



BENEMÉRITA UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE PUEBLA
FACULTAD DE LENGUAS

**"ACADEMIC WRITING: A SYLLABUS PROPOSAL BASED ON A
MIXED METHODS ANALYSIS OF ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS"**

For the degree of

LICENCIATURA EN LENGUAS MODERNAS

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DEDICATION

To God.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the Problem

Writing, considered an activity with which most people become involved to express their ideas, is considered a complex task. Hymes (1972, as cited in Gargallo, 1999) suggests that the complexity is due to the grammatical sub-competence and the discursive competence. The same author establishes that grammatical sub-competence implies a full command of the code in all the sense of the linguistic description: the phonetic-phonological-orthographic, morphosyntactic, and lexical-semantic sub-systems. Hymes also states the definition of discursive sub-competence as the ability students need to develop so they accomplish different types of communication; be it oral or written. Oral and written discourse possess certain characteristics which are cohesion, coherence, appropriateness, and correction.

To fulfill these textual features, the writer must demonstrate control of several variables simultaneously at the sentence level and beyond the sentence level. Bell and Burnaby (1984, as cited in Nunan, 1989) state that “At the sentence level these include control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and letter formation. Beyond the sentence level, the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts” (p. 36).

To accomplish this, the writer should bear in mind the genre he is writing and the differences in terms of the rhetorical structure inherent to it. For instance, academic writing, according to Oshima and Hogue (1997), “is the kind of writing that is required in college or university . . . differs from other kinds of writing such as personal, literary, journalistic or

business writing in its special audience, tone and purpose” (p. 2) constrains the lexical and structural elements in a text.

The same authors suggest essay organization patterns such as chronological order, logical division of ideas, cause and effect order, and comparison and contrast order. The assumption might be that an argumentative essay can be structured by judiciously selecting various patterns of organization. However, the task of writing an argumentative essay in English as a foreign language can be extremely difficult. Writing has been researched from various points of view.

Writing has been researched using three approaches. According to Hyland (1995), the approaches can be classified into text-oriented, process-oriented, and reader-oriented. The approach to writing that best suits the present research is text-oriented, and the perspective is texts as discourse. The definition of discourse, according to Hyland (1995), is: “discourse refers to language as use, and to the purposes and functions linguistic forms serve in texts” (p. 11). The same author emphasizes that a text should be visualized as part of social interaction in which communicative purposes are enacted.

The types of previous research on professional and academic writing in English, according to Hyland (1995), include:

- abstracts (Hyland, 2000),
- business response letters (Ghadessy, 1993),
- corporate mission statements (Swales and Rodgers, 1995),
- discussion sections of research articles (Dubois, 1997),
- grant proposals (Connor and Mauranen, 1999),
- method sections of research articles (Paul and Charney, 1995),
- sales letters (Bhatia, 1993), and

- theses (Bunton, 1998; Dudley-Evans, 1993). (p.19)

As it can be seen the literature available is substantial, yet the word argumentative is not explicitly stated in any of the research presented by Hyland. Even though research articles and theses might include a good argument as defined by Damer (1995) as containing relevant, acceptable, sufficient, and rebuttal premises (p. 12), an analysis of argumentative texts is likely to contribute to our knowledge about writing in general and more specifically academic writing in a foreign language environment.

1.2 The Context of the Research

In the context in which the present study took place, English is studied as a foreign language. Professors do their best to give students quality in the long exposure to the language offered by the academic environment of the faculty, and students apply what they have learned outside the classroom. Quality and practice are beneficial for students to learn how to write academic English, yet it is difficult to have a good command of writing, so it becomes difficult to master. This is not to say that mastering writing never occurs, yet to have a good command of it in a short time seems to be an unfeasible objective. The infeasibility may lie in some variables, which might be considered difficulties.

There are sometimes difficulties with keeping a message across due to grammatical structures used, lexical variety, and or the development of ideas in a paragraph that does not fulfill the expectations in the culture of the language and the genre to which the text belongs. Texts written by EFL students can be approached in a disciplined manner. In other words, the texts are likely to give insight into what the students use at their present state of learning English as a foreign language to write an argumentative essay at an advanced undergraduate level in the faculty of language at BUAP in Mexico.

1.3 Significance of the Study

My interest in studying academic writing has led me to undertake a research project that involves a description of argumentative essays. The present study is at various levels that range from a syntactical level to a rhetorical level. A text is constructed using clauses that are combined in various ways resulting in the types of sentences known as simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. This is the level that is more directly related to the grammatical sub-skill. Without proper grammar sentences cannot be constructed.

An argumentative essay is one of the most difficult types of writing since it demands from the writer not only mastery of the sentence but also beyond the sentence level. Beyond the sentence level, it is the paragraph, which can be visualized as a set of related ideas to the topic sentence and the controlling idea. The paragraph level precedes the following plateau which is to organize a text consisting of several paragraphs: an essay.

Once practice and familiarity with the fundamental stages of writing have taken place the application of the rules of logic to construct a good argument occurs. Concurrently, the various rhetorical uses of language appear as tools to achieve our purpose in an argumentative essay. An analysis of the rhetorical moves is also included. Since an argumentative essay consists of several ideas which are devoted to their own paragraphs, our text must be cohesive and coherent.

An argumentative essay must not only be grammatically, rhetorically and logically appropriate but also exhibit cohesion and coherence. The cohesion and coherence of the argumentative essays are also analyzed and described. Transition signals are used to study cohesion. The sentence connectors used are for, and, nor, or, but, yet, and so. These connectors are commonly referred to by the mnemonic FANBOYS. The coherence of the texts was studied

using topical progression. The types of topical progressions were identified using topical analysis as suggested by Connor (1996).

An argumentative essay is usually written to fulfill a requirement. If an argumentative essay is framed under the minimum of what constitutes a research paper, which Nunan (1995) claims the minimum to be a question, data and analysis and interpretation, the argumentative essay is likely to have in common the notions of addressing a question, analysis and interpretation. In terms of argumentation, an argumentative essay might well include a claim, warrant and some type of support. These two fundamental characteristics of argumentative writing, which are researching and argumentation, are evaluated along with coherence and cohesion, rhetorical moves, and types of sentences to assess the essays.

Teaching academic writing is inexorably related to writing assessment in this thesis. The practical significance of this thesis is to apply the sentence level, beyond the sentence level, logical, rhetorical, and writing assessment, to conduct a needs analysis. The communicative academic writing needs of the students are of the utmost importance. The empirical process of analyzing the essays guides the needs analysis. In terms of applied linguistics, Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) emphasize that research is not limited to confirming or disconfirming “some part of a central theory. research questions are interesting to the extent that they can (a) apply to theory formation or theory testing, (b) ... to practice ... or (c) to theory and practice” (p. 4).

The culminating point is applying the findings and results to present an academic writing proposal. From the sentence level to needs analysis, the following step is to suggest what to teach in an academic writing class.

1.4 General Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of this research is to explore argumentation in academic writing in the form of argumentative essays. The argumentative essays collected using a scheduled writing task, which can be seen in Appendix A, were written by advanced-level students at the faculty of language in BUAP. The analysis of the texts involves four concepts associated with writing. At the sentence level, the types of sentences are described. At the paragraph level, coherence and cohesion, logic, and rhetorical moves are analyzed. These two levels of analysis are employed to score the essays so that students' communicative needs can be identified.

The result of undertaking this research is to present an academic writing syllabus proposal based on the analysis of argumentative texts in an EFL environment and on the identification of students' communicative writing needs. To fulfill this general purpose, it is dissected into specific purposes. The specific purposes are organized into quantitative and qualitative. The specific purposes are matched chronologically to the research questions. This is the justification that specific purpose number two is presented first to research question six. The following table illustrates such an organization:

Table 1*Interrelatedness between Specific Purposes and Research Questions*

Specific Purpose	Research Question	Type of Research Paradigm
1	1	Quantitative
2	6	Quan
3	2	Quan
4	3	Quan
5	4 and 5	Qualitative
6	7	Qual
7	8	Qual
8	9	Qual

1.5 Specific Purpose Number One

First, the type of sentences students used to write their argumentative essays were studied. The description of the types of sentences is based on the classification of simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. At the sentence level, clauses are the fundamental pieces with which sentences are constructed. Consequently, this specific purpose involved to identify the dependent and independent clauses. The rest of the specific purposes benefited from this analysis at the sentence level due to the effectiveness in identifying paragraphs, which in turn facilitated the study of rhetorical moves, cohesion, coherence, and logic.

1.6 Specific Purpose Number Two

Second, the rhetorical moves students employed to write argumentative essays were described. The first stage of the analysis of rhetorical moves was carried out in terms of the classification in the selection students use to generate their argumentative essays. The process of writing an argumentative essay involves different phases, among the main stages considered, the prewriting, the writing, and post-writing stages. Each one of the previously mentioned phases goes hand in hand with their corresponding pre-writing strategies, during-writing strategies, and post-writing strategies. The selection of rhetorical moves is likely to be present in each stage described above.

1.7 Specific Purpose Number Three

Third, a description of the most common devices to build up the cohesive aspect of the text was given. This part of the analysis sheds light upon the level beyond the sentence, which is the paragraph level. The fundamental connectors considered in this piece of research are for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so. The acronym used to refer to these transition signals is FANBOYS.

1.8 Specific Purpose Number Four

Fourth, the topical progression of the essays was studied as well. Semantic consecution of ideas with no help of explicit cohesive signals, which are considered an elaborate use of ties in this paper, were also described. If there is any elaborate use of coherence-related aspects, such aspects were described in terms of the grammatical subskill.

1.9 Specific Purpose Number Five

The analysis of the argumentative essays using the Toulmin model of argumentation was carried out. The analysis was intended to identify the fundamental elements known as the claim, the warrant, and the support. The model involves analyzing an argument in terms of data,

warrant, backing, qualifier, rebuttal, and claim. Assumptions, counter-arguments, and implications are also parts of an argument. The Toulmin model was used to delineate the arguments.

1.10 Specific Purpose Number Six

The purpose is to evaluate the argumentative essays to obtain a score. Even though a score partially indicates where students stand in the process of learning English, a grade is commonly used in standardized tests. Moreover, a grade is assigned to each piece of writing students are asked to produce in an academic writing class. The importance of quantitative measures is found, among others, in TOEFL, IELTS, Cambridge, and British Council tests. Non-quantitative assessment and an evaluative checklist were employed.

1.11 Specific Purpose Number Seven

The students' communicative needs are identified using argumentative essays. A needs analysis grounded on the sentence level and beyond the sentence level is undertaken to propose a syllabus for advanced EFL students who take academic writing for the first time. The importance of the theoretical analyses, along with the more practical tasks of writing assessment and identifying students' academic writing needs, converge at this point.

1.12 Specific Purpose Number Eight

Lastly, an academic writing syllabus proposal will be presented. The theoretical aspects of the analyses serve as the foundations on which the syllabus is based. The observations made by Nunan (1988) were used for this.

1.13 Research Questions

This paper addresses the following general research question:

1. How can argumentative academic texts written by EFL students be analyzed to identify students' communicative needs?

The specific questions framed under this broad research question are:

1. What types of sentences do the students use to write their text?
2. What are the most common transition signals?
3. What are the types of topical progressions present in the text?
4. Which fundamental elements of an argument are present?
5. How is the stand taken by the author supported?
6. Which are the rhetorical moves used by the students to write their text?
7. What is the average score of the texts?
8. What are the students' writing communicative needs?
9. What does a syllabus for an academic writing course have to include to meet those needs?

1.14 Chapter Summary and Thesis Overview

The main elements of the development of this piece of research are the study of the texts written by students in the form of an argumentative essay. It is hoped that the battery of instruments designed for the present research gives some insight into the elements used to give the argumentative essay cohesion and coherence as well as the elements of the argument constructed by the students.

The aspect of the writing process studied in this research is only the text produced by the students, yet a professional assumption has been made by the author: academic writing texts can be used to construct a syllabus that meets students' needs. Claiming this assumption to be valid, the argumentative essays were assessed, and the students' communicative needs were identified.

The research questions of this mixed method non-experimental study focused on aspects of argumentative essays. The sentence and beyond-the-sentence levels are the more theoretical. Writing assessment needs analysis, and syllabus design is the practical side of this thesis. All these aspects are oriented towards the design of an academic writing syllabus. Each one of the research questions contributes to suggesting an approach to answer the general research question. Following, a critical review of the literature is given on the conceptual framework for this thesis project.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The conceptual framework for the thesis is briefly summarized. The present literature review starts with the definition of writing and its nature which is closely associated with the concept of culture. Moreover, the description of the text types that are considered of paramount importance in the academic environment is defined and discussed, among which persuasive or argumentative writing is outstanding for the purpose of this thesis. To study argumentative essays, approaches to the research of writing are subsequently described. Following the section where some approaches are described, the emphasis that has been given to writing along the continuum of language teaching is presented.

In subsequent sections, the notions of controlled writing and free writing are presented. Once such notions are available, researching and teaching writing appears. This section is extremely important. Logic is included in the topic of current traditional rhetoric. Since language learning has at its core communication, the sections on the communicative approach to the teaching of writing and the process and product approach sections are presented. English for specific purposes, English for academic purposes, and the writing across the curriculum model constitute a subsequent block of concepts. Coherence and cohesion, which are claimed to give the text texture, are reviewed. The aspects of grammar, organization, and syntax and the studies on contrastive rhetoric have their own sections at the end of this literature review.

2.2 Writing

The concept of writing on which the subsequent terms are based needs to be defined. Bell and Burnaby (1984, as cited in Nunan, 1989) offer us the following definition:

Writing is an extremely complex activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of several variables simultaneously. At the sentence level, these include control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and letter formation. Beyond the sentence, the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs (p. 36).

There are indeed many variables involved when writing a text. Some of these variables have been mentioned in the quote above, yet there are other variables related to the writing done by students whose mother tongue is not English.

The following statement made by Kaplan (1987, as cited in Connor, 1989) emphasizes the learnable characteristic of writing: “Writing is a ‘post-biological’ step and obviously is not universal to all people” (p. 100). According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, the prefix post- means: after, subsequent, or later. Consequently, the statement made by Kaplan ought to be understood in the sense that writing requires in-depth formal instruction.

The interplay between writing and reading plays a tremendously important role when writing. Cassany (2011) states that composition involves not only the writing ability but also the reading, listening, and speaking abilities (p. 39). This interrelationship between language skills is even more important in a foreign language environment. Hyland (2002) establishes that “writing together with reading is a central aspect of literacy, a learned ability which resides in people’s heads and facilitates logical thinking and active participation in the roles in modern society” (p. 53).

For Bell and Burnaby (1984), writing is a skill that highly demands students to have an excellent command of sentence-related aspects as well as those aspects related beyond it. Writing is a learnable activity that few people develop to an extent that can be considered acceptable as a form of writing with the characteristics mentioned in Bell and Burnaby's definition. For instance, people are in touch with writing to some extent every day, but the type of writing is only directed or intended for them. In other words, the audience to whom the writing is directed has enough context to make the text as meaningful as the context allows it.

Even if the text does not have what Bell and Burnaby considered as the coherence and cohesion aspects, these two important characteristics should be included and developed in a piece of writing that is intended for someone else. For instance, notes taken in class are cohesive and coherent for the author of such writing, yet this type of writing must be carefully rewritten to be included in an academic text. Another element that complements writing is reading.

Reading allows people to be in close contact with the parameters of writing; consequently, readers might be getting important information as to how and when to use certain aspects related to spelling, grammatical structures, connectors, and rhetorical devices. Afterward, readers, if they decide to do so, can use this knowledge according to the type of text demanded. For example, syntactic structures that appear in a text are likely to be used in the text written by the writer, who was first a reader. In this light, writing as well as reading are of the utmost importance for people who live in a literate society and whose activities demand to a greater extent (are constrained by) these learned abilities.

In conclusion, writing is a complex, learnable ability; a good command of the elements at the sentence level, as well as beyond it, is needed. Writing is of the utmost importance in modern

societies because these societies require literate people to accomplish their work effectively, productively, and constructively.

2.3 Nature and Purpose of Writing

According to Halliday (1985, as cited in Nunan 1989), writing has been created due to the difficulties found in trying to achieve activities that surpass the versatility of speaking. These activities might include those related to action, information, or entertainment. For instance, the vast knowledge humanity possesses would not have been possible if it were not contained in books. The importance of writing is highlighted by Hillocks (1995). For this author, writing is the bridge that unites the meaning of the text contained and the audience's interpretation of it. This interaction is likely to produce new knowledge once the ideas have been explored in-depth and the implications have been unveiled.

Writing is completely different from speaking due to its permanent nature. In the view of Liberman and Liberman (1990, as cited in Grabe and Kaplan, 1996), "Writing is technology; writing is not a natural ability that automatically accompanies maturation. Writing —particularly the more complex composing skill valued in academia— involves training, instruction, practice, experience, and purpose" (p. 6).

Summarizing, writing is a skill that clearly surpasses the scope of spoken language, and the difficulty of doing it appropriately needs to take into account the meaning that will be strengthened by words and the audience to whom the writing is directed. Relative to the aspect that refers to the writing skill as an outreaching and broadening skill, it might be noted that convergence of minds is possible because of the writing skill and reading skill. In other words, knowledge of each one of the sciences is saved and can be accessed by anyone interested in

learning. A definition for writing and its nature and purpose have been briefly discussed, yet writing is closely related to the culture in which it is embedded and carried out.

2.4 Writing and Culture

The Merriam-Webster Dictionary presents the following definition of culture: “the customary beliefs, social forms, of ... a group”. A more elaborate definition of culture is given by Goodenough (1957, as cited in Duranti, 1997): “A culture is not a behavior or emotions. It is rather an organization of these things. It is the forms of things that people have in mind, their models for perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting them” (p. 27). Departing from this definition of culture, among the many pieces of what culture is constituted, there exist learned abilities. One of the most prominent abilities of this type is writing.

Kaplan (1966, as cited in Brown, 2000, p. 337) suggests that writing obeys certain requirements dictated by the culture in which writing is manifested. In other words, how ideas are conveyed varies from culture to culture. This claim has been depicted by a diagram where we can see the linearity or otherwise circular or other direction that ideas take in the text. In this diagram, the organization of ideas in Spanish is visualized as a line that goes to the left and the right of the center. The type of organization of ideas in Spanish contrasts greatly when compared to how ideas are organized and developed in English. At this point, it might be recommendable to read what Thompson (2013) suggests in terms of the concept of culture.

In the opinion of Thompson (2013), “culture is the pattern of meanings embodied in symbolic forms, including actions, utterances and meaningful objects of various kinds, by which individuals communicate with one another and share their experiences, concepts and beliefs” (p. 132). Experiences and beliefs orbit about concepts, ideas, statements, claims, arguments, and more elaborate forms of thinking. While it might be true that all concepts are the same

independent of the culture, expressing those concepts in the form of a text takes the form of a particular pattern that must be satisfied to convey meaning adequately. This is due to the membership the text must obey.

In the opinion of Kramsch (1998) culture is the “membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting” (p. 127). Each culture has its own symbolic forms which are constrained by standards shared in the discourse community. These standards should be learned to behave acceptably in the community in any aspect in which each individual manifests themselves as a member of the society. Consequently, culture consists also of writing since culturally established standards such as the linear development of thought favored in the English language should be followed so that native English speakers have no difficulties when reading any kind of paper that a non-native speaker of English has written.

In conclusion, the text should meet the characteristic linearity to be accepted and considered meaningful. Once the writing is accepted, it can take any of the forms to achieve a specific purpose. For instance, the text can be a clear-cut type such as: descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentative, and instructive. Also, the text can be made up of each one of the above-mentioned types.

2.5 Text Types

Werlich (1976, as cited in Connor, 1996) suggests “each text type favors certain linguistic forms related to syntax organization and style. Each also appears in the situation-specific text forms as either with a writer’s personal point of view or with an objective point of view” (pp. 108-109). The text types referred to are descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentative, or instructive. The syntactic element, as well as the stylistic element, are also important. From

concepts, ideas are structured into grammatically and syntactically well-structured sentences. Once ideas are in the form of sentences that obey the patterns of the culture in which writing takes place, the purpose of a text can be selected.

Smith (2003) helps us immensely in understanding what the purpose of each text type is:

Description sets forth the qualities of things as they appear to the eye or the senses; narration tells what happens, putting the events in meaningful order; exposition explains, denies, analyzes, illustrates, compares; and argumentation seeks to persuade through evidence or emotional appeal (p. 123).

In addition to the purpose of a text, Smith (2003) suggests that “each mode introduces certain types of situations — event, state, generalization, abstraction — into the universe of discourse. The modes also have characteristic principles of progression, temporal and atemporal” (p. 8).

To conclude, text types achieve different purposes; however, the authors may share some characteristics that help the writer to communicate with their audience using only a type or a variety of these text types to create a more elaborate text to achieve other purposes according to the situation.

2.6 Description

The description seems to be the first type of text a beginning student of English practices. To enter the discussion of descriptive texts, from our academic writing course, a text is divided into paragraphs. There is usually an introduction, the body of the text, and the conclusion. Donald, Morrow, Wargetz, and Werner (1996) argue that “a descriptive essay must provide specific details to support a central impression. Frequently, each paragraph in the body will deal with one specific aspect of the subject. All must contribute to the one central impression” (p. 87).

The general nature of the ideas presented in the above quote makes us realize that a descriptive text orbits about what the perceived qualities of something or somebody are. Moreover, the authors remind us that to write about each aspect of what is described, a paragraph must be devoted to that aspect. Description seems to be the easiest type of text to write, yet this type of text can be very complex.

The complexity might likely lie in the detail that the writer wants to capture. Chesterman (1998) states that “in the description, the main focus is on phenomena in a spatial context. A preliminary proposal for a descriptive text would be that, minimally, there must be a setting episode and a center one” (pp. 163, 167). Literary texts are just one example in which descriptive writing can be found, yet many non-literary texts use description.

In concluding this section, it might be of great help to read the following definition and some examples of descriptive writing. In the opinion of Connor (1996)

Descriptive writing tells the ‘what’: what something is or looks like, what happened in an experiment, what someone did, and so forth. Examples of descriptive writing include the precis, summary, abstract, lab report, essay exam responses that inform the instructor about whether or not students have retained particular information, and descriptive research papers (p. 16).

A descriptive text consists of a detailed description of the phenomena presented in a spatial context. The focus of a descriptive text is the “what”. At least, the episodes should be the setting and the center; this type of text communicates to the reader the what of a situation. Hence, descriptive texts give a detailed picture of the issue in question.

2.7 Narration

A narrative text can be structured very generally into stages. Chesterman (1998) suggests that “in narration, the focus is on temporal phenomena. The main episodes can be labeled

beginning, setting, complication, resolution, and ending” (pp. 166-167). Donald et al. (1996) state that “the easiest and most logical order for a narrative is chronological. ... you must present the events of your story in the proper time sequence so that you take your reader with you” (p. 48).

The most common type of narrative is the linear narrative. Lacey (2000) proposes that what distinguishes narrative from other forms is that it presents information as a connected sequence of events. The most basic narratives are linear sequences structured causally...” (pp. 13-14). The body of this type of text is developed by topic sentences using chronological order so that readers have no difficulties when reading it. In narrative writing, time-related circumstances are presented throughout as many episodes that make the text coherent as well as complete relative to the issue in question.

Summarizing, narrative writing presents information in chronological order. On the one hand, non-academic writing consists of five episodes: beginning, setting, complication, resolution, and ending. On the other hand, in academic narrative writing, when used to prove a thesis, chronological order is used so that readers easily follow the chain of reasoning.

2.8 Exposition / Explanation

In an increasing level of difficulty, it is now the turn for a text in which the writer explains. Smith (2003) establishes that this type of text encompasses more elaborate forms of thinking such as analysis, definition, illustration, comparison and contrast, classification and division, and cause and effect. One can also include a description to enrich our exposition. According to Warriner (1961), examples of this type of text are “letters, reports, summaries, directions—in short, the kind of writing most of us do most frequently. Often the explanations are brief and simple. At other times they may be complex, as in explaining a theory or subtle

idea” (p. 115). In terms of the complexity that exposition is likely to involve, Chesterman (1998) asserts that:

In exposition, the main focus is on the analysis and synthesis of constituent elements of concepts. Expository text types of some kinds have highly conventionalized episodic structures. Experimental papers in the natural sciences keep close to the set introduction, data, methods, results, discussion, and conclusion. To these episodes, we can add at least a problem, solution, and evaluation (pp. 166-167).

Exposition is complemented by using different types of methods and the use of such methods is constrained by the purpose of writing. This type of writing is usually used to show people how something works. Thus, expository writing deals with the explanation of concepts; this is accomplished by analyzing a concept and then synthesizing it.

2.9 Persuasion / Argumentation

Once the various types of texts can be considered the building blocks to writing more complex texts, the type of texts my piece of research deals with appears argumentation. Smith (2003) states that this type of writing is one of the most prominent. In this type of writing, logic, evidence, and drawn conclusions are used by the writer. What’s even more important is that the thesis that characterizes this type of writing must be seriously justified. Donald et al. (1996) present what an argumentative essay consists of:

In the body of an argumentative essay, you present both the facts and the logical and emotional appeals to back up your position. You may use comparison, contrast, analogy, statistical evidence, examples, anecdotes, personal experience, observation, or any combination of methods and materials to support your thesis. You need to provide valid evidence to support your stand (p. 312).

Rereading the quote above, learning the fundamentals of writing and the writing process are alluded to. The importance of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and the thesis statement are implied. What makes this type of writing more complex is that its structure demands the writer to use logic and documented evidence. Probably the most important characteristic of argumentative essays is to deal with opposing views to our claims. This is stated by Hacker (2011):

There is no best place in an essay to deal with opposing views. Often it is useful to summarize the opposing position early in your essay. After stating your thesis but before developing your own arguments. You might have a paragraph that addresses the most important counterexamples. Or you can anticipate objections paragraph by paragraph as you develop your case. Sometimes a better plan is to anticipate objections as you develop the case paragraph by paragraph. Wherever you decide to deal with opposing arguments, you will enhance your credibility if you explain the arguments of others accurately and fairly. (p. 86)

Argumentative writing is considered a major type of writing since it should provide a set of arguments to support a thesis. In the body of the essay, valid evidence should be provided. Moreover, it is recommended to include logical and emotional appeals to achieve the purpose of the writer: to convince other people of the validity of their conclusions.

