

Task Response and Text Construction across L1 and L2 Writing

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Abstract

This exploratory study, undertaken from a socio-cognitive perspective, aims to investigate the effects of intensive preparatory high school training in L1 and/or L2 essay writing for university entrance exams. The analysis focuses on the task response, organizational structure and discourse markers in L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) essays written by first-year Japanese university students (N = 28). The results reveal that the L1 intensive training emphasized the importance of establishing clarity and demonstrating originality, for the sake of gaining the reader's approval, whereas the L2 training stressed the need to take a clear position on an issue and include a position statement at the beginning of an essay. Moreover, the interaction between intensive L1 and L2 training was found to reinforce the students' tendency to reflect on their writing structure, organizational patterns and process, and to foster the ability to control their writing by making decisions based on their meta-knowledge. In some cases, undergoing both kinds of training promoted a sense that writing in L1 and L2 is different, whereas in other cases, it led to a perception of L1 and L2 writing as being the same. The findings provide evidence for transferability of writing competence across languages.

Introduction

Recent L2 writing research and pedagogy have been greatly influenced by the development of two theoretical perspectives: cognitive and sociocultural (Roca & Murphy, 2001). A cognitive-based approach views writing as goal-oriented problem solving (Pittard, 1999; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996) and emphasizes the individual process of composing and revising. A number of cognitively oriented studies, for example, have found that expert writers use more effective planning and revising strategies than inexperienced student writers (Hayes & Flower, 1983; Hayes, Flower, Schriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Sasaki, 2000, 2002). On the other hand, sociocultural theory sees writing as a social act, emphasizing the importance of the social context in which the writing takes place for a particular audience (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). This approach has led researchers to observe how student writers develop their writing while coping with the demands of a new academic setting (Spack, 1997; Fujioka, 1999; Gosden, 1996) and also to examine student interaction in the process of peer revision of written texts (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1992; Lockhart & Ng, 1995). These two perspectives, however, are considered incompatible because they are derived from substantially differing views of learning (Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

Despite such differences, efforts to integrate the two approaches have been made because writing is considered to be both cognitive and social in nature (Flower, 1994; Pittard, 1999). Further, since the development of student writing involves multiple factors, such as L2 language proficiency (Cumming, 1989; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) and L1 writing expertise/ability (Cumming, 1989; Carson, 1992), no unitary theory has been successful in explaining such development. From a cognitive perspective, Roca and Murphy (2001) have attempted to include social aspects in L2 process-oriented composition research, suggesting

three possible areas for inquiry where individual text production may be socially mediated: writing tasks, the skilled/unskilled distinction, and educational experiences. In the same vein, Johns (1997, 2003), like Berkenkotter & Huckin (1995), advocates that “genre,” which is strongly social-context oriented, has both cultural and cognitive aspects “because, in fact, it is an abstraction developed from experiences with our own cultures and their texts” (2003, p. 196). Although finding ways to harmonize the cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives can be problematic (Pittard, 1999), L2 writing researchers have begun to study the complexity of writing by integrating the two perspectives, which is referred to as a “socio-cognitive” approach (Riazi, 1997; Villamail & de Guerrero, 1996).

Following this approach, the present study attempts to explore possible effects of L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) writing experience on the relation between task response and text construction in both languages. In this study, we are focusing particularly on the effects of special intensive pre-university training to prepare high school students to write short essays in Japanese and/or English as part of university level entrance examinations.

Background

Task response and text construction can be influenced by a variety of factors including social, cultural, and contextual variables, as well as previous writing experience and instruction. First, it has been observed that individual writers with diverse social and cultural backgrounds tend to respond to given writing tasks differently. Kachru (cited in Hyland, 2003), for example, implies that Indian students approach an argumentative essay differently from their North American counterparts, in that they “put forward several positions, allowing the reader to decide” (p. 47), whereas the latter tend to take one position and try to convince the reader with supporting evidence. Similarly, Watanabe (2004) found that in

their responses to a picture elicitation task, Japanese children writing in their first language preferred to organize information in a chronological order, following a real time sequence of the event, whereas their North American counterparts tended to reorganize the given information in a cause/effect relationship in their English writing. Watanabe attributes such differences in discourse types (one, narrative, and the other, expository) to different emphases in the children's L1 literacy training.

Related to social and cultural factors, the academic context, in which disciplinary requirements are varied, also affects students' ways of defining and approaching a writing task. Non-native speakers of English coming from diverse cultural backgrounds may not necessarily share the same understanding of given assignments and could misinterpret them, as shown by several case study analyses. For example, Zhang (2005) found that only two of six advanced English learners from diverse backgrounds interpreted a given writing task in a way that matched the underlying expectation of the instructor that they should write with the specific purpose of picking up an idea from the assigned source and expressing their opinion, supported by specifics. Riazi (1996) also observed that Iranian graduate students took a "review" of written material as a summary task, whereas the professors expected them to include more critical comments. Also closely related to genre, novice researchers in a Japanese academic setting tended to see the task of a research report to be directed toward their immediate, internal audience (their Japanese research supervisors), thus not appearing to realize that papers in scientific communities should include such components as appropriate evaluation of previous research (Gosden, 1996).

Another influential factor affecting the writers' responses to writing tasks and their text construction is past writing experience, which generally consists of writing knowledge and

practice that student writers receive through instruction/training. The influence of such factors can be observed across languages, from L1 to L2 as well as the reverse from L2 to L1 (Berman, 1994; Boshier, 1998; Carson & Kuehn, 1994; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Cumming, 1989; Raimes, 1987a; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Shi, 2003; Uzawa, 1996). For instance, Hirose (2003) found that Japanese English majors at a university employed deductive organizational patterns in both L1 and L2 for argumentative essays, suggesting that the findings may result from instructional influence. However, her study did not make it clear whether the use of the organizational pattern in L1 writing came from general L1 literacy training provided in school or the transfer of L2 writing instruction. In Berman's (1994) study, however, the effects of English (L2) and Icelandic (L1) writing instruction were found to be equally marked on the persuasive writing of secondary school level students in both languages after having received 14 essay-writing classes in either one of the two languages. According to the researcher, persuasive essay writing instruction is similar in both Icelandic and English, particularly in terms of thesis, argument, and conclusion. This similarity in text features, along with the writing instruction, may have reinforced the tendency for students to transfer writing skills between the two languages.

Recent analyses of specialized Japanese exam-preparatory essay training (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002) and also of Japanese junior high school language arts textbooks (Kubota & Shi, 2005) have revealed similar characteristics in Japanese L1 writing, particularly opinion-writing; that is, the logical organization of ideas emphasized is deductive, in that the writer's assertion is placed at the beginning, followed by details in the body, and generally restated in the end. These characteristics resemble those cited as typical characteristics of English writing (e.g., Leki, 1989; Raimes, 1987b). If such similarities do exist in Japanese

and English writing, this can be taken to suggest the possibility that the transfer of writing skills can easily occur in both directions: from Japanese to English and the reverse. This possibility could affect students' construction of the writing task in the two languages.

