PENN TESOL East
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

PTE VOICES

SPRING 2017

TESOL affiliate serving Pennsylvania, New Jersey & Delaware www.penntesol-east.org

President's Letter

Welcome to our Spring 2017 PTE Voices newsletter!

This will be my last President's letter, as PTE's Vice-President, Courtney Knowlton, will take over as President in May 2017.

PennTESOL-East has some board member vacancies opening up after the Spring conference. Be on the lookout for email blasts if you'd like to express interest in volunteering as a board member. Being a board member since 2012 has expanded my knowledge of the ESL world as well as enriched my leadership skills. The first year was a learning year, in which I was exposed to how conferences are planned and how to network further in the field. The second and third year, I felt more comfortable in providing more input now that I had been exposed to the way PTE works. For the last two years, I have focused on fine tuning and being alert to the needs of the members of PennTESOL-East. We are always open to suggestions, and we try our best to accommodate what you ask from us. The one great thing about being a board member of PTE is that although we all have specific roles within the board, we all work together as a team to make each and every event special for all educators.

We are in the process of asking for assistance in advertising our events and encouraging educators outside of just ESL to attend our events. Most classes have English learners and our workshops and events are beneficial to all. If you are able to help us in possibly creating a listserv of contacts throughout the area to spread the word about our organization, we would be grateful.

We have quite a few events this Spring. First, there was the TESOL March 21-24 in Seattle, Washington. We also have PTE's half-day Spring Conference being held at Temple University on Saturday, April 22, 2017. Please check out our website: www.penntesol-east.org to submit proposals and register for the event.

It has been my pleasure to serve as the President of PennTESOL-East for the last two years. I will stay active as a board member, but encourage you to reach out to us if you're interested in joining us.

Thank you! We look forward to your membership, ideas and input,

Dawn Adamoli

IN THIS ISSUE...

NOTEWORTHY EVENTS

TESOL 2017: PTEers Present, Attend, Volunteer

TESOL 2017 was a rainy yet eventful week for those who traveled from the Delaware Valley to Seattle in late March. Among the 6,000-plus convention goers, PennTESOL-East was well-represented.

PTE's TESOL Liaison **Stephanie Stauffer** of the Pennsylvania Department of Education represented PTE by attending the Affiliate Assembly meeting and other key sessions. **Read Stephanie's full report on page 13 of this newsletter.**

Leslie Kirshner-Morris of the School District of Philadelphia, PTE's Sociopolitical Concerns Chair, gave two presentations at the convention. In "Writing across the Content Areas in Elementary Education," Leslie and the panel introduced techniques and activities to boost young students' writing by exploring the language of genres of the content areas of elementary school. Panels presented practical ways for applying these ideas and tapping into the rich resources of students to amplify their interests in writing across the content areas.

Leslie presented with **Benaline Baluyot** of the School District of Philadelphia on "Holding the Floor: Engaging and Empowering ELLs with Socratic Circles." The purpose of the presentation was to share a scaffolded framework (Socratic Circles) for promoting high quality classroom interaction in order to increase complex language output and foster deep thinking.

Elena Reiss and **Teranda Donatto** of Lehigh University delivered a presentation on the topic of "Empowering Minority Teachers: Combatting Microaggression in ESL Classroom."

Roger Gee of Holy Family University, a longtime PTE Board member, gave a presentation in the Electronic Village on "Simplifying Texts Using AntWordProfiler."

Also in the EV, University of Delaware's **Phil Rice** presented on "A Suite of Online Reading Tools to Enable Self Study" and "Using Phonto to Create Visual Grammar Exercises." Many TESOLers were dismayed that for the first time, a $10 fee was charged to enter the EV; however, an impressive list of presentations made the cost worthwhile.

Roxana Senyshyn and **Carla Chamberlin-Quinllisk** of Penn State-Abington were both in attendance. Carla gave presentations on "Engaging Secondary School Language Learners through Media Literacy Activities," a pre-conference workshop. She also presented on "Using Popular Media to Enrich Language Learning and Social Responsibility" and "Language Teacher Identity: Exploring Ol/New Domains and Practices."

Lyn Buchheit, Girija Nagaswami and **Fellag** spoke about advanced ELL hybrid courses at Community College of Philadelphia.

Delawaran **Anne Anastasia**, former PTE board member, attended sessions to inform her work as an ESOL coach in the Capital School District in Wilmington, where she instructs mainstream content teachers in how to better serve ELLs.

See "TESOL 2017," page 12

See "Liaison Report - from TESOL 2017, Seattle" on page 13.

NOTEWORTHY EVENTS

Boosting Student Achievement on the WIDA ACCESS for ELLS 2.0 Test: Speaking and Writing

By Joseph E. Leaf

Over 3,000,000 English Language Learners in thirty-seven states will be taking the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs 2.0 Test during the 2017-2018 school year. The test evaluates English language proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing for students in Grades K-12. Assessment results serve to define current English proficiency levels, analyze English language growth, pinpoint language instructional needs, ascertain exit eligibility from English language programs, and meet legal requirements for assessment and accountability.

The WIDA ACCESS Test emerged from an original consortium of ten states centered around the University of Wisconsin at the beginning of this century and has evolved into what is becoming perhaps the de facto national test for assessing K-12 English language proficiency. As such, what can teachers do specifically to boost their students' performance levels in using academic language that satisfies the standards of higher proficiency levels?

Mark Chapman of WIDA and co-presenters from the Center for Applied Linguistics offered classroom applications for moving students into English higher proficiency levels in back-to-back sessions focusing on writing and speaking skills at the WIDA 2016 National Conference in Philadelphia last fall.

In *Evaluating Academic Writing/Oral Language Proficiency: Lessons from Testing and Beyond,* the presenters led participants in analyzing samples of student testing using the WIDA scoring and interpretive rubrics for the two language domains to highlight particular linguistic features that distinguish between the proficiency levels. The presenters also offered strategies and WIDA resources for teachers to support language instruction that can lead to higher achievement.

> *"What can teachers do…to boost their students' performance levels in using academic language that satisfies the standards of higher proficiency levels?"*

WIDA rubrics for each of six WIDA English proficiency levels reflect a combination of linguistic complexity, language control, and vocabulary. This three-pronged approach covers language at the discourse, sentence and word/phrase levels. Although WIDA considers these two sets of categories as the same, the rubrics are different for each. The interpretive rubrics provide detailed descriptions of student performance for helping educators understand the results of the test and incorporate them into instruction. The simpler rubrics for discourse, sentence and word/phrase level highlight the most important details to be used for scoring. WIDA has revised rubrics for interpreting test results and devised rubrics for scoring for the new, computer-based WIDA ACCESS 2.0 Assessment.

The following examples in writing for English Proficiency Level 5 ("Bridging", i.e. writing generally comparable to English proficient peers) illustrate the difference.

See "Boosting Achievement," page 12

BEST PRACTICES

What Texting Can Teach about Two Types of "to"

By Ken Cranker

Texting is arguably the most common type of writing these days among high school and college students, although teachers may lament a variety of negative effects that texting may exert on writing, citing inattention to spelling, grammar, or vocabulary.

Whether beneficial or detrimental, texting, with its rapid development and its loose set of norms, may still be instructive to linguists and ESL teachers because it provides insight into the way language probably evolved, and this insight can be used to explain even troublesome causatives and some quirky adverbial prepositional phrases.

The principle of language that texting clearly illustrates is that when certain phrases are used often, they become abbreviated, and the most common phrases tend to get abbreviated the most. The ubiquitous texting abbreviations thx, OMG, and LOL illustrate this point. "Laugh out loud" is not even spoken in normal conversation because in face to face encounters the laughter can actually be seen and heard. It is, however, very common in texting, where participants cannot see each other, and the expression has become quite abbreviated.

This principle, having been gleaned from texting, can now be applied to the classroom. Perhaps the most interesting application for more advanced students is to the case of causatives. Causatives include "make," "let," "get" and "have" + object + verb expressions such as "The teacher made the students write a research paper," or "The teacher let the students leave early." For simplicity, this paper will focus on "make" and "let." First, ESL students even at the high advanced pre-college level occasionally struggle with the difference between the two causative verbs, failing to understand the volitional difference. They may not notice that with "make," the object after "make" probably does not *want* to do the action following it, but with "let," that object does want to do it.

Once that point is understood, more advanced students tend to struggle with substituting vocabulary of a more formal, academic register for "make" and "let." They begin to learn that more advanced words such as "force," "compel," or "cause" are superior choices to "make." They also come to realize that "allow" or "permit" should replace "let." However, the grammar does not appear to be the same. These more academic words require "to" between the object and the verb as in "The teacher permitted the student *to* open the window," or "The argument compelled the reader *to* change his mind."

Students wonder why "to" is necessary for the academic expressions but not for the common ones. At this point, the texting principle should be introduced. The more common expressions are more likely to

See "Texting," page 15

BEST PRACTICES

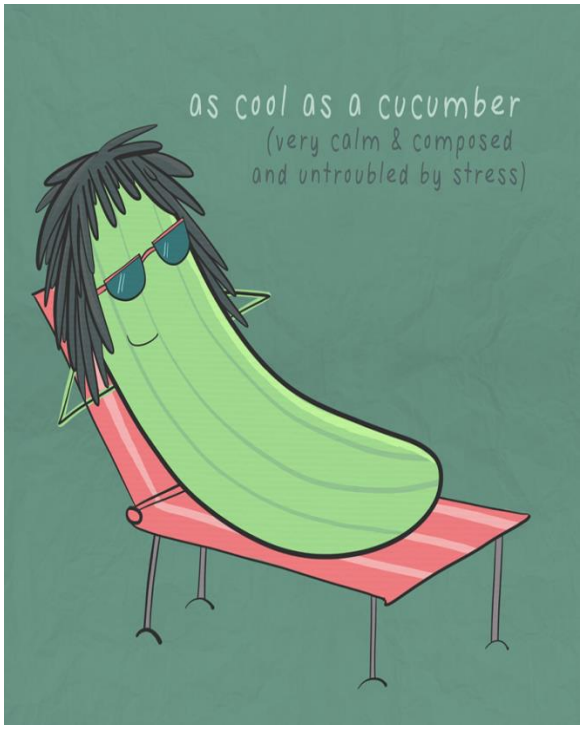
Contextualizing Idioms and Idiom Expressions

By George Longbottom

Idioms play a major role in oral and written expression in world Englishes. With the steady increase of empirical and pedagogical research on L2 vocabulary acquisition in the past three decades, so too has research on how L2 learners acquire idioms increased. Most native English speakers who have thought about the language they use to express themselves "freely admit that idioms provide vivid descriptions and expressions that are more powerful and effective than literal and non-idiomatic language" (McPherron & Randolph, 2014, p. 1). Despite their colorfulness, many English language teachers do not emphasize idioms to same degree as academic vocabulary. This reluctance can be attributed to the fact that it is largely not possible to derive meaning by looking at each word in the target term individually (Katz, 1973). Rather, L2 learners need skills on how to make inferences in which the idioms are used. By constructing activities with a contextual focus, L2 learners will be able to analyze more seamlessly target idioms in their context to acquire meaning.

L2 learners want to learn idioms because they recognize that purely academic discourse is not what they will always find outside of the classroom. English language instructors recognize the benefit of having their L2 learners learn idioms, yet due to lesson and time constraints, limited availability of resources, and a belief that L2 learners will learn about them 'on the street', "…teachers continue to have difficulties deciding on when, where, and how to incorporate idioms into their syllabi" (McPherron & Randolph, 2014, p. 132).

When English teachers do teach idioms, they must decide the method of presentation. McPherron & Randolph (2014) did a study of activity preferences of ESL teachers who teach idioms and they found that making up example sentences using idioms, guessing the meaning of the idioms from context, and reading and identifying idioms in a passage were rated the most useful. These activities allow for the presentation of target idioms in context, where L2 learners can see how they are naturally used and, more importantly, can work towards making inferences on their meaning.



What follows below are suggestions to assist ESL instructors in developing contextualized lessons. When presenting idioms for the first time, their introduction is very important. One way to being an idioms lesson is to have either authentic or instructor-made materials. Consider the following instructor-made passage:

See "Idioms," page 23

BEST PRACTICES

Lesson Plan: Collaborative Writing with a Mission

By Kayla Landers and Mary Newbigin

Background:

University writing instructors value collaborative writing as a technique to engage and empower students, a practice based on the social constructivist (Vygotskyian) theory that collaboration facilitates cognitive development (Brown, 2007). However, we also acknowledge that international students are often reluctant to participate in these tasks (Leki, 1990). This interactive lesson successfully implements and scaffolds collaboration through the writing of a shared mission statement that empowers students and engages them in a university composition course.

The ubiquity of mission statements (Drucker, 1973) provides ample authentic examples to scaffold the writing process while serving the dual purpose of motivating students within the classroom and the university community through examining the ideology of their institution.

First, students read, annotate, and discuss a well-crafted university mission statement, enabling them to analyze the structure and importance of mission

Students enjoying collaborative writing task

statements not only for the university, but also for the global economy.

Lesson Objectives

1. Analyze the university mission statement by deconstructing the parts so that the students will know how to create their own mission statement.
2. Analyze the university mission statement by deconstructing the parts so that the students will know how to create their own mission statement.
3. Analyze the university mission statement by deconstructing the parts so that the students will know how to create their own mission statement.
4. Develop and discuss ideas about students' mission at the university and place within the community.
5. Construct a personal shared mission statement utilizing the writing process.
6. Revise the document collaboratively for clarity and conciseness using Google docs.

Scope:

For instructional purposes, this lesson is done over the span of one week in a class that meets bi-weekly for 75 minutes.

Day One:

First, the students were assigned the university's mission statement to read and annotate. On the first day, the students discussed the purpose of a mission

See "Collaborative Writing," page 17

BEST PRACTICES

Fatima's Flu Shot

By Jerry Thompson

Cell phones are a huge problem. We all agreed on that when we discussed "technology problems" in our little breakout session at Arcadia University during the Fall 2016 Penn TESOL-East conference.