2.10 Writing along the Continuum of Language Teaching

A brief overview of the role that writing plays in the different methods and approaches to language teaching is in order. To start with, the classical method used before the 1800s “focuses on grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjugations, translations of texts, doing written exercises” (Brown, 2000, p. 18). Here, the activity of doing

written exercises was the most important aspect highlighted in learning a language, not for the sake of oral communication but, as Brown (2000) stated, for “the sake of being scholarly or, in some instances, for gaining a reading proficiency in a foreign language” (p. 18).

According to Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979, as cited in Brown, 2000), a few of the main characteristics of Grammar Translation are:

1. classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language; 2. much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words; 7. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue. (p. 18)

There might not be advocates for this approach because there seem to be no foundations upon which the activities are based, yet the elements of translating from the mother tongue to the target language seem to be a strategy on which the majority of students rely to start bridging the gap and subsequently use less to reach the target language. This method might not be used by the teacher but it is used by the students.

After the 1800's, the Gouin and the Series Method were developed. According to Brown (2000), Gouin came to the following conclusions about learning a language:” Language learning is primarily a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions. Children use language to represent their conceptions. Language is a means of thinking, of representing the world to oneself” (p. 20). The culmination of Gouin's observations is the Series Method “a method that taught learners directly (without translation) and conceptually (without grammatical rules and explanations) a series of connected sentences that are easy to perceive” (Brown, 2000, p.20). The success of the series Method lied in that the sentences used to help students learn the target

language were "so easily understood, stored, recalled, and related to reality" (Brown, 2000, p.20).

In the Series Method to language learning, there is no explicit mention of the writing skill, yet the counterpart of the writing skill, which is reading, was used to teach students the target language. It might be that the series method suggested that writing skills were taught implicitly.

In the 1900's, the direct method was suggested to teach languages. The direct method has opposite characteristics to those of the classical method and the grammar-translation method. The most important characteristic is that the "classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, as cited in Brown, 2000, p.21). This difference in the form of instruction might lead to students taking risks to communicate in the classroom.

From the 1930s to the 1950s, the audiolingual method emerged to fulfill the communicative needs of the epoch. The audiolingual method was created to meet the needs of a group of people for whom the learning of a foreign language was of vital importance. The main purpose of this method was the oral communication ability. Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979, as cited in Brown, 2000) suggest the audiolingual method (ALM) is characterized mainly by:

1. New material is presented in dialogue form.
2. There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation.
3. Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.
4. There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances. (p. 23)

The teaching of writing makes no appearance in the use of this method. The emphasis was on providing students with the ability to communicate rather than to express themselves via writing.

Between the 60s and 70s cognitive code learning emerged to provide language teaching with another view of the issue in question. According to Brown H. Douglas (2000), “cognitive code learning was not so much of a method as it was an approach that emphasized a conscious awareness of rules and their applications to second language learning” (p. 24). The rules that were learned to be applied were taught deductively with a special emphasis on drilling grammatical structures. Brown (2000) suggests that the “rote drilling bored students, overt cognitive attention to the rules, paradigms, intricacies, and exceptions of a language overtaxed the mental reserves of language students” (p. 24).

After the '70s, the designer methods were presented to meet the needs of another type of students and gave the profession “some spice and verve,” as Brown H. Douglas suggests. The first method to review from the five that were designed in the 70's is called Communicative Language Learning (CLL).

The principles of the CLL method are: “discovery learning is carried out, student-centered participation is fostered, and development of student autonomy is sought” (Brown, 2000, p.27). Discovery learning arises from examining the sentences provided by the professor who acted as a counselor to the student's needs. Student-centered participation was called to the students being the ones who marked the direction of the class with the careful assistance of the counselor. Student autonomy was called to the stage at which the students have become independent after a long time, which could range from months to years. The main

characteristic of the communicative language method is that it takes into consideration the affective factors that arise in language learning.

The second method is Suggestopedia. The foundations upon which this method is based is the work of Bulgarian psychologist Georgy Lozanov's contention that the human brain could process great quantities of material if given the right conditions for learning, among which are a state of relaxation and giving over of control to the teacher" (Brown, 2001, p. 27). The suggestions made by the Suggestopedia method, which might be added to the richness accumulated up to this decade, are: the brain is capable of attaining difficult learning tasks, and it is beneficial to induce states of relaxation in the classroom. This last point is carried out in the form of playing music.

The third method is The Silent Way. According to Richards and Rogers (as cited in Brown, 2000), the theory of learning behind the Silent Way method is:

1. Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned,
2. Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects,
3. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned. (p. 28)

The contribution of the Silent Way method to the language teaching profession is to pay attention to the degree of discovery used and demanded in the different stages of the lesson to achieve learning.

The fourth method is the Total Physical Response (TPR). This method relied on the "principle of psychomotor associations" (Brown, 2000, p. 30); in other words, the association of learning with physical activity seemed to strengthen learning. This method followed the principle of Gouin's Series Method which was that "language associated with a series of simple actions

will be easily retained by learners” (Brown, 2000, p. 30). Other principles that were followed to cement this method are principles relative to child language acquisition. According to Asher (as cited in Brown, 2001), “children in learning their first language appear to do a lot of listening before they speak, and that their listening is accompanied by physical responses” (p. 30). By Asher’s observations, the TPR method was designed. This method was characterized by extensive use of listening and acting; the teacher serves as the “director of the stage”.

The fifth method was the natural approach which was founded on the theories of second language acquisition by Stephen Krashen. This method was designed by Tracy Terrell, who was one of Krashen’s colleagues. According to Brown (2000):

learners move through what Krashen and Terrell defined as three stages: a. The preproduction stage is the development of listening comprehension skills, b. The early production stage is usually marked with error as the student struggles with the language, and c. the last stage is one of extending production into longer stretches of discourse involving more complex games, role-plays, open-ended dialogues, discussions, and extended small-group work. (p. 31)

In the decade of the 1990s, the communicative language teaching method appeared to maintain itself as the method to follow up to this day. The basic premise of the communicative language teaching method is that it considers language as communication. Brown (2000) emphasizes six characteristics of communicative language teaching (CLT):

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of *communicative competence* [emphasis added]. Goals therefore must intertwine the organizational aspects of language with the pragmatic.

2. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for *meaningful purposes* [emphasis added]. Organizational language forms are not the central focus, but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. *Fluency and accuracy* [emphasis added] are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
4. Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom. *Classroom tasks* [emphasis added] must therefore equip students with the skills necessary for communication in those contexts.
5. Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own *styles of learning* [emphasis added] and through the developments of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning [emphasis added].
6. The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide, not an all-knowing bestower of knowledge. Students are therefore encouraged to construct meaning through *genuine linguistic interaction* [emphasis added] with others. (p. 43)

In summary, different methods have given writing a weighting. The communicative language teaching method highlights important concepts that can be applied to the teaching of academic writing in a foreign language environment.

2.11 Controlled to Free Writing

Concepts related to the teaching of this ability, which is writing, need to be also clearly defined. The methods to teach writing are broadly divided into controlled and free writing. Reid (1993) stated that “the philosophy of controlled writing grew directly out of the alms: students are taught incrementally, error is prevented and fluency is expected to arise out of practice with structures” (p. 27). By incrementally we must understand that students have already been exposed to the syntax and grammar of the target language to construct sentences. Then, different types of sentences are written, and finally, a paragraph is structured. The academic writing journey does not end in a paragraph, but it continues to more elaborate types of texts.

Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) advise the use of different types of productive tasks along with the controlled type of writing. These authors suggest using model-based tasks bearing in mind that the tasks can be classified according to grammatical, rhetorical, or communicative focus.

Brown (2000) highlights some uses of writing as a productive task:

writing is sometimes used as a production mode of learning, reinforcing or testing grammatical concepts. This intensive writing typically appears in controlled written grammar exercises. This type of writing would not allow much, if any, creativity on the part of the writer. A common form of controlled writing is to present a paragraph to students in which they have to alter a given structure throughout. (p. 238)

From the quote above it is highly likely an odyssey to move from controlled writing to free writing.

To sum up, controlled writing, on the one hand, has to do with learning to write sequentially; students start to practice with patterns so that they become accustomed to the

structure of the particular type of writing they will emulate when they start writing. The purpose of such an activity is to provide students with the pattern used in the written language which might expand each one of the students' horizons. The subsequent stage is called free writing. On the other hand, free writing is characterized by the assimilation of the sub-skills relative to writing, which gives the student the ability to express themselves at least in a still controlled environment to keep fostering good writing habits that are likely to lead students to success in the long term.

2.12 Researching and Teaching Writing

The present section is organized into two sections: researching writing and the teaching of writing. The first part focuses on the most useful approaches to researching writing for the present paper. Hyland (2002) suggests three approaches to research writing. Each approach focuses on the text, the writer, or the role of the readers. It can be seen the richness of the variables upon which writing is rooted. Among all these variables the focus on texts is emphasized. Before proceeding to the elaboration on the ideas presented, it might be worth presenting what the same author suggests in terms of the approaches whose focus is the texts:

The first group of approaches to writing focuses on its tangible, analyzable aspects by viewing writing as textual products. By establishing a concern for material form these theories have in common an interest in the linguistic or rhetorical resources available to writers for producing texts, and so reduce the intricacies of human communication to the manageable and concrete. (p. 6)

The same author contrasts this approach in which texts are analyzed superficially and isolated from their use with the view of texts as discourse. Hyland states that “all [text as discourse approaches] have sought to discover how writers use patterns of language options to

accomplish coherent, purposeful prose” (p. 10). Elaboration on the concept of discourse by the same author directs the attention to “language as use, and to the purposes and functions linguistic forms serve in texts” (p. 11). As a result, Hyland highlights that the paradigm widens and relates texts with communication in social contexts.

Communication can be considered as a cognitive activity if a psycholinguistic view is adopted. Writing, which is a form of communication, can also be framed within cognition as a process to express our ideas. Zamel (1983, in Hyland, 2002) explains that a cognitive model describes writing as a nonlinear process in which the writer is continuously improving their drafts to communicate efficiently and meaningfully. Emig (1983, as cited in Hyland, 2002, p. 25) states that:

A great deal of research has revealed the complexity of planning and editing activities, the influence of task and the value of examining what writers do as a source of data.

Case-studies and think aloud protocols have been widely employed to construct cognitive models of what writers do when they write.

Cassany (2011) suggests a model to teach how to write. The methodological framework in which it is embedded is the communicative approach to language, which emphasizes learning the language in meaningful situations. Moreover, other methods of language teaching that have given heavy weight to other variables, such as grammar, the process of composition, or the academic content in texts, have been considered. First, a general model of the practices in the classroom is presented. This model is operationalized using two pedagogical sequences of activities, which are devoted to their own units.

In the present train of thought, which has developed from the description of the theoretical perspectives and some ways to study writing, it is the turn for suggestions on how to

teach writing by using the existing scientifically developed textbooks. According to Swales (2000):

English in Today's Research World (ETRW) is also an outcome of our experiences with teaching the two most advanced writing courses at the University of Michigan's English Language Institute, ELI 520 (Research Paper Writing) and ELI 600 (Thesis and Dissertation Writing). ... if used judiciously, [ETRW can] also be helpful to graduate students who have English as their first language or who are bilingual or bidialectal. ... this is "an advanced text mainly designed for junior scholars and graduate students who are not native speakers of English". (p. 1)

Hyland, on the book by Swales entitled English in Today's Research World (ETRW), states that "the book draws on the array of genres which form the basis of postgraduate study and professional publication, and take advantage of the burgeoning research in discourse analysis and English for Academic Purposes" (p. 112).

The value of the genre approach and the assumptions associated is elaborated by Swales (1999, as cited in Hyland, 2002):

There are several assumptions and principles that undergird the teaching materials, which are designed for senior graduate students who may come from a wide range of disciplines, professions and programs. First, that there is value in a genre-based approach, especially one that sees academic communications as being composed of a loose network of interlocking genres. Second, we take it as given that we are more concerned with producing better academic writers than with simply producing better academic texts. In other words, we aim to provide our participants with skills and strategies that will generalize beyond the narrow temporal domains of our actual courses.

This in turn means that we place considerable emphasis on rhetorical consciousness-raising and linguistic awareness. One activity that increases this level of linguistic meta-cognition is to have the participants themselves engage in their own discourse analysis. (p. 114)

Swales (2000) suggests that the purpose of ETRW is to help raise students' rhetorical consciousness. The dynamics of such an ambitious objective involve students conducting analyses on the writing required in their fields and sharing the findings with the class. This method of teaching advanced writing has been successful. Swales exemplifies what advanced teachers of academic writing do to improve their students' writing:

We introduce research findings about research English wherever appropriate, and again we are "up front" about areas of uncertainty, ignorance, or conflicting findings. It is our experience that our participants react better to such expressions of honesty than to a more stridently prescriptive approach, since these hesitations seem to accord more closely with their own attitudes about research, scholarship, knowledge, and knowledge claims. (p. vi)

The emphasis on having sound theoretical foundations to undertake is prominent. The organizing principle for the elaboration orbits about the general divisions of approaches to the study of writing on the one hand. On the other hand, once some of the methods for the study of writing have been discussed, one of the models to teach writing is presented to bring into play the theory with the procedures to teach academic writing in English in a foreign language environment.

The discussion in terms of the concepts presented by Hyland (2002) is in order. To study writing, there are various approaches to be embraced by researchers depending on the particular design of their research and the object under scrutiny as well as the scope of the piece of

research. To narrow down the various elements involved in writing, Hyland presents the first approach to the study of writing, which emphasizes the tangible side of writing. It might be said that writing is seen here, for the sake of convenience, as a dichotomy of concrete and abstract sides. It has been the concrete side of writing that has been presented as one of the starting points to delve into the study of writing. Nevertheless, it is mentioned that human communication entails more than the concrete side. Consequently, the cognitive approach to the study of writing is suggested to further consider the variables that come into play in writing.

Another perspective presented by Hyland suggests the inclusion of the social variable by highlighting the importance of considering the text as surrounded by a society in which the text means. In other words, the text is being considered by relating it to the reader who engages with the text. It is this variable conceptualized in the word of the audience that is considered in the third classification of approaches to study writing. The importance of having clear theoretical foundations to research writing is highly likely to broaden a teacher's horizon to professionally teach English. To make the transition from the theoretical suggestions presented by Hyland, we turn our attention to the high-quality methods that are available to teach advanced writing.

The book by Swales entitled *English in Today's Research World (ETRW)* is an example of the applied theory of the study of writing to the teaching of advanced writing for non-native speakers of English. This book presents its framework based on the analysis of the texts from the point of view of genre analysis. Since it is an advanced book, it takes for granted that the demands on the side of the student might be greatly imposed to learn to write by undertaking analysis of the genres they are expected to write in their advanced studies.

ETRW is one of the books that is highly likely to be selected to be included in the design of an advanced writing course syllabus as well as to implement the course. To design a course,

there are some of the elements presented by Cassany, who suggests delineating teachers' procedures by knowing where the theory that is being applied stands and how the theory is applied.

Cassany suggests a methodological framework within the concepts associated with the communicative approach (CLT), yet taking into account the rest of the methods that are relevant to the teaching of writing, Cassany points out the importance of including the array of various methods to teach writing such as the approach which orbits about the concept of grammar. The model which is presented by Cassany highlights the importance of conceptualizing writing as a process as well as a product. The model includes the various variables which were discussed by Hyland.

2.13 Current Traditional Rhetoric

According to Merriam-Webster's dictionary, rhetoric means "the art of speaking or writing effectively." Learning English as a foreign language to reach the point of speaking and writing as an art requires great effort. One of the greatest challenges is to communicate the concepts and ideas in the pattern used by native speakers of English. This aspect of expressing what can be seen as an abstraction into words that comply with the manner in the target language has been studied. Kaplan (1967, as cited in Kroll, 1990) defined rhetoric as:

The method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns suggested that ESL writers employ a rhetoric and a sequence of thought which violate the expectations of the native reader (1966). Thus, because *first language interference* [emphasis added] was seen as extending beyond the sentence level, more pattern drill, . . . at *the rhetorical level* [emphasis added] rather than at the syntactic level (1967) was called for. It was necessary to provide the student with a form within which he may operate (1966). (pp. 11-12)

First, the quote above is in the context of English as a second language (ESL). Kaplan's observations are based on how ESL writers were developing their writing ability. To have a clearer view of what this involves, Hyland (2002) tells what rhetoric involves:

rhetoric is essentially the role of discourse toward some end: how language can be used to persuade, convince, or elicit support. It describes the ways that writers attempt to engage their audiences, gain assent for their views, or establish the credibility of a reported event through the organization and style of their discourses. (p. 208)

Even more to the point is that writing helps students improve their critical thinking. Raschke (1996, as cited in Williams, 1998) states that "new rhetoric inherently values writing, not only as part of formal education but also as a means of discovery and self-definition. New rhetoric also values analysis and argumentation for their own sake and as ways to master content knowledge ..." (p. 38).

Kaplan's theory suggests that there are established norms that need to be followed to organize sentences to form a coherent and cohesive type of text, rhetoric. Rhetoric is seen as the side of discourse to accomplish an end via appealing to reason or feelings by using clearly structured discourse and style to gain support or convince. New rhetoric is said to be determined by modernism because both deal with creativity and composition and also, it regards analysis and argumentation as valuable for having a full command of content knowledge in different disciplines.

Moreover, rhetoric focuses on academic writing due to the scientifically founded thought involved. Thus, rhetoric is concerned with the development of ideas in a text to convince the audience so that they may change their position on an issue. To achieve this, the writer uses a particular style and organization to move the audience to action or belief.

2.14 Communicative Approach to the Teaching of Writing

Language teaching is frequently associated with the teaching of skills and subskills. Among the skills, writing is one of the skills subsumed under speaking. It is the speaking skill that is emphasized when communicative activities are mentioned. However, the concept of “communicative language teaching sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence. What does this mean? ... [to] be very successful at being able to use the language for meaningful communication” (Richards, 2006, pp. 2-3).

Littlewood (2002) emphasizes that communicative language teaching “pays attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language ...” (p. 1). Hennequin (2005) defines communicative competence as a set of knowledge and skills that a speaker must master to communicate effectively and appropriately in a sociocultural community according to grammatical and sociolinguistic rules (p. 67).

The need to write should be carefully established in the classroom. To learn more about composition. Zamel (1980, as cited in Reid, 1993) suggests that writing must be based on a real need to express oneself within an empathetic environment in the classroom. Brown (2000) suggests in terms of the language classroom, that:

communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students’ eventual need to apply classroom learning to previously unrehearsed contexts in the real world. (p. 69)

The process of communicating is complex as seen in the above definitions. This idea is presented by seeing writing as a process that should be carefully followed to produce the final piece of writing.

2.15 The Process Approach to Writing

“Writing is best done in a sequence” (Wilson, 2022, p. 16). The idea of writing as a process is emphasized by Cohen (1990) who suggests that “writing is a process whereby the finished product emerges after a series of drafts. ... The composition has usually gone through several rounds of peer edits and self-assessment before it reaches the teacher for assessment” (p. 105). In the opinion of Jordan (1997) relative to the process approach, this author states that “the composing processes which writers utilize ... puts meaning to the fore rather than form. ... By means of discussion, tasks, drafting, feedback, revisions, and informed choices, students can make clearer decisions about the direction of their writing” (pp. 167-168).

The purpose of doing this might be to expose students to different opportunities to select the most viable direction their writing should take. Seeing writing in detail helps us as teachers to offer a coherently planned class so that students benefit the most from their efforts. In the opinion of Williams (1998), “the process model emphasizes writing as a process rather than as a product; this model, therefore, aims to improve writing by helping students master a wide range of behaviors associated with effective composition. This model emphasizes group activities ...” (p. 45).

An important concept has appeared: effective composition. Effective composition involves a large set of activities and behaviors. The importance of giving students practice with their writing ability is that it helps them ignite their creativity. In bearing in mind mastery in writing in a foreign language environment, Brown (2000) observes that “current emphasis on process writing must, of course, be seen in the perspective of a balance between process and product” (pp. 335, 336).

Summarizing the present section, Cohen's perspective of writing considers that it has a set of stages that need to be accomplished to finish a paper. In this process, students' consciousness takes place. Afterward, the paper reaches the professor for appraisal and, finally, for assessment. Jordan highlights the importance of considering the stages through which the students go to write. It follows the principles of focusing on the learner to make students more responsible for their learning by making use of pre-writing techniques, group work, and teacher's suggestions. The process writing approach is aimed at students' improvement in writing emphasizing group activities directed to the exploration of topics. Hence, the process writing approach deals with the emphasis given to the series of actions carried out before handing in a paper: drafting and group activities.

This process is intended for students to master the steps needed to obtain clear ideas and (well-structured papers) meaningfully-structured papers. Another important aspect that is highlighted from the point of view of this approach is that everything that molds the text is tangible. It describes, to a certain degree, the mental map that each student uses to construct the text. Moreover, the students' strategies to achieve the task are easily seen; for instance, all the drafts show not only the process but the development of the appropriate use of each of the elements used to give it shape. This type of approach gives sound evidence to the professor to plan classes to cement the topics demanded to write a paper.

2.16 The Product Approach to Writing

The product approach emphasizes that writing can be done almost instantaneously with any topic. In the words of Cohen (1990), "The emphasis of the product approach is on the finished product of writing — which is sometimes finished. ... The underlying assumption of this approach is that learners are capable of turning out finished products the first time around"

(p. 105). What does a product-oriented classroom imply? Williams (1998) expresses the view that “in a typical product-oriented classroom teachers describe the various features of an essay in general terms ... They do not mention the fact that different disciplines have different conventions and standards for correctness” (pp. 46-47). Brown (2000) states that “compositions were supposed to (a) meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style, (b) reflect accurate grammar and (c) be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider being conventional” (p. 335).

In summary, the product approach is characterized by paying attention to the finished product. Moreover, different texts were only imitated without explaining the communicative effect that different texts achieve. Also, it is implied that writing is a one-draft task. However, as it was said in the previous definition of the process approach, the final product must be the goal that guides the decisions related to the teaching of writing from the point of view of a balanced approach to the teaching of writing.

2.17 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Brown (2000) defines ESP as “programs ... specifically devoted to professional fields of study. A course in English for agriculture or in Business Writing would fall under the general rubric of ESP” (p. 123). To elaborate on this topic, Nunan’s (1989) definition of ESP is presented: “English for specific purposes courses are concerned with the development of skills in specific specialized areas such as English for science and technology or English for tertiary purposes” (p. 50). In terms of writing skills, Hyland (2002) points out that “in English for specific purposes . . . students are helped to develop their writing skills as an outcome of the specific rhetorical and interactional needs set up by immediately pressing tasks and relevant target behaviors” (p. 104).

ESP can encompass a great deal of work in terms of planning a course or it might encompass focal work on very specific situations such as the examples given by Harmer (1997):

The term English for specific purposes has been applied to situations where students have some specific reason for wanting to learn the language. For example, air traffic controllers need English primarily to guide aircraft through the skies. They may not use the language at all apart from this. (p. 2)

Moreover, Harmer suggests that ESP encompasses English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Science and Technology (EST). Brown (2000) frames ESP within “six broad types of curricula that are designed to fit such varying student goals” (p. 122). The six categories are: pre-academic, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), ESP, Voch/Tech, literacy, and survival/social. For Nunan, ESP courses deal with the development of skills in identifiable areas of knowledge; be it the exact sciences or the humanities. Hyland states that ESP courses make use of pressing tasks so that students gain insight into the rhetorical organization of the text and develop the skill. English for specific purposes has as its main focus to fulfill the needs students have. These needs might be related to their area of study or discipline or their job.

2.18 English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

Etic (1975, as cited in Jordan, 1997) suggests that English for academic purposes “(EAP) is concerned with those communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems” (p. 1). Similarly, Hinkel (2002) states that “EAP deals with general academic preparation of EFL students for studying in colleges and universities in English-speaking countries and includes the teaching of various academic skills, such as reading, writing, listening, speaking and note-taking” (p. 52). The most important concepts related to

EAP likely are those which are touched on by Flowerdew and Peacock (2001): “English for academic purposes is the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that language [emphasis added]” (p. 8).

Etic states that English for academic purposes deals with the skills demanded from students in educational settings. Brown (2000) identifies the characteristics of this type of English teaching in terms of discourse, standards, behaviors, and values of subjects and students. It refers to any type of instruction intended for students so that they know how to manage academic language and topics. Flowerdew and Peacock suggest that EAP is defined as the facilitation of carrying out investigation, or teaching of English. Hence, English for academic purposes is concerned with the teaching of skills needed to accomplish tasks in formal educational settings such as: managing academic language and topic.

Moreover, EAP enables students to carry out studies, investigation, or teaching of English. English for Academic Purposes highlights the need to give students a repertoire of different skills to immerse themselves in the academic environment. In other words, the student who has been taught using this type of instruction should be able to carry out tasks such as answering written exams, writing different types of texts, and taking notes, among others. Emphasis must be given to the writing ability that is heavily demanded in the academic environment.

2.19 Writing Across the Curriculum Model

The academic environment requires students to be able to communicate efficiently. As such one of the most valuable skills is writing. There is a model in which writing is the key component. According to Reid (1993), “Writing across the curriculum advocates

'writing-intensive' courses in all disciplines, with the recognition of writing as fundamental to discipline-oriented learning" (p. 17)

To learn more about writing across the curriculum (WAC), what Williams (1998) states is of paramount importance: "WAC recognizes writing is situation specific and that good writers are people who can apply different conventions to different writing conditions. WAC also recognizes that writing is a vehicle for learning and self-definition" (p. 74). Now there are two important concepts to emphasize: conventions and writing conditions.