This Study

In this study, we examine L1 and L2 essays produced by first year university students to investigate the specific effects of various types of special pre-university preparatory training¹ in responding to Japanese and/or English essay questions for examinations to enter select Japanese universities. Thus, we compare the writing by members of four distinct groups: those with intensive training in both L1 and L2 writing, those with training in only L1, those with training in only L2, and those with no such intensive training.

The following research questions guided this exploratory study:

- (1) How does task response vary in L1 and L2 essays by writers in the four groups?
- (2) How does L1 and L2 text construction (e.g., internal structure, discourse markers) vary among the four groups?

The first question focused on how the students chose to frame their essays when open-ended topics were given. Unlike many previous studies that have used prompts requiring particular task responses, such as argumentation or exposition discourse types (e.g., Hirose, 2003; Kubota, 1998a, 1998b; Sasaki, 2000), in this study we were interested in how the participants' writing experience might affect the way they approached the writing task, based on the discourse type they selected for their text.

The second question looked at the major structural components and sub-components of the essays, including their ordering and the connections between them, in order to determine what effects, if any, the intensive training may have had on those discourse features.

Method

Participants

The participants, first-year Japanese university students (N = 28), included 23 females and 5 males, all 19 or 20 years old. They were novice EFL writers, in that they had received no university-level L2 writing instruction. They were selected to form four distinct groups: Group 1, those with intensive essay-writing experience in both L1 and L2 (N = 9); Group 2, those with intensive writing experience in only L1 (N = 7); Group 3, those with such experience in only L2 (N = 7); and Group 4, those with no intensive experience in either language (N = 5).² Because this study aimed to investigate the effect of writing experience, we controlled the factor of language proficiency of the participants. Thus, their English proficiency was held constant at an intermediate level,³ according to a computerized CASEC test,⁴ as shown in Table 1.

[Insert Table 1]

Although the groups differed in terms of whether they had experienced intensive writing training in one or both languages, all the students had received some L1 writing instruction and experience in elementary, junior, and senior high school *kokugo* (Japanese language) classes.

Data Collection

Each participant wrote one Japanese and one English essay, and engaged in individual in-depth interviews in two separate sessions. They all wrote in Japanese during their first session and in English during their second one. Participants were interviewed individually in Japanese about their writing in both sessions. The writing portions of the sessions were videotaped, and the interview portions were audiotaped.

Essays

The study employed two open-ended essay prompts eliciting students' opinions: living at home or alone, for Topic 1; traveling with a group or alone, for Topic 2 (Appendix 1 contains English translations of the complete prompts). As can be seen in Appendix 1, the prompts asked a very general question, what the writer thought about each topic, rather than requiring them to argue persuasively in favor of one of the two sides or giving them a particular thesis to develop or support. To control for any potential topic effect, the prompts were alternated; half of the students in each group wrote on Topic 1 in Japanese and on Topic 2 in English, and the other half did the reverse.

Similar to Pennington and So (1993) and Uzawa (1996), we gave no time limitation, and electronic dictionaries were allowed.⁵ The writing times for the L1 essays ranged from 19 to 75 minutes (mean: 35.99, SD: 13.90), while L2 essays ranged between 17 and 82 minutes (mean: 37.93, SD: 13.98). Most participants took between 25 and 45 minutes in each language.

Interviews

After they completed the writing, the participants were interviewed in Japanese about their composing processes (for example, how much they had planned before actually writing) and about their L1 and L2 writing background (such as the specific types of writing they had done throughout their school years and the kinds of meta-knowledge they had acquired). Each interview session lasted between 90 and 120 minutes. The interview data were used primarily as a secondary source of information to confirm and supplement the textual analysis explained below.

Data Analysis

Identification of discourse types

The essays were first analyzed in terms of how the writers chose to frame their responses to the open-ended topics. Four basic discourse types, which emerged from the data, rather than being pre-determined, were identified: Argumentation, Exposition, Self-reflection, and Mixed. The first was the frame of an argument,⁶ where students stated their opinion in favor of one or the other of the two choices (living at home or living alone, for Topic 1; traveling in a group or traveling alone, for Topic 2). The second type comprised a discussion of the topic in an expository framework,⁷ not taking a side, but analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of each or creating an original thesis related to the topic. The third was a conscious or unconscious choice to approach the writing as a “*sakubun*” (self-reflective writing, widely practiced in Japanese L1 classrooms from elementary school on). The fourth was a mixed approach where students combined two discourse types.⁸ Three mixed patterns were identified: Argumentation combined with Exposition, Argumentation combined with Self-reflection, and Exposition combined with Self-reflection.⁹ Sample L2 essays for each of the four main types are presented in Appendix 2.

Determination of organizational structures

The text structures identified in the essays were closely related to the discourse types. Except for the self-reflection essays, which tended to employ a narrative mode with no clearly identifiable patterns in their overall or internal structures, each of the types was found to take one or more distinctive organizational forms, as explained in the Results section below. Key components identified in the analysis of the overall structure of the essays included position statements (e.g., “I think it’s better for an undergraduate to live alone”), general statements (e.g., “Each side has merits and demerits”),¹⁰ and thesis statements (e.g., “Choosing a place to

live is a step to independence”), and other major components included reasons, explanation, and illustration. The analysis of the internal structure examined the body of the essays in terms of the specific components they contained.

Classification of discourse markers by levels

Various kinds of discourse markers signal the internal structures of the essays and provide logical connections among the parts. Such devices in the essays were identified and categorized in terms of the text level to which they related: (1) overall meta-discourse (essay level) markers, such as *There are three main reasons* and *In conclusion*; (2) partial meta-discourse markers (connecting paragraphs or multi-sentential chunks of discourse within paragraphs), such as *First*, and *There are several advantages*; and (3) inter-sentential markers (connecting only two sentences), such as *But*, *However*, and *Thus*. As can be seen in the sample essay in Appendix 3, the inter-sentential markers are relatively short, whereas the partial and overall meta-discourse markers vary in length from one word to full clauses.

Results

Task Response

The number of L1 and L2 essays identified for each discourse type is shown in Table 2.¹¹ (Appendix 4 shows a detailed breakdown of discourse type across the two languages.)

