



The use of network-based communication to support EFL writing at Walailak University

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Declaration

I declare that I have collected the data and composed this thesis myself.

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July 2003

Dedication

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

CAI	Computer-Assisted Instruction Computer-Aided Instruction
CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CMC	Computer-mediated Communication
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
Eng4Wr	English4: Writing (online course)
ESL	English as a Second Language
L1	first language
L2	second language
MALTS	Media And Learning Technology Service
MOO	Multiple-User domain Object-Oriented
MUA	Ministry of University Affairs (Thailand)
NS	native speaker
NNS	non-native speaker
NBC	network-based communication
NBLT	network-based language teaching
PLATO	Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations
TA	teaching assistant
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Language
WU	Walailak University

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate the potential of using network-based communication (NBC) in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing classroom. It has been hypothesised that EFL writers benefit from the interactions through NBC with two peer groups (readers and students) in two aspects: 1) NBC permits explicit feedback that influences revisions, and 2) exposure to the target language in NBC leads to incorporation of language.

The study integrated an online course (BlackBoard CourseInfo) into a writing classroom of thirty-two EFL students at Walailak University (WU), Thailand. The students wrote and submitted their drafts electronically to the asynchronous discussion forum where peers read the drafts, interacted with the writers and provided feedback. Taxonomies as defined by Faigley and Witte and Bridwell were used to identify revisions made in the sequential drafts. The feedback was analysed based on fifteen moves and two characteristics: text-specific (TS) and request for revision (RQ). The drafts and the feedback were cross-checked to determine the feedback effects as evidenced in revisions.

The results show that students benefited from interaction with the audience when they made use of the provided feedback. The students made many changes mainly at the format and sentence levels. However, only a minority of revisions came from the online peer response while the majority originated from other sources such as self-initiation. Feedback by the two peer groups differed in content, length and quantity. Students incorporated comments into all linguistic levels of their writing, and these were mainly surface corrections, TS and RQ feedback. Evidence from the online course indicated scarce and inconsistent participation implying low motivation.

These findings have led to the conclusion that NBC has the potential to support EFL writing, but the students in this particular study were not highly motivated to become involved in the activities. The study also revealed that exposure to the target language for a short time (one academic term) did not result in language incorporation apart from the incorporation of the explicit feedback. Despite its limitations, this study provides some insights into further development in the field of EFL writing and NBC.

1 Introduction

The study explores the potential of network-based communication (NBC) to support the teaching of writing skills in English as a foreign language (EFL). Particular attention was paid to a group of undergraduates at Walailak University (WU), Thailand. Networks are viewed as channels for students to communicate with an audience (other students and more competent language users outside the classroom) who respond to the writing. The focus of this research is the revision process and the effects that feedback may have on these revisions. The main aims of the study are to:

1. introduce and apply a computer network to English language learning for undergraduates at a distant campus of the university.
2. find a suitable teaching methodology using the computer facilities that will support language learning in the particular context.
3. investigate whether or not, and how, the use of technology in these ways will enhance the learning of English language and in which aspects; and/or how far it will improve the learners' English proficiency.

The thesis is divided into nine chapters containing the introduction (Chapter 1), a review of literature (Chapter 2, 3, 4), the research methodology (Chapter 5), the data analysis and presentation (Chapter 6, 7, 8), and the discussion and conclusion (Chapter 9).

Table 1-1

Thesis structure

Chapter	Contents
Chapter 1	Outlines the context and background of the study.
Chapter 2	Reviews the literature related to writing and the teaching of writing. The aim of this chapter is to provide background to studies in the field of writing in both first language (L1) and as a second or foreign language (L2). The major focus is the process of writing.
Chapter 3	Explores the different aspects of revision process, which is also the major concern of this research study. Literature presented in this chapter has particularly influenced the methodology and data analysis in the empirical study.
Chapter 4	Gives a review of the literature related to computer technology in language education. It provides background knowledge of CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning), history of CALL in education, the focus on network-based language teaching and particularly network-based communication. The chapter provides the background of the studies that have shaped the development of the current research work.
Chapter 5	Describes the research design and methodology. It covers the descriptive details of research instruments, the pilot study, the research design, the method of conducting the study and the taxonomy employed for data analysis.
Chapter 6	Presents the data and findings at the first stage. The data presented here are the written texts, and the feedback. Analysis was carried out on the written texts, presented, and discussed in this chapter in terms of the quantity and t-units. The feedback was analysed in terms of quantity, types (moves) and its characteristics, which are moves and their particular property of text-specification and requesting revision.
Chapter 7	Presents the data and findings in the revision process. Two data sets from chapter six were analysed. The chapter presents revisions that students made during the revision process. Analysis was conducted by cross-checking t-units from sequential drafts. The effective feedback was identified by checking the possibility that it might result in the revisions.
Chapter 8	Reports the student participation in the online environment and the attitudes of the students to the study.
Chapter 9	Discusses the conclusions of the study. It provides a summary of the study, conclusions, significance and limitations, recommendations, and directions for future research in the field.

This introductory chapter presents an overview of the study. The chapter consists of four sections: 1) the background of English language teaching (ELT) and computers in Thailand, 2) background knowledge about WU, 3) the development of the current study, and 4) its justification.

1.1 Background: ELT and computers in Thailand

English is taught in Thailand as a foreign language. Since English language is not a medium of communication in Thailand, students learn English from a conventional classroom guided by a teacher and from course books while some students also practice in a language laboratory. On average, the study of English is compulsory during the last two years of the first education, and it involves students in ages ranging from 10-12 years old. In secondary and post-secondary school, English is taught as a compulsory subject, involving a few credits per semester, or a maximum five hours per week. At the tertiary level, the study of English is still required although the extent varies among colleges/ universities, as well as different majors of study. In all circumstances, there are two fundamental English courses during the first year of university education. The main reason for incorporating English into the university curriculum is that it can lead to greater opportunities such as a better job, higher education and/or further study abroad. As a result of formal education, undergraduates would have learnt the language for at least eight to ten years. However, the level of proficiency does not necessarily correspond to the length of English language study. Rather, it is the quality of learning which has greater importance. English is only used in formal teaching situations. Other than that, English is rarely used as the main language in everyday communication and is only used by people who have a personal interest in the language.

The usage of computers in Thai education has only become widely accepted during the past few years firstly in the form of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) on a stand-alone computer. A survey by Thai Ministry of Education in 1998 of the total 561 CAI products reported that the majority of these computer programmes were

produced by the government sector (45.28%), followed by the private sector (38.68%). It was also reported that these software CAI programmes were for the primary school (36.72%), then the high school (26.20%) (Ministry of Education 1998).

Interestingly, a vast majority of CAI programmes (126) produced by the government sector were for senior high school level. The report suggested that this could be a result of the increased needs in that level due to the National Entrance Examination to the government universities. On the other hand, the private sector paid more attention to the elementary education level (147 programmes), probably because it was seen as a more rewarding market. Interestingly, CAI for English language learning has the highest share in the market, i.e. 24.77%, while mathematics has 20.50% and science 18.89% (Ministry of Education, 1998). This probably indicates the high demand of computer programmes for English language learning. For the tertiary level, there are 110 programmes (19.61%) in the market, including the general level. The figure may indicate a low demand for computer programmes for tertiary level.

From the mid 1990s, the Internet has become available the private sector, making the use of computers not only for educational and research purposes as before (Charmonman and Wongwatanasin 2000). This has encouraged an extensive use of the computer in households. The beginning of the information technology era meant that computers were no longer stand-alone workstations. Their use stretched to embrace communication and the exchange of information. Those features of computer-mediated communication included, electronic mail, chat, on-line conferences and other information resources on the World Wide Web.

As a result, computer network based learning has been considered necessary for tertiary education, as confirmed by the policies in network technology applications for Thai universities (MUA 2000). The Ministry of University Affairs (MUA) has established UniNet connecting tertiary level institutions mainly in Thailand. The network has spread to Asian regions as well as North America. It was originally

aimed at supporting distance learning through videoconferencing but later on, useful databases for education were also provided. This included databases such as ERIC (Educational Resource Information Center), MEDLINE (for medical science), IEEE (for engineering) and dissertation abstract databases.

The annual report by MUA (2000), stated that 24 universities/ institutes were connected to the network. The report also suggested that many universities including WU participated less actively within a small bandwidth (MUA 2000: 91). This may indicate that despite the plan to encourage the use of technology, WU is not yet successful in making the best use of resources. On the other hand, the cost of network infrastructure is high therefore investments in technology must be supported by a strong understanding of the potential of CAI. Sometimes, in small universities, conflicting needs and priorities exist in relation to justifying expenses. As a consequence of such financial issues, less than optimal choices are usually made.

One good sign is that electronic learning (E-learning) has recently become more common in Thai education. One of the major areas which is growing at the moment is web-based instruction as part of E-learning. There has been a recent development of an online learning network under the project called "Thailand Virtual Education Consortium", which started in December 1999. The first courses provided are science-based programmes called Learn Online, which has been operating since June 2001 at <http://www.learn.in.th/>. The contents are supported by the Thailand Graduate Institute of Science and Technology (TGIST), and the National Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA), the two major science institutions in Thailand. In the case of language learning through a computer medium, the latest news to emerge during the write up of this thesis, revealed that Suan Dusit Teachers College in Bangkok has been providing an English course through networked computers since June 2001 and it has expanded the course to include more students. The online course was supported technically by a web-based education company and included videoconferencing, online assignments and online quizzes (Matichon Daily News, 17 November 2001). This illustrates that web-based technology in language

teaching in Thailand is still in an early stage of adoption into the mainstream of education. Therefore, a study related to use of technology in language learning is one of the first steps of educational development in the country.

1.2 Background: Walailak University contexts

In this section a holistic picture of WU, which is the setting of the study, is introduced. It includes the general background of the university, English language teaching and the language skills of the enrolled students.

Walailak University is a newly established university under the supervision of MUA. It is located in the Nakhon Si Thammarat province on the eastern coast of the southern peninsula of Thailand. Several aspects have contributed to the uniqueness of WU such as, the isolated geographical location, the emphasis placed on technology and the incorporation of technology into the curriculum, all of which result in different needs as compared to other conventional Thai universities.

1.2.1 General background at WU

Walailak University was established in 1992 although it first admitted students only in June 1998. As of April 2002, the university had produced its first graduates after four years of study. Each year the university admits around seven hundred students who are selected on the basis of their National Entrance Examination as well as the quota system from regional high schools. The National Entrance Examination allows the students from all over the country to choose three universities of their choice. The marks gained from the examination will determine whether a student has a place in a public university and which one. On the other hand, the quota system is aimed at regional students who are selected according to their high grade point average (GPA) in schools. The quota system is less competitive than the national examination, and thus provides greater chances for local students to study in a public university. Since the university is rather new and has yet to establish its reputation, WU may attract mostly local students. In addition, the inconvenient location and the fact that students

can express their preferences make it unlikely that the best students would choose to study at WU as their first choice. Having stated that the university is not yet well known, it is necessary to stress that WU has potential and it is continually improving the quality of teaching and the learning environment.

The university is a fully autonomous state university, comprising residential facilities on a single campus with a major policy to incorporate modernity into higher education. It offers undergraduate and postgraduate degree programmes in several academic disciplines. As of 2001, a total of 2,873 students were enrolled in 21 undergraduate and 14 postgraduate degree programmes in 8 faculties. These faculties are Agricultural Technology, Allied Health Sciences and Public Health, Industrial and Resources Technology, Information Science, Liberal Arts, Management Science, Nursing, and Science. The educational system at WU is slightly different from conventional ones in that it is trimester-based instead of semester-based, which certainly affects the design of courses, syllabus and modules. Ongoing academic development includes that of information technology and quality assurance of academic standards (WU website <www.wu.ac.th>, 6 April 2002). The university also has policies which support research and academic services for the community. In addition, WU is fully equipped with modern technology, which includes science equipment, computers and the network facilities.

1.2.2 English language teaching at WU

English courses at WU are provided by the Institute of Liberal Arts and are compulsory for all students enrolled in all faculties, although English language is considered as a side subject. Even though the aim of these courses is to improve all language aptitude, greater emphasis is placed on reading as this is regarded as the most important skill in higher education. Each course is segmented into groups depending on the student numbers with an average of 30-35 students per group. Instructors might be either Thai or foreigners and students can express a preference

in this respect. As of 2001, five English courses were compulsory at WU and these included:

English I	General English (listening inclusive)
English II	Reading
English III	Advanced Reading
English IV	Academic Writing (which was the major concern of this study)
English V	Oral Presentation

Currently, the modules have been restructured into eight independent English courses, five of which are still compulsory for all students. These eight courses include two speaking courses (Conversational English and Professional Communication), three reading courses (Reading Skills, Academic Reading and Reading for Pleasure), two writing courses (Written Expression and Paragraph and Essay Writing) and one course in translation (English through Translation) (Moudraia, personal communication, December 2001).

1.2.3 Language skills: Writing

According to the instructors at WU, the students can be classified as lower-intermediate learners of English (Moudraia, personal communication: 2000). This average level of proficiency is reflected mainly in their writing. Their written texts display grammatical errors, spelling mistakes as well as non-syntactic sentences. The examples follow.

people was warned about...
she want to buy something
it have about 102 baht
when it fall
the tier look like a tusk
I were going

I am go to a beach...
I having a good time at...
if you staying here

they bringed on the beach...
I skipped off Bang and fallen in

I couldn't swimming / I can swimming

there is 7 tier
there is trees sorround the waterfall

I have very hapy in a holiday
we have lunch on a waterfall is very happy
the sky blue
then he came to home

Last week. Heavy rain cause congo River burst its
bank. disaster this time. because of zone cover
kisangani city to bring about people to be ill
diarrhoea and 20,000 people had to leave. The any
way UNICEF organization. gave assist emergency
medical and food supplies. to the right.

(sources: presentation given at Postgraduate Conference
1999, Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics,
University of Edinburgh)

The idiosyncrasies may be a result of the different language typology of Thai and English. Nevertheless, the students are able to use English for communicative purpose, as they can communicate in English with their foreign instructors. Their language proficiency is adequate for comprehension although not grammatically correct.

Writing seems the most difficult skill to attain, and the greatest difficulty is being encountered in the use academic writing that requires use of academic resources and references. The difficulty might be specially pronounced both because of linguistic features (Hass 1967, Sinlapasan 1995, Quirk *et al* 1985, Setthapun 1992) and different rhetorical styles in Thai and English (Bickner and Peyasantiwong 1988, Indrasutra 1988). Students involved in this study have also confirmed in the interview that writing is their least favourite task and it is the most difficult aspect in their learning of English.

Having recognised the present problems in this area of language teaching, this study looked at a particular method that would facilitate the learning of English writing, and help improve the learners' performance. The development of a research study is discussed more in the upcoming section.

1.3 Development of the research study

In the past few decades, the use of computers in language classrooms has gained substantial momentum, especially in western countries. It is highly conceivable that application of computers in language learning as a medium for human-human communication through network has great potential. Network technology opens a gateway by providing opportunities for students in remote areas to communicate and use mainstream English with peers from other countries.

The development of the current study has emerged with the aim to apply technology to support EFL learning in conventional education at WU. This research study focuses on the use of an asynchronous aspect of network-based communication to support an undergraduate English writing course. Different stages of conducting this research are as follows:

Stages	Time
A review of literature	October 1998-May 1999
Proposal	May-November 1999
Preparation for the fieldwork	May - December 1999
Pilot study	Jan-Feb 2000
Analysis of the pilot and preparation for the next stage	March-May 2000
Data collection: integration to classroom writing course	June-August 2000
Data analysis I	September-December 2000
Follow-up study: questionnaire and interview	Jan - Feb 2001
Data analysis II	March - September 2001
Writing up	April 2001- May 2002

During the academic term of June-September 1999, around six hundred second year students enrolled in English IV (0101-204) English Writing Course at WU. The course comprised of a supervised two hours tutorial as well as a four-hour self-study period per week. Students were given assignments, which started of as writing a topic sentence or a paragraph and were gradually expanded to essays (Moudraia 1999). By the end of the course, several drafts of short essays in different types of

writing (i.e. descriptive, expository, argumentative) were written by each student. Substantial improvement in the overall quality of writings was noticeable in the students when compared to an average freshman (compare examples in Appendix 1 and 2). Despite the improvement, the samples still displayed some linguistic errors, and flaws in text organisation. Most likely, these errors were the result of the different typology, rhetorical styles of writing in Thai and English as well as low readability that might be caused by the low competence to view their own writing from a reader's view point.

It was then hypothesised that a different teaching approach could possibly enhance the learning and encourage more satisfactory written products. Previous studies by Soh and Soon 1991, Warschauer 1995, Liaw 1998 and others have reported on the advantages of the network technology in the language classroom. Thus, this study looked at how network technology would influence the written skills of students at WU.

1.3.1 Context of this study: Academic Writing course

Several aspects of WU as previously described have been taken into consideration in this study. These factors; namely, the campus location, English teaching and the English proficiency level of the students, reinforce a demand to provide for the students chances to practice communicating in English outside the classroom. Such opportunities could be enhanced by network communication, where the use of the language is necessary.

The major concern of the current study is the Academic Writing course (English IV), which is regarded as both the most difficult and necessary. It was hypothesised that responses from a real audience to the writing would facilitate and improve students' writing performance.

The focus of the course was to teach students to write in three different rhetorical modes of composition, based on the process approach. These were descriptive

writing, expository writing and argumentative writing. It was expected that students would understand that in writing they needed to go through a process of writing and revising, rather than just trying to hand in a 'perfect' first draft. The process involved using feedback in the revision process. Furthermore, students were encouraged to do independent research and use different resources to accomplish the assignments. By the end, students were expected to be confident and independent in gathering and incorporating various sources of information into their writing. A command for the written product was reflected in the students' ability to construct a text showing structure, organisation and coherence (Moudraia 2000).

Like other English courses, the writing courses were taught by a number of lecturers, which included both Thai and foreigners. Students were allowed to choose the instructor they wanted to enrol with. Twenty groups of 30-35 students signed up for the writing course. Though the medium used in the classroom was generally English, Thai instructors were asked to translate certain teachings into Thai, depending on the group and the individuals in it. This academic writing course was the main focus of the study.

1.4 Justification for the study

The situations described above and previous studies relating to NBC (see Chapter 4) have led to a hypothesis that networked computers could stimulate the students' eagerness in using the target language outside of the classroom. The students were expected to become more active and motivated to use English even if English was only a minor subject in their entire studies. Interactions in English could be extended beyond the classroom to a more global audience. As a result, students could benefit in their writing from communication with more competent language users.

Despite claims made by many studies that NBC benefits language learning in numerous aspects, studies of CALL in Thai EFL contexts are rare. Several studies were conducted on CAI rather than specific language-based research or CALL. Since network technology has only been recently introduced to education, studies in the

field are understandably scarce. As a result, there are only a few recent studies related to use of network, among which only one is related to the use of computer-mediated communication in a language learning context (Ostrom 1998).

Pedagogical concern underlying this study is the revision process undertaken by English as a foreign language (EFL) students, who tended to be unfamiliar with the target language in many aspects such as linguistic features, rhetorical styles and background knowledge. Although numerous studies have looked at the writing process, there are still gaps in the knowledge as to how the revision processes affect EFL students where network technology is used for communication with peer readers. Neither the revision process nor the practices of using feedback in the process has been well looked at with regards to Thai students. The involvement of computer networks in this particular field of Thai education is also relatively unresearched. This study combines technology with revision process in writing. It draws on an overview of interdisciplinary CALL while suggesting specific directions applicable to a similar context possibly inspiring researchers to explore further in the field.

Since research of this kind is still in its infancy in Thailand, doubts arose about whether technology would work for language learning within the particular population and context of this study. Despite the foreseen uncertainties, the research undertaken was still worth conducting. It is hoped that the results will indicate whether and how the framework is advantageous (or disadvantageous) in the given context. Above all, this study represents one of the first steps in the investigation of network technology applications for EFL learning in Thailand. It is also hoped that the study will provide useful insights for future work in the similar fields.

2 Writing

Writing is a communicative act produced by human beings, generally viewed as 'structurally elaborated, complex, formal, and abstract' (Biber 1988: 5). It is a recorded form of communication represented by text which is more concrete and long lasting than other communicative means such as speaking or gesturing, and usually considered more permanent and more amenable to analysis (Hughes 1996: 11). It is also noted that written texts in most cases are portable and easier to decontextualise than utterances (Cooper 1982: 107). It is often remarked that writing is not a natural ability that one automatically acquires as one grows up (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). One needs a formal learning to be able to write; the ability (together with reading) that builds up human literacy (Johns 1997).

Despite its roles in our everyday life, we do not always acknowledge the importance of writing. Writing is essential to literacy in modern societies where the published media are dominant in communication, transferring knowledge and providing information. It is used both in formal and informal settings and takes a wide range of forms, such as letters, notes, diaries, messages, reminders, e-mails to name a few.

The ability to write well is highlighted especially in academia, language education and applied linguistics. Nevertheless, writing is usually perceived as the most difficult skill to acquire among most students whether in learning to write in their first language (L1), a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL). The difficulty of writing is probably due to the involvement of a complex cognitive process, which is not yet entirely understood despite the decades over which writing has been studied (Flower and Hayes 1981). Different approaches have been practised in language classrooms to develop writing skills, yet the responses to each approach vary among learners. The variation in classroom practice arises from a large number

of factors, some of which include educational qualification and cultural background of teachers and students, attitudes of the learners and the classroom environment itself.

Reviewed in this chapter is the background literature to the study of writing. It gives a holistic picture of writing as a mode of communication. It also reviews the teaching of writing with a focus placed on the process approach, which will lead to a further review of the aspects of the revision process in Chapter 3.

2.1 Perspectives on written and spoken communication

The two modes of communication: written and spoken, are viewed differently among researchers. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), most linguists regard written language as a reflection of oral language because the spoken word is more naturally learned, especially by a normal child when he learns to communicate with other people, while writing and reading is usually acquired through more deliberate instruction. Writing is not a natural activity for many people in the way speaking is (Chafe 1986). In addition, many people may even consider speaking as the primary means of communication (Hughes 1996: 13), with the emphasis being placed on the content. To many linguists, the written language may be disregarded as derivative from speech. However, many others disregard spoken language as 'unsystematic and not representative of the true linguistic structure of a language' (Biber 1988: 7).

The importance placed upon the two modes of communication has shifted over time. As Biber describes, historically academics have regarded writing as a true form of language when literacy was limited to a small group of noble people and used as a medium for formal education and literary works (Biber 1988: 5). However, by the early twentieth century, higher priority was given to the spoken form when linguists began to study speech as primary linguistic phenomenon (Sapir and Bloomfield, cited in Biber 1988: 6). They considered spoken a primary form and worth serious linguistic analysis while written was merely seen as a secondary and derivative form of conversation norm (Biber 1988: 6).

The inconclusive arguments over the primacy of the language forms have also led to a view that these two modes have developed separately but they share the purposes and patterns of 'communicative practice' (Brooks and Grundy 1990: 8, 16). Halliday (1985), for example, argues that spoken language is 'no less structured and highly organised than the written' (p.79) and that writing is 'an alternative form of expression to speech' (p.29). He also asserted that both forms of language are complex in different ways (p.87) and various aspects of spoken language have no counterpart in writing. Thus, 'written' and 'spoken' do not form a simple dichotomy (Halliday 1985: 30). He points out the distinction that written language displays a higher lexical density than that in spoken language. At the same time, having lexical sparsity, spoken language has more grammatical intricacy (p.76). Hence, to Halliday, speech is more structurally complex than writing (Halliday 1985). This view has a different focus from that of Brown and Yule (1983) who identify writing as more complex and more deliberately organised and planned than speech (Brown and Yule 1983). In addition, it is also noted that in writing the writer is less personally involved than in speech while in the latter, people present more personal interactions and are more involved in the texts (Chafe 1986, 1994).

Some education researchers usually regard the written language as the true form of language that signifies language ability, as a language learner is expected to be able to produce an elaborated written text after a period of study (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 15). For them, the written form is concrete and usually refined, 'primarily visual and static' with densely informative lexical features and most likely a high complexity of grammatical features, especially in academic writing (Hughes 1996: 28). Educators often stress that written form has standard grammar for sentence construction; explicit markers of clause relations; high lexical density and more complex vocabulary; explicit indications of text organisation; and explicit presentation of ideas provided to a non-present audience (Hughes 1996:34).

A common remark always made is that in spoken language, a speaker usually has face-to-face interaction with the audience, hence can use various markers of personal interaction to involve the listener as a second person while in writing, a writer often focuses on events that are experienced by third parties (Chafe 1986: 33). The chance

of extensive interactions is more limited to a writer. While the use of intonation facilitates the message conveyed by the speaker, the major help for the writer is from punctuation units (Biber 1988:21) and metadiscourse features. However, it should be noted that linguistic features are selectively used to serve different purposes, even within the same mode. For instance, writing for advertisement may well be different from writing a legal document. Language used for spontaneous conversation is likely to be different from language used for radio broadcast scripts or speech (Hughes 1996: 27). The forms and linguistic features are primarily chosen by the society 'to perform a particular task' although in theory it is possible to fulfil the task by either medium (Brooke and Grundy 1990: 16). The academic world, for example, regards both forms as vehicles of thought that deserve careful analysis and to which equal weight should be given whereas text analysts have suggested that the two modes of language be grouped "under the one superordinate, *text*" (Scott and Thompson 2000: 4). The major concern over the 'text' means to study the patterns of language as formed by events rather than merely fragments of syntactical features. To a certain extent, this perspective has filled in the gaps between the spoken and written language features, as they both share the basic purpose of creating 'texture' (Martin 1992) and are used between people in different events and circumstances (Hoey 1983/4 cited in Scott and Thompson 2000: 57).

2.2 Writing and literacy

Writing is a determined social activity with the writer's purpose being to convey a message to the reader (Connor and Kramer 1995). By writing, one creates a text, which has to satisfy the human need to clarify, to structure ideas and to proceed inquiries or arguments (Gage 1986: 26), not simply by placing words after others. A text consists of two parts: content and metadiscourse features, with the latter holding the content together.

In another sense, writing is usually regarded as a skill conducted through a complex cognitive process (Flower and Hayes 1981, Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Writing can become more complex when it comes to composing terms, a refined form of writing because it requires planning which involves complex linkage among sets of

information (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 5). Although the ability to write is a feature of literacy, it does not follow that any literate person can become a good writer. Thus, it is not surprising that there is only a small number of people who learn to write well (Chafe 1986).

Indeed, when it comes to producing good writing, the involvement of the cognitive process, the language proficiency and others make 'writing well' a complicated activity. To be good at writing, one needs to practise and understand what is required or what constitutes good writing, especially in an academic environment. By understanding what makes up a good written text and what the properties of a good writer are, one may possibly be able to write well.

What makes it difficult to produce 'good writing' can be the absence of the reader when the writer encodes the message and the absence of the writer when the readers decode the message (Traxler and Gernsbacher 1992: 3). Unlike the spoken mode, being in the position where explanation cannot be given to the reader, the writer needs to anticipate and consider what a reader needs to know and what information should be provided for the reader to understand the text (Hughes 1996:8). As there is no way to use gesture or clarification to respond to readers' questions (Shaugnessy 1977, Cooper 1982), the only means for the writer to convey his message is through a clear and understandable text. The skill of writing is not only a matter of language, as research has suggested that even writing in one's first language can be problematic (e.g. Sommers 1978, Emig 1983). For instance, not everybody who can use the language can easily become a writer. Writing involves the writer in planning the content, deciding how to convey the message and choosing suitable linguistic codes to process the job. The stages become even more complex for the writer who has to write in another language.

The difficulty of writing a good text may well be a result of not knowing what a good text is or what constitutes 'textuality'. To text linguists, a text is a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality, which are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. (De Beaugrande and Dressler 1981). These concepts have been applied to the teaching of writing within the attempts to define 'good writing'.

2.2.1 'Good writing'

There are several criteria for identifying good writing. The frameworks for examining a text and judging whether it is good or not vary from simple level to deep level. A simple view and the most commonly known is, for example, that in a good text "the ideas must be connected [coherent] and presented in a grammatically acceptable form" (Donnelly 1994: 17). A view like this has been adopted in most traditional classrooms since it involves mainly the text and how it is seen. In contrast, based on a framework of the functional linguistic approaches, others see good writing as that which "meets particular requirements set for a particular readership at a particular time and place" (Leki 1995: 41). A text is seen as context-bound and depends on circumstances (Brandt 1986). In this perspective, good writing also involves readership and context; and not just the writer and the written text alone. A particularly extensive view based on the approaches also stresses that written texts consist of 'sequences of semantically related sentences or t-units linked together to meet some communicative purpose' (Witte and Cherry 1986: 117). Writing in this sense also implies the importance of communicative purpose.

The above overview of several definitions highlights the various perceptions of the concept of 'good writing'. The simplest view indicates the importance of linguistic features and an appropriate structural organisation that is a result of good planning (Bloor and Bloor 1995). A text should be syntactically and semantically comprehensible. The passage quality is often believed to be dependent on coherence and cohesion, which are factors that make up the texture (Meisuo 2000). While coherence makes up a text, a significant contribution to coherence comes from cohesion (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 48). Cohesion is necessary for creating a good text because generally numerous sentences (even though a text might also comprise a single sentence) that make a text must 'hang together' to convey a sensible meaning (Halliday and Hasan 1985). A comprehensible text is usually facilitated by the writer's use of linguistic ties with cohesive properties to guide the readers, which include reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical cohesion (Halliday and Hasan 1976:4). Studies have commonly found these ties when used properly result in good writing (Witte and Faigley 1981, Intaraprawat and Steffensen 1995) although the use of conjunctive ties is not the only way to create cohesive texts. For

example, Scarcella (1984) reported that native speakers of English did not use this device often but were still able to produce high quality essays.

The most noteworthy views on producing good writing, which have become significant in many current classroom pedagogies, are the concepts developed from the functional linguistic approaches. In this framework, a text is viewed as a semantic unit, not just simply a grammatical unit (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 2). That is, although a written text is made up of words and sentences, 'it is really made of meaning' (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 10) and is context-bound (Leki 1995). The concept is also known as a 'social-semiotic' perspective. It places emphasis on the relationship of a systematic social environment and functional organisation of the language, which influences mainly the way we communicate or the way we convey the meaning (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 11). A text is seen as 'a set of functional resources in use' (Scott and Thompson 2000) rather than the correctness of clause or isolated syntactic structure.