Bazerman, Little, Chavkin, Fouquette, and Garufis (2003) help us to understand this difference by pointing out that:

writing across the curriculum refers specifically to the pedagogical and curricular attention to writing occurring in university subject matter classes other than those offered by composition or writing programs. The movement provided systematic encouragement, institutional support, and educational knowledge to increase the amount and quality of writing occurring in such courses as history, science, mathematics, and sociology. (p. 9)

In concluding this section, Reid proposes that WAC advocates intensive-writing activities, which is a central issue for the student's improvement in the skill so that they can put into practice what was learned without difficulties within the curriculum. Bazerman et al. state that WAC is concerned with the writing demanded in subject-matter classes. Moreover, it emphasizes the quantity and quality of writing with targeted help. Writing across the curriculum suggests that writing is an important part of the academic development of students.

The model seems to be used not only to broaden students' horizons in terms of academic knowledge but also to provide students with the opportunity to take risks in terms of composing different types of texts according to the requirements for each subject. As a conclusion, WAC has

to do with the expected writing in university; that is, the quality and amount. Moreover, it is concerned with the central claim that different types of writing will be needed for different academic occasions.

2.20 Coherence

From the practical point of view, coherence, which comes from Latin and means “hold together,” can be achieved in four ways: repeating key nouns, using pronouns, including transition signals, and arranging sentences in chronological order. To further elaborate on the concept of coherence, Enkvist (in Connor and Johns, 1990) suggests:

In this sense, our intuition of coherence is a hermeneutic phenomenon. We must understand a text, that is, build up a world picture around it, to say that the text is coherent. Conversely, a text strikes us as incoherent if we cannot build up a plausible scenario around it . . . Discussing these matters becomes easier if we give labels to the relevant phenomena. In several quarters it has become customary to distinguish between cohesion and coherence. Cohesion is the term for overt links on the textual surface. (pp. 14-15)

From the quote above, coherence is a subtle phenomenon in which meaning, logic, requirements, standards, and reality are involved. Connor (1996) states that:

to be coherent, texts need to make sense to the reader. Coherence in texts can be charted using a system of three different kinds of progressions: parallel progression (topics of successive sentences are the same), sequential progression (topics of successive sentences are always topic of the next), and extended parallel progression (the first and the last topics of a piece of a text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression. (pp. 84-85)

Moreover, Oshima and Hogue (1997) emphasize the logical aspect and the smoothness required for a text to be coherent:

in order to have coherence in writing the sentences (and in longer essays, from one paragraph to the next) must be logical and smooth. There must be no sudden jump. Each sentence should flow smoothly in the next one.

There are four ways to achieve coherence. The first two ways involve repeating key nouns and using pronouns that refer back to key nouns. The third way is to use transition signals to show how one idea is related to the next. The fourth way to achieve coherence is to arrange your sentences in logical order. (pp. 40-41)

Coherence refers to the transition from one sentence to another and from one paragraph to another. This transition should not be abrupt so that the text makes sense for the reader. Coherence is achieved by using pronoun repetition, synonyms, implicit relations, and inference. This seemed to be difficult for students to accomplish appropriately. What they can do to accomplish coherence is to use techniques related to this characteristic of texts. The coherence aspect of a text seems to be semantical; in other words, the flow of ideas should be focused on the chains of reasoning to present the reader with a meaningful text.

Any type of text has coherence once it conforms to reality. It is the reality that is portrayed in the texts combined with a text type to suggest to the reader an interpretation of the theme and its relevance with not only the life of the reader but the community. To achieve coherence, there must be elements that facilitate the construction of it. These elements are called connectors and are directly related to the study of cohesion of a text type.

2.21 Cohesion

A text must be logical. This means it must exhibit coherence and cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) proposed:

cohesion is a systematic concept; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense it cannot be *effectively decoded* [emphasis] except by recourse to it. When this happens a relation of cohesion is set up and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text. (p. 4)

To signal the relationship between these elements we do so explicitly. Connor (1996) suggested that:

cohesion is defined as the use of explicit linguistic devices to signal relations between sentences and parts of texts. Cohesive devices are words or phrases that act as signals to the reader in order to help the reader make connections with what has already been stated or soon will be stated. (p. 83)

The most fundamental cohesive devices are pronouns to avoid repeating the subject of a sentence. Other examples can be transitioning signals such as those that expand the for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so framework (FANBOYS) (Oshima & Hogue, 1999). For instance, the clause connector can be expanded by employing moreover, in addition, besides, furthermore, besides, too, another, additional, etc. We can use all of these words to introduce a similar additional idea.

Connor and Johns (1990, as cited in Reid 1993) pointed out that “cohesion has been defined as the more limited term. Specific words and phrases (transitions, pronouns, repetition of keywords and phrases) that tie prose together and direct the reader” (pp. 36-37). These elements

help the reader relate the subtopics into which the main discourse is subdivided with the overall discourse.

2.22 Grammar, Organization and Syntax

Mastering a foreign language is an endeavor that might well take some time. Harmer (1997), considers that a language student ought to learn pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, discourse, skills, the syllabus, and language varieties. According to Stern et al. (1983), “grammar is traditionally divided into morphology and syntax. Morphology studies the internal structure of the words, while syntax is the study of sentence structure” (p. 131). Furthermore, Thomas (1993) suggests: “morphology looks at the way words are formed and syntax seeks to describe the way words fit together to form sentences or utterances” (p. 1).

To understand the importance of studying grammar, Langacker (1987) states that:
the grammar of a language, characterized as a structured inventory of conventional linguistic units, comprises those aspects of cognitive organization which reside as the speaker's grasp of established linguistic convention. More narrowly, grammar consists of symbolic structures to form progressively *more elaborate expressions* [emphasis added].
(p. 548)

Grammar is concerned with how words undergo changes (morphology) and how they should be structurally placed to form a sentence (syntax). It is important to mention that the word order in the target language is one of the most important aspects with which the learner is faced; be it explicitly or implicitly. Once the basic pattern that answers the questions of who, what, where, and where is internalized, intricate structures can be formed due to the integration of more structures. Grammar plays an important role in writing since it enables students to exploit the structures of language to correctly and appropriately establish communication.

The basic pattern mentioned before plays an important role in the communicative purposes of the learner. Describing in more detail this word order, the following structure emerges: “subject + verb + object + direction/place + time” (Firsten, 2002, p. 3). The progression to reach the more elaborate use of this basic pattern must be emphasized because the initial stages can be considered as the introduction to the rhetoric of the language that is being learned. Also, another important aspect to mention is the work on morphology to be done to facilitate students’ appropriate assimilation and application of the rules to the language they encounter in everyday life situations.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The current chapter presents a description of the methodological approach employed, the participants, and the procedures: data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Methodology

Research is broadly divided into three main research paradigms which are the qualitative, the quantitative, and the mixed-methods research designs. It is worth mentioning that there are some considerations to make in terms of what method means under each paradigm. On the one hand, it might refer to the methodological design which entails the methodological considerations for the research design (RD). On the other hand, it might refer to the methodological considerations relative to the data collection or the procedures of operationalization of the research questions through the implementation of the data collection instruments (DCIs) specific to the research. As can be seen, the researcher might capitalize on one type of research paradigm or mix the strengths of the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms to yield the most adequate methodology to study the topic of interest. Moreover, the researcher might well use various data collection instruments in a study.

The selection of a research method that has characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative approaches has been selected for this research. The aim of combining the qualitative and quantitative traditions is to enrich the comments made in the results section on the types of sentences, cohesion and coherence, rhetorical moves, and logical aspects of the argumentative essays written by advanced-level students at the faculty of language in BUAP. This decision has been made due to the need to implement descriptive statistical procedures to highlight and

supplement the qualitatively driven analysis carried out on the raw data, which is the text in the form of argumentative essays. The components of this thesis, which rely on a more qualitative data analysis procedure, are logic and support given to stand, writing assessment, needs analysis, and syllabus design.

Following the recommendations made by Yin (2003) on the considerations of the methodological design and its corresponding motive, the research design for the present piece of research is a mixed method design with a descriptive motive rooted in the following definitions given by Creswell (2009) on the three approaches to research. The first definition is qualitative research: “The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, ..., data analysis inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of data. ... rendering the complexity of a situation” (p. 4).

Quantitative research, which is usually associated with true experimental designs, is defined in the second place by suggesting that it is an approach “for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. ..., those who engage in this form of inquiry have assumptions about testing theories deductively, ..., controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generalize and replicate findings” (p. 4).

Proceeding in the definitions used for what is understood by each one of the forms of inquiry employed for the present piece of research to have them clearly delineated, the definition of mixed methods is given by Creswell and Clark (2007, as cited in Creswell, 2009) as “an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both quantitative and qualitative forms. It involves philosophical assumptions, the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, and the mixing of both approaches in a study. ... in tandem ...” (p. 4).

Creswell and Plano (2014) suggest that the research process involves identifying a research problem, reviewing the literature, specifying a purpose, choosing a research design, selecting participants and collecting data, analyzing data and reporting results, and drawing conclusions. These stages of the process of research are used to present the following table where the mixed method nature for this thesis is illustrated.

Table 2

Qualitative and Quantitative Components of this Thesis

Quantitative	Research Process	Qualitative
	Research problem	Exploratory
	Literature	Dynamic and informative
Specific and narrow	Purpose	General and broad
Quantitative	Research design	Qualitative
	Participants/Data	Texts
Statistical and graphical	Analysis and results	Text analysis
	Conclusions	The results are interpreted in terms of their overall meaning

According to Edmonds and Kennedy (2017), the present thesis follows a mixed method nonexperimental embedded case study. Greene and Caracelli (1997, as cited in Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 143) present their definition for embedded or nested: “one method is

located within another; framework of ‘creative [emphasis added] tension’ ”. The qualitatively driven research process undertaken embeds the strength of the case study design. Nunan (1992) exemplifies the use of case studies in applied linguistics, stating that “the case study has been employed principally as a tool to trace the language development of first and second language learners” (p. 78). The same author gives as an example the study Halliday undertook to trace the language development of his son. Even though language development is not studied in this research, the example illustrates that a case study can be used to analyze a system and its processes.

Edmonds and Kennedy (2017) define an embedded case study design as “a means to explore a phenomenon within its real-world context when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident in which multiple data sources and types (QUAL and quan) are used. QUAL data is the emphasis ...” (p. 190).

3.3 Participants

Advanced-level students who were taking target Language Five (TL5) participated in this research. The group consisted of at least 18 students, and 7 students volunteered to participate in this piece of research. The group of students was selected following a homogeneous sampling procedure. It must be said that the group was selected partially due to the facilities encountered in carrying out the data collection.

3.4 Instruments

Instruments are a cornerstone of the methodological design of a research project. Griffiee (2012) states that these include “questionnaires, various types of tests, observation schemes, and transcription protocols for speech samples. ... More specifically, a DCI can be defined as the

means (physical or nonphysical) of producing quantitative or qualitative data to be analyzed and interpreted” (p. 128).

From the definition of data collection instrument presented immediately above and from the general design of this particular research, which is a mixed method design, the data collection instruments were thought to better fulfill the requirements posed in the research questions (RQs) and made a coherent unit with the research design tend slightly towards the qualitative side of the continuum of types of research. Moreover, the motive of the design is descriptive; the methodological approach is a basic mixed–methods approach.

3.4.1 A Data Collection Instrument and Eight Data Analysis Instruments

The data collection instrument (DCI) had as its purpose to collect relatively short argumentative essays, and the instruments for the analysis (DAIs) had as their objective to analyze the texts produced by students who volunteered. The purpose of this latter set of instruments was to analyze and describe advanced-level students’ academic writing in the form of argumentative essays. The initial analysis consisted of the types of sentences on which the rest of the data analysis instruments capitalize. The constructs analyzed in this set of DAIs, which are rhetoric, cohesion, coherence, and logic, are grouped in their corresponding large subsets, which are the rhetorical moves subset, the cohesion and coherence subsets, and the logic-related subset. The writing assessment and needs analysis rubrics, along with the syllabus design proposal, appear at the end. The description of each one of the characteristics of all the DAIs and the process of meeting the requirements for validity and reliability are in order.

Each one of the instruments was designed using the following general procedure suggested by Colton and Covert (2007) entitled Steps in the Instrument Construction Process:

1. Identify the purpose and focus of the study (questions you want answered).

2. Obtain feedback from stakeholders to clarify the purpose and focus.
3. Identify the research methodology and type of instruments to use for data collection and measurement.
4. Begin to formulate items.
5. Pretest items and preliminary items (with experts, stakeholders, potential respondents)
6. Revise instruments based on feedback; prepare for pilot testing.
7. Pilot test and revise prior to final administration.
8. Administer instrument, analyze, and report results. (p. 7)

The previous suggestions on the process of design were complemented by the following recommendations made by Long et al. (1985, as cited in Criollo, 2003):

1. Establish the domain definition.
2. Develop an item pool.
3. Check items for content validity.
4. One-to-one administration.
5. Field test.
6. Analysis.
7. Revisions.
8. Finalization of the instrument.
9. Administration of the instrument. (p. 140)

In the following paragraphs, the generalities of the design for each of the four data analysis instruments (DAIs) are described. The DAIs can be seen in the corresponding appendices. The data analysis instruments are described chronologically.

3.4.2 The Types of Sentences Data Analysis Instrument

First, the types of sentences instrument was designed based on the two types of clauses: independent and dependent. These two categories were used in a tally sheet to record the frequency of independent and dependent clauses in the transcribed argumentative essays. The correction of the essays was undertaken following the symbols suggested by Oshima and Hogue (1999, pp. 260-261).

3.4.3 The Rhetorical Moves DAI

Second, the rhetorical moves instrument was designed based on the observations made by Graff and Birkenstein in their book entitled “They Say / I Say.” The drafts of this instrument can be seen in Appendix B. According to the suggestions made in Graff and Birkenstein’s book, it was decided to design a rubric where the unit of analysis for this was the type of rhetorical move; in other words, it is the meaning conveyed through well-established rhetorical patterns of the language which guides the development of the rhetorical analysis procedure. The unit of analysis was a semantic block interacting with another one. In this sense, the need to have a closer look at the interaction of the elements was carried out by analyzing the logic of the argument developed in the texts. But before explaining in more detail the instrument employed to analyze the argument of the essays, the process of design of the instruments used in the analysis of the cohesion and coherence-related aspects is described.

3.4.4 The Cohesion DAI

Third, the cohesion data analysis instrument to analyze the argumentative essays was designed based on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) classification of cohesive devices. Only two classifications were employed in the development of the instrument, which are related to transition signals. This theoretical classification was supplemented by the chart of transition

signals presented by Oshima and Hogue (1999, pp. 255-257). The focus was on the clause connectors that are used to coordinate: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. These coordinating conjunctions were used to design a tally sheet to record their occurrence in the argumentative essays.

3.4.4 The Coherence DAI

Fourth, the instrument used to describe the coherence of the texts was designed based on the suggestions made by Connor in her book about Contrastive Rhetoric (1996) and the exemplification of how the procedure might be implemented carried out by Simpson (2000). The instrument was a tally sheet where the occurrence of parallel, sequential, and extended parallel progressions was recorded. This instrument consisted of the charting of the development of ideas in terms of the topical description of coherence. The unit of analysis was the topic sentence in terms of the types of progressions found in the argumentative essays written by advanced-level students at the Language Faculty in BUAP.

3.4.5 The Fundamental Elements of Argument DAI

Fifth, the data analysis instrument used to describe the argument in the essays was designed based on the Toulmin model of argumentation. The instrument was in the form of a template and a tally sheet where the features of an argument were employed to keep a record of their occurrence. Toulmin (2003) suggests that these features are the data, warrant, backing, qualifier, rebuttal, and conclusion. The units of analysis for this instrument were, what Diestler (1997) identifies as the fundamental elements in an argument, the issue, the conclusions, and the reasons. The analysis was undertaken from a qualitative perspective.

3.4.5 The Stand on the Issue and Its Support DAI

Sixth, the instrument to analyze how the stand taken on the issue was supported was designed. The tally sheet was based on the most frequent types of concrete support suggested by Oshima and Hogue (1999): “examples, statistics, and quotations” (p. 73). Paraphrases and summaries were also considered. The tally sheet recorded the reasons presented in the argumentative essays. Oshima and Hogue (1999) highlight the importance of substantiating opinions by stating that “the more specific you are, the better” (p. 72).

3.4.6 Non-quantitative Assessment and Quantitative Assessment

Seventh, non-quantitative assessment was used to analyze the argumentative essays. This decision was made due to the qualitative paradigm underlying this component. Grabe and Kaplan (2014) emphasize that non-quantitative assessment focuses students’ attention on the texts and how to improve them. The non-quantitative assessment involves, according to the same authors, “prose responses to the essays” (p. 410). The strengths and weaknesses of the texts are given. Apart from this description of the essays, suggestions can be given on how to develop the ideas presented.

A quantitative assessment was also undertaken. A checklist adapted from Tribble (1999, pp. 130-131) was used to evaluate the argumentative essays. The procedure followed to adapt the checklist to evaluate the argumentative essays followed the advice given by Baker (1989, in Cassany, 2011, p. 261). Baker recommends that the criteria be relevant for the linguistic behavior being evaluated and the description for each criterion be operationalized for the examiner to use it efficiently. The checklist consisted of five categories: task fulfillment/content, organization, vocabulary, language, and mechanics. A category entitled argument was appended to adapt the checklist.

The procedure followed to adapt the checklist started by revisiting what the process of writing entailed. This first step involved a questionnaire based on what Oshima and Hogue (1999) define as the process of writing. The second step was to consider what Damer (1994) suggests to make arguments stronger. These suggestions were also phrased as questions. The third step was to read the categories for evaluating writing by Brown (1991, as cited in Brown, 2000, p. 357). Lastly, the checklist presented by Tribble (1999) was adapted by appending a category to evaluate the argumentative nature of the essays. This category included key terms such as stand, issue, reasons, cohesion, coherence, relevance of premises, rhetorical moves, and logic. The adapted checklist can be seen in Appendix C.

3.4.7 The Needs Analysis Report

Eighth, a needs analysis report was written including the quantitative results obtained. The initial structure of the report followed the recommendations made by Munby (1978, as cited in Nunan, 1988, pp. 19-20). Nunan (1988) orients the structure of the report with his definition of needs analysis: “techniques and procedures for obtaining information from and about learners to be used in curriculum development” (p. 158). In this thesis, the argumentative essays written by advanced-level students were used as the basis for the needs analysis.

3.4.8 A Diary Journal to Record the Design of the Syllabus

Lastly, the process of designing the syllabus for an academic writing course for the students was recorded using a diary journal in an electronic format and in the usual ink on paper bound in a binder. Griffie (2012) suggests that the term journal writing encompasses dialog, teacher, and diary journals. The communication kept is between student to teacher, teacher to teacher, and researcher to self, correspondingly. The type of journal that best suits this thesis is a diary journal.

3.5 Procedures

The purpose of the present section is to describe the procedures followed to undertake this piece of research. The description of the procedures will be sectioned into the data collection procedures (DCP) and the data analysis procedures (DAP).

3.5.1 Implementation of The Writing Scheduled Task

Before continuing, it might be worth recalling the number of instruments employed to collect and analyze argumentative essays. In terms of the data collection instruments, there was only one set of instruments. This data collection instrument (DCI) was in the form of writing guidelines and a writing scheduled task, which was based on a question presented by Kahane and Cavender (1997) on page 200. There were two versions of the main body of the data collection instrument to better handle and implement the writing scheduled task in the time allocated for such a purpose.

The two versions were the researcher's and the students' versions. The researcher version was designed to take useful advice on how to design writing tasks given by Clark (2012). The researcher's version was also complemented by writing down some words in terms of the expectations of the group in which access was gained; these expectations were written in handwritten form. The students' version consisted of the revised and approved version of the constituent elements checked by my thesis advisor on the topic of plagiarism. The two versions of this data collection instrument can be seen in Appendix D.

Once the data collection instrument was checked by my thesis director who made insightful comments and corrections, the scheduled writing task was improved by paying attention carefully to the observations and suggestions made. Afterward, it was administered to

advanced-level students who were taking target language five (TL5) at the faculty of language in BUAP. Subsequently, the argumentative essays were collected one week later.

3.5.2 Naming the Essays and Correcting them

The first step in organizing the argumentative essays was to name them. This was done by highlighting by hand the sentences, verbs, prepositions, relative pronouns, and connectors. This resulted in a sequence of numbers referred to as a vector: SVPRC. The first essay to be named was the first student who volunteered in the study. In terms of the second step in the qualitative data process, the argumentative essays were transcribed to identify the topic sentences. Afterward, the texts were analyzed and corrected sentence by sentence. In some cases, the essays were corrected in terms of a paragraph. This stage in the process allowed me to have a general sense of the data which facilitated the application of the procedures to analyze the types of sentences, the cohesion and coherence, the rhetorical and the logical aspects of each one of the essays.

3.5.3 Coding the Essays

The data was coded and analyzed following the suggestions made by Creswell (2005) on qualitative data. According to this author, the qualitative process of data analysis consists of iterative and simultaneous phases: collecting data and coding it. There are also phases termed stepwise or unidirectional: preparing data and reading through it. Some phases can be purely iterative or simultaneous: coding the text to describe it and identifying themes correspondingly.

3.5.4 Pilot Testing of The Quantitative Data Analysis Instruments

The data analysis instruments, which can be seen in Appendix F, followed quantitative, qualitative, or mixed analyses. The first data analysis instruments were four: types of sentences, transition signals, topical progressions, and rhetorical moves. These data analysis instruments

were designed following the recommendations made by Colton and Colvert (2007, p.18), and Long et al. (1985, as cited in Criollo, 2003, p.140). Furthermore, Creswell's (2005) suggestions were considered to pilot test the operationalization of the procedures.

The data analysis instruments, which yielded quantitative results, were pilot-tested by implementing them to analyze an argumentative essay taken from Graff and Birkenstein (2013). The analysis of such mentioned essay, which is entitled Family Guy and Freud: Jokes and Their Relation to the Unconscious, yielded guidelines to further improve the analysis of the actual raw data collected in the form of argumentative essays written by target language five (TL5) students. Part of the analysis carried out in the essay by Peacocke can be seen in Appendix F. This pilot testing of the data analysis instruments was very fruitful since the actual analysis is grounded on it. The procedures are sectioned into sentence, paragraph, and text levels, writing assessment, needs analysis, and the academic writing syllabus proposal.

3.5.5 Sentence Level Procedure

The initial stage of this procedure was to identify the independent and dependent clauses in the texts. The purpose of this was to analyze the essays at the sentence level using the classification presented by Oshima and Hogue (1999) of the four types of sentences in English: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. The process of identifying the types of sentences was facilitated by deciding if the independent clauses were simple sentences or the independent clauses were embedded to construct the complex and compound-complex sentences. The occurrence for each type of sentence was tallied by hand in a table to generate the graphs.

3.5.6 Paragraph Level

The identification of topic sentences was the initial step. It facilitated the process of analyzing the texts at the paragraph level. At the paragraph level, cohesion and coherence were

analyzed. First, topic sentences were identified in terms of the generality they express.

Afterward, the sentence connectors for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so were identified by hand, and the occurrence of each connector was tallied. Lastly, topical progression analysis was undertaken to analyze the coherence of the texts. Keywords that gave a partial picture of the types of topical progressions were identified by hand.

3.5.7 Text Level

The steps undertaken consisted of the procedures used to identify the rhetorical moves and the argument in the texts. The unit of analysis for the rhetorical component is the concept of move suggested by Swales (1981, as cited in Morley, 2018, p. 4). First, the identification of rhetorical moves was undertaken using a tally sheet based on the list of templates by Graff and Birkenstein (2014). Second, the argument presented in the essays was analyzed using at the initial stage the Toulmin model of argument. The claim, warrant, and support were identified. Next, the summary and note strategy suggested by Kahane and Cavender (1997) was used to analyze the substance of the argument.

3.5.8 Non-quantitative and Quantitative Writing Assessments

Grabe and Kaplan (1997) claim that “writing is commonly used to assess not only students’ writing skills but also their learning in many academic content areas” (p. 378). The first step to assess the argumentative essays was to collect all the results from the sentence, paragraph, and text levels to probe into the data. Second, the argumentative essays were bounded between the prewriting and planning stages of the writing process. Third, the essays were read to map each text to the outline students might have likely used. Fourth, the argumentative essays were ordered according to the extent they were either close to the prewriting stage or to the planning

stage. This step was undertaken by analyzing the structure of the outline: topics, topic sentences, and supporting sentences. The more structured outlines are closer to the planning stage.

The assessment used was nonquantitative. Grabe and Kaplan describe nonquantitative assessment as responses that “focus on recommendations for further changes to the student's essays These responses would highlight strong and weak points of the essays ...” (p. 410). This type of assessment might well be based on what Tribble (1999, p. 119) states “Writing is such a complex, multi-faceted activity that teachers have to respond to learners’ many needs by taking on a variety of roles---not simply that of judge of whether a sentence is ‘right’ or ‘wrong’” (p. 119). The roles teachers can take on are audience, assistant, evaluator, and examiner. The present section illustrates the author of this thesis as the audience, assistant, and evaluator. This last role was undertaken by using a checklist.

The checklist was used to score the essays in terms of task fulfillment/content, organization, vocabulary, language, argument, and mechanics. The most heavily weighted categories were language and argument.

3.5.9 Needs Analysis

The quantitative aspects of argumentative essays are types of sentences, transition signals, topical progressions, and rhetorical moves. The qualitative aspects are the fundamental elements of an argument, how the stand was supported, writing assessment, students’ writing communicative needs, and the academic writing syllabus proposal. The needs analysis procedure demanded to capitalize on the two types of analyses: quantitative and qualitative. According to Nunan (1988) needs analysis is divided into learner and task analyses. The learner analysis was undertaken by profiting from the various levels of analysis comprising this thesis. The steps followed were: “needs analysis, setting goals and objective setting, the selection and grading of

content, and the selection and grading of learning tasks” (Nunan, 1988, p. vii). These steps were supplemented by guidelines given by Woolcock (2006).

