prior learning experience and learning experience in National Kaohsiung University/ Private Kaohsiung University?

2. Could you tell me the level of your English proficiency and your knowledge about English proficiency testing systems?

Essential Questions: descriptive, structural and contrast questions

1. Could you describe your "English writing experience?"

   When did you learn to write English essays?

   What are the typical features of an English writing course? For example, the textbooks, activities, and students' assessment.

   What are your writing strategies for English essays, like those for topic, paragraph organisation, generations of ideas, and choices of words, grammatical and sentence structures?

   What do you know about the "rules" for English essays?

   What are the difficulties you have for English writing?

   What are the strategies you employ to deal with the difficulties in English writing?

2. Could you describe your attitudes or feelings about English writing?

   What are the essential features of good English writing?

3. Could you talk about your experience in Chinese writing?

   When did you start learning how to write in Chinese?

   How do you normally write in Chinese?

   What are the difficulties you have in Chinese writing?

   According to your own experience, could you give me some examples of the influence of your English writing experience on your Chinese writing?

Appendix V: Textual Analysis of Job Application Letters: English and Chinese Letters

An English Letter of Job application: Participant 5

Component Moves	The Letter of Job Application in English (Participant 5)
Provide arguments – background information	My name is Sherry. I am 18 years old.
Identify source of information	I just got the information that y our English cram school needs a teaching assistant two days ago.
Apply for the position	I decide to apply for this job.
Provide arguments – background and experience information	I graduated from Foreign Language Departments of Douliou Vocational High School. Now I major in English in Kaohsiung University of Applied Science. I have got some certificates in English such as High-Intermediate Level of GEPT. I have also got 845 on TOEIC. On the other side, I have experience to teach English in a cram school for three months. I really love teaching very much. I would like to make these students be interested in English and be proficient in it.
Stipulating terms and conditions of employment	As for my salary, I expect I can get $ 20,000 per month.
State desire for the consideration	I can start to work next month. If I can get this job smoothly, I promise I will try my best to do the job well.
Provide more information	If you want to know more information about me,
Desire for further contact	please contact me without hesitation. My number is 0912-345-678.
Express politeness at the end of the letter	Thanks for your consideration.

A Chinese Letter of Job application: Participant 10

Component Moves	The Letter of Job Application in Chinese (Participant 10)
Provide arguments – background information	您好，我是吳婉如，畢業的科系是應用外語系。我的英文能力很好，不論是聽，說，讀，寫都行。 Hi, my name is Koala, graduating from the Department of Applied Languages. My English proficiency is quite good, including listening, speaking, reading and writing.
Apply for the position	我想應徵這部門的主管。 I would like to apply for the job as a manager of the Department.
Provide arguments – background information	領導及管理的能力更是不可缺的，並要有良好的溝通技巧和處理事情的能力。在這方面我取得了很多證照，包括企業管理，會計事務，國貿實務等等。在加上之前有在其他公司擔任此職務， I understand that it requires the ability of leadership, management, good communication and dealing with tasks. In this regard, I have had a lot of certificates, including business management, accounting, International business trade and commerce, and so on. Furthermore, I have similar working experience in other companies.
State desire for consideration	我認為我是這個職務的最佳人選，希望您能給我這個機會來證明。 I think I am the best candidate. Hopefully, you can give me an opportunity to prove my words.

(The translation was made by the researcher, not the original English letter written by the writer)

Appendix VI: Textual Analysis of Argumentative Writing: English and Chinese Argumentative Writing

English Argumentative Writing: Participant 19

Component Moves	English Argumentative Writing (Participant 19)
Thesis Stage	
Proposition	Most people help others for many reasons.
Argument Stage	
<u>Discourse Marker</u> Claim & Support Pair	<u>First of all</u>, everyone has a sense of compassionate. For example, if there is a person being anxious that he/she can't figure out the answer, you'll go to help him/her because you imagine if that person is you, you will need someone to help you.
<u>Discourse Marker</u> Claim & Support Pair	<u>Second</u>, when you help others, you also feel happy and confident. As the proverb goes, "It is more blessed to give than to receive." For example, if you help someone, they smile at your friendly, you also feel very pleasure.
<u>Discourse Marker</u> Claim & Support Pair	<u>Finally</u>, you can give other good first impression. For example, if you help an elderly pass the road, the elderly might have a theory of "you are a good teenager."
Conclusion Stage	
<u>Discourse Marker</u> Close	<u>In short</u>, though people have different reasons for helping others, the important of all is to let the world be warmer and warmer.

Chinese Argumentative Writing: Participant 19

Component Moves	Chinese Argumentative Writing (Participant 43)
Thesis Stage	
Information	現在是地球村的時代，時常會有機會與外國人接觸。 It's an era of global village and it is common to communicate with foreigners.
Proposition	這時侯，學會世界第一大語言，英文，就很重要。 At this time, it is important to learn English, the number one language in the world.
Argument Stage	
Claim & Support Pair	英文是日常生活中常接觸到的語言，如果不學好英文，那去外國時可真有些不方便。即便不是英語系國家，例如日本，他們有些標示上有寫英文，對於我們真的方便許多。 English is the language used frequently in daily life. If your English is not fluent, it is inconvenient to go abroad. Even if you go to non-English speaking countries, such as Japan, there are some signs written in English, which much facilitates our visit.
Discourse Marker Claim & Support Pair	另外，在工作上也有極大可能和外國公司有交集。假使你英文不錯，或許就更容易談成一筆大生意。 Moreover, it is likely for you to have contact with foreign business company at work. If your English is fluent, perhaps it is easier to make business with them successfully.
Discourse Marker Restatement	可見以上這些例子，代表了學習英文的重要性。 According to these examples, learning English is really important.
Conclusion Stage	
Consolidation	在這英文普及的年代，英文是不可或缺的工具。 English is an important tool in the era of global village.

(The translation was made by the researcher, not the original English letter written by the writer)

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