Aside from nearly getting run over by a texting teen as I cross the parking lot, there's the daily annoyance of trying to explain to someone who has the English skills of a three-year old why I don't want to read 8-point text off his dim and crackled iPhone screen.

Still, I wish I'd had a phone the day Fatima got her shots.

I'd befriended Fatima (not her real name) when she first came to me for tutoring, and I asked about her family. My query brought on a gush of tears, dampening her veil until it hung halfway down her nose. She had beautiful eyes, I noticed, as I offered her a box of Kleenex and waited while she cleaned herself up. Then she pulled out her phone and showed me pictures of her five kids—all left behind with grandma in Riyadh.

I'm not sure if it was my celerity with the Kleenex—you get to be a quick-draw in this game—or whether she took comfort in the fact that I'm married and the age of her uncles, but we bonded, and I helped her become a pretty good student.

So when the school told her she had to get her shots by that Friday or she'd be in serious jeopardy with them AND with the visa people, she came for help to the Tutoring Center, where the other tutors and I had been nagging her to go get it done.

I was deputized to escort Fatima to the infirmary after one member of our work group, a New Englander of the stone-jawed "can't get they-ah from he-yah" school of ironic misinformation, explained to her "it's just a little pinch," and gave her a vicious pinch on the fatty underside of her upper arm.

After I dried her off, we rearranged her veil, and I walked Fatima to the nurse, where I suppose they are used to strange sights, like a grey-bearded Yankee strolling in with a wet-veiled Saudi lady in full burka.

Still, I wish I had a picture.

I'm sticking with my trac-phone, though.

***Jerry Thompson** is a tutor in the University of Delaware's English Language Institute.*

RESEARCH

English-Chinese Contrastive Rhetoric Study

By Xindy Zhang

Abstract

This research was conducted in a Sino-foreign university in China to investigate the differences among the rhetorical structures of the English persuasive essays produced by students at different proficiency levels and explore the similarities and differences of the rhetorical structures between the students' Chinese and English essays. The influences of the students' writing conventions in Chinese on their English writing were also probed.

Thirty students who had composed English and Chinese persuasive essays in their English and Chinese classes were involved in this research. Their English and Chinese persuasive essays were collected and classified into three groups according to the participants' English proficiency levels. The schematic structure of the essays was analyzed based on the generic structure of argumentative essays proposed by Hyland (1990) with specific focus on the degree of explicitness and indirectness as indicated by the use of markers and reservations (Kamimura & Oi, 1996) in the essays. Students' perspectives on their rhetorical structures in their Chinese and English writing were also studied via questionnaires and interviews.

It was found that all students used Information, Claim and Support moves in both Chinese and English essays, but the use of Proposition, Evaluation, Restatement, Affirmation, Close and Marker moves differs between the two types of essays. Moreover, Consolidation move, essay titles and reservations were used differently among students of different groups. The influence of first language writing conventions on students' second language writing was found to be greater with students of lower English proficiency levels than those of higher proficiency levels. Implications for teaching second language writing were also discussed.

Teachers are suggested to teach generic structures explicitly, assist students to practice schematic structures in contexts and highlight cultural differences.

Key words: L1 transfer, contrastive rhetoric study, persuasive essay, genre-specific investigations, move analysis, degree of explicitness and indirectness

"Thirty students who had composed English and Chinese persuasive essays in their English and Chinese classes were involved in this research."

Introduction

Writing competency determines university students' academic achievement to some extent, since they are expected to express their ideas and convince their audience in their academic papers. This is especially true for those who study and write in second language (L2), as L2 proficiency has a significant influence on how well they can achieve their purposes of writing. However, rhetorical structures, which reflect the logical flow of writers' ideas, are widely seen as serious obstacles impeding L2 learners from writing in an expected way (Connor, 2002; Kaplan, 1966). Research in contrastive rhetoric, a significant branch of intercultural communication studies, has been conducted in different geographical locations in the past 50 years, including the Middle East, Europe and Asia, providing pedagogical inspirations to language educators (Connor, 1996). Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the rhetorical structures used by Chinese learners of

See "Contrastive Rhetoric," page 24

How to Mentor New Teachers

By Donna McVey

Mentoring provides a great opportunity for seasoned teachers to share their acquired experience with new teachers. For the past ten years, I have successfully mentored both new teachers at Drexel's English Language Center, as well as student teachers at Penn's Graduate School of Education. In the process, I have acquired new skills and ideas that I have applied to my own teaching and have made new connections with fellow teachers.

In his blog, David Cutler illustrates the crucial role his mentors played in his early teaching career, by acting as confidants, observers and confidence builders.

Moreover, he attributes his ability to thrive as a teacher to his mentors. "Today, my success as a teacher -- not to mention the lives of all the students I hope I have inspired and changed in my seven years in the classroom -- is directly related to the caring, high-quality mentorship I received during my first year of teaching. Without it, I would have become another statistic, quitting after my first few years on the job."(Cutler).

"Today my success as a teacher…is directly related to the caring, high-quality mentorship that I received in my first year of teaching. Without it, I would have become another statistic, quitting after my first few years on the job."

As David Cutler illustrates, good mentors can guide new teachers in the right direction as well as shape their careers for many years to come. In his excellent guide for mentors, "Mentoring New Teachers", Hal Portner emphasizes the importance of having good rapport with the mentee, evaluating and encouraging continuous improvement, and promoting self-reliance in the mentee. The following are six guidelines I have used successfully when mentoring new teachers or student teachers.

1. *First, get to know the mentee*. I remember the advice one of my Penn professors gave, "First you reach, and then you teach". Before any mentoring can take place, it is essential to establish trust and a good rapport with the mentee by having an informal meeting first.

2. *Be encouraging*. It is always helpful to point out the mentee's strengths. Not only does this boost the mentee's confidence as a teacher, but it makes it easier for the mentee to hear any constructive criticism you might give.

3. *Have the mentee play an active role*. It is useful to regularly have the mentee reflect on their teaching experience and come up with suggestions for improvement. Self-awareness and the ability to analyze a problem and come up with solutions encourage the mentee to become self-sufficient.

4. *Brainstorm alternative solutions to problems*. Together with the mentee, try to come up with more than one solution to each problem. It is important to come up with alternative solutions since some will work better than others when put into practice.

See "How to Mentor," page 41

BOOK REVIEWS

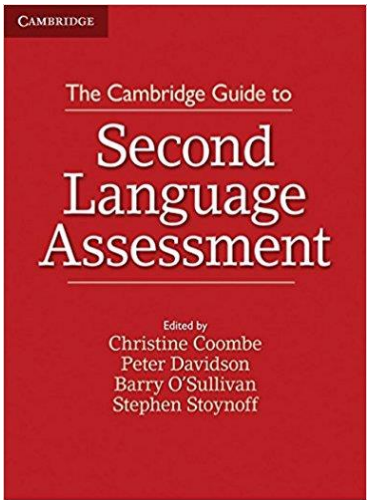
The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment

By Mohammed A. Khan

Books on language testing often pose a variety of challenges for practicing classroom teachers: On the one hand, they are lengthy, technical and at times abstract, too. They demand a good background in the field. On the other hand, there are books on testing which take a "quick-fix" approach to the complex issues of classroom and program level testing without invoking any empirical support for their solutions. Then there are a great number of language testing books that rarely distinguish between first language and second language testing. They seem to present the field as rather less sensitive to these differences. Last year, I read a book: *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment* and said to myself, "This is it!" addressing the questions I have about my classes and program. So here is a snapshot of this book.

The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment has been organized into four sections: Key Issues (Section 1, 14 chapters), Assessment Purposes and Approaches (Section 2, 9 chapters), Assessing Second Language Skills (Section 3, 6 chapters), Technology in Assessment (Section 4, 3 chapters), and Administrative Issues (Section 5, 3 chapters). The 35 chapters of this volume are organized to offer background information about the topic addressed in that chapter followed by a snapshot of empirical investigations in that area, practical application of the constructs/ideas in English as second language assessment contexts, suggested resources, and discussion questions. The key goal is to address the "the lack of teacher assessment literacy" (Cheng, 2001; Stiggins, 2007; Stiggins and Coklin, 1992).

The first section of the book comprising thirteen chapters looks at extremely wide-ranging key issues: from a brief history of language testing to ethics and professional development of teachers. It examines validity, principles of language testing, and processes of development including design, development, monitoring, test specification, and piloting. It also offers a comprehensive review of impact and washback studies, an overview of language standards for elementary and secondary education, and the common European framework.



In "A Brief History of Language Testing" Barry O' Sullivan sketches a brief history of testing starting from the earliest in China to the latest in western countries. The author finds formalization and standardization of tests right from its early days: serving assessment and socio-political agendas in different cultures at different times. One of the main points made in this is the historical evolution of two different sets of philosophical orientations that seem to have informed language testing practices in the U.S.A. and UK. The former standardization and psychometrics take primacy over content and validity, whereas the latter content and validity take precedence over standardization and psychometrics very clearly reflected

See "Assessment," page 18

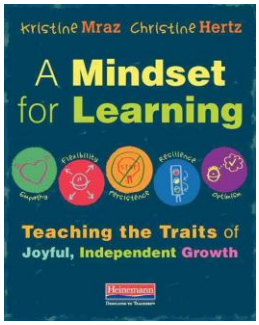
BOOK REVIEWS

Finding My "Golden Thread"

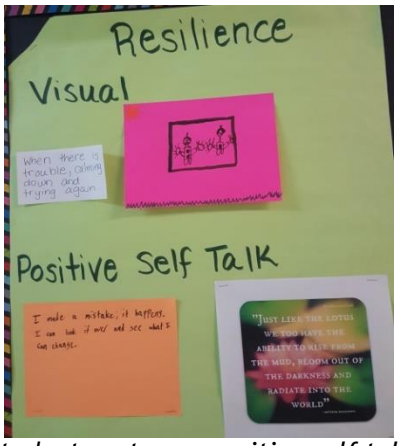
By Courtney Knowlton

As an ELL teacher, I am constantly looking for ways to connect learning throughout the year. In *Fearless Writing*, Tom Romano calls a connection throughout a multi-genre research paper, "the golden thread," and I wanted to find this unifying element for my teaching practice. Whether I was supporting language growth in math, science, social studies, or literacy, my goal was to foster healthy learning habits that could be applied in many contexts. I just needed to decide on the most valuable habits and ways to weave them throughout my classroom.
Fortunately, last March I was introduced to a book called, *A Mindset for Learning: Teaching the Traits of Joyful, Independent Growth* by Kristine Mraz and Christine Hertz.

Empathy, flexibility, persistence, resilience, and optimism: these are the traits that the book focuses on. And from the start of the school year, they have been invaluable to me



and my students. Normally I make a class constitution to display rules and communicate expectations to students. This year I had the students create posters about each of the five traits instead. The first chapter of the book suggests giving children ownership of the classroom to increase engagement. I found that by putting the students in charge of the posters, they were more invested in our space. Each poster included the name of the trait, a definition, a visual, and an example of positive self-talk. Not only did these posters set the tone for our classroom community at the beginning of the year, but we were able to reference them as needed during the following months.



Student poster on positive self talk

See "Golden Thread," page 21

60 Words or Phrases Commonly Misused by ESL/EFL Students Preparing for Universities

By Anne Owen

Kenneth Cranker's book, *60 Words or Phrases Commonly Misused by ESL/EFL Students Preparing for Universities*, is a jewel. In this little book – only 60 pages – the author is able to teach through illustration of definition and example 60 words and phrases such as *aspect*, *image* and *the key to*. For ESL teachers in advanced levels these commonly repeated errors will resonate an affirmative "a ha" moment of recognition. As an advanced IEP instructor and level coordinator, *60 Words*

See "60 Words," page 24

"TESOL 2017," from page 2

TESOL Job Marketplace Team Leader **Linda Fellag,** University of Delaware's **Tracy Yeh**, and **Tim Cauller** from Moravian College in Bethlehem volunteered at the JMP, where TESOLers connected with recruiters from institutions as far away as Turkey, Oman, Saudi Arabia, China, Korea, and Japan. Many job seekers exited with gleaming faces after getting offers onsite.

Despite the constant drizzle, Seattle was an exemplary site for the TESOL convention, last held there in 2007. The bustling Pike Place Market, a short walk from the Washington State Convention Center, drew many TESOLers, as did the famed Chuhilo Glass Museum and Seattle Library, with stunning red and green décor.

The convention featured coffees (rather than teas) with prominent TESOLer, a nod to Seattle-based Starbucks, whose shops are found on nearly every corner of the city. Nordstrom's flagship store was also a popular stop for the TESOL crowd.

If you missed this year's convention, here's a lineup of TESOL conventions to come.
2018 – Chicago
2019 – Atlanta
2020 – Denver
2021 – Houston
2022 – Philadelphia?

For your information, PennTESOL-East President **Dawn Adamoli** has signed an agreement with TESOL to host the 2022 convention in Philadelphia, but PTE is still awaiting final word from TESOL.

By signing the agreement, PTE is affirming its willingness to provide leadership as the host affiliate. PennTESOL-East expects to learn the status of Philadelphia as the 2022 site in the coming months. Look for updates in e-mails and on our website

Philadelphia got rave reviews as the site of the TESOL 2012 convention, so fingers crossed that TESOL comes to Philly and many more PennTESOLers can attend.

"Boosting," from page 3

New ACCESS for ELLs 2.0 Writing Scoring Scale, Grades 1-12- Level 5

Discourse	Sentence	Word/Phrase
Strong organization of text that supports an overall sense of unity, appropriate to context (e.g. purpose, situation, and audience)	A variety of sentence structures with very few grammatical errors	A wide range of vocabulary, used appropriately and with ease

Revised WRITING Rubrics of the WIDA Consortium-Level 5

Linguistic Complexity	Language Forms and Conventions	Vocabulary
• extended connected text (single or multiple paragraphs) that is organized and shows a cohesive and coherent expression of ideas • clear evidence of conveying an appropriate perspective, register, and genre	• a broad range of sentence patterns and grammatical structures matched to the content area topic • nearly consistent use of appropriate conventions to convey meaning, including for effect	• usage of technical and abstract content-area words and expressions as appropriate • usage of words and expressions with precise meaning related to content area topics as appropriate • vocabulary usage that fulfills the writing purpose

See "Boosting," page 14

Liaison Report – from TESOL 2017, Seattle

By Stephanie Stauffer, PTE TESOL Liaison

Your membership in Penn TESOL-East allows you access to TESOL International, sometimes known as "Big TESOL." Our organization is an affiliate of TESOL and we send a liaison to the international conference every year. About 6000 people attended the conference this year.