3.5.10 The Process of Designing the Syllabus

The process of structuring a syllabus tailored to the specific needs was recorded using, according to Griffie (2012), a diary journal. The diary journal has been kept electronically and with pen and paper. This final procedure is required to orient all the procedures to the point at which all the research is applied to the design of an academic writing syllabus. This last procedure is likely to be defined as belonging to action research designs which according to Mills (2000, as cited in Creswell 2005) “are systematic procedures done by teachers (or other individuals in an educational setting) to gather information about, and subsequently improve, the ways their particular educational settings operate, their teaching, and their student learning” (p. 550). Yet the application of all the procedures might likely be framed under reflective practices which can be transferred to the interested reader’s own classroom.

3.6 About the Figures and Tables

Lastly, the processed data was turned into appropriate statistical display graphics to illustrate the key findings yielded by the implementation of the rhetorical moves, the cohesion, coherence, and logic-related analyses. The equipment used to generate the graphics was an HP50g graphing calculator and the mathematical statistical software R. To comply with the APA 7th edition format, the tables were created using Microsoft Word and the figures were created using Google Docs Spreadsheets.

3.7 The Use of Descriptive Statistics and the Qualitatively Driven Approach

It must be mentioned that due to the mixed methodological design with its accompanying descriptive motive established in the methodology section, descriptive statistics were used to

present the quantitative analysis of the data. The descriptive statistical analysis of the quantitative variables of the present piece of research was the mean, the standard deviation, the maximum and minimum values, the total—termed sum—and the quantiles calculated at the 25%, 50%, 75% when these helped me elaborate on the data. These descriptive statistics were used along with the bar plots and box plots to illustrate, describe, and explain the findings that required quantification.

The qualitative analysis of the data collected, following Creswell's suggestions outlined above, was employed to extract meaning from the argumentative essays in this piece of research. The results, which will be presented in chapter 4 of this thesis, from the above process allowed me to draw conclusions to give answers to the research questions posed in the first chapter of this thesis.

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has served to present the various elements that make up the whole body of methodological considerations to undertake the present research. The delineation of the elements has been mainly in terms of the methodological approach on which this research was based. A secondary topic about which the rest orbit is the instruments and the procedures sections, where the generalities corresponding to each one of the sections had been given accordingly.

CHAPTER IV

Results

4.1 Introduction

The present chapter aims to describe in detail the results obtained from the data collection and data analysis stages of the raw data, which was in the form of texts, more specifically argumentative essays of a relatively short length written by advanced-level students who were taking target language five. The present chapter is sectioned into a brief revisit to the research questions (RQs) in terms of the variables and assumptions underlying each one of the questions. Then, the presentation of the results of the analysis of the types of sentences, cohesion, coherence, logic, rhetorical moves, writing assessment, needs analysis, and a proposal for an academic writing syllabus is given; each type of analysis will be dedicated to its own corresponding section.

The scope of the description presented is in terms of the following format which appears in Hatch (1991): research questions, variables, the types of variables, and the measurements made. Due to the mixed method design for this thesis, there are research questions that have at their core components that have been approached qualitatively. It might be advantageous to recall what the research questions (RQs) are to proceed with the presentation of the generalities and specifics of the results obtained.

4.2 Research Questions

The number of research questions (RQs) considered is nine in number. All of them are related to academic writing in a foreign language context. The underlying construct that is studied is the writing ability exhibited in the form of argumentative essays written by advanced-level students of English in a foreign language environment —target language five

students (TL5). The specifics of each one of the research questions (RQs) will be described in terms of the format adapted from Hatch (1991). Consequently, the assumptions of the research questions are presented. The approach to qualitative aspects and measurements of the quantitative variables have been made by making explicit the units of analysis selected. Before describing the assumptions, a brief revisit to the research questions is paid.

This paper has addressed the following general research question:

1. How can argumentative academic texts written by EFL students of English be analyzed to identify students' communicative needs?

The specific questions framed under this broad research question are:

1. What types of sentences do the students use to write their text?
2. What are the most common transition signals?
3. What are the types of topical progressions present in the text?
4. Which fundamental elements of an argument are present?
5. How is the stand taken by the author supported?
6. Which are the rhetorical moves used by the students to write their text?
7. What is the average score of the texts?
8. What are the student's writing communicative needs?
9. What does a syllabus for an academic writing class have to include to meet those needs?

4.2.1 Research Question 1: Types of Sentences

Research question number one (RQ1) considers that there are sentences that are more frequently employed by TL5 students. The measurements were made in terms of the units of analysis in the form of independent and dependent clauses. Yet, before counting and tallying the number of clauses, the corrections of the essays were generated. Once the argumentative essays

were corrected, the identification of the dependent and independent clauses was begun.

Afterward, the coded data was quantified to generate the corresponding graphics.

4.2.2 Research Question 2: Cohesion

RQ2's assumptions are that students employ various forms to give a text superficial cohesion, and transition signals are one of the elements used. The measurements made were framed under the for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (FANBOYS) which served as the function to classify the transition signals identified in the argumentative essays. The classification of the connectors that are not explicitly mentioned in the FANBOYS framework was fitted into one of the already defined transition signals in terms of the most general meaning or function associated with the FANBOYS item in question.

4.2.3 Research Question 3: Coherence

RQ3 has as its purpose to describe the most commonly used types of topical progressions used by TL5 students in the concluding or last paragraph of their argumentative essays. The underlying assumption is that topical progression patterns are one of the keys to the development of coherence in texts. The measurements made were preceded by identifying the topics of the sentences under Connor's (1996) framework of topical analysis. Subsequent analyses were undertaken using the notion of topical progressions suggested by the same author.

4.2.4 Research Questions 4 and 5: Argument and Support for the Stand Taken

RQ4 was formulated to describe the fundamental elements of the argument presented by TL5 students. The units of analysis were described under the Toulmin model of argument. The units of analysis were the claim, the warrant, and the support. Due to the nature of the essays, the claim and the support were more readily identified. RQ5 might be considered as a supplemental

question which helps elaborate on RQ4 because RQ5 helps specify what the elements used to support the claim made in the argumentative essays were.

4.2.5 Research Question 6: Rhetorical Moves

The underlying purpose of RQ6 is to identify the most common rhetorical moves used to write an argumentative essay. The framework used to carry out such a description was the one suggested by Graff and Birkenstein in their book entitled “They Say/I Say.” The section of the templates was adapted into a rubric to help in the identification of rhetorical moves by TL5 students. The identification was quantitatively driven in the sense that meaning should be interpreted to quantify it. How must meaning be quantified? At this point, the unit of analysis is a move.

4.2.6 Research Question 7: Writing Assessment

The reason RQ7 was formulated is the assumption that the texts must be quantitatively analyzed. Scoring the argumentative essays in terms of the sentence level and beyond the sentence level aspects encapsulated in RQ1 to RQ6 served to design a scoring rubric. The importance of representing communicative competence with a number is highlighted. The holistic and analytic nature of rubrics was included. The units of analysis allude to the sentence level and beyond the sentence levels are sentence, paragraph, and text structures.

4.2.7 Research Question 8: Students’ Writing Communicative Needs

This RQ directs attention to one of my assumptions in my professional practices. The assumption is that the analysis of texts can give us insight into the point at which students are and how to meet students’ writing communicative needs. This question involves integrating qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Cassany (2011) establishes that composition must be

understood as a compound skill that contains among its processes the rest of the skills (p. 39).
The unit of analysis is the essay.

4.2.9 Research Question 9: An Academic Writing Syllabus Proposal

The purpose of this research question was to integrate the quantitative and qualitative aspects involved in this thesis. The quantification of constructs such as syntactical structure, cohesion, coherence, rhetoric, and logic provides useful information to know the metric by which students' progress in mastering academic writing can be measured. Yet mastering writing might well be supplemented with qualitative and qualitatively driven inquiry. The units of analysis are the aims and objectives included in the syllabus. The decisions made to select aims and objectives tailored to the student's needs are grounded on the qualitative findings and quantitative results obtained.

4.3 Analysis

The analysis consists of two perspectives due to the mixed methods approach used for this thesis. In the vein of qualitative research, Creswell (2005) presents succinctly what qualitative research is: "Qualitative research is 'interpretive' research in which you make a personal assessment as to a description that fits the situation or themes that capture the major categories of information. ... you bring your own perspective to your interpretation" (p.232).

In revisiting the importance of the analysis section, Hatch (1991) states a robust analysis section involves stating research questions clearly, identifying variables appropriately, and justifying the research design. Hatch concludes by saying: "these are precisely the criteria for selecting the appropriate method of data analysis" (p. 117).

The attention to the previous quotes has been purported to highlight the concepts and guidelines that were considered when carrying out the analysis of the data collected. The analysis

is divided into two major sections. The first subset contained in the general research question has as its members: types of sentences, cohesion, coherence, and rhetorical moves. The second subset includes: logic, the stand taken and its support, writing assessment, needs analysis, and the academic writing syllabus proposal.

4.3.1 Types of Sentences

The identification of the independent and dependent clauses served as the starting point to carry out the analysis of the types of sentences since sentences can be considered as combinations of clauses. Consequently, the figures for the types of sentences were elaborated based on the types of clauses present in the TL5 students' writing. The classification of the types of sentences was taken from Oshima and Hogue (1999, p.166); this classification was complemented by more theoretical definitions offered by Lock (1996). The types of sentences considered were simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.

The procedure followed in carrying out the analysis consisted of tallying the occurrence of dependent as well as independent clauses within the framework of a clause complex, which is a concept employed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in the classification of the ranks to be employed in the analysis. Once each type of clause was tallied, the resulting combination of the clauses was mapped onto the more theoretical definitions for each type of sentence found in Lock. The analysis of the type of sentences serves as a complement to the analysis of cohesion which is presented in the following section. Before proceeding, elaboration on the analysis of the data is in order.

To relate the analysis of the types of sentences more frequently used by TL5 students, the corrected versions of the essays were generated by paying careful attention to the texts in terms of a sentence-by-sentence procedure into which the students divided their argumentative essays.

Once the corrections were made, the number of independent and dependent clauses was tallied by counting the labels assigned to each one of the types of clauses; ind for independent clauses and dep for dependent clauses. The count obtained for each one of the types of sentences was then fed into Google Spreadsheets to generate the corresponding box plots.

4.3.2 Cohesion

The analysis of the cohesion-related aspect of the texts was started early in the writing of chapter four once the data was collected. The count of the transition signals is present in the code given to each one of the essays. For instance, the essay named following the sentences, verbs, prepositions, relative pronouns, and connectors (SVPRC) vector as 2574591134 means that the essay has thirty-four connectors. The identification of the transition signals within the framework of the for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (FANBOYS) found in Oshima and Hogue (1999) was undertaken by highlighting by hand each one of the explicit occurrences for each one of the for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so connectors.

The theoretical basis for the present analysis has its roots in the suggestions made by Halliday and Hasan (1976). This analysis focuses on the lexical and grammatical elements of cohesion in the argumentative essays written by TL5 students. The occurrence of other types of connectors that were not in the explicit form of the FANBOYS connectors was tallied in terms of the function that each connector helps realize. It must be said that each element of a language might function in various ways, so the mapping of the rest of the connectors was carried out considering the uses for each FANBOY to the best extent possible.

4.3.3 Coherence

The analysis of the coherence of the texts was framed under Connor's suggestions on topical analysis in which the units of analysis are the topic of each one of the sentences and the

progressions into which each topic is developed. The categories offered to carry out such analysis are: parallel progression, sequential progression, and extended parallel progression. To undertake the analysis, a tally sheet was designed to mark the occurrence of each type of progression by pairing the topics and going over the development of the topics.

The analysis of coherence for the present piece of research relies more on a qualitative analysis of the sample of occurrences than on the quantitative data yielded in the form of descriptive statistics. Due to the information gathered, the theoretical framework suggested by Connor was employed partially without considering the concept of depth. The previous procedure was decided upon to accommodate the relatively short paragraphs in the essays.

4.3.4 Rhetorical Moves

The analysis to describe the moves is based on the framework presented in the form of templates by Graff and Birkenstein (2013). According to the index of templates presented in their book, there are twenty-six moves considered, which can be seen in the complete list in Appendix B. The procedure to identify the moves used by the students was carried out paying special attention to the suggestions made by Morley (2018) about the pioneering method Swales used in the 1980s: “utilizing a genre analysis approach to identify rhetorical patterns in the introductions to research articles, Swales defined a ‘move’ as a section of text that serves a specific communicative function (Swales, 1981, 1990)” (p. 4). Morley concludes by emphasizing that Swales also demonstrated that the type of language in a move is phraseological.

Hence, the procedure to identify the rhetorical moves present in the argumentative essays written by TL5 students was carried out according to the meaning of the original ideas suggested by the students. Once these suggestions were corrected yet keeping the meaning of the original ideas to the extent possible within the present piece of research, the analysis of the moves

proceeded to tally each one of the sets of sentences in the categories established in a tally sheet containing the twenty-six moves suggested by Graff and Birkenstein. The lenses through which the rhetorical analysis was carried out rely heavily on a qualitative perspective.

4.3.5 Logic

The present analysis of the logic in TL5 students' argumentative essays was initially done in terms of the units of analysis in the form of topic sentences in the text. Once the topic sentences were identified by the level of generality of the sentences, the analysis of the fundamentals of an argument was used to classify and describe the units that belong to each one of the categories established in the scope for the present aspect: the claim, the warrant, and the support offered to present the argument on the stand taken about the issue on plagiarism in the data collection instrument. The writing task which served as the data collection instrument can be seen in Appendix D. The analysis of the categories established —claim, support, and warrant— relied heavily on a qualitative point of view employed to present the description and interpretation of the results for the analysis of the logic underpinning each one of the essays.

The analysis of the argument presented by each one of the students is based on the suggestions by Toulmin on argumentation. The unit of analysis is in terms of the membership that a clause or set of clauses, which can be a simple sentence, relates to the definition of the main elements in an argument which are the claim, the warrant, and the support. The analysis of the logic aspect of the texts collected hinges on the assumption that the main elements specified in the model occur at least in one of the compartments of the claim, warrant, and support. The elements considered for the present piece of research are described by Fulkerson (1996) according to the Toulmin model by saying that “every argument ... involves a movement from some premises called the data ... to the argumentative claim. The movement is justified by ...

the warrant . . . All arguments . . . have these three elements, although frequently not all three are explicit. . .” (p. 49).

The identification and description are restricted to the support used by TL5 students in their argumentative essays. The analysis was carried out under a qualitative approach for the description of the elements present in the TL5’s argumentative essays.

4.3.6 Writing Assessment

The analysis departed from the outlines into which the argumentative essays were mapped. The outlines obtained can be seen in Appendix G. The order in which the outlines appear mirrored the sequence in which the students volunteered for the present study. The extent to which the outlines resemble the planning stage of the writing process varies greatly from essay to essay. This variation was used to order the argumentative essays in terms of how well the outline was structured in terms of the components of a paragraph. The texts were ordered from the closest to the prewriting stage to the nearest to the planning stage.

4.3.7 Students’ Writing Communicative Needs

The needs analysis is based on a cross-sectional sample of written work produced by target language five students. Even though the texts might be categorized as lying within the prewriting stage, the texts can be analyzed to identify what the students need to succeed in mastering academic writing. Grabe and Kaplan (2014) establish that the writing process consists of “planning, initial drafting, revisions, and the final text” (p. 393). According to this view, the collected essays are highly likely to be either in the planning or the initial drafting stages. Oshima and Hogue (1999) suggest that the writing process has four stages: “prewriting, planning, writing and revising drafts, and writing the final copy to hand in” (p. 3). The collected essays might have undergone a planning stage, yet these texts are either at the prewriting stage or

not beyond the planning stage. Oshima and Hogue define an outline as “a formal plan for a paragraph. In an outline, you write down the main points and subpoints in the order in which you plan to write about them” (p. 9).

In the context of the present research, the needs analysis was elaborated by considering academic writing classes preceded by general English classes and followed by research methodology courses. According to Richards (2006), needs analysis is the discipline that uses observations, surveys, interviews, situation analysis, and analysis of language samples. The present thesis focused on the analysis of written samples.

4.3.8 The Academic Writing Syllabus Proposal

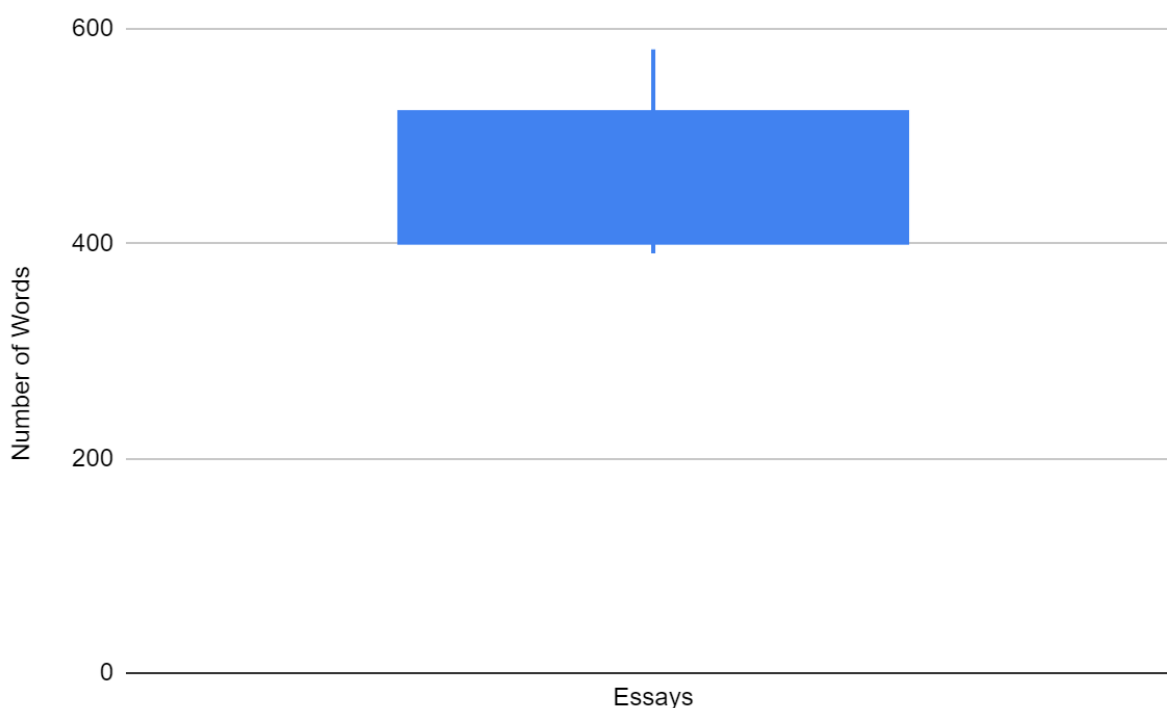
A diary journal was used to collect data about the construction of the academic writing syllabus. According to Griffie (2012), there are two main reasons for keeping a diary journal: inductive and deductive. The inductive reason is embraced when “we want to explore and learn something” (ibid, p. 204). The deductive reason is employed when “we might have a specific problem we want to examine” (Griffie, 2012, p. 2004). The inductive reason dominates in this thesis. The exploration and learning afforded by the diary journal were oriented towards curriculum development and teacher self-development, which are concepts mentioned in the evaluation by Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1996, pp. 43-55).

The following sections present the results and findings that answer the research questions posed in Chapter One.

4.4 Quantitative Results: Generalities

Figure 1

Generalities of the Seven Argumentative Essays



Note. N = 7 essays. M = 462 words. Mdn = 416. SD = 79.

Before elaborating on the analysis carried out on the argumentative essays, it might be advisable to revisit the pilot to test the procedures that were followed to analyze the actual data for this piece of research. The average number of words for the sample of texts collected is 462. This is further elaborated in the note to the boxplot above. Descriptive statistics were calculated to complement the analysis of the raw data collected in terms of the types of sentences, cohesion, coherence, rhetorical moves, and logic. The descriptive statistics consisted of the maximum value equals 581 words, the minimum value is equal to 391 words, the total—sum— and the quantiles. The quantiles were calculated at 0.25 = 398 words, 0.5 = 416 words, 0.75 = 549 words, correspondingly.

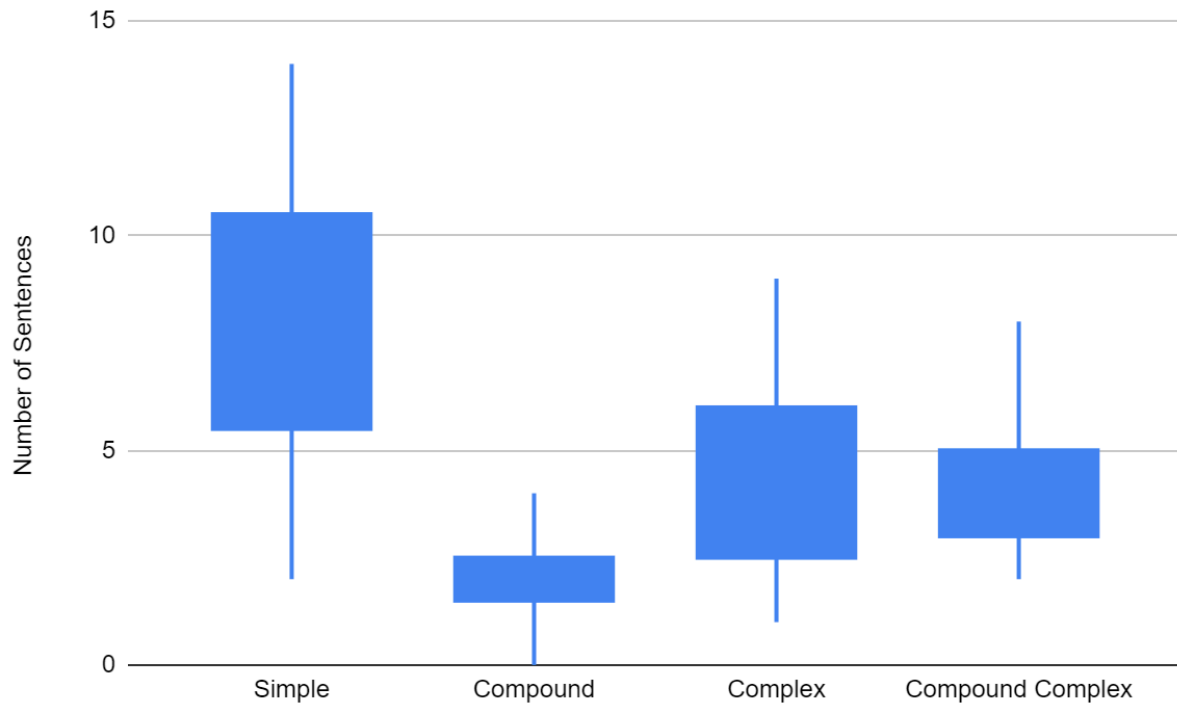
The number of independent and dependent clauses was first identified by hand to answer what type of sentences were produced by TL5 students to write their argumentative essays? This

was the first step in answering the rest of the research questions (RQs). The framework employed to identify and classify the clauses was based on the Functional Grammar Theory presented in Lock (1996). It might be worth saying that some other elements were identified in the first place to give each essay a particular name to each one of the essays from the number of elements identified for each category. The coding for the essays has been such as to help me recall some important information to be correlated with the results and their interpretation.

The initial letters for each one of the elements identified are encoded in the following acronym or “vector” SVPRC, which means sentences, verbs, prepositions, relative pronouns, and connectors. This procedure was employed to give each one of the argumentative essays a unique number with which the essays are identified in this piece of research. The presentation in terms of the generalities for the sample collected in the form of argumentative essays is in order.

Figure 2

Generalities in Terms of Types of Sentences



Note. Mdn = 7, 2, 4, and 4 for the simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences.

The statistics give a general picture of the starting phase of the results in terms of the frequency, the essays, and their corresponding mean. The essays are referred to by their unique name: E25, E13, E21, E14a, E14b, E9, and E18. The means are 6, 3, 7, 3, 3, 2, and 5 sentences employed out of the simple, compound, complex, and compound–complex classification used. Table 1 illustrates the results.

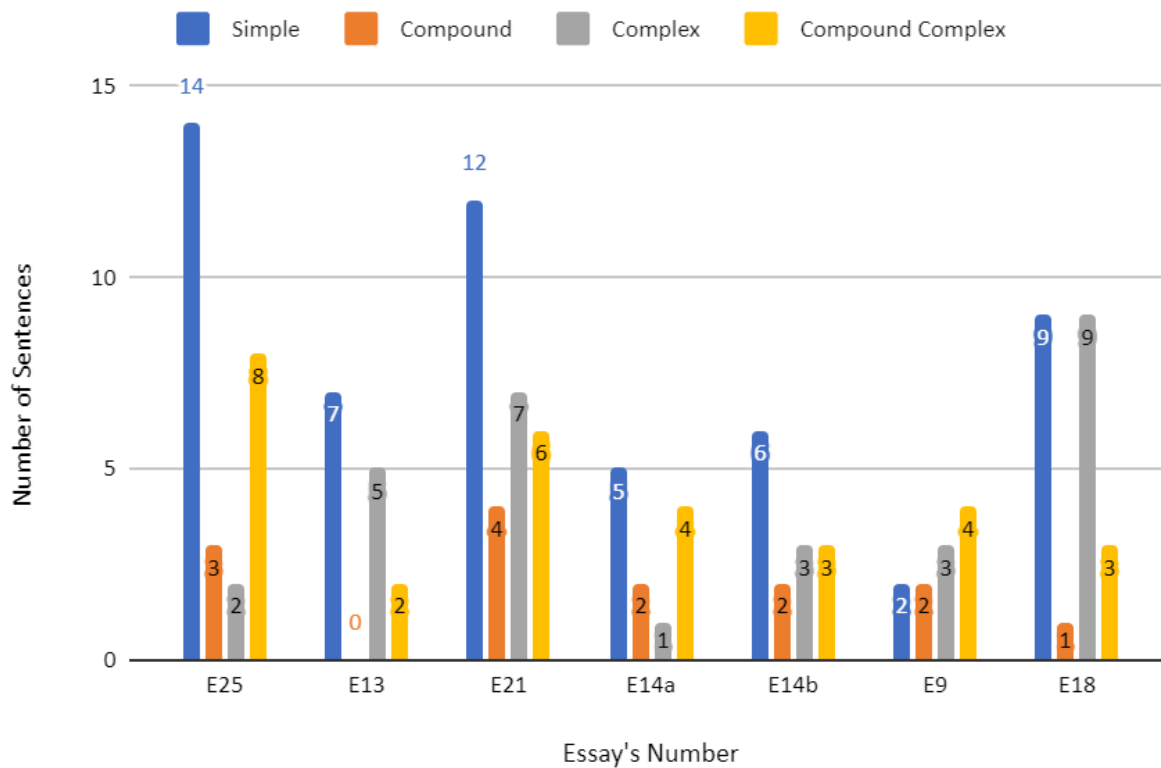
Table 3*Seven Argumentative Essays and The Types of Sentences Contained*

Essay's Number	Sentence				Mean
	Simple	Compound	Complex	Compound- Complex	
25	14	3	2	8	6.25
13	7	0	5	2	3.25
21	12	4	7	6	5.25
14.5	5	2	1	4	3.5
14.8	6	2	3	3	3.5
09	2	2	3	4	2.25
18	9	1	9	3	4.5

The table above represents the data by relating the argumentative essays and the mean in sentences. The description of the generalities is in order. Firstly, the numbers used to refer to the essays are those which record the count relative to the number of sentences into which students divided their corresponding argumentative essay. For instance, essay 25 means that there were twenty-five sentences into which the students divided their argumentative essay, and the corresponding mean in sentences is 6. The types of sentences and the generalities relative to them are presented in the following paragraph.