The systemic functional framework introduced a concept of 'genre'¹, which has become influential especially in the field of language education and literacy (Oliver 1999). Traditionally, genre refers to 'categories of literary texts' (Johns 1997), but in more specific usage, it usually refers to the type of communicative event (Swales 1990). The notion of genre is quite often linked to the systemic concept of 'register', which was defined by Michael Halliday in the systemic functional linguistic approach. Basically, the term 'register' refers to a style of language being used in particular circumstances. In the studies of genre, it refers to 'the predominance of particular lexical and grammatical feature categories within a genre' (Johns 1997: 33), which represents the 'context of situation' (Paltridge 1997).

The notion of genre, however, has been developed and used in a more dynamic way, and may be defined as 'staged, goal-oriented social process[es]' (Hyon 1996: 700). It represents the 'context of culture' and determines the patterns of language (Paltridge 1997: 23). In other words, "Genres are how things get done, when language is used

¹ For detailed studies of genre/ genre analysis, see, for example, Miller (1984), Swales (1990), Hyon (1996), Askehave and Swales (2001).

to accomplish them” (Martin 1985 cited in Swales 1990: 40). It is commonly agreed that knowledge of genres is a basis for the realisation of a goal and enhances awareness of the audience, which together help a writer to meet the reader’s needs and expectations since good writing in each genre requires certain features that are different from the others (Swales 1990). Therefore, a successful integration of genre in the writing will lead to successful communication and an integration of the writing/ writer into a specific discourse community.

For example, a proficient writer of English for science knows what is required in the specific discourse community (of writing for science). There is a particular pattern of ‘move’ and ‘step’ that appears in a certain order, which the readers expect to see in the writing of the same genre. Swales’ classic example is the Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion structure of scientific articles for that discourse community (Swales 1990). It has been reported that students’ knowledge of the text structure also influences their comprehension of the text (Johns 1994). The trained students understand the features of a particular genre such as its shared communicative purposes, shared knowledge of roles, shared context, shared register and shared cultural values (Johns 1997). Thus, understanding and knowledge of a certain genre may not help in writing another genre that does not share those elements. For instance, ‘good writing’ for literature may not be considered ‘good writing’ for business or science because the reader’s needs and expectations in these fields differ. Use of an unexpected or different writing convention may result in ineffective communication (Johns 1997: 34).

The studies of genre have investigated as well the problem-solution pattern, which Hoey (1983) identifies as consisting of four parts: situation, problem, response, and evaluation. This pattern, though widely used for various types of writing, is most commonly used in advertisements (Scott and Thompson 2000: 9).

Additionally, another view on good writing maintains that a text is a site for interaction between writer and reader. In order to successfully get the meaning across, a piece of writing should interact with its readers in a certain way. In Bakhtin’s term, this is called ‘dialogic process’, which is based on the ‘dialogic discourse theory’ (Ritchie 1998). This theory states that writing needs to assume a

dialogue with its reader by, for example, anticipating what a reader wants to know next and giving sequential information. There are links of implicit questions and answers beneath the text. To sustain the dialogue with its reader, several pragmatic concerns are also important such as who the reader is, what is being expected from the reader, the text purposes, the expected compositional structure and the content (Bernhardt 1986, Prior 1998).

So far, the views on 'good writing' presented in this section include several concepts, which can be summarised below:

- Traditional view: appropriate use of linguistic features, connection of ideas, good planning and proper text organisation.
- Functional approach: good writing is context-bound, coherent and cohesive. The text is a semantic unit made of meaning with a communicative purpose that serves a social-semiotic perspective
- Genre theories: a good text comes from the writer's awareness of genre and the audience, appropriate text structure that follows expected patterns of moves with a suitable content
- Dialogic process: importance is also given to the writer-reader interactions in the texts

In terms of classrooms, the concept of good writing has a more specific meaning and quite often includes criteria such as linguistic features, textuality, good content, good organisation, readability and other properties that convey meaning effectively (Carrell 1984). A text lacking in some of these properties may fail to communicate. While writers produce and judge what they deem as well-written texts based on their perception of what constitutes a good written passage, perception of a good text also depends on the individual reader's expectation, which varies depending on the classroom and individual's perceptions (Halliday 1985). An evaluator reading a text may judge the text differently from others. Studies have reported very little consistency among different raters (Leki 1995: 24) even among those with the same backgrounds. For example, the general view that learners and teachers of English as

a second language are used to looking at accuracy as a major criterion to judge the text quality (e.g. Zamel 1982, Raimes 1985, Hyland 1998) was disputed in a recent study of Thai ESL writers. It was found that raters tend to rely more on discourse features, especially coherence, than grammatical accuracy in evaluating the quality of writing (Pongsiriwet 2001). This focus on coherence, although believed to be more beneficial for the student writers, more often than not, is difficult to achieve in the second language classroom settings especially when the language proficiency is a major problem of the basic writers and when teachers fail to recognise the essence of textuality.

2.3 Teaching of writing

Initially, it is essential to define the terms used in this study. The term L1 refers to the first language or the mother tongue. The term 'L1 writers' denotes writers of English as a first language, unless otherwise stated. The term L2 refers to a language other than the mother tongue and is used to represent two main groups: EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language), unless otherwise stated. According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1999), the distinction between EFL and ESL depends on the learning environment.

EFL: the role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication within the country.

ESL: 1) the role of English for immigrant and other minority groups in English-speaking countries, or

2) the role of English in countries where it is widely used within the country, but is not the first language of the population, or

3) in US usage, the role of English in countries where it is not a first language.

TESL and TEFL are terms used for teaching of ESL and teaching of EFL respectively.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics 1999)

By definition, the term EFL is more central to this study as the research focuses on EFL undergraduates in Thailand, a non-English speaking country. While there has been substantial research carried out looking at ESL writing conducted in the English speaking countries such as UK, USA, Canada and Australia, there has been only a handful of studies referring to EFL writing (e.g. Kim 1983, Enginarlar 1993, Makino 1993, Liaw 1998, Pongsiriwet 2001) although the number of studies in EFL seems to be growing (Santos et al 2000). Since ESL contexts are the closest area to EFL, this study applies theories and practices from both EFL and ESL to areas of academic writing, and refers to the terms as appropriate.

2.3.1 Historical perspectives of the teaching of writing

High demand for composition writing in the US resulted in extensive studies into composition in the 1960s (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). In the UK, Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) began as a pedagogical movement in the late 1960s when it was discovered that the students wrote very little outside the English classroom (Bizzell 1986: 62). Several WAC models have been developed 'to make writing an inevitable part of the teaching and learning process' in all disciplines and to serve career needs (Spack 1998: 90). Students knew that the skill would give them advancement in jobs as good writers are understandably wanted by businesses. Even so, many students regarded writing as a minor subject, hardly essential for their learning nor necessary to practice outside of the classroom context. They thought of writing as something that could be done in addition to learning, but not directly related to what they knew or how well they thought, although the practice of writing could lead to learning or help in organising knowledge (Gage 1986).

The importance of writing in classrooms resulted from the emergence of research in the field of the process of composition in the US in the 1970s. Researchers and educators became more aware and attempts were made to understand writing better. Many studies reported that the composing process is an extremely complex undertaking, which is often lengthy. Most of all, it is recursive, and not linear (Elbow 1973, Faigley and Witte 1981, Zamel 1982), contradictory to the prescriptive approaches to the teaching of writing that had been practised. This led to the shift in

focus from the product approach to the process approach with an emphasis on trying to understand what the writers do while writing.

Moving on from the focus on composition studies among L1 writers, who were skilled, unskilled or inexperienced, the interest was later transferred to L2 writers in an attempt to investigate the difference between L1 and L2 writers. This variation of the differences between L1 and L2 writers was influenced by contrastive rhetoric studies that place emphasis on cultural background that affects writing behaviour of students. These were mostly conducted in the US where ESL writers were also taking part in a composition classroom, resulting in highlighting the importance of better understanding L2 writing behaviours. Educators became impelled to treat L2 differently and to give importance to L2 writing with its uniqueness and needs, eventually establishing a separate theory for L2 writing practices (Krapels 1990: 38, Silva 1993, Matsuda 1998).

On looking at the development of the writing classroom in both L1 and L2, it is also important to note the emergence of more specific areas of English language teaching or English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The early development of ESP was within the framework of systemic functional linguistics, which was primarily UK-based before 1980s (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 27, 158). The growth of ESP has been influenced by the studies in line of genre analysis and text type variation (Hoey 1983, Martin 1985, 1992, Martin and Rothery 1986, Swales 1990, Halliday and Martin 1993). Theories and practices developed in ESP are advantageous for both the studies of L1 and L2 writing because they allow educators to focus primarily on the learners' needs as well as make it more cost-effective than general English (Dudley-Evans and St.John 1998: 34-35).

2.3.2 Paradigms in the writing classroom

Historical background has shown phases in the evolution of the teaching of writing from the mainstream composition studies to the study of second language writing. Three principal approaches can be assumed: focus on form, focus on the writer and focus on the reader (based on Raimes 1991 and Tribble 1996). The focus on the reader also implies the importance placed on the content that corresponds to the

readers' needs (Tribble 1996: 37). Even though it appears that the genre approach is the most recent and has high pedagogical values, the priority given in this review of the classroom paradigms is given to the process approach because it is central to the current study and relevant to the classroom context being investigated. The overview of three approaches given below allows for a deeper review on the process approach in a separate section.

Focus on form (product approach)

The focus on form evolved in the writing classroom from a belief that imitating a certain form of writing can help the learners to write correctly. Since this approach attends to grammatical forms, the practice corresponding to this approach is the drill and practice programme of the audio-lingual method. This approach makes use of a model text for the student to copy and change the words to suit the content needed, for example in business writing (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998). The classroom requirement is usually for the students to produce a grammatically correct composition. It barely involves thinking process or real thought about "the purpose of the writing, the readership or the expectations of the discourse" (*ibid.*: 116). Teacher comments provided at the final stage always focus on surface corrections (Rob et al 1986, Raimes 1991). The danger follows that students rarely pay attention to the comment; and thus make the same mistake repeatedly. The product approach is traditional in language teaching and is still regularly practised in many EFL contexts. The reasons could be that the teachers adhere to the old method of teaching, or it might be easier to make corrections, or the students expect their work to be marked, as their main concern is the marks awarded. Studies conducted on this approach are further discussed in comparison with the process approach in the later sections.

Focus on the writer (process approach)

This approach is described as a "revolutionary paradigm shift realising a conceptual break with product-based practices" (Pennington et al 1997). It focuses on "the writer as an independent producer of texts" (Tribble 1996: 37) and investigates what

writers do as they write. The fundamental shift was from the accuracy of the form to the process of getting across the meaning in several drafts (Raimes 1991, Tribble 1996). The emphasis is placed on the concept of writing as a problem-solving process that involves 'thinking' and 'process' stages (Dudley-Evan and St.John 1998: 117). Instead of the dominance of form, attention is given to content, together with the employment of various tasks such as the use of journals, planning, peer collaboration, and revisions through drafts using feedback. The approach is supported by the cognitive concepts seeking to understand what the writer is doing while writing (Flower and Hayes 1981). The process approach has its limitations and may not respond to the needs of all types of students, especially L2 students (Tribble 1996) although it has a strong influence in the teaching of writing especially in the US tertiary level (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 32). Not surprisingly, it has well been adopted in education by other countries that incorporated the American language education system into their curriculum design such as in Thailand. The writing course at Walailak University where the current study was conducted, for instance, applied this approach and based on mastery of the five-paragraph rhetorical modes and was uninfluenced by genre studies.

Focus on the reader and content (genre approach)

The genre approach, also known as 'the social -constructionist approach' (Dudley-Evans and St.John 1998: 117) or 'the social-context' approach (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 94), is said to have come to prominence after some educators found the focus on the writer's process of writing too cognitive and internal (Raimes 1991), and hence overlooked the importance of the process of communicating (Hedge 1988). The process-oriented approaches have been criticised for ignoring the communicative purpose of the tasks and not raising students' awareness of readers' expectation on the texts-- the key issue central to the genre-based approaches (Tribble 1996: 45-46). Genre approaches see writing as a communicative event and address a writer's social purpose in the text, which together introduce the notion of genre. The term 'genre' 'comprises a class of communicative events, the member of which share some set of communicative purposes' (Swales 1990: 58). Written texts in the same genre may be characterised by various patterns which are similar in

terms of 'structure, style, content and intended audience' (*ibid.*). According to Dudley-Evans and St.John (1998), this approach to the teaching of writing is closely associated with the development of genre analysis. That is, the establishment of 'moves' (as identified in Swales 1990) can 'capture the regularities of writers' communicative purposes in certain genres' (Dudley-Evans and St.John 1998: 118). Knowledge on the agreed patterns and structure of genre between writer and reader accommodates successful communication, as the writer can select proper language features, text structure, and eventually reach the goal of the tasks while the reader has in mind what the writer, by the selected genres, wants to convey (Swales 1990). Since the communicative purpose is a key concept in the genre-based approaches, it is stressed that one needs to conform to the conventions required in a discourse community if one needs to communicate successfully (Askehave and Swales 2001). In effect, the genre-based instruction has claimed positive results on students' understanding of text structure (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 319).

The genre-based approaches were developed under the influence of systemic functional linguistics, also known as Hallidayan functional linguistics (Halliday 1985), which is concerned with the relationship between language and its functions in social settings (Hyon 1996). Additionally, stress is also placed on the relationship between writer and reader, regarded as receptive audience (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Therefore, to reach the communicative goal, the writer also needs to maintain interaction with his/her readers by presenting what the reader needs to know and selecting language that signals the content and conveys the message effectively (Hoey 1994, 2001).

Although the origins of focus on content and reader do not appear as clear as the predominant approaches (Canagarajah 2001), it is asserted that the genre approach combines the strength of both product and process approaches (Dudley-Evans and St.John 1998). The process approach alone, it is believed, may not be sufficient as it may overemphasise the strategies of planning, writing and revising; and probably focuses too much on narrative (Martin and Rothery 1986). It was also noted that the over emphasis on an individual's reflection of writing in the process approach has yielded relatively little empirical evidence of students' significantly better writing

(Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 316). At the same time, stress given to formal aspect of language as commonly taught in the USA has very little contribution to the teaching of writing (*ibid.*). In a functional-theoretical perspective, the two approaches fail to explain to the learners “the use of language structure as a resource for making meaning in various registers and genres of writing” (*ibid.*: 319). In contrast, in the genre approach, a writer can develop rhetorical awareness through using various writing models as well as awareness of the needs and expectations in a discourse community.

The genre-oriented researchers, instead, have brought up the strong relation between the selections of language forms and the specific demands on language resources made by particular written genres (Cope and Kalantzis 1993). Once the learners recognise the relations between the language structures and the roles of language in conveying appropriate meaning, then effective learning could be carried out. In addition, in the genre approach students are encouraged to search out the sources, to discuss and critique, and to produce written texts that are acceptable to the academic community (Johns 1997). Indeed, knowledge of genre and awareness of the audience help stimulate writer-reader interaction and potentially result in successful communication. Bolivar (2001), for example, referred to students’ improvement in summary writing after being trained to take into account the structures of text and to be aware of interactions in the text.

The genre-based approaches have been successfully adopted into various settings, with a dominant body of research conducted within the field of ESP. An example of successful studies is a staff development programme carried out in Hong Kong by Sengupta, Forey and Hamp-Lyons (1999). The study aimed to raise reflective genre-based awareness among a group of academic staff from a variety of ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. The programme trained the staff to be aware of three basic inter-related dimensions in genre, which are the social, the communicative and the linguistic dimensions. It highlighted several important aspects in creating an argument such as the role of audience and the rhetorical purpose. The staff developed analytical view over texts and were trained for critical reflection. At the end of the

programme, they were able to build up individual constructions of knowledge of genre.

It should be noted that the study was conducted with a group of academic staff who had a high command of English language. They were also experienced in academic writing in some way, and were capable of producing a booklet on academic writing during the programme. Hence, it is apparent that language proficiency and familiarity with academic settings aided the success of the programme. Such practice may not be easily accomplished with a group of students inexperienced in academic writing and who have low language proficiency.

Despite the claims made in support of the ease of use of the genre theory (Bhatia 1998) and its success in teaching of writing and literacy (Cope and Kalantzis 1993), the genre theory has been criticised at the level of its application to pedagogy. Freedman (1993) noted that a genre-based classroom could stress too much the importance of language forms, and thus might become highly formulaic and prescriptive. It is, therefore, important that teachers who want to apply this approach be cautious and design activities to suit the learners' competence, as this can affect its success. For instance, analytical review of texts and reflection upon the genre of writing described above may be appropriate for advanced learners while students at a lower level need to get started by simple steps such as examining sentence arrangements and information ordering (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). For students who are newly introduced to a discourse community, an explicit teaching of shared goals of genre and discourse conventions is also necessary (Johns 1990).

Among the three approaches currently practised, it is observable that the first two (the product and process approaches) are mainly opposed. Very often there are discussions on the merits of process against product approach, or vice versa. The major shift from final written product to the composing process in writing instruction is sometimes viewed as a 180° degree turn (Applebee 1986: 95). However, the purposes of these two approaches are similar: to improve the overall quality of the teaching of writing (Bizzell 1986), leaving educators bewildered as to how and what to adopt in their classroom contexts.

Educators need to be aware that a selected approach may not fit in with any settings and that they need to take into consideration the activities each approach applies. For instance, even though the process approach allows learners to reflect on the inner process of writing, it may not be easy to conduct in a network-based classroom context. This is because it does not pay much attention to the surrounding social events nor consider the roles of the provided audience. In contrast, a network-based classroom could benefit from the genre approach because within the genre framework, a greater emphasis is placed on the audience, text moves, language patterns and content, which would offer more potential for efficient networked-classroom applications.

It is commonly agreed that the most recent paradigm being adopted in many countries is the genre approaches as influenced by systemic-functional linguistics (Cope and Kalantzis 1993). It has also been combined with the process approach in a writing classroom, so-called the process-genre approach (Oliver 1999). However, many classroom contexts have been slow in adopting it. This study, for instance, has seen the process approach as the informing philosophy as it was adopted into the academic writing course being investigated. Together with the process approaches being employed, the course applied the American models of rhetorical patterns but was not particularly influenced by genre studies (see further critiques on the writing course in 2.7). Hence, despite its benefits on students' learning the process of writing, limitations were also detected, as will be discussed in Chapter 9.

The following section explores the process approach in detail with a particular focus on the second language writing situations.

2.4 The process approach

The process approach is of central interest to the current study in the teaching of writing in an EFL classroom context. The descriptive report includes historical background, theories, practices, the potential and limitations of the approach.

The process approach was first introduced to classrooms in the 1960s when doubts had appeared about the product approach, which had long been practised in

education. As previously described, serious concern about composition studies first developed in the US as an area of specialisation within English studies (Bizzell 1986:51) before being adopted to L2 writing practice. Researchers and educators in L1 composition studies realised that the product approach did not allow them to look at the composing process itself; thus shifted to focusing on trying to understand what writers do while composing. The approach began as studies of individual writers, rather than as studies of instruction (Applebee 1986:101). The early major study introducing the process approach was conducted as a series of case studies of L1 writers by Emig in 1971 (Emig 1983). Findings that arose from the study caught the attention of other researchers and educators. The study reported that writing involves a number of recursive operative subprocesses rather than a linear sequence. Second, expert and novice writers differ in their use of those subprocesses. Finally, the writing processes vary depending on the nature of the task and writing genres, and depend on proficiency (Britton 1975).

Early case studies developed in this area quite often used an 'aloud' or 'composing aloud' protocol (Raimes 1991) to record the process. This protocol was criticised on the grounds that students might encounter difficulties in composing aloud because verbalising thoughts requires the writer to do two things at once. This in turn might result in changes to the way one composes (Faigley and Witte 1981) or stimulate different behaviours from silent composing (Perl 1979). Furthermore, some writers may not be well trained for this activity and the protocols could interrupt their flow of thought (Perl 1980, Faigley and Witte 1981: 412). On the contrary, Raimes (1985) argued that the protocol may instead keep students focused on the ideas rather than constrain them while composing.

The next step of L1 composition studies compared the writing and revising processes of skilled experienced writers and unskilled writers (Sommers 1978, 1980; Perl 1979). These studies gave pedagogical value, brought awareness of differences among groups and consequently influenced the study of L2 writers mainly in the area of ESL, which became prominent in the 1980s and mainly focused on the process of writing. ESL researchers were aware of the differences in the two major approaches to writing. They adopted the theories and methodologies from L1 studies, started to

emphasise the importance of content versus form (Eschholz 1980:23, Judy 1980: 41, Zamel 1982:206), and gradually moved away from the existing theories for L1 to establish their own (Silva 1993).

Like those studies in L1, the product approach in L2 was questioned for being wrongly based on the belief that the focus on form, usage, or structure was a good pedagogical approach that would improve writing. It emphasises too much the evaluation of composition and places too little attention on other factors such as audience, purpose of writing, and the composing process itself (Zamel 1982:194). In contrast, the process approach tries to understand how one writes, identifies the complex nature of the composing process and questions the past approaches to the teaching of writing (Zamel 1982:196).

2.4.1 Major concepts of the process approach

The process approach gives importance to the different stages of composing activities which include prewriting, writing, revising and editing. As Vygotsky views it: '*Writing is elaborating the web of meaning*' (Vygotsky 1962), the discovery of meaning is indeed the major concern of the process approach (Zamel 1982, Emig 1983). Writing is seen as a process to get the meaning across, and a writer requires cognitive consciousness to accomplish a writing task. An effective writer has to go through different cognitive processes including thinking, planning, writing notes, composing the notes, reading, revising and editing. These steps are undertaken upon individual variations of sequences. Mainly, the process involves writer's organisation of idea and information into coherent, linear texts (White and Arndt 1991).

The essence of teaching the process approach is that a good product can only be delivered through stages of revisions. Students as writers should not expect a perfect finished draft the first time they write (Shaughnessy 1977: 79, Zamel 1982: 205). However, revising is not just editing or proofreading as traditionally perceived. Students may need to deal with deleting and adding paragraphs or even pages, take time to look at and discover their own flaws and reflect on the shortcomings. It is also advisable that a period of time in between the drafts be allowed so that the

writers can distance themselves from their ideas, then review the text from a different perspective (Zamel 1983: 174).

To accommodate the students in their own discovery of meaning, the process of writing implies teacher intervention between drafts. Intervention by interacting with the drafts reinforces the learning at the stage of composing (Applebee 1986). The interactions are seen through commentary, either written or oral. They are regarded as provisional insights from different stances that the writer can make use of. Despite its benefits in training novice writers to reflect on their own thinking and going through the process, this approach has some limitations. For example, it has been criticised by the genre-based approaches that it does not necessarily address the needs of a learner to write for unknown readers (Tribble 1996). With this regard, the written text may not achieve its effects as it fails to communicate with the intended audience who may have specific expectation of the texts.

2.4.2 Stages in the writing process

It is widely accepted that the process of composing is non-linear. It involves different stages of activities such as planning, composing, rereading, revising, and editing. Fundamentally, the process of writing being referred to in a language classroom includes the following stages (adapted from Otlowski 1998: 421 and Williams 1998).

Writing process	Definition
Prewriting	Generating ideas, strategies, and information for a given writing task
Planning	Reflecting on the material produced during pre-writing to develop a plan to achieve the aim of the paper. Identifying the audience and the purpose.
Drafting	Producing words on a computer or on paper that match the initial plan for the work.
Pausing	Moments when writing does not occur. Instead, writers are reflecting on what has been produced and how well it matches the plans. Usually this includes reading.
Rereading	Moments during pausing when writers read what they have written and compare it to their plans.
Revising	Literally “re-seeing” the text with the goal of making large-scale changes so that text and plan match.
Editing	Focusing on sentence-level concerns, such as punctuation, sentence length, spelling, agreement between subject and verb, and style, and other grammar aspects. This stage is usually emphasised checking for accuracy. It should wait until the very last stage (Polio 1997: 103).
Publishing	Sharing the finished text with its intended audience.

The stages in the writing process may not strictly adhere to this order. While writing, the writer may go back to the plan, or some writers may edit while writing. As a matter of fact, the whole process is not as simple as the list shows. Writers in different contexts practise differently. The complexity of the composing process has been investigated in studies conducted in the last decades. The stages concerned in the current study were revising and editing while peer review had been inserted after drafting stages.

2.5 Practice of the process approach: what the writers do

Practice in the teaching of writing was developed in phases with focus firstly on L1 writers in composition studies, followed by unskilled L1 writers and finally ESL writers. The earlier studies classified ESL writers as basic or even unskilled writers (Spack 1998), but the differences reflected in ESL writers called for a different identity for ESL writers from unskilled L1 writers. Presented in this section are writing behaviours reported in early studies of different learners including skilled writers, unskilled writers and ESL writers.

As mentioned before, Emig (1971) investigated the composing behaviour of a group of L1 twelfth graders (Emig 1983). She found that the writing process was far more complex than the teachers had thought before. Writers recorded the development of ideas and reflected these on paper by using their own strategies and switched between different stages such as planning drafting and revising. Strategies may also be established by both unskilled and skilled writers although the composing processes of unskilled writers seem very different from those of skilled writers (Perl 1979 cited in Krapels 1991:44). Less skilled writers are not as good in anticipating the needs of readers. They lack the ability to project themselves into the role of another reader although the skill is necessary for becoming a competent writer (Perl 1979:368). Perl's study revealed that despite awareness of the process of writing that involves constant revision, unskilled writers were still more concerned with the form and grammar rather than the meaning of the composition. This concern tends to distract them from the flow and exploration of ideas (Zamel 1982, 1983:166). Sommers (1978) noticed that unskilled or inexperienced writers paid such attention to the language usage that the process of writing got interrupted. The overconcern of the final product often results in 'writers' block', as it stops the flow of ideas of the writer. The phenomenon becomes more obvious with the L2 writers whose language competence may be another obstacle. Their writing, hence, involves a more complex cognitive work to accomplish the task, as presented in previous studies.

ESL writing also applies basic principle of composing in L1; it is a process of learning and discovery of new ideas using certain strategies (Raimes 1985, Zamel 1982). In Zamel's study (1982), the ESL writers use similar writing strategies to those used by native speakers of English. On the other hand, Raimes (1985, 1987) found different strategies used when she compared her ESL subjects to the L1 subjects of Pianko (1979). For instance, it was reported that ESL writers did not edit as much as unskilled L1 writers did (Raimes 1985).

It is also claimed that the lack of linguistic competence does not affect the composing process as much as the lack of composing competence in ESL learners (Zamel 1982; Jones 1982, and Jacobs 1982: referred to in Krapels 1990). Likewise,

different performances in L1 skilled and unskilled writers also reflect the lack of composing competence rather than lack of language competence (Sommers 1978).

Strategies in ESL writing also vary among 'good' and 'bad' writers. Zamel asserted that the time required for the construction of the draft was longer for skilled writers than the unskilled ones (Zamel 1982, 1983:174). ESL writers spent less time than L1 writers in planning and writing. They tended to use sketchy notes instead of formal outlines (Zamel 1982:200). However, some writers were aware of a good outline, some mentioned the necessity of time to accumulate ideas, and some also had in mind the existence of readers other than the teacher. In addition, there were cases where ESL student writers used translation in the writing while some other students referred to as 'being pulled by two brains' (Zamel 1982).

Particular L2 writing studies are worth highlighting here since they offer remarkable insights in the field, and strongly influenced this current study. For example, Zamel (1983) conducted a case study involving advanced ESL students in her intermediate composition class whose behaviour and performances might be comparable to those of skilled writers. These ESL advanced writers perceived that composing is not a linear or simple phenomenon, and that it involves interplay of thinking, writing and rewriting (p. 172). Zamel found that through brainstorming activity and discussion, the advanced ESL writers could articulate their ideas, which helped their planning. Students used the non-linear process extensively in planning. They switched between the plans, unfinished thoughts and composing. On the other hand, less competent ESL writers found it necessary to get the whole plan down before commencing the writing process (Zamel 1983:176).

Zamel argued that more advanced writers devised strategies that allowed them to pursue primarily the development of their ideas without being sidetracked by lexical and syntactic difficulties (p.175). In contrast the least proficient writer paused more often, showing inability to develop successfully a good discourse as if she lost track of the thoughts by getting stuck in the language usage. The student tended to maintain the first draft and revise only at surface level while making little or no changes in the organisation of ideas, possibly due to inability to revise globally

(Zamel 1983: 173). Similar findings have also been reported by others (Sommer 1978, Perl 1979, Faigley and Witte 1981).

Editing skills varied in Zamel's study and were found to be dependent on linguistic competence in L2. The findings stated that some students could choose appropriate words in the right place while some would have problems with, for example, connotation. Sometimes, while good word choices were made, they were not suitable for the context. Similar to those L1 writers, the advanced ESL writers in Zamel's study used more time (total 14-18 hours) to accomplish the task compared to the least skilled student (total 4 hours). This could be due to the fact that the least skilled writer just copied the early draft as her final draft although she reported knowing that her composition was unclear (Zamel 1983:174-5). Indeed many unskilled writers see revising as a "neat" copy of the same draft, as Zamel reported, "Her [the least skilled writer's] second and third drafts, which were basically neater copies of her original, indicated a failure to appreciate the purposes for which we write successive drafts" (Zamel 1983:180). In particular, the students in Zamel's study seemed to represent the writing process of the EFL writers encountered in the current study.

Raimes (1985) used a think aloud protocol to investigate the composing process of unskilled ESL student writers whose language proficiency varied. The investigation also included the effect of audience on ESL composing behaviour, and the effect of 'thinking aloud' protocol on the analysis of composing behaviours of ESL students. Raimes found no particular pattern of composing process among the unskilled writers in the study. Raimes also found that "a specified audience and purpose made no apparent difference to the students' processes and products on this teacher-initiated, timed assignment" (p.250). Most importantly, Raimes concluded that the thinking aloud protocol could be used both as an effective tool for research and a method of composing in a writing classroom (p.251).

In terms of revision, Raimes (1985) reported that the mean number of changes suggested that only 58 percent of changes concentrated on forms, which was probably lower than expected from ESL unskilled writers. She found no major reformulations of the texts (like Zamel's 1983). Subjects revised mostly (62%) as they went along (thinking aloud), i.e. changes made while composing, not after the

rereading. Raimes suggested that the main motive for making changes in the text was the clarification of ideas as the meanings emerged, rather than the correction of what was written. It was then speculated that the narrative type of writing might be influential since the writers were either comfortable with it or were more concerned with delivering an idea rather than with accuracy when thinking aloud (Raimes 1985:246).

In contrast, while unskilled writers revised locally and made no major text reformulation, the proficient ESL writers in Zamel's 1983 study revised their composition on a larger scale. They reviewed from sentence level to beyond paragraph level. The revisions were most often global, and occurred throughout the process. The more skilled writers moved parts of the text around, or eliminated even as much as a page when they discovered new ideas.