As the PTE liaison in Seattle, I attended Affiliate Council meetings and became acquainted with representatives from other affiliates attending the conference from places as distant as Siberia and as close as Canada and Mexico and...Pittsburgh. I contributed to discussions that involve affiliate relationships with TESOL and with each other.

On Tuesday, March 21, there was a full-day meeting focusing on volunteer management. A dynamic guest speaker from Seattle, Michelle Morris, led us though exercises on 1) planning, 2) recruiting and placing, 3) orienting and training, 4) supervising and recognizing, and 5) evaluating volunteer programs. This was relevant because PTE is an all-volunteer organization. At the end of that day, Sherman Alexie captivated an audience of at least 1000. His talk was titled "Power and Empowerment: An Urban Indian's Comic, Poetic, and Highly Irreverent Look at the World."

Wednesday, March 22, started with the plenary given by Dudley Reynolds, past president of TESOL. He spoke in favor of advocacy and engagement, summing up his ideas with, "We must engage the issues and problems of our day, not just the issues and problems of our classroom, if we are to be professional in a 2.0 world." That day, I also attended a session on the federal legislation that TESOL staff are monitoring, including ESSA and other education law. This session was presented by TESOL association staff John Segota and David Cutler. The US Department of Education had cancelled most of its own sessions.

In the afternoon, the affiliate leaders met again. The first part of the session was presented by Alex Morceaux, a TexTESOL representative, focused on improving affiliate newsletters and other types of communication. His organization receives over $400,000 in sponsorships from universities, polishers, and the like, and is able to produce and distribute not only a newsletter but also an academic journal. A representative of California TESOL presented the second part of the session, on a web application for organizing conference sessions and programs. She demonstrated sched.com and gave us access to an account to play with its features.

A town hall meeting was held by TESOL officers and staff. This was an opportunity for members to ask questions and express opinions on all types of issues. TESOL has been developing proposals to reorganize its Interest Sections and affiliate relationships, and there was a great deal of discussion about the reasons for these changes. Officers and staff report that they want to create greater flexibility in the organization and be sure that members feel included. This topic was taken up again at the Affiliate Assembly Meeting on Thursday, March 23. Affiliates want to make sure that they are recognized and respected by TESOL as independent organizations. There is interest in collaboration with TESOL and with other affiliates, particularly around professional development. There is also interest in having more ongoing communication among affiliates, rather than focusing mainly on meetings at the annual convention.

PTE is one of two affiliates in Pennsylvania; the other is Three Rivers TESOL, based in Pittsburgh. We are interested in expanding our relationships around the region. If you have ideas for collaborative projects that would fulfill our mission, please contact a PTE board member.

Reflections from the WIDA Conference

By Manju Jacob

Being able to attend the 2016 WIDA national conference held at Philadelphia was a great experience. Spending a few days with educators who share the similar passion and working collaboratively and learning and taking in what's discussed at the sessions was beneficial to all.

The different workshops and sessions provided educators a chance to learn new methods and strategies, which they can apply it to their own classroom. Moreover, one particular session I attended focused on different strategies such as sensory supports, graphic supports and interactive supports for supporting and instructing newcomer ESL students. The session provided attendees with different strategies and methods they can use with students in their classroom. Another session focused on accountable talk to improve oral language and different tips for developing academic language and extended discourse.

Attending sessions and sharing resources with my general education teachers on how to accommodate ESL students was another positive aspect of attending the conference.

***Manju Jacob**, a graduate of the ESL program at Holy Family University, is the former PennTESOL-East Interest Sections Coordinator.*

"Boosting," from page 12

As always, professional raters at WIDA score the writing sub-test using the three dimensions of the scoring scale. Each rater is trained for just one grade level band (e.g. Grades 6-8) and one of the several writing tasks. Previously, the teacher administering the speaking test individually to each student provided a score for each response. Given the computer format of the WIDA ACCESS 2.0, professional raters now score the speaking sub-test in a similar manner. However, schools that are not logistically equipped to handle the level of computer usage required by the new test may administer the traditional paper version instead. Nevertheless, even with the completely computerized format, teachers need to be able to rate both writing and speaking assessments themselves for the *W-APT or WIDA Screener* placement tests for newly registering students.

Participants in the writing and speaking sessions examined either student writing samples or listened to speaking responses from the WIDA ACCESS 2.0 to distinguish between Levels 3, 4 and 5 on the higher end of the English proficiency scale. Though applying the scoring rubrics to the samples, participants also referred to the more detailed interpretive rubrics to gain a broader understanding of language use at particular proficiency levels. The presenters emphasized that student writing for the test is considered to be the "first draft." Spelling, punctuation, capitalization, etc. errors are not taken into account unless they make writing incomprehensible. Similarly, a few grammar errors are acceptable at higher proficiency levels for both speaking and writing. In addition, students are not penalized for non-native accents in the speaking test.

For the writing samples, a comparison and contrast task asked students to consider a given sport with one that they would play. Distinguishing features for Levels 4 and 5 in discourse involved the ability of students to take language from the task and reproduce it in their own words, indicating a greater understanding of the task. Cohesion in using discourse markers, such as transitions, for connections between sentences and for creating a flow of the message were also

See "Boosting," page 15

"Boosting," from page 14
necessary for obtaining top scores. For the sentence level, repetition of a similar sentence pattern throughout (e.g. I like _____ because…..) relegated one sample to a score of 4 rather than 5. For the word/phrase leve), students need to be able to link ideas together both through and across sentences to attain scores of 4 and 5. Likewise, vocabulary needs to be more original for these levels but still related to the task. While Level 4 requires a variety of vocabulary, Level 5 demands a wide range. However, the single most predictive element of higher scores overall is a longer written response. Nevertheless, length in itself is not relevant if the response is largely copied from the task prompt, as was the case illustrated by a Level 2 sample.

Elaboration is the key to higher scoring on the speaking test. Added details in "going beyond the model in sophistication" characterize the top discourse level. "Clear, automatic, and fluent delivery" are required at the sentence level, and the interpretive rubrics indicate that this means "a full range of oral phrase and sentence patterns and grammatical structures matched to content area topics." Both breadth and depth in vocabulary are assumed for "precise and appropriate word choice" at the highest proficiency level. Similar to writing, an extended academic oral response with students "holding the floor" with sustained language is the hallmark of high proficiency responses. In preparation to respond, students can be encouraged to gather their thoughts before answering the teacher or pushing the button to record. However, they cannot write responses before speaking, as this is considered too much rehearsing.

Advice for preparing students to produce writing and speaking at higher proficiency levels started with utilizing online WIDA resources for training teachers to administer the test especially the new *WIDA Screener* series for placement of newcomers in ESL program or exemption from same. Public school ESL teachers in WIDA Consortium states have access to three online training modules that provide interactive scoring practice for assessing proficiency levels in speaking and writing. Multiple anchor samples in both domains represent score explanations for all grade cluster groups.

For the general public, the WIDA organization offers WIDA ACCESS 2.0 online interactive sample items for becoming familiar with the expectations of the assessment on its website (www.wida.us). A firm understanding of the language requirements for each proficiency level can help teachers tailor instruction and create activities focusing on language objectives for higher English proficiency levels. At the same time, the website material can help students become familiar with the test. For writing, teachers can have students examine writing samples from the website to note what writers are doing at higher levels. Anchor papers for good/better/best student work can also provide insights into what constitutes more proficient writing. Peer reviewing, especially in the drafting stage of writing, was also recommended.

For speaking, the presenters suggested providing multiple opportunities for students to respond orally to reading genres and various topics. Speaking models from the WIDA website are also helpful as exemplars of expected language levels. In general, teachers should include chunks of language in instruction as well as particular academic language and phrases (e.g. "In my opinion…") to help students learn to generate more proficient speech. Sentences starters and sentence frames for communicating can also scaffold the production of more academic speech. The presenters also suggested having students record their own voices so that they can hear themselves. As with writing, teachers can present models of better student responses. Most importantly, the presenters stressed that working to develop both the breadth and depth of students' vocabulary is the key.

In summary, Chapman and the other presenters offered three guiding questions in both sessions for teachers to consider for

See "Boosting," page 15

"Boosting," from page 15

improving student achievement in both speaking and writing:

- What features of academic writing/speaking best distinguish between students at different levels or writing/speaking proficiency?
- What classroom activities would help students to improve these features of academic writing/speaking?
- What advice for fellow educators do you have about teaching academic writing/speaking to English learners?

Joseph E. Leaf is the retired ESOL Coordinator for the Norristown School District and a long-time member of PTE.

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PennTESOL-East Participates in TESOL Advocacy & Policy Summit

By Leslie Kirshner-Morris

On June 19-21, 2016, two of our advocacy-based Board members, Leslie Kirshner-Morris and Stephanie Stauffer, joined approximately 75 other TESOL educators and members of TESOL International Association in Washington, DC for the 2016 TESOL Advocacy & Policy Summit. The program featured a full a day of issue briefings and activities around education legislation and advocacy, followed by a day of visits to Congressional offices on Capitol Hill.

(l to r) Dr. Seungku (Steve) Park, President of Three Rivers TESOL, Stephanie Stauffer, PTE TESOL Liaison, a staff member of U.S. Rep. Pat Toomey, and PTE Sociopolitical Concerns Chair Leslie Kirshner-Morris

See "TESOL Advocacy," page 43

"Texting," from page 4
become abbreviated over time in actual languages, just as in texting. Thus, the simple explanation is that the underlying grammar is the same, but the most common expressions, the non-academic ones, have been reduced. Students understand this illustration. It is real to them – they text. They experience the eureka moment, and they often exclaim "Wow, I had never thought of it like that!"

While the evolutionary explanation may not be the only one, or even the true one, it has some interesting substantiation. The evolutionary missing link exists. Expressions using "help," such as "The teacher helped the students understand the text" or "The teacher helped the students *to* understand the text" are both acceptable. It seems that the evolutionary reduction of "to" for "help" expressions is not yet complete. It should be noticed that similar sentences in the more formal, academic register using "assisted" or "enabled" instead of "helped" require "to," just as in the cases of "compelled" and "permitted" above. Perhaps in a century, "help" + object + "to" + verb will have evolved completely out of the language.

One more interesting linguistic glitch can be easily explained by the texting principle. Students often wonder why someone may "go *to the* bank," "go *to* school," (no "the"), or "go home" (no "to" or "the"). They may even notice that "go to *the* school" is possible, but it has a different meaning than "go to school." An explanation for these quirks of the English language could be rather complicated, but a simple one exists. All of these expressions follow the same pattern of go + to + article + place, only the most common ones have gotten abbreviated. For a visit that for almost everyone might occur once a month or so, the full pattern is used; thus, one goes *to the* bank, or *to the* library, or even *to the* post office. For movements that occur and are spoken about nearly every day in modern life, like going *to* school, the article comes to be omitted. For going home, which occurs and is expressed every day, perhaps many times a day, no matter what other place has been visited, both the preposition and the article have been lost. It should be noticed that "going to the school of a friend" or "going to the home of a relative" are quite possible and grammatical. They follow the normal pattern because they are relatively rare. Again, common expressions tend to get abbreviated, and the most common ones get abbreviated the most.

Thus, by appealing to texting, English instructors can simplify grammatical explanations of adverbial prepositional phrases and clarify cloudy concepts of causatives. This technique has been used quite successfully in regular and remedial classrooms for advanced students, but it can probably be used even at lower levels.

***Kenneth Cranker** has a background in biology and has taught English for 12 years internationally and for twelve years at the University of Delaware English Language Institute. He has served as the primary mentor and level coordinator for the high-advanced level of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) there.*

"Collaborative Writing," from page 6

statement in general and looked at examples of corporate mission statements. Working in small groups, the students deconstructed the university's mission statement. Next, they examined their own goals and purpose as members of the university community. By the end of the first class, each small group had to submit an outline of their group's mission statement. For homework, students worked collaboratively via Google docs to fill in the gaps in their outlines, bringing a working draft to class on day two.

Day Two:

On the second day, the students were invited to share their writing challenges with the larger group. They spent ten minutes discussing and problem-solving, then worked with their smaller group to finalize their mission statements. The students were given a checklist to facilitate group peer review. Finally, the students finalize their mission statements.

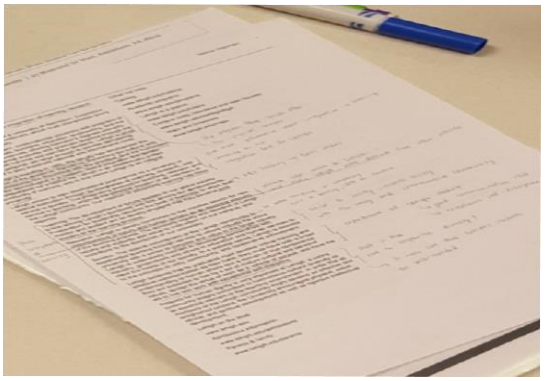
The students were given a checklist to facilitate group peer review. Finally, the mission statements were posted to the course site for grading and review.

Results:

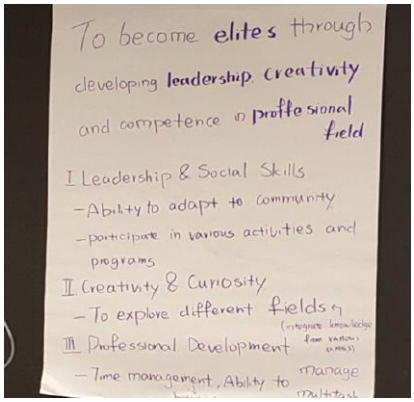
This task-based activity in a university composition course is meaningful because it advances academic writing and critical thinking skills through students' investigation of their own goals and values that promote personal change (Willis, 1996). We found that the students were more willing to invest in this activity once they understood the authenticity of the task. Furthermore, they genuinely enjoyed the process of working in a group to produce a personally meaningful mission statement. The added challenge of a working deadline promoted student engagement and investment.