Figure 3

Essays and Their Corresponding Types of Sentences



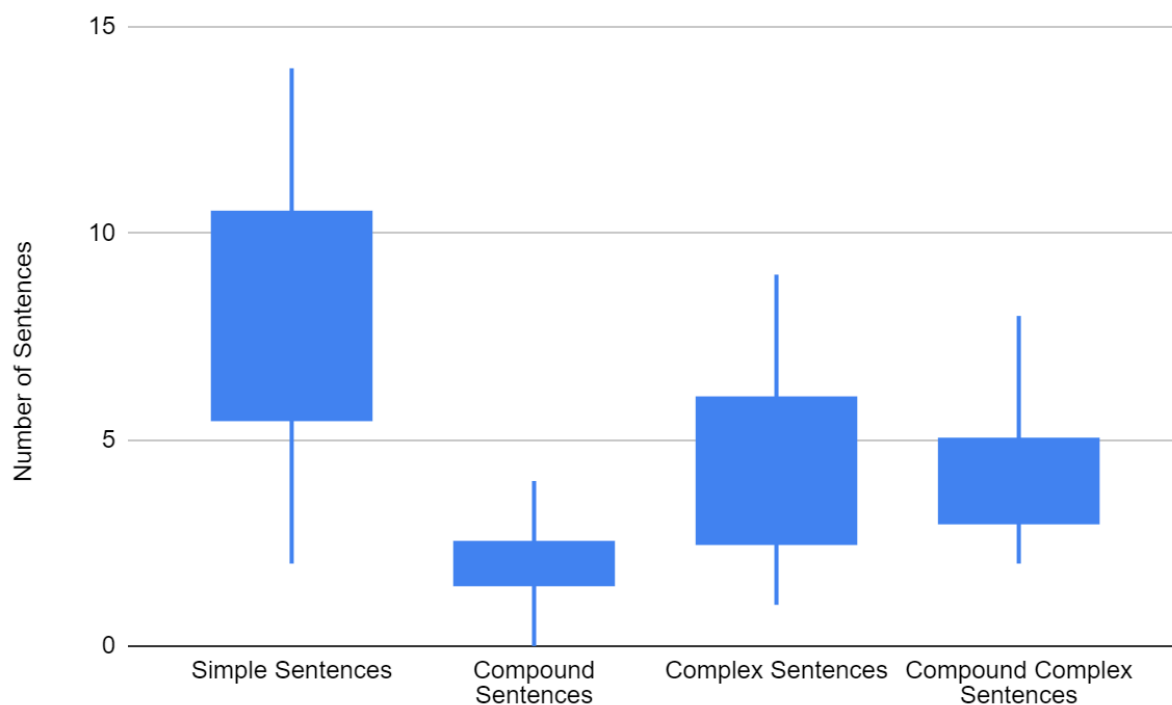
According to the bar plot above it can be seen that the simple sentences (S), the compound sentences (C), the compound, the complex sentences (Cx), and the compound-complex sentences (CC) have been graphed to illustrate the corresponding means which are: 7, 2, 4, and 4. The tendency in the data shows that the majority of the sentences found belong to the simple sentence's category, which is followed by the complex sentences. The discussion of the key findings is presented in the subsequent section and the implications of the results are presented in Chapter V.

4.5 Results: Highlights

The present subsection is sectioned into each one of the research questions (RQs) posed in the first chapter of the present piece of research. It might be helpful to bear in mind that the point of view from which the RQs will be approached belongs to the quantitative and qualitative paradigms in research. As such, each one of the RQs will contain elements of both the qualitative and quantitative perspectives to better deal with the scope and intention of the RQs. Yet there might be a dominant perspective on which a given analysis and discussion is based.

Figure 4

Types of Sentences Found in the Argumentative Essays



4.5.1 Types of Sentences

What types of sentences do the students produce to write their argumentative essay?

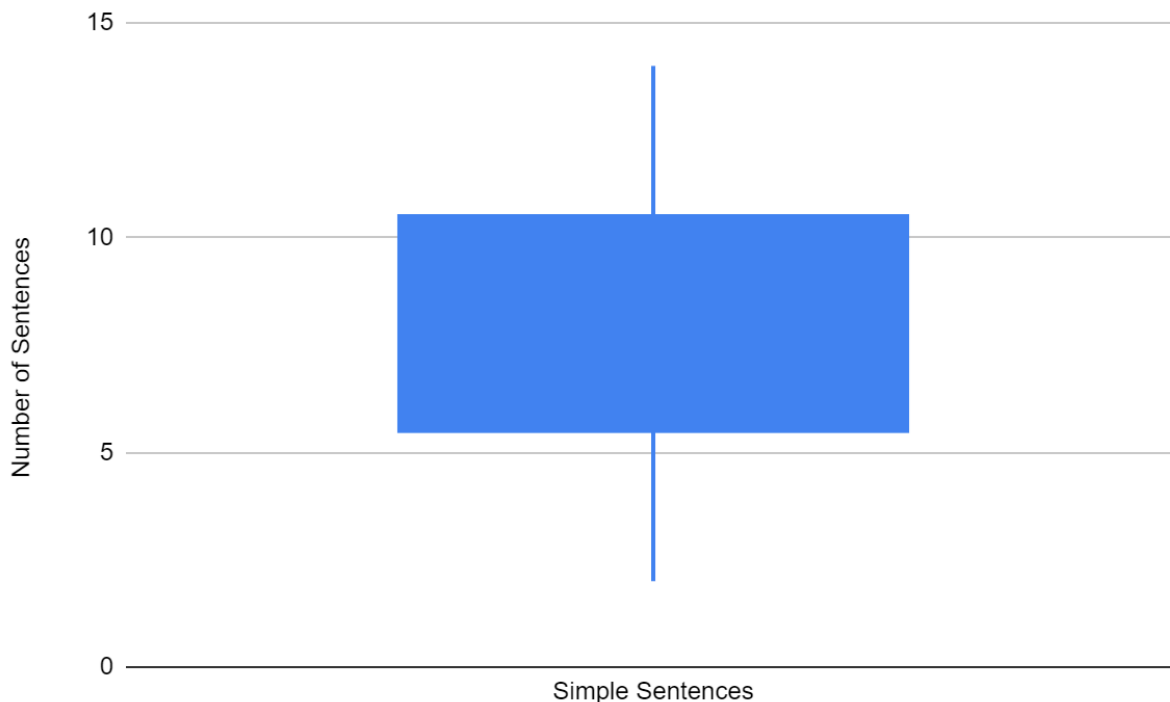
The description of the types of sentences is an ancillary compartment to the cohesion and coherence data analysis instruments which has as its purpose to complement the analysis made of the few aspects considered in this piece of research —types of sentences, cohesion, coherence, logic, rhetorical moves—to study the texts produced by TL5 students. Moreover, the present description of the types of sentences serves as the springboard to higher levels of analysis in the present piece of research. The results of the analysis of the raw data are presented.

The box plot presents the general picture of the types of sentences produced by TL5 students to write their argumentative essays. These essays were numbered according to the sentences the students divided their argumentative essays into 25, 13, 21, 14.5, 14.8, 09, and 18. The order in which these essays are presented is for the sake of convenience for the researcher of this thesis to remember who was more salient to the writing assignment. The descriptive statistics show that Essay 21, essay 18, and Essay 25 have the highest mean from the sample with 7.25, 6.75, and 5.5 sentences in total produced from the classification of simple (S), compound (C), complex (Cx), compound-complex (CC) sentences. The specifics of each essay are in order in the following paragraphs.

It can be seen from the box plot that the most frequently used type of sentence is the simple sentence (S) with a mean of 7.85 produced by each one of the TL5 students. Simple sentences are followed by complex sentences (Cx) and compound-complex sentences (CC), both with a mean of 4.28. At the end is the compound sentence (C) with a mean of 2.0. Following is the discussion of the results for the most commonly used types of sentences, which are the simple sentences (S), the complex sentences (Cx), and the compound-complex sentences (CC).

Figure 5

Simple Sentences



The boxplot in Figure 6 presents the description of the simple sentences (S). It shows that M is 7, SD is 4, the maximum value is 14, the minimum value is 2, and the quantiles computed at the 25th, 50th, 75th, and 100th percentiles are 5.5, 7.0, and 10.5 simple sentences. The previous statistics will be complemented by a qualitative analysis which has as its objective to extract the meaning in the present context of this piece of research. Consequently, the discussion of the statistics is in order.

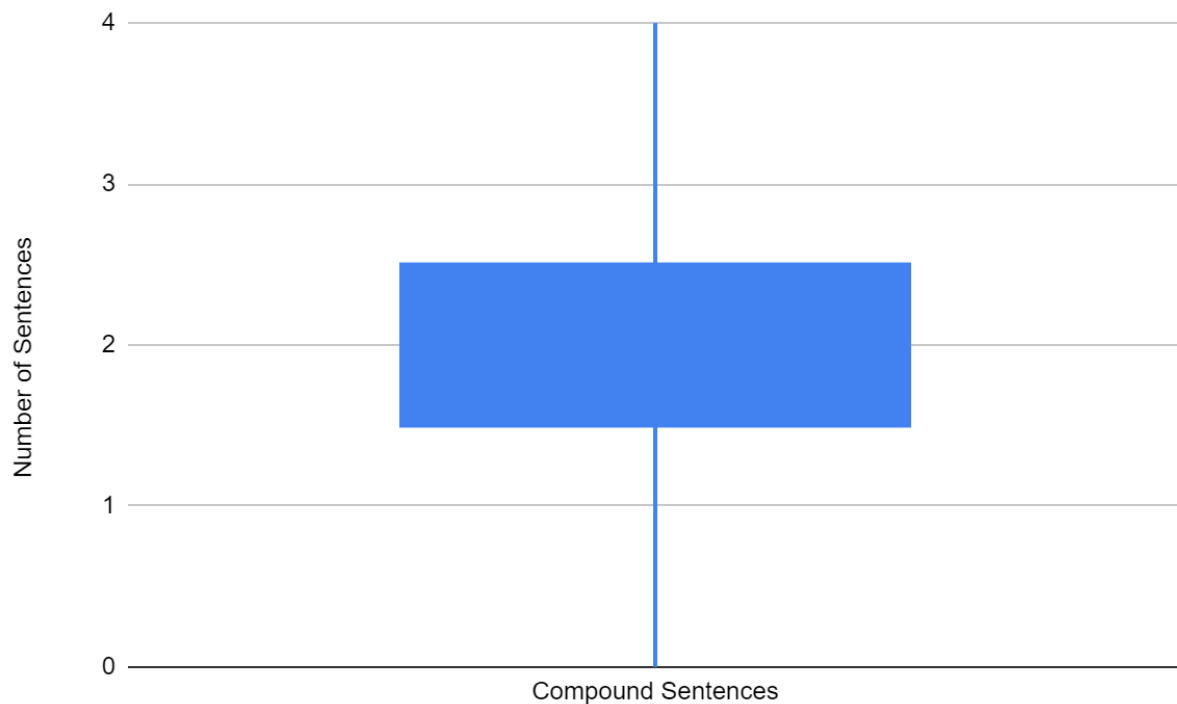
The tendency in the high frequency of occurrence of simple sentences (S) over the other types is likely consistent with the state in which the TL5 students were found in the learning of their foreign language when asked to write their argumentative essays. When the data collection instrument (DCI) was implemented, I had the opportunity to ask a few questions about taking

academic writing classes. The students answered that they were registered in their academic writing classes.

It might be said also that simple sentence (S) has a high tendency since students (remembering when I was a student at the faculty) are exposed to this type of sentence in the EFL environment in which they are immersed. Simple sentences might be considered as the building block for more elaborate sentences. Moreover, the word order in the sentences seems to be emphasized in the EFL environment and it is likely to be reflected in the results obtained. The predominance of S over the rest might be interpreted as the beginning in the process of identification and later experimentation in the combination of clauses to write texts in which students show that they have at their disposal various combinations to express meaning.

Figure 6

Compound Sentences



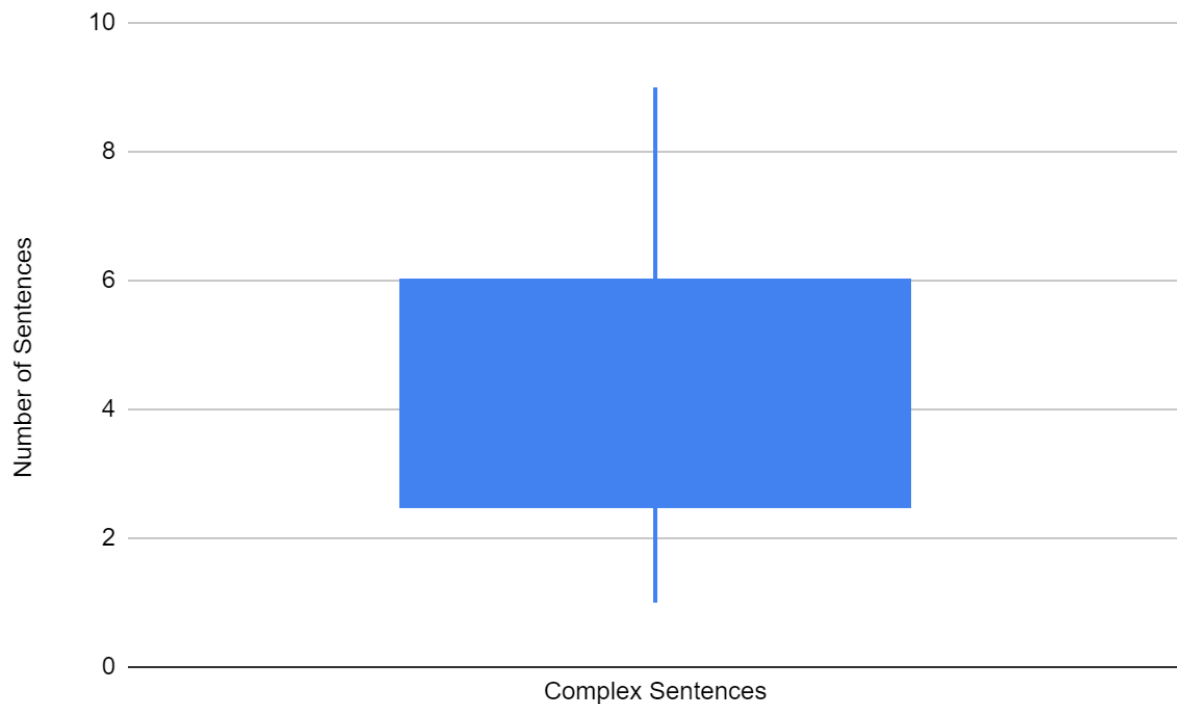
Compound sentences were the least produced by students to write their argumentative essays. The mean for this type of sentence is 2 and the standard deviation is 1.29. The minimum is 0 sentences, and the maximum is 4 compound sentences. The tendency in the small number of compound sentences might be due to the early stage at which target level five students were when the present study was carried out. Since students were taking academic writing concurrently with target language five it might be likely to say that students were getting familiar with the type of clauses and types of sentences in English. The present result suggests that students likely preferred subordination to coordination when writing. To appreciate to a deeper extent compound sentence, it might be advisable to read what Lock (1996) says about them:

In traditional grammar, a distinction is made between compound sentences, which contain only linked independent clauses, and complex sentences, which contain dependent clauses. In this book, no such distinction is made. Any sentence containing more than one ranking clause will be called a complex sentence. (p. 247)

If a compound sentence consists of two independent clauses or two simple sentences linked with a connector, one might say that students were familiarizing themselves with the fundamental connectors such as *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, and *so*. The more practice students get writing sentences, the more experience they get to master the various types of sentences to express their ideas.

Figure 7

Complex Sentences



From the box plot for the analysis of the data yielded by the frequency of occurrence of complex sentences (C) in the argumentative essays written by TL5 students, it can be seen that the mean is less than 4 complex sentences used, the standard deviation is 2, the maximum value is 9, the minimum value is 1, the sum or total value is 30, and the quantiles computed at the 25%, 50%, 75% and 100% percent are 2.5, 3.0, 6.0 and 9.0 respectively. The comparisons and interpretations of the rest of the types of sentences will be made in terms of the simple sentences, which have 7 occurrences as the mean for the sample obtained. What was found about the complex sentences is that the students seem to prefer subordination (binding) instead of coordination (linking).

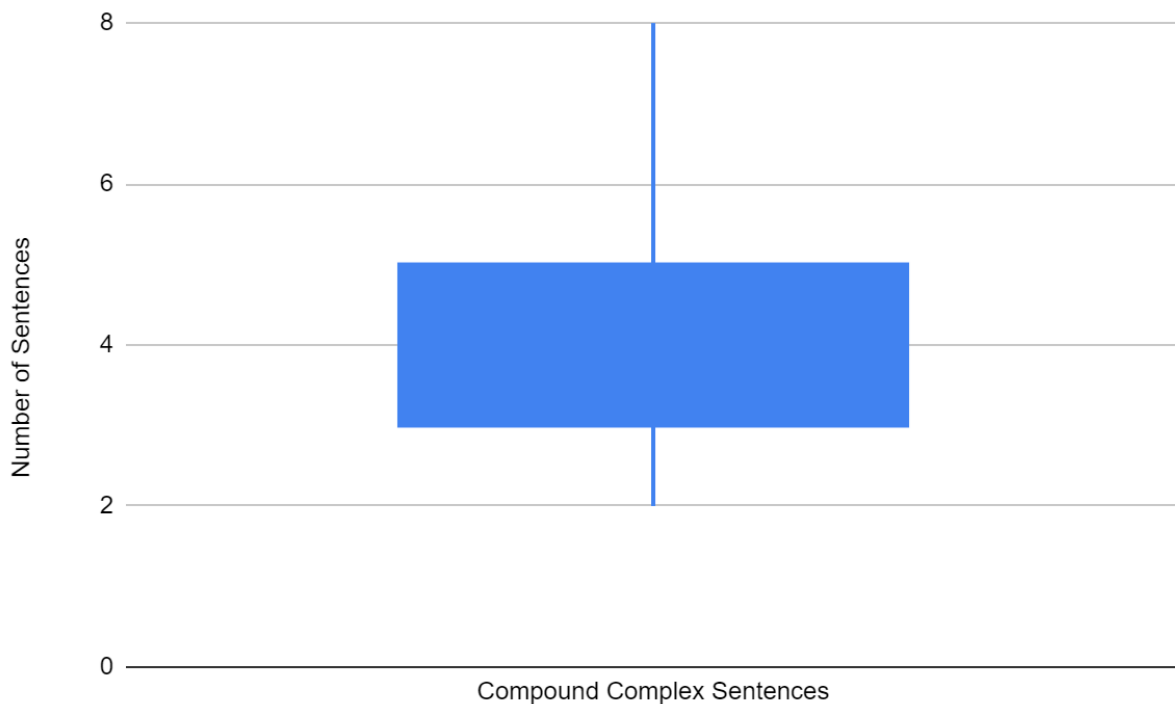
The tendency for subordination (also known as binding) as opposed to coordination might be interpreted in terms of the following quote by Lock (1996):

Perhaps one of the most difficult problems facing the learner is to develop the sense of when it is best to express two messages as two separate sentences, when to combine them through linking, and when to combine them through binding. As noted previously, the choice is highly context-dependent. (p. 254)

In the sample of argumentative essays written by TL5 students, it might be said that students are exploring how to combine messages to express what they mean. In this process of acquiring the types of combinations, students are likely to be said to prefer binding as their second option followed by compound-complex (CCLX) sentences in the last place. It comes as a surprise that coordination is not used to construct standalone compound sentences, yet the state in which students were found might shed some light in this respect.

Figure 8

Compound–Complex Sentences



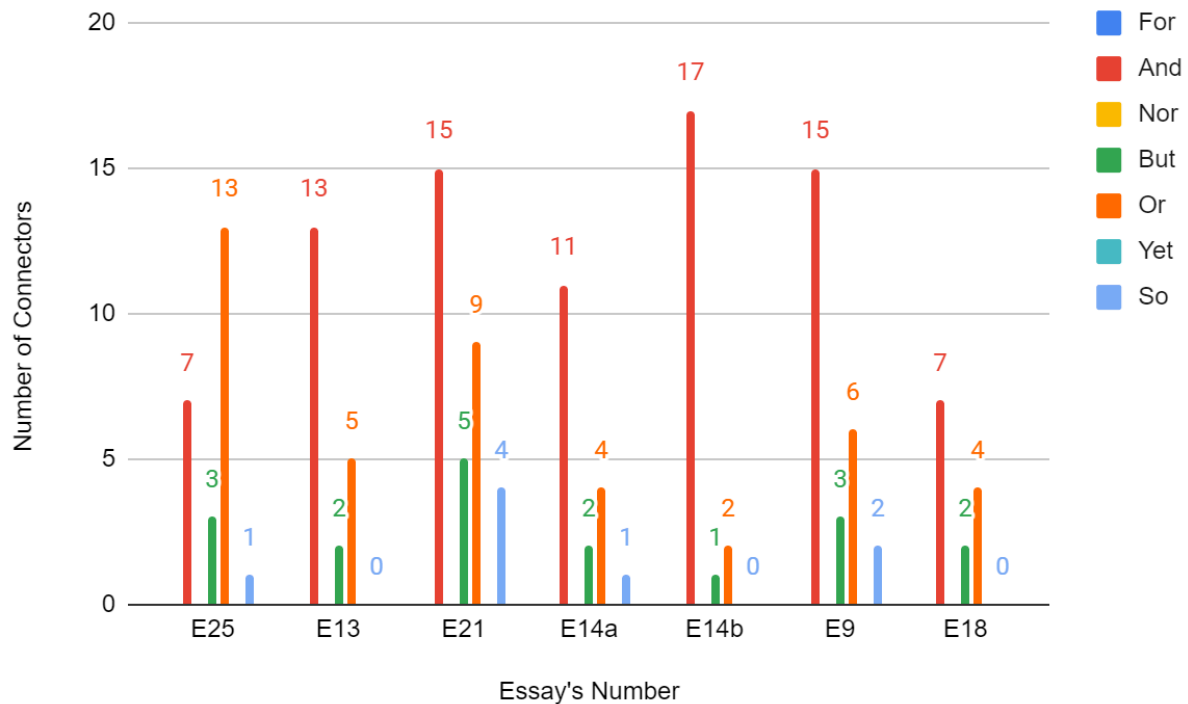
The box plot for the compound-complex sentences (CCLX) offers a similar view of the picture of the occurrence of the type of sentence being discussed in the previous paragraph, which is about complex sentences (CLX). The graph shows that the mean is 4 CCLX, the standard deviation is 2.05, the maximum value is 8 (only one sentence below from the graph generated for the CLX), the minimum value is 2, the sum or total is 30, and the quantiles computed at the 25th, 50th, 75th and 100th percentiles are 3, 4, 5, and 8 CCLX sentences respectively. Compound–complex sentences might be said to be the last preferred type of sentences since coordination (also known as linking) and subordination (also known as binding) are used to write compound–complex sentences. In other words, CCLX demands the learner to combine the sentences in novel ways to express what they want to say in their foreign language.

The previous analysis of the types of sentences ranges only on the structural relations between clauses. To conclude this section on the types of sentences, Lock (1996) suggests that

Alternatively, clauses to be combined can be presented in complete texts, so that learners have to pay attention to the flow of information to decide where and how to combine clauses. This allows learners to appreciate that the structures are not arbitrary but contribute to the coherence of a text. In general, the structural relationships are best learned to align with the logical relationships (cause, purpose, time, place, etc.) between clauses. (p. 254)

Figure 9

The Transition Signals Considered in the Present Study



4.5.2 Cohesion

What are the most common transition signals?

The description of the most commonly used connectors follows along with its corresponding graphics. It can be seen that the transition signals preferred by the students to write their argumentative essays starting from the categorization of each transition signal in terms of the FANBOYS (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So) framework shows that advanced level students, who are taking TL5, make extensive use of the and connector and the meaning associated to it which is “adding” in the beginning stages of learning to write in English. This result yields a mean of 12 sentences in which the connector appears. The second transition signal preferred by students is the or connector with a mean of 6 sentences in which this connector has

been found. The third transition signal is the coordinator with a mean of 3 sentences in which it occurs. The results of having no occurrences for the nor and yet connectors support the thought on the beginning state in which TL5 students were in their development in the process of learning to write in a foreign language. The fourth place is occupied by the but connector with a mean of 3 sentences in which it has been found. The fifth preferred connector was the linking word so with a mean of 1 sentence.

It might be said that the preferred type of sentences found in the previous section on types of sentences relates to the present results by complementing the argument for the acquisition in the first place of simple sentences (S) followed by their linking using the and connector. In other words, it might be said that the learning path in the beginning stages of learning to write in English has as the first step to learning simple sentences followed by their combinations using the and connector.

