

Creating an On-line Writing Course

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The ability to write well in English is a highly-valued skill these days. Japanese often find that they need to be good writers of English for success in graduate school studies, or for daily work in internationally-oriented companies and government jobs. E-mail has amazingly become a primary means of interpersonal communication in the 21st century. Even in relation to English education itself, writing is a highly effective means for converting receptive vocabulary ability into productive vocabulary ability (Corson, 1997; Laufer, 1998).

With the aid of a grant from the Japanese Ministry of Education, foreign language instructors at Hiroshima University's Information Media Center are currently putting a no-fee writing course on line. These materials are designed to help Japanese young adults become better writers of English. The Internet site, which is constantly being revised and improved, can be viewed at the following address: <http://flare.media.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/english/writing/frontpage.htm>

The main purpose of this paper is to explain the applied linguistics rationale for the materials which are being created. Readers of this paper are encouraged to give feedback at the Internet site.

The On-line Writing Materials and Applied Linguistics Background

The accompanying table shows the front page of the Internet site. As can be seen, the site has three sections. The first section, called Basic Level, is centered upon grammar materials because grammar ability is known to highly correlate with writing ability (Pike, 1976). But this section also includes instruction and exercises concerning how to write a good paragraph, how to write a one-paragraph opinion essay, and there is also a live English chat page. The second section, called Intermediate Level, helps students accomplish specific tasks: Writing e-mail and informal letters, writing business letters, making a resume, applying for a job, applying to study abroad, writing a fiction short story, overcoming writer's block, and adhering to formal writing rules. The final section, called Advanced Level, explains how to write long opinion essays, how to write research papers, and how to make a Web page in English.

It is important to note that almost all grammar explanations and exercise instructions at the Internet site are written in Japanese. Many high-quality studies have found that bilingual materials are better than monolingual ones (Scherfer, 1993; Knight, 1994; Hulstijn et. al., 1996; Laufer & Hadar, 1997; Watanabe, 1997; Laufer and Kimmel, 1997; Lomika, 1998). In a major

The Best On-line English Writing Materials - Microsoft Internet Explorer

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Hiroshima University's English Writing Help Center

On-line English Writing Materials For Japanese Young Adults

by Joe Lauer, Katsumi Iwasaki and Hiroaki Maeda
Hiroshima University's Information Media Center

初級: Basic Level

- 1) 美しい英文を書くために重要な文法項目 (Writing Good English Sentences: Important Grammar)
- 2) 質の高い英文パラグラフの書き方 (Writing High-Quality English Paragraphs)
- 3) 短いオピニオン・エッセイを書く (Write a 1-Paragraph Opinion Essay)
- 4) ゲーム: ユーモアのある文やパラグラフを書く (Game: Make Humorous Sentences and Paragraphs)
<http://www.manythings.org/jaw/w01.html>
- 5) 英作文添削用ソフトウェアを使う (Using Software for Correcting English Compositions)
- 6) 広大生のための英語Eメール交換広場 (Hiroshima University's English E-Mail Exchange!)
<http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/student.html>
<http://www.espartyland.com/e-mail/stemailresults.htm>
- 7) 広大生のための英語でチャット (Hiroshima University's English Chat: A Fun Place to Be!)
<http://www.eslcafe.com/chat/chatpro.cgi>

中級(特定の目的を持っている人): Intermediate Level (When you have specific tasks)


- 1) インフォーマルな手紙やEメールの書き方 (Writing Informal Letters and E-mail)
- 2) フォーマルな文章を書く上で必要な様々な法則 (Important Style Rules for All Formal Writing Tasks)
- 3) ビジネスレターの書き方 (Writing Business Letters)
- 4) 履歴書の書き方 (Writing Resumes/ Curriculum Vitae)
- 5) 就職のための書類の書き方 (Applying for a Job)
- 6) 留学願書の書き方 (Applying to Study Abroad)
- 7) ショートストーリーを書く: 創作能力を向上させよう (Write a Short Story: Improve Your Fiction Skills!)
- 8) 作文時の気後れを乗り越えるには (Overcoming Writer's Block)

上級(アカデミック・ライティング): Advanced Level (Academic Writing)

- 1) Writing Longer Opinion Essays (A Typical TOEFL Essay)
- 2) Writing Thesis and Research Papers
- 3) Create a Web Page in English!