Differences found in these two studies have been the driving force behind the current study which explores revisions in EFL within a different context. Background from the previous studies relating to composing and revising behaviours as described above can be summarised as follows:

- 1) Unskilled writers take less time to plan than skilled writers, both in L1 and ESL (e.g. Pianko 1979, Zamel 1982).
- 2) Unskilled writers' plans are less flexible than those of the more experienced ones (Zamel 1983).
- 3) Experienced L1 writers re-scan large segments of their work more often than unskilled writers (Perl 1979).
- 4) If the unskilled writers re-scan, mostly it is for the purpose of surface correction (Perl 1979, Sommers 1978, 1980, Faigley and Witte 1981, Flower and Hayes 1981).
- 5) Unskilled L1 writers and less advanced writers spend little time considering the readers (Perl 1979).
- 6) The changes made by unskilled writers reflect a constant concern with usage and expression (Sommers 1978, 1982, Zamel 1983).

7) Unlike more skilled writers, less skilled writers in L2 see writing as a linear process (Zamel 1983).

8) Raimes (1985) speculated that unskilled ESL writers do not go back to edit as often as the unskilled native speakers, as they are not so consumed by the thought of error and they expect the teacher to correct their products at the end (1985:247). More interestingly low proficiency writers did not realise when they make a mistake either because they have too little competence to see it or they are too deeply involved in their own writing. Unawareness of errors necessitates peer review for a collaborative work that helps expand the writer's vision.

9) Revising strategies may sometimes be shared by skilled and unskilled writers. Perl's (1979) unskilled L1 students made many changes, of which a large number were surface features. Raimes (1985) reported the same finding on ESL students who did not make major reformulations of their texts (p.245). Zamel (1983) and Raimes (1985) raised the concern that the unskilled writers frequently paused to revise for local problems and rarely made changes that affected meaning (cited in Raimes 1985:246).

The practices in the process approach of writing yielded diversified results among different student groups. The process approach gives importance to revision and has been widely accepted in the current teaching pedagogy. The above has reviewed the process approach from the writers' perspectives. In the classroom, which is a concern of this study, the revision process involves external aspects that influence the writing such as teacher's comments and peer review, which are discussed Chapter 3.

The process of writing emphasised that good writing comes from good thinking (Mauranen 1996: 225). It has been claimed that good writing comes primarily from good skills in composing, which may be true about L1 writers (Sommers 1978). The claim is still inconclusive in L2 writers because there is an issue of language proficiency involved. Ability in composing requires both competence in the language and efficient strategies to transfer the knowledge; not just to give information (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Further more, it is still uncertain if proficiency in the target language indicates one's ability to compose. An L2 student may attain a high score

in a language proficiency test after a certain time of exposure to the L2, while s/he may not make the same progress in L2 composing ability (Raimes 1985:238). In addition, students who are good at grammatical accuracy are not necessarily good at cohesion but might be good at coherence (Pongsiriwet 2001). Good writing in a classroom context, refers to students' ability to use language to produce texts that convey efficiently the message. In an L2 context, good writing is determined by linguistic accuracy, sentence complexity, variety of language use and other important concepts such as coherence and content (Polio 1997:102). Polio (1997) noted that even if there are many factors that determine good writing, the major concern of writing assessment in L2 tends to be linguistic accuracy (*ibid.*:103).

As exposure to the language alone is not enough, it is often suggested that practice is the key to becoming a good L2 writer as it enhances writing skills (Semke 1984). To a certain extent, practice should be accompanied by other influential factors, which are still debatable in the field of writing. These 'tools' can be help from peers, feedback from teachers or more competent language users and assistance obtained from the usage of resources for writing such as dictionaries or references. Such practices which were originally carried out in traditional classrooms have now been facilitated by the use of technology that allows the classroom to extend its size to a global audience. It also allows the usage of 'tools' virtually. The features of such an extended classroom are what this study examines, and are discussed in depth in Chapter 4.

2.6 Focusing on the practice of second language writing

As an emergent field from the studies in L1 composition, L2 studies of writing initially applied theories based on native speakers of English rather than on knowledge related to writing in the L2 context (Canagarajah 2001: 119). Early practices classified ESL writers together with unskilled L1 writers and assumed that the acquisition of L2 writing follows the same processes as writing in L1. The dominance of this assumption, also known as L1=L2 hypothesis, was realised later on that may lead to ignorance of other variables such as social, cultural and cognitive ones since studies reported significant differences between these two groups (Zamel

1982). This urged for a separation of ESL research from the mainstream composition studies and that importance should be given to the development of approaches unique to L2 writing (Matsuda 1998, Canagarajah 2001).

The decades of evolution of L2 writing have seen a struggle to develop its own independent ramifications (Silva 1993, Matsuda 1998). Based on the L1 classroom practices before the 1980s, writing was left as an underprivileged part of L2 teaching since emphasis was placed on speaking and reading (Matsuda 1998). Writing was taught via sentence drills, focusing on form and not as a skill used to create a text as it is nowadays (Raimes 1991:408). Serious studies in ESL writing began in 1980s with a shift in the focus to the writing process resulting in the examination of multiple drafting, revision and other factors in the L2 context of the composing process and writing quality such as teacher feedback and peer review (Connor and Asenavege 1994, Paulus 1999).

Some aspects that make writing in a language other than the mother tongue different include its involvement with language transfer, interlanguage and the influence of the rhetorical style in L1. Writers normally perform code switching from L1 to L2. They have to use both composing skills and language skills in order to accomplish a task. Mauranen (1996) identified two major problems of L2 writers as linguistic errors and thematic errors. Thematic errors are caused by the lack of coherence even though texts are syntactically correct (p.199). The lack of coherence was noticed as a result of cultural preference, in this case Finnish and English. Based on the functional grammar framework, Mauranen (1996) reported that the Finnish writers had problems in developing theme in English although they were good writers in L1. Investigation of ideational constituents in the functional grammar framework was appropriate in Mauranen's study because the EFL students were advanced; hence, it was possible to focus only on the theme of texts while disregarding other linguistic features.

It has also been claimed that L1 writers employ complex language patterns more often than L2 writers (Milton 1999). While the L1 writers use a "much wider variety of lexical and grammatical structures" (p. 228), the L2 writers (Hong Kong EFL students) rely on a certain set of grammatically simpler expressions or obvious

cohesive features such as conjuncts although they may often misuse these (p.229). This partly supports the finding of Scarcella (1984) that native English writers rather use implicit lexical cohesion than conjuncts. The different behaviours in L1 and L2 in writing may depend on the individuals and their language background.

Cumming (1989) reported that expert writers produced well and integrated gist and discourse organisation of the text while inexperienced writers “formulated their gist in progressive but constrained steps”. The inexperienced writers “focused exclusively at the level of a single phrase, sentence, or thought” (Cumming 1989: 113). It was also asserted that expert writers may benefit from practice and other uses of L2 and may not need instruction (p.126). In contrast, basic or average writers need explicit instruction or procedures of practice. Two interesting claims were made from the study. Firstly, the writing quality in L2 was influenced by language proficiency. Second, the writing expertise in L1 (French) resulted in good L2 writing (English) while those without expertise produced poorer quality writing. Likewise, Sasaki and Hirose (1996) noted that both L1 (Japanese) writing ability and L2 proficiency (English) affected L2 writing quality (p.150). They also reported the characteristics of good writers, which included planning the organisation before writing, paying attention to overall organisation while writing and writing fluently (p.152). It is likely that this fluency extends beyond simply writing quickly (which could be so in L1 writing though lacking composing skills) to include as well knowing what content to follow or how to develop the ideas according to the plan.

However, other studies did not support the above findings. For example, Pennington and So (1993) found no clear relationship between L1 (English or Chinese) and L2 (Japanese) writing by six Singaporean undergraduates. They reported that the only factor that distinguished good from weak writers was L2 proficiency, not necessarily the rhetorical style. In contrast, Reid (1990) claimed that successful L2 writers might know what is appropriate in L2 convention of writing (p.201), hence, can perform accordingly to produce an expected rhetorical style. To this view, their linguistic proficiency needs to be high enough to overcome their linguistic difficulty.

Four main concerns about the difference between writing in L1 and L2 discussed in Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 142) give a clear picture of the current situation. First, we

have yet to understand what constitutes writing quality in L2. Second, studies are needed to find out whether L2 writers have some implicit knowledge of rhetorical plans, organisational logic, and genre form, which usually exist in L1. Third, L1 and L2 are different in terms of revision. For example, L2 writers tend to benefit more from feedback than L1 (Raimes 1985, Fathman and Whalley 1990). Finally, it was suggested that L2 writers are greatly influenced by their L1, both positively and negatively. More details of differences in L1 and L2 in relation to EFL/ESL writing are discussed in section 2.2.

Practice in L2 writing has been misled by the fact that writing, in EFL in particular, is regarded mostly as a compulsory step in language learning rather than a means by which to convey a message. It is usually thought of as a challenge of skills and how to apply sets of linguistic rules in composition. For example, EFL classrooms stress the importance of grammatical corrections and rhetorical patterns. Often the textuality of the composition might be overlooked. Students' concern with language competence and the expectation of teachers can cause difficulties in the practice, as discussed in the next section.

2.6.1 Difficulty in ESL/EFL academic writing

It has been asserted that a foreign language writer is in a rather awkward position because "s/he is caught between two opposite poles" (Ventola 1996: 154). On the one hand, the language incompetence compels L2 writers to construct a simple text, which can be sometimes 'too simple'. On the other hand, when pursuing more complex language, the message may be lost in the attempt to convey it through complex structure. Academic writing is therefore difficult since it demands both language competence and elaborated text structures. According to Ventola (1996) academic writers need to learn to keep a balance between 'simple and clear' and 'complex and concise' qualification (p.187). Looking at lexical items in particular, L2 writers are easily tempted to choose words or phrases that seem academic or formal even though it is always recommended that academic writing should be a clear, uncomplicated prose (Ventola 1996: 157).

As suggested by Grabe and Kaplan (1996), EFL contexts are rather complex and include many considerations. These are the country of origin, the length of prior English study, the extent of access to English, linguistic typological distance, social and political attitudes, training and expertise of English teachers, extent of L1 literacy training, L1 social practices, major field of study, economic opportunities and cultural expectation of learning (p.248). EFL/ESL students have difficulties in learning writing because they need to acquire both the linguistic and written code simultaneously (Raimes 1985:232). They might be fluent in speaking English, but it does not follow that their writing can be as good. This is very often the case for ESL students residing in an English speaking country. They communicate in English, listen to and read English media and probably develop their thinking in English. On the other hand, EFL students are faced with different difficulties. The EFL learners encounter the target language less often than the ESL learners. The EFL students take more time to master the language because usually the only occasion to use the language is in the classroom. Not being exposed to the target language makes it difficult for students to understand and use the language according to the context.

According to Matsuda 1998, there are several constraints contributing to the teaching of writing in ESL. One is related to the teacher. Many writing teachers do not write well themselves (Spack 1998) and some might have limited ESL backgrounds and/or many institutions usually combine ESL with other studies. In many cases, ESL teachers might not be familiar with the teaching of writing. As a result, there are not too many teachers who can teach both ESL and writing. These constraints have been reflected in the lack of concern in ESL writing. Only until recently that TESL/TEFL always gave importance to speaking and reading skills since they were considered more important for ESL students (p.103) and research practice has been considerably significant (Matsuda 1998:100).

It may seem that ESL students received more attention from researchers than EFL students because of their residence in the English speaking countries where research is widely conducted (such as UK, US, Australia, Canada). However, it has been noted that many researchers in the field have their base in a non-English speaking

country resulting in a growing international representation of EFL research (Santos et al 2000:8).

2.6.2 Concerns in the ESL/ EFL classrooms

This section discusses the differences in writing by ESL learners which are applicable to the EFL learners in this study. The discussion is based on research into contrastive rhetoric studies although there are sceptical views about contrastive rhetoric due to the likelihood of its overgeneralisation. For example, Raimes (1998) debated whether the focus in this field could possibly lead to unfounded predictions about L2 writers based on L1 and their culture. She pointed out that the study might oversimplify the behaviours of L2 learners, who in fact have identities beyond static claims of cultural background (p.144). Rhetoric study is pertinent since it has pedagogical values for the improvement of the teaching of writing by providing information about L2 learners' writing problems, as well as being a means to discuss written texts (Connor 1996). Despite its limitations contrastive rhetoric study is applicable in bringing about awareness of differences in strategic, rhetorical, and linguistic concerns between L1 and L2 writers (Silva 1993: 669).

In the view of contrastive rhetoric, L1 usually interferes in the L2 writing. This area of study actually received interest from many researchers in the 1990s when comparing texts written by L1 and L2 writers (Atari 1983, Atkinson and Ramanathan 1995, Bloch and Chi 1995, Connor and Kramer 1995, Connor 1996, Dunkelblau 1990, Silva 1993). Studies in this field revealed that cultural background has several effects on writing in EFL/ ESL. Several different features in L1 and L2 writing reported in rhetorical study include rhetorical styles, content and language use.

Rhetorical styles

According to Silva (1993), it is evident that both L1 and L2 generally employ a recursive composing process in order to convey ideas through the written product as a medium of communication, which involves planning, writing, and revising (p.657). Nevertheless, Silva asserted that L2 writing process is usually simpler and less effective than L1 writing because L2 writers did less planning, generation and

organisation of the resources. It is not surprising that the L2 writers show difficulties in the areas of lexical, revision, rereading and reflection on their own products. The different cultural background may be reflected in rhetorical patterns, and the writing styles.

Focusing on Thai ESL writers, a study reported that the students used more repetition, extensive use of lists, and often did not use conclusions. The writing style is rather impersonal, which was possibly a result of Thai rhetoric lack of counterfactual statements (Bickner and Peyasantiwong 1988, cited in Grabe and Kaplan 1996:191). Indrasutra (1988) reported that in Thai narrative writing, analogy is widely used for descriptions, as is figurative language and these are preferred in Thai writing for exposition and instruction.

Argumentative structures in compositions written by L2 writers from different backgrounds vary (Silva 1993:664). For example, Arabic native speakers in L2 writing “did less reporting of conditions, less defining and less exemplifying”. On the other hand, native speakers preferred to put forward their arguments in a direct way by using a rationale for their position. Dunkelblau (1990) found in her study that ESL Chinese writers’ essays were more generalised in L2, and contained fewer stylistic devices and greater repetition of ideas.

The writing styles reflect a crucial influence of L1 on L2. These styles include the way the writer presents the content, and how the writer gives a personal view. Studies have reported that Asian students, for example, do not tend to take critical stances in their writing. The researchers claimed that Asian students might differ in their writing perhaps because of an Asian value of humbleness or perception of feeling subordinate to other people, particularly in the context of business culture (Connor and Kramer 1995). In addition, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) reported that Japanese rhetorical patterns focused on readers’ perception rather than writer’s clarification as disclosing all the information may intimidate the readers. This is likely to result in an unclear text in western rhetorical norms, as sufficient evidence and support are not provided by the writer.

Bloch and Chi (1995) have similar points of view. They found that Chinese students over rely on their source texts, hardly take a clear stance in arguments and hardly change the citation, even to the extent of plagiarism (Bloch and Chi 1995: 232). In contrast, it is extremely important in English writing to 'give credit' or to identify clearly whose words or ideas presented are other, otherwise it would be considered a serious offence or even a crime in the western norm (Leki 1998: 204). Most likely, this is due to the importance given to authorship in the Western cult as Pennycook (1998) recounts '...authorship is located within a Western cultural and historical tradition that stresses creative and possessive individualism' (p.275), the concept which may not always be understood in the Eastern world. As a result, teaching of academic writing, as influenced by the western academic community, that requires analytical overview of the literature often poses problems for the EFL/ ESL writers to conform to the norm.

Furthermore, L2 Asian writers were confronted with difficulty in orienting their readers because of the different rhetorical conventions (Silva 1993, Scarcella 1984). Scarcella (1984) reported that the Chinese ESL learners relied mostly on historical context and direct assertion in their introduction on expository writing. The use of these devices is also different from the native speakers. For example, Asian L1 students tended to write a lengthy historical background with fewer and smaller ranges of attention-getting devices whereas English native speakers wrote a brief background and used more point-striking topics. Scarcella (1984) suggested that these differences also reflect cultural differences.

It should be noted that rhetorical difficulties might also occur even when the native language has a typology relatively close to the target language. For example, it was reported in Connor and Mayberry (1996) that a Finnish student exhibited the influence of L1 on English writing on both written products and the manners of task negotiations. The written product suffered from typical problems related to lexical and grammatical features, as influenced by L1 (Finnish). The absence of thematic clarification in English texts was also claimed to be a result of Finnish rhetorical convention.

Cultural familiarity and language use

When writing on a familiar topic such as personal issues, one tends to write more fluently. This is truer when it comes to narrative type of writing. To a certain extent, writers know what follows. For other types, it depends greatly on how familiar a writer is with the topic. Studies have reported that EFL/ESL students are likely to write better on topics that they are familiar with. For example, Wongkhan (1991) studied ESL writing by Japanese and Thai students on two topics: Japanese sumo and Thai boxing. She reported that cultural background affected the writing quality, that is, students write better on their cultural topic. However, greater content did not result in better quality.

Rhetorical styles in L1 influence the composition patterns and styles in L2. Language proficiency is another difficulty and probably the most problematic for ESL students. They are usually confronted with difficulties in reading and writing, and their performances are greatly affected by the level of language competence (Connor and Kramer 1995: 170). Although some studies claimed that composing competence might not depend on linguistic competence, it is widely believed that not having enough language competence can interrupt the composing process. Admittedly, it is the organisation of content that underlies a good composition, but ESL students who are struggling with proficiency may end up with a low quality essay, for example in terms of effective grammatical patterns, and vocabulary, synonyms and collocations (Oi 1984).

Furthermore, ESL students with similar L1 backgrounds are likely to make similar mistakes. For instance, Myers (1992) found that students whose L1 shared the same grammatical features such as existence of determiners, performed quite similarly. Thai students performed similarly to those students whose L1 used no determiners. Also, Kim (1983) analysed and identified similar errors in writing by both Korean and Thai ESL students. He concluded that the linguistic areas in particular need of improvement for these two groups included the use of basic structural patterns, vocabulary usage, use of articles, conjunctions, prepositions, and tenses, and understanding of rhetorical organization (Kim 1983).

The inability to deal with complex devices beyond their competence forces the ESL learners to directly transfer words and phrases from their L1 (Connor and Kramer 1995: 165) and write simpler texts using no complex linguistic devices such as adverbial sentences (Scarcella 1984: 678). Similarly, Silva (1993) also suggested that ESL written products indicated simpler structure with different styles from that written by English L1 writers. Compositions contain more sentences but shorter t-units, fewer but longer clauses, more coordination, less subordination, less noun modification, and less passivisation (p.667).

To sum up, studies reported that simpler linguistic devices were most often used by low proficiency non-native speakers (NNS), and least often used by highly proficient native speakers (NS). This indicated that NNS always rely on the simpler devices when they have not yet achieved the composing skills of more proficient writers. As Silva (1993) suggested, more proficient L1 writers prefer more implicit means of clarifying, such as the use of synonyms and lexical collocations. However, these devices might prove difficult for NNS to master. NNS need more exposure to the target language in order to overcome the difficulties, which is also applied to learning different rhetorical styles. Having gained experience in both reading and writing in their first language, L2 students have to alter their entire perception in order to conform to the new conventions, rhetorically and linguistically. Even though not easily achieved, it has to be accomplished in order to communicate effectively in the western academic world.

2.7 Focusing on the instruction of English IV: writing course

As briefly introduced in 1.3.1 (page 11), the current study investigated a writing course at WU, titled English IV: writing, henceforth **Eng4Wr**. Particular interest of the study is given to students' writing behaviours when the course was integrated into computer network environment. Several aspects of **Eng4Wr** are worth mentioning here as they influenced students' writing behaviours and affected the findings of this study.

Eng4Wr was designed as a compulsory course for undergraduate students from all disciplines/ majors of study. The aim was to introduce students to academic writing.

By the end of the course, students were expected to build up understanding in the features and requirements of academic writing and to be able to produce writing that are accepted in the academic circle. They were to write a topic sentence, introduction, give supporting details, use reference, and write a conclusion (see also Appendix 8 for an example of the rhetorical pattern suggested in the course book). The composition topics covered a range of issues including the rainforests, healthy foods, wedding traditions, traffic and pollution, education, summer activities, the local handicrafts and the entrance examination. After choosing a topic, students needed to undergo different activities such as brainstorming, planning, writing an outline, taking notes from resource books, writing drafts, revising, peer reviewing, and producing a written composition or the final draft.

Even though, recently developed genre approach has become more common nowadays, **Eng4Wr** perceived writing as an individual activity and that EFL students at low level of proficiency might need to develop from an inner writing process. Therefore, the writing activities and the classroom approach were based on the process-oriented framework, which was widely used in the composition studies and in teaching of ESL writing in the USA especially during the 1980 - early 1990s. Not only did the writers go through different stages in the process of writing, they also needed to refer to particular rhetorical patterns. The pattern used in the writing instruction in **Eng4Wr** was a five-paragraph composition, i.e. an essay consists of a paragraph of an introduction, three paragraphs of the body and a final paragraph for a conclusion.

The nature of the course that demanded the students to reflect their own writing process in order to produce a composition in a given rhetorical pattern has led to difficulties in the use of network environment, as will be reported in the later chapters.

To the students, the assessment was upon their fulfilment of the course instructions, i.e. the various activities and a written product that conforms to the suggested rhetorical patterns. An actual link to a real academic discourse community did not exist, nor a real audience who would respond as a reader to the content of the writing. This means writing was undertaken regardless of a real communicative



purpose. The process approach to writing could only encourage students to perform a writing task, which is prone to failure in communicating with its readers.

The study attempted to establish a link between the students and the people from outside of the classroom via a network-based environment. However, since the students were asked to conform to the classroom requirements and not being introduced to genre approaches to writing, the provided audience in the online setting only existed in a vacuum. Students most likely perceived the audience as a teacher at a distance rather than a partner for communicative interactions. Hence, they did not produce a purposeful piece of writing that has an intention to communicate with certain readers or to convey effectively a message.

To this front, the teaching paradigm played a significant role in successful delivery of a writing course. As the current study has observed, even though the network-based environment being designed to enhance the classroom writing practice, it was necessary that the classroom approaches and course instruction correspond to and support the design. A network-based setting alone could not be a major and only factor that affects the students' writing behaviours.

Chapter conclusions

This chapter has given a general view of writing as a mode of communication, the teaching of writing and various paradigms in the writing classroom, particularly the process approach. Writing emerges as a complex activity, especially in a second language context as it involves both ability to compose and competence in using the language. The teaching of writing has been developed through the decades, starting from composition studies in L1 and moving on to other groups. Studies have shown that students with different background vary in their writing behaviours, yet generalisation must not be made as individual writers do perform differently.

The writing classrooms have tried a variety of approaches, one of the most recent is the process-genre approach (Oliver 1999). Nevertheless, not all classroom situations have adopted the approach. This study, for instance, was attached to an academic writing course that had established a process approach syllabus, which at the time

was believed to suit well the students' level. Hence, it has been necessary to review the process approach as part of the background to the study which is reported and discussed in the later chapters. Previous studies have strongly influenced the view on both sides of the process approach. It is seen, on the one hand, that the process approach empowers novice writers to find their own ideas and to express them with force and elegance through the broad stages of the process: pre-writing, drafting and revising. On the other hand, the approach also appears rather complex and possibly too difficult for efficient practice.

The study gives importance to the revision process, especially when intervention from the audience is present. This study views intervention as one of the core activities of the process approach, which is indisputably more helpful to students than the end-comment (Leki 1990) and commonly seen as beneficial for production of good writing. At the same time, the study has not ignored the other factors, such as knowledge on genres and awareness of the purpose of the writing, which would enhance the writing process. The major limitation is, however, that the academic writing course being investigated adopted the process approach and regarded mainly the students' inner process to revise the drafts; rather than looking primarily at the role of social interaction.

3 Aspects of the revision process

Revision is one of the three major stages of the composing process, as defined in the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1992):

- 1) Rehearsing/prewriting (brainstorm, generate ideas, look for ideas, and language about the topic before the writer starts writing)
- 2) Writing (planning/drafting/ composing) note down ideas in rough form
- 3) Revising (editing/postwriting) check, revise, rewrite what was written

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics 1992)

Attempts to understand several aspects of revising have been made. These are the actual revisions made in a successive draft, teacher intervention and classroom interactions, which are believed to be influential in the process (Rob *et al.* 1986, Leki 1990, Cohen and Cavalcanti 1990, Fathman and Whalley 1990, Beason 1993, Reid 1994).

This study views revision as a crucial stage in producing an effective piece of writing. It regards the audience or the reader as a strong influence on this revision process since their intervention acts as a stimulus for changes to be made. This is obvious in the classroom environment where teacher and peers provide feedback during the writing process. Revisions that are a result of responding to the comments and/or discussions with peers can be recorded and traced, allowing the process to be studied in a more structured manner. Studies have explored activities involved in external revision, such as peer responses in peer review activity, interactions between teachers and writers and communication with the real audience (Hedgcock and

Lefkowitz 1994, 1996, Storch and Tapper 1996, Ferris 1997, 2001, Ferris *et al.* 1997, Paulus 1999).

Two major aspects of revisions being viewed in the current study are the audience and feedback. They are described in the first two sections of the chapter while the third part discusses various studies concerning the revision process in writing classrooms.

3.1 The audience

An audience in a writing classroom refers to the target for whom the writing is written. The theory of audience has been developed to support 'the creation of text and the generation of meaning' since it encourages the writer to have in mind who the intended reader of the writing is (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 207). Another important parameter that strengthens the concept of audience is the purpose for writing, which is necessary as it represents 'an attempt to communicate with the reader' (*ibid.*). Not only does the writer need to set specific intentions on the writing, the reader also assumes these purposes on the writer's part. By knowing who the text is for and what is needed, the writer can shape the writing for effective communication. Related to and influenced by the notion of audience and purpose is the concept of genre, the knowledge of which a writer needs to acquire in order to select appropriate genre options, create the expected text structure and involve readers with the text more effectively (Thompson 2001). Failure to maintain a consistent imagined reader may cause confusion to the text (Coulthard 1994).

In many writing classrooms where the concept of audience is highlighted, students are encouraged to write in response to the audience's expectation and needs (Gage 1986:26). Students are to elaborate the writing to suit the audience and to select the linguistic features that the reader will understand. This awareness of a real audience is believed to be the basis of successful writing (Bizzell 1986:58) because it provides the writers with direction and a framework for planning and writing their text (Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

In practice, however, the audience assumed in the text is not necessarily the same as the reader, especially in a writing classroom where the audience is merely imaginary and the actual reader of the text is only the writing teacher. In such context, students are often suggested to imagine the existence of the audience other than the teachers. Nevertheless, it is not so easy to visualise and anticipate the needs of a non-existent reader other than their writing teacher. Hence, the ideal imaginary audience is always hard to achieve (Zamel 1982, Leki 1990).

Because of the nature of the process-based approach of the writing course, this study gives importance to existing readers rather than an imaginary audience as stressed in the genre approach. The reader as a real audience is regarded as an important factor for revision, the process which is partly enhanced by the writer's interaction with the reader who actually intervenes in the writing process. This intervention allows the writers to receive responses from a reader's point of view, and then use these suggestions while implementing the revision changes. This kind of support is regarded in this study as collaborative work. That is, the writer does not work alone, but receives some external input that stimulates their plan to revise the written draft. Collaborative work is based on the concept proposed by the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978).

3.1.1 The concepts: Collaborative learning

Lev Vygotsky (1978) believes that social transaction is the fundamental vehicle of education. He noted that children begin learning from the people around them--their social world--which is the source of all their concepts, ideas, facts, skills, and attitudes (Berliner 1998). The concept has been applied to second language learning in that, in order to achieve the best results of learning, a learner needs a more competent person as a guide or motivator. Learners learn, not only through direct personal experience and discovery [regarded as internal factors], but also through the intellectual sharing and support of those around them (Mercer 1993) [support from the others hereby is taken as an external factor].

The main idea of this theory is the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD), which refers to "the distance between the actual development level as determined by

independent problem solving and the level of potential developments as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Berliner 1998). This concept can be represented in this model:

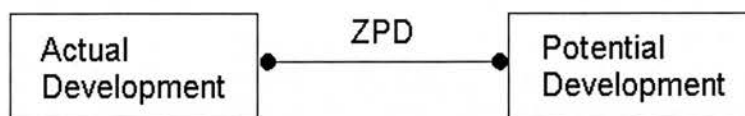


Figure 3-1 Zone of Proximal Development Model

Vygotsky’s concepts are quite often associated with Bakhtin’s scheme of language being inherently dialogic and interactive (Ritchie 1998: 128). To Bakhtin, words are seen as ‘coming from other people; not from abstract lexicons’ (Prior 1998:216). Therefore, to acquire a language, one needs to interact with the others, ideally, those who have higher competence.

The ZPD in collaborative writing occurs when weaker learners fulfil their potential when they are guided by a more competent peer who offers useful advice, suggestions or evaluations that help improve the work the learners have done independently. The collaboration, however, needs to be based on a communicative goal or purpose (Murray 1992). Collaboration in writing activity has at least two meanings. It could be collaborative work to accomplish a writing task together. The term collaboration may also be used to describe the teaching of writing through peer responses and critiques (Sullivan 1994: 63). It is the latter that influences the approach of this study.

It should be noted that several factors affect learner’s behaviours in group work. To name a few, these are cultural background, personality and educational background, which also include competence (Jacobs and Ratmanida 1996). For instance, students from Southeast Asian countries tend to work well in small groups and are more inhibited in a bigger group while western students are expressive even in a big classroom (*ibid.*). Students who are less competent usually take on a passive role because they are not confident (Cohen and Sampson 2001). Networked classrooms accommodate shy students and encourage equal participation because they are not constrained by face-to-face interaction (Sullivan 1993). This partly has led to a

greater emphasis being placed on the presence of network technology in language classrooms, as discussed in details in Chapter 4.

3.1.2 The practice: real audience

Collaborative writing is enhanced by interactions with a real audience. Experiencing audience intervention allows the writer to reflect on what they have written and potentially improve the text quality. In a conventional classroom, there are two groups of existing audience who may actually respond to the writing: the teacher and peers. Between teacher and peer, students especially the weak ones regard the teacher as the most important audience (Williams 1998: 53) although classmates have been included in the current pedagogy as an audience through various peer activities. It is noted that suggestions from peers are more likely to be considered ‘if teacher feedback is not given simultaneously’ (Ferris 2001: 301). In a more technology-enhanced writing classroom, audience is extended to more global audience outside the actual classroom. Described briefly in this section are the general aspects of the audience in current classroom practices: classroom teacher, peers and outside audience in the extended classroom.