In concluding the present section, Lock (1996) explains what linking is by saying that:

In linking, the clauses are in a relationship of equality. They must all be independent clauses . . . or all dependent clauses The clauses are either simply juxtaposed (in writing, often with a comma, colon, semicolon, or dash between them) or they are joined by a linking conjunction (and, but, or etc.) (p. 248)

It is this relation of equality that is highlighted at least partially from the previous discussion of the results on the aspect relative to cohesion studied in this piece of research. This relation of equality is present in the students' argumentative essays, yet it must be carefully interpreted due to the results in the number of complex sentences that express a relationship of inequality which in Lock (1996) is further explored as follows:

In binding, it is generally easier to change the sequence of the clauses than in linking. The last clause in a complex sentence typically contains the most important information. Part of the motivation for selecting binding rather than linking can be the freedom it gives to arrange clauses in a sequence appropriate to the textual meaning. (p. 262)

It might be this freedom in arranging the clauses that students might likely tend to use more binding as opposed to linking. This freedom might likely give insight into the results up to this section. The importance of having departed from the types of sentences employed by the advanced language students (TL5) is becoming more apparent in the correlation of the results obtained in this section with those obtained in the types of sentences section, which describes the types of sentences in terms of the structural relationships between them.

4.5.3 Coherence

What are the types of topical progressions present in the last paragraph of their argumentative essays?

The coherence of the argumentative essays was studied under the topical progression analysis suggested by Connor. Connor divides the types of topical progression into three types: the parallel progression (PP), the sequential progression (SP), and the extended parallel progression (EPP). All these types of progressions use the topic of the sentences to chart the development of the coherence of the texts. According to Oshima and Hogue (1997):

A topic sentence has two essential parts: the topic and the controlling idea. The topic names the subject or main idea of the paragraph. The controlling idea makes a specific comment about the topic, which indicates what the rest of the paragraph will say about the topic. It limits or controls the topic to a specific aspect of the topic to be discussed in the space of a single paragraph. (p. 23)

It has been commonly expected that the topic is usually found in the first place in the sentence acting within the subject of the sentence, yet the topic and the controlling idea can be presented in the subject or complement. Nevertheless, it is the meaning which is charted by the use of topical progression. Consequently, the theory of topical progression uses a concept called depth of the topic. Due to the scope of the present piece of research, which limits the coherence-related aspect to be studied in the final or concluding paragraph of the argumentative essays, it was only decided to limit the description of the topical progression to the three types of progressions: parallel, sequential and extended parallel.

Table 4*Topical Progressions in last Paragraph*

Type	<i>f</i>
Parallel	7
Sequential	14
Extended Parallel	1
Total	22

The above table shows that the most frequently encountered type of topical progression is the sequential progression which according to Connor (1996):

parallel progression (topics of successive sentences are the same), sequential progression (topics of successive sentences are always topics of the next), and extended parallel progression (the first and the last topics of a piece of a text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression. (pp. 84-85)

It is this consecution of the topics that was found to be prominent with 14 occurrences. Parallel progression was found seven times. Lastly, extended parallel progression was tallied one time only. To continue with the implications, the definitions of cohesion and coherence are in order. According to Enkvist (1986, in Connor and Johns, 1990) suggests that:

In several quarters it has become customary to distinguish between cohesion and coherence: Cohesion is the term for overt links on the textual surface . . . , whereas

coherence is the quality that makes a text conform to a consistent world picture and is therefore summarizable and interpretable. (p. 14)

Coherence is one of the aspects studied in this modest piece of research and considering the words of Enkvist who suggests that coherence is closely related to the world views and being able not only to summarize but also to interpret a text, the different types of progressions found might likely give insight on the construction of plausible situations which are intended to be shared to the readers as to appropriately capitalize on the readers' intuition on what Enkvist (ibid) calls a “ hermeneutic phenomenon”:

In this sense, our intuition of coherence is a hermeneutic phenomenon. We must understand a text, that is, build up a world picture around it, to say that the text is coherent. Conversely, a text strikes us as incoherent if we cannot build up a plausible scenario around it. (p. 13)

Students in the state in which they were found employ more often sequential progression (SP) as the vehicle to construct a plausible scenario for the reader. Parallel progression was secondly preferred with seven occurrences.

4.5.4 Rhetorical Moves

Which are some of the rhetorical moves used by the students to write their argumentative essay?

The presentation of the rhetorical moves most frequently used by TL5 students has a qualitative framework within which the results will be presented. In order to analyze the rhetorical moves from a qualitative point of view, the suggestions made by Creswell (2005) were followed. To organize the presentation of the qualitative results, the suggestions in the words by Creswell (2005) are in order “qualitative researchers first collect data and then prepare it for data analysis. This analysis initially consists of developing a general sense of the data, and then coding descriptions and themes about the central phenomenon” (p. 231).

The previous quotation serves as the guiding thread for the present section. The “central phenomenon” about which the presentation of the results orbits is relative to the rhetorical moves present in TL5s’ argumentative essays. Once the stages of collection and visualization of the data obtained were carried out, the data was coded by using the templates found in Graff and Birkenstein. The templates were adapted into a checklist which was used to tally the rhetorical moves. The complete version of the checklist, out of which the following table was obtained, can be seen in Appendix B.

Table 5*Most Used Rhetorical Moves by Target Language Level 5*

Rhetorical Move	Students	Essay Number
Introducing what they say	3	21, 09, 18
Introducing standard views	6	25, 21, 14.57, 14.83, 09, 18
Making what they say something you say	1	09
Introducing something implied or assumed	1	14.57
Introducing quotations	1	13
Explaining quotations	1	09
Disagreeing with reason	1	14.83
Entertaining objections	3	14.57, 09, 18
Making concessions while still standing your ground	1	14.83
Indicating who cares	1	21
Establishing why your claims matter	2	14.57, 14.83

Note: This table has been adapted from Graff and Birkenstein 2013.

The table shows a tendency clearly marked which favors, in the sample size of the argumentative essays, the Introducing Standard Views rhetorical moves with 6 essays where such

rhetorical move was employed. This rhetorical move is followed by the Introducing What They Say rhetorical move and Entertaining Objections with 3 students each one of these rhetorical moves. In the third place, Establishing Why Your Claims Matter occurred in three essays. The rest of the rhetorical moves were tallied only once.

The tendency in the results obtained in the analysis of rhetorical moves might indicate that TL5 students might develop a larger set of rhetorical moves as they progress in their studies of learning English as a foreign language. In other words, learning to write complemented by practice will pay off in the students' learning of English. In revisiting writing, according to Bell and Burnaby (1984, as cited in Nunan, 1989):

Writing is an extremely complex activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of a number of variables simultaneously. At the sentence level these include control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and letter formation. Beyond the sentence, the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs. (p. 36)

The results found in terms of the number of rhetorical moves used by the students might indicate that TL5 students are moving to the second phase which is the production of cohesive and coherent paragraphs described in the above quotation. The TL5 students' repertoire of rhetorical moves is likely to start broadening while they are taking academic writing classes. Consequently, the number of rhetorical moves used in subsequent students' states of learning to write might tentatively increase. To evaluate students in the states in which they are exhibiting what they have learned, Enkvist (in Connor and Johns, 1990) suggests that:

Contrastive pragmatics and advice on how to achieve communicative competence in an unfamiliar social setting or in a foreign style, dialect, or language should also focus on

discourse management, including coherence. A message may be interpretable even when its sentences fail to follow preconceived norms of well formedness. The goal is to prepare students for *communicative success* [emphasis added]. To cite the gist of an old paper of mine (Enkvist, 1973), as teachers we should strive to *measure success rather than to count errors* [emphasis added]. (pp. 26-27)

The emphasis has been added to highlight the words that point to the concepts personally considered important in evaluating students' performance. Moreover, this is a quote that might be best connected to the teaching of writing. The implications of the results obtained will be presented in the following section of this piece of research where the conclusions of the present chapter will be directed to elaborate an argument to present some implications for the teaching of writing at the state encountered in this piece of research. Before proceeding to the summary of the Implications section, the results of the logic data analysis instrument are presented.

4.5.5 Summary of Quantitative Results

At the sentence level, the most preferred type of sentence used by target language five students was the simple sentence. In terms of transition signals, the most prominent transition signal was the clause connector. At the paragraph level, parallel progression was the most preferred type of topical progression used to give the text coherence. Lastly, the Introducing Standard Views rhetorical move was heavily used by TL5 students.

4.6 Qualitative Findings: Generalities

The present section of this thesis answers the following research questions from a qualitative point of view:

4. Which fundamental elements of an argument are present?
5. How is the stand taken by the author supported?
7. What is the average score of the texts?
8. What are the student's writing communicative needs?
9. What does a syllabus for an academic writing course have to include to meet those needs?

Two main characteristics serve as the core of the qualitative component of this thesis. These two characteristics are, according to Creswell (2007), inductive data analysis and interpretive inquiry. Special attention has been paid to what Mason (2002) includes in her definition of qualitative research as active reflexivity: “Qualitative research should involve critical self-scrutiny by the researcher or active reflexivity. This means that researchers should constantly take stock of their actions and their role in the research process, and subject these to ... critical scrutiny ... ” (p. 7). The highlights of the qualitative elements of this thesis are presented in the following section.

4.7 Key Findings

According to Cassany (2011) writing is highly likely the most complex linguistic skill due to the fact that it demands from writers to use the rest of skills. This complexity has been studied via models which describe the process of writing and of reading to evaluate. Both of these models are cognitive. Hayes (1996, as cited in Cassany, 2011, p. 59) divides his model on writing into the context of writing and the writer. The subsets of the context of writing are the social context and the physical context. The set related to the writer has as its members affective

factors, workload memory, long term memory, and cognitive processes. The qualitative findings point to the long term memory and cognitive processes subsets. The specifics of these two subsets are presented in the following table:

Table 6

Two Components of Hayes' Cognitive Model

Long Term Memory	Cognitive Processes
Writing schemes	Textual interpretation
Knowledge about the topic	Reflective thinking
Knowledge about the audience	Textual production
Linguistic knowledge	
Knowledge of genres	

The cognitive processes involved in reading to evaluate, according to Hayes (ibid, p. 67), are illustrated in the following table:

Table 7

Hayes' Cognitive Model on Reading to Evaluate

To Comprehend and To Critique
Decodification of words
Application of grammatical knowledge
Application of semantic knowledge
Contextualization and inferences
Use of schemes and knowledge of the world
Application of genre conventions
Identification of fundamentals
Inferences about the author's purpose and point of view
Considerations about audience

Note. Adapted from Cassany (2011, p. 67).

The partial depiction of Hayes' model in the above table shows the highly complex nature of writing. This complexity is increased when argumentation is also a component of the writing task. Kahane and Cavender (1997) remind us that the purpose of the majority of "essays

is to persuade readers of your thesis. To do this, you have to write not just logically but also well.” (p. 196). The findings obtained are presented in the following subsections.

4.7.1 Fundamental Elements of Students’ Argument

The difference between expository and argumentative rhetoric, according to Kahane and Cavender (1997), is that “an argument makes the claim, explicit or implicit, that one of its statements follows from some of its other statements. It at least implies that acceptance of its conclusion is justified if one accepts its premises” (p. 4). Diestler (1998) suggests the constituent parts of an argument are the conclusion “about a particular issue. This conclusion is supported by reasons. If an individual has a conclusion but offers no reasons why he has come to that conclusion, then he has only made a statement, not an argument” (p.3). The issue with which students were faced in writing their argumentative essays was: “Should the rule in college be that plagiarism is to be punished by an automatic failure in the course in question or perhaps even by expulsion from school, either after the first or the second offense?” (Kahane & Cavender, 1997, p. 200). Whether the conclusion was explicit or implicit, is shown in the following table:

Table 8

Argumentative Essays and Their Claims

Essay	Type of Conclusion
E25	Explicit
E13	Implicit
E21	Implicit
E14.57	Explicit

E14.83	Explicit
E09	Explicit
E18	Implicit

The explicit conclusions were phrased as follows. Essay 25 contains the conclusion in the form: “I’m going to talk about why the plagiarism should be punished”. Essay 14.57 presents the following conclusion: “I think this must be punished or penalized ...”. Essay 14.83 claims that “plagiarism should be punished ...” but expulsion is not the best solution. Essay 09 concludes that “plagiarism should not be penalized because technology has exceeded to everybody ...”. The rest of the essays implicitly stated that plagiarism should be punished. All the essays address the topic of the scheduled writing task, but to what extent is the issue in question addressed? Diestler (1998) states that “you will spend most of your time and energy as a critical thinker and responsible writer and speaker looking at the quality of the reasons used to support a conclusion” (pp. 9-10).

The quality of the reasons was approached by using the Toulmin model of argumentation. Toulmin (2003), in the chapter entitled *The Layout of Arguments*, describes an argument in terms of data, warrant, qualification, and claim. The warrant might well be backed and the qualification might be rebutted. The distinction between data and warrants is that “data are appealed to explicitly, warrants implicitly. In addition, one may remark that warrants are general, certifying the soundness of all arguments of the appropriate type ...” (Toulmin, p. 92). An example to illustrate the elements of an argument is given by Toulmin: “Petersen is a Swede. So, almost certainly, Petersen is not a Roman Catholic” (p. 103). In this example, the datum is

Petersen is a Swede. The conclusion or claim is introduced by the sentence connector so followed by a qualifier. The qualifier is the phrase: almost certainly. What connects the data to the conclusion is the warrant. The warrant, in this case, is: “A Swede can be taken to be almost certainly not a Roman Catholic” (ibid, p. 103). The backing for this warrant is related to a statistical study.

Diestler (1998) highlights that “critical thinkers focus their attention first on the issue being discussed, second, on the conclusions taken, and third, on the reasons given to support or justify the conclusions” (p. 10). The arguments presented in the essays were analyzed using the Toulmin model. The reasons presented vary in the topics alluded to and their justification. Each essay was mapped to the following scheme based on Toulmin:

Table 9

The Toulmin Model of Argument

Datum or data (D)	Warrant (W)	So, Qualifying (Q),	Claim (C)
	Backing (B)	Rebuttal (R)	

All argumentative essays written by TL5 students contain a claim (‘C) and data (D). The claim was either explicitly or implicitly stated. The rest of the elements that are contained in each argumentative essay are presented in the following table:

Table 10

Argumentative Essays and Their Constituent Elements

Essay	Element of the Toulmin Model
E25	D, W, C
E13	D, W, B, C
E21	D, W, C
E14.57	D, W, C
E14.83	D, W, C
E09	D, W, B, C
E18	D, W, B, C

The majority of the argumentative essays contained data, warrants, and claims. Backing of the warrant was awarded if there was use of quotations or paraphrases. Three out of seven essays contained backing. It might be said that TL5 students were moving towards higher levels of academic writing proficiency.

4.7.2 Support for the Stand Taken

Diestler (1997) emphasizes that the reasons presented in an argument are fundamental. Oshima and Hogue (1999) state that “one of the biggest problems in student writing is that student writers often fail to prove their points with concrete details. ...” (p. 71). These two authors suggest that students include factual support in the form of examples, statistics, quotations, paraphrases, and summaries. The relevance of statistics can be seen in how statistical results lead to a conclusion as in the example given by Toulmin (2003): “So, almost certainly,

Petersen is not a Roman Catholic” (p. 103). The statistical nature of this conclusion is founded upon the backing of the warrant. The difficulty in including support might be increased because warrants are stated implicitly. In this example, the argument can be dissected into its components as follows:

Table 11

The Statistical Support of a Warrant according to the Toulmin Model of Argument

Datum or data (D)	Warrant (W)	So, Qualifying (Q)	Claim (C)
Petersen is a Swede.	A Swede can be taken to be almost certainly not a Roman Catholic.	So, almost certainly,	Petersen is not a Roman Catholic.
	Backing (B)	Rebuttal (R)	
	Because the proportion of Roman Catholic Swedes is less than 2%.		

The analysis of the support presented in the argumentative essays will be presented in a table. The types of concrete support considered are examples, statistics, quotations, paraphrases, and summaries.

Table 12

Support Students Used to Prove their Stand

Essay	Type of Support
E14.83	Examples
E25	Examples
E18	Quotations, summary, examples
E14.57	Examples
E21	Examples
E09	Examples and quotations
E13	Examples and quotations

All argumentative essays show that opinions and facts were included. Oshima and Hogue (1999) highlight the importance of using support for opinions and facts “to be completely convincing” (p. 72). Students are progressing towards familiarity and mastery of proving their claims.

4.7.3 Assessing Students’ Writing

This writing assessment considers the following four principles of language development, suggested by Haynes (2010), as central. The first principle is that “pupil’s language development ... will progress best when modes of language are interrelated” (p. 116). This principle is essentially the same that Brown (2000) suggests about the integration of skills. The four skills known as listening, speaking, reading, and writing are not isolated when they are used in real communication. The second principle is that “language development will progress best when

critical and creative work are combined” (Haynes, p. 117). The third principle is that “language development occurs over time and is frequently a long-term process” (p. 118). The fourth principle is that “both procedural and declarative knowledge matter here” (p. 119). A longitudinal study of students’ writing might well broaden what this cross-sectional writing assessment achieves.

The analysis departed from the outlines into which the argumentative essays were mapped. The order in which the essays appear mirrored the sequence students volunteered for the present study. The outlines were ordered according to the extent they are structured into topics, topic sentences, and supporting sentences. Since the stages of the writing process involved were the prewriting and the planning stages, the texts were found to have the following order:

Table 13

The Outlines of the Argumentative Essays in Order

Planning Stage	Number of Rhetorical Moves Used
E14.83	4
E25	1
E18	3
E14.57	4
E21	3
E09	5

Prewriting Stage

The strength of the three essays, which are closer to the planning stage, was that topics appeared in topic sentences. Paragraphs were also shaped by using supporting sentences. The weakness of these three essays is related to the number of rhetorical moves used. Particularly, essay 25 (E25) contains a rhetorical move that introduces standard views, yet this essay was sectioned into an introductory paragraph with a thesis statement, body paragraphs, and a concluding paragraph.

Essay 14.57 was placed in the middle of the continuum between the prewriting and the planning stages. This essay contains four rhetorical moves: introducing standard views, introducing something implied or assumed, entertaining objections, and establishing why your claims matter. This essay had a body and a conclusion, yet the introduction lacked a thesis statement.

The strength of the last three essays, which are closer to the prewriting stage, was the use of rhetorical moves. Essay 09 uses five rhetorical moves: introducing what they say, introducing standard views, making what they say something you say, explaining quotations, and entertaining objections. This essay was placed close to the prewriting stage because the introductory paragraph did not have a thesis statement. Essays 21 and 13 were differentiated by the use of a thesis statement.

The most consistent argumentative essay was E14.83. This essay was 496 words long and it was sectioned into 6 paragraphs. Four rhetorical moves were used: introducing standard views, disagreeing with reason, making concessions while still standing your ground, and establishing

why your claims matter. In terms of the process of reconstructing the outline, it was heavily semantic and it required more than just ordering words and ideas that appeared in this argumentative essay. The transcribed essay and its corresponding outline can be seen in Appendix H.

4.7.4 Students' Writing Communicative Needs

The present needs analysis is based on a cross-sectional sample of written work produced by target language level five students. The argumentative essays collected show that students have been making progress toward becoming intermediate writers of English. Grabe and Kaplan (2014) suggest that writers can be classified into beginning, intermediate, or advanced. These same authors present a description of intermediate students: "They must use writing to learn a wide range of other academic information; ... must learn to read from multiple sources and write from these sources" (p. 303). Vocabulary and more elaborate sentences are also referred to. Consequently, target language level five students might adequately be classified as intermediate-level writers. This is justified by the stage of the writing process in which their essays have been located. The present needs analysis is sectioned into the micro-skills for writing they have mastered, the skills they will develop in an academic writing course, and what a research methodology course is likely to demand.

General English classes are likely to enable students to master what Brown (2000) calls micro-skills for writing as well as the micro-skills for reading. The most ambitious micro skill for writing is "develop and use a battery of writing strategies, ... assessing the audience's interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in the first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing" (p. 342). The most ambitious micro skill for reading is "develop and use a battery of

reading strategies such as scanning and skimming, detecting discourse markers, guessing the meaning of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts” (ibid, p. 307). These micro skills might be best understood within a cognitive model for writing.

The cognitive model suggested by Hayes (1996, as cited in Cassany, 2011, p. 59) has six main components interrelated to the context of the writing task and the writer. The nodes directly related to the writer that are essential for this section are semantic memory, knowledge of the topic and linguistic knowledge, and the cognitive processes: text interpretation, reflective thinking, and textualization. According to the argumentative essays collected, knowledge about the topic, linguistic knowledge, and textualization are being improved by the students. Students are making progress toward becoming good writers.

Grabe and Kaplan (2014) suggest that good writers:

- plan longer,
- have more elaborate plans,
- review and reassess plans on a regular basis,
- consider the reader's point of view in planning and writing,
- incorporate multiple perspectives into the drafting,
- revise in line with global goals rather than merely editing local segments, and
- have a wide range of writing and revising strategies to call upon. (p. 240)

The above practices of good writers are promoted in an academic writing course. In an academic writing course, general English skills are broadened to cover more complex writing tasks. Among these tasks are essays, reports, thesis proposals, and journal articles. Swales and Feak (2001) succinctly summarize the type of writing required in an academic writing course. The requirements are organized in terms of the introduction, method, results, and discussion

scheme (IMRD): summary writing, general-specific, problem solution, and critiques (I); process descriptions (M); highlight statements and qualifications (R); explanations and literature comparisons (D). The skills developed in an academic writing course are refined in a research methodology class.

Research methodology courses allow students to apply their skills to more professional purposes. Research methodology courses require that students orient their efforts to produce high-quality research in linguistics, applied linguistics, and related disciplinary and interdisciplinary fields. A central theme is the subtle distinction between quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies. A sound understanding of research methodology is what entitles inquiry as more than curiosity, as Hatch (1991) points out: “The way we search differentiates simple curiosity from research. Research is the organized, systematic search for answers to the questions we ask” (p. 1). The process of research is succinctly summarized by Dörnyei (2011): “Research is disciplined inquiry” (p. 15). Students must be guided to attain such a level of discipline in their general English, academic writing, and research methodology courses.

4.7.5 An Academic Writing Syllabus Proposal

The purpose of this writing course is to enable students to transition from general English to English for academic purposes. The present academic writing course was structured according to the needs analysis identified by analyzing argumentative essays. All the essays present topics and topic sentences that can be further developed into a final version with the appropriate guidance of a professional. In terms of the argument presented by the students, it can be enhanced with explicit instruction on logic, argumentation, and critical thinking skills. Since students will be faced with academic tasks, vocabulary plays an important role. The role of vocabulary in general English courses is important, so the role of vocabulary is of the utmost

importance in English for academic purposes. The central role of vocabulary will become crystallized when students can write summaries. For instance, students will become aware of the importance of summarizing when they write their own abstracts.

The present academic writing course contains seven fundamental elements: the writing process, argumentation, reading, speaking, vocabulary, the essentials of research methodology, and research projects. The writing process consists of six stages: prewriting, outlining, drafting, revising, rewriting, and writing the final copy. The weight for each stage will be different depending on the introductory, middle, or final nature of the lesson. Argumentation will be emphasized by identifying the issue, conclusions, and reasons of written or spoken discourse. Extensive reading of academic texts will be fostered. The texts will range from fictional narratives to argumentative types of texts.

As soon as students reach emergent competence in academic writing, they will be asked to read serious academic texts such as journal articles, highly theoretical books on linguistics, and applied linguistics. Theses written by students will also be read. Academic presentations will be planned for students to practice presenting an argument in spoken discourse. Development of academic vocabulary will be done by using the concept of move, which Swales (1981, as cited in Morley) coined. Vocabulary will be supplemented with rhetorical moves. Because writing a thesis is one of the requirements to graduate, research methodology topics such as quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research will be studied. The section on research projects will be undertaken by students doing mini-research projects applying various research designs.

The aims of this academic writing course are related to themes such as a paragraph, an essay, an argumentative essay, a research paper, a journal article, a thesis proposal, a BA thesis, an MA thesis, and a PhD thesis or dissertation among others. The taxonomy presented by Grabe

and Kaplan (2014, pp. 217-222) was used to select part of the topics presented in this course. The list of topics is the following:

- A Paragraph
- A Report
- A Summary
- An Essay
- A Critical Review
- An Argumentative Essay
- A Research Paper
- An Academic Presentation
- A Questionnaire
- A Survey
- An Interview
- A Literature Review
- A Journal Article [APA-JARS]
- A Thesis Proposal
- A Bachelor of Arts Thesis
- A Master of Arts Thesis
- A PhD Thesis [Dissertation]
- A Professional Text

The topics that can be studied in depth during a 64-hour writing course with 2-hour sessions per week are:

- A Paragraph
- A Report
- A Summary
- An Essay
- A Critical Review
- An Argumentative Essay
- -----
- A Research Paper
- An Academic Presentation
- -----
- A Questionnaire
- A Survey
- An Interview
- -----
- A Literature Review
- A Thesis Proposal
- A Bachelor of Arts Thesis

The topics have been sectioned into four. These four sections represent the four months this academic writing course has been planned for. According to Woolcock (2005, p. 11), there are “four major areas of syllabus construction: 1.] aims and objectives; 2.] content and sequencing; 3.] assessment and evaluation; and 4.] administration and preparation” (p. 11). The aims of this course are to enable students to A.] write an argumentative essay; B.] give an

academic presentation; C.] construct a data collection instrument; and D.] write a BA thesis proposal.

The first aim of this course is to enable students to write an argumentative essay. The objectives are:

1. Students will demonstrate mastery of the writing process.
2. Students will construct a paragraph on a topic of their choice.
3. Students will write a report and a summary of an academic lecture.
4. Students will write a timed personal essay in class.
5. Students will write a critical review of an argumentative essay.
6. Students will write an argumentative essay on an academic issue.

The second aim is to enable students to give an academic presentation. The objectives for this aim are:

1. Students will critique an academic presentation in terms of the argument presented: issue, conclusion, and reasons.
2. Students will apply the stages of the writing process to construct an academic presentation on a topic of their choice.
3. Students will write an outline for their own academic presentation on an issue related to writing a thesis.
4. Students will give a problem-solution academic presentation.