On-line Dictionary/ Concordancer

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study carried out in Japan, Lupescu and Day (1993) found that bilingual dictionary-use was a great aid to students. In the area of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Grace (1998) found that low-level second language learners, regardless of their personality types, learn new words significantly better when first-language translations are provided. Lauer (2001) found that bilingual software is more popular than monolingual software.

Let's take a more detailed look at the applied linguistics empirical basis for each of these

sections.

I. Basic Level

Grammar instruction is beneficial to students because it enables them to notice specific features of texts, which can then become part of their acquired knowledge (Fotos, 1993; Ellis, 1990). Also, students perceive grammar study as useful in writing better compositions (Manly & Calk, 1997). At this Internet site, grammar covered in the first section will include the following structures:

A. Verbs-To date, this is the most comprehensive section, featuring numerous verb-tense explanations and exercises.

For example, site designers are planning to teach the sentence pattern S + V (non-verb) + C (present participle/ past participle), and participle constructions. Lauer (2002) found that, when given a multiple choice test, Japanese university freshmen have a lot of difficulty identifying these two structures. With respect to the former, students had problems with expressions such as *seemed upset*, *seemed satisfied*, *became acquainted with*, and *feel tired*, claiming that the following incorrect constructions were acceptable: *Anne seemed to upset this morning*, *He seems to satisfy with the result*, *Where did you become to acquaint with him?*, and *Do you feel tiring?* With respect to the latter (participle constructions), students could not correctly identify constructions such as *Her work done*, *Jill sat down...*, and *It rained for two weeks on end, completely ruining our holiday*; instead, a lot of students chose the incorrect participles *Her work having done* and *ruined*, respectively.

But in the above study, students also displayed grammatical strengths which will have to be kept in mind by site designers. For instance, freshmen did quite well recognizing both the sentence pattern *It + be, seem, etc. + clause beginning with that*, and the pronoun *it* substituting for a noun phrase/ clause. Thus, students had few problems with sentences such as *Is it true that many people are homeless after the flood?*, *It appears that he followed my advice*, and *It doesn't matter how you do the work*.

The grammar section of this writing site will also take into account that there is probably a "natural order of acquisition" for English grammatical morphemes (Dulay & Burt, 1973; 1974; Baily, Madden & Krashen, 1974; Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Fathman, 1975; Krashen et. Al., 1976; Pica, 1983). The first (easiest?) structures learned seem to be *-ing*, plural *-s*, and copula, followed by auxiliaries and irregular past, with the latest structures acquired (most difficult?) being 3rd person singular *-s*, regular past, and possessive *-s*.

It is now thought that five linguistic phenomena account for a large part of the total variance found in the morpheme acquisition order (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001). If it is easy to hear or perceive a given structure (e.g., word-final morphemes, stressed syllables), it will tend to be quickly learned. Forms with few meanings are often learned before semantically complex forms (e.g., plural *-s* only expresses number, while third person singular *-s* expresses person, number, and present tense). Morphologically regular structures (e.g., *jumped*) tend to be learned before irregular ones (e.g., *swam*). Syntactic category seems to

influence the natural order (e.g., lexical items appear to be acquired before functional ones, and free morphemes (i.e., individual words) are acquired before bound morphemes (such as *im-* or *-ish*). Finally, if a structure appears in input with great frequency, it seems to be acquired quicker.

Similarly, designers of this Internet site need to keep in mind that English verb tenses seem to be learned in a certain predictable order by both first and second language learners (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Her major longitudinal study found that Japanese university students in the U.S. can generally produce simple past tense before they can produce present perfect tense, and that perfect progressive emerges even later. The most common adverbials used with present perfect tense are *for* and *since*. A typical error involves students using present perfect when simple past should be used. The more formal instruction a person receives, the more that person can correctly produce present perfect tense.

Of course, the use of verbs is also influenced by first language transfer. Kawaguchi (2000), for instance, found that Japanese college sophomores sometimes used present tense even though past tense was appropriate when writing essays. One of the factors that caused this error was the influence of the historical present in Japanese narratives, claimed Kawaguchi. For example, one student incorrectly wrote: "He was at death's door and drew a map that *indicates* where he buried the treasure"; in Japanese this would be "Kare wa shi no magiwa de, dokoni takara o umetaka o *shimesu* chizu o kaita." Students should be taught the English rule of "tense harmony." Okuwaki (2002) also found that Japanese young adults have problems with simple past tense, especially in subordinate clauses. She also attributed this to the fact that Japanese does not always mark tense in subordinate clauses.