[Insert Table 2 & Table 3]

As shown in Table 2, more exposition than argumentation was used in the L1 essays (10 Exposition, 5 Argumentation), whereas the opposite was true in L2 (13 Argumentation, 3 Exposition). These results indicate that there is a marked difference in the choice of discourse type between the two languages; students chose Exposition as a single type most frequently when they approached the task in Japanese; however, many of them shifted to

Argumentation when they wrote in English. The use of both Argumentation (in single and mixed essays combined) and Exposition (single and mixed) was found to differ significantly across the two languages.¹²

Regarding group differences, as shown in Table 3, across the L1 and L2 writing, Groups 1 and 2, who had all received the L1 training, used the same type more frequently than Groups 3 and 4, who almost all shifted their type. Among the four groups, Group 3, who had received only L2 training, showed the biggest change in the choice of discourse type. In writing essays in English, they employed Argumentation most often (71%), whereas they did not choose it at all (as a single discourse type) for writing Japanese essays. Whereas Group 1 chose Argumentation consistently across the two languages, Group 2, which preferred Exposition (44%) for Japanese essays, was split across the three discourse types of Argumentation, Exposition, and Mixed in their English essays. Compared with their Japanese essays, however, both Group 1 and Group 2 also increased the frequencies of Argumentation for their English essays by 22% and 13%, respectively. Finally, Group 4 chose a Mixed discourse type most frequently, which was used by three out of the four students who used identifiable discourse types (see note 11).

Organizational Structure

With respect to the overall organization of the L2 essays, those by Groups 1 and 2 appeared to be clearly structured. The L2 essays by Group 2 were particularly notable for all having clear divisions into introduction, body, and conclusion paragraphs. In contrast, many of the L2 essays by Groups 3 and 4 tended to have a weak sense of overall structure, sometimes exhibiting rather arbitrary paragraphing.

The ways the four groups responded to the two open-ended topics tended to affect their

ways of organizing the text. In particular, different organizational patterns were identified in the L1 and L2 essays under each discourse type, and some group differences were identified in the use of these organizational patterns. Overall, there was a tendency for Groups 1 and 2 to include original perspectives as well as counter-arguments in their L1 essays. On the other hand, in their L2 essays, members of all four groups tended to use a simpler structure than they had in their L1, whichever discourse type they employed.

For Argumentation essays, the overall structure in both languages was found to consist of a position at the beginning and end, with reasons in favor (pro) in the body. The internal structure of many of the essays was found to include a counter-argument,¹³ as illustrated in the English essay in Appendix 5, written by a Group 2 student. A total of eight L2 essays included counter-arguments, which were placed either before or after the pro-reasons. Most notably, a majority of the L2 essays of Group 3 (4/7) contained a counter-argument in their argumentative writing. On the other hand, whereas four of the Japanese essays also included counter-arguments, one difference from the L2 essays was that two of the L1 Argumentation essays included an original perspective (expansion of an existing component) or extended perspective (additional component). For example, in the translated Japanese essay excerpt shown in Appendix 5, the same Group 2 writer brought in his own perspective while developing a strong reason to support his position for “traveling alone” while following the same overall structure (position – pro-reasons – position).

The L1 and L2 Exposition essays shared the same overall structure consisting of a thesis or a general statement (a topic or a purpose) in the beginning, explanation in the body, and a thesis at the end. However, the ways of developing ideas in the body differed somewhat across the two languages. One of the two internal structures identified, in which advantages

and disadvantages are compared and/or contrasted, appeared in both L1 and L2. While some of the L1 essays had an additional component, analysis, prior to the final thesis, none of the L2 essays included such a component. Appendix 6 shows an English expository essay and an excerpt from a Japanese expository essay, with an English translation, that illustrates this additional analysis component before the conclusion. The second type of internal structure, which involved the development of a thesis through illustration, appeared only in the L1 essays. Moreover, in the L1 Exposition essays, which were most frequent in Group 2, the writers showed original perspectives by creating their own thesis and explaining it. Thus, similar to Argumentative essays, in essence L1 Exposition essays were generally more complex than those in L2, whereas the English essays represented a relatively simple structure.

Among the Mixed discourse type essays, the most common combination was Exposition and Argumentation (8 cases for L1, 5 cases for L2). In the most frequent movement, starting from Exposition and moving to Argumentation, the writer stated advantages and disadvantages of both sides, and then chose one or two supporting reasons from the preceding text (or sometimes added a new reason) for a position taken at the end. Whereas the overall structure of the Mixed essays was basically the same in both L1 and L2, one difference was that the Mixed L1 essays, like the Expository ones, sometimes included an extended perspective.

Consistency of discourse type and structure across L1 and L2

In order to clarify the relationship between discourse type and overall structure, along with the differences in internal structure across the two languages, the overall and internal structures of the essays by the 9 students in this study who used the same discourse type in

both L1 and L2 are summarized in Table 4.

[Insert Table 4]

As Table 4 shows, the overall structures of the L1 and L2 essays by the same writer were the same, but the internal structures of those L1 essays that included argumentation contained extra components, as compared to their L2 counterparts. In the other three cases, where no argumentation was involved, only one student (3-5) used exactly the same internal structure in both languages, and the other two made use of longer illustrations to support their original theses in their L1 essays, as opposed to relying on simple comparison structures in L2.

Discourse Markers

The mean frequencies of use of different levels of discourse markers in the two languages for each group are shown in Tables 5 and 6 in Appendix 7. To control for different length essays, the numbers of discourse markers were calculated per 500 Japanese characters in the L1 essays and per 100 English words in the L2 essays. Figures 1 and 2 graphically represent the relative frequencies of meta-discourse (overall and partial combined) and inter-sentential markers in the L1 and L2 essays, respectively, by each of the four groups. As shown in Figures 1 and 2, across the two languages, Groups 1 and 2 used more meta-discourse markers than the other groups, and Group 4 used more inter-sentential markers than all the other groups.¹⁴

[Insert Figures 1 and 2]

Discussion

L1 and L2 Preparatory Writing Training

Students' previous writing experience/training apparently affected the ways they defined and approached the writing task. L1 specialized writing training appeared to emphasize the

use of Exposition, the inclusion of original/extended perspectives, and the use of an overall structure consisting of introduction, body, and conclusion, with frequent use of meta-discourse markers. These characteristics can be seen as closely related to the purpose of the L1 writing that high school students are expected to perform in university entrance exams; in a relatively long essay (consisting of 800 to 1,000 characters), they have to appeal to a real audience (i.e., professors) through their original thinking or view so that they can stand out in relation to the other candidates in very competitive university exam situations. In fact, according to one essay exam guide (Kotou, 2000), the most important criteria for essay evaluators to consider is original/extended perspectives, which occupy half of the whole evaluation scores (p. 23). To show such perspectives, some L1 writers created their own thesis in the beginning and explained it through illustration in their expository essays. Furthermore, even in Argumentation and Mixed essay types, the students with L1 training often included original/extended perspectives in the development of supporting reasons for their chosen position (see Table 4), which sometimes entailed an additional structural component, perhaps similar to “*ten*” (change or development) in the Japanese traditional organization pattern, *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* (introduction – continuation – change – conclusion).¹⁵ Thus, in whichever mode was taken, they strove to demonstrate their original idea to make a strong appeal to the reader.