The third aim is to enable students to construct a data collection instrument. The corresponding objectives are:

1. Students will plan a research project on a topic of their interest.
2. Students will identify the most appropriate methodology for their research project.
3. Students will write the method chapter of their research paper.
4. Students will construct a data collection instrument (DCI): questionnaire, survey, or interview.
5. Students will deploy their DCI to collect data.
6. Students will give an academic presentation on the analysis of the data.

The last aim of this academic writing course is to enable students to write a BA thesis proposal. The objectives are:

1. Students will demonstrate mastery of the prewriting stage of the process of writing by selecting and narrowing a topic of their interest either by free writing, listing, or clustering.
2. Students will construct a literature review outline based on the identification of key concepts and key words of their research topic.
3. Students will create a database to collect the theoretical framework of their thesis.
4. Students will write a tentative summary of the methods chapter.
5. Students will collate the items they have gathered for their literature review.
6. Students will outline and write the introductory chapter for their thesis.
7. Students will identify the best type of methodology to answer their research questions.
8. Students will outline chapter three of their thesis on methodology.
9. Students will summarize tentatively chapter three.
10. Students will deploy their instruments to collect data.
11. Students will outline chapters one and three.

12. Students will analyze the data collected.
13. Students will outline chapter four.
14. Students will construct the appropriate figures and tables to illustrate their results.
15. Students will draft chapters one, three, and four.
16. Students will peer-review their literature reviews.
17. Students will outline and draft chapter five on conclusions.
18. Students will give an academic presentation on their thesis proposal.
19. Students will peer-review their academic presentations by writing a critical review.
20. Students will draft chapters one, two, three and four.
21. Students will give an academic presentation based on chapters four and five of their thesis proposal.

4.7.6 Summary of Qualitative Findings

The Toulmin model of argument served as the tool to conclude that the argumentative essays written by TL5 students contained the fundamental elements of an argument: the claim, warrant, and support. Three essays included backing which can be said to point to the warrant implied. The most preferred type of support was examples followed by quotations. The progress TL5 students made towards mastering academic writing was shown in the effort made to present a sound argument. In this respect, the rubric allowed the author of this thesis to conclude that all the essays can be greatly improved by the students to obtain an A plus grade.

The students' academic writing needs pointed to the knowledge of the topic, the planning stage of writing, the drafting stages, the feedback given to the students, and the explicit instruction on logic. The needs identified were entertained when designing the academic writing syllabus proposal. This syllabus was designed to guide students' transition to academic writing.

The syllabus was structured on seven fundamental elements: the writing process, argumentation, reading, speaking, vocabulary, the essentials of research methodology, and research projects.

4.8 Chapter Summary

The present piece of research analyzed the data that the author of the thesis was provided by students who were learning Target Language Five at the Language Faculty in BUAP. As can be seen, the sample size is small, being only seven texts. However, the texts provide samples of authentic texts to be analyzed at various levels. These levels may range from the fundamental levels of lexis and grammar to the levels of semantics and pragmatics. Consequently, the authentic texts collected in the form of argumentative essays allowed the author of this thesis to describe authentic texts of a considerable length. The previously mentioned description has been made in terms of the types of sentences, cohesion, coherence, rhetorical moves, and logic. Moreover, quantitative results and qualitative findings were presented.

CHAPTER V

Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to undertake a descriptive analysis of argumentative essays written by advanced-level students of English as a foreign language to present an empirical suggestion on how to analyze argumentative essays and to propose an academic writing syllabus. In achieving this twofold objective, the types of sentences more frequently used by TL5 students were identified, the most common transition signals were described, the topical progression was presented by making a description of the most common type used, the rhetorical moves were also studied, and the logic under claim, warrant, and support—based on the Toulmin model—was presented. In a subsequent stage of this thesis, the argumentative essays were assessed, the communicative writing needs of the students were identified, an empirical suggestion on how to analyze argumentative essays was given, and an academic writing syllabus was proposed.

Before proceeding to the section on implications, it might be advisable to pay attention to what Chandrasekhar (2008) suggests on the concept of conclusion and what he considers the associated terms to this concept to be: “The conclusions record the power of your scientific thinking. You have to unite all that has come before with a ‘thread of unified perspective.’ This is where you say why you think your story is a good one ...” (p. 15).

It is the purpose of this chapter to unify all the sections of this piece of research by presenting a persuasive argument. In further emphasizing the importance of the conclusion section, Nozick (1993, as cited in Dunleavy, 2003), suggests that an intellectual problem is solved or ameliorated “somewhat if a sequence of admissible operations has been carried out so as to change the initial state into an outcome that meets the goal without breaching the

constraints in doing so” (p. 23). It is this set of admissible operations, which have been presented throughout the present modest piece of research, that have as their focus the TL5 students’ argumentative essays.

In concluding the introduction to this chapter, Damer (1995) suggests that to “Determine when one should conclude a debate or discussion and make a decision about what to do or believe. This is a matter of recognizing when an argument is good enough for a reasonable person to embrace its conclusion” (p. xi). It has been one of the major concerns of the author of this thesis to present a good enough argument with the set of propositions presented in this piece of research. In the hope of having constructed an argument, the implications occupy the following sections.

5.2 Implications

What are some conclusions that might be reached about the aspects studied in this piece of research —types of sentences, cohesion, coherence, rhetorical moves, logic, writing assessment, students’ writing communicative needs, and an academic writing syllabus proposal? And what pedagogical considerations might tentatively be suggested?

The results yielded by the analysis showed that the most preferred type of sentence was the simple sentence. The most commonly found transition signal was the and linking word. The highly used type of topical progression was the sequential progression (SP). The prominent rhetorical moves were Introducing Standard Views and Introducing What They Say. The support most frequently employed was examples followed by quotations. The claim, warrant, and support were identified in terms of the Toulmin model of argument. The needs analysis suggested that explicit instruction on logic and argumentation can be beneficial. The academic

writing syllabus emphasized the importance of guiding students' transition from general English into academic writing.

Following the pursuable argument will be elaborated to present what the pedagogical implications might likely be. The order in which the implications will be presented follows the order of the research questions (RQs) posed in the introduction of this piece of research.

5.2.1 Types of Sentences

The implications relative to the types of sentences found might be elaborated on the following words by Lock (1996):

Learners are often given practice in linking and binding by being required to combine separate sentences into one sentence or to transform a linking relationship between two clauses into a binding relationship. Out of context, such exercises are likely to be very mechanical and may do little to enable learners to use the structures appropriately. (p. 254)

Along with the results obtained, which is a high frequency in the use of simple sentences in the TL5 students' argumentative essays, the above quotation might likely point to the practice of fundamental structures in context to use the various types of sentences appropriately. Once students have mastered the basic building blocks to construct sentences, more elaborate practice and use are likely to be given by presenting all the elements that make up the writing practice highly contextualized.

It might also be said that the tendency in the use of complex sentences is likely to be interpreted in terms of the freedom in placing the clauses in the resulting type of sentence. Following the implications for cohesion are given.

5.2.2 Cohesion

Relative to the cohesion results obtained, it might be implied that there is a departure from the basic concept expressed by the meaning of the and linking word, which is contained in the types of sentences more frequently encountered in the argumentative essays. The tendency in the high use of the and connector might highlight the starting point in the development of more elaborate shades in meaning expressed by various types of transition signals under the framework for, and, nor, or, yet, and so—FANBOYS.

Within the FANBOYS framework of analysis, the connector was highly encountered in the texts. The second transition signal used was the or connector followed by the for connector. To elaborate on the likely implications, the functions of the FANBOYS transition signals are presented. The following table was based on the ideas presented by Oshima and Hogue (1997, p.156):

Table 16

Transition Signals within the For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So Framework

Linking Word	Use
For	The second clause gives the reason for the first clause.
And	The two clauses express equal similar ideas.
Nor	It joins two negative independent clauses.
But	The two clauses express equal contrasting ideas.
Or	The two clauses express alternative possibilities.

Yet The second clause is a surprising or unexpected contrast to the first clause.

So The second clause is the result of the first clause.

Note. Table adapted from Oshima and Hogue (1997, p.156)

The mean in the frequency for the and connector is 12 sentences. It might be said that compound sentences (C) are found contained in the complex sentences (Cx) whose mean is 4 sentences. Compound complex sentences (CC) are the third type with a mean of 4 sentences in which this construction has been found. The students' tendency to use the and connector might be partially described in terms of the function which is expressed by the and connector which is "adding." The following quote by Lock (1996) gives the definitions for part of the concepts used in this piece of research by suggesting that:

Clauses may be in a structural relationship of equality, called linking, or of inequality, called binding. In linking, the clauses must either all be independent clauses or all be dependent clauses. In binding, one clause must be dependent either on an independent clause or on another dependent clause. (p. 261)

From the point of view of cohesion, the previous quote might result in the following interpretation. Binding is already present in the students' argumentative essay at the state in which the present piece of research was carried out. Moreover, students seem to be exploring ways in which this structural relation might be further employed to express what they mean under complex sentences. The preference for using binding as part of complex sentences might be interpreted as the preferred learning path for broadening the use of types of sentences for the TL5 students.

The present research relied heavily on the structural relationships of the clauses due to the scope of the research. However, it must be highlighted in the words by Lock (1996) that: “A wide range of logical relationships can hold between structurally related clauses. Following Halliday (1976), these relationships can be classified into three broad types: elaboration, extension, and enhancement” (p. 255).

This side of the relationships between clauses is out of the scope of the present piece of research, yet the interrelationship of the various types of meanings expressed makes it somehow hard to demarcate the elements that interact in the study of meaning under the particular context created by the texts. The starting point used as the springboard for higher levels of analysis in this research is made explicit in the words by Lock (1996) who highlights that:

In order to think about grammar as a resource for making and exchanging meanings, it is necessary to explore what might be meant by meaning. Three types of meaning within grammatical structures can be identified: experiential meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning. (p. 8)

It has been the textual meaning that has been explored in the descriptions made of the types of sentences and cohesion sections. According to Lock (1996):

Textual meaning has to do with the ways in which a stretch of language is organized in relation to its context. Textual meaning is important in the creation of coherence in spoken and written text . . . Nearly every clause of English simultaneously expresses these three aspects of meaning—experiential meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning. (p. 10)

The implications for the coherence aspect studied in this piece of research are presented.

5.2.3 Coherence

The implications for the results relative to the coherence aspect might be better framed under the following quote by Enkvist (in Connor and Johns, 1990):

In terms of seven problems, then, I have tried to outline a number of topical questions in the study of textual coherence. I have tried to emphasize that coherence is a concept with a crucial hermeneutic ingredient: We must understand a piece of discourse if it is to strike us as coherent. And, so far at least, no grammar, dictionary, or study of cohesive links between sentences has succeeded in drawing a line between what is interpretable and what is not. One reason for the relativity of interpretability is the dependence and the receptor of discourse. If we are to model textual coherence, we must build a process model that is sensitive to situation and context including the world knowledge of the communication patterns. (p. 26)

The present study has made an attempt to scratch the surface of the coherence exhibited in the argumentative essays written by advanced-level students. To study this aspect, the topical progression of ideas was selected to describe how the coherence is constructed. This method of tracing back and forth coherence is suggested by Connor (1996) where she states that:

. . . to be coherent, texts need to make sense to the reader. Coherence in texts can be charted using a system of three different kinds of progressions: parallel progression (topics of successive sentences are the same), sequential progression (topics of successive sentences are always topic of the next), and extended parallel progression (the first and the last topics of a piece of a text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression. (pp. 84-85)

The most frequent type of topical progression is the sequential parallel progression (SP) with 14 occurrences in the sample obtained in the form of argumentative essays. Parallel progression (PP) was identified to be used 7 times. Extended parallel progression (EPP) only was found 1 time. The analysis of coherence was limited to the last or concluding paragraphs in the TL5's argumentative essays.

The key concepts on which the implications are based are presented by Bardovi-Harlig (in Connor and Johns, 1990):

A well-formed coherent text is more than a series of grammatical sentences lined up one after another like so many books in a row. The sentences in well-formed writing are more like pieces in a jigsaw puzzle; the sentences *interlock* [emphasis added], each sentence *building* [emphasis added] on the preceding ones while at the same time advancing discourse. Coherent writing, then, is dependent on how sentences fit together to form a whole. The fit is achieved by the way the *elements* [emphasis added] are arranged within the sentences and the choice among the sentence *patterns* [emphasis added] themselves.

(p. 45)

In conclusion, the implications relative to the coherence aspect studied in this piece of research will be derived from the quote above taking as a point of departure the concepts expressed by the words emphasized. The notions of interconnectedness, elements, and patterns might be likely approached in the writing classroom by emphasizing the meaning expressed by the various sentences that make up a text. This is highly to be achieved by setting in context the ideas explored and also by having a method of seeing the evolution of meaning along the writing process.

5.2.4 Rhetorical Moves

The implications relative to the rhetorical aspect might be better elaborated in terms of the concepts suggested by Graff and Birkenstein (2013):

The same applies to writing. Often without consciously realizing it, accomplished writers routinely rely on a stock of established moves that are crucial for communicating sophisticated ideas. What makes writers masters of their trade is not only their ability to express interesting thoughts but their mastery of an inventory of basic moves that they probably picked up by reading a wide range of other accomplished writers. Less experienced writers, by contrast, are often unfamiliar with these basic moves and unsure how to make them in their own writing. (p. 1)

From the results obtained, it might be said that the rhetorical moves more frequently employed by TL5 students, which are the Introduction of Standard Views, The Introduction of What They Say, and Entertaining Objections, highlight the beginning state in the process of becoming an accomplished writer. It might be highly likely that students in subsequent states in their development of writing ability, which might be viewed as a subset of the process of learning English as a foreign language, exhibit more varied types of rhetorical moves as part of their writing.

The suggestion for this section on rhetoric hinges on a sequential development in the types of texts. A descriptive text in the form of a diary or a personal journal is likely to allow students to embark on a journey through which they will encounter many more elaborate types of texts. Along this journey, argumentative texts are highly likely to be encountered. Emphasis on rhetorical moves in the teaching of academic writing since the very early stages of learning English as a foreign language seems advisable.

5.2.6 Argumentation

Diestler (1998) suggests that “an argument has three parts: the issue, the conclusion, and the reasons” (p. 3). These three broad elements of an argument can be approached from the point of view of a model to unearth the components of an argument at the sentence level. The model used in this thesis was the Toulmin model. Toulmin (2003) analyses an argument in terms of six fundamental concepts: data, warrant, backing, qualifying, rebuttal, and claim (pp. 93-94). The three most subtle elements are the warrant, its backing, and qualifying. Emphasis on these three components might be highly beneficial for students who decide to include an argument in their writing.

There are many starting points from which argumentation can be taught. The EFL environment allows students the opportunity to practice argumentation from the point of view of learning a language. Target language classes and target language workshops can be organized in terms of the Toulmin model of argument. The content of the syllabus is highly likely to include the topic of modal auxiliaries and modality. According to Lock (1998), “both likelihood and requirement belong to the area of interpersonal meaning called modality” (p. 193). The narrow definition given is that “modality encompasses only the modal auxiliaries and their uses, and sometimes also adverbs functioning as Modal Adjuncts, such as possibly, probably, and certainly” (Lock, 1998, p. 193).

Likelihood and requirement point to one of the most subtle elements of an argument: the qualifying. Toulmin (2003) states that “conclusions can be inferred necessarily or certainly ... and only possibly or with probability” (p. 126). This observation can be related to the level of likelihood modals expressed. “The three basic levels are high, which can be glossed as certainly; mid, which can be glossed as probably; and low, which can be glossed as possibly” (Lock, 1998,

p. 194). Argumentation can be introduced using a topic that is frequently studied in the teaching of English.

5.2.7 Concrete Support

The importance of proving what is being said in an argumentative text is of paramount importance. “One of the biggest problems in student writing is that student writers often fail to prove their points. They fail because they do not support their points with concrete details” (Oshima & Hogue, 1999, p. 71). Evidence presented to support the claim on an issue can take different forms. Donald et al. (1996) highlight that we “may use comparison, contrast, analogy, statistical evidence, examples, anecdotes, personal experience, and observation or any combination of methods and materials to support your thesis. You need to provide valid evidence to support your stand” (p. 312).

At the initial stages of the process of writing, reliance on highly subjective and personal experiences might well occur. However, as students move towards subsequent stages of the writing process and with the help of feedback, a variety of types of support can be effectively included. Oshima and Hogue (1999) advocate the use of examples, extended examples, statistics, quotations, paraphrases, and summaries. Illustrative examples can be given to students to familiarize themselves with the structure and how these types of support can be used.

Guiding students to attain mastery in writing in an EFL environment can be achieved by giving students practice. This practice can be effected by the use of various types of texts, such as narrative, descriptive, expository, and argumentative. Each one of these types of texts can be included as part of the topics to be taught. More specifically, expository and argumentative texts can be the focus of advanced target language levels. According to Cervera and Hernández (2007), expository and argumentative texts ought to satisfy certain characteristics: order in the

presentation, clarity in the explanation, exactness in the terminology employed, rigor in the expression, objectivity in the focus and simplicity in style (p. 388).

5.2.8 Writing Assessment

Writing is one of the four skills into which the ability to use a language is divided. The rest of the skills are listening, speaking, and reading. There are also two sub-skills: grammar and vocabulary. Cassany (2011) emphasizes that writing involves reading, reading comprehension, and speaking. Assessing writing, from the point of view of the interrelatedness of language skills, might likely require bearing in mind the complexity behind an argumentative text. This complexity can be approached by including various writing activities that span over some time. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) highlight the importance of good writing practices. Among these practices, the amount of time devoted to the writing task seems to be the most important.

One type of writing task that allows for time to become familiar with a topic is the writing scheduled task. A writing scheduled task evolves through some specified time. During the time destined for this task, students can effectively organize their time to look for information and organize it. The writing task can also be complemented by a longer process of writing where cycles of feedback are intertwined. Raimes (1983, as cited in Tribble, 1999, pp. 122-123) favors comments made on the texts during the process of writing. According to Tribble (1999), this suggestion lengthens the conventional classroom writing cycle: selection of topic, preparation for writing and prewriting activities, writing, rewriting, editing, proofreading, and the teacher's marking of paper (p. 122). The thirteen stages into which a writing cycle should be sectioned, suggested by Raimes, can be seen in Appendix I.

The importance of interspersing feedback given by the teacher is in accord with the various roles that must be considered.

5.2.9 Needs Analysis

Nunan (1988) establishes that “needs analysis refers to a family of procedures for gathering information about learners and about communication tasks for use in syllabus design” (p. 75). Munby (1978, as cited in Nunan, 1988, pp. 19-20) suggests that a needs analysis should collect information relative to the participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event and communicative key. This type of needs analysis has been criticized, so it must be critically examined before using it in a needs analysis. Woodward (2001) suggests that “... the most important thing we can do before, during, and after classes is, in my view, to listen to students, watch them and read their work” (p. 16). The purpose of carefully paying attention to students is to get to know them. The more relevant information which can be obtained from students the more likely that the course can be personalized.

The needs analysis undertaken in this piece of research points to devoting more time to researching the topic and complementing the planning stage of writing with a longer writing cycle. This longer writing cycle may afford time to draft and take advantage of feedback. Moreover, explicit instruction on logic can greatly improve student's ability to write and analyze more elaborate arguments.

5.2.10 The Academic Writing Syllabus Proposal

Among the many responsibilities of the language teacher, the task of designing is pervasive. Curriculum design and syllabus design are two exemplary instances. Nunan (1988) differentiates the curriculum from the syllabus in that the syllabus is contained in the curriculum. “‘Curriculum’ is concerned with the planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of education programs. ‘Syllabus’, on the other hand, focuses narrowly on the

selection and grading of content” (ibid, p. 8). “Curriculum development ... has at least three phases: a planning phase, an implementation phase, and an evaluation phase” (Nunan, 1988, p. 10). According to Morales (2000, as cited in Criollo, 2003), the planning stage of the curriculum involves: a description of the target group, needs analysis, and the rationale. The implementation stage requires the specification of purpose, goals, objectives (syllabus), methodology, and materials (chapter 4).

The academic writing syllabus proposal was founded upon the quantitative results and qualitative findings obtained. The aims and objectives were emphasized. It might well be instructive to bear in mind the implementation and evaluation phases. In terms of the methodology for the academic writing course, task-based instruction can be employed. Within the EFL environment, communicative language teaching can also complement TBT. The materials that might be used are exemplary essays, thesis, and dissertations. Elaborate writing cycles are highly likely to be included in the dynamics of the sessions.

The evaluation phase of the curriculum requires a framework. Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1996) suggest ten points from which the following have been personally selected: “3.] What are the criteria to be used in the evaluation? Who establishes these criteria? 5.] What procedures will be used to obtain the data? 9.] What are we going to do with the information we get? 11.] Are the evaluations effective?” (p. 76). The stages of curriculum development likely serve as guiding principles that can also be applied to syllabus design.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

The present piece of research has analyzed the data that the author of the thesis was provided by advanced-level students who were learning target language five at La Facultad de Lenguas in BUAP. The sample size is small; being of only seven texts. However, the texts provide samples of authentic texts to be analyzed at various levels. These levels may range from the fundamental levels of lexis and grammar to the levels of semantics and pragmatics. Consequently, the authentic texts collected in the form of argumentative essays allow the author of this thesis to analyze authentic texts of a considerable length.

The research design chosen to undertake the research project was a mixed method design due to the characteristics of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches demanded by the research questions. Yet the investigation of causal relations might be better achieved using a different method more closely related to the experimental methodological designs with a bigger sample size of texts. Even though the sample size of texts is small, it has been fundamental to read exactly into the meaning of what the texts provide to reach conclusions about academic writing at an advanced level at La Facultad de Lenguas de la BUAP. Consequently, the reliability of the results might compensate for the imbalance of the sample size.

In terms of the instruments which were employed for the collection of data and the instruments employed for the analysis of the data, these instruments have focused on only one aspect of what the process of writing entails, which is the text produced. Yet the writing process involves an array of processes and subprocesses, which rarely occur separately. In other words, more instruments to analyze the various aspects of what academic writing consists of—depending on the scope of the research—might be included to reach conclusions likely to be employed to construct a more elaborate argument to move towards seeking causal relations

which are the cornerstone of the ex post facto methodological design and are associated with the true experimental research designs. It might be suggested to move to a more quantitative kind of research design and methodology employed. The use and importance of a more quantitative method to seek causality might be exemplified by the following quote by Frank Sulloway, who is an MIT research scholar, (1996, as cited in Diestler, 1998): There is an old “maxim that correlation is not causation” (pp. 142-143).

Although this is certainly true, it is also true that, under some circumstances, correlations provide a reasonably reliable guide to causation. For example, the correlation between winning a million dollars in the lottery and having more money to spend is very high, and these two outcomes are obviously related causally. We must employ common sense in deciding whether and to what extent correlations suggest a causal relationship. Even when correlations do not warrant the assumption of causality, they generally suggest that some other variable, itself associated with the two correlated variables, is causally involved in the generally observed relationship. As we introduce additional variables into a statistical analysis, we can often pinpoint the most likely source of causation.

The data analysis procedures for the present piece of research might be enriched further by the use of probability and probabilistic reasoning as well as inferential statistical procedures which are likely to be implemented with quantitative methodological procedures to establish causal relations. The discussion of further research is elaborated on in the following section.

5.4 Directions for Further Research

First of all, some comments about the study of coherence are worth making. According to Enkvist (in Connor and Johns, 1990):

In terms of seven problems, I have tried to outline several topical questions in the study of textual coherence. I have tried to emphasize that coherence is a concept with a crucial hermeneutic ingredient: we must understand a piece of discourse if it is to strike us as coherent. And so far, at least no grammar, dictionary, or study of cohesive links between sentences has succeeded in drawing a line between what is interpretable and what is not. One reason for the relativity of interpretability is the dependence on situational context and the knowledge of the world shared by the producer and the receptor of discourse. If we are to model textual coherence, we must build a process model that is sensitive to situation and context including the world knowledge of the communication partners. (p. 26)

Moreover, according to Titscher et al. (2000), “Texts must be described as precisely as possible at all linguistic levels” (p. 147). However, this research project focuses on just a few levels to be described by the implementation of the instruments for data analysis which are in the form of charts where the occurrence of the item in question is tallied.

Following the advice found in Criollo (2003): “suggest what new research is necessary, appropriate, or interesting based on what you did” (p. 240). In terms of qualitative research, the experiences of students who are enrolled in academic writing courses might be recommended. If quantitative research is undertaken, then it might be suggested to use a more quantitative methodological design very closely associated with the true experimental design and more data collection instruments and a battery of instruments for the analysis of the data to have a more complex integral view of academic writing. Finally, mixed methods research might be employed to better understand what academic writing involves. A word of caution for this type of research is the time needed.

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Appendix A

Essays Collected

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Have you ever heard about what is plagiarism? Well first of all plagiarism is to use the works ideas or words of another person as if they were their own, without explicitly certifying where the information comes from. Is the information of another person is owned by another person regardless of whether it is free or not, or the way we have accessed it (on the Internet, a magazine, a book). Our words belong to us and can not be used without our permission. For this reason, plagiarism is an infringement of the copyright on a work of any kind, which is produced by copying it, without the authorization of the person who created it or who owns or owns the rights of said work, and its presentation as an original work. So in the following essay I'm going to talk about why the plagiarism should be punished.

What are the consequences for the university student, Either when you present your motivation letter to the academic institution of which you want to be part or when you prepare a work or research document, either only by copying paragraphs or by using a few words or phrases from another document without the due citation you will face the risks that plagiarism entails, here are some examples of the plagiarism issues. Your academic reputation will be affected: There could be several situations depending on the degree of plagiarism: The least that could happen is that your work is graded with a lower grade, or you could be asked to repeat the work., they could make you repeat the course. But, in general, you will be suspended or expelled from the university, which will negatively affect your academic record and hinder hour accord to other educational institutions. Your professional reputation may also be affected: you may be gifrd of demoted from your job. In fact, it can complicate the search for a new job. Legal

implications: The legal repercussions of plagiarism can be very serious. The copyright laws are very strict. You can not use another person's material without mention or reference. Sometimes plagiarism can be considered criminal offense resulting in a prison sentence. If you are a journalism student, for example, you are more susceptible to this type of repercussions, you may be forced to pay financial compensation.