The teacher as a real audience

It is very common that the real audience in students’ perception is always the writing teacher who will read (and mark) their paper. It may be difficult for them to realise that others may be interested in reading their writing. Furthermore, teachers themselves tend to act as evaluators, judges or inquisitors, while they “maintain their status as authorities, experts, and dispensers of knowledge” (Reid 1994, Warschauer 1995 Hedgcock and Lefkowitz 1996). The authority teachers have over the paper obstructs the desired role which is that of an interested reader or collaborator. Teachers may be too deeply immersed in their role as a teacher and may find it hard not to prove their superiority as someone with greater knowledge. They might feel that the manner in which they could demonstrate their role is by grading and correcting a paper. Such an attitude might be apparent in an exam-driven system as found in Asia (Keh 1990). This could be a reason why students stick with a simple

writing form, which they are certain is correct rather than experimenting with new, more complicated forms (Frankenberg-Garcia 1990). There are three roles assumed by a writing teacher in Asian countries, namely the role of a reader, a writing teacher and a grammarian (Keh 1990: 301). Thus students anticipate that their paper is going to be marked and returned with corrections on them. Therefore, their aim in writing a text is to produce the fewest linguistic errors possible, rather than focusing on the structure of the text and elaboration of meaning, which might be too complicated and risky in terms of linguistic errors. From this, it can be inferred that teachers, who take up the above mentioned role, are not the most suitable audience.

Peer students as a real audience

The most common practice in providing a real audience for the writing classroom in current pedagogy is peer review. Conventionally, the peers are the classmates because they are the most attainable audience who can actually read the writing and provide feedback during the revision stage, usually done in collaborative manners before the paper is handed in for more formal feedback from the teacher (Bjork and Raisanen 1996). Even though peer students tend to have a similar level of language proficiency, collaboration from peers benefits the writing at the least simply because more people reading the paper allows certain flaws to be detected. Being an important aspect in the current study, peer review is further discussed in length in 3.1.3.

Audience in an extended classroom

The real audience in a conventional classroom can be extended by the use of network technology to connect the writing classroom with real people outside the boundaries of the classroom who will attend to the writing and provide responses. The extended audience may vary in quantity and quality. It may include unlimited number of people if it is publicly accessible or it can be limited to selected audience. The audience may include people of the same language proficiency, people who share the same culture or a stranger with a totally different background. The ideal audience for collaborative writing is one with a higher language competence who is therefore able

to monitor the written drafts from a reader's view. The outside readers seem to be appropriate for the practice of writing since they are likely to have different background knowledge (Abbott 1998); hence, respond to the text as interested readers who are not familiar with the content and who need to receive a clear message through the text. This unfamiliarity, to a certain extent, makes it necessary for the writers to clarify their ideas and present the text so that it can be understood.

The presence of audiences in networked-based classrooms strengthens the writing practice as students actually experience interactions with the existing readers; and thus no longer need to rely only on their imagined readers (Thombs 1999, Anglada 1999, Little et al 1999, see also review in 4.4.1). On the whole, constant interactions can foster the sense of personal engagement and discovery, which might lead to successful language learning.

Another aspect of the extended classroom using network technology is that it also allows interactions in various manners: one-to-one, one-to-many or many-to-many, like those taken place in a conventional classroom. This means the readers' feedback is not limited to one writer, but can also be observed and possibly applied by other peers. In collaborative terms, such an environment helps to scaffold the learner's knowledge or language competence.

From the overview, collaborative writing is potentially enriched by the network environment that allows the writers' human-human interactions with real audience during their revision process. More aspects related to networked communication are described and discussed in length in Chapter 4.

3.1.3 Peer review

Activities related to peers include peer feedback, peer response, peer editing, peer critiquing and peer evaluation, each denoting a different kind of action (Keh 1990:295). In this study, the terms are used interchangeably and refer to 'peer giving feedback to the writing'. Peer review has become a common practice in the process of writing since the 1980s (Raimes 1985). It encourages writers to produce several drafts, in an implicit collaborative manner between the student writer and peers. As a

result of this, classrooms become writing workshops where students share their work with one another with regular intervention by the teacher as they develop compositions through several drafts.

Peer review is based on the principle that when working together, students are able to help each other by means of discussion and giving responses to broaden the ideas. Peer response could be very helpful for the revision process, especially if the peers are competent and gives feedback on content that encourages the writer to reflect what has been written (Bjork and Raisanen 1996: 101). Peer review is done either in oral communication or in written form. Most of all, peer review in a writing classroom is taken as a primary source of interactive response before further improvements are made from the teacher's feedback (*ibid*: 107). The practice also enhances a sense of audience who actually reads and gives response to the writing in addition to the teacher (Keh 1990, Medonça and Johnson 1994, Lockhart and Ng 1995). Usually, peer review is done in pairs, hence producing dyadic interaction. The patterns of interaction, however, may vary. For example, Storch (2002) reported four patterns of interaction in the talk over grammar-based tasks. These are collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive and expert/novice. It was found that students working in pairs scaffold each other's performance although the major transfer of knowledge occurred in two major patterns—collaborative and expert/novice. Pair work allows chance for greater student involvement as it has been argued that some students may be shy to talk in a group. As noted in Carroll (1984), "some students conferred often, some rarely, some never". For the never or rarely participating students, researchers have claimed that a networked classroom provides an opportunity for these inhibited students to overcome their difficulty and to take part in discussion (Warschauer 1995).

Peer review is a complex activity as it involves both personal and group behaviours, as well as perceptions of roles and status by each of the individuals. The purpose of the activity varies from intervening in the process of writing, widening the ideas presented (Lockhart and Ng 1995) to reinforcing collaboration, which would bring positive results in the work (Storch 1999). A student may reflect on the errors in a peer's writing, then move to rethinking his or her own work. It also increases their

motivation, confidence, and promotes positive attitudes towards writing (Chaudron 1984). In many cases, writing to peers first can also relieve the stress caused by the fact that the writing is going to be read by the teacher since students perceive that other peers are at the same level of proficiency, and not an authority. They also seem to be open to peer feedback as they feel they have the right to accept or reject a suggestion as they think appropriate while they feel more obliged to follow the teacher's feedback (Amores 1997).

As mentioned before, peer review though usually is conducted in a classroom setting through face-to-face communication; it has been recently extended by the use of technology. It has been noted that NBC helps shy students overcome difficulties they have in expressing themselves. The simplest peer learning through network is exchanging ideas via emails or forming a discussion list (Boud 2001:12). A variety of peer activities through NBC are widely practised in both synchronous and asynchronous modes (Soh and Soon 1991, Schultz 2000).

The section has reviewed the background of peer review. Theoretically, peer response is an ideal means to reinforce collaborative pedagogy (Kemp 1993) although it may not always produce clear positive results. Studies have found both positive and negative effects of the activity, and suggestions have been made for more careful training and structuring in order to achieve successful revision (Paulus 1999).

Limitation of peer review

Many studies have suggested areas to be concerned about when employing peer activity. First of all, peer editing, by its nature, can generate a sense of discomfort and uneasiness among the participants (Amores 1997), especially among those who are not familiar with academic writing in a foreign language. They may find it difficult to give feedback to each other. Second, in certain situations, it might happen that the review by peers contradicts the teacher's feedback, making the suggestion a hindrance rather than helpful. Third, the perception of roles and status also impact the review. Teachers have noticed from oral peer review that students 1) may not trust their peers who are also language learners, 2) may not want to comment on

something they themselves are not an expert in, 3) feel inhibited/ unconfident to present their opinion on someone's work (Paulus 1999). The latter point perhaps is also the case among L2 learners, Thai EFL learners inclusive. From the author's experience of peer review in a classroom, Thai students would not criticise their peer's work for fear that they might be wrong. Similar findings are confirmed in Amores' study of Spanish L2 writers participating in a peer session. Students mostly felt 'scared' to criticise each other's papers, and did not like to give negative comments. Amores speculated that students possibly viewed critical comments as appropriate if provided by the teacher only (Amores 1997: 516). The effects of feedback from peers do not seem to be as powerful as that of the teacher. Writers tended to retain their own authority over the text edited by a peer rather than by a teacher.

The electronic environment has potential to accommodate peer activity and interactions. It is claimed that electronic environments put students at ease because they feel equal to their counterparts and the interaction is not face-to-face, as reported in several studies in chapter 4. Some limitations were also pointed out. For example, in the e-mail discussion, the themes of discussion may be lost or difficult to follow if there is a large volume of electronic traffic (Boud 2001:12). These aspects make it challenging to explore effects of peer review in an electronic environment on the revision process.

3.2 Feedback

Feedback is usually produced by the audience, be it teachers, peers or other readers. It is an important aspect that influences the revision processes. Particularly for teaching of writing, it is believed that feedback helps the writers to reflect on the writing (Cohen and Cavalcanti 1990). Classroom practice has paid considerable attention to treatment of error in the written work of L2 learners since 1960s (Robb, Ross and Shortreed 1986). Thus, it has been a tradition that the main duty of teachers is to comment on students' written work. Marking papers is time-consuming and teachers may spend hours responding to the class assignments (Sommers 1982, Ferris et al 1997) and usually put their efforts into providing appreciated feedback.

Yet, their attempts might not be successful as either the student writers may not attend to the feedback or feedback may not have long term beneficial effects (Robb *et al* 1986, Truscott 1996). Also, as there is no fixed definition of appropriate feedback, teachers are still at a loss. At worst, it was argued that feedback was viewed as harmful to the students.

At a certain point in its history, the practice of giving feedback was questioned. The teachers were warned of the dangers of trying to appropriate student text (Reid 1994) for it could be an obstruction for student self-learning. Students may have perceived the teacher's role as someone to "fix up" their papers, hence giving themselves a passive role (Ziv 1984: 375). This tension in 1980s probably urged more exploration in the field so as to understand the effects of responding to student writing. Researchers have sought to understand the constitutions of thoughtful commentary that influence students' revision; and not just the effects on their satisfaction that their work was being attended to (Sommers 1982:148).

Effective feedback from teachers and peers should provide the learners an opportunity to work on the text and produce a second draft incorporating the changes as suggested, if wished. Sommers (1982) stated the importance of comments, which also highlights peers' and teachers' roles as responsive readers:

Comments create the motive for doing something different in the next draft; thoughtful comments create the motive for revising. Without comments from their teacher or from their peers, student writers will revise in a consistently narrow and predictable way. Without comments from readers, students assume that their writing has communicated their meaning and perceive no need for revising the substance of their text (Sommers, 1982:149).

3.2.1 Practice of giving feedback

Studies in the former product approach reported that feedback given on the end-product was potentially ignored by the writer. The student-writers might read through the comments once and rarely incorporate feedback into future work (Zamel 1985). Hence, comments at the end of the revision process may not enhance learning

of writing (Ziv 1984, Cohen 1987, Leki 1990). On the contrary, in a process-oriented classroom, feedback is necessary as the input intervenes with the composing process, urging the student to revise through drafts. The intervention of feedback in the process approach results in improvement over the intermediate drafts (Ziv 1984). Such improvement may indicate that learning probably takes place while the student revises. It has been shown in both L1 and L2 studies that feedback during the writing or revision processes is relatively more helpful to student writers than at the end products (Robb et al 1986, Raimes 1991). Yet it is not yet conclusive as to what kind of feedback affects revision, and how the teachers should respond to the writing (Leki 1990). Teachers are still left with the questions such as 'How do we give feedback?' or 'What is the most effective feedback we can provide?'

Certainly, the ideal feedback are responses that encourage student writers to discover paths of recursive thinking that culminate in effective written discourse (Raimes 1985). Feedback type is significant as it determines the way students approach the writing process, perceive the feedback, and then revise their text (Lockhardt and Ng 1995, Hedgcock and Lefkowitz 1996, Paulus 1999). So far, it is still indefinite as to what is considered good feedback in practice. A number of studies have shown certain types of feedback which did not result in good L2 writing. For example, Leki (1990) and Rob et al (1986) found that error correction had little effects on students' writing ability. Likewise, Semke (1984) found no significant difference in accuracy in writing between groups receiving comments on errors and those receiving comments on content. The latter group performed better on fluency and a cloze test. This indicates that grammar correction did not result in a greater linguistic accuracy and might have even had harmful effects. Interestingly, it was also reported that the group receiving no comments showed the least competence in producing a text (Semke 1984). It could be speculated that the low level of proficiency resulted in little competence in self-correction. More advanced students might be able to reflect on their own errors and revise, resulting in an improved piece of writing. Negative effects of grammar corrections have supported Truscott (1996) in providing good reasons to conclude that grammar correction should be banned from L2 writing classrooms. This view, however, was criticised as 'premature and overly strong' because it would limit the future research body (Ferris 1999).

Besides the concern of the comment type, teachers have also sought for an effective means of giving feedback. Hyland (1990) developed interactive feedback styles by giving minimal marking on the paper and taping the commentary. This method meant that students had to re-read their work more attentively instead of paying attention solely to reading the mark. The students benefited from this as they could correct their own work after their errors were highlighted. Hyland also claimed that students making correction themselves resulted in fewer errors in a later draft and increased their sensitivity to linguistic errors; leading to a substantial improvement of the writing quality. It is obvious that taping comments can be time-consuming for both the teacher and students. Furthermore, it works mainly with simple levels of feedback such as form level, which means that logical flaws may not be made clear by this method. Hyland concluded that the method was encouraging although, like other methods of providing feedback, the key is simplicity and clarity (Hyland 1990).

Giving effective feedback in ESL writing is not practically easy to achieve. On the one hand, it may seem that any form of feedback is necessary and helpful for ESL writers since it can contribute to the quality of the writing (Fathman and Whalley 1990). On the other hand, teachers still need to take many factors into consideration, such as concerns about expectations, and perception.

3.2.2 Expectation and perception

To many students, a classroom writing task may not be over until they receive the paper back from the teacher, the point which they anticipate receiving comments, corrections, or even just a mark. Simply seeing the marked paper signifies to them that their work was read and leads to appreciation of the teacher's effort (Ferris 1995). There may be, nevertheless, some students who expect feedback as they view it as part of the teacher's duty even if it is time-consuming. Some students may not appreciate the fact that giving feedback requires more work than the actual job of writing the text (Enginarlar 1993: 201-202). Lack of gratitude could possibly discourage the teachers while appreciation by students would encourage them to provide feedback.

Students' appreciation might also be associated with expectations of the feedback they receive. Especially in a process approach, students need not only more immediate feedback, they require the type that accommodates their next step in revising the work based on the comment given (Frankenberg-Garcia 1990, 1999). On the contrary, teachers' expectations of what students need may not correspond to what the students really need. There seems to be a mismatch between what the teachers want to provide the students, and what the students expect to receive. This mismatch is partly caused by the shift of teachers' focus from the end product to the process, and partly by the fact that the students are unfamiliar with the new practices. Like the feedback in a product approach, student writers tend to require feedback on form, and probably like to have their errors corrected. This is particularly true with EFL/ESL writers (Robb *et al* 1986, Radecki and Swales 1988, Leki 1990). Leki (1990) asserted that ESL students need error correction as their main concern is producing an error-free work, and therefore they expect their errors to be pointed out and corrected.

However, more recent studies claimed that ESL students had more complex expectations. Cohen and Cavalcanti's (1990) study found that L1 students mostly preferred comments on content and organisation, and that the students were generally satisfied with the teacher feedback since it was of the kind they wanted. If this finding is generally true with other L1 students (and teachers), it may suggest that the focus on linguistic proficiency has particular relevance to L2 writers, while obviously L1 students (and teachers) can focus on content and organisation without having to worry about the language used.

Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) compared ESL and FL (foreign language) writers. They reported that ESL students in their study were interested in teachers' comments on content, possibly because the writing assignment was an authentic practice of English in a content course. Many of these ESL students perceived the importance of presenting ideas and being assessed in academic settings. In contrast, the group of FL learners paid more attention to form, and considered writing as a language practice. Apparently, the different perceptions of these two groups resulted in different needs. Expectation varied among different learners. For example, Hyland (1998) found that

a Thai student studying in New Zealand requested comments on her language accuracy. She viewed comments on accuracy as something students can learn from. It was her belief that the main role of teachers was to correct errors. However, it turned out that she was disappointed when the feedback on form only suggested that her language was not as good as she expected. The study also revealed a contradiction. That is, a Japanese student demanded comments from a reader's point of view, not a teacher's, probably because she "was interested in English as a means for real communication and not just as a subject to be learned" (Hyland 1998:266). The different expectation by two students in this study suggested the influence of educational background, which was reflected in their approach to feedback. It may be inferred that the Thai student had been used to error correction as a result of education in her home university while probably the Japanese student had been encouraged to use the language to convey the meaning.

Naturally, many teachers hold the view that students are encouraged by positive comments. Nelson and Carson (1998) reported an opposite result from peer response among groups of Chinese and Spanish students learning English. The students in their study actually preferred negative comments that identified problems in their writing, especially if they originated from the teacher as 'the teacher was the expert in finding problems' (p.124). However, grammar corrections and sentence-level comments were found to be ineffective by these students.

Besides mismatch of expectations between the teacher and the students, their perceptions on the focus of feedback between these two groups may also be different, resulting in misinterpretation (Sommers 1982, Cohen and Cavalcanti 1990, Hyland 1998), and possibly wrong practice in revision. For example, in a study by Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990), the teachers' reports of what they were focusing on in feedback differed from what the students saw as focused. An EFL teacher reported emphasis on content and organisation contradicting the students' perception that the comments stressed grammar and mechanics. Hyland (1998) reflected on the effects of written comments and asserted that misunderstanding between teacher and students always happens, like the case of the Thai student requesting feedback on her

language accuracy. The request was complied with, but led to negative attitudes about writing in English.

Lastly, a common issue always mentioned in the study of teacher's response to writing concerns the students' attitudes to the feedback. Students may develop negative attitudes if they find the feedback ignoring their purpose and intent in writing. Inconsistent, contradictory, confusing, vague, or insulting comments at worst can also act as stumbling blocks for students (Sommers 1982, Zamel 1985, Cohen 1987, Leki 1990, Raimes 1991: 419, Beason 1993).

3.2.3 Difficulties in practice of giving feedback

Concerns described above indicate the difficulty teachers are always confronted with in responding to the writing. In order to provide effective feedback, teachers need to balance their needs and the students' need (Goldstein 2001).

Certainly, the change in emphasis of the importance of form to content puts ESL teachers in a difficult position for they have to convince the students, and change their own practice. Changing the students' attitudes and persuading them to understand the reason why a focus on content is far more important than a focus on forms may not be as difficult as changing their own manner of responding to the writing (Radecki and Swale 1988). Teachers may have an idea of what they should be focusing on in their feedback, but they may not be doing so in practice.

ESL teachers very often focus primarily on form, most frequently on mechanical errors, and pay very little attention to the ideas or meaning of the text. Such practices, in a way, encourage students to take notice of the form before the content. They would not learn how to compose. Instead, they may pay attention to surface features of the text, such as grammar and spelling (Zamel 1982, 1983, Raimes 1985, Robb et al 1986, Cohen 1987). This results in a lack of revising strategies in ESL students and feeds their expectation of having feedback on language accuracy rather than rhetoric or content.

Contradictions in teacher's practices may be due to a foreign language learning pedagogy that gives importance to the written product and language proficiency.

Additionally, the teachers' concern with correctness and forms rather than real communication could be a result of the ESL teachers' language ability. For example, teachers may know more about grammar and lexis, but may not be good writers themselves, hence, could hardly comment on rhetorical styles. In other cases, teachers regard providing feedback as rather subjective. Consequently, they try to avoid being involved in the personal attitudes about the writing or rhetorical styles. Instead, they rely on comments with factual aspects such as linguistic accuracy. Such feedback, in the teachers' view, may justify their marking for it is objective and they cannot be wrong about that. The case seems relevant to the ESL teachers whose mother tongue is not English. They may not be competent to deal with the writing beyond the accuracy framework (Zamel 1982). Certainly, this also applies to L1 teachers, as mentioned earlier in 2.6.1, who can teach the language but not composition writing.

In addition, students' attitudes towards the practice of giving and receiving feedback also play an important part in revision. Enginarlar (1993) reported in an attitudinal study on EFL learners in Turkey that though the students found the feedback procedure useful, didactic and necessary, only a few were highly interested to receive comments (p.198).

Giving feedback is subjective, so is receiving it. Students may feel the comments are too negative, or too positive, too specific or not specific enough, or even there are too few or too many comments. Despite a belief in the benefits of giving feedback in the revision process, teachers still need to explore different feedback types, and students' reactions to feedback in different contexts. The current study aims to investigate the effects of feedback by peer groups on the revision process as delivered through network-based communication. Study of feedback has identified different feedback types, whose framework influenced the current study, as described in the next sections.

3.3 Studies of feedback and revision

Concerns of giving comments on the paper are related to how the students revise the paper after receiving feedback. On the search for feedback that may stimulate greater

responses from students in their revision, teachers and researchers may ask questions such as “Which feedback do they seem to attend to most?” or “Do the students really incorporate the feedback?” or “Has the quality of writing improved after the revision?” or even “What makes it so difficult for the students to implement feedback on their revision?”. Students’ reactions to feedback vary due to several factors like their interpretation, understanding, attitudes, competence, and the learning environment/ context.

Despite the disappointing finding that showed the feedback may have a more limited impact on students than teachers expected (Cohen 1987), most teachers and researchers still believe the practice is worth doing for it may lead to a great effect and not be viewed just as a confirmation of the reading of the text (Leki 1990, Raimes 1991, Ferris et al 1997). In addition, to the studies of feedback discussed in the previous section, further work has led to better understanding in revising behaviour and students responses to feedback. Recent studies yielded more positive results showing that ESL writers made use of feedback (Hyland 1998), and that the comments strongly influenced the improved drafts (Dessner 1991, Lam 1992, Ferris 1997, Anglada 1999,).

The development of studies in the revision process was initiated by the L1 composition study, as previously discussed in Chapter 2 (Sommers 1978, 1980, Perl 1979, Emig 1983) and studies in the revision process of L1 writers (Bridwell 1980, Faigley and Witte 1981, 1984). Further development in the field included the feedback effects on revision in L1 writing such as the studies by Ziv (1984), and Beason (1993). Recent studies in L2 have examined many aspects of the feedback (in 3.2) and also investigated the effects of feedback by different sources, such as peer students and teacher (Connor and Asenavage 1994, Medonça and Johnson 1994, Paulus 1999).

Studies looking at revision of L2 writers, in particular ESL have grown in size during the last decade, bringing in more pedagogical values to the practice of giving feedback in the revision process. Yet, little is known about the revision of EFL writers who have less contact with the target language. Studies in the EFL field are based on conventional responses from the teacher as evaluator but have not looked at

the effects of feedback by peer students and peer readers as real audience. Lack of research in the field of revision in the context of EFL student writers and the use of network technology as a communication medium necessitates the current study. Some of the previous studies on revision influenced the current study as discussed in the following section.

3.3.1 Influential studies on the revision process

Sommers (1978, 1980) studied the process of revision in L1 in particular. She defines revision as the whole complex activity of rereading, evaluating, and making changes both locally and globally while one is producing a text. She found that experienced writers saw revision as the essence of writing and they tended to revise globally. They usually developed new ideas while revising, and were not only concerned with polishing their language. Unskilled writers, on the contrary, revised in a more limited way concentrating on the lexical items and grammar, which is local and superficial. To Sommers (1978, 1980), it seemed that the unskilled writers were not successful because they failed to understand the meaning of revision. This corresponds to Perl's study (1979), which found that unskilled writers only revised at the end of the writing process, and only made changes on a small scale. Therefore, the revising process of unskilled writers usually involves editing, focusing on form rather than content. She concluded that they are overly and prematurely concerned with accuracy (Perl 1979). One reason for this was that many students cannot distance themselves from the text; hence, are unable to see missing content, or evaluate and revise the texts effectively (Faigley and Witte 1984:106). Correspondingly, Bridwell (1980), Faigley and Witte (1981) also found in their studies that inexperienced writers made changes mainly at the surface level whereas the expert writers made changes that affected the text in terms of ideas and meaning.

Studies of responses to teachers' commentary in L1 show different approaches of students to feedback. Ziv (1984) reported that inexperienced L1 writers revised more from feedback that contained explicit cues than implicit ones. However, she asserted that surface corrections alone are not helpful because students may only revise their papers accordingly without understanding the reasons, and thus repeat the same

mistake in a later draft (p. 375). Beason (1993) conducted a study looking at the effects of feedback (by peers and teachers) on L1 in Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) classes. Using several rubrics to categorise the feedback and the revisions, the study revealed that students tended to focus on the categories that would not lead to large-scale revision. That is, the L1 students also paid most attention to surface level revisions, and least to global revisions, which replicated results in previous studies (Perl 1979, Bridwell 1980, Faigley and Witte 1981). Revision operations such as addition may change the meaning at the local level, for example to enhance the claims, but it does not change the overall argument of the paper (Beason 1993: 415). Additionally, it was reported that students usually revised based on feedback, although selectively. In terms of giving feedback, both peers and teachers most often provided feedback in the form of advice, although teachers did so more intensively. Teachers were unlikely to give positive evaluation while peers tended to give praise. It was speculated that this was partly due to students' lack of experience in giving critiques on writing (p. 411). The study also indicated that positive feedback may not always result in a better draft, but it can lead to students gaining confidence (Beason 1993) and are used to soften criticism (Hyland and Hyland 2001).

Interestingly, findings from studies on L1 writers may be similar to those in L2 to some extent. For example, some studies on revision by ESL writers yielded similar results to those of inexperienced L1 writers. They revise mostly at surface level (Gaskill 1986, Tagong 1991, Paulus 1999), although changes in the meaning are also made (Raimes 1985, Belcher 1989).

Studies in ESL revision process examined the revisions as affected by feedback from teachers (Hedgcock and Lefkowitz 1994, 1996, Ferris 1997, Ferris, Pezone, Tade, Tinti 1997, Hyland 1998,) as well as feedback from peers (Newkirk 1984, Mangelsdorf and Schlumberger 1992, Caulk 1994, Connor and Asenevage 1994, Lockhart and Ng 1995, Amores 1997, Storch 1999, Paulus 1999). Studies were conducted on both oral discussion (Connor and Asenevage 1994, Lockhart and Ng 1995, Amores 1997, Paulus 1999), and in written comments (Newkirk 1984, Mangelsdorf and Schlumberger 1992, Caulk 1994). Studies claimed that the students had positive reactions to peer reviews (Mangelsdorf and Schlumberger 1992), and

that peer review is helpful in providing an audience perspective and supporting idea development (Medonça and Johnson 1994, Amores 1997, Paulus 1999).

Ferris (1997) examined teacher marginal and end comment in ESL undergraduates' writing in order to find its effects on sequential drafts. She found that marginal feedback that requests for information, questions and comments on grammar resulted in substantial revision. In contrast, questions or statements providing information were less influential. Obviously, positive comments almost never led to any changes. It was concluded that most revisions caused by teacher feedback resulted in positive changes and text improvement. The study also pointed out the importance of text-specific feedback, which appeared to be more helpful to revision than a general comment.

In several cases, researchers in ESL writing have compared the effects of peer feedback to that of the teacher (Chaudron 1984, Connor and Asenavage 1994, Paulus 1999). The comment given is made use of in the revision process in different scales, to different extents, and most of all with different strategies (Medonça and Johnson 1994, Paulus 1999). However, it seems that feedback is used selectively.

Connor and Asenavage (1994) analysed the revision made by two groups of freshmen ESL students according to the oral feedback by peer collaborative groups in comparison to written comments by the teacher. The analysis of revision types was based on a taxonomy defined by Faigley and Witte (1981). The two groups differently applied the oral comments from peers to the revision. The group whose comments focused on surface errors made primarily changes at surface level. Likewise, the group that commented more on text-based features generated more text-based changes (p.265-6). In the final draft (draft 3), possible effects of feedback by peer students and teachers were compared. The two groups shared the same pattern of revisions. Teacher's comments affected more changes than those generated by peer groups. However, the feedback impacted only a small number of revisions compared to the total number of revisions they made. Mostly, the changes made were at the meaning-preserving level.

Similarly, Paulus' study (1999) of ESL students also applied the same taxonomy (by Faigley and Witte) to identify the changes made in two stages of the drafts (draft 1 to 2, and draft 2 to 3). Paulus used 'think aloud protocols' while revising, and commenting on the writing. She made a further step by determining whether the revision process led to higher quality of the writing by looking at the first and third drafts. She found that meaning-preserving changes or surface-level changes were the most common type, which is consistent with Tagong (1991), Gaskill (1986) and Hall (1990). Although it seems that ESL students made mainly surface changes, Paulus's students also revised at the meaning level which supports Lam's (1991) theory that ESL students can revise both at the surface and at some global levels. The total revisions in both stages indicated that teacher feedback influenced 34.3%, peers 13.9 %, and self/other sources 51.8% of revisions. This indicated that teacher feedback was used more than peer students' feedback even though most revisions were caused by sources other than these groups.

Students' reading peer reviews in Paulus' study took classmates' advice seriously and made meaning level changes (p.281). The findings also showed that revision processes vary from one individual to another. Some students revised heavily in the first draft, while others did so in the later drafts, and there was no discernible pattern in the revision process. Paulus proposed that students need to develop individualised strategies to incorporate feedback effectively and positively in order to improve the writing. Claims were made that the revision processes resulted in improvement of writing quality. It was concluded that feedback by both peers and teacher contributed to the revision, especially at meaning-level. Teacher feedback was more influential and was given higher priority than peer feedback.

Amores (1997) conducted a study on peer editing in Spanish L2 and found that after feedback from their peers and the instructor, students rewrote their papers, incorporated the recommendations and attempted to make the necessary grammatical changes. Consequently, the papers contained only a small number of errors. In addition, looking at other students' work can be an effective means for self-correction as mentioned in the tandem project study (Little et al 1999).

Computerised writing has been looked at by Phinney and Khouri (1993). The study examined revision by four advanced ESL writers using computer to write and revise an assigned essay topic. The students made mostly graphic changes and avoided macrostructure revision that would affect the text summary. They exhibited typical ESL writing behaviours such as premature editing and a concern with form over substance. The researchers noted that a major factor in writing strategies seemed to be computer experience rather than language proficiency. Students who were not familiar with writing on the computer found that it was easier to write on paper because the train of thought was obstructed while composing on the machine. Furthermore, it appeared that the students did not use all the functions of computer. The results contradicted claims made in previous studies, that computers (word processing) made revision easier and altered revision behaviours (Daiute 1985). This may imply that insufficient exposure to the computer was the factor that limited the students' ability to take full advantage of the computer in their revision process (Pennington and Brock 1992:81).