***Kayla Landers** and **Mary Newbigin** teach at Lehigh University.*

Students problem-solve collectively.



Annotated university mission statement



Student outline

"Assessment," from page 10

in all aspects of language testing.

Christine Coombe, Salah Troudi, and Mashael Al- Hamly take up the issue of teachers' "assessment literacy" and link it to the ability of teachers to help their students in attaining higher levels of academic achievement. Drawing on Stiggins (2007), they define "assessment literacy" as an understanding of the principles of sound assessment such as clear purpose, achievement targets, method, control over relevant sources of bias, and dislocation. They conclude by asserting "that teachers will be expected to be far more assessment literate than they are today and those who are assessment literate know what they assess, why they assess, how they assess, how to generate sound sample of performance, what can go wrong and how to prevent problem before they occur."

Ramin Akbari in "Validity in Language Testing" presents a very comprehensive overview of different facets of validity in language testing from a traditional as well as a contemporary viewpoint. In the former, validity is understood as characteristics of a test whereas in the latter it is construed as the interpretation/inferences made of test result.

The author concludes by arguing that language testing is largely about making decisions; a test is a tool that provides a relatively reliable and objective means of decision-making, and, therefore, it should meet a number of standards for it to provide a sound basis for measurement and evaluation. Broadly speaking, chapters 4, 5, and 6 discuss different aspects of principles of language assessment.

In chapter 4, Farhady examines "Piloting" in detail; "Planning" and "Designing" are taken up in chapters 5 and 6, respectively. One of the main points made in these chapters is that no differences exist in the principles of language testing, be it done by a teacher for his/her classroom teaching or a testing company engaged in large-scale testing. In piloting a test, the purpose is to determine the characteristics of an individual item as well as of the whole test. Regarding the assessment process, O'Sullivan observes that while the process might seem linear, it is in fact more iterative, and regarding test spec, Davidson and Fulcher observe that it is fundamentally generative in nature, yielding to multiple tasks and items. They evolve over time and can endanger creative dialogue and debate among test developers. In "Linking Assessment with Instructional Aims and Learning," Katz argues that linking assessment with instructional aims and learning provides a window onto classroom learning processes for teachers and for students; they support reflection on learning, identifying areas of strength and weaknesses.

In chapter 8, Margo Gottileb presents an in-depth account of language standards for elementary and secondary education. She observes that these standards show how language learners process or produce language for a given purpose. In other words, they represent a developmental continuum that students pass through in the process of language learning. Language standards should serve as the anchor for curriculum, instruction and assessment. They also provide the cornerstone for the collection, analysis, interpretation, and reporting of data of individuals as well as groups of students. The main idea presented by Kantarcioglu and Papageorgiou in chapter 9 is "Plurilingualism," which they claim is central to the Common European Framework of Reference (CERF).

They, however, caution that test developers should not use CERF as a cookbook as there is empirical evidence that CERF might not be useful with a number of aspects of test development. They recommend using CERF as a comparison between language examinations.

In Chapter 10, Liying Chen and Andy Curtis take stock of washback and impact studies

See "Assessment," page 20

"Assessment," from page 19

and draw implications for teaching and learning, which whether intended or unintended, are either positive or negative. They argue that washback and impact studies be consequentially valid in the test whether on a micro-level, at classroom level, or at macro level in education and society.

In "Test-Taking Strategies," Andrew D. Cohen shows that more proficient learners are better able to utilize strategies such as (a) test-management strategies, (b) language learner strategies, and (C) test-wiseness strategies.

In Chapter 11, "What Teachers Need to Know about Test Analysis," James Dean Brown stresses the fact that test analysis is not an esoteric distant statistical concept applicable to large-scale standardized testing practices. He shows how a simple statistical test like the Kuder-Richarson formula 21 (K-R21) can be used by classroom teachers to learn more about the validity of their testing practices. The first section of the book concludes with "Ethics in Language Testing and Assessment and Professional Development." This chapter deals with the desired state of practice and professionalism for language testing practitioners and provides the resources for such development.

The second section of the book "Assessment Purposes and Approaches," with its 9 chapters, looks at issues that are fundamental to the development processes by focusing types of assessment and uses with specific learners and for specific learning-related goals.

In Chapter 15, Brown argues that understanding the distinction between two families of assessment purposes (standardized and classroom) and the difference between common language assessment types is fundamental for the appropriate selection of test type. One of the central ideas presented comes in the form of a suggestion Brown makes to test administrators. He says, "They [administrators] need to learn to give teachers more control over placement, diagnostic, progress and achievement assessment--all of which should match the existing classroom activities to the highest possible degree."

Keith Morrow, in Chapter 16, posits that communicative language testing aims to find out what a learner can do with the language, rather than establishing how much of the grammatical/lexical/phonological resources they possess. One of the important observations made by Morrow is that while Communicative Language Testing (CLT) testing is history, its effects are clearly visible in the current practices of language testing, be it IELTS without a component on grammar and vocabulary or the Common European Framework with the inclusion of the phrase learners "can do."

Coombe, Purmensky and Davidson make a case for alternative assessment on the grounds that some students simply do not perform well on traditional tests. They argue that since language performance depends heavily on the purpose for language use and the context in which it is used, it makes sense to provide students with assessment opportunities that reflect these practices. However, they caution that alternative assessments should not be used as an alternative to traditional language assessment.

Ali Shehadeh looks to task-based language assessment: components, developments and implementation. He thinks that task based language assessment (TBLA) is a powerful tool and can act as an impetus for changing teachers' mindset about assessment practices.

Anthony Green discusses the often neglected aspect of testing, i.e. placement testing. He observes that placement testing is an administrative and logistic challenge for institutions since large numbers of students need to be placed in the right proficiency levels. He proposes a Staged Approach: test takers are given a series of tests targeted at

See "Assessment," page 21

"Assessment," from page 20

increasingly specific levels of ability. The result of the first test determines the level of the test that should be administered next. In chapter 20, Angela Hasselgreen looks at the assessment of young learners and underscores that children's language needs to be taken into account while designing language tasks/tests for them and also the feedback given to them. Ingrid Greenberg, chapter 21, discusses ESL needs analysis and assessment in the workplace. Greenberg argues that English language assessment in the workplace differs from classroom-based testing. Therefore, language specialists must select an ESL test to match employees' background, and, hence, needs analysis is essential for identifying learning outcomes.

The second-to-last chapter of this section offers an in-depth overview of student involvement in assessment and makes a case for healthy self-assessment and effective peer assessment. Neil J. Anderson argues that if we want to gather the best possible assessment data to improve language teaching and learning, we must include students in the process. This translates into a classroom culture of collaboration and evaluation of each other. The last chapter of this section looks at a very interesting aspect of assessment: assessment of the second language pragmatics, by Zohreh R. Eslami and Azzizullah Mirzaei. The authors posit that the field is still a very young one and argue that there may not be any right or wrong scoring as the field involves intercultural competence.

Section 3 of the book, "Assessing Second Language Skills," covers skills and knowledge areas of second language.

In Chapter 24, "Assessing Reading," Nancy J. Hubley offers a comprehensive review of the existing literature on the subject, and underscores the fact that there is no unitary reading process that all learners go through; therefore, assessment of reading should take it into account as well as the socio-cultural differences in reading practices.

For assessing writing, Weigle, observes that the central issue is how we define the construct: rhetorical abilities or control of the building block. They also note that the impact of technology is huge, especially in places where the computer is common and students generally produce higher quality essays. However, the authors point to the limitations of computers for scoring writing as compared to human raters.

Flowerdew and Miller posit that L2 listening skills are often taken for granted, and, hence, less time is invested. The authors show that assessment of listening has gone hand-in-hand with the methods development and prominence over the years, and they conclude the chapter by asserting that the communicative approach perhaps offers the best opportunity for learners to demonstrate their comprehension skills. For the assessment of speaking skills, Sullivan maintains that speaking is not a difficult skill to test provided one is well prepared and willing to accept that any test is a fine balance between all the competing requirements. He also shows the practical application of speaking test design, test type, scoring perspective, criteria, test level and a rating plan.

In Chapter 28, Jones on "Assessing Students' Grammatical Ability," observes that little has changed in the assessment of students' grammatical ability over the years despite the fact that our understanding about grammatical knowledge has significantly changed. For the assessment of Vocabulary, Read notes that the assessment of vocabulary has undergone a massive change before and after the communicative teaching approach and the new surge of corpus studies. He notes that the focus on individual words is being recognized as a limitation and preference is being given to the assessment of multiword lexical units.

Section 4 of the book "Technology in Assessment" with three chapters begins with a broad assessment of the

See "Assessment," page 22

"Assessment," from page 21

effectiveness and limitations of technology in second language assessment. Davidson and Coombe think that computers enhance the development of language test administration and rating, the way they enhance teaching and learning. In particular, they help produce more valid and reliable tests and offer numerous administrative benefits. They also show that computers have not been adopted by most teachers, a sign that points to some of their limitations. Some of the obvious challenges to computer testing is construct irrelevant variance such as computer literacy, overdependence on keyboard skills, graphic interpretations, etc.

The next chapter in this section looks more specifically at web-based language testing. Shin argues that logistic flexibility is one of the key attractions for web-based language testing, and it enhances situational and interactional authenticity; however, she also shows the limitations of web-based language assessment. The section is concluded with Lee's chapter "Software to Facilitate Language Assessment" in which she shows the application of Quest, Facets for assessment and Turnitin detecting plagiarism.

Section 5 of the book "Administrative Issues" has three chapters. In chapter 33, Brady underscores that informal techniques of testing may not be practical with large numbers of test takers and that teachers need to be use more systematic approach to assessment such as group-based strategies in which teacher-learner both participate.

In chapter 34, Green and Hawkey look at marking assessment, rating scales and rubrics and highlight that mark schemes and rating scales reflect the construct of the test, and there must be proper training of raters.

The volume concludes with Taylor's chapter on accommodation in language testing in which he deals with the process of modification of test content, format or administration to meet the specific needs of an individual test taker or group of test takers, in the interest of fairness and equity. The author shows the lack of research in this important area of second language assessment.

***Mohammed A. Khan** ("Mak") teaches ESL at Community College of Philadelphia.*

"Golden Thread," from page 11

Later in the year when a student was sad about a grade or they were having trouble with another classmate, these posters acted as a starting point for our conversation. I would ask, "Which trait do you think will help you right now?" and by the end the students would realize that one grade or one argument did not define them. They could grow past it.

My favorite two chapters of the book give strategies to teach students how to use positive self-talk. In fact, the page I visit most has a chart with several examples of self-talk that embody each trait. For instance, when a student needs to be flexible, they can say to themselves, "That way isn't working; what else can I do?" or "Let me look at the tools in the classroom to help me think of options." When students internalize these sentences, they are less likely to fall victim to learned helplessness. They feel more powerful to solve problems that they come across in any class.

Throughout the year we teach an abundance of concepts to our students, and of course diversity of ideas is crucial in education. However, I think it is equally as important to give students a common thread throughout the year to help them navigate the excitement and disappointment that learning can be. *A Mindset for Learning* provides excellent research, resources, and anecdotes to help teachers create this type of thread.

***Courtney Knowlton**, an ELL Teacher at Eugenio Maria de Hostos Charter School in Philadelphia, currently serves as PTE's Vice President. She will become PTE President in May 2017.*

"Idioms," from page 6

> Jim never liked math and expected to do poorly on the exam he took yesterday. He was in shock, however, when he got a 95%. He couldn't talk for a few moments because he was not expecting to pass with flying colors. His teachers were not surprised because they knew Jim was the cream of the crop in his grade level, even if he didn't realize it. He always got the best grades and never
> was always sharp because he was able to had absence so far. In his classes, he understand new information very quickly, even if he didn't think so…

It is not a bad idea to underline the idioms, depending on the L2 learner's proficiency level. Once L2 learners read the passage, small group discussions are beneficial in letting them deduce the meaning of the idioms based on the given context. While L2 learners are discussing, a multi-columned chart (**Table 1, below**) can help them organize their thoughts.

While fill-in-the-gap activities are very common across many areas of study, they are particularly useful when presenting specific types of idioms such as bi and tri-part phrasal verbs and idiomatic verb expressions.

Once the instructor confirms guesses about meaning, L2 learners need activities that enable them to further process the target idioms for meaning. Consider a fill-in-the-gap activity as shown in **Table 2, below.**
Looking below, 'was in shock' and 'was sharp' are the correct answers to numbers one and three respectively. However, even advanced learners may not readily recognize how context influences tense/aspect selection.

Once L2 learners have had the chance to process the target idioms, instructors should consider activities that will allow students to analyze appropriate and inappropriate uses of them. Even when students are able to produce syntactically correct examples of the target idioms, they may be less familiar with appropriate pragmatic uses of them. By determining appropriate and inappropriate uses of the target idioms, students will be in a better position to use them in communicative discourse and react appropriately to them as well. Consider the discrimination activity, as shown in **Table 3, page 24**.

In the examples below, each sentence is syntactically correct. Ideally in a small group setting, the challenge for L2 learners is to pinpoint which of each group of three are pragmatically inappropriate and explain why. In doing so, L2 learners will fine tune their understanding of the target idioms. This also makes for good whole-class discussion with the instructor over why one example is more appropriate over the other.

See "Idioms," page 24

Table 1 (below)

Idiom/Slang	Context for meaning	Student Guess	What It Means
- in shock - with flying colors - cream of the crop -to be sharp			

Table 2 (below)

to be in shock	with flying colors	cream of the crop	to be sharp

1.) The student _____ when he scored higher than he thought he would on the test.
2.) The most dedicated students often times are _____.
3.) He _____ when he was younger, but years of drinking ruined his ability to learn new things well.
4.) He passed the test, although it was not _____.