Corpus-based analyses give us important information about frequencies of verb tenses and verbs (Biber et al., 1999). For example, these studies show that simple present tense and past tense are, by far, the most common verb tenses in academic, news, and fiction writing. They occur in roughly equal frequency. In comparison, present progressive tense is about 20 times more rare. Also, the 15 most frequent verbs are *be, have, do, say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take, want, give, and mean*.

Another part of this basic grammar section will teach about gerunds (e.g., *Stop smoking*.) Learning whether a verb takes a *to* complement or an *-ing* complement is a difficult task, indeed. Petrovitz (2001) makes several pedagogical recommendations, one being that verbs with similar meanings (e.g., *attempt, endeavor, try, and undertake*) be practiced together, rather than merely being scattered throughout a list.

B. Articles (A/The)- The grammatical articles *a* and *the*—notorious problems for Japanese learners of English—will also be a key component of this Internet site. In what ways are articles difficult? Asano's (1996a, 1996b) studies provide some assistance. He gave large numbers of junior college freshmen fill-in-the-blank tests. No pattern was found as to whether *the* or *a* was easier to use. But, in general, freshmen had the most problems with idiomatic expressions (e.g., "At the hotel you can rent rooms *by the week*") and with putting no article before abstract nouns (e.g., "Sadness filled the room when..."). On the other hand,

students generally scored well filling in the article *a* before a noun when that noun appeared for the first time (e.g., "I am looking for *a* boy. His name is Kenichi"). They also did well with *the* in comparatives (e.g., "one of *the* oldest"), and when a noun appeared for the second time.

With respect to articles, Goto Butler (2002) reports that the most serious problem for Japanese of all English proficiency levels involves determining whether a particular referent is in the reader's knowledge or not. If something is already known by a reader, then a writer usually uses a generic (no article) or a definite article. If it is not known, then most likely an indefinite article is used. Thomas (1989) found that overgeneralizing the zero article was the most common error by L2 learners across proficiency levels.

Also, task affects error rates; students tend to make more errors with articles when writing essays than when filling in cloze tests (Tarone & Parrish, 1988).

Grammatical article instruction will include helping students identify countable and noncountable nouns, because such information provides clues to the type of article needed. Takahashi (2000) found that college students of various ages could select faster and more accurately whether an indefinite article was needed or nothing was needed when the noun was countable (e.g., *book*) than when it was uncountable (e.g., *food*). The students had a lot of trouble with articles when nouns were abstract or not clearly countable (e.g., *chicken*, *iron*). Similarly, Goto Butler (2002) and Yoon (1993) report positive correlations between Japanese students' abilities to make countability judgments and their abilities to use articles.

C. If Sentences (e.g., *If I had been rich, I would have...*) - Another grammatical structure which will be taught to students at this Internet site is subjunctive mood (i.e., *if* sentences). Nagai (2001) recommends a technique which has the following features: 1) the term "subjunctive" (*kateiho* in Japanese) is never used, b) structurally, the indicative mood (e.g., *If I have money...*) is repeatedly compared with the subjunctive mood (e.g., *If I had money...*), c) emphasis is put on the speaker's mental attitude in each type, d) students can orally practice the different types. Nagai used this technique in a freshman college class, compared its effectiveness with a "traditional technique" used in another class, and found that the newer technique worked significantly better.

D. Prepositions (e.g., *in*, *at*, *for*) - English prepositions are difficult to learn because there are so many of them, and because their functions differ from the functions of Japanese prepositions. For example, Inagaki (2001) points out how English allows the following four patterns: *John went into* [or] *entered the house (by) running/ John went to school (by) walking/ John ran into the house/ and John walked to school*. But Japanese only allows the first two: *John-ga ie-no naka-ni hashitte itta* [or] *haitta/ John-ga gakkou-ni aruite itta/?* John-ga ie-no naka-ni hasshita/ ?* John-ga gakkou-ni aruita*. Hayashi (2001) found that Japanese university students have more problems with *on* than with *in*.