Another product from the studies of revision was insights related to students' different behaviour in responding to the feedback. Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) found that L1 students are more likely than EFL students to disagree with the comments and retain their authority over the text by not changing it. They speculated that this could be due to the confidence L1 writers have in their language. Interestingly, the same behaviour in L2 students might be interpreted differently. In many cases they might also retain their text and make no changes after the feedback. A question is raised whether this indicates the L2 students' disagreement. Ferris (1995) had L2 students report that although they understood the comments, they did not always agree with them. One of her students clarified that the writing style s/he had was non-American and it was difficult to change. Nevertheless, most frequently, teachers tend to interpret the feedback not incorporated as not recognised or understood (Reid 1994) although it could actually be due to other factors. For instance, students may be unable to decipher the handwriting of the teacher (which may be overcome by usage of an electronic medium), unable to understand grammar terms the teachers use, understand but not know how to revise, make a mental note

then forget, and other reasons depending upon the context (Cohen 1987, Hedgcock and Lefkowitz 1994).

A wide range of interesting studies have been made in the search for understanding feedback and revision. Different groups of writers responded to feedback differently although some similarities can be noticed. Peer review also yielded common findings that peers offer different feedback from teachers, which resulted in less revision. Yet, there is a gap in how peer readers, who are neither classmates nor teacher, provide feedback; and whether and how the feedback affects the revision for the sequential drafts. Studies on EFL learners may need more attention since they seem to be the most isolated group in terms of closeness to the target language.

Previous studies have established different rubrics for investigation of the revision process, and examining the feedback. Rubrics used for the study of revision and feedback, which influenced the current study, are discussed in the following section.

3.4 On investigating revision

Through these past years, rubrics developed in the studies of revision have undergone modification as there is no rigid and agreed practice or formula to be followed as in some other fields. Some established taxonomies influencing this study include those by Sommers (1978), Bridwell (1980), Faigley and Witte (1981), Ziv (1984), Ferris (1997) and Mirador (1999).

Sommers (1978) applied the same categories used in group transformation (Chomsky 1965) to classify changes in L1 revisions by length (word, phrase, sentence, schema) and types of operation (deletion, addition, substitution, reordering). Her classifications may not suit the revisions by EFL students in the current study who rely on marginal changes in format or surface level. Also, the revision process may involve more complex operations than these simple straightforward sets might cover.

Bridwell (1980) developed a revision classification scheme to examine revisions according to linguistic structure. The classification approaches feasible by this scheme were '(1) a hierarchical arrangement of syntactic and discourse structure, (2) operations performed on these structures, or (3) nominal categories according to the

intent of the writer' (Bridwell 1980:203). Changes are classified by seven levels of text span and up to ten operations. These text spans are surface (format), lexical, phrase, clause, sentence, multiple sentences and text levels. Text level detected broad, text-motivated changes even though her study did not find any change in this level (Bridwell 1980). This classification was adopted to the investigation of revision in the current study and adjustments were made. The system allowed investigation in both general operations (such as addition, deletion, substitution, order shift, expansion and reduction at syntactic levels) and changes at surface level. In short, it is possible to track small detailed changes by this system (see also Chapter 5 for a complete scheme).

Faigley and Witte (1981) argued that classification schemes based on syntactic theory are not enough to define effects of changes at meaning levels. They proposed a hierarchical system to analyse the effects of revisions on the semantic structure of a text. The notion of a text base was used to identify meaning changes. They first classified the revisions in two categories: surface changes and meaning changes. Then, surface changes were divided into formal changes and meaning-preserving changes while text-base changes referred to microstructure and macrostructure changes. Surface changes involved, first, formal changes such as spelling, tense, abbreviation, punctuation and other format changes. Second, the surface changes that preserve the meaning may be a result of any of these operations: addition, deletion, substitution, permutation, distribution and consolidation. These operations were also used to identify microstructure and macrostructure in text-based/ meaning changes. To analyse these changes, Faigley and Witte (1981) classified a sentence as a unit. In a change that spanned more than one sentence (such as many sentences added or deleted), each sentence was counted as one change. The scheme was applied by other researchers such as, Connor and Asenavage (1994) and Paulus (1999). In their later study, Faigley and Witte (1984) adopted Bridwell's system (1980) and looked at text span as another dimension of revision. They also noted the difficulty in distinguishing 'the potentially ambiguous changes' of text spans; and suggested that the taxonomy be modified to suit each context of study (p.102). Based on Faigley and Witte (1984), Phinney and Khouri (1993) modified their scheme to examine revisions of four advanced ESL writers using computers to write. They reported that

the system was “simpler to use and easier for raters to achieve consensus” than that developed by Bridwell (1980) (Phinney and Khouri 1993: 61).

Even though the current study considered the model defined by Faigley and Witte (1984) plausible, one difficulty was noted. Comparing two written drafts based on a sentence unit is not possible with an ill-formed text. The concern of this study is that low-proficiency EFL writers do not always produce a grammatical sentence, e.g. it may lack a verb. An alternative for this is using t-units (Polio 2001). It was cited that Polio and Knibbloe (1999) identified changes based on t-units although the length of the changes was not considered. They achieved 80% reliability although they noticed t-units might be too rigid and probably misinterpreted the writer’s intention (Polio and Knibbloe 1999, cited in Polio 2001:108).

Several observations are made from these studies. First, the revision stages being examined varied in these studies. Bridwell (1980) and Faigley and Witte (1981) examined the in-process revisions as well as revisions made between drafts. Phinney and Khouri (1993) studied the revisions in computerised writing. Connor and Asenavage (1994) and Paulus (1999) looked at revisions as influenced by peer response. This illustrates the adaptation of taxonomies to suit the purpose of the study. One common thing is the emphasis placed on reliability. These studies used at least two raters to code the revisions and made claims on the consensus. Additionally, it seems that accuracy is excluded from the study of revision although many referred to changes of meaning.

The other group of studies relevant to the current study is the study of feedback. Classifications of commentary types have been formulated. Ferris (1997), for example, applied a developed model from Glaser and Strauss (1967). The model covers the comment length, the comment types, and the use of hedges. Comment types include 1) ask for information/ question, 2) make a request/ question, 3) make a request/ statement, 4) make a request/ imperative, 5) give information/ question, 6) give information/ statement, 7) make a positive comment/ statement or exclamation, 8) make a grammar/ mechanical comment/ question, statement, imperative. The characteristics identified were also use of hedges, and text-specification. This framework may not fit the current study, as it tends to rely on the marginal comment

provided on the paper. The characteristics of commentary in Ferris (1997) are also based on teacher feedback and are probably not suitable for feedback by peer groups. Nevertheless, the text-specification characteristic was applied to determine the type of feedback provided in the current study, and used as opposed to the generic approach.

Ziv (1984) investigated students' reaction to feedback that focused on structure and the concept (p.363). She developed taxonomy to sort the comments into explicit and implicit cues. Explicit cues were the comments that indicated a specific error and told the student exactly what to do while implicit cues called attention to a problem, suggested alternative directions or asked a question. These cues helped in the identification of whether a feedback influenced the revisions. However, the system would not suit the current study since the system was developed for structural and conceptual cues, and probably would be appropriate for L1 writing. Comments given to L2 writers usually focus on form; like those observed in the current study.

The study by Mirador (2000) has provided a different perspective in examining feedback. She introduced a scheme to describe written feedback based on genre. Feedback is identified in the concept of move. Mirador intended to organise the information type in written feedback and the linguistic preferences that signal the teacher's intention. This study applied the scheme to identify the comments provided in the NBC. Two major differences between the study and Mirador's should be noted. First, the moves were identified from comments given in a content course in L1 while this study used it for comments on ESL writing. Second, Mirador did not pursue the effects of moves on students' revision by any means whereas the moves are viewed as influential factor on the revisions. Twelve moves originally identified were modified to fit the current study, as detailed in 5.4.2.1. Following are the moves identified in Mirador (2000).

Move 1	General impression
Move 2	Referencing
Move 3	Suggesting improvement
Move 4	Highlighting strengths
Move 5	Calling attention to weakness
Move 6	Affective judgement
Move 7	Exemplification
Move 8	Evidentiality
Move 9	Juxtaposition
Move 10	Positive
Move 11	Probing
Move 12	Overall judgement

The current study has modified the moves to suit its context. Three more moves were added, which are 13: surface corrections, 14: instruction and 15: miscellaneous interactions (Detailed in Chapter 5). In addition, the study also extended characteristics of the moves by identifying whether they are text-specific or generic (Ferris 1997), and requesting revision.

Chapter conclusions

This chapter has described the different aspects of revision processes. It reviews previous studies and provides background knowledge related to theories and practices that influence the investigation of revision process. Theoretical framework underlying the current study is collaborative work offered by the audience, which can be teacher, peer students and peer readers. This audience plays different roles and provides different kinds of comments. An extended classroom supported by network allows audience participation not limited by geography. The audience's intervention is believed to benefit the process of writing. Comment or feedback given to the writer is regarded as a major external input which generates changes in the drafts. Yet, it is inconclusive what kind of feedback should be given or what constitutes revision that results in writing improvement. Grammar correction is criticised as being ineffective. Nevertheless, some studies have also reported that it is helpful for L2 writers who can hardly incorporate comments on content. Both L1 and L2 writers tend to revise mostly at surface level although L2 writers are more likely to be constrained by language competence. They cannot look beyond linguistic level

or distance themselves from the text. In addition, expectation and perception on feedback vary and cause difficulties in the practice. Students tend to incorporate the comments in a selective manner.

Studies have investigated the revision process and a number of schemes have been developed. The influential taxonomies for classification that have been identified were applied in the analysis of the current study. The current study has adopted the taxonomy developed by Bridwell (1980) and Faigley and Witte (1981, 1984) to specify text spans of the revisions based on t-units. Classification of feedback was adjusted from the linguistic moves as identified by Mirador's (2000). With the moves, comment characteristics (generic or specific) as defined in Ferris (1997) were specified.

The main interest of this study is the revision where appropriate treatment can lead to improvement of written products. By emphasising the importance of the revision process, it is hoped that EFL students will learn to look at their own writing in a more critical and analytical way. They should be able to pinpoint the structure of the whole text and the meaningful units of content.

4 Technology in language classrooms

This chapter aims to review the literature relevant to the subject of computer technology for language teaching with particular interests in the teaching of writing and the network technology that supports computer-mediated communication. An overview is first given to introduce the holistic picture in the area of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), to which field network-based language teaching paradigms belong. The descriptive literature on the historical perspective of CALL suggests phases of development in association with the progression of language teaching over the past decades. One of the approaches is the major concern of the current study: network-based CALL, which is placed under the paradigm of network-based language teaching (NBLT) with network-based communication (NBC) as its most distinctive feature.

4.1 An overview of CALL

Technology has become essential to the modern world in all aspects and to some extent has changed the lifestyle of the younger generations. Educators have also perceived technology as a potential support for teaching. Computer applications have been gradually introduced to education since the late 1950s (Levy 1997). The early approach is now referred to as Computer-Aided Instruction or Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), which includes tutorials and particularly drill and practice in a language laboratory. The growth of CAI and the need to implement more technology in language classrooms has resulted in studies in the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). The term was introduced in 1980s to specifically cover all roles of the computer in language learning (Levy 1997). The study of CALL is considered interdisciplinary as it is related to many other important fields of study

such as linguistics, applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, artificial intelligence, and others, as illustrated Figure 4-1 (Levy 1997):

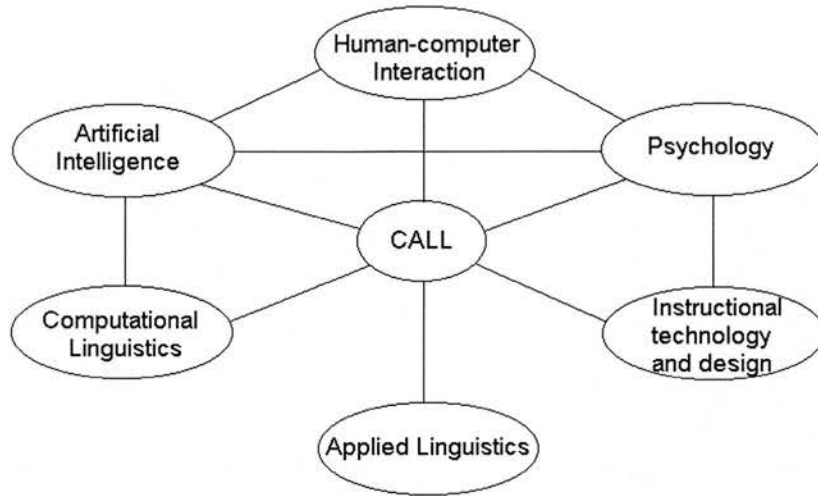


Figure 4-1 CALL and its interdisciplinary nature (Levy 1997: 72)

The activities in CALL at the present include a wide range of applications. For instance, there are language learning software packages, Web page materials, online exercises, electronic journals and databases, archives, hypertexts and hypermedia documents, interactive courseware, email noticeboards, videoconferencing (CTI 1997) and online course tools. The number of activities has increased through decades of development during which the focuses of studies in CALL shifted as a result of seeking for a better understanding of the use of the computer in language classrooms.

Intensive studies of CALL have been widely conducted in the US and Europe during the last fifteen years. Conrad (1996) claimed that early researchers focused their discussions mainly on the value and effectiveness of CALL courseware until the late 1980s when interest has shifted to investigation on students' behaviours and how much students learn from the technology-oriented classroom (also Soo 1999). In the early developmental phase, CALL programmes roused doubts whether they could be much more than electronic textbooks especially when many software lessons simply followed conventional teaching design and the main application was drill-and-practice for individual learning (Garrett 1991, Salaberry 2001). A commonly debated issue was whether or not teachers should fear that using the computers would impede

students' abilities to communicate with human beings (Conrad 1996) since many looked upon the computer as an agent, a digital teacher or even a humanoid communicator.

It appeared later in the 1980s that computers were regarded as facilitators, instruments, tools, or guides rather than agents. The computer had become a support that could be used effectively to construct humanistic learning environments (Stevens 1992) and as a means of discovery and exploration inside and outside the classroom (Conrad 1996). Researchers were inclined towards CALL applications and learning potential rather than just evaluating the technology. Through the decades, CALL has been developed and adjusted to fit the contemporary educational plans. A historical perspective of CALL in the next section will combine the development of CALL with various approaches in language education.

4.2 A historical perspective of CALL in the classroom applications

The history of CALL can be traced back to the late 1950s, but it was not until the early 1960s that its existence became noticeable. Through the years of its development, CALL has shown changes of appearance in accordance with the shift in language teaching perspectives.

Adapted from Levy (1997) and Warschauer and Kern (2000), the recent and ongoing major perspectives include structural (or behaviouristic approach), cognitive and sociocognitive.

1) Structural theoretical perspective (1960s-1970s)

Warschauer and Kern (2000) identify the structural theoretical perspective of CALL to its development when the behaviouristic view of learning was predominant, especially in 1960-70s. The behaviouristic approach aimed to promote individualised learning (Ornstein 1971) and emphasised use of the target language in spoken form, and students were expected to learn the language through a process of habit-formation (Levy 1997: 14). Early CALL programmes were developed for mainframe computers to provide unlimited drill-and-practice (Warschauer and Healey 1998), grammar and vocabulary tutorials, restricted feedback (negative or positive) and

language testing instrument (Warschauer and Kern 2000). However, since the early development of the drill-and-practice programmes was technically unsophisticated, they had very limited functions and only served as a tutoring tool. A well-known project and perhaps the origin of CALL was the PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations), which was developed for CAI to provide interactive, self-paced instruction for large numbers of students (Levy 1997: 15). While language tutoring programmes were part of the system (e.g. French grammar and vocabulary), students could access in their free time for 'the more mechanical types of vocabulary and grammar drill' (*ibid.*:16).

2) Cognitive perspective (1980s)

The second generation of CALL programmes was developed in the 1980s within the cognitive approaches to language teaching that highlighted the importance of the learners. It was underlined in this framework that development of an individual's grammatical system was a result of innate cognitive structures, and not behavioural reinforcement (Warschauer and Kern 2000: 4). Learners were encouraged to conduct discovery learning. Hence, development of software programmes within the cognitive perspective shifted agency to the learner who would take control of his or her own learning process (Warschauer and Kern 2000).

The introduction of the microcomputer in the early 1980s brought in a growth in CALL and the prominence of the language teacher-programmer. They could develop their own CALL material, for which they often chose to learn BASIC programming language and design and produced the material from scratch (Levy 1997: 23). However, development in technology especially by Wida Software made it possible for non-programmer teachers to use Authoring Suite and authoring programmes that do not demand high expertise or a great amount of time (Levy 1997); hence teachers with basic knowledge on authoring the programmes were able to design the content of the exercises to fit the needs of their students (Hardisty and Windeatte 1989).

Well-known authoring programmes to serve the cognitive approaches to CALL included those in word construction ranges² such as the *Storyboard* programme written by John Higgins (Higgins and Johns 1984) and *Masker* and *Textbag* by Tim Johns, *Gapmaster* (Levy 1997: 25), *Eclipse* and *Fun with Texts* (Brett 1994). *Storyboard* in particular is considered one of the first generation of CALL programmes and is a typical example in the authoring programme genre. The programme aims to ‘reconstruct a text, word by word, using textual clues such as the title, introductory material, and textual clues within the text’ (Levy 1997:24). These text reconstruction programmes were used both for self-learning and to stimulate group activity, which then allowed face-to-face speaking practice; hence enhancing communicative approaches of the tasks (Hardisty and Windeatte 1989). However, Brett (1994) stressed the importance of teachers’ selection of authentic materials that would motivate students. In addition, the text reconstruction should be used as one in a sequence of communicative tasks to activate learning. For example, the task might be followed by discussion on the content, sharing experience on the topic, which would create a purpose for reading the text while accomplishing the task (Brett 1994). Text reconstruction programmes and cloze passages (or gap-filling) activities, if detached from any communicative context, might result in a risk of limited types of interaction. Even though natural conversation among students is expected, it is easy to accomplish the task with only a small set of linguistic forms such as suggestions for answers to the gaps and reject or acceptance of the answer, as observed in Windeatte (1986), rather than a variety of discourses exploited in real world communication (Brett 1994).

The discovery learning in the cognitive approaches to CALL owed a great deal the advance of computer technology that improved utilities of the microcomputer in lieu of the previous mainframe. By the end of 1980s, the advent of electronic concordancers, the widespread use of word-processors, and software programmes that were designed for the microcomputers greatly benefited many areas of research and language learning.

² This view on CALL activities and approaches differ from Warschauer and Kern (2000) who categorise text reconstruction programmes in the sociocognitive approaches (p.11).

Electronic concordancing programmes, in particular, have simplified the way people deal with textual data (Tribble and Jones 1990). They permit interactive ways to handle the data and make the text patterns clearly visible. The high capacity of computer technology makes it possible to store many examples of texts in any size, either a small or a large corpus³. A possibility that users can select a corpus that contains particular sets of texts makes computerised corpora beneficial for research work related to written aspects of language and genres (Upton and Connor 2001). Corpora are also useful as resources for teaching management and development of teaching materials (Nyns 1988, Tribble and Jones 1990, Knowles 1990, Kita and Ogata 1997, Thurstun and Candlin 1997, Tribble 2000).

For example, Thurstun and Candlin (1998) used a concordancing program called *Microconcord*, and the *Microconcord corpus of academic texts* to develop teaching materials for a study of vocabulary of academic English. On the other hand, Upton and Connor (2001) selected and used data from a computerised corpus, the Indianapolis Business Learner Corpus (IBLC), to analyse discourse moves of job application letters of business communication students from the USA, Belgium and Finland. It has also been suggested that corpora are useful for the studies of rhetoric contrast, L2 acquisition and L2 teaching, such as a corpus of argumentative essays, timed writing exercises and school assignments (Upton and Connor 2001: 315).

Classrooms may exploit electronic concordancing programmes to encourage students in making direct discovery about language (Tribble and Jones 1990), and studying particular grammatical and lexical features of language (Biber 1994: 181) as well as sentence patterns (Hardisty and Windeatte 1989). The benefits of corpus applications may be extended in an EFL classroom when students are given a chance of exposure to proper use of the language in everyday life or as used by native speakers in different contexts (Tribble 2000). To name but a few, widely used corpora include the BNC (British National Corpus), the COBUILD, and ICAME. In particular, ICAME is a collection of English language corpora such as the Brown Corpus

³ A corpus / Corpora (plural) is defined as 'a body of collection of linguistic data for use in scholarship and research' (Malmkjaer 1991: 73).

(USA), the LOB (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen) Corpus and the London-Lund Corpus (Malmkjaer 1991, Chapman 1998).

The widespread use of word-processors has eased writing in many aspects both for individual use and for learning. Writing classrooms have adopted a variety of activities around the word-processors. For example, as Hardisty and Windeatte (1989) suggested, teachers may use word-processors for beginners to carry out simple writing tasks such as descriptive writing. Students may also complete a text in groups and share the document with other groups who read and respond to the document as peer review (Hardisty and Windeatte 1989).

More advanced students can exploit the word-processors in the process of writing when students need to make changes in their previous drafts both in individual writing and when working in groups (Light 1993). Instead of making changes manually on paper, they can “relegate writing mechanics to the computer” (Baron 1998:47) with its functions such as cut-and-paste, edit, and spellchecker. Therefore, the writer can concentrate on the flow of thought to convey the wanted meaning without having to worry at the stage of drafting about mechanical errors. This certainly simplifies the revision process since the writers are assisted with organising, editing and copying the text to produce a successive draft when using the electronic medium (Daiute 1985, Pennington and Brock 1992: 81, Baron 1998).

Additionally, the ease of the writing process by the use of the word processing has led to improved attitudes towards writing and a new perspective of revision process as more pleasant and not as a punishment (Pennington and Brock 1992, Phinney 1996). However, despite a great emphasis on word processing in early studies of computer in composition (Phinney 1996: 137), it is still uncertain whether revisions made on the computer are higher in quality and quantity than those on paper (Daiute 1984). Several variables are involved relevant to the electronic revision process such as familiarity with the computer, writing expertise, time and types of revision changes (Kehagia and Cox 1997). Furthermore, it is sceptical whether reading on the electronic medium negatively affects reading comprehension compared with printed texts (Reinking 1988), hence may affect the revision process. While some students

find it more convenient to read and revise on the screen, many may prefer and revise better on printed texts.

3) Sociocognitive perspective (1980s/ 1990s - present)

Not long after the rise of the cognitive perspective in the late 1980s, questions were raised regarding the overemphasis on the learner's innate cognition. It was proposed that language does not involve merely the cognitive process, but it is important as a socially constructed phenomenon (Halliday 1985). Learners' interactions *with* the computer as in the drill-and-practice pattern, and *at* the computer as in working with peers in front of a computer that requires only restricted communication have been reviewed. The focus shifted to a more authentic use of language created in human-human interaction. Most importantly, this interaction has been made possible *through* the computer network technology.

At the same time, the purpose of software programmes moved from simply individual learning to include communicative purpose, which was a key word during the 1980s when a great emphasis was placed on fluency rather than accuracy (Warschaer and Kern 2000: 5). Within the sociocognitive perspective, CALL activities involved students in cooperative learning. In addition, the development of interactive multimedia technology benefited CALL in applications of more interactive software programmes such as adventure games, simulations and problem-solving programmes (Levy 1997). Using these programmes, learners are put in a made up situation, which require them to consult or discuss with each other to come up with a solution to the problems. While the programme is exploited as a task framework, the learners use language as a medium to communicate in order to accomplish the task. They experience interpersonal, face-to-face interaction along with some interaction with the computer (Hardisty and Windeatte 1989: 52-55).

Not only were the computers exploited for face-to-face interaction while working together at the same location, the usage might be extended to connect students working from different computers. This was firstly made possible between computers at the same site via a local area network (LAN), followed by a wide area network (WAN), and finally the global network or the Internet (Frizler 1995). An

example of technology of this kind still widely used nowadays is text-only MOO (Multiple-User domain Object-Oriented) technology. It is a text-based virtual reality environment through which participants communicate at a real time by using text to describe their characters and surroundings and navigating through the given environment (Frizler 1995). The extension of the MOO environment at present is at the global level through the Internet, the major global network. A well-known MOO website, which has been claimed to be beneficial for ESL/ EFL teaching (Backer 2003) is the schMOOze University located at <http://schmooze.hunter.cuny.edu>.

It should be safe to claim that the advent of computer network technology and its ease of use have contributed a great deal to activities within sociocognitive approaches and the development of CALL. Many CALL classrooms, especially since the early 1990s, have experienced a variety of applications through the network including information resources online (World Wide Web), access to databases, and communication channels. These applications enhance both individual development and collaborative learning (Sullivan 1993).

It is unquestionable that network communication allows students to interact with and learn from local peers or a global audience from a different geographical location, which results in increased quality and quantity of writing (Davis and Chang 1994/5); thus adding a new dimension to communication and interaction in the classrooms (Chapelle, Jamieson and Park 1996). Claims have also been made that interactions via computer technology enhances in students the negotiation of meaning, in that, it develops critical thinking skills because students need to communicate with peers and constantly react to writing (Sullivan 1993, Peterson 1997:33, Lamy and Goodfellow 1999).

To sum up, the influence of computer technology in the language classrooms tends to benefit learning in many aspects. The strong influence of computer technology in classroom practices at present indicates that CALL has risen to inspire teachers, researchers and educators to search for a better understanding of effective technology applications that will support educational plans. However, it did not go unnoticed that several factors are also crucially involved in the success of technology applications in the classroom. These include personal competence, personal

motivation, student behaviours, software flexibility and validity, hardware availability, context suitability, just to name a few (Murphy, Walker and Webb 2001), to which educators and researchers need to pay particular attention.

At present, these three approaches to CALL are used, though with some variations in different classroom contexts. According to Warschauer and Healey (1998), the 1990s saw various and open-ended directions in CALL, resulting in the labelled *integrative approaches*. The CALL applications include software packages for individual practice and group work, together with the extension of networked computers. Networks, particularly the Internet, connect people in different locations and allow resources to be shared globally and electronically.

4.3 Network-based language teaching (NBLT)

Language education in the 1990s has adopted and emphasised the Internet in its teaching methodology, resulting in so-called “network-CALL” (Chapelle 2000:204) as part of the integrative approach. Network-CALL provides opportunities for greater access and interaction with the world beyond the classroom, which includes “Materials, People and Learning Environments” (Levy 1997). Therefore, it is no longer necessary for students to visit the computer lab to accomplish isolated exercises (Warschauer and Healey 1998). Computer programmes are not anymore regarded as simply ‘a tireless drillmaster, a perfect pronunciation model, or a way to free the teacher for more intellectual pursuits in the classroom’ (Underwood 1989), as viewed in pre-networked CALL. Instead, students use the computer as a tool or resource to support their learning and as a medium to interact with other people. This movement of integrative CALL has proposed network-based language teaching (NBLT) as a modern paradigm, in which the most advantageous feature is network-based communication (NBC).

As described, CALL and language pedagogy in the 1990s has been shaped by the influence of network applications, which were not widespread yet by the late 1980s (Hardisty and Windeatte 1989: 42). This brought about a paradigm within the current study of network-based language teaching (NBLT). Of course, language learning is not the only field that benefits from the network. All fields of education have seen

wide use of the Internet, as referred to by terms such as network-based learning, web-based learning, web-enhanced learning, and e-learning. The emergence of NBLT coincided with the integration of network technology into the educational framework. In this paradigm, the Internet is viewed more as 'a primary medium of literacy and communication practices' than merely a teaching tool (Shetzer and Warschauer 2000: 171).

NBLT refers to "language teaching that involves the use of computers connected to one another in either local or global networks". Whilst learners mostly interacted with computer software applications for individual learning in pre-network CALL, NBLT activities have shifted the focus onto human interactions as well as the use of networks as resources of information (Chapelle 2000: 204, Warschauer and Kern 2000:1). Focus on human interaction in NBLT has highlighted the advantageous aspects of network-based communication (NBC), which is the main interest of the study.

It should be noted that the current study has adopted the term NBC as a specific aspect of computer-mediated communication (CMC). According to Herring (1996), CMC is defined as "communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers" (Herring 1996:1). It is a mainstream of studies emerged to investigate communication that takes place via text, audio and video on the computer. The communication can be synchronous (real-time) or asynchronous (time-delayed). The mainstream CMC focuses on human communication, largely among native speakers and may not be concerned with learning per se (Harrington and Levy 2001:21). The current study is concerned mainly with the network features that influence learning processes. It views network communication and the online environment as a motif of the learning process of EFL students. Therefore the term NBC fits the context more appropriately.

Network-based communication means that various interactive activities can involve students in authentic, two-way communication (Opp-Beckman 1999: 90, Egbert 1999), and collaboration in ways different from that of the traditional classroom (Bicknell 1999, Shetzer and Warschauer 2000: 178). It has been claimed that students find the ability to communicate electronically stimulating and motivating

(Hardisty and Windeatte 1989). The activities conducted via NBC can be categorised into two groups: synchronous and asynchronous communication.

Synchronous communication

Synchronous communication refers to communication conducted when two or more communicators are on the network, conveying messages to each other, usually by using one platform accessed from two or more computers. Synchronous communication in real-world context may be conducted via many software programmes on LAN, which is a network of computers within the same location and 'more or less a closed system' (Levy 1997: 31). Some well-known programmes include *FirstClass*, *InterChange Function* from *Daedalus Integrated Writing Environment* software (Chun 1998) and other public access software programmes through commercial websites such as *YahooMessenger* and *ICQ*. Collaborative work may also be conducted via use of video conferencing and computer conferencing. This mode of communication is strong in its resemblance to oral interaction and is place-independent (Kelm 1992, Warschauer 1997, Pellettieri 2000: 59).

Asynchronous communication

Asynchronous communication is the basic form of network communication such as electronic mails, newsgroup and Bulletin Board systems. Asynchronous communication has been widely used because of its major strength of being both time- and place-independent; thus allowing users to take control of their interactions with others (Sullivan 1993). Electronic mail in particular is the most common means in all settings: academia, business, informal communication and so on due to the fact that it serves the basic needs of human communication, and is faster than postal mail (also referred to as snail mail) but more economical and has an almost equal effect. This mode of communication is the most common way to communicate via the Internet. Electronic mail, for instance, is one of the main features available in most websites. Its benefits for communication are enhanced by the availability of supporting facilities such as file transfer protocol (FTP) and storage capacity of the computer.