"Idioms," from page 23

Finally, once L2 learners have processed and practiced the meanings of the target idioms, the instructors should prepare activities that will allow them to use them in verbal discourse. L2 learners do not have to produce long narratives for this part, especially if they are not at the advanced proficiency level. One possible activity requires scenarios in which a target idiom describes an event or situation that the speaker is going through, as in the following examples:

- Describe the last time you were in shock over something. What caused it?
- What subjects, activities, jobs are you able to accomplish with flying colors? Why do you think this is?
- How would you characterize a student who is the cream of the crop in your schools back home?
- Would you say you are a sharp student? Why or why not?

Table 3 (below)

- He was in shock after he was struck by lightning near his home. - The class was in shock when they had to take a test they knew about for a week. - Everyone was in shock about the announcement that the young staff member has passed away.	- Because he knew the material well, he was able to do his homework with flying colors. - Because he knew the material well, he passed the homework assignment with flying colors. - Because he knew the material well, he was able to teach the material with flying colors.
- Everyone at the table enjoyed eating the cream of the crop. After the crop was made into cream, it was served with the rest of the food. - The students who get the best grades are considered the cream of the crop. - The students who behave the best, but don't always get good grades, are also the cream of the crop.	- The student was sharp because he looked like he knew everything. - The student was sharp because he did everything he was supposed to do. - The student was sharp because he showed he always understood the first time.

Students can carry out this activity in a variety of manners, but the important point is that they are able to practice using the target idioms in a specific context.

When instructors prepare and present idiom activities that prioritize contextualization, they increase the chance that their learners will be able to appropriately process and acquire them for future comprehension and use. As seen above proper idiom lessons, as with any lexical or grammatical concept, require careful ordering and structuring on the instructor's part. The presentation of the target idioms allows students to begin to process them for meaning. Afterwards, they can refine their comprehension of them by determining their more appropriate use, which will permit them to start using them appropriately in verbal discourse.

L2 learners want to learn idioms and instructors want to teach them effectively. With contextualization as a primary driving force in their presentation, students will be in a better position to know how to make inferences to find meaning, use context to select the correct past, present, or future aspect (tense), and discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate pragmatic contexts. By developing these skills, L2 learners will develop the confidence needed to begin using and reacting appropriately to them in all forms of public discourse.

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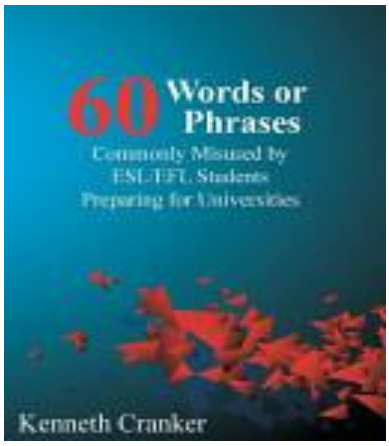
the incorrect use, again bringing awareness to the student. *60 Words* also allows the teacher to offer additional examples of what they often correct on student papers.

For some teachers this little book may seem like just another gimmick for the writing teacher and one that is oversimplified; however, for this teacher this simple method works. It works for both students and teacher if assigned, checked and given feedback on a regular and timely basis. Continual error of such common phrases as *compared* (to/with) and *even though* can be corrected if the student is asked to use them. After all, as ESL teachers, we know that repetition of sounds and word use are integral to the study of language.

One minor weakness may be the lack of exercises beyond sentence production, but this enables the teacher and the student to be creative in writing their own sentences (without copying dictionary examples). This creative practice requires students to not only use new vocabulary words, if assigned, as well as form grammatically correct sentences incorporating 60 problematic phrases. This simple drill lends to new awareness of word study in its correct form.



Complementary to the book, Ken has also written pre and post-tests of 60 sentences for both the teachers and students to assess and analyze which particular phrases are most in error. Having given the pre-test approximately 10 times, asking students if the sentences are correct or incorrect, it can be said that the average student answers 50% of the sentences incorrectly. It can also be said that the best writers make about 10 errors.

As a former colleague of Ken Cranker and one who has used his book with success, I wholeheartedly recommend that all advanced ESL/EFL teachers encourage their institution to add it to their required purchase list. The cost is minimal, the weight is extremely light, and the purpose is practical.

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English at different English-language proficiency levels and what influences Chinese writing conventions have on their written productions. This research is a contrastive study of English and Chinese persuasive writing by Chinese university students having various English proficiency levels with the purpose of examining the potential influence of their first language (L1) writing conventions on the development of their writing capacity in L2 and offering language educators pedagogical suggestions on writing instructions.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Although many scholars, for example, Kaplan (1966), had shown strong interest in this field and many research studies were conducted, conflicting conclusions were often drawn. This could be due to the inconsistent methods of data collection and unsystematic analytic instruments, which led the studies in this field to a controversial state (Severino, 1993). This study intends to shed more light on the complex nature of previous research by examining the schematic structures of the students' L1 and L2 writing together with the underlying logical flow. Any differences in the rhetorical structures among L2 learners at various language proficiency levels and any rhetorical correlation between their L1 and L2 writing can be explored.

1.2. Research Questions

RQ1. Are there any differences in the rhetorical structures of the English persuasive essays produced by students at different English proficiency levels in UIC? If yes, what are the differences?

RQ2: What rhetorical structures can be found in the Chinese persuasive essays produced by the same group of UIC students at different English proficiency levels? Are there any similarities in the rhetorical structures between the Chinese and English persuasive essays produced by these students?

RQ3: How is the rhetorical structure of English writing produced by students at different English proficiency levels influenced by their own Chinese rhetorical writing conventions?

1.3. The Research Site and Participants

The research was conducted at Beijing Normal University – Hong Kong Baptist University United International College (UIC), located in Zhuhai, China, and the participants were the students there, who had taken two language courses, English III and Chinese II, before the research was conducted.

1.4. Significance of the Study

By focusing on the rhetorical structures of L2 writing students used and the correlation with their L1 writing, university students could be more conscious of the rhetorical structures they use in their English writing and whether they transfer the rhetorical structure of L1 into their L2 writing. Language educators can have a better focus on the cultural and logical aspects in their teaching of academic writing. The researcher expects that the research results could provide university students with practical learning strategies in academic writing and language educators with pedagogical suggestions for the teaching of writing to non-native speakers.

Literature Review

L1 transfer has potential influences on the different aspects of L2 learners' language acquisition, raising the great importance of contrastive analysis -- comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 systematically (Selinker, 2008). For the past 50 years, contrastive rhetoric study, a newly-developing branch of contrastive analysis, has focused on language users' "mode of thinking" in their communication for specific purposes (Kaplan, 1966, p.11). Noticeably, the researchers in this domain have particular interest in rhetoric study in written discourse, including the investigation of the rhetorical structures used by people in their writing to convey their ideas to the audience efficiently (Lynn, 2010, p.14). Nevertheless, inconsistent methodology and contradictory conclusions of previous research has had a negative impact on the validity and credibility of this field of study (Connor, 2002). Aiming at investigating the deep structure of academic writing and logical flow behind it, this present study investigated the

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move-step structure of persuasive writing (Kinneavy, 1971) using Swales' (1990) move-step analysis and the generic structure of argumentative writing proposed by Hyland (1990). In this literature review, L1 transfer, contrastive analysis, traditional contrastive rhetoric study and revised genre-specific investigations of contrastive rhetoric study will be discussed.

2.1. L1 Transfer & Contrastive Analysis

Language transfer refers to "the role of the L1 in L2 acquisition" (Selinker, 2008, p.89). It is composed of two aspects: negative transfer, also called interference, which triggers the appearance of errors in interlanguage, and positive transfer, which facilitates learners' L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2003, p.51). It can become an important resource for L2 learners to build connections between L1 and L2 (Guo, 2001).

Language transfer is of great significance since a person's preformed language-using habits have an influence on their future language acquisition (Selinker, 2008, p.93). For example, a native speaker of Chinese can learn the basic sentence structure of English more easily than Japanese students, because Chinese and English sentences are both constructed in the order of SVO (subject-verb-object), while Japanese students are used to the order of SOV. Therefore, Chinese-speaking people connect what they have acquired from their knowledge of Chinese syntax with stimulus of English in the learning process to facilitate their language acquisition.

Contrastive analysis pays special attention to the differences between L1 and L2 in order to determine which parts of L2 deserve language learners' special focus (Guo, 2001). It has three major steps (Selinker, 2008, p.96). The first one is to contrast L1 and L2. By comparison, people identify how different L1 and L2 are, which can be called the language distance between these two language varieties. The second step is to determine potential errors. The potential errors in interlanguage are more likely to appear in the areas where the language distance between L1 and L2 is large. The final step is to achieve the ultimate purpose of this analysis by isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in L2 acquisition. The potential errors are where people should pay special attention in L2 acquisition.

2.2. Contrastive Rhetoric Study

According to Lynn (2010), rhetoric refers to "practical instruction in how to make an argument and persuade others more effectively" and "the strategies that people use in shaping discourse for particular purposes" (p.14). It can be in either oral or written form, and is acquired by people via socialization in certain cultural communities. In reference to Kaplan (1966), rhetoric refers to the logical system released by the elements of verbal patterns in certain discourse for particular purposes, differentiated among people with different cultural backgrounds (p.11). The coverage of rhetoric is comprehensive, which includes paragraph structure, syntax, grammar, lexis, etc. and the underlying thought pattern (Connor, 1996). In this research, the focus is the paragraph structures of writing and the logical flow behind them, which are also called rhetorical structure (Kaplan, 1966).

Contrastive Rhetoric Study, as a subfield of the widely implemented contrastive analysis, examines differences and similarities in writing across different languages, cultures and contexts, contributing to knowledge about preferred patterns of writing in various discourses (Kaplan, 1966). Kaplan's famous research in 1966 is recognized as the formal beginning of this research area and a typical model of traditional contrastive rhetoric study focusing on rhetorical structure (Connor, 2002, p.493). Kaplan (1966) conducted research focusing on rhetorical structures by analyzing 600 pieces of writing in English produced by people from different countries and regions. A series of diagrams describing the rhetorical structures used by people with different cultural backgrounds was created on the basis of qualitative analysis of the writing collected. It was found that Asians had a tendency to use indirect and circular rhetorical structure in their writing, while English speaking people tended to use direct and linear rhetorical structure (Kaplan, 1966, p.12). In an English paragraph, a thesis statement usually comes

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first, which was followed by topic sentences and examples or elaborations to support the topic sentences. Each paragraph has a tight relationship with the thesis statement. After argument development, conclusions will be drawn at the end of the writing. The logical flow from the beginning to the end is straightforward, which can be represented by the straight line in the first diagram in Figure 1.

However, the writing of Asians, such as Chinese and Koreans, tends to progress in a circular way as shown in Figure 1. For example, in the widely spread Chinese rhetorical pattern of *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* (beginning-following-turning- closing), different perspectives related to the topic are discussed as *qi* before explicitly stating main arguments of the essay. People may use several paragraphs to describe a narrative story to elicit the topic without committing their opinions on the topic. The thesis statement can be placed in any position of an essay. The relationship between each paragraph and the thesis statement is relatively loose compared with that in English writing.

English Asian

Figure 1. Different rhetorical structures in English and Asian writing

Although Kaplan's theory serves as a creative beginning for researchers in the field, due to the overgeneralization of the research conclusion, it has been criticized for its subjectivity. It is essential for researchers to notice the flaws of the research that the paragraph structures in a specific discourse can only indicate people's logical flow in this written discourse instead of the intrinsic differences in their thought patterns (Severino, 1993, p.46). Kaplan's conclusion of distinctive cultural patterns has also been criticized for its "promotion of the superiority of Western writing" (Connor, 2002, p.493), since it views English writing as more explicit and direct, expressing ideas more effectively than their Asian counterparts.

2.3. Revised Contrastive Rhetoric Study

Kaplan utilized qualitative analysis in his research, which was difficult to generalize to other research in this field (Connor, 2002). With the development of contrastive rhetoric research, move-step analysis (Swales, 1990), originally functioning as a tool of genre analysis, was gradually adopted in this domain. In this research, it was utilized as an analytical tool based on the generic structure of argumentative writing proposed by Hyland (1990) to analyze the rhetorical structure of persuasive essays.

"Although Kaplan's theory serves as a creative beginning for researchers in the field, due to the overgeneralization of the research conclusion, it has been criticized for its subjectivity."

According to Swales (1990), genre refers to schematic structures with contextual and situational features acceptable for members in a cultural community to achieve certain communicative purposes. The study of generic structure, emphasizing the schemata of communicative components in a discourse, is concerned with how these communicative components are realized in different parts of a text. "Writing is culturally influenced in interesting and complex ways" (Connor, 2002, p.506), and the genre-specific investigation is to study the rhetorical features of academic or professional writing from profound understanding of how texts are organized in a particular text type (Hyland, 1990).