In contrast, considering that Argumentation was employed by a majority of students with the L2 specialized writing training, it was apparent that these students were affected by this instruction. The L2 training induced students to adopt a basic schema with the placement of the position statement at both the beginning and end of the essay, presentation of reasons in support of the position, and optionally the inclusion of a counter-argument before

or after the pro-reasons. Many students reported in the interviews that the purpose of English writing is to convey ideas clearly to the reader; thus, the use of discourse markers is important to achieve such clarity. However, the elements of the basic Argumentation schema were taught not only in L2 training sessions, but also in both L1 and L2 sessions, according to the student interviews. For example, some students reported having learned from their L1 training that the purpose of a short essay was to express an opinion and support it with reasons, whereas some others said they learned this approach from their L2 training. Perhaps from such instruction in either L1 or L2, many students in Groups 1 and 3 became very conscious of stating a position statement, and in fact several of these students were observed during the writing session to insert such a statement at the beginning after having completed their English essays.

Transfer of writing skills across languages

It is notable that these first year students who had received only pre-university writing experience tried to construct texts in both Japanese and English by relying on the knowledge they obtained from L1 or L2 writing instruction or their combination. That is, the transfer of writing knowledge did not take place in only one direction, from L1 to L2, but occurred in both directions. The frequent use of meta-discourse markers by Groups 1 and 2 evidenced such a tendency. As in the case of discourse type, the interview data revealed that the source of knowledge about meta-discourse markers was either the L1 or L2 writing training or both. Moreover, the findings shown in Table 4 also suggest the transferability of writing skills across the two languages. For example, one Group 2 student perceived a short essay (*shouronbun*), which is opinion-writing in his view, to be entirely different from the expressive writing (*sakubun*) that he had done in his early literacy training. In his words,

“the purpose of an essay is to tell your opinion and why you think that way, and so I think a short essay has to be logical, consisting of an opinion and reasons” (translated from Japanese). He applied this learned concept to his English writing; as a result the overall structure turned out to be identical in L1 and L2, although the internal structure of the Japanese essay also contained an original perspective.

In the case of Group 1, however, some students may have developed the perception that L1 and L2 essay writing is similar by having received the writing training in both languages. Although the results of the present study indicate more frequent choice of Exposition than Argumentation overall in the L1 essays, it is very likely that the L1 preparatory writing instruction emphasized Argumentation as well, as reported in the student interviews in both the present study and the earlier one (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002). Thus, the choice of Argumentation in both L1 and L2 writing by 4 Group 1 students (Table 4) suggests that the combination of training contributed to such consistent use of discourse type.

At the same time, these students could be selective in terms of what to choose from their instruction in order to construct a text. One Group 1 student illustrates this case. She reportedly had learned the overall structure with an opinion in the initial part of an essay and the use of discourse markers from her L2 writing instruction. In particular, she learned to place a key discourse marker at the beginning of a paragraph, as evidenced by her use of “Besides” and “Most importantly.” From her L1 instruction, however, she learned to prioritize ideas, putting the strongest reason toward the end of an essay; she explained her preference for such prioritization as follows:

To me, what is important is not to tell my position, but tell the strongest reason for my opinion...If I stated it too early, the reader might lose interest in reading the

whole essay. (translated from the original Japanese)

The analysis of her two texts shows they were almost identical in terms of structural features, including the use of discourse markers. However, there was one exception; she developed the most important reason in much more detail and with a unique perspective in her Japanese essay, but not in her English essay, probably due to her limited English ability (Kobayashi, 2005).

One last point related to the transfer of writing skills concerns Group 3, who received only English instruction. Although most students in the group were very conscious of including a position statement and a counter-argument, they did not show any evidence of transferring such knowledge to their Japanese essays; none of them chose Argumentation as a single discourse type, as they did in their English writing. Presumably, this is partly because they lacked practice in writing a long L2 essay, and more importantly because they did not have chances to develop the perception of L1 and L2 essays as sharing some similarities due to their lack of L1 essay writing instruction. As a result, they tended to rely upon their earlier L1 writing training in elementary and junior high schools, which focused on *sakubun*, expressive writing based on personal feelings and thoughts (Liebman, 1992; Watanabe, 2004). Thus, many of their essays contained large amounts of self-reflection. Furthermore, students' attitudes toward English writing could prevent their knowledge from being transferred to L1 writing. One Group 3 student reported having consciously rejected the English writing training because she perceived it as being too formulaic; thus, she did not write in the way she had been instructed. Instead, she chose to write freely in her own writing style in both L1 and L2, which she reportedly cultivated by having read a great many books when she was in elementary and junior high school.

In short, the English paragraph-level writing practice that students undertook to prepare for university entrance exams did not seem to facilitate a transfer of knowledge to their L1 writing, whereas the L1 essay-level writing knowledge appeared to transfer to L2 essays. Nevertheless, this interpretation should be taken with caution because of the small number of participants.

Conclusion

This study, based on text analysis and interview data, is intended to add to our knowledge of cognitive writing processes in relation to specific social contexts. The findings provide relatively strong evidence for transferability of writing competence across languages. In particular, we found that intensive L1 training could provide the basis for constructing texts in both L1 and L2. Specifically, special Japanese training in the last year of high school, aimed at university entrance exam L1 essay writing, raised first year university students' meta-cognitive awareness of rhetorical features and audience expectations, along with an ability to implement this awareness. Moreover, the interaction between intensive L1 and L2 training led to greater effects than either of the separate kinds of training alone would have allowed us to predict, perhaps because of the greater confidence it generated for both L1 and L2 writing.

The findings of the present study also suggest that text features, such as argumentation structure and the use of discourse markers, are commonly shared by both Japanese and English writing. This confirms what an earlier study (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002) reported on the content of the instruction students received in the special L1 short essay training, and also what Kubota and Shi (2005) observed in the analysis of Japanese arts textbooks used in junior high schools. Future study is required to verify the apparent commonality by

analyzing more Japanese and English essays written by the same students. At the same time, further investigation is needed to determine whether the correspondence between Japanese and English persuasive writing results from the influence of English writing or has developed independently, or perhaps is related to a combination of factors.

Notwithstanding the positive effects of pre-university level writing experience in L1 and L2, the findings from this small-scale study should be viewed cautiously. Because the sample size was small and the study dealt with a particular group of students, all with very little L1 or L2 university writing experience, in a specific writing context, the findings cannot be generalized beyond such a group. To validate the findings of the present study, future research should engage a larger number of participants in different EFL and ESL writing contexts.

In addition, some methodological refinements can be suggested. Topic selection should be carefully considered, particularly in terms of degree of familiarity for participants. Like many other studies (Hamp-Lyons, 1990; Reid, 1990; Stapleton, 2001), the present study has also observed a possible topic effect, in this case on the relatively frequent use of Exposition in the students' L1 and L2 essays on Topic 2; lack of travel experience might have led some students to simply compare advantages and disadvantages of traveling alone and traveling in a group, without taking a position on the issue. Improved interview procedures could include even more probing questions regarding students' perceptions of their writing and post-analysis follow-up interviews to clarify and/or confirm the analysts' interpretation of the textual data.