4.4 Network-based communication (NBC) in the classrooms

To investigate the potential of NBLT, studies have centred around NBC, usually with a focus on interactions that bring about collaboration between learners, and/or teachers and other audiences. As described in 3.1, the concept of collaboration in the classroom has been widely accepted as necessary in language learning, especially within cognitive and socio-cognitive approaches. It has been suggested that NBC promotes collaboration amongst peer students in classroom-based practices and collaboration stimulated by the real global audience as an extended classroom (Mabrito 1991, Warschauer 1997: 473, Lee, Liang, Chan 1999, Boyd and Thiede 2000, Honeycutt 2001).

The purpose of NBC in this study is to act as a means of enhancing collaborative learning among EFL writers in their revision process. The collaboration takes place in two dimensions. First NBC allows an existing audience who may actually react with the writer, specifically in an extended classroom. Secondly, the nature of interactions in NBC promotes collaboration for language learning.

4.4.1 NBC and the audience

As reviewed in the previous chapters, the audience is acknowledged as having an influence on the writer in two phases. On the one hand, in the genre-based approaches, audience influence the writer's selection of language form to encode the message being conveyed and to anticipate what a reader may need to know; then interact through the writing with the reader (Ritchie 1998). On the other hand, in certain context, the writer may also have a chance to actually interact with his or her audience, such as through peer review. An actual response from the audience is feasible via network technology, resulting in an extended classroom beyond the restriction of geographical location, increased audience size (Johnston 1999: 61) and ease of writer-reader interactions. A computer-networked classroom has a different nature from that of a normal classroom where an audience is "either unknown and remote or immediate and visible" (Anderson 1994, cited in Johnston 1999: 62). Instead, the extended classroom offers an "invisible but immediate" authentic audience (*ibid.*).

In the practice of NBC, the classroom audience refers to peer students and other readers (outside the classroom) who review the writing either synchronously or asynchronously (Mabrito 1991, Honeycutt 2001). The current study identifies the audience as the people who interact, as partners in a communicative act, with the students through a network-based environment outside the classroom. The audience provides new information to the students (writers) by means of discussion, which will both stimulate the ideas for their writing practices and urge the necessity to revise based on the reader's need in the revision process.

The theoretical framework underlying the practice usually includes Vygotsky's concepts of *constructivism* and Bakhtin's view on 'dialogic process' of human interaction. Vygotsky (1978) emphasises that human learning and development depend on purposeful activity mediated by various tools, mainly language (Warschauer 1997, 2002) (see also 3.2). This interaction can ultimately extend the way of human learning (Lee et al 1999: 222) since peers are knowledge resources from whom a student can benefit. Hence, through NBC, the zone of proximal development (ZPD) can be developed as it allows interaction with more competent peers (Warschauer 1997, Pellettieri 2000). Bakhtin, on the other hand, gives importance to the 'dialogic process' and sees that writing needs to assume some dialogue with a reader (Ritchie 1998: 134). A major belief Vygotsky and Bakhtin share is that writing needs to be goal-oriented and strengthened by social interactions (Prior 1998: 157).

According to Lee et al (1999), "Socio-activity learning system research, from the cognition perspective, aims to design networked learning environments that can provide an appropriate social context to serve as a catalyst for knowledge cultivation". As in classroom activities, but with a possibly larger audience, students are able to "look at situations from the multiple perspectives raised by fellow students, plan, evaluate new ideas, monitor, and assess solutions while keeping an eye out for possible mistakes made by others" (*ibid.*:223).

Obviously NBC plays a big role in extended-classroom practices in conveying the audience's critique of the writing. Many forms of NBC accommodate responses from the audience, including synchronous chat programmes, electronic mail, electronic

discussion list, Bulletin Board Systems, Usenet group and online course applications. In these environments, a much larger community can be created (Bloor 1996). Furthermore, a single platform usually allows many audiences. For example, a teacher can use the facility in an online course such as Blackboard to host many discussion groups (Boud 2001: 13). Correspondence stimulated by peer reviews and/or feedback from the audience promotes collaborative work. For example, giving feedback through an electronic medium such as email or a discussion forum allows more space for comment than the margin on a written paper. It is particularly easy for feedback from teachers. They can type and edit as appropriate; and handwriting is no longer a problem. Furthermore, feedback can be given right away when the assignments are received, without piling them up on the desk (Hoffman 1994).

To conclude, NBC has potential in providing a real audience for the classroom and the computer medium is more convenient when giving feedback. Hence, it is not an exaggeration to state that NBC promotes collaborative work in a writing classroom. In addition, as discussed in the next section, several NBC characteristics also contribute to effective interactions and enforce the concept of collaboration.

4.4.2 The nature of NBC and classroom interactions

Several aspects of NBC interactions contribute to the promotion of collaborative work in the practice of writing. The interactions in NBC are generated in a special way that simulates oral-like communication, yet retains some qualities of written language (Johnston 1999: 63). Despite being a medium similar to speech, text-based properties of the medium give learners some time to read and reflect before sending the message (Hawkes 2000: 274). Presenting ideas only after being assured with written text also instils confidence, which one may not have in the spontaneous discourse in oral communication. Additionally, the interaction in NBC is time- and place-independent, giving more control to participants. Finally, by using a network, one can access shared resources, which are web-published.

These qualifications of NBC have influenced the usual claims that learners' behaviour changes when they communicate through a network medium. Occasionally, it is observed that language proficiency has also been affected by NBC

(Hoffman 1994, Pelletieri 2000). Claims made in many studies suggest that NBC strengthens learners in collaborative learning in several aspects including empowering the learner and reinforcing learning skills in an electronic literacy approach (Warschauer 1997, Shetzer and Warschauer 2000: 181).

4.4.2.1 Student involvement, collaboration and learner empowerment

Early studies examined the effects of NBC in comparison with those in conventional classrooms. It was put forward that NBC empowers the learner by shifting the learners' role and their relationship with others. The equality stimulated in the environment also results in inter-connected confidence, motivation, and autonomy.

Firstly, since the communication is through text and not face-to-face, it helps reduce confrontational fear which may be a cause for a lack of confidence. In NBC, learners are able to build up their self image, project ideas and participate more vigorously whereas they may not do so in a conventional classroom (Kelm 1992, Kroonenberg 1994/5, Sullivan and Pratt 1996, Warschauer 1996). In this respect, NBC potentially offers support to particularly shy or less competent students, who tend to participate more when using NBC than in face-to-face discussion. Since NBC is place-independent, learners feel more confident in presenting their opinion, knowing that they are not seen. In comparison, face-to-face group work usually ends up with more competent peers taking a leading role, and dominating the discussion, while less competent peers may not participate at all. For example, Kroonenberg (1994/5) asserted that shy students are more willing to join the discussion electronically. In addition, Kelm (1992) used *Daedalus InterChange* software with Intermediate learners of Portuguese over a 13-week period and found that the level of anxiety was reduced with online-based communication, whilst it was present in oral discussion.

Sullivan and Pratt (1996) offered more concrete results. They studied the interactions in a writing classroom in two settings: where students had oral discussion in comparison with a real-time discussion via computer medium over fifteen weeks. In the oral classroom, the teacher took a major role in discussion and exercised more turn taking (65%), while a computer-assisted classroom allowed more turns from the students (85%), and the teacher was less dominating and less authoritative (Sullivan

and Pratt 1996: 498). The discourse patterns of peer response suggested that all students participated in the computer-based discussion while only one half did so in the classroom oral discussion. Peer responses shared a pattern of giving praise about the essay followed by suggestions for revision. The suggestions generated in NBC were more focused. It was also pointed out that repetition of comments, those which were typed by many people at about the same time during the synchronous discussion, highlighted specific problems of the writer of the essay and brought them to attention more efficiently (p. 499). The study proposed the effective use of computer-based discussion in supporting ESL writing. However, it should also be noted that the study was conducted with ESL groups, who were likely to be competent in spoken language. Therefore, computer-based discussion might accommodate ESL writing while EFL students may not be able to convey the ideas in any form (written or spoken).

Students' involvement is also encouraged in network discussion. A recent study noted an interesting point that non-native speakers of English feel less like outsiders in the online chats with native speakers than in face-to-face situations. They have more time to edit the message and have no worries about incorrect pronunciation (Freiermuth 2001). For example, while Japanese students have problems using 'r' and 'l' in the spoken language, the online chats allow them to use a written form that results in more effective communication. The study also reported that two Asian students (Thai and Indonesian) contributed freely within the focus of task resolution. It was concluded that whereas the native speakers took control of speaking, ESL students had more opportunity to use the language online, which allowed more space for non-native speakers than in a speaking group (Freiermuth 2001).

Peer review conducted through asynchronous electronic communication has been deemed effective. For example, a study into the use of email for both teacher and peer feedback by Hoffman (1994) showed that the indirectness of the medium seemed less face-threatening than other forms of communication. Therefore, it allowed students to profit more from constructive criticism. Also, use of email contributes to student motivation and willingness to take risks with language and style, so more substantive changes are made in re-drafts. In addition, peers from

different cultures connected by networks can be sources of knowledge (Lee et al 1999: 222) that can be useful in assignments.

Secondly, NBC can possibly stimulate student motivation, as a cyclic relation to other benefits. For instance, communication with global peers outside the classroom can be enjoyable as it “create(s) a new social dynamic” for real communication with a real audience, and not only communication with teachers (Warschauer et al 1996). The awareness of real communication in an authentic global audience may result in increased level of motivation, improving students’ confidence, and encouraging students to write (Beauvois 1992, Skinner and Austin 1999, Lee et al 1999). Skinner and Austin (1999) found noticeable effects on students’ motivation when exposed to NBC environments. They conducted research on the use of computer conferencing using the *FirstClass* programme for EFL undergraduates in the UK. Three main benefits were that computer conferencing provided an opportunity for ‘real’ communication and community, it improved personal confidence, and it encouraged students to overcome writing apprehension. The students feel that they are taking part in a big community, and therefore make an effort to contribute to the activity, over which they are able to take control. Certainly, having control stimulates their confidence, involvement, motivation and attitudes towards learning, most likely without awareness of the fact that they are learning; hence, learning occurs naturally.

NBC may also enhance learner autonomy in both individual and group work, which is a central goal of language teaching in the modern educational approaches (Warschauer et al 1996). Learner autonomy can be promoted by confidence and motivation. The most important concept is that learners have active roles in the learning process. An ideal of NBLT is that the learners are no longer passive like those in a conventional classroom where teachers control most of the interaction. While on a technologically-based course, the teachers have become facilitators and organisers for it (Beauvois 1992). Students in NBLT take control and initiate the activity. Studies in synchronous conferencing in particular showed authority shifting from teacher to students (Chun 1994, Kern 1995, Sullivan and Pratt 1996, Pellettieri 2000). Time and place independence also allows the control of the learners since they are not bound to a fixed time or place and interaction can take place at anytime

through NBC (Hoffman 1994). Independent interactions, which are student-student and student-teacher, increase the level of learner autonomy. There are lots of discussion forums on the Internet for like-minded people to exchange ideas. Purposeful communication with global peers who have different cultural backgrounds can reinforce autonomy in tasks related to producing web publication, comparative studies, and other cross-cultural pursuits (Soh and Soon 1991).

Independence of time and place highlights the convenience of NBC in allowing students to take control of their learning progress. Studies reported that a reason for the effectiveness of email communication in collaborative learning is that asynchronous modes provide more flexibility and time independence than synchronous modes. Participants find it more convenient to use email when they are ready to interact (Hoffman 1994, Liaw 1998). Having freedom of time allows for more in-depth analysis and critical reflection (i.e. the message is to be answered deliberately) (Honeycutt 2001) and allows students to initiate communication with each other or a teacher outside the classroom (Warschauer 1997).

The accessibility of shared resources or web-based publications in NBLT also influences learner autonomy and simplifies team work. Students will find it more convenient to do research when the resources are at hand. Although information has previously existed in the form of printed matter, web-based information is more easily accessible; for example, by hyperlinks, the easy access of the resources in the WWW such as language resources, news, journals, newsgroup archives and many others. Hence, the students become more responsible for their own learning. In terms of collaboration, other characteristics of NBLT can facilitate it: the capacity of storage, file transfer (FTP), virtual environments (MUD, MOO), upload-download functions, shared sources and so on. This brings into the language classroom an opportunity for collaborative writing and organised cross-cultural exchanges (Warschauer et al 1996).

4.4.2.2 Learning skills reinforcement

It has been reported that NBC could reinforce learning skills, especially writing, most likely due to its characteristics of text-orientation, and its capacity to deal with long texts and sometimes multi-participants allocation (Kern 1995, Chun 1998).

Studies found that different students' communicative behaviour was nurtured by NBC. That is, students tended to produce a variety of spoken discourse through immediate responses (Chun 1994, 1998, Kern 1995, Sullivan and Pratt 1996, Darhower 2002). For example, Kern (1995) studied students' behaviour in L1 when using *InterChange* software for synchronous electronic discussion in comparison with face-to-face oral discussion. The students used a wide variety of discourse, with a "greater level of sophistication" (p. 470) in the electronic discussion than in the oral discussion. Also, Chun (1994, 1998) studied the behaviour of German learners chatting through the network and found a wide range of discourse structures produced by the students. It was also found that real-time discussion stimulated interactive utterances and that students took an active role in discourse management (Chun 1998).

Honeycutt (2001) compared peer responses by email and synchronous conferencing. He reported that students made reference to document, content and rhetorical context much more in email than in using synchronous chats. Comments by email tended to be more specific and detailed that could be incorporated into revision (p.51). Hence, students, especially those more advanced, had preference for email. In contrast, synchronous chats were found effective for immediate exchange of ideas. Peer responses benefiting from this mode involved the tasks that did not require precise and explicit document referencing such as brainstorming or exchanging information.

Mabrito (1991) compared electronic mail with face-to-face peer response. It was suggested that the quantity of ideas generated in face-to-face meetings surpassed that in email meetings (p.519). However, these ideas were noticeably projected by confident students while apprehensive students tended to be more inhibited. Positively, it was observed that the fewer ideas stimulated in the email meeting were proposed equally by both confident and apprehensive students, thus, indicating that

contributions were equal in email meetings. Furthermore, there was a tendency amongst the apprehensive L1 writers to revise more from comments by email than from face-to-face interactions. It is probable that the written form of feedback also played a role here. Apprehensive students might feel more anxious and would not be able to absorb what was being discussed in a face-to-face meeting. On the other hand, they had time to themselves in reading the emails, enabling them to digest the response more effectively.

The direct reinforcement of language writing skills may take place explicitly in NBC as a vehicle to convey feedback on the writing by teachers, peers, or other readers/facilitators such as a writing lab provided by Purdue University (OWL 2000, Vilmi 1999, Hoffman 1994). The Internet permits FTP so that student writers can send their drafts to their peers or teachers for a response. These drafts, when read and corrected, are available to the students through FTP. These corrections include comments on the writing and explicit critiques of the grammar of the piece as would be found in the conventional language class. Writing is reinforced by practice, revision and attention to the mistakes which are explicitly pointed out by peers and teachers.

Indirect reinforcement may occur through authentic communication with a global audience. By paying attention to the form of the target language, it is possible for students to recognise, memorise, familiarise with and apply the form to their own writing. Self-improvement or imitation may take a long time because the language input is rather implicit. It requires great attention from the students to observe the language used by more competent peers or native speakers of the target language without guidance (Stockwell and Levy 2001).

In addition to writing skills, reading ability may be a side effect of communication in text form. Learners must read to comprehend. In more active interactions, they need to read critically in order to discuss a topic, which results in critical thinking—one of the skills needed in higher education (Sullivan 1993, Kroonenberg 1994/5, Baron 1998). Kern (1995) noted that interactive discourse might lead to students paying more attention to fluency than accuracy, according to the urgency of the communicative flow; hence NBC proved to be a more effective communicative approach to language learning (Kern 1995: 458). On the other hand, a recent study

has reported increased grammar accuracy through collaborative work (Pellettieri 2000). Pellettieri (2000) used *Ytalk* on a Unix platform for negotiation tasks in Spanish L2. The study showed improved grammar accuracy through collaborative work. The results also indicated that students incorporated the feedback from peers after the discussion. It was concluded that chatting could foster the development of interactive competence.

NBC obviously enhances the student's familiarity in using a computer and the preferred etiquette of Internet communication. Students' skills of conducting research or using resources could also be enhanced, provided that they have been empowered by the nature of NBC as previously discussed.

To sum up, the main interest of the two modes of NBC is on different aspects. Synchronous NBC has very often appealed to prior investigation related to frequency of interaction, highlighting the speech-like communication despite being text-based. The most positive aspect of synchronous NBC could be the immediate responses that keep attention levels high. This effect of synchronous NBC has led to investigation into students' behaviour as affected by the electronic environment, mainly by comparing two environments. The studies of synchronous protocol quite often paid attention to frequency of occurrence or interactions, rather than quality, with the exception of Pellettieri (2000). In contrast, studies in asynchronous NBC usually examined linguistic quality, probably because of the presence of the time-delay factor. Learners have more time to reflect on their texts before progressing with the communication.

4.5 Conditions of employing NBC for collaborative work

There are several factors that have an influence on the effectiveness of collaborative work, and they ought to be taken into account in this study. In terms of reactions to NBC, studies have reported that individual students respond differently. For example, Appel (1999) found that interaction patterns varied and depended on the dyads. One pair had less frequent correspondence, i.e. every two weeks, which resulted in fewer outcomes. Frequent correspondence might be difficult to expect

especially when students have other priorities. Studies indicated that the learners' motivation is important for the continuation of constant communication (Liaw 1998).

The course of collaborative learning might be obstructed if the participants fail to observe the accepted etiquette or abuse the medium, as in the case of 'flaming' (Robertshaw 2001). Another problem is that participants, especially in real-time chat may not focus on the topic of discussion. It is easy to get carried away by the fun of electronic communication.

Interestingly, collaborative work very much depends on the task design. Pellettieri (2000) claimed that the electronic environments themselves are advantageous within the language classroom. Should they be ineffective, the first thing to be concerned with is the task design. Appropriate tasks such as jigsaw tasks and negotiation tasks are more likely to lead to successful collaborative work. In addition, the topic of discussion is influential in the sustainability of the threads of discussion (Stockwell and Levy 2001).

Finally, studies have claimed that the use of NBC would presumably facilitate the student involvement, particularly in synchronous mode (Pellettieri 2000, Kern 1995, Pratt and Sullivan 1994). Once classroom interactions are more equally distributed, collaborative learning will take place. Nevertheless, NBC may not support equality in certain circumstances. For example, inequality may occur with students with less competence in typing or with unreliable connection in the case of synchronous chats. In general studies suggest that NBC is advantageous as it gives the opportunity for quiet students to present their opinions (Warschauer 1996).

4.6 Influential studies of NBC

The studies presented in the above section have influenced the current study, as they show possibilities that NBC promotes language learning and strengthens writing skills. Practices of collaborative work through networked computers take place on a small scale, such as work between peer dyads on the same campus (Liaw 1998), or in a small group with teacher collaboration (Hoffman 1994). Many studies also extended the classroom to peers in different locations (Little and Ushioda 1998,

Stockwell 2000, Stockwell and Levy 2001) or to more global peers (Vilmi 1999). Although synchronous communication has been deemed beneficial in many contexts, the review shows that most synchronous communication placed more emphasis on quantity of interaction per se rather than the quality of interactions (Kelm 1992, Kern 1995, Pellettieri 2000). The current study views asynchronous NBC as more appropriate for a writing classroom based on several reasons drawn from these studies.

Email is possibly the simplest one-to-one mode early adopted into the classroom for communication for when teachers and students are not meeting in person. Studies first investigated the effects of email on feedback given to students. Hoffman (1994), for example, presented the advantages of the use of electronic mail for developing writing skills in group work. Both teachers and students found electronic mail feedback significantly advantageous in that it provides prompt, complete, and instrumental commentary on student work, empowers students to use English for authentic communication, and helps build positive relationships between students and native speaking teachers. He stated that email on a one-to-many basis contributed to students' motivation to use invention techniques freely, to take risks with language and style in drafting, and to make substantial changes to text in drafting. In addition, the electronic classroom makes the teacher more available. Liaw (1998) investigated the efficacy of email writing in EFL classrooms. She found no obvious improvement of their English language, but she asserted that email encouraged students to use and practise a great deal of English language even with peers.

Along with the above studies on dyads, researchers also show interest in group mail or multi-participant platform of communication. For example, Soh and Soon (1991) carried out a global classroom project between students in Singapore and Quebec using Bulletin Board Systems. They reported that the written work produced after the cross-cultural exchange contained more audience-conscious content. They claimed that students' thinking skills were promoted during the discussion held via the networked computers. Likewise, a more recent study on electronic group interaction reported on the amount of language generated by students. Gonzales-Bueno and

Perez (2000) found that students did a great deal of writing in electronic version of dialogue journals, which reflected their ability to write in the target language.

Studies conducted to investigate peer response by emails might be carried out with unknown peers. The main principle of this kind of study is the exchange with native speakers of the target language, usually on a one-to-one basis. Interactions between the peers are believed to affect language fluency and accuracy. Tandem projects are good examples. A well-known project among language teachers might be the tandem project at the Ruhr-Universität Bochum together with its partner universities of Oviedo and Sheffield since 1992. This project enhances the opportunity for exchanges with native speakers (Little and Ushioda 1998), which may result in the language proficiency. Some studies on interaction with native speakers reported particularly on language proficiency. For example, Japanese L2 learners improved their language proficiency after interaction with native speakers but only after a certain time of interaction, and a certain amount of email exchanges. In the study, improvement in proficiency began to take place from the fifth message (Stockwell 2000 cited in Stockwell and Levy 2001). Similarly, Stockwell (2000), Stockwell and Levy (2001) investigated Japanese L2 learner interaction with native speakers. They further explored the proficiency gains (or losses), and the factors contributing to the sustainability of email interactions with native speakers (p.424). They reported that the more NNS interacted with NS, the greater improvement they made in L2 usage. The major factor contributing to the continuation of interaction between peer dyads was the topic of the emails. A shared interest could also stimulate more interactions even from the learners with low proficiency (Stockwell and Levy 2001).

Unknown peers can be extended to a global scale, particularly on the World Wide Web. Multi-participant interactions are possible. A project probably most influential on the early stage of the current study was the International Writing Exchange project (IWE) organised by Ruth Vilmi. The IWE is an on-going writing project started in 1993 as a collaborative writing activity from the Helsinki University of Technology (HUT) Email Writing Project. The IWE aims to support classes of intermediate to advanced students of English at universities or colleges of further education around the world. At present, participants are institutions from Finland,

France, India, Pakistan, Singapore, Taiwan, the USA, China, Korea, Japan, Australia, Spain and Mexico (Vilmi 1999). The project is claimed to be the most popular collaborative writing project because it is a flexible communicative project, with students writing to and receiving feedback from their global peers as well as their teacher (Vilmi 1999). To participate in the project, a teacher has to register the whole class of his or her students (maximum 30 students), and must be committed to the project for at least one whole round, i.e. six weeks. The whole project is a continuous exchange, in which the student participants in the project write a composition according to the schedule and topics chosen. The teacher reads students' composition and gives constructive feedback (Vilmi 1999). This project opened a channel to other peers and teacher-readers. Students also found international friends through the Internet communication. Together with the writing session, a real-time chat room is also provided. The chat topics are divided into rounds corresponding to the IWE project. Students, therefore, may attend a real time chat to get acquainted with the topic.

More and more online projects are available for language learners to interact globally with authentic audience (Gaer 1999:74). The expansion of practice in the target language is apparently due to the rapid growth of the networked computers (Hoffman 1996). Classrooms have adopted network technology into the pedagogy, thus, providing more chances for EFL students to expose themselves to authentic language use in a wider context.

Chapter conclusions

The interaction stimulated in NBC facilitates collaborative work, which is different from human-computer interaction as previously stressed in pre-network CALL. Human-human communication is obviously more effective than that of human-computer. Despite difficulties in interpreting natural language that might occur at times in human communication, it is still possible to use the linguistic context to interpret the words or phrases.

Studies have adopted synchronous and asynchronous NBC for different purposes. The synchronous tends to surpass the asynchronous protocol for its immediate

response, while the latter allows time to reflect, and freedom to keep one's own pace. A positive common ground in numerous studies in electronic communication is that timid or weak students tend to show more personal confidence and express themselves more in an electronic classroom than in a traditional one (Kroonenberg 1994). Students may give their arguments in their own time, and they have time to think about how to argue or what to raise for discussion.

Based on the review of previous studies, it has become clear at this point that the asynchronous mode of communication is more flexible than the synchronous mode because users are not constrained by time. It is also more feasible for researchers to retrieve texts and record the interactions.

It can be concluded from the previous studies that NBC is mostly effective when combined with writing pedagogy, as enormously advantageous for the learners both directly and indirectly were suggested (Hoffman 1994, Kroonenberg 1994/5, Sullivan and Pratt 1996). The main concern of this study is whether NBC reinforces local or global interactions (Vilmi 1999). Nevertheless, several missing areas were noted in the current practices in CALL such as authentic audience through asynchronous NBC, integration of technology to the writing process in giving feedback. This study aims to explore the application of asynchronous NBC in supporting the EFL process of writing. It was hoped that NBC would permit an authentic audience, thus providing EFL classrooms with global peers.

5 Research design and methodology

This chapter describes the design and rationale behind the study. It discusses the fundamentals of the empirical study, the pilot study, research design and methodology and the methods of data analysis.

5.1 Fundamentals of the research study

This section describes in detail the fundamentals of the study including motivation, research questions, hypotheses and a summary of the research plan.

5.1.1 Motivation

The growth of technology, particularly of the Internet, is exciting for educators. With the World Wide Web and the Internet as part of everyday life, people of the new generation are familiar with networked computers and a vast majority of the population has become connected. The increased popularity of the Internet has persuaded educators to explore the benefits of this technology and employ it in education. Language teaching, in particular, has adopted technology into its curriculum for the past few decades. The field has developed under CALL framework as described in Chapter 4.

The CALL movement in the 1990s has been most influential in this study. The popularity of the Internet has posed questions on language-teaching methodologies. It is interesting to explore how the use of the Internet enhances language learning, as learners are naturally involved and motivated when using this medium.

Originally, the success of CALL multi-media reported in several studies (Motteram 1990, Chun and Plass 1996, Brett 1997, Otlowski 1998) led to an idea that

development of courseware programmes might allow language learning to occur without the need for a teacher. However, studies in courseware design and development have changed the former attitudes. Developing an interactive programme that would imitate perfectly human interaction did not seem achievable, especially when intelligent CALL has not yet been fully developed (Warschauer 1996). It is clear that a software programme cannot interact as a human does although via rigid sets of linguistic rule feedback can be given to learners. A software programme is, however, unable to respond to 'on the spot' questions, unable to participate in spontaneous thinking and unable to offer explanations; and therefore may limit learning possibilities.

In contrast, human-human interaction offers more helpful feedback than 'right' or 'wrong' comments as dictated by rigid rules in a computer programme. Humans can elaborate and provide input that serves particular needs, especially where more complex language aspects are involved. In the case of writing a composition, students certainly need human input either to generate ideas or to evaluate the writing. The study views computers as effective media to support human-human interactions even among those in different geographical locations.

Starting from these ideas, the study elaborated its design and methodology to nurture human interaction that would enhance language learning. Network technology has been the major facilitator of human interactions in this exploratory study. Communication is in an asynchronous mode within the discussion forum environment that comprises of two constituents: a group of students and a group of more competent users of English, also known as readers or external readers.

5.1.2 Research questions

The study investigated the efficacy of network-based language teaching (NBLT) in a writing paradigm. The major concern was human-human interaction in network-based communication (NBC). Five research questions were posed.

Prime research questions

- 1) Does participation in a discussion forum via NBC affect students' writing performance?
- 2) Does exposure to feedback by peer groups affect students' revision process?

Associated research questions

- 3) Is there evidence that students incorporate new ideas into their writing and/or change their language use and writing styles as a result of the interaction with the peer groups?
- 4) Does NBC affect students' writing attitudes and strategies?
- 5) Does NBC motivate students to use the target language?

Approaches to the questions

- 1. Does participation in a discussion forum via NBC affect students' writing performance?**
- 2. Does exposure to feedback by peer groups affect students' revision process?**

Discussion forum refers to the online forum designed for the study as a platform for an asynchronous NBC.

Peer groups refer to two groups. First, *peer students* refer to classmates who attended the peer review in the online discussion forum. Second, *readers* refers to external readers who were selected according to their language skills. They were either native speakers of English or were more competent in the English language than the students in this group. This included the author as a teaching assistant during the course of the study.

Feedback denotes the written responses to the writings by both peer groups. The feedback can be comments on the writing and/or discussion related to the writings.

Writing performance refers to the features of the written text produced by the students during the course of study. The aim was to investigate how participation influenced the written product rather than the evaluation of the proficiency of the student writers.

Revision process denotes the stages which the student writers employed to revise a draft and produce a successive one, presumably after receiving feedback.

The investigation is targeted at all events in the given environment and includes mainly the drafts written by the students, the comments given as feedback to the drafts by peer groups and the correspondence in the discussion forum. It is hypothesised that these data sets (drafts, feedback and correspondence) are inter-related. The inter-relation may assume that exposure to peer groups' responses in the discussion forum affected the writing performance via the revision process.

3. Is there evidence that students incorporate the ideas to their writing and/or change their language use and writing styles as a result of the interaction with the peer groups?

This question is answered by comparing the different written drafts by an individual writer and identifying the changes made. The next step is to examine whether or not these changes were a result of interaction with peer groups. The incorporation of new language could be seen from the changes of written language in a later draft after receiving the feedback and/or interacting with the discussion forum. Likewise, the ideas generated in the forum can be incorporated into the content of the essay. It has been noted that language incorporation may be explicit while the idea incorporation is rather implicit and requires more subjective judgement.

Evidence that indicated the inter-relation of language and/or ideas generated in the forum and the drafts might lead to an assumption that the interaction through the network-based communication has effects on ideas and/or language incorporation by the student writers.

4. Does NBC affect students' writing attitudes and strategies?

Attitudes being probed in the study refer to the students' perception about writing while *writing strategies* means the manner of writing, especially as influenced by using computer facilities.

Awareness of the audience may encourage students to write more carefully in order to be understood. The students may also enjoy writing in the network environment where they can discuss, exchange ideas, review other people's work and easy access to resources and tools online. This introduces writing strategies different from those in a conventional classroom. It is assumed that technological tools result in good attitudes towards writing. The students' attitudes were judged by interviews.