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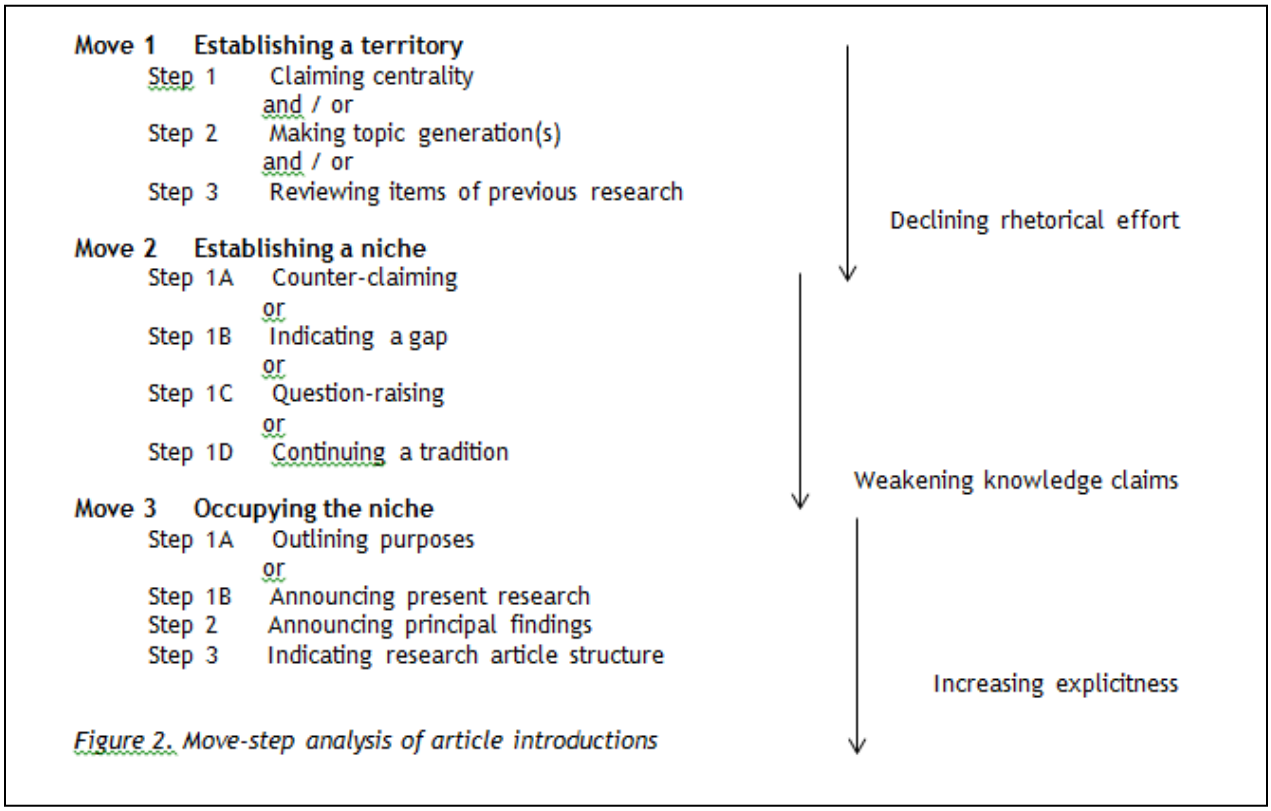

Figure 2. Move-step analysis of article introductions

According to the studies of Swales (1990) and Samraj (2002), academic writing can be separated into moves and steps in order to study the schematic structure of a specific genre across disciplines. Swales attempted to build up a generic structure of academic research papers' introductions. After several revisions, a "Create a Research Space (CARS) model" (Swales, 1990) was built in the form of a move-step structure as demonstrated in Figure 2, capturing the generic features of the English academic paper's introductions in natural science.

Hyland (1990) collected 650 pieces of argumentative essays in English, analyzed their stages and moves using move-step analysis (Swales, 1990) with some modifications. After that, he proposed the generic structure of argumentative writing as an illustration of the constitutions of an organized text under this genre. According to his model, a piece of argumentative writing is "the highest unit of description" with the purpose of persuading others of the correctness of a "central statement" (p.68), characterized as a three-stage structure as presented in Table 3. The three stages are the thesis, argument and conclusion, under which there are substructures comprising of moves. Under each move, there are sentences and paragraphs written to realize the move. As can be seen in the table, the moves in parentheses are optional moves, while the rest are obligatory. Each stage and move is constructed for its own function.

According to Hyland's (1990) description, each stage or move has its own definition and function although the boundaries between them are not always clear-cut. Firstly, the thesis stage is to introduce the topic, author's stance or central idea of the writing. There are five moves usually included, and only the move of proposition is obligatory, since it is the center of this stage. The gambit, the first move, is to draw attention from the audience,

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without the necessity of presenting significant information. The information move can be widely realized via a variety of speech acts offering information related to the topic. Then, the preposition move is to put forward a specific statement of the author's stance on the topic discussed, followed by the evaluation move which makes comments on the stance. The marker move demonstrates the logical flow of the following paragraphs. Secondly, the argument stage, the most characteristic component in terms of the generic structure of an argumentative essay, can be repeated, depending on the length and complexity the author thinks is appropriate for the audience. The marker move, including listing and transition signals, is to sequence and connect moves within an argument or to the topic. The restatement move is to remind the audience of the proposition. The claim move, the central movement in this stage, is to justify the author's stance and arguments. The support move, another obligatory move, is to strengthen the claim with rational justifications or evidence. Lastly, the conclusion move is to consolidate what has been stated. It also contains the marker move, such as "therefore" and "in conclusion". The consolidation move, the center of this stage, is to restate the arguments and connect them with the proposition. The affirmation move is to restate the proposition, optional and relatively rare in the writing of this genre. The close move is to extend and widen the topic.

This model is reliable as it was based on the analysis of the top 65 students' argumentative essays out of 650, which ensured that the writing samples were composed by competent writers. After that, the model was complemented by a large quantity of sample papers of this genre from different countries and varying sources, which enables the model to be representative as the generic structure of an argumentative essay (Hyland, 1990; Li, 2014). The model is also comprehensive since it serves as a model in which each stage and move has been explained and described in detail (Li, 2014, p.107).

Methodology

3.1. Participants

This study was conducted at UIC, where English was adopted as the medium of instruction in all major courses. Therefore, it was necessary for Year One and Year Two students to acquire academic writing competency in English with the aim of assisting their future major study. In each semester of their first and second years of study, students learned the schematic structures for writing different genres of academic writing in their English classes. All the instructors of the English classes were native English speakers, teaching the languages and structures used in Western

Table 3. Generic structure of the argumentative essay

STAGE	MOVE
1. Thesis Introduces the proposition to be argued.	(Gambit) Attention Grabber - controversial statement or dramatic illustration. (Information) Presents background material for topic contextualization. Proposition Furnishes a statement of position. (Evaluation) Positive gloss - brief support of proposition. (Marker) Introduces and/or identifies a list.
2. Argument Discuss grounds for thesis. (The four-move argument sequence can be repeated indefinitely)	Marker Signals the introduction of a claim and relates it to the next. (Restatement) Rephrasing or repetition of proposition. Claim States reason for acceptance of the proposition. Typically based on: a. Strength of perceived shared assumptions. b. A generalization based on data or evidence. c. Force of conviction.
3. Conclusion Synthesizes discussion and affirms the validity of the thesis.	(Marker) Signals conclusion boundary. Consolidation Presents the significance of the argument stage to the proposition. (Affirmation) Restates proposition. (Close) Widens context or perspective of proposition.

Note: Optional moves are in parenthesis.

academic writing and evaluating the students on the basis of the Western writing conventions. Meanwhile, in Year One, students also had Chinese classes, in which the instructors were all Chinese or Chinese speaking people and the students were also required to learn to write academic writing in

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Chinese. As a result, the students needed to write the same genre in both courses: a persuasive essay in the Chinese class at the end of the second semester of Year One and another persuasive essay in their English class at the beginning of the first semester of Year Two. By analyzing the two pieces of writing, the students' rhetorical structures in both English and Chinese can be compared. The time interval between the two writing assignments was relatively small, and it was reasonable to assume the possible influence of the rhetorical structure of the students' Chinese persuasive essay on their English essay. Therefore, 30 UIC students in Year Two of various majors, who had taken the two courses, English III and Chinese II, with the persuasive writing assignments in both Chinese and English, were selected to participate in this research.

3.2. Research Design and Procedure

In this research, Chinese and English persuasive writing was categorized into three groups according to the participants' English course grades, followed by an analysis of each piece of writing for its stages and moves. Based on the analysis results, the features of the rhetorical structures of Chinese and English persuasive writing were investigated and contrasted. After the comparative study, each participant was given a questionnaire concerning their perspectives on the rhetorical structures of the Chinese and English persuasive writing they produced and academic writing in general. Some of them were selected to be engaged in one extra interview for a deeper and more detailed investigation.

The qualitative data of this research includes the move analysis of the students' writing, the answers of the open questions on the questionnaire given by the participants and the responses of the participants in the interviews. The quantitative data contains the frequencies of the occurrence of different moves, the numbers of the markers and reservations in the writing produced by the students in each group and the responses of the closed questions on the questionnaires given by the participants.

3.2.1. Writing Collection

The persuasive writing in both Chinese and English of 30 UIC students were collected in July, 2014, and classified into three different groups according to their final grades received in the English class during the first semester of Year Two, which is comprised of the assessments of the four language skills and integrative skills. As the assessment system is norm-referenced, within which the participants' scores are ranked on a continuum to be assigned grades of A, B, C, etc., it is also a reliable demonstration of the position of them among their peers.

The grouping of the collected writing samples follows the methods adopted by the Administration Register (AR) of UIC to assign students into different English classes at the beginning of each subsequent semester, namely, the students with grades ranging from A to B+, from B to B-, and from C+ to C- were grouped into the three groups as the representative samples of the UIC students with high, middle and low levels of language proficiency.

During grouping, the writing was marked in the form of "Group letter + Participant No., Language". For example, the English persuasive essay written by the first participant in Group A should be marked as "A1. ENG", while the Chinese persuasive essay produced by the third participant in Group C should be marked as "C3. CHI".

3.2.2. Individual Text Analysis

After collecting and categorizing the students' writing, the researcher, along with another senior student majoring in TESL, analyzed the rhetorical structures of both the Chinese and English persuasive writing by each participant in each group. With the purpose of examining the function of the analytical tools, the English and Chinese persuasive essays by Participant A1 were selected to do a trial analysis. All the in-text citations and references were deleted as the research only focused on the text produced by the participants, and the grammatical errors made by the participants were neglected. Based on the move analysis of the two pieces of writing (see Appendix D), the methods of text analysis

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were designed as follows.

In the macro view, move-step analysis (Swales, 1990) and the generic structure of argumentative essays (Hyland, 1990) were used to investigate the schematic structure of each piece of writing qualitatively, followed by quantitative statistics of the occurrence of each move, during which the persuasive writing was separated and categorized into different stages and moves. Additionally, the titles of the essays, as an essential component of writing, were also included in the research as a feature of the rhetorical structure of persuasive writing. The titles of the students' essays can be classified into three major categories. The first category is composed of the titles which clearly demonstrate the particular discussed issue together with the author's stance of it. For example, "Animals Should Not Be Kept in Zoos" (A3) is classified in this group, as the title illustrates that the debated issue is about keeping animals in zoos and the author opposes the conduct. Noticeably, although asking a question, the title "Why Should Sex Education Be Taught in Public Schools" (A2) should also be thought of as a member of this group, as it has already introduced the specific issue of sex education in public schools, expressed the author's affirmative attitude towards it, and indicated that the content of the article is to reason this viewpoint. As for the second group, the titles only address a specific event or phenomenon without clarifying the author's own view. For instance, from the title "Should Doctors Be Required to Inform a Patient When He or She Probably Has a Short Time to Live in" (C5), the readers have a clear idea that the target issue is that doctors inform their patients of the diseases they have, but there is no information about whether the writer supports or opposes this kind of conduct. In the third group, only a general topic is given without specifying either the particular debated issue or the writer's opinion, for example, "Political Development in China" (C3). Considering the features of the three categories, it could be deduced that titles in the first group with both specified issues and attitudes are the most direct and explicit, while those in the second group, lacking a clear stance, only own a specified topic. The vaguest are the titles with only an unspecific topic.

In the micro view, the degree of explicitness was firstly researched. The occurrence of the marker moves in different stages of the writing in each group was used to observe the degree of explicitness. In reference to Hyland's (1990) research, the frequent use of markers leads to a clearer schematic structure and more explicit logical flow. Secondly, the number of reservations was compared to study the degree of indirection of rhetorical structures. According to Kamimura and Oi's (1996) taxonomy system of the structure of argumentative writing, frequent use of reservations contributes to a more indirect structure. Body paragraphs are the major carriers of the reasoning process of writers. According to the use of reservations in body paragraphs, the reasoning process of the sample writing can be grouped into three categories. In the first category, the authors introduce their arguments, support their stance and justify them one by one. As for the second category, after doing the same thing as the first category, the authors leave one body paragraph to introduce an opposite opinion and disprove it. When it comes to the third category, the authors introduce opposite arguments and disprove them one after another. According to the frequency of the occurrence of reservations, the degree of indirection increases from the first category to the third category. Therefore, the distribution of the persuasive essays in each group into the three categories of rhetorical structures was also calculated.

3.2.3. Contrastive Rhetoric Analysis

To seek the answer of the first and second research questions, the English persuasive writing was compared and contrasted among the three groups and with the Chinese persuasive writing in terms of their similarities and differences in rhetorical structure. The analytical results of the move analysis of the participants' writing were compared, followed

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by a numerical comparative analysis of the occurrence of different moves, the use of different types of titles, markers and reservations to identify specific features of rhetorical structures of the writing in each group.

3.2.4. Questionnaire

In order to investigate the possible reasons behind the students' choice of rhetorical structures and answer the third research question, a questionnaire was given out to the participants in October, 2014 to explore what they thought about the relationship between rhetorical structures in their Chinese and English writing and what rhetorical strategies they used when they wrote essays (see Appendix B).

The draft questionnaire was given to two participants as a pilot test before beginning the research. From the results and feedback, some questions on the questionnaire did not specify the genre of writing. Without specifying whether the purpose of the survey is to analyze persuasive writing structures or writing structures in general, the students felt confused and thought about other genres of writing, such as poetry and narrative writing. Therefore, the questionnaire was divided into two sections discussing students' rhetorical structures in their persuasive writing and different genres of academic writing in general respectively. Meanwhile, the participants were not aware that the Chinese essay they wrote in the second semester of Year 1 is a piece of persuasive writing, so the Chinese term for the genre was added as an illustration. Lastly, it was found that the accurate meaning of rhetorical structure was not clear to the participants. Therefore, its definition and connotation was complemented. Additionally, with consideration of the participants' various English-language proficiency levels, the Chinese version of the questionnaire was provided to avoid their potential misunderstanding of the questions, and the students were asked to write their answers in Chinese so that they could fully express themselves.

3.2.5. Interview

Since some students did not express their opinions clearly on the questionnaires and extension was needed on several questions, a follow-up interview was conducted face-to-face to explore the relationship between the L1 and L2 writing structures of the students in November, 2014. The researcher asked the set of questions in Appendix C, but encouraged the interviewees to talk more about their opinions and experience.