Future directions for this research should lead us toward a deeper understanding of the influence of L1 and L2 writing experience on the development of writing competence in the two languages. One specific area for investigation is the possibility of bi-directional transfer

of composing competence and possible factors affecting such transfer: amount and nature of writing training/experience; L2 proficiency; individual factors such as attitude, motivation, and perceptions of L1 and L2 writing; and actual writing contexts (e.g., a real or an experimental context). In particular, future studies should look in greater depth at individual decisions in transferring text features and composing strategies from one language to another based on students' own perceptions and intentions. Ideally, such studies should follow the same students longitudinally to see how their writing competence advances over time.

Furthermore, in order to investigate to what extent writing competence can be transferred across languages, from L1 to L2 or the reverse, it would be worth looking at L1 and L2 writing process and product among advanced level writers who have undergone extensive writing training and experience, especially in overseas academic settings, or by those who have accrued considerable L1 writing experience. This kind of investigation could clarify the role of meta-knowledge and experience in the development of writing proficiency in both L1 and L2.

Other promising areas for future studies include analysis of the development of arguments in terms of specific elaboration for support and counter-argument (following van Wijk, 1999) and evaluation of the effectiveness of various approaches to logical development. While it is important to clarify the logical structure of persuasive writing, it would be worth looking at how individual students develop arguments to support a position and also to see if such ability can transcend languages.

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Notes

1. This training was given on a short-term basis, consisting of 1 to 4 months of intensive, individualized instruction, generally given outside of regular high school classes (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002). Unlike the traditional L1 Japanese composition training (*sakubun*) that focuses on the expression of personal thoughts and feelings (Liebman, 1992; Watanabe, 2001), the kind of writing that students were trained to produce in such special training sessions emphasized the importance of logical organization and support of ideas.
2. The main criteria for selection were whether or not they had received instruction in entrance exam essay writing and the number of essays they had written during their training: 8-10 or more for those with intensive training and 0-2 for those without intensive training. Of the original six participants with no intensive writing training, one had to be dropped from the study because it was determined that she had acquired English writing instruction after entering university and before writing the essays for this study.
3. It should be noted that students were not specifically selected on the basis of identical language proficiency scores, but as members of a relatively homogeneous population whose language proficiency was similar. Because the students had passed competitive English exams, including the national "Center Exam" and public university entrance exams, in a sense they were already pre-screened, in that any low English proficiency students had been eliminated from the pool of potential participants. Thus, the

proficiency tests were intended mainly to check that none of the students had unusually high English proficiency for the population.

4. The CASEC (Computerized Assessment System for English Communication) test, created by the Eiken (English STEP Test) administrators, contains four sections: vocabulary, idioms, listening, and dictation. Students self-administer the test at their own pace, and their scores are reported in the form of a numerical score (out of a possible 1000 points) and a proficiency level, along with TOEIC and TOEFL equivalents.
5. No particular time allocation was required or recommended because we wished participants to feel free to take as much time as they needed to develop their essays. The decision to allow dictionary use was based on two assumptions: (1) that such use reflected the most natural condition for these students when writing in their L2 in non-testing situations, and (2) that they would be able to demonstrate their highest level of composing competence if they were unconstrained by any feelings of insecurity about their vocabulary limitations (Porte, 1996). Comparing the mean frequencies of overall dictionary use by the four groups, there was no significant difference in the number of times that writers consulted dictionaries while writing their L2 essays (mean: 15.82 times, SD: 6.75).
6. It should be noted that we are using the term *argumentation* in a relatively loose sense, in that formal arguments in the Western philosophical sense of premises, proofs, and logical deduction (Kinneavy, 1971) do not appear to be relevant to the kind of intensive training or novice writing we are investigating in this study. The essays identified as argumentation in this study should be considered roughly comparable to arguments based mainly on informal reasoning, which involves supporting general claims with specific

evidence (Liu, 2005, p. 9).

7. Again, the term *exposition* is being used to refer in a rather informal way to “thesis/support writing” (Guilford, n.d.), which is basically analytic and contains no apparent elements of argumentation or persuasion aimed at changing the opinion of the reader in favor of either side of the issue being discussed.
8. The Mixed essays could have been viewed as single discourse types with internal structures developed in particular ways (for example, a Mixed Exposition/Argumentation essay could be interpreted as an Argumentation essay that is developed using comparison structure). However, when neither single approach could be identified as dominant in an essay, we chose to label such relatively balanced discourse types as Mixed.
9. All the essays were coded by the two researchers of this study, one a native speaker of Japanese and the other a native speaker of English. When the writer’s opinion was stated either at the beginning or the final position of an essay, followed by supporting reasons, the essay was classified as argumentation. When the writer’s thesis was developed by illustration or explanation, without an opinion statement, the essay was coded as exposition. When the essay started out with a thesis, developed for example by analyzing advantages and disadvantages, and then took a position with supporting reasons, it was coded as a mixed pattern in this study. The researchers first coded English essays individually and then together determined the discourse type of each essay. Subsequently, the Japanese essays were roughly translated into Japanese for the non-Japanese researcher, and the same procedure was applied to the coding of Japanese essays.
10. General statements included introductions to the topic (e.g., “There are students who like

to travel alone, some students like to travel with friends or family”), purpose (e.g., “Before stating my opinion about this topic, I’d like to compare traveling alone and traveling in a group”), or meta-discourse statements (e.g., “There are advantages and disadvantages of traveling alone and traveling in a group”).

11. Two essays (J4-1 and E4-1), both written by the same Group 4 writer, were categorized as “ill-defined” because it was not possible to identify any overall discourse type or structure, and therefore they were eliminated from further analysis in this study.
12. The cells were not independent, so McNemar’s rather than Chi-square tests were employed. A statistically significant difference was found ($z = 2.88, p = .002$) for both Argumentation and Exposition across the two languages. For the McNemar z -distribution test, the number of changes has to total 10 or more (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 419); thus, because there were not enough changes among the single cases alone, the single and mixed cases of each of the discourse types being tested were combined.
13. It should be noted that the counter-arguments identified in the essays of these novice writers are relatively short, generally consisting of 2 to 4 clauses.
14. Even though the number of participants was small, statistical analysis (group by marker type, repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance) indicated that the groups differed significantly in the L1 essays in terms of their overall use of discourse markers ($F = 3.010, p = 0.050$), and post-hoc tests of effects showed that group was a significant factor differentiating the use of partial meta-discourse markers ($F = 3.638, p = 0.027$) and total meta-discourse markers (overall and partial combined, $F = 3.633, p = 0.027$). For their L2 essays, tests of effects showed significant group differences for the categories of overall meta-discourse ($F = 3.462, p = .032$), partial meta-discourse ($F = 8.728, p = .000$),

total meta-discourse markers ($F = 9.747, p = .000$), and inter-sentential markers ($F = 4.221, p = .046$). Post-hoc Scheffé tests showed that Group 4 used significantly more inter-sentential markers than Group 1 ($p = .046$).