E. Adjectives-Recent corpus-based analyses have revealed that adjectives appear in written language with much greater frequency than in spoken language (Biber et al., 1999), so they will be a key part of this Internet site. In particular, adjectives which modify nouns (e.g., *the big house*) and nouns used as premodifiers (e.g., *a grammar lesson*) are very frequent in news,

academic writing, and fiction, while participial adjectives (e.g., *an exciting game, an interested couple*) are very rare.

Other sections will include: F. Modals (e.g., *must have, might have*), G. Negatives (e.g., *barely, hardly ever*), H. There and It Sentences, I. Relative Clauses (e.g., *The man who I saw...*), and J. Reported Speech (e.g., *He said he would...*)

All of the above grammar exercises take various formats. Students are asked to: a) choose the correct answer among four choices, b) fill in blanks in sentences, c) fill in blanks in a story, d) fill in blanks in a chart, e) combine parts of sentences, f) choose the incorrect expression among four choices, and g) write one-sentence answers to prompts. These exercises utilize Hot Potatoes (Release 5.2) and other authoring software.

This Internet site will use grammaticality judgment tests as part of its assessment package. Ito (1997) found that when Japanese high school students were asked to put a circle next to the sentences which are grammatically correct, there was more reliability than with cloze or sentence-combining tests.

This Internet site will also utilize aspects of English educational software which are already on the market. Lauer (2001) surveyed the opinions of 39 Hiroshima University students with respect to 32 pieces of software. The most popular software which at least partly taught grammar were Quick English v2.5 日常会話 (INS, 1996), TOEIC 実践模試テスト (ALC, 1996), CD-ROM 版 TOEIC テストスーパー模試600問 (ALC, 1998), TOEIC 入門らくらくパック (Ask Kodansha, 1996), and CD-ROM で学ぶ TOEFL 英文法 (ASCII, 1996).

Another section of the Basic Level will tell students how to write a good paragraph. There is no doubt that students need this assistance; *yakudoku*, an activity in which students translate English sentences into Japanese, is a very common practice in Japanese high schools, so students have not had many opportunities to practice writing good paragraphs in English (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002; Gorsuch, 1998). This section of the site explains how a good paragraph needs to begin with the main idea (a topic sentence), and is followed by supporting statements. There are exercises which ask the students to identify good topic sentences and good supporting statements. There are also exercises which give students practice in writing topic sentences.

Another section of the Basic Level will explain how to write a one-paragraph opinion essay. One-paragraph opinion essays can be written when writing a letter to the editor of a newspaper, when writing a one-paragraph TOEFL-like essay, or when writing a short letter to a boss or a colleague in a business setting. This part of the project has three sections. First, there is an explanation about how to write such an essay. Second, there are examples of such essays. Finally, there is a Bulletin Board in which students can actually write one-paragraph opinion essays, and put them on line.

A final section of the Basic Level will feature Hiroshima University's English Chat Site. This will be a fun place in which students can communicate with each other in English in real time, 24 hours a day. Social constructionist theory says that knowledge is most effectively acquired through interaction with other people (Journet, 1990; Herzberg cited in McKay, 1993).

Chat has been shown to help students improve their language skills (Freiermuth, 1998, 2001; Warschauer, 1997).

II. Intermediate Level: For doing specific tasks

This section currently contains the following eight parts.

A. Writing E-mail and Informal Letters-In the field of second language education, Gaer (1999) argues that e-mail gives students the opportunity to interact and negotiate meaning with an authentic audience using a variety of language forms. E-mail has been shown to promote fluency (Li, 2000; Warschauer, 1996) and to motivate students (Fedderholdt, 2001; Liaw, 1998). E-mail users can communicate with each other inexpensively and quickly.

Kawamura (2001) surveyed the e-mail usage of Japanese company employees, Japanese students, and native English speakers with respect to making requests. She found that, compared with native English speakers, Japanese tend to overuse the expressions "I'd like you to (send me a catalog of the new product)" and "I need (a catalogue of the new product)," while they underuse "Please (send me a catalogue of the new product)" and "Can I (get a catalogue of the new product?)" Bloch (2002) found that asking for help, making excuses, and making formal requests are three of the most common reasons for e-mail communication between a teacher and students.

This part of the site includes a detailed list of high-frequency expressions used in e-mails. Each expression is grouped into one of 15 language functions, such as "greeting," "asking for a favor," and "thanking a person." Interestingly, each expression is linked to a real-life e-mail; students merely click on a symbol next to the expression, and they can see how the expression is used in context. There is also a link to sites which will connect our Japanese students with key-pals from around the world.