But there are also several procedures to avoid plagiarism, for example: Always take the data from the source from which the information is obtained (plagiarism is often due to poor organization of the bibliography we have collected for a job; We must always take the data from the source clearly and carefully transcribe them well.) Quote the phrase or paragraph directly from the original and accredit the authority and source by means of quotation or bibliographic reference. It is about using the words of the author. But the appointments: they have to be justified, of a reasonable extension, rather short, always in quotes, the author must be accredited by a bibliographic reference, Paraphrase the original words of the author and accredit the authority by means of a quotation or bibliographic reference.

Plagiarism should be punished, at least, with the failing the class where the plagiarism was committed, is the minimum that could be done against the student, That will help them understand that you have to quote or give credit to the information they took, plagiarism is very usual in Mexico but I think they should start taking measures to avoid this kind of issues.

This essay deals with a very important subject, Plagiarism, but what the people do it?, it is a good question, right? Well the plagiarism from my point of view is a phenomenon where we are involved, because most commit plagiarism especially when making it public, plagiarism is pirate something, copying it, make a duplicate, do something similar without the authorization of the creator original is also a violation of the copyright the artist I work or intellectual content, which present a work as unique and proper to oneself being original.

”The first real laws against plagiarism appeared in America in 1970 according to the world of writing. This change occurred as a result of an idea of the seventeenth century, which allowed a person to have rights over a series of words and that other people should not have the right to take economic benefit from them. (Hammond, 2016)

How serious is essay plagiarism? Can be considered a dangerous way in which we are affected not only in the moral and artistic but also in the legal, suppose that a person poses as the original author and is exposed violates the work, the author and of moral rights either a document, a book, an idea and even letters and phrases. Take the work of another as if it were their own, this can be thought of as it has been for a long time since our instinct tells us how to learn based on the experience of others, this would necessarily imply using or learning bad inventions and experiences of other people.

Many students feel pressured to complete their jobs of assignments at a school or university. Given the accessibility of new technologies such as the Internet in particular and even social networks and can plagiarize by copy. Many times the sources are not very reliable. Most of the time the cases occur with total impunity, the damage of the rights of authorship and

demotivation of the people who suffer the plagiarism. Recently, to solve this problem, some Platforms to Combat Plagiarism have emerged.

In conclusion I think that the better way to fight with the plagiaris are the same schools, university, study houses, etc,. which often do not penalize it in it is regulations, even in the case of thesis or titling germinal projects, and it is very important to take into account our words and ideas since that comes from oneself and makes us have ethical values as well as it distances us from unnecessary sanctions.

Nowadays the term plagiarism is very popular, especially on people that is working in a thesis or people that is going to create a thesis, but not only in this field, also when you have lock some work, you look for information on Internet and is very simple to copy another's work or borrowing someone else's original ideas. In fact, for me the term plagiarism means an act of fraud, stealing someone else's work or ideas.

As we know plagiarism is considered dishonesty because you are stealing another author's ideas, thoughts and expression. All of this could be considered as a crime because you are not giving credit to the real author, you are stealing his work, his ideas and so on.

Unfortunately nowadays most of the people use to do or commit this kind of crime, but what are the reasons that make them do that kind of thing. I will talk about three main reasons that for my opinion are very important.

Lack of information, I think that it is very important to know, because if you are not informed about this topic, you will probably commit this crime. Most of the students usually copy another author's information, because the information is good, they found what they were looking for, etc. But the main reason of doing this is because they are not aware about what they are doing, they do not have the essential information about what is plagiarism.

Lack of time, this is very important too, because today youth is very involved with social networks and what they just want to do is share images with their friends, publish a state, of watching videos on YouTube. And what they least want to know is homework or work to deliver. That is another reason why they only go to a website, they look for the information and sometimes they do not even read the information, they just copy and paste it.

Teachers, I think that teachers is an important factor, I know that they cannot being checking all the websites and if students are copping the work, but is important that if you are a teacher, provide adequate information so that the student does not commit plagiarism. Or teach them what is plagiarism and how to cite a website or book.

Talking about this reasons I remember that when I was sixteen or seventeen years old, my teacher used to leave me many works, and I used to do all of I have already mention. Because I did not like doing homework, I preferred to be on Facebook, sending messages or sharing images with my friends, and I did not worry about mh homework. So the last thing that went through my mind was the homework. It was already night and the only thing I did was copy and paste the homework. The next day ideals fed my homework and my teacher never said anything to me.

I think this anecdote is very important because I really happens in youth, so we must take care about what are we doing, and being aware about the consequences. Knowing this reasons may prevent plagiarism, there are more but in my case I only focus on three main important reasons. So now you know how you can prevent plagiarism.

Part of being in college is learning how to give credit to others appropriately because you are learning to base what you are saying on evidence, and to cite that evidence in a way that makes it completely clear what parts of your paper come from you and what parts come from someone else.

Student plagiarism alters the system of course evaluation, debases qualifications and offends against academic integrity. Opportunities for plagiarism among university students appear to be on the increase. Nowadays, out of dozens of plagiarism cases, in the majority, it has been done in which some students did this out of pure laziness. More often, it's out of desperation, the article the student is reading is complicated or the student feels that they do not understand it well. For this is important to take into account that it isn't a justification of doing it and I think that this must be punished or penalized and we shouldn't permit that this action continue being an alternative way to do any task or academic writing.

Sometimes I think that in the future how we would act as professionals if since now we don't have the habit to write our own writings with our own ideas, being originals. Although, there are numerous internet pages in which generally offer us documents in exchange of money, so that, this trend pits students from rich backgrounds who can afford to buy professionally written papers against other students who depend solely on their abilities to research and write. In the long run, some student may pass not because of their abilities and intellect but because they used shortcuts. Here there is another problem for the schools and the jobs that in the future will be given, the majority of professionals will not be really good for their capacity, they will only be mediocre professionals.

Conclusion The plagiarism is one type of academic dishonesty. It is basically the act of using someone else's work as your own. Students committing this act has to be conscience of the consequences of cheating and dishonesty. Occasionally, it could be unintentional but this is not an excuse because as I said previously, the damages is for us as professionals in process, we always think about it if we want to be or achieve the exit, take the correct door and be originals and honest with our academic writings.

Not everyone know about plagiarism Plagiarism is copying something foreign and making it our own, we must be very careful with what we copy and what we use it for. This is widely used in schools to finish, complete and turn in assignments, What plagiarism fosters among one of its many effects is the lack of inventiveness and research in different topics, limiting oneself in only one idea, since it consists of takin the ideas of an author and keeping them as their own, limiting the creativity and learning necessary to an optimal life in an accelerated and competitive world.

Talking about plagiarism with students will help them take good deeds many times students do not know about plagiarism and copy the tasks, activities and work of their peers without knowing that this is called plagiarism and that it is considered a crime. Talking about how to avoid plagiarism is very important for students eno are in the university and have to do a thesis, since they require a lot of information to do a good thesis.

In this case we are dealing with university students, people who are supposed to already know about this topic I think that the expulsion from school is not a good punishment, because as university we must take other measures, look for solutions to change the student giving him ideas, improving his expectations, since any student is capable of doing incredible things if he wants.

I think that depends on what is being copied depends on the punishment, although one of the students must know the consequences of the plagiarism since it limits the learning of them. In the universities usually students are allowed to do certain essays or written and many time this makes them plague since when they no longer have ideas it is easy to copy a text on the Internet, they do not read it, they do not look for information that is help copy it to finish fast, I think a

solution for this is that students write and read more eguido but in classes because many times at home do not see it necessary.

I disagree with the definitive expulsion from school, since the school should look for certain solutions to change this. solutions like seeing the reasons why he or she plagiarized. look for a request for it like doing a new job, letting him know what are the disadvantages and consequences of copying.

To conclude although plagiarism is a serious offense, the student can avoid problems if he takes precautions, is honest and accurate. The fear of plagiarism should not prevent the student from fully utilizing all the resources within the work of other authors. The process of learning to exploit this work with seriousness and responsibility to increase of serious works gives good examples to follow and the student should benefit from the opportunity to improve his own style.

Should the rule in college be that plagiarism is to be punished by expulsion from school?

The plagiarism is an action copy fundamentally of the works of others, giving them as their own. Which, today is a common action in the students. However, it is a unconsciously action because the technology has exceeded us and every student or the majority know that an easy form to have a good grade in the homework or in a full investigation in which you have to think or reflect, is looking for and copying of Internet, either looking for recognized authors or maybe copying you to some documents made before by someone else, making believed you did it and at the same time making a unconsciously plagiarism which limiting you to explore more about the topic, and creating hou a damage in the future. Despite the infraction that involves plagiarism, is important to clarify that is how technology is taking us.

According to Max Alberto Garza Almaguef, manager of Turnitin Mexico, he marked that Latin America, Mexico, Brazil, Colombia and Peru were covered, analyzing 196691 works with a non–original result of 12%, while Japan, Korea and China obtained the highest percentage, with 14% of null originality.

He clarified that the studies found about these practices have nothing to do with specific regions of the planet, but with habitual behavior among young people yes, because they have access to the web pages and nah digital device, so they have immediate information, and this makes that they do not adequately cite their sources and are limited to copy and paste.

Finally, I think it is a big problem but is should not be penalized because the technology has exceeded to everybody and if important persons like our president makes the same mistake and he was not penalized why we should be, so although the plagiarism is part of our life's I believe that borrowing someone's words or ideas should be permissible.

As well as teachers have to considered the Internet like a working tool but they should putting in practice some different actions to have a good education and avoid this.

In conclusion, the plagiarism can decrease if the student haves a good education and a different habit about study to be a good country and with more original and if people want to use something of someone else, they have to use the paraphrase, make an appointment or use some references.

The plagiarism is a problem that confronts the academic and professional society. The plagiarism not is a new problem, this has existed throughout history. However, nowadays is more common, because many students use it to finish of deliver works as essays and academic writings. The plagiarism can be literary or artistic According to the Merriam–Webster online dictionary, to plagiarize means:

To steal and pass off (the ideas of words of another) as one's own: use (another's production) without crediting the source.

To commit literary theft: present as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source.

Internet is a facto that have favored the plagiarism. There are different causes for do plagiarism according with some authors this can be committed either intentionally or unconsciously. There are different types of plagiarism the following action are considered plagiarism:

Copy the words of a text and deliver them in a job as if they were yours. Hire another persons or web page to write your work.

When you refer to an author but use his text word by word without putting the text in quotation marks.

When you paraphrase as an author but do not credit it.

When you use and deliver a research paper in various subjects. In this case you are plagiarizing yourself.

Although there are laws in Mexico that protect copyrights, plagiarism is not a criminal offense, many times this behavior goes unpunished.

This problem affects the credibility of academic and professional, besides being inferior to originality and is a lie for the reader.

For example, in the regulations of the University of Costa Rica the plagiarism could be the cause of sanctions, which are intended to prevent fraud in academic training.

In addition of this solutions Spain include the plagiarism as a criminal offenses, which could have sanction as other criminal offenses.

A good solution to reduce plagiarism is to have a plan on the subject of the investigation. Do not write the works at the last moment because, for this reason, many students resort to plagiarism.

In conclusion has always existed the plagiarism; however we need to be aware about this problem because this problem affects the credibility of academic and professional works, also being inferior to originality and is a lie for the reader.

In my opinion the people who do plagiarism not have moral value because they are not respectful with the work of others authors.

Appendix B

Complete List of Rhetorical Moves

1. Introducing what “ they say”.
2. Introducing “ standard views”.
3. Making what they say something you say.
4. Introducing something implied or assumed.
5. Introducing an ongoing debate.
6. Capturing authorial action.
7. Introducing quotations.
8. Explaining quotations.
9. Disagreeing, with reasons.
10. Agreeing—with a difference.
11. Agreeing and disagreeing simultaneously.
12. Signaling who is saying what.
13. Embedding voice markers.
14. Entertaining objections.
15. Naming your naysayers.
16. Introducing objections informally.
17. Making concessions while still standing your ground.
18. Indicating who cares.
19. Establishing why your claims matter.
20. Adding metacommentary.
21. Starting with what others say about a literary work.

22. Responding to other interpretations of a literary work.
23. Showing evidence when writing about a literary work.
24. Explain what the data mean.
25. Explaining an experimental result.
26. Introducing gaps in the existing research.

The previously mentioned rhetorical moves were taken from Graff and Birkenstein (2006).

Appendix C

Appended Argumentative Section

The following table illustrates the section appended to the evaluative checklist in Tribble (1999):

Table 17

Grading the Argument

Score	Descriptor
30-24	Excellent to very good: A stand on the issue is taken. The premises are relevant and acceptable. Moreover, premises provide sufficient grounds and an effective rebuttal. The argument is substantial. Justification is adequately given by proper citation. Topic sentences are sufficiently supported. Paragraphs have unity. Coherence is enhanced by repetition of key nouns, use of pronouns, adequate use of transition signals, and proper use of logical order. Sentences flow smoothly. A variety of rhetorical moves are appropriately used.
23-18	Good to average: A stand on the issue is taken. Most of the premises are relevant. Justification is given either by quoting or paraphrasing.
17-10	Fair to poor: The topic is addressed but a stand is not clearly taken on the issue. Some premises are relevant. Justification is given solely by opinion.
9-6	Very poor: The issue is partially addressed. A few premises are relevant. Justification relies heavily on opinion.
5-0	Inadequate: The topic and the issue are not addressed. Premises are irrelevant.

The descriptors were formulated by paying attention to Oshima and Hogue (1999), Damer (1995), Cavender and Kahane (1997), Diestler (1998), and Brown (2000).

Appendix D

Scheduled Writing Task

Scheduled writing

Data Collection Instrument (DCI)

Writing Prompt: Researcher's Version General Suggestions.

Introduce the topic for a writing assignment in class, using exploratory writing, discussion questions, response to a reading, or another classroom activity that will help students understand the topic and engage with it. Specific pieces of advice To help students understand a writing assignment

1. Scaffold the assignment—that is, divide it into parts. Assign a due date to each part.
2. Read all components of the assignment aloud in class as students follow along. Do not simply distribute the assignment and assume that students will figure it out on their own.
3. Point to key terms in the assignment that explain what students must do to write the paper. Encourage students to circle these terms.
4. Define the nature of the writing task that the assignment requires. If the paper requires a main point or thesis, provide a few examples. Caution students about selecting a thesis too soon, before they have had time to explore the topic adequately. Explain that ideas change through the process of reading, research, and writing.
5. Clarify terms, such as “discuss,” “explicate,” “trace,” “examine,” “analyze,” or “develop” that students may not understand in the context of a writing assignment.
6. Discuss potential sources of information for the paper. Will the information be based primarily on personal experience or opinion? Are there particular sources that students should

access before writing the paper? Should students locate information from the library or the Internet?

7. Clarify any implicit requirements that may not be directly stated, but are necessary for the assignment to be completed satisfactorily. For example, many college writing assignments require students to define terms, consider questions of degree, or establish a relationship between ideas.

8. If possible, identify a possible audience or audiences for this paper aside from the teacher who gave the assignment. Explain that although the teacher is, of course, going to read the paper, many college essays are written for what is ambiguously termed a “general audience.” To help the students understand this concept, have them imagine that the paper has been left on a desk in the college library and read by another student. Would this student be able to understand the paper without having access to the assignment? What sort of background information on the topic is this unknown college student likely to have? What sort of information needs to be included in the paper in order for a general audience to understand it?

A Strategy

A useful strategy for enabling students to think about audience is to have them respond to the following questions: Before the people in my audience have read this paper, they are likely to think about this topic. After the people in my audience have read this paper, I would like them to think about this topic.

Writing Prompt: researcher’s version

Below is an example of a writing prompt that you can use as a model.

Assignment Plagiarism

Purpose Goals of the assignment are made explicit.

Readings Readings specified

Background A context is set for the assignment

Questions to consider Questions to generate thinking are included. But these are part of the preparation, not necessarily questions that must be answered within the essay itself.

Writing Task The writing task is specified, isolated in a bolded prompt. It is desirable to have a short prompt.

Further Explanation Students are reminded of the type of essay this assignment requires. Audiences and grading rubrics are specified.

Writing Prompt: students' version

Be unambiguous and succinct here. Below is an example of a writing prompt that you can be used as a model.

Assignment: Plagiarism

Goals of the assignment

Write a short argumentative essay (about 500–1000 words), taking one side or the other of the issue presented below. Remember that there might be serious pros and cons to consider.

This is a difficult and very important assignment; organize your time and follow the writing process suggested below.

Writing Task:

Should the rule in college be that plagiarism is to be punished by an automatic failure in the course in question or perhaps even by expulsion from school?

Further Explanation. Students are reminded of the type of essay this assignment

requires. Audiences and grading rubrics are specified.

In order to write your argumentative essay, please consider following the suggestions below.

General Suggestions:

1. Brainstorm for ideas.
2. Make a simple outline.
3. Write a rough draft.
4. Check over for content and organization and for grammar and mechanics.
5. Make any necessary corrections before handing in your essay.

Some more suggestions to bear in mind when writing your essay are:

1. What is my claim about the issue?
2. What data (evidence, facts, examples, quotations, statistics) support my claim?
3. What general principle (warrant) justifies deriving this claim from the evidence? (And will the audience accept it?)
4. What exceptions to that general principle (rebuttals) are there?
5. Given those exceptions and my audience, how much should I hedge the claim? (with qualifiers)
6. If that general principle were actually challenged, what further proof (backing) could be cited to justify it?

Final draft due: February the 9th.

Format:

Margins: one inch on all sides. Letter type: Times New Roman. Letter size: 12pt.

Spacing: double spaced. One sided printed Include a page title please with: your name and the issue.

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Appendix E

Quantitative Data Analysis Tally Sheets

Types of Sentences

Simple	
Compound	
Complex	
Compound-complex	

Transition Signals

For	
And	
Nor	
But	
Or	
Yet	
So	

Types of Topical Progression

Parallel	
Sequential	
Extended Parallel	

List of Rhetorical Moves

1. Introducing what “ they say”.
2. Introducing “ standard views”.
3. Making what they say something you say.
4. Introducing something implied or assumed.
5. Introducing an ongoing debate.
6. Capturing authorial action.
7. Introducing quotations.
8. Explaining quotations.
9. Disagreeing, with reasons.
10. Agreeing—with a difference.
11. Agreeing and disagreeing simultaneously.
12. Signaling who is saying what.
13. Embedding voice markers.
14. Entertaining objections.
15. Naming your naysayers.
16. Introducing objections informally.
17. Making concessions while still standing your ground.
18. Indicating who cares.
19. Establishing why your claims matter.
20. Adding metacommentary.
21. Starting with what others say about a literary work.
22. Responding to other interpretations of a literary work.

23. Showing evidence when writing about a literary work.

24. Explain what the data mean.

25. Explaining an experimental result.

26. Introducing gaps in the existing research.

The previously mentioned rhetorical moves were taken from Graff and Birkenstein (2006).

Appendix F

Pilot of Instruments

Family Guy and Freud: Jokes and Their Relation to the Unconscious

ANTONIA PEACOCKE

3/01/18

TOPIC SENTENCES

IN AVERAGE 85 WORDS IN FIRST PARAGRAPH
PER LINE
290 LINES GIVE 2481 WORDS IN TOTAL

WHILE SLOUCHING in front of the television after a long day, you probably don't think a lot about famous psychologists of the twentieth century. Somehow, these

figures don't come up often in prime-time—or even daytime—TV programming. Whether you're watching Living Lohan or the NewsHour, the likelihood is that you are not thinking of Sigmund Freud, even if you've heard of his book Jokes and Their Relation to the Unconscious.

I say that you should be.

What made me think of Freud in the first place, actually, was Family Guy, the cartoon created by Seth MacFarlane. (Seriously—stay with me here.) Any of my friends can tell you that this program holds endless fascination for me; as a matter of fact, my high school rag-sheet “perfect mate” was the baby Stewie Griffin, a character on the show (see Fig. 1). Embarrassingly enough, I have almost reached the point at which I can perform

Starts with what others are saying (Chapter 1)

Responds to what they say (Chapter 4)

Metacommentary wards off potential skepticism (Chapter 10)

03022018

Family Guy and Freud: Jokes and
Their Relation to the Unconscious

ANTONIA PEACOCKE

04032018

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Responds to what they say (Chapter 4)

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9

Family Guy and Freud: Jokes and Their Relation to the Unconscious

ANTONIA PEACOCKE

3/10/18

TOPIC SENTENCES

IN AVERAGE 8.5 WORDS IN 1285 PARAGRAPH
PER LINE 290 LINES GIVE 2481 WORDS IN TOTAL

WHILE SLOUCHING in front of the television after a long day, you probably don't think a lot about famous psychologists of the twentieth century. Somehow, these

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What made me think of Freud in the first place, actually, was Family Guy, the cartoon created by Seth MacFarlane. (Seriously—stay with me here.) Any of my friends can tell you that this program holds endless fascination for me; as a matter of fact, my high school rag-sheet “perfect mate” was the baby Stewie Griffin, a character on the show (see Fig. 1). Embarrassingly enough, I have almost reached the point at which I can perform

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Responds to what they say (Chapter 4)

Metacommentary wards off potential skepticism (Chapter 10)

Appendix G

Outlines of Essays

E25:

Introduction

Thesis statement

Consequences for the university student

motivation letter

written work

research paper

Examples of plagiarism

lower grade

redo work

repeat course

suspended

expelled

Professional reputation

fired

demoted

Legal implications

copyright laws

criminal offense

prison sentence

Journalism student

pay financial compensation

Procedures to avoid plagiarism

quote

paraphrase

Conclusion

E13:

Law against plagiarism

Essay plagiarism

University

Internet

Platforms to combat plagiarism

University regulations

E21:

Introduction

thesis statement

Lack of information

Lack of time

Teachers

Teenager and plagiarism

Plagiarism prevention

E14.57:

Being in college

plagiarism cases

laziness

desperation

Professional

original written work

students

Schools and Jobs

recruitment

E14.83

Plagiarism

fosters lack of inventiveness

hinders learning

University students

must be taught on academic integrity

who plagiarize should not be expelled

University

must solve plagiarism by looking for more options

Plagiarism

must be punished according to what is plagiarized

written work

Students' learning

write and read more

University protocols

interview student

assign a new writing task

teach academic integrity to the students

Utilization of previous research

learning to cite

improve one's writing style

E09:

Plagiarism

Technology

Turnitin Mexico

Young people

Internet

Smartphones

Case of plagiarism

Teachers and Technology

Academic integrity

E18:

Plagiarism

literary

artistic

more common

internet

Types of plagiarism

intentional

unintentional

Examples

Mexico

copyright laws

plagiarism is not a criminal offense

Costa Rica: sanctions

Spain: criminal offense

Avoiding plagiarism

plan of investigation

Appendix H

Essay 14.83 and Its Outline

E14.83 1483510929 JPG

Not everyone know about plagiarism Plagiarism is copying something foreign and making it our own, we must be very careful with what we copy and what we use it for. This is widely used in schools to finish, complete and turn in assignments, What plagiarism fosters among one of its many effects is the lack of inventiveness and research in different topics, limiting oneself in only one idea, since it consists of takin the ideas of an author and keeping them as their own, limiting the creativity and learning necessary to an optimal life in an accelerated and competitive world.

Talking about plagiarism with students will help them take good deeds many times students do not know about plagiarism and copy the tasks, activities and work of their peers without knowing that this is called plagiarism and that it is considered a crime. Talking about how to avoid plagiarism is very important for students eno are in the university and have to do a thesis, since they require a lot of information to do a good thesis.

In this case we are dealing with university students, people who are supposed to already know about this topic I think that the expulsion from school is not a good punishment, because as university we must take other measures, look for solutions to change the student giving him ideas, improving his expectations, since any student is capable of doing incredible things if he wants.

I think that depends on what is being copied depends on the punishment, although one of the students must know the consequences of the plagiarism since it limits the learning of them. In the universities usually students are allowed to do certain essays or written and many time this

makes them plague since when they no longer have ideas it is easy to copy a text on the Internet, they do not read it, they do not look for information that is help copy it to finish fast, I think a solution for this is that students write and read more eguido but in classes because many times at home do not see it necessary.

I disagree with the definitive expulsion from school, since the school should look for certain solutions to change this. solutions like seeing the reasons why he or she plagiarized. look for a request for it like doing a new job, letting him know what are the disadvantages and consequences of copying.

To conclude although plagiarism is a serious offense, the student can avoid problems if he takes precautions, is honest and accurate. The fear of plagiarism should not prevent the student from fully utilizing all the resources within the work of other authors. The process of learning to exploit this work with seriousness and responsibility to increase of serious works gives good examples to follow and the student should benefit from the opportunity to improve his own style.

E14.83

Plagiarism

fosters lack of inventiveness

hinders learning

University students

must be taught on academic integrity

who plagiarize should not be expelled

University

must solve plagiarism by looking for more options

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must be punished according to what is plagiarized
written work

Students' learning

write and read more

University protocols

interview student

assign a new writing task

teach academic integrity to the students

Utilization of previous research

learning to cite

improve one's writing style

Appendix I

Writing Cycle: Thirteen Stages

Raimes (1983, as cited in Tribble, 1999, p. 123) suggests the following stages for a writing cycle:

1. Selection of topic by teacher and/or students.
2. Preparation for writing/prewriting activities.
3. Teacher reads notes, lists, outlines, etc. and makes suggestions.
4. Student writes draft 1.
5. Student makes outline of draft 1.
6. Teacher and students read draft: add comments and suggestions about content.
7. Student writes draft 2.
8. Student reads draft 2 with guidelines or checklist: makes changes.
9. Teacher reads draft 2: indicates good points and areas for improvement.
10. Student writes draft 3.
11. Student edits and proofreads.
12. Teacher evaluates progress from draft 1 to draft 3.
13. Teacher assigns follow-up tasks to help in weak areas.