To be more specific, the participants B2, C8 and C9, who viewed the rhetorical structures of both Chinese and English persuasive essays as easy, were asked to explain the factors contributing to their viewpoints. The participants A3, A 11, B4, B5, B9, B10 and C3, who thought that the rhetorical structure of one piece of writing was easy, but that of the other one was difficult, were asked to figure out the attributed factors of the change of their attitudes. The participants A5, B6, B9, C8 and C9, who only wrote that the rhetorical structures of writing were important or unimportant without giving reasons, were encouraged to clarify their ideas.

Results

The schematic structure of a persuasive essay consists of three stages: Thesis, Argument and Conclusion (Hyland, 1990). The occurrence of different moves in each of the three stages of the persuasive essays produced by the three groups of participants is presented in Table 4. The characteristics of the moves used by each group of participants were investigated first in each stage and then in the overall schematic structure.

4.1. The Move Structure of the Thesis Stage

In the thesis stage of Hyland's (1990) generic structure, there is one obligatory move, Proposition, and four optional moves, Gambit, Information, Evaluation and Marker. In the English essays, a prominent similarity is the utilization of the information move and the proposition move. The students with different levels of language proficiency all used the two moves in their persuasive

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writing, leading the moves to be obligatory moves in the collected samples.

Another significant feature is that although there are fluctuations in the frequency of the participants' use of the gambit move, the evaluation move and the marker move among different groups, the majority of the participants used the evaluation move and the marker move. The evaluation move requires the writer to give comments on their propositions to strengthen their opinions. The participants complemented their stance in the evaluation move by listing their reasons. In some pieces of writing, the evaluation move was combined with the marker move, as the reasons listed are the guidance of the direction of the following arguments. For instance, Participant B10 constructed the proposition move, the evaluation move and the marker move in the following two sentences: "Euthanasia can help China's society exploit medical resources effectively and protects the dignity of human life. Therefore, euthanasia should be made legal in China. (B10)" In these two sentences, the writer explained the reasons of his stance, which are also the two major claims discussed in the stages of argument. Therefore, it is the combination of the evaluation move and the marker move, followed by a clear statement of personal stance that "euthanasia should be made legal in China" as the proposition move.

However, even though most of the students used the marker move in the stage of thesis, there is still a gap among the qualities of the move they used in terms of the function it serves. Three students in Group C (30%) constructed unclear marker moves. The three students only expressed their opinions with an unclear statement of arguments, such as "In my opinion, we should unswervingly believe that Diao Yu Island belongs to China. Because many reasons can give good answer for this problem (C3)". The phrase of "many reasons" is so vague that the audience has no idea of the justification of his position by reading his thesis. From this perspective, although all the students desired to be direct and explicit at the beginning, some of them actually did not manage to do that as what they expected.

Table 4. Frequency of the occurrence of the moves in the persuasive writing

Stages	Moves	English Essays			Chinese Essays		
		Group A (*N*=10)	Group B (*N*=10)	Group C (*N*=10)	Group A (*N*=10)	Group B (*N*=10)	Group C (*N*=10)
The stage of thesis	(Gambit)	6 (60%)	3 (30%)	5 (50%)	5 (50%)	8 (80%)	6 (60%)
	(Information)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)
	Proposition	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	8 (80%)	8 (80%)	7 (70%)
	(Evaluation)	7 (70%)	8 (80%)	8 (80%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (20%)
	(Marker)	5 (50%)	9 (90%)	6 (60%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
The stages of argument	Marker	25 (83%)	21 (68%)	21 (70%)	13 (50%)	15 (54%)	15 (56%)
	(Restatement)	12 (40%)	21 (68%)	15 (50%)	8 (31%)	6 (21%)	7 (26%)
	Claim	30 (100%)	31 (100%)	30 (100%)	26 (100%)	28 (100%)	27 (100%)
	Support	30 (100%)	31 (100%)	30 (100%)	26 (100%)	27 (97%)	27 (100%)
The stage of conclusion	Marker	6 (60%)	6 (60%)	6 (60%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (30%)
	Consolidation	9 (90%)	6 (60%)	4 (40%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	9 (90%)
	(Affirmation)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	5 (50%)	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
	(Close)	0 (0%)	2 (20%)	1 (10%)	7 (70%)	6 (60%)	6 (60%)

Note:
* Optional moves are in parentheses.
* There are more than one argument stages in one persuasive essay.

In the Chinese essays, there is also a common characteristic of the obligatory use of the information move, similar with the English persuasive essays. However, there are also two major differences between the Chinese and English essays.

Firstly, the proposition move, which should be the central move in this stage, was not used in several pieces of Chinese persuasive essays, transferring the move to be optional. For instance, in the Chinese writing produced by Participant C1, after talking about the television drama "Naked Marriage Age" as the gambit move, the author introduced naked marriage, a prevailing phenomenon in China, and divergent views people held towards it. There is no clue of the author's own opinion on the phenomenon in this stage. The audience needs to continue to read the argument stages to figure it out.

Secondly, the participants rarely used the evaluation move and never used the marker move in the Chinese essays. It may indicate that the two moves were not considered as components of the thesis stage by almost all the participants in the Chinese persuasive essays.

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4.2. The Move Structure of the Argument Stages

In the argument stages of Hyland's (1990) generic structure, there is one optional move, Restatement, and three obligatory moves, Marker, Claim and Support. In the English essays, all the participants constructed three or sometimes four arguments to convince the audience of the reasonability of their stances in the stages of argument. In the three groups of writing, the claim move and the support move are included in all the argument stages. This accords with Hyland's (1990) generic structure, in which the two moves are obligatory. However, the other obligatory move, the marker move, does not appear in each argument stage regardless of the language proficiency of the writer. As for the restatement move, the only optional move in the stages of argument, its frequency of occurrence fluctuates between 40% and 70%. The numerical differences between the frequency of the marker and the restatement moves and those of the claim and the support moves demonstrate that the authors paid more attention to the particular content of the arguments and reasoning than their connection with the proposition.

Noticeably, in the English essays by the participants of the three groups, some students sometimes put forward a claim without corresponding support, which weakens their arguments. This phenomenon occurs once in the writing of Group A (A1), once in Group B (B2) and three times in Group C (C4; C6). For instance, in the second argument stage in the essay written by Participant B2, when discussing about the significance of wearing school uniforms in students' communication with their classmates, the author put forward the second claim as "Moreover, students can improve their self-esteem and enhance their spirit of solidarity through wearing the same uniform". Then, without any illustration, he shifted to the third claim "More important is that school uniforms can reduce gang activity in the school". The lack of support leads the second claim to be a meaningless statement without any proof or evidence to demonstrate its correctness.

Different from the English writing, the number of arguments in the Chinese writing ranges from two to five according to the writers' preferences and logical flows. The boundary of the stages is not necessarily the same with the division of the body paragraphs. For example, in Participant A1's Chinese essay, the second argument stage consists of two paragraphs. The similarity between the Chinese and English essays in these stages is that the claim and support moves are still two obligatory moves, except that in the last argument stage in the Chinese writing produced by Participant B9, there is one claim put forward without support. The marker and restatement moves are also optional, but were less frequently used in the Chinese writing than the English writing. From this perspective, in the Chinese essays, the students even paid more attention to the reasoning process but focused less on the connection among different claims, arguments and propositions. Therefore, basically, the use of the four moves in the argument stages is similar in both Chinese and English persuasive essays. From the frequency of the marker and the restatement moves, the influence of the students' Chinese persuasive writing conventions on their English persuasive writing in connecting different arguments with proposition could be observed.

4.3. The Move Structure of the Conclusion Stage

In the conclusion stage of Hyland's (1990) generic structure, there are two obligatory moves, Marker and Consolidation, and two optional moves, Affirmation and Close. According to Table 6, in the English essays, the affirmation move, which should be an optional move, becomes compulsory. All the students restated their opinions in their stage of conclusion. By doing this, personal opinions become a significant and emphasized component in the essays.

As for the close move, it was rarely used by the students, and seems to have no relationship with the writers' linguistic competencies. Interestingly, all three participants who used the close move to end the article were for the identical purpose of appealing for people's immediate action of

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following their stances. For instance, Participant B5 wrote "Reading more, travelling more!" to appeal to university students to do some reading and travel after the affirmation move that university students should not only focus on study and the consolidation move that it is important for them to develop their personal characteristics and abilities to have a successful life.

The consolidation move and the marker move are two originally obligatory moves, but they do not appear in each piece of sample writing. The students did not see signaling the beginning of a conclusion and stating the relevance of the arguments to the proposition as necessary. As for the marker move, more than half of the students in each group used it to indicate the boundary of the stage of conclusion, such as "in short" (A1), "in conclusion" (A2; A3; B4; B10), "from what has been discussed" (C3) and "because of these reasons" (C7). This proves that the students had been aware of the convention, although they did not follow it all the time. Notably, the frequency of the construction of the consolidation move decreases steeply with the declining of language proficiency. The consolidation move should be the central move in the stage of conclusion in a piece of persuasive writing. A clear and complete consolidation move is essential to integrate the whole reasoning process to justify the writer's viewpoints. It also makes the central ideas in the entire piece of writing more explicit and coordinated. Without an efficient consolidation move, the logical reasoning suffers from a lack of association among arguments and proposition. As a result, the power of justification is weak. According to the data, even though a causal relationship cannot be assured, it still conveys that the students with higher English proficiency levels tended to stress the connection between their arguments and positions at the end of their writing in order to strengthen the proposition and be more explicit.

There are great differences between the conclusions in the Chinese and English persuasive writing. As for the marker move, it was rarely used in the Chinese writing. In Group A and Group B, there is not even one participant using the marker move in the stage of conclusion. When it comes to the consolidation move, distinctive from the English writing, it is almost obligatory in each piece of Chinese writing, except the writing produced by Participant C5. The obligatory use of the consolidation move generally accords with the generic structure of Hyland (1990). Meanwhile, the frequency of the affirmation move's occurrence in the Chinese writing is much lower than the English writing, making it an optional move, following Hyland's structure as well. Contrary to the English essays, the participants paid more attention to the relevance of the arguments to the proposition than the clarification of personal opinions in the conclusion stage in the Chinese essays. Lastly, the use of the close move in the Chinese writing is much more frequent than the English writing. The participants tended to discuss the impact of their position in the future or appeal to others to accept their opinion and take some actions at the end of the essays.

4.4. Explicitness of the Texts

The degree of explicitness of the three groups' persuasive writing was investigated by observing the use of markers in the texts. Table 8 shows the use of markers in the persuasive writing. It can be seen from Table 5 that there is nearly one occurrence of marker in one paragraph in the English essays, which basically connects the arguments and the proposition of the persuasive writing together. However, it also cannot be ignored that in some pieces of writing, the use of markers is problematic, which actually results in a more ambiguous association among different stages. For example, the pair of connective signals "on one hand" and "on the other hand" has been used in an inappropriate way in the students' writing regardless of their language proficiency. The two phrases should be used to indicate the two sides of one issue. Therefore, the claim connected by them should be opposite to each other. However, Participant A1 and Participant B4 both

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used them to list different arguments to support their positions. Some participants also used superlatives or similar expressions repeatedly to address the significance of different arguments. Participant C7 used "first of all", "most importantly" and "most important of all" to begin three arguments to support her proposition. Nevertheless, by saying that each argument is the most important, the audience feels confused and has no idea which argument they should pay special attention to. From the above, the students had the awareness of using markers to unite different components in one piece of writing, but sometimes the markers are not innately united considering the content associated by them.

The frequency of the use of markers in the Chinese writing is lower than that in the English writing in general. The frequency of the use of markers in the Chinese writing of Group B (3.7) is the highest, coming next is that of Group C (1.8). The frequency of Group A (1.6) is the lowest of the three groups. As for the use of markers in different stages, the frequency of the use of markers in the Chinese essays steeply decreases in the stages of thesis and conclusion, when compared with that in the English essays. In the stages of argument, the frequency fluctuates drastically. For several pieces of writing, the number of markers used is impressive, but for some others, there may be no marker in the entire piece of writing. These features of the use of markers result in a more implicit organization and underlying logical flow.

Table 5. The average number of markers in the persuasive writing

Stages	English Essays			Chinese Essays		
	Group A (N=10)	Group B (N=10)	Group C (N=10)	Group A (N=10)	Group B (N=10)	Group C (N=10)
Thesis	0.5	0.9	0.6	0	0	0
Argument	3	2.9	3	1.6	3.7	1.5
Conclusion	0.6	0.6	0.6	0	0	0.3
Total	4.1	4.4	4.2	1.6	3.7	1.8

4.5. Indirection of the Texts

The degree of indirection of the three groups' persuasive writing was explored by studying the reservations in the texts. Table 9 demonstrates the use of reservations in the persuasive writing. In reference to Table 9, reservations were used by all the participants in Group A (100%) and the majority of the participants in Group B (70%) and Group C (60%) in the English essays. The average occurrence of reservations in the English writing of Group A (1.6) is more frequent than the other two groups (1.1). It might indicate that a habit was cultivated among the students at high English proficiency level to use reservations to demonstrate the objectivity in their writing and prove the correctness of their stances indirectly.

The reservations appear in two positions, the information move in the stage of thesis, or the claim and support moves in the argument stages. In the information move, the inclusion of reservations enables the introduction of the topic to be more objective and critical by stating not only the side of opinion which the authors agreed with, but also the opposite side of opinion, although the rhetorical structure may become indirect to some extent. In the argument stages, the indirection of the texts could be identified via the classification of the rhetorical structures in terms of the use of reservations: in the first category, no reservation is used; in the second category, there is only one occurrence of reservation in the argument stages; in the third category, each argument stage contains a reservation. The percentages of the three rhetorical structures in terms of the use of reservations in body paragraphs within each group are also presented in Table 6. Ninety percent of the students in Group A used reservations in the second category of rhetorical structure, which might form a norm among these students with high English proficiency level. Nevertheless, the students in Group B and Group C used reservations in the three different structures.

Reservations were rarely used in the logical reasoning in the samples of Chinese persuasive writing. Even if used in a piece of writing, they are merely a part of the reasoning of a single claim in the argument stages, or they are mentioned only once in the thesis stage, rather than influencing the rhetorical structures as they do with the

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English persuasive essays. From this perspective, the English persuasive essays are more indirect than the Chinese essays.