B. Business Letters-The Internet site will also teach some business writing, because students may encounter the need to write business letters in English after graduation. Several example letters are provided.

C. Resumes-First, there is a list of rules for making curriculum vitae. Then, several examples are provided. Some are appropriate for undergraduates, others for graduate students, and others for young adults. Some are written in British style, and some in American style. They function like templates for students writing their own resumes. Finally, there is a Bulletin Board where students can post their own resumes, and get feedback from site managers (i.e., Hiroshima University faculty) at some point.

D. Applying for a Job-First, there is an explanation about how to write cover letters, and examples of cover letters are provided. Next, there are examples of how to fill out job application forms. Finally, there is a Bulletin Board where students can practice writing cover letters and filling out employment application forms.

E. Studying Abroad-First, there is an explanation of how to write a letter to a foreign school, requesting information. Then, there is an explanation concerning how to fill out application forms to study abroad. Finally, there is a Bulletin Board where students can

practice doing these activities, and later get feedback from site managers.

F. Writing a Short Story—The aim of this section is to help students move away from rote-learning, and to promote more creative writing. It begins with an explanation of how to write good fiction. For example, short stories need to take into consideration the setting, the time, characters, character relations, and plot. Finally, a Bulletin Board is provided so students can put their creative writing on line.

G. Overcoming Writer's Block—Various problems associated with writer's block are presented, and suggestions are given for overcoming them.

H. Important Style Rules—Written in Japanese, this is a list of about 20 rules which should be followed when writing formal letters, essays, and research papers in English. For example, contractions should be avoided, numerals under 10 should be written out (e.g. *four*), and vague expressions such as *and so on* and *etc.* should be avoided. In addition, there is a comprehensive section which explains about avoiding sexist language. After these explanations, there are several exercises which test students' abilities to apply the rules.

These rules will also include explanations concerning the differences between formal-written language usage, and casual-spoken language (Leech, 2000; Hughes & McCarthy, 1998). For example, speech shows tendencies toward simplicity, including ellipsis (e.g., *Doesn't matter or You want a double?*) and less sentence subordination. Speech includes restarts and repetitions. Personal pronouns, questions, and imperatives are more common in speech. Speech has less precision in meaning, with terms such as *kind of* and *that sort of thing*. It contains peripheral adverbials (e.g., *actually, anyway*) discourse markers (e.g., *well, you know*), attention signals (e.g., *hey*) response forms (e.g., *yeah*), and greetings (e.g., *hi, bye*). Conversational grammar has an affective content (e.g., *Sorry, Would you..., Thanks*).

III. Advanced Level

This section contains three major parts, the first part entails how to write long opinion essays. Japanese sometimes need to do this style of writing when submitting a Letter to the Editor of a newspaper or magazine, when writing an essay for the TOEFL, or when writing a persuasive letter to a boss or a colleague in a business setting. And, research shows that, contrary to some stereotypes, Japanese college students enjoy voicing opinions which counter those of authority figures (Stapleton, 2002; Littlewood, 2000).

Interestingly, Japanese may find writing opinion essays in English a relatively familiar task, because the organizational structure is often similar to the well-know *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* Japanese essay organizational pattern (Hirose, 2001). First, the writer states his or her position (*ki*), then gives supporting reasons for the position (*sho*), introduces a counterargument and opposes it with further reasons (*ten*), and finally restates the main position (*ketsu*).

After an explanation about how to write such essays, numerous example essays are given. Also, there is a list of controversial/ minority opinion topics which students can write about. Finally, a Bulletin Board is provided where students can post their essays on line.

The second part of this Advanced section explains how to write research papers. Many

Japanese report having problems writing academic papers at the initial stage of undergraduate or graduate courses (Kohls, 1999; Spack, 1997). It is also interesting to note that most Japanese university freshmen have never had opportunities to write long papers even in their native language; Kobayashi & Rinnert (2002) report that only 20% of Japanese high school students have had experiences writing long papers in Japanese, while almost all American high school students have done so in English.

In the first part of this Internet site's section there are guidelines on how to write research papers. After that there are examples of long research papers from various disciplinary fields such as engineering, education, medicine, economics, law, science, dentistry, and biology. Useful expressions which appear in these papers are highlighted and taught to students. Finally, there are explanations about plagiarism and how to document references.