15. In the interview, one student who had incorporated an additional structural component in her L1 writing said that she consciously followed the traditional *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* pattern because she wanted to include a surprising element for the reader. According to her, the focal point of Japanese writing is to interest or surprise the reader with unique ideas. A recent debate on the concept of *ten* is summarized by Cahill (2003), who considers it close to the Western rhetorical notion of amplification.

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Table 1: Characteristics of Participant Groups

	Number	Preparatory Training	English Mean Score* (SD)
Group 1	9	L1 & L2	470.44 (18.74)
Group 2	7	L1 only	447.71 (37.62)
Group 3	7	L2 only	462.71 (23.76)
Group 4	5	Little or none	461.20 (5.26)

*TOEFL Equivalent; no significant difference among groups

Table 2: Frequency of Discourse Type by Language

	Japanese	English
Argumentation	6 (22%)	13 (47%)
Exposition	10 (37%)	3 (11%)
Self-reflection	2 (7%)	1 (4%)
Mixed	9 (33%)	10 (37%)

Table 3: Consistency of Modes across L1 and L2

	L1	L2	Overlap %	Shift % (L1 -> L2)
Group 1	4 Arg 1 Mix	Arg Mix	56% (5/9)	44% (Mix->Arg)
Group 2	2 Exp 1 Arg	Exp Arg	43% (3/7)	57% (Self -> Arg) (Exp -> Arg)
Group 3	1 Mix	Mix	14% (1/7)	86% (Mix -> Arg) (Exp -> Arg)
Group 4	0		0% (0/4)	100% (Exp -> Mix)

Table 4: Discourse Type and Structure in L1 and L2 Essays by 9 Students

		Overall Structure	Internal Structure	
		[Same in L1 & L2]	L1	L2
1-2	Mix (exp->arg)	GS-explain->pro-Position	<i>comparison</i> + extended pers.	<i>comparison</i>
1-5	Arg	Position-pro-Position	+ contra	--
1-7	Arg	Position-pro-Position	+ extended pers.	--
1-8	Arg	Position-pro-Position	+ original pers.	--
1-9	Arg	Position-pro-Position	+ contra + extended pers.	--
2-2	Arg	Position-pro-Position	+ contra + original pers.	+ contra
2-6	Exp	GS-explain-thesis	<i>illustration</i>	<i>comparison</i>
2-7	Exp	Thesis-explain-thesis	<i>illustration</i>	<i>comparison</i>
3-5	Mix (self->exp)	Self->explain-thesis	<i>illustration</i>	<i>illustration</i>

GS = general statement, explain = explanation, pro = supporting reasons, pers. = perspective, contra = counter-argument; + = additional component; [*italicized item*]= mode of explanation

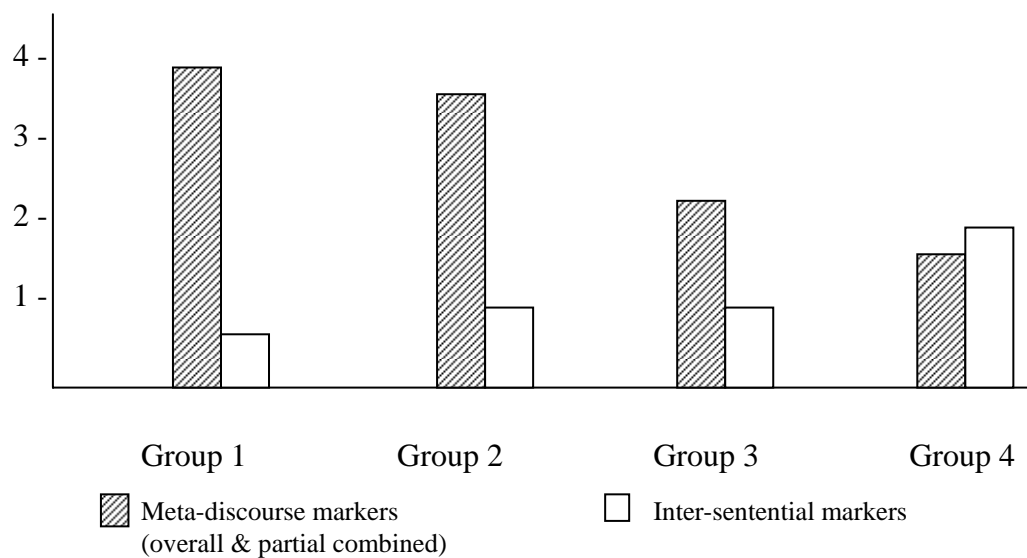


Figure 1: Frequencies of Japanese discourse markers (per 500 characters)

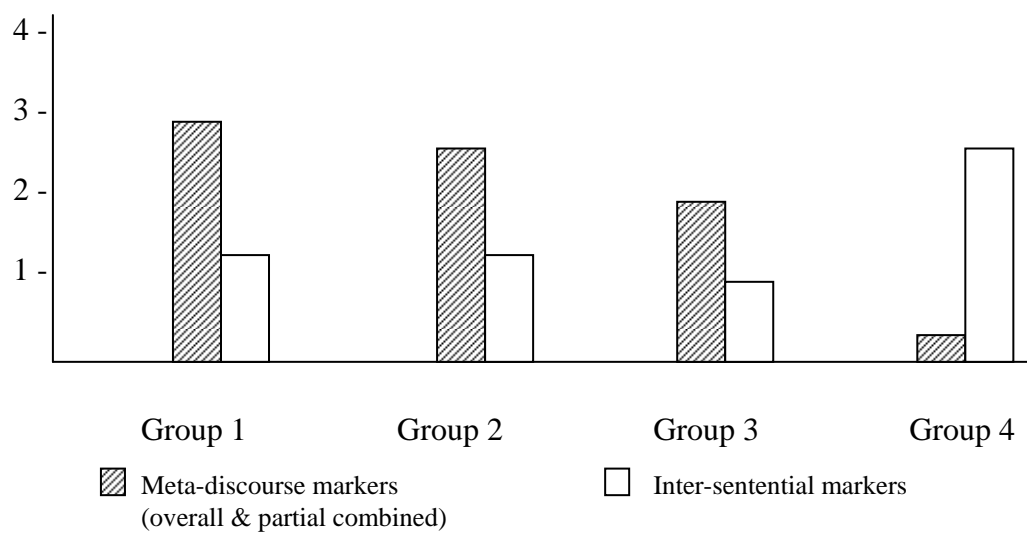


Figure 2: Frequencies of English discourse markers (per 100 words)

Appendix 1

Essay Prompts

English translations of the explanations of the topics given in Japanese for the two tasks:

(1) Topic 1: Place to live [alone/family]

Students at universities often have a chance to choose where to live. They may choose to live in an apartment alone near their school, or they may choose to live with their family and commute to their university. What do you think of this topic? Write an essay in English, explaining your opinion about it. Your written essay will be included in a compilation of class essays and your classmates will read it.