Table 6. The frequency of the use of reservations in the persuasive writing

Items		English Essays			Chinese Essays		
		Group A (N=10)	Group B (N=10)	Group C (N=10)	Group A (N=10)	Group B (N=10)	Group C (N=10)
The Percentages of Writing with Reservations		100%	70%	60%	20%	10%	10%
The Average Occurrence of Reservations		1.6	1.1	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
The three rhetorical structures of body paragraphs	Category 1	10%	30%	40%	100%	100%	100%
	Category 2	90%	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
	Category 3	0%	10%	10%	0%	0%	0%

Conclusion

6.1. Summary of Findings

In this research, 30 English and 30 Chinese persuasive essays were analyzed for their moves in each stage. It was found that for the English essays, the moves, Information in the thesis stage and Affirmation in the conclusion stage, were utilized by all three groups of students, aiming to raise the readers' awareness of the contexts of the topics at the beginning and highlight the author's stance at the end. Marker in the argument and conclusion stages was optional. Influenced by Chinese writing conventions, it was not considered as necessary to associate the arguments and the author's stance together explicitly. The students were also not used to indicating the beginning of the conclusion stage explicitly. The differences in the rhetorical structure in the English essays produced by the students at different English proficiency levels focused on the choice of titles, Consolidation in the conclusion stage and the use of reservations. The students at higher English proficiency levels tended to be more capable of facing the expectations of native speakers. They tended to notice the English rhetorical structures that were not emphasized by teachers and ignored by other students at lower English proficiency levels.

A similarity between the Chinese and English essays shared by the three groups of writing was the universal use of the information move in the thesis stage. From this, the students transferred Chinese writing conventions of introducing the contextual information of the topic at the beginning to their English writing. Another similarity was the obligatory use of the support and claim moves regulated by the nature of the genre. In the stages of argument, some claims appeared without support to justify them due to the students' insufficient understanding of the moves. Differences between the Chinese and English essays contained that the use of Proposition in the thesis stage and Affirmation in the conclusion stage were optional in the Chinese writing, but obligatory in the English essays. The students did not highlight their viewpoints in their Chinese writing, but led the readers to understand their positions when reading the argument stages. Close in the conclusion stage was used more frequently in the Chinese essays than the English essays, expressing the author's stance indirectly. Influenced by Proposition, the use of Evaluation, making comments on Proposition, was less frequent in the Chinese writing than the English writing. Marker in the three stages and Restatement in the argument stages both descended in the Chinese essays, compared with the English essays, as the rhetorical structure of the Chinese essays was more implicit. Some students used markers problematically in the English essays which could not associate the arguments with the author's stance efficiently as a result of their limited language proficiency and understanding of the function of the markers. As for the differences between the rhetorical structures in the English and Chinese essays produced by the students at different English proficiency levels, Consolidation in the conclusion stage was obligatory in the Chinese writing, but optional in the English essays, especially those written by the students at lower English proficiency levels. It might be caused by mistaken decisions made by the students in L1 transfer. The use of reservations was also different between the Chinese and English essays, as opposite opinions and disproof were not considered as components of persuasive essays according to Chinese writing conventions, but common in English persuasive

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writing. The differences also included the different methods of title construction due to some students ignoring the importance of titles. The students in Group A and Group B shifted their strategies of constructing titles, while those in Group C continued to follow their L1 writing conventions.

According to the results of move analysis, survey and interviews, the influence of Chinese writing conventions on English writing was limited, as the students adjusted their rhetorical strategies based on the in-class instruction of teachers. Nevertheless, the students' previous experience and language proficiency also constrained their proper use of rhetorical structures. Students at higher language proficiency levels were more capable of being aware of the rhetorical differences and making adjustment, whilst students at lower language proficiency levels were more possible to ignore the differences without the emphasis of language teachers.

6.2. Implications

How these findings could be implemented in fundamental academic English writing class or even other L2 writing classes to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of teaching were also explored. In this research, the students could adjust their use of some moves to follow English writing conventions, but there were still confusions and problems. The research results provide language educators with inspirations in the teaching of writing in the following three aspects.

Firstly, it is suggested that language educators should develop teaching materials and design classroom instructions to teach different generic structures explicitly. The conscious teaching and learning of the schematic structures of different academic writing genres is necessary. In reference to the students' responses in the surveys and interviews, most of language teachers demonstrated the schematic structures of the target genres before assigning writing tasks. Students organized the structures of their writing according to the teachers' instructions. According to the results of the text analysis, students with high English proficiency levels followed the uniform schematic structure well. The research conducted by Li (2014) and Chien (2007) also agreed that the conscious teaching of schematic structures was efficient and useful. Students could be conscious of following the model and arranging their information appropriately and efficiently during writing.

Secondly, the teaching of the schematic structures of different genres of academic writing should be combined with the application of the structures in contexts. In this research, the English teachers of the majority of the participants had taught the schematic structure of persuasive essays in class, but the students still had problems and confusions in rhetorical structures. The teaching methods used by the teachers are what should be improved most to solve the students' difficulties and problems. The most severe problem is that the students knew about the moves in the schematic structure of the writing, but they did not truly understand the function of them. Some teachers merely gave the students a schematic structure model, which is not sufficient. Educators should demonstrate to students the function of each move or stage and the methods of using them appropriately and efficiently to achieve purposes of writing. Teachers could assist students to use the schematic structures to enable their ideas to come across to the readers smoothly. It is highly recommended that language teachers choose a specific topic which is familiar for students, and guide students to construct each move and stage using the schematic structure. For example, when teaching persuasive essays, teachers can guide students to build arguments, support arguments and connect arguments to justify their stances on a particular issue by using the moves. In this process, students can practice the theoretical structure in authentic contexts. It is also useful if teachers select some writing samples as positive and negative examples to elaborate the proper use of different moves after practice.

Thirdly, for native language teachers whose students are non-native speakers, they should be familiar with the learners' cultural backgrounds and the influence of their L1 writing conventions on their L2 writing. Native

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language teachers sometimes ignore the teaching of some moves. It leads to some problems in the rhetorical structures in the students' writing. It is essential for native language teachers to be familiar with non-native students' cultural backgrounds and the writing conventions of the target genre in their culture. Thereby, they can be clearer about the gap between their expectations and the students' prior knowledge. They can anticipate possible problems which may be evoked by negative L1 transfer. Consequently, teachers can emphasize the cultural difference intentionally and highlight the places where the students need to pay attention to.

6.3. Limitations

The research had several limitations in the data collection, data analysis and interpretation. Firstly, a problem of uneven distribution of the participants' English language proficiency levels appeared, as the researcher had no sufficient power of controlling the English grades of the students. The researcher enlarged the size of sample collection to ensure that there were sufficient participants in each group. However, due to the limited time and resources, the sample size in each group was still small. Secondly, it was difficult to collect some students' writing due to their worry about their limited language proficiency, especially those who were not confident of their writing competency. The researcher communicated with each participant to clarify that the research would not focus on their grammar mistakes or individual language competencies. Thirdly, it was sensitive to ask the participants about their grades, as some of them felt uncomfortable. Seeing this, the researcher communicated with each participant that their grades would be just for the data classification and their writing would be stored in the researcher's computer named after numbers instead of their real names. Fourthly, as it had been some time since the participants finished the persuasive essays, the time interval influenced the reliability and accuracy of the students' responses on the questionnaires and in the interviews. Therefore, the researcher demonstrated the teaching materials and assignment requirements to the participants to recall their memory when they found that their memory of the assignments had faded away. Fifthly, the moves in the essays were not always clear-cut, which influenced the accuracy of data analysis. Having realized the problem, the researcher invited another analyst with corresponding knowledge background. The analysis results were agreed by both the researcher and the auxiliary analyst. Although there were still certain subjectivity involved, the researcher tried to analyze based on objective judgment. Sixthly, the interpretation of the results might be personal, not agreed by all the researchers in this domain.

In further studies, it is highly recommended that researchers should have strong power of controlling the data collection. For example, they can be teachers or cooperate with teachers of a language class, so that they are able to control the instruction and the requirement of the writing. It is possible for them to collect a large quantity of data easily. They can also know more about the students' language proficiency and are able to choose suitable participants. It may be easier for them to communicate with the students and make connections between their rhetorical structures and responses with teaching activities as well. Furthermore, systematic practice on the identification of the moves should be done before conducting research to improve the accuracy of move analysis. Researchers should also invite another analyst with professional background in this domain if possible. Lastly, this research focused on explicitness and indirection of the writing. Nevertheless, there are other dimensions, for example, deduction and induction, that researchers may consider to study in further research.

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"How to Mentor," from page 9

5. *Give suggestions appropriate to the mentee's temperament and strengths.* What has worked for the mentor in a particular situation might not work for the mentee because they have different abilities and characteristics. For instance, patience and persistence could be used effectively to discipline students by a mentee who is not forceful.

6. *Share your own experiences and struggles.* By sharing your positive as well as negative experiences with the mentee, they will realize that some problems are complex and/or difficult to solve. This way, the mentee will get a more realistic picture of both the challenges and the rewards of being a teacher.

Finally, enjoy the mentoring experience. After all, mentoring is one of the most rewarding professional experiences a teacher can have. In the end, both you and the mentee have a lot to learn from each other, and you might develop a long lasting bond.

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"TESOL Advocacy," from page 16

With representatives from approximately 30 US affiliates in attendance, the goals of the Summit were not only to learn more about federal policy issues impacting TESOL educators and English learners, but also to provide an interactive learning experience for participants on elements of advocacy. By the end of the event, TESOL members had visited the offices of over 100 Representatives and Senators.

To fully prepare for the Summit, we as participants needed to complete several important tasks before arriving in Washington, DC. For example, participants needed to schedule meetings with their Congressional representatives. For many, this was a first. To assist with this, TESOL International Association provided directions, guidance, and a list of specific representatives and senators to contact. Additionally, TESOL International Association connected attendees with other participants from the same state to encourage collective advocacy. Our PennTESOL-East team reached out to our local and state Pennsylvania Congressional and Senate representatives so that we could create a realistic calendar to meet with as many congressional leaders as possible, moving from the Cannon House Office Building (U.S House of Representatives) to the Russell Senate Office Building (U.S. Senate).

We also received background information on key policy issues so that we could begin to familiarize ourselves with the most critical issues facing our TESOL field, in advance. To help make our Congressional meetings more effective, we, as participants, were encouraged to find examples from our own programs to illustrate the talking points we would use in their meetings. For example, we discussed the needs of current and former English Learners in high school students in over-crowded building who need additional resources (such as counseling and tutoring) to support their successful participation to robust coursework in order to transition to career and college readiness.

The Summit featured a keynote from Dr. Johan Uvin, Acting Assistant Secretary for Career, Technical, and Adult Education at the U.S. Department of Education. In addition, representatives from the Office for Civil Rights and the Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) at the U.S. Department of Education, as well as the Student & Exchange Visitor Program at the U.S. Department of Homeland Security, each presented updates from their offices. The Summit also included presentations from the American Federation of Teachers, the National Education Association, and author Dr. Diane Staehr Fenner presented information from her book *Advocating for English Learners: A Guide for Educators*.

One of the key points in the debriefing was on the new regulations surrounding the Every Student Succeeds Act. Now with an increased spotlight on students who have exited ESL programs, a renewed commitment to proficiency standards and a commitment to serving Long Term ELLs who have been in ELD programs for five years or more.

Following these briefings, the Summit shifted its focus to advocacy with preparations for meetings with members of Congress. For instance, PA representatives requested information on how they could strengthen programs in the state and wanted specific and ongoing bullet points on state and regional demographics and the needs of specific communities in order to serve them better.

To maximize the impact of the Summit, key members of Congress serving on the education

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and appropriations committees in the U.S. Senate and House of Representatives were identified for meetings. In addition, participants attending from the same state were teamed up so they could meet with the legislators in small groups. This year, Leslie and Stephanie met with staff from the offices of Patrick Toomey, Robert Casey, Joe Pitts, and Robert A. Brady. We were able to discuss the needs of our undocumented students, concerns regarding the Work Force Investment ACT, DACA, DAPA and the specific needs of our school systems: private, public, university-based, and those adult communities represented by PennTESOL-East. Please see most recent updates from TESOL here.

More specifically, on June 21, we went to Capitol Hill to have meetings with members of Congress and their legislative staff. Before our meetings, Leslie and Stephanie had the pleasure of collaborating with Dr. Seungku (Steve) Park, Director of the Language Center for ESL & Multilingual Programs at Slippery Rock University of Pennsylvania and President of Three Rivers TESOL. Steve was a welcome pleasure of collaborating with Dr. Seungku (Steve) Park, Director of the Language Center part of our team and supported us in all conversations, but was especially helpful with illuminating issues faced by Intensive English Language Programs state wide.

At the end of the day, the participants shared their experiences and what they learned over dinner. It was interesting to hear what other people experienced on their visit.

Overall, all of the participants agreed this event was a very positive experience for them and for TESOL International Association. We sincerely appreciate the support of the Penn-TESOL East Board and membership in supporting our visit and celebrate the opportunities we are now involved with to follow up as we contact local and state legislators with our commitments to keep them updated, informed and involved!

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TESOL International Association Announces New Executive Director

Alexandria, VA (28 March 2017)- The Board of Directors of TESOL International Association is pleased to announce that Chris Powers has been selected as TESOL's new Executive Director effective May 2017. Current Executive Director, Rosa Aronson is retiring after seven years of service to the organization. Vetted Solutions, a Washington, D.C. based executive search firm, managed the international search. "Chris's values and passion for language education, as well as his vision for TESOL clearly stood out in the interview process," says Ester de Jong, chair of the search task force and current TESOL President. "He conveyed a clear understanding of the challenges and opportunities facing the organization, and is well-prepared to succeed in the member-driven, multicultural environment that is TESOL International Association."

Powers brings 20 years of diverse experience in international education to TESOL International Association. In his role as Director of the Education Abroad Programs Division at the Institute for International Education, (IIE) Chris has overseen a complex portfolio of international education programs that support language education from kindergarten through graduate school and activities that span 37 different countries.

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Intensive English Language Program