5. Does NBC motivate students to use the target language?

The question aims to investigate whether or not the students were inspired to use the target language in a network environment. Motivation is assumed from contributions to the discussion forum, which indicates the level of dedication of the whole group and individuals. Motivated students will show a genuine interest in using the language to discuss and interact with peers through NBC. Frequency of online access is another indicator and is calculated from statistical records. Interviews and questionnaires were also used.

5.1.3 Hypothesis

The research questions are based on several assumptions. First, it is assumed that interactions via NBC and exposure to more competent peers will lead EFL learners to improvement their writing performance. Additionally, students in higher education are expected to carry out independent learning. A network-based environment tends to accommodate the self-learning process. The hypotheses follow:

Exposure to feedback from efficient readers has positive results on students' writing performance.

Participation in an online asynchronous discussion forum promotes language learning in a group of EFL learners.

5.1.4 Summary of the research plan

The research aims to explore the outcomes of a network-based learning environment to support the revision stage in the process writing approach. The networked environment here refers to network-based asynchronous communication between EFL learners and more competent users of English, specifically through a discussion forum. The study primarily investigates whether human-human interactions and feedback given via a network has effects on the learners' composition writing.

The effects would be measured from the compositions which attest whether the writers incorporate the feedback or attend to the language used in the discussion forum. The evidence, by means of data collection and analysis, refers to absorption and incorporation of ideas, language use and the changes in writing styles that students may import into their compositions after taking part in the network community. If there are indications that the student writers make use of the discussion and feedback to improve their compositions, a claim may be made that the given environment has effects on their learning.

The principle underlying the plan was to use an online discussion forum as a means to expose the students to interactions in English with peers outside the classroom. The interactions take place among students and readers in a collaborative manner. While peer readers provide input to an individual and to the group, the students also exchange ideas or information that help scaffold each other's work. The expected outcome of these interactions is the incorporation of ideas and language into each student's writing. This principle is simply illustrated in Figure 5-1, which shows bi-directional interactions between peer readers and the students in the online discussion forum. Interactions also take place among the students themselves, mainly through peer review and discussion.

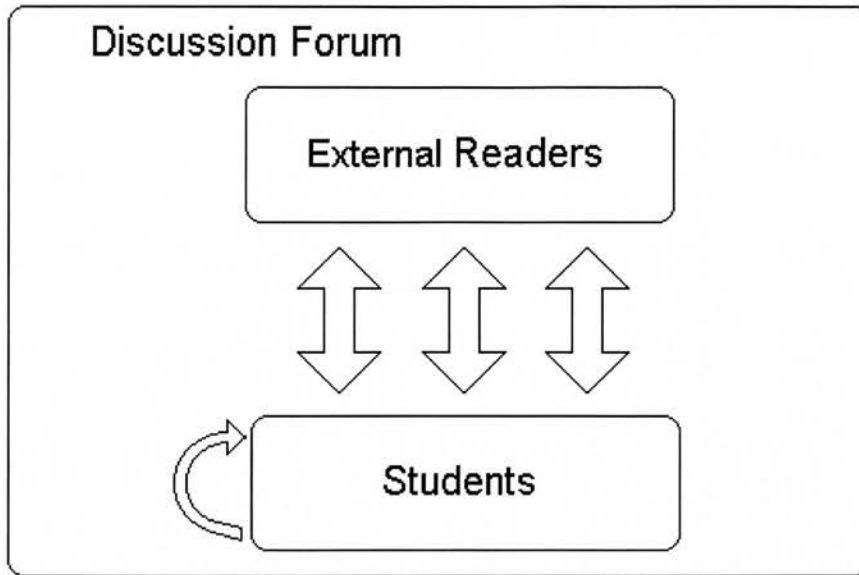


Figure 5-1 A possible hierarchy of interactions taking place in a discussion forum

The procedures specific to the research design are presented in Figure 5-2. It shows that participants (students, readers and teaching assistant) who attended the online discussion forum. Students produce a first draft related to the issue being discussed. This first draft is seen and commented by other participants before the writer revises and resubmits it to the forum as a second draft. The stage of comments and revision is repeated. Then, the writer produces the final draft, which would be presented in the presentation area on the website.

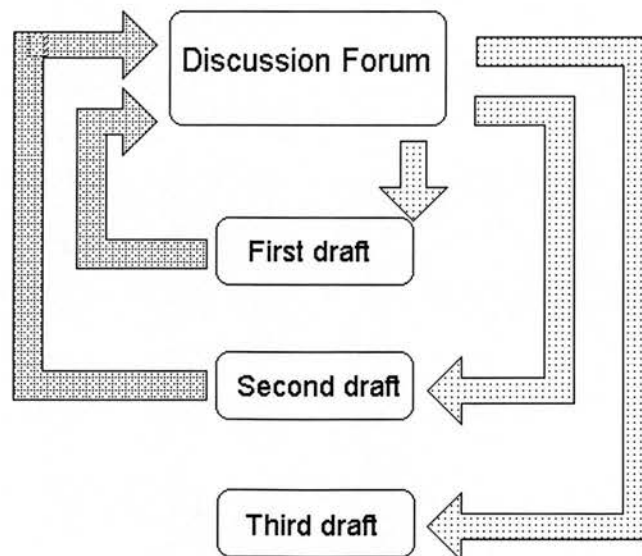


Figure 5-2 The forum model displaying the loops of the writing process

5.2 Pilot study (10 January – 15 February 2000)

The pilot study is significant in this empirical study because it revealed some useful facts for the adjustment of the research design. The study was conducted for four weeks at WU during the third term of the 1999 academic year. Procedures and time scale for the on-site project are as follows:

Time	Procedures of the data collection
June - September 1999	Technical preparation
December 1999	Preliminary administration, i.e. asking for permission, contacting people, advertising, and recruiting students
20 December 1999 – 7 January 2000	University vacation
10 – 20 January 2000	Contact 15 students, registered their names and login
24 January – 29 February 2000	Operated the discussion forum and collected data

Instruments

The pilot study differed from the later empirical study in that it used a different electronic platform as the online environment.

The online instrument to support this survey study was an in-house website containing six pages with links. The project was called English Sanuk at this website: www.ed.ac.uk/~wwararat. The interactive platform required for group discussion was under the patronage of Media and Learning Technology Service (MALTS) at University of Edinburgh. It was merged together in the English Sanuk site.

Population

Fifteen second year undergraduates who satisfied a prerequisite of a completion of English IV: Writing volunteered for the pilot study. They majored in Communication Sciences, Nursing and Agricultural Technology; and were not taking any English courses at the time when study was conducted. Records of their previous marks in English were not provided. Three students experienced being abroad as exchange students or for a summer English course. Despite the ability of all students to communicate in English, the language proficiency was not uniform in this population. Below are four examples taken, as original, from four students with different levels of proficiency. Even though the examples illustrate a variety of

English performance of the individuals, they also display some common grammatical mistakes, difficulties in using English verb forms, prepositions, and sentence structures. The mistakes observed are most likely a reflection of the poor English command of the students and are likely to be due to the incorporation of Thai language features into English writing.

Example 1: a student with a fairly good command of English

Hello everyone, My name is xxxx. You can call me O. (maybe some of you know me.) I study Info Science at WU. Nakhon Si Thammarat, Thailand)my major is MIS which I didn't like it so much. Anyway I'm trying to do my best. Do anyone like computer programming language. Please help me to enjoy this class. Now I'm hearing a song that I like it so so much, because my first time to heard this song I was in USA. and my best friend(not my best friend is wedding)send it to me. I'm not sure about the name ,should be "So Far" by Boy-Gosiyapong.I've got to go now, see you later!

O.

The above example illustrates a writing by a student who had a fairly good command of English. She constructed mostly simple sentences with a few grammatical errors which did not interrupt text comprehension. The meaning was conveyed, thereby the text communicated effectively with the writer's purpose of introducing herself to the forum.

Example 2: a student with an average-good proficiency in English

Have u ever seen the bicennial man yet?.. i have seen it already...it's fun and it will make u cry all the time when u see it..it's about robot who want to be a human ..In this story , u can see how he's trying to be a human and have anything that human have..i think....he's so poor !! because in the end of movie ..he will accepted to be a human but he can't wait for that words...he is programmed to be dead on that time...so sad !! : (I think..this movie present about many things that we didn't think about it before

...uhmmm it's not the beat but it can make u relax ...uhmm and about Life is beutiful that is a movie in M.'s mind...i love it too...make mee cry every time that i see it...uhmm bye ..see ya

Y.

Example 3: a student with an average-low command of English

I come back again with happy.Last week my friend and I went to Surathani provice .During the way I saw natural ,which river, animal, tree and mountain.It wonderful.I think that Thailand have something I do not know,Especially,My home town where Krabi provience .Do you know that it many island such as PEE PEE, MAYA,GUI, etc.I diven at GUI island and I saw coral,fish and shell.It very beautiful.So,I invite you come to Thailand . See you again .

B.

Example 2 and 3 are taken from two students with an average proficiency of English. On average, students were able to use complex sentence structure to communicate despite some linguistic mistakes. In the example 2, the writer performed on the task of telling the others about a recent film he/she had seen. The writing shows some

linguistic features of spoken discourse and a transfer of the writer's thread of thought as if it was through speaking. Example 3 presents a writer's attempt to tell people about a place he/she had recently visited. The language transfer from L1 is observed such as the missing of verbs (especially verb to be). In these two examples, however, the meanings of the messages were delivered across to the readers despite some constraints in linguistic features.

In contrast, the following example 4 illustrates a text written by a student with low English proficiency. Even though the writer was capable of using simple sentence structures, many linguistic mistakes were made that interrupted reading comprehension and resulted in communication difficulty. Furthermore, the message shows the writer's misunderstanding of the forum purpose. It was sent to the forum but vaguely addressed the author (then as a teaching assistant). This message did not fit in the situation where the audience of the forum expected to get to know other participants. Together with the language difficulty, this message was prone to communication failure.

Example 4: a student with low proficiency

hello,how are you ? i'm fine and i'm sorry,that, i slowly to sent message to you because that couldn't into your forum, but now i can into your forum.thank you for you tought gramma to me i feel my gramma is more good.

see you soon
bye

The population had computer access on the campus during normal working hours and out of working hours till 2130hrs. Most students had experience in computers although they varied from being a competent user to a very occasional user. Some had experience of the CAI program created by the CAI team at WU for reading purposes. All of them had used chat programs and email in both Thai and English.

Procedures

The students were arbitrarily divided into three groups of five. They participated in the forum by logging in and were asked to contribute a message at least once or twice a week. The discussion culminated in the writing of a composition about the same topic. The forum was also accessed by three other foreign participants

(competent although non-native speakers of English). These extra participants held the role as stimulators of the discussion and readers of the written drafts. The intended activities in the pilot study consisted of four steps.

In a group, participants (students and foreigners), had a general discussion on a topic to exchange ideas and share common understanding on the issue.

Then, students were to write a composition of 300-500 words about the issue being discussed, and submit it to the forum as a 'first draft' to be seen by others, who would read and give responses.

Thirdly, learners were to revise their draft, using the feedback, before resubmitting it as a 'second draft'. This would be considered the final draft and would be published on the Internet, globally accessible to anyone.

The forum also provided links to other language resources on the Internet such as websites related to grammar usage, writing sites and references such as dictionaries, and news reports, which participants could refer to when they wished.

A questionnaire was given to 10 participants. A primary aim was to gather general information on the use of the computer as well as attitudes and behaviour towards the use of English language rather than to evaluate the electronic discussion forum.

Outcomes

Each group discussed different topics based on their interest. Group one discussed movies, group two nature and places while group three did not discuss anything. Student participation was low in all groups. No one wrote a composition.

Eleven of the fifteen subjects actually contributed a message to the forum. The contributions varied, with the most frequent participation being once a week. Low participation resulted in low level of exchange and no written drafts for data collection. The sets of correspondences in the discussion forum are presented in Table 5-1, and the examples of these messages are shown in Appendix 3.

Table 5-1

The outcomes of pilot study

Group	Outcomes
Group 1	There were 24 messages from 25/01/00 to 15/02/00. The group received participation more than the others; the topic of interest was about movies/ films. The discussion went on for a while although the messages were quite short.
Group 2	There were 11 messages from 25/01/00 to 15/02/00. Apart from self-introduction, the discussion covered personal preference in nature and places. However, only one student participant contributed a message to the later part.
Group 3	There were 9 messages from 25/01/00 to 28/02/00. The messages exchanged were self-introductions.

Discussion and implications of the pilot study

The pilot study highlighted several factors that were taken into account for further adjustment of the plan. Results from the questionnaires suggested that students regarded their major study as a priority rather than this voluntary project although they all liked to use English and thought English was important. Only one student mentioned dislike of using the computer and the inconvenience of computer access on campus and he did not contribute to the forum.

Low participation in this pilot study could have been a result of factors such as priority and time, lack of motivation, low access to the Internet and time constraints of the research.

1) Priority and time

It can be extrapolated from the study that the voluntary aspect constrained the progress in data collection. Students always gave first priority to their own study in the classroom, or the courses that would give them credits, not to an extracurricular activity. In addition, the trimester system at WU could have made it inconvenient to be involved in an extra activity. According to the students, the term time was tight and they had to spend their time in preparing for their course work and mid-term exams.

2) Motivation

Motivation was lacking in this study due to several possible reasons. The discussion topics may not have interested participants. Second, familiarity with other participants may have reduced their eagerness to know the person via electronic communication. It was also much easier for them to communicate face-to-face on campus. In addition, the lack of rewards might have been another factor that reduced motivation. For example, students could have been given extra credit or monetary contributions. Volunteers were recruited from those who it was hoped would not worry about getting a reward. The interfaces of the website were designed for ease of use, but they might also have been too plain to keep the users' attention. The threads in the discussion forum might have become complicated with several layers of messages, although they were lined up in a chronological order with message threads.

3) Technical problems, Internet connection and access to the Internet

During the time in which the experiment was conducted, the support seemed a big obstacle in the pilot study because the Internet server had undergone reinstallation. It took a few days for the server to resume full function. The computer labs access time also compelled the students to give priority to their course work rather than other extra activities. For example, some labs were closed during lunch break, which could have been a time used by the students for the Internet.

4) Time constraints of the research study

Although the data collection was carried out in eight weeks, the first two weeks were required for administrative work and recruitment before the data collection could begin. As one might expect, it was difficult to recruit volunteers willing to take up extra work. The data collection was eventually carried out for only five weeks, during which there were problems with the Internet connection. On top of that, the last week was the mid-term exam week when students did not have much time for anything else. This short period of time did not generate enough data, especially

when some students did not contribute regularly or not more than once a week at the most.

Responses to the problems

The pilot study revealed facts about the situation at WU, which were later taken into account in the research design of the empirical study. The plan was amended according to the constraints exposed by the pilot study. Anticipation of potential difficulties was also increased. Several aspects were rethought including mainly the recruiting scheme and the network environments. More importantly, the pilot study gave more insights into the issues related to the university, English courses, students' attitudes and learning environment.

5.3 Research design and implementation

Adjustment of research design was made according to the results from the pilot study. Stages in conducting the study included preparation, fieldwork and follow-up study. These were done in the following time scales:

April-May 2000	Preparation
June – August 2000	Fieldwork
February 2001	Follow-up study

This section describes the particular design of the research method used in the fieldwork and the follow-up study. The design was based on the fundamentals and background previously described and the adjustment suggested in the pilot study. Details of the design presented in this section are population, research instruments and research methodology.

5.3.1 Population

Several criteria for selection of the population of this empirical study were altered after the previous survey in the pilot study. This specifically refers to a larger number of participants who shared a similar education background taking a writing course in the same classroom. An English IV (Writing) classroom of 34 students was selected

during the first academic term at WU in 2000. They were second year students from the Faculty of Management Sciences whose major study was Tourism. Two students dropped out in the third week, leaving the total number at the end as thirty-two. All participants were computer literate, that is basic PC users, but were not necessarily frequent Internet or email users. Previous exposure to using electronic mail and other computer-mediated communication was common among them. Throughout the study, the students are referred to as S01, S02,..., S32.

The group was chosen because they were the best among the twenty groups that had enrolled for English IV course that term, according to the course director (Moudraia: personal communication 2000). All but one expressed positive attitudes towards learning English. When asked what skill they thought they were best at, only one chose writing. Although the students had studied English for at least 8-9 years, their language proficiency was identified as low intermediate, according to the scheme of classification used in Thailand (Moudraia: personal communication 2000). Despite some difficulties, the students could communicate in English, were able to produce simple sentence structure while many of them had difficulties with complex structures. Various verb forms were used although mistakes were frequently made. Common mistakes were made from the spelling level, use of pronouns, preposition, choices of word, sentence formation, to the way ideas are expressed. Not only did the written products indicate students' limited ability to use the language efficiently, but they also displayed features of writing by unskilled writers such as weakness in composing a coherent text and unfamiliarity with academic writing. The excerpts 1-3 shown below illustrate common mistakes in lexical, syntactic and semantic levels, many of which were caused by the L1 influence. On the other hand, excerpt 4 also reflects the writing strategies employed by unskilled writers, i.e. direct borrow of language/ text and piecing together, and the unfamiliarity with academic writing, e.g. the format of references, the concept of plagiarism.

Excerpt 1: Healthy Food

There are several reasons why people like to consume health foods. Health foods are natural food without chemical ingredients which people buy because they consider them to be good for them. Some health foods are referred to as organic food, which means food are grown without chemical that kill animal or insect.

People choices about food are linked to ^{word choice} they physical needs, they environment and they emotions. Everybody needs foods but foods that they need ^{v.+ adj.} are ^{verb form} difference. It depend on ^{word choice} they body, they age, they sex and they activities.

The quantity of foods that people need ^{v.+ adj.} are difference , too. A kind of foods ^{sentence structure} that important for life such as carbohydrates, vitamins, fat, proteins, mineral and water. When people shop for health foods they will look for foods that they want and useful. For good health and long life people have to know that what kinds of foods are important for them.

Excerpt 2: Wedding traditions

... After that, it is the religious ceremony that ^{word choice} take in the church and both partners wear a gold ring on the fourth finger of the left hand during this time . A marriage license in Thai wedding ceremony will be take in anytime and anywhere but it ^{verb form/ spelling} much to have registrar , too

Excerpt 3: The role of rain forests

Rainforests ^{v. form} has many advantages to support ^{word choice} living. But now the rainforests ^{v. form} are destruction. There is effect destruction of rain forests. As to cutting wood in the forests can be drought because ^{expression} rainfall not to be in season. When the ^{word choice} rainfall to heavily the land cannot absorb the water, as result water overflows ^{v. / word} of river and very fast floods. That ^{word choice} they're damage to property and killing the ^{spelling/ v. form} men. Wild animals to be come extinct because the forests are damage such as, ^{Refer to?} a wild fire, cut down trees, to invade the forest, so it doesn't have a dwelling place. Addition In big cities don't have trees to absorb the air pollution. Therefore ^{word choice} the effect destruction of rain forests such as a drought, Flood, wild animal lift, and air pollution that ^{expression} there're to be in trouble for people.

Excerpt 4: Popular activities in summer

There are several popular activities in summer. ^[borrowed/ no coherence] The plan must show the location of the areas and access roads proposed (Jensen R., 1995) Popular activities in summer such as activities ^{Prep.} in outdoor and activities at indoor. The activities in outdoor such as diving, hinging, boating, fishing, jungle tour, ^[borrowed/ no coherence] surfing and mountain-bike etc. Diving is endlessly fascinating with thousands of colorful fishes and other animal and breathtaking underwater vistas. (Robert L., 1991) Diving is very popular because ^{word choice} it's challenge. Hiking is exiting experience because ^{expression/ L1} it has to use concentration to play it. Boating and fishing fit with ^[expression] someone who want to peaceful. Surfing is water sport, it use surfboards for ^{spelling} play with ware in the sea. Jungle tour and camping are popular very much in

eco- tourism because tourist can stay there along time so that ^{word form} hold the natural.

Mountain-bike is another challenge sport because driver must situate, expert and experience to play it. Besides activities at outdoor such as shopping,

cooking, see movies and play music etc. ^[borrowed/ no coherence] There are the Central cooking school if someone wants to learn about the ingredients letting them taste before they cook so they can better understand the food. (Bangkok Airway, vol.2no.10)

For all activities in indoor are interesting for someone who like ^[expression] activities are comfortable or don't have leisure time.

^{Expression/ L1} From all the above are popular activity and it useful in vacation for everybody it can get experience, concentration, situates and important thing is enjoyable with activity.

5.3.2 Instruments

The instruments used to collect data consisted of the online environment, questionnaires, the interview and the author's diary.

1) Online environment

The online environment was altered from the pilot study. However, the empirical study maintained the same principles and applied a web-based suite to implement an online part in coordination with the writing course. The designed setting included at least these basic elements:

- a website to which students could submit the assignment
- interactive platforms for discussion and feedback
- outside or external readers (whose roles were to stimulate the discussion and respond to the writings)

The web-based suite that supported the design was Blackboard CourseInfo, provided by Blackboard Inc. (www.blackboard.com). It was the most powerful suite that was present at the time of the study. Technical features of the suite are illustrated in detail in 5.3.2.1. Additionally, communication with peer readers was also made possible. These peers took significant roles in the course as an audience and participants in the discussion forum. Details about readers are given in 5.3.2.2.

2) Questionnaire

The questionnaire was conducted as a follow-up study five months after the actual project (February 2001). The study was delayed due to two reasons. First, the questionnaires were sent through electronic medium, but students' co-operation was low and only two students returned the questionnaires. Second, the funding to gather the data on site was postponed until the later stage. It was aimed at obtaining general information on students' background, prior exposure to NBC, and learning behaviours related to the computer and English language, as well as an investigation into their attitudes towards learning, the use of NBC, preferences on writing process,

and the project in particular. The questionnaire, as shown in the Appendix 4, was conducted in Thai, containing some open-ended questions and some 1-5 grading scale questions ranging from least, little, moderate, lots, most.

3) Interview

The interview was conducted in Thai as part of the follow-up study. It was intended to investigate the subjects' attitudes and learning behaviours. This would support the analysis of the study and give a different dimension to the written data collected. The design was not for retrospective information on the revisions. The interview was a 20-minute, unstructured, casual talk with each student, framed by some specific questions of which the guidelines are given in the Appendix 5. The interview was directed by the students' responses and was also related to part of the questionnaire and was used to confirm the answers given by the students.

4) Diary

The diary was a live record of what was going on during the experiment. It was mainly related to the online environment and particularly the discussion forum. The chronological diary gave an insight into perspectives and attitudes at the time of the event, making the analysis more precise.

5.3.2.1 The technical online course features: Eng4Wr

Blackboard CourseInfo was chosen as the online environment and was a primary means of data collection. The author was a teaching assistant who organised the online course, which was registered as **Eng4Wr** at the following website: <http://courseinfo.blackboard.com/courses/Eng4Wr/>. The course architecture was simple. Tools were easy to use. Course content could be easily uploaded to the technical shell. Many features in this web-based course tool corresponded to the design of the study such as the assignment dropbox, discussion forum and the email feature. Communication was feasible both in synchronous and asynchronous modes.

The architecture of the tools applied in the course **Eng4Wr** included pages and links. Major pages were announcement, course information, staff information, course

documents, assignments, communication, external links and student tools. A screen shot example of the course features is in Figure 5-3, illustrating the **Eng4Wr** course as seen by a student user. Two panes are seen. The left pane consists of links and contained the main navigation bar. The right pane is the main content area. More screenshots can be viewed in Appendix 6.

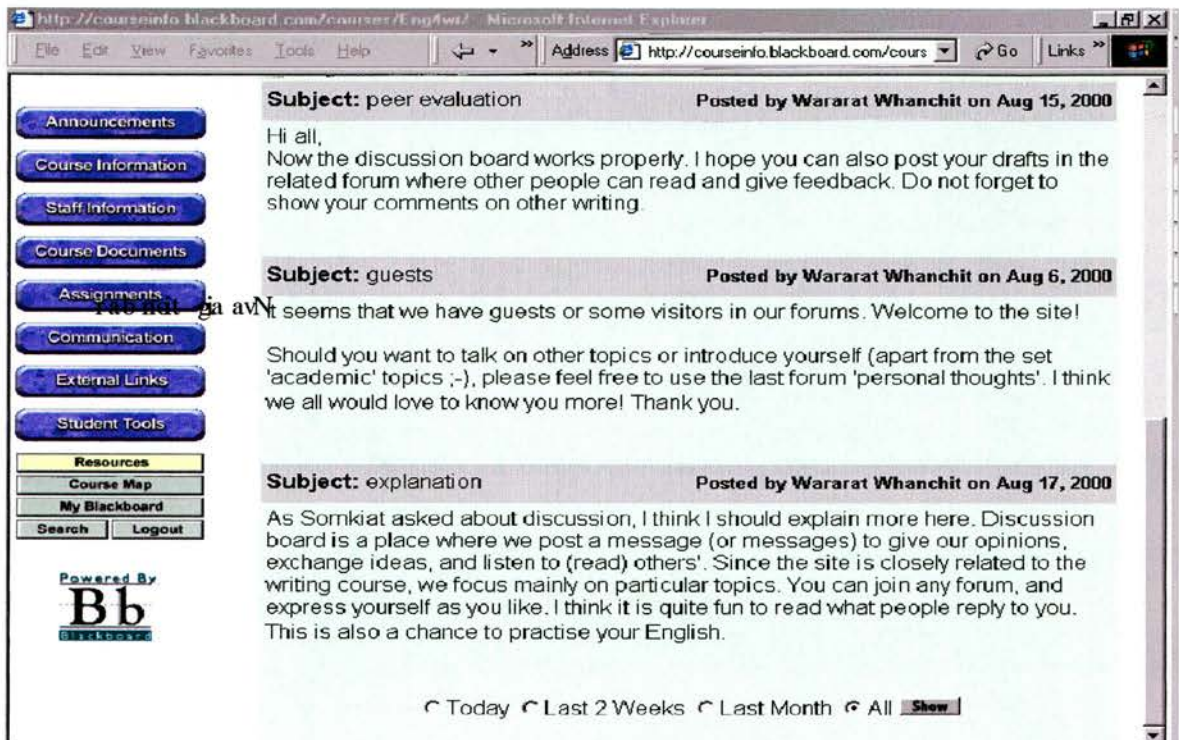


Figure 5-3 A screenshot of the main navigation pane and the announcement page

Announcement

This was the first page of the website once the user logged in and entered the course. The course instructor could post a notice or announcement to the students. Users or students would be notified of a newly posted notice. The announcements were displayed with the date being posted.

Course information

The area was used for general information about the course, course description, and a brief guideline on attending the class.

Course documents

Since course documents were mainly given in the classroom, this page was then used to give the assignment lists and their submission date instead.

Assignments

This page was taken as a presentation area. Folders were added onto the page, containing different files of students' writing under the topics.

Communication

Communication links led to email (with email addresses of course users provided) and the discussion board. The discussion board was the main page used for communication and submission of assignments. It contained ten forums based on the topics of the writing tasks. Drafts written by the students were posted on the discussion forum where other users read and gave comments. The page displayed the number of messages with the indication of new ones. All users could post and reply to a message as they wished. Message threads were hierarchically displayed together with the date sent. Within a message, users could easily attach a file which would be accessible to other users in the forum via the link. This function supported the mechanism of the research study. The forum view is displayed in Figure 5-4 and Figure 5-5.

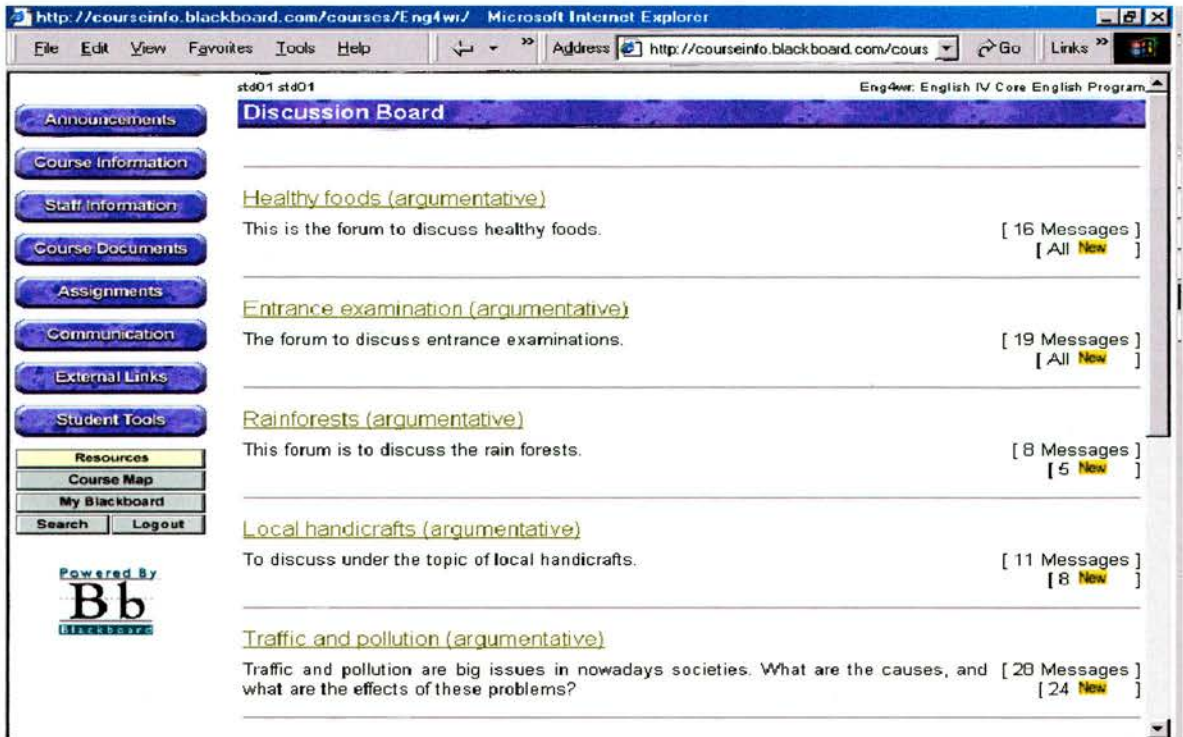


Figure 5-4 The discussion forum

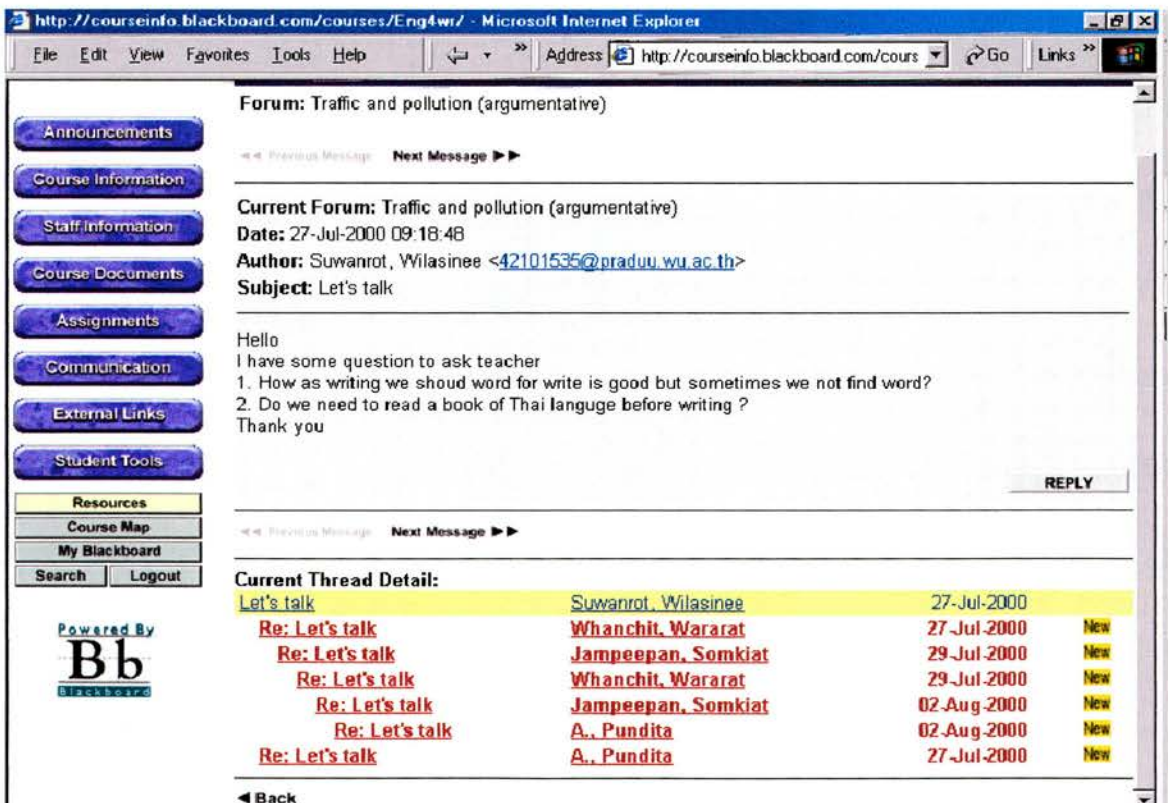


Figure 5-5 The discussion threads

Student tools

The student tool was another necessary function in the study because it was a means of submitting the assignment and receiving comments. Documents sent to students would also go to an individual's personal box for incoming mail so that they could be picked up whenever possible.