(2) Topic 2: Travel [alone/group]

Many university students often have a chance to travel. They may choose to travel alone, or they may choose to travel in a group. What do you think of this topic? Write an essay in English, explaining your opinion about it. Your written essay will be included in a compilation of class essays and your classmates will read it.

Appendix 2

Sample L2 Essays in the Four Main Discourse Types

Argumentation (E1-8)

It is necessary for University students to live with their families, because they don't have to spend their money for a house rent and they can save money. So they can spend money for another things, for buying textbooks and so on.

Besides, they have less need to do household works; they can live without washing their clothes. And they don't have to do part time job.

Most importantly, it help students spending their time for only studying. They can concentrate studying only, because they don't have to earn money or do household things, like I above-mentioned.

Therefore I think college or University students should live with their families.

Exposition (E2-7)

I think that we decide we travel whether by ourselves or with people we know depends on when and where. Because we can suppose many cases when we travel.

For example, when we go to Hawaii for sightseeing, probably we don't go there by ourselves. And we may go there with our family or friends. In other words, when we would like to enjoy our travel, we like to make merry with someone. In addition to it, it is the travel more full of memories when we go there with someone than when by ourselves.

On the other hand, we sometimes like to travel somewhere by ourselves. For example, when we want to escape from stressful reality. It is natural that when we are under a lot of stress, we want to do so. I think that the stress often comes from a quota to complete and concern for human relations. To get rid of the stress, we sometimes travel alone. For example, I want to go to a place which has a lot of the beautiful nature. And it is good for us to travel somewhere alone without reserve.

Therefore, both to travel alone and in groups have good points. So in campus life which we have many opportunities to travel to many places, we should make the best use of them. And I think it important that we use time and circumstance properly. By doing so, I think that we can spend our lives in our college days in enjoying travels.

Self-reflection (E4-2)

I had hankered after a single life since I was a high school student. So, absolutely, I wanted to do a single life if I could be a university student, because I wanted my space. At first, I enjoyed cooking my own food. I worked enthusiastically, for example, cooking, cleaning, and washing, so on. But, about one month after, I got tired of doing. And I come to miss my parent's home. If I don't move, I can eat food, have a bath,.... But when I come back home, I had no thing to do. And that, I had to go back home at ten o'clock. So, when I played with my friends until late at night, My parents flew into a rage. At that moment, I thought that I wanted to go back quickly to my home which is in Saijo. So, I had stayed in Tottori only one week. I thought that though, there are much serious matter, a single life is very comfortable. I want to live in comfort.

But, now, It is very cold in Saijo. So, I sometimes think that I want to go back my home and go to see my family.

Mixed [Self -> Arg] (E3-5)

When I was a high school student, always I thought "I want to live alone". Because living with parents was very tiresome I thought. Watching TV, eating something, playing with my friends,, whenever I did something I had my parents' (especially my mother's) at heart.

But now that things have come to this pass, that thought is very optimistic, I feel. From morning till night, spending time alone all the time is very lonely and hard, I notice! When I wake up at morning and when I went back home from school, a meal has been ready. This incident is very fantastic. At night, when I'm tired, if my mother was lived together, I could talk and laugh.

Some of my friends go to school from his (her) home everyday. In it's own way, there are some trouble, maybe. But when she went back home, she said "What is today's supper...?" I was envious of her very much.

Of course, living alone has some strong point. As I wrote first, watching TV, what is eating, playing with friends at any time any place, and so on. I can do as my likes.

In conclusion, what I want to say is "To live alone is very free, but living with family have peace of mind."

To experience living alone is very important for our life, but the space of that time, we must feel gracious of living with family.

Appendix 3

Sample Essay with Discourse Markers Highlighted (E1-2, Mixed [Exp -> Arg])

There are many chances that we travel when we are university student. **Which one is more beneficial traveling alone or group travel?**

First, I'd like to observe on strong point of traveling alone. *First of all*, it is good for us not to bother about anyone. So, we can travel freely. Besides, we can get a sense of responsibility, because we have to do everything by oneself. *In addition to that*, if we are in group, we are apt to satisfy without meeting something new, but if we are alone, we tend to seek meeting more positively.

In the contrary, sometimes traveling alone is danger, especially women.

Second, I'd like to observe on strong point of group travel. Above all, it is more safety than traveling alone. And, we can share pleasure or happiness of travel with someone of group.

However, group travel has some bad point. We tend to ease too much, because we can enjoy the travel without meeting something new. Besides, it is little difficult to go to somewhere we want to go freely.

I think the most attractive point of travel is meeting something new. In addition to that, travel makes us more rich psychically, especially traveling alone.

So, I come to the conclusion that traveling alone is better than group travel if we are student particularly. I'm sure that we can develop through traveling alone.

*Key: **overall meta-discourse markers** (in bold font): 2 cases; *partial meta-discourse markers* (in bold italics):

7 cases; inter-sentential markers (underlined): 5 cases

Appendix 4

Comparison of Individuals' Discourse Modes across Languages

	Japanese Essay	English Essay	Comparison
Group 1			
1-1	Exp	Mix (Exp -> Arg)	*
1-2	Mix (Exp->Arg)	Mix (Exp -> Arg)	=
1-3	Mix (Exp->Arg)	Mix (Self <-> Arg)	*
1-4	Exp	Mix (Arg <->Exp)	*
1-5	Arg	Arg	=
1-6	Mix (Exp->Arg)	Arg	*
1-7	Arg	Arg	*
1-8	Arg	Arg	=
1-9	Arg	Arg	=
Group 2			
2-1	Self	Arg	x
2-2	Arg	Arg	=
2-3	Arg	Mix (Exp -> Arg)	*
2-4	Exp	Arg	x
2-5	Exp	Mix (Arg <->Exp)	*
2-6	Exp	Exp	=
2-7	Exp	Exp	=
Group 3			
3-1	Mix (Exp->Arg)	Arg	*
3-2	Mix (Arg->Exp)	Arg	*
3-3	Mix (Self->Exp)	Exp	*
3-4	Exp	Arg	x
3-5	Mix (Self->Exp)	Mix (Self ->Exp)	=
3-6	Exp	Arg	x
3-7	Mix (Arg->Exp)	Arg	*
Group 4			
4-2	Mix (Exp->Arg)	Self	x
4-4	Exp	Mix (Self -> Arg)	x
4-5	Self	Mix (Self -> Arg)	*
4-6	Exp	Mix (Arg <-> Self)	x

Arg: Argumentation; Exp: Exposition; Self: Self-reflection; Mix: Mixed;

->: direction of overall movement; <->: movement back and forth; =: same; *: partial overlap; x: different

Appendix 5

Argumentation Essays by one Group 2 Student

English Essay

Essay E2-2

(Counter-argument indicated by the underline; here and throughout this article, no corrections except spelling have been made to the English essays or excerpts).