The final major part of this section explains how students can create their own Internet homepages in English.

Importantly, there will be a feedback page, where students can give their comments. In Japanese, students will be asked questions such as *What problems do you have writing?* and *What do you think about this Internet site?* There will be links to other sites where students can improve their writing skills.

A Pilot Study

A major goal of this site is to create grammar exercises which have validity and reliability. Thus, exercises will constantly be tried out on students in an effort to weed out bad questions. Below is a pilot study which begins this process.

A total of 78 Hiroshima University freshmen, composing three writing classes, were given a multiple choice grammar quiz near the end of the semester. Fifty-two of the students majored in education, and 26 majored in either medicine or dentistry. There were 43 females and 35 males. The students had studied about eight different grammatical structures during the semester, and prepared for all of those structures, but actually only four grammatical structures, in a jumbled order, appeared on the quiz: articles, conditionals, negatives, and gerund/infinitive use. A copy of the quiz is in the appendix of this paper.

Results and Discussion

All four grammatical structures seemed to have a roughly equal degree of difficulty, with students averaging 63% correct on articles, 58% correct on conditionals, 57% correct on gerunds/infinitives, and 56% correct on negatives.

With respect to articles, there was a huge amount of variation on the 10 questions, with three questions averaging below 30% correct (numbers A8, A11, and B1), and four questions averaging above 80% correct (numbers A1, A4, B5 and B7). The first difficult question required indefinite article use, and the latter two required no article. Students scored high on questions which required identifying the expressions *one of the first, such an understandable... explanation, turn off the computer, and are among the most important.*

With respect to conditionals, there was also a huge range, with question A2 being answered correctly by only 13% of students, but questions A9 and A15 being answered correctly by 92% and 83% of students, respectively. Question A2 contained a rather rare usage of the indicative case and some difficult vocabulary: "If electricity *does help* plants grow, perhaps the electric potential across the soil helps the flow of ions in the same way." Interestingly, 51% of students chose the incorrect *would help*.

With respect to negatives, students had the most problems with A5 and A7, averaging 33% correct on both questions. Both questions involved the word *barely*.

The most difficult gerund/infinitive question was B4, answered correctly by 42% of students. Students need to understand that "is linked to decrease rates of..." is incorrect; a correct expression would be "is linked to decreasing rates of..."

These results will be used to develop not only effective grammar explanations but also grammar exercises which have validity and reliability. Site designers plan to have finished most of the materials and web page construction by early 2004.

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要 約

ジョー・ラウアー

広島大学情報メディア教育研究センター

外国語教育研究系

ハイレベルな英語のライティング能力は、今日の社会における必須の技能である。また、日本では英語のライティング能力は、大学院レベルでの学業や国際的な企業または公職における日常業務の分野においても、成功のために不可欠であると見なされている。

広島大学情報メディア教育研究センターでは、現在、平成14年度科学研究特別補助金〔基盤研究 C2 一般、課題番号 145802200〕の支援を受け、無料の英語ライティングコースを提供している。このコースの教材は、日本人の若い学習者の英語ライティング能力の向上を支援することを目的にデザインされたものであり、そのサイトは以下のアドレスである。なお、これらの教材は、引き続き改訂中である。

<http://flare.media.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/english/writing/frontpage.htm>

本稿の主たる目的は、現在作成中のこの教材の応用言語学的な根拠を説明することである。本稿の読者にはぜひは上記のインターネットサイトを通じた、意見・批評等をお願いしたい。

also reduce innovation in the software industry.

D

3) The night before last, there was the cat outside the window.

A

B

C

D

4) Research shows that engagement in school extracurricular activities is

A

B

linked to decrease rates of early school dropouts in both boys and girls.

C

D

5) Before leaving the office, turn off computer and lock the cabinets.

A

B

C

D

6) Vitamin D regulates the absorption of calcium and phosphorus and

A

B

helps forming tooth and bone.

C

D

7) Issues concerning the distribution of income are among most important.

A

B

C

D

8) New Zealand rugby coach Dave Rennie, who heads Wellington NPC,

A

says that he is relieved being able to keep his job for two more seasons.

B

C

D

9) The reason I don't want a Gameboy is that I don't have a time.

A

B

C

D

10) Jones said he had fallen across Ross and had gotten blood on his

A

B

clothes, but he denied to take part in the violence.

C

D