English essay (E2-2)

I think that it's better for an undergraduate to live alone, staying away from his or her family. You may think "Why?" If undergraduates live with their family, they don't have to do housework and they can study long time. But I think it's not so important. There are two reasons for my opinion.

First, living alone enables undergraduates to be independent from their family. They have to cook, wash, clean and study by themselves. No one helps them do it. Living alone can be a step to independence.

Secondly, staying away from family having undergraduate confirms the important of their family's being.

So, I think living alone is better choice for undergraduates.

Japanese Essay

(Original perspective indicated by the underline).

Essay J2-2

旅行は、多かれ少なかれ、人を成長させてくれるものだと思う。それが一人旅であれ、集団での旅行であれ、何らかの効果を人にもたらすはずだ。しかし私は、旅行は一人で行く方がより好ましいと考える。

確かに、集団で旅行することにはたくさんのメリットがある。日常から慣れ親しんでいる友人と一緒に、普段行かないような場所へ旅行すれば、お互いにより親交を深めることができるだろう。また、友人同士でなくともメリットはある。例えば、JTBなどの旅行会社が主催するツアーが挙げられる。集団で行動するから、何よりも安全である。これは大変大きなメリットであると言える。

しかし私は、それらの利点が旅行に必ずしも必要だとは思わない。それには、私の考える「旅行の目的」というものが関係する。私の考えるそれは、日常を離れ、非日常の中に身を置くことによ

って、普段の自分を客観的に見つめる機会を持つ、ということである。

友人同士にせよ他人同士にせよ、集団で旅行すると、「非日常」であるはずの旅行に「日常」が入り込んでしまう。そのことが、私の考える「旅行の目的」の達成をさまたげてしまうと思うのだ。
一人旅ならば、自分以外はすっかり「非日常」の世界だ。観るもの、聞くもの、肌で感じるものすべてが日常と異なって感じられる。メディアなどを通じて、自分が日常を過ごしている場所のことを見聞きすることもあるかもしれない。しかし、それもまた、「日常の客観視」と言えるだろう。

以上のように、一人で旅行をすることが、日頃の自分についてのことを見直してみる良い機会となりうる。私は集団での旅行を否定するわけではない。そのような旅行にも良い点はたくさんある。しかし、旅行という、日常を脱する絶好の機会を存分に活用しようと思うなら、一人で行くのがより良い選択であると、私は考える。

(English translation of original perspective component)

Excerpt from Japanese essay (J2-2)

[...]

When we travel in a group, whether with friends or with others, daily affairs come into the “travel” through which we hope to get away from such affairs. In this respect, if we go in a group, that prevents us from achieving the purpose of travel, which I think is to stay away from daily life. If we travel alone, we are totally in the non-daily world where we are away from the ordinary, except ourselves. What we see, hear, and feel when traveling would be different from what we do in our daily life. There are chances for us to see and hear about the places where we spend time daily; however, we could even say such chances help us see our daily life objectively.

[...]

Appendix 6

Expository Essays by Group 3 Students

English Essay

Essay E3-3

I like to travel by myself. And I like to travel with friends, too. When I travel by myself, I can go anywhere I want to go. I don't have to do everything without thinking of a companion. However, if I've lost my way, I've lost my purse, I have to deal with the problem by my own efforts.

When I travel with friends, I can't act just my likes. I have to hear other's opinion, and act such as a group. It may be annoying. However, when we have trouble, we can cooperate to deal with the problem with the group.

I think either traveling alone or a group tour have a good part. We can select one of them according to a kind of the travel.

Japanese Essay

Excerpt from Essay J3-6

以上のように二つの場合の違いを長々と述べてきたわけだが、結局の違いは旅行に、各々が何を求めるかの違いであると僕は思う。前者は異地での体験以上に友達との絆、楽しさを求めている。一方後者は異地との心理的つながりに重点をおいているといえよう。このことは旅の仕方という小さな問題以上にその人の根底をなす思考の違いという深い領域の違いを密やかに映し出しているように思える。人の行動には必ず心理的な源があるという心理学の基本理念を如実に示している。

(English translation of additional component)

(The excerpt below shows an additional component, which is placed immediately before the conclusion and after the body of the essay, in which the writer describes the advantages and disadvantages of both traveling in a group and traveling alone. In the additional component, the writer characterizes each way of traveling in an abstract way.)

Excerpt from Japanese essay (J3-6)

As seen above, I have described differences between the two types of traveling. I think the ultimate difference lies in what you expect from traveling. The former type (traveling in a group) can provide you with the ties of friendship among group members and the pleasure you can share, more than experiences you would get in new places you are visiting. On the other hand, the latter type (traveling alone) attaches more importance to psychological connections you can make with those places. This difference does not just mean different ways of traveling, which is a kind of small matter; it appears to reflect something deeper, a difference in ways of thinking which shape individual persons' mind. That is, it clearly shows the basic concept of psychology that people always have psychological motives for their own behavior.

Appendix 7

Adjusted Frequencies of Discourse Markers in Japanese and English

Table 5: Japanese Discourse Markers (adjusted per 500 characters):
Means and SDs by Group

	Meta-Discourse Markers			Intersentential Markers	Total Markers
	Overall	Partial	Total		
Group 1 (N = 9)	1.55 (1.14)	2.45 (1.09)	3.99 (1.67)	0.55 (0.58)	4.54 (1.53)
Group 2 (N = 7)	1.76 (1.02)	2.13 (1.31)	3.88 (1.91)	1.03 (1.14)	4.91 (1.71)
Group 3 (N = 7)	0.79 (0.33)	1.48 (1.17)	2.27 (1.19)	0.89 (0.52)	3.16 (1.29)
Group 4 (N = 5)	1.22 (0.53)	0.56 (0.33)	1.78 (0.77)	1.81 (0.79)	3.59 (0.75)

Table 6: English Discourse Markers (adjusted per 100 words):
Means and SDs by Group

	Discourse Markers			Intersentential Markers	Total Markers
	Overall	Partial	Total		
Group 1 (N = 9)	0.83 (0.59)	2.13 (1.04)	2.95 (1.31)	1.11 (0.86)	4.07 (1.54)
Group 2 (N = 7)	0.69 (0.97)	1.97 (0.84)	2.66 (1.31)	1.11 (0.90)	3.77 (1.98)
Group 3 (N = 7)	0.06 (0.16)	1.64 (0.28)	1.70 (0.23)	0.95 (0.45)	2.66 (0.56)
Group 4 (N = 5)	0.00 (0.00)	0.10 (0.23)	0.10 (0.23)	2.64 (1.39)	2.74 (1.53)