Even though students were requested to submit their drafts through the forum, in actual practice submission to the dropbox tended to be more popular, especially with assignments other than the drafts including brainstorming, notecards, and outlines. What users had to do was to upload a file and name the link to it. The instructor then could open or download the file to her computer. When the assignment was submitted through the box, the course instructor would forward the drafts to the forum.

Other features available in the tool page were related to students' own use such as students' manuals, calendars and home pages. These functions were not required for the research design. Therefore, the main feature used in this page was the dropbox only.

External Links

Links provided by the researcher in this page were categorised into news, dictionaries, writing, grammar, and online exercises. This was designed as an extended feature, from which students could benefit.

Technical features of **Eng4Wr** as supported by the course tool corresponded to the research design. Despite simple navigation of the online course, the students were given a manual (Appendix 6) so that the same framework could be maintained.

5.3.2.2 The readers

As previously mentioned, the study sought human-human interactions through the network environment. The readers' roles were to stimulate the online discussion and give feedback on the writing, based on the guidelines given (see Appendix 7). This section describes the recruitment of the readers, readers' roles and tasks.

Recruiting the readers

The readers voluntarily joined the project partly because they were the author's acquaintances. Two groups of readers were involved in two phases of the course according to the genres (expository and argumentative writings). The high workload observed in phase one led to adjustments in phase two.

In Phase 1 (expository writing), four native speakers of English originally agreed to participate in discussion forum for expository writing, but one resigned from the project in the second week due to technical problems with the network connection. Thus, there were three readers in phase one.

In Phase 2 (argumentative writing), the forum was open to the public to encourage students' participation. Five readers took part in the forum. Four were non-native speakers of English who had high English proficiency and had resided in an English speaking country for at least three years. One person was unknown because he (or she) joined the forum by public access provided to anybody and did not introduce him/herself.

Table 5-2

External readers

Phase of study	Readers	Nationality	First language	Background in ELT
Phase 1	A	British	English	No
	B	British	English	Yes
	C	British	English	Yes
Phase 2	D	Thai	Thai	No
	E	German	German	Yes
	F	Swiss	French	Yes
	G	Korean	Korean	No
	H	Not known	Not known	Not known
Phase 1-2	I	Thai	Thai	Yes

The table indicates that the author took part in both phases. While the author was aware that participation in one's own research might result in biased research data, it was necessary that the author should be there in the set environment taking up the roles limited to the following:

Case one: The author as a teaching assistant (TA) gave evaluative feedback for the final draft.

Case two: The author replaced other readers in giving response to the writer if any reader was unable to give feedback in time.

Case three: The author took the role of a supervisor to ensure the dynamic discussion according to the plan and framework. If needed she stimulated the discussion by posting questions or replying to those questions related to the course.

Readers' roles

In the **Eng4Wr** environment, the readers took part as guides or more competent peers. They had two major roles: as stimulus in the discussion forum and as an audience responding to the writings.

1) As a stimulus, the readers participated in the discussion forum and offered their ideas, argued or exchanged experiences related to the topics. The aim was to foster human-human interactions that might lead to the incorporation of language and ideas.

2) As an audience, the readers read the writing compositions in the forum and provided responses or feedback. This role promoted collaborative work, which could be generated by the feedback in the revision process. Ideally, feedback was given in two stages prior to a call for the writers' revision, that is, stage one-- between the first and second drafts; and stage two between the second and third. In theory, revisions were expected to be the writer's response to the readers' comment. A parallel audience consisting of peer students, i.e. classmates, who also attended the online discussion forum and gave feedback to other writers as a peer evaluation activity. This was done during, but not limited to, the peer review. One classroom session was allocated for peer review activity.

The readers' workloads

The original plan was that the readers join the discussion forum in their own time and give feedback to seven drafts in each stage. Seven drafts were assigned to each reader usually under the same topic when possible. The purpose of the topic basis was to minimise the differences in commentary by different readers in each forum.

Feedback was given in two stages by peer readers. The TA responded to the final drafts and sent out evaluation to the students. In reality, however, some changes were made when one reader had problems and failed to respond to the drafts. The TA took over the work assigned to that reader while other drafts were distributed as planned.

To maintain the standard of feedback and to tie the online forum with the Writing Course, the guidelines and time schedule were given to the readers. The guidelines suggested the readers to provide feedback concerning the content, the organisation and the language use in the drafts.

5.3.3 Research Methodology

The method of collecting data included two stages: the fieldwork (June-September 2000) and the follow-up study (February 2001).

5.3.3.1 Fieldwork

The fieldwork of this empirical study strictly followed the course outline of English IV: Writing. This section describes the procedures and the tasks and the time schedules related to the writing course.

The Procedures

1. Students attended two tutorials per week of English Writing Course on campus given by Dr. Moudraia. They followed the mainstream course instruction in class and assignments as normal. At the same time, they joined **Eng4Wr** online course at <http://courseinfo.blackboard.com/courses/Eng4wr/>, attended the online discussion, wrote an essay, submitted the assignments, read peers' writing and provided peer review.
2. The discussion groups were based on the topics of interest as suggested by the classroom assignments.
3. Students submitted the assignment as the first draft to the discussion area where other people could see and give comments.

4. Students revised their work (also called stage 1 of revision), preferably making use of the feedback to improve it; then they resubmitted it as the second draft.
5. Feedback was given on this second draft, which was intended to result in revision for the final draft (stage 2 of revision).
6. The final drafts were moved to the presentation area on the course, classified according to the topics. This was opened to guest access.

Writing Tasks

Integration with the writing course meant that the online activities were dependent on the course outline. Implementation of the online project was limited to these frameworks.

1. *Topics*: The writing topics as suggested in the classroom handouts included Rain Forests, Healthy Foods, Entrance Examination, Local Handicrafts, Traffic and Pollution, Higher Education, Wedding Tradition and others (one's own).

2. *Tasks*: The students were required to complete two tasks. Each task consisted of several assignments, all of which had to be submitted online. The tasks were aimed at students undergoing the different stages in producing a piece of writing. The students needed to have done planning, keeping notes, writing rough draft and revising before a final draft was written.

Task A	Task B
Expository writing	Argumentative writing
Brainstorming	Brainstorming
Notecards	Notecards
First draft	Outline
Second draft	First draft
Final draft	Second draft
	Final draft

Schedule

Timetable and activities: The on-line course was co-ordinated with the actual classroom sessions taught by Dr. Moudraia. Classroom activities also included the online peer review set in a classroom session. In that classroom session, the students took part in the forum, read and commented on peers' writing. Note that peers were supposed to do this activity in their own time outside the classroom during the whole course. Table 5-3 shows the course schedule and the tasks details.

Table 5-3

Course schedule

Phase	Date	Task	Task type	Activity
Expository Writing	15-22 June	1	Brainstorm	Gather ideas for expository writing task
	23-27 June	2	Notecards	Discuss Write notes or outline
	30 June -3 July	3	First draft	Write the first draft, submit it to the forum
	3-6 July	4	Feedback/ revision publication	Get feedback and revise the first draft
	6 July	5	Peer review	Respond to peers' writing (in one classroom session)
	7-10 July	6	Second draft	Writer revise their first draft, submit the second draft
	10 July	7	Feedback	Discuss and give feedback
	13 July	8	Final draft	Write the final draft
Argumentative Writing	19 July	9	Brainstorm	Gather ideas for the argumentative writing task
	19-24 July	10	Writing outline	Discuss, make notes or outline
	7 August	11	Draft	Write a first draft of argumentative essay
	7-10 August	12	Revision	Get feedback and revise the first draft
	10 August	13	Second draft	Submit the second draft
	10-17 August	14	Revision	Revise the second draft
	17 August	15	Final draft	Submit the final draft

5.3.3.2 Follow up study (February 2001)

The follow-up study refers to the questionnaires and unstructured casual interviews conducted in Thai, five months after the fieldwork to obtain attitudinal data. The study investigated these areas:

- general attitudes about English language learning
- learners' activities related to English language and computers
- how the learners felt about using the NBC and peer responses
- whether NBC encouraged students to be active learners
- what writing strategies the learners used while writing in the online course
- attitudes about the project, which was the integrated online course
- preferences on feedback in their writing
- preferences of using a network-based computer for language learning

It was interesting to explore whether the NBC and collaborative work would establish positive attitudes towards language learning. Attitude, as is known, is the first factor that encourages learning. Positive attitudes towards the activity most likely would result in willingness to participate and to learn. It was possible that learners felt uncomfortable receiving negative comments from a public forum using the online environment. This could be related to the cultural background which might have caused difficulty in expressing ideas that were different from the others. This could have led to the curbing of thoughts, which would have had a negative impact on the learning process. The interview also covered the students' attitudes about the writing process, revision, feedback and the overall course.

5.4 Method of data analysis

Data analysis was conducted on different data sets in order to find out how the environment affected the written products during the course. The section explains the means used to approach data in each group: written products, feedback, discussion, questionnaire and interview, statistical records of the network environment, and the researcher's diary.

5.4.1 Written products

The written products, also termed drafts, were the major data collected in the field work. It was assumed that during the revision process, writers made changes. These changes could be identified by comparing the successive drafts. Analysis of the draft was made in two stages: general examination and specific occurrences related to revision.

1) General examination (quantity and feature of text)

General investigation refers to quantity and features of the written texts. The number of words in each draft was counted by using the word counter in a word processor. The word counts included only the text and excluded the title and references. The features of the texts being examined were rhetorical patterns and linguistic features particularly the use of conjunctions such as cohesive ties.

2) Specific occurrences (t-units)

In the second stage, the changes made between the drafts were investigated by cutting the texts into minimal terminable units (t-units). T-units accommodated the comparison of changes in successive drafts (in 5.4.1.1). Then taxonomies adapted from different studies were applied in the study of the revision stage in this study (see 5.4.1.2).

5.4.1.1 Minimal Terminable Units (T-units)

T-unit or minimal terminable unit is a measure of the linguistic complexity of sentences, defined as the shortest unit (the Terminable Unit, Minimal Terminable Unit, or T-Unit) which a sentence can be reduced to, and consisting of one independent clause together with whatever DEPENDENT CLAUSES are attached to it.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics: 1999)

The term minimal terminable unit or t-unit is used in the current study to simplify the analysis of the text, both in terms of content and structure rather than to measure syntactic complexity and taken as a 'sign of increased proficiency' as conventionally used (Biber et al 1998). It is not always possible in this study to judge a t-unit as "...an independent clause and all its related modifiers" (Cooper et al, 1984: 27). However, the definition of t-unit has been modified to suit the texts in this study, as explored in further sections.

The application of minimal units in this study

Based on the definition above, sentences in all drafts excluding the bibliography are transcribed into t-units and coded in three digits as an identity code. The first number indicates the draft labels (first, second or third), and the following two digits are the unit number. The following sample shows expository drafts by a student, presented as original.

- 101 *There are four steps to prepare yourself for entrance examination.*
- 102 *First, quickly read over your notes the evening of the day of your lesson(Day one).*
- 103 *Then wait one day.*
- 104 *After that revise again.*
- 105 *Set yourself some question about your notes.*
- 106 *Write them down.*
- 107 *Try to answer those question without looking at your notes.*
- 108 *Write down the answers on another sheet of paper.*
- 109 *Check whether your answers were right or not.*
- 110 *Finally wait seven days and then repeat the steps of revising again.*
- 111 *All of the step above the result almost certainly be able to remember 75% of what you studied on Day one.*

- 201 *There are four revision steps to prepare yourself for an entrance examination.*
 202 *First, quickly read over your notes the evening of the day of your lesson (Day One).*
 203 *Then wait one day.*
 204 *After that revise again.*
 205 *Set yourself some questions about your notes [no punctuation]*
 206 *Write them down.*
 207 *Try to answer those questions without looking at your notes.*
 208 *Write down the answers were right or not.*
 209 *Finally wait 7 days and then repeat revision steps again.*
 210 *All of these steps the result almost certainly be able to remember to 75% of what you studied on Day one.*
 211 *Make sure that you space out your revision time throughout the school year.*
 212 *Don't leave it all to the last minute.*
 213 *Prepare yourself mentally and physically to increase your chances of passing the entrance examination. (Jandamit,Helen,1999)*
- 301 *There are four revision steps to prepare yourself for an entrance examination.*
 302 *First, quickly read over your notes the evening of the day of your lesson (Day One).*
 303 *Second, wait one day.*
 304 *Third, revise again.*
 305 *Set yourself some questions about your notes.*
 306 *Write them down.*
 307 *Try to answer those questions without looking at your notes.*
 308 *Write down the answers on another sheet of paper.*
 309 *Check whether your answers were right or not.*
 310 *Finally, wait seven days and then repeat in third step again.*
 311 *All of these steps the result almost certainly be able to remember 75% of what you studied on Day One.*
 312 *Make sure that you space out your revision time throughout the school year.*
 313 *Don't leave it all to the last minute.*
 314 *Prepare yourself mentally and physically to increase your chances of passing the entrance examination. (Jandamit, 1999)*

It is important to note that not all the sentences in the study are as straightforward as most of the units above. As a result, the t-unit constructions vary with the author's judgement based on the comprehension.

Construction of the minimal units

Since the texts were written by low proficiency EFL students, a sentence was not always complete. There were very often noun phrases, verb phrases, or incomplete clauses instead of a complete sentence. To make the analysis of written composition possible and to facilitate the comparison of drafts for detection of changes, extended criteria for a t-unit was drawn. This included any incomplete or incorrect sentence that possibly contained a verb or that conveyed a meaning (when there is no verb in it). This latter case, however, depended greatly on how the author interpreted what

the writer wanted to say, including missing punctuation. Therefore, the minimal unit referred to in this study may not always reach universal standard criteria. Some examples of the complete and incomplete minimal units as accepted in the study follow:

Examples 1: S14

- 203 [no space]Carbohydrates are the most calories for human
204 and they are good for combustion system
205 and they do not have an effect to body.

This example contains three complete units in one sentence as determined by the writer.

Example 2: S23

- 108 Brown smog, it happens in city that the weather is dry and warm such as Bangkok,
Mexico and Los Anger list,
109 most cities have cars too much and traffic is very bad,
110 brown smog is same fog
111 and it is danger with eyes and plants.

This example contains four t-units in one sentence.

Example 3: S27

- 206 Grain products such as bread , cereal , rice and corn which are composed largely of carbohydrates .

This example has one t-unit although the clause contains no verb.

- 305 Fats against shock , maintenance of body temperature , healthy skin and hair for example oil, butter and cheese .

This example has one t-unit although it is merely a noun phrase.

Example 4: S32

- 104 Noise pollution especially at businees quarter, capital, tourist place and the highway to dangerous to people that the vicinity.

This unit is grammatically deviant, but it carries a meaning.

The justification of minimal units in the study

The basis of application of minimal t-units in this study is two-fold. First, it facilitates the text investigation at the revision level. T-units are helpful when

combined with other taxonomies in the study of revision (Bridwell 1980, Faigley and Witte 1981, 1984), (as discussed in 3.4), which look at different operations in the revision process such as deletion, addition, substitution and reordering in different linguistic levels. The taxonomies were originally based on a sentence, which would not have been applicable with the texts written by the students in this study due to ungrammatical structure. The use of t-units allows texts to be simplified and processed in further stage of analysis, as also found helpful in other studies (Cooper et al 1984, Polio and Knibloe 1999). Second, minimal t-units will also be exploited at a later stage to investigate the quality of the writing. This will be done through the number of error-free t-units.

If the sentences were not cut into smaller units, the investigation would have been more complicated due to the writing styles and (low) proficiency of these L2 writers. As mentioned before, the subjects were on average at the low intermediate level and so may find it difficult to construct a complex sentence. Most likely, the sentences were written as they would be written in Thai, regardless of the complications that may cause, and (in)comprehensibility when literally translated into English. This includes different characteristics and typology of the two languages, such as the use of punctuation, lexical choices, syntactic order and sentential arrangements, as well as the organisation of the drafts.

5.4.1.2 The revision classification scheme

There have been many influential studies looking at scheme to classify revision (Sommers 1978, Bridwell 1980, Ziv 1984, Faigley and Witte 1981, 1984). The major model modified for this particular study is based on the study of Bridwell (1980), which viewed the revisions at different linguistic levels. An attempt was also made to use the taxonomy by Faigley and Witte (1981, 1984) to trace changes that altered the meaning of a text. However, their taxonomy was rather advanced and would not fit the level of learners' performance in this study. Therefore, the taxonomy by Faigley and Witte was applied only roughly to judge whether the meaning of the text was made, and whether or not that affected the quality of the written products.

The revision process was studied at two stages: between the first and second draft (Stage 1), and between the second and the final draft (Stage 2). That was due to the aim of this online environment to view the changes in the written draft. While the importance of in-process revisions is well-known and some studies did investigate four stages of two-draft revision (Faigley and Witte 1981, 1984, Paulus 1999), they were not considered in this study as it was not possible to keep track of these changes.

Bridwell's taxonomy: Revision process on linguistic levels

Adopted from Bridwell's classifications (1980), the method was dominant in this study because it was suitable for the context (as described in 3.4). Changes were looked at in terms of text spans including form, word, phrase, clause, sentence, multiple-sentences and text level. The system identifies each change in detail as coded in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4**Coding scheme for revisions**

1 surface level	11	spelling
	12	punctuation
	13	capitalization
	14	verb form
	15	abbreviation vs full form
	16	symbol vs full form
	17	contraction vs full form
	18	singular vs plural
	19	morphological conditioning
	110	internear and marginal notations related to any of the above
	66	indentation*
67	de-indentation*	
2 lexical level	21	addition
	22	deletion
	23	substitution (synonym, pronoun)
	24	order shift of single word
	25	expansion of word to phrase
	26	interlinear and marginal notations related to single words
3 phrase level	31	addition
	32	deletion
	33	substitution/ alteration
	34	order shift of complete phrase
	35	expansion of phrase to clause
	36	reduction of phrase to word
	37	interlinear and marginal notations related to phrases
4 clause level	41	addition
	42	deletion
	43	substitution/ alteration
	44	order shift of complete clause
	45	expansion of clause to sentence, or from a dependent to an independent clause (includes de-coordination)
	46	reduction of clause to word or phrase
	47	interlinear or marginal notations related to clauses
5 sentence level	51	addition
	52	deletion
	53	substitution/ alteration
	54	order shift of complete sentence
	55	expansion of sentence to multi-sentence or to complex sentence
	56	reduction of sentence to word, phrase or clause or simpler sentence (includes coordination)
	57	transformation
	58	interlinear or marginal notations related to sentence
6 multiple-sentence level	61	addition
	62	deletion
	63	substitution/ alteration
	64	order shift of two or more sentences
	65	reduction of two or more sentences into a single sentence (except those changes accounted for by category 5.6, clause, phrase, or word)
	68	interlinear or marginal notations related to multiple sentences
7 text level	71	change in function category of essay
	72	change in audience category of essay
	73	change in overall content of the paper with no-one-to-one correspondences
	74	total re-write of essay with few correspondences between sentences
	75	change in the main idea or focus of the content, but keep the topic and the conclusion (the correspondent units are examined for revision)

The taxonomy was extended to include minor details, such as spacing (categorised as [12] punctuation) and changes in the use of references (categorised as [37]). Spacing might have been treated as very trivial in other studies (Bridwell 1980, Paulus 1999), while it is considered a sign of language competence; not just a typing feature in this study. Spacing between words was observed to see how and whether an EFL writer is aware of the proper use of this function or would recognise the form of the target language that is different from their native language. Since in Thai spacing is not very important and words are usually written right after the other until certain content is accomplished, some Thai learners may not recognise a proper format in English, such as to space after a punctuation or brackets. It was expected that having interactions in written form with more competent users, EFL learners would cultivate the correct format of English writing.

To define a revision at sentence level, the primary consideration was given to a sentence as punctuated by the student. Flexible criteria of determining a t-unit were also used. The multiple-sentence level refers to a revision that occurred within two or more consecutive sentences. Each t-unit involved is tallied as one. Note that the revision types [66] and [67] the indentation and de-indentation are regarded as belonging to the format category in the current study despite them being considered multiple sentence level in the original study (Bridwell 1980). The modified taxonomy suits the data in this study due to text sizes, which contained usually only one paragraph.

At text level, revision coded [73] refers to the draft with a major text change, leaving no one-to-one correspondence to tackle. The whole text is counted as one revision. The maintenance of a few t-units together with large scale text changes would be considered as a single revision belonging to the [74] category. The maintained corresponding units were examined and total number and type of changes made were noted. The system was modified to include [75], which was found in this study. Such revision at text level caused major change in content although the writer kept the topic and conclusion of the text. Corresponding units were also investigated and tallied. An example of coded texts is at the end of the section.

The taxonomy led to a systematic analysis, not as complicated as it looks. Categories of revision of text in different linguistic levels facilitated the investigation since these text spans were easier to trace back to the comments, making it easier to determine if the feedback had any effect.

Faigley and Witte's taxonomy

The taxonomy initiated by Faigley and Witte (1981, 1984) was applied in this study additional to the previous system. The aim was to examine the effects of revision on the text meaning, which could be probably linked to the incorporation of ideas being suggested in the feedback of a preceding draft.

Faigley and Witte focused on whether or not the revisions affected the meaning of the text, which was successfully applied in various studies such as Paulus' recent study (1999) on the revision process of ESL students. The taxonomy identified changes made on two main levels: surface changes and meaning changes. In the meaning changes, further investigation was made into stating which level of meaning was being changed, locally or globally, referred by them as microstructure and macrostructure (Faigley and Witte 1984). The six operations in the revision process included additions, deletions, substitutions, permutations, distributions, and consolidation.

It was foreseen that the texts written by low-proficient writers in this study might constrain the taxonomy if fully adopted. Therefore, Faigley and Witte's taxonomy was selectively adopted, including operation means, and consideration of meaning change. The investigation in meaning changes in text would be incorporated while evaluating the overall quality of the text (error-free t-units).

Example of coded texts

	S16: Handicrafts				FX	CM			FX	CM
101	There are many kinds of handicrafts in Thailand .	201	<p>There are many kinds of handicraft in Thailand.	[66] [18] [12sp]						
102	[no sp]In Thailand crafts are important so much because it is a symbol of Thai rule.	202	Crafts are part of Thai life from past until nowadays,	[12sp] [57]			301		[18]	
103	All of people in local can make crafts.	203	it's a symbol of Thai culture.	[45] [23]			302		[11] [11]	
104	Handicraft can divide into tree part: craft use in ceremonial purpose,	204	A lot of people in Thailand can make crafts.	[23][3]	P[23]	<CM161>	303		[23]	
105	Handicraft can divide into tree part: craft use in ceremonial purpose,	205	Handicrafts in Thailand can divide into tree part: crafts use in ceremony, crafts use in daily life and crafts use for gift.	[31]	P[31] (clear content)	<CM163>	304		[23]	
106	all of crafts are beauty, durable and it must a good thing.	206	The handicrafts in ceremony, many of crafts serves a ceremony purpose (Cambel,1981)	[51]			305		[33]	
107	For example a candle in Kaopansa Day, Kratong in Loykratong Day.	207	all of them are beauty and durable because Thai people think it's send to Bhuda or Thai gods.	[23] [43]			306		[32][37]	
108	Crafts use in life, all of them make by natural equipment.	208	Crafts use in daily life, a large use in daily life are easy scale and strong.	[42] [21] [23] [65]			307		[11]	
109	It have easy scale and strong.	209	A lot of crafts make from natural equipment for example basket from water hyacinth, table from bamboo.	in (208)			308		[23] [32]	
110	There varieties for example basket from water hyacinth, table from wood, etc.	210	Another one crafts use for gift, all of them are beauty because it use for tourist or visitor.	[57]			309		[23] [18] [31] [41]	
111	Another one craft use for gift, it's beautiful because use for tourist or visitor.	211	Although chemical crafts have largely taken now but natural crafts has increase lately (Moey,1993).	[18] [13] [23] [21]			310		[23] [12] [21] [22]	
				[51] [31rf]			311		[11] [rf]	

5.4.2 Feedback

Feedback from readers, peers, and teachers on the student writers' revision process is significant in this study. All comments were accumulated. Each comment was coded according to the student identity number to which the comment was given. For example, <CM011> refers to the comment given to S01 and was numbered as one (from all comments to S01). Comment coded <CM134> was a comment given to S13 and this particular piece was number four for S13. The major analysis on feedback was performed on the types of moves applied from Mirador's study (2000). In addition, other means applied included the characteristics of the feedback, identification of whether feedback was text-specific or generic, and whether or not it requested a revision.

5.4.2.1 The moves of feedback

The moves of feedback used by Mirador (2000) were applied to this study in order to examine the overall impression of feedback given to the writing (see also 3.4). The different features, however, should be noted. Mirador studied feedback by seven tutors to postgraduate students in content courses, not a composition classroom, whereas this study focuses on a composition writing course.

Based on Mirador's work (2000), the responses given to the writing were divided into 15 moves.

1. General impression (GI)

This move is usually found as an overview statement. The comment in this move covered general perception of the reader on both content and skill.

2. Highlighting strengths (HS)

The positive nature of the draft is emphasised by this move. This covers both writing skill and content. It may follow the general impression to magnify the strength of why the general impression is positive. It also happens on its own when the comment is specific.

Example *The conclusion/summary sentence at the end adds to the clarity of the report.*

3. Referencing (REF)

By referencing, a comment includes what was written to maintain the scope before either praising or giving suggestion.

Example *You write about three basic qualities of handicrafts,*

4. Calling attention to weakness (CAW)

The suggestion is made on the weak point of the draft, stating why the draft is not effective.

Example *Still, you have not used connecting words like first, in addition, lastly, or the like—that might help your readers to follow the ideas.*

Example *But is short.*

5. Suggestion for improvement (SUG)

This move recommends action that can be taken to improve the draft. It includes an explanation of why such action is necessary. Usually, the move has a proactive character asking for revision to occur.

6. Affective judgement (AJ)

This is related to personal judgement given to the draft, almost similar to the general impression, but usually 'I-directed' (Mirador 2000).

Example *I find the conclusion not so effective.*

Example *I think you are a good writer.*

7. Exemplification (EX)

In the current study, exemplification refers to the feedback that identifies a specific way to improve the draft, particularly by giving an example of what the writer should do to revise it. Therefore, it is usually a sequence of other moves, such as suggestion for improvement and probably general impression.

Example *I would like to know, for example, who makes these handicrafts and who buys them...*

Example *Combine sentence 1 and 2 by saying: The increasing vehicles in traffic are a cause of pollution by automobiles in big cities.*

8. Evidentiality (EV)

The evidence in the draft is referred to in the feedback, usually by quoting what was written, before moving on to a request for action. Therefore, this move always co-occurs with other moves such as surface correction.

Example *There are also some grammatical problems with definite and indefinite reference:
The Education method > Education methods
Mirror > a mirror*

9. Juxtaposition (JX)

Comments in this move are characterised as a seemingly favourable comment placed against a seemingly less favourable one. Usually, this kind of move starts with a positive comment followed by a negative tone in the same sentence.

Example *that good suggestion but please check again as organize.*

10. Positivising (PS)

According to Mirador (2000), positivising is identified when a seemingly positive comment is found between two less favourable comments. Usually, this move starts with a negative comment followed by a seemingly positive one.

Example *Your story so long but it clearly, you must cut some thing in paragraph and some word mistake.*

11. Probing (PR)

Probing is usually done by asking a question to lead the writer to further explore ideas to come up with changes to improve the draft. Probing type also includes other kinds of questions that the commentator requests to be addressed in the revision process.

Example *From your draft, what are the ways?*

Example *Why did you change most of the text from your first draft?*

12. Overall judgement (OJ)

This kind of comment provides an overall assessment of the draft. It is usually placed at the end of the feedback.

Example *Other than that ... the essay is much better.*

Example *However, your work is good.*

13. Surface correction (SF)

Comments refer to the evidence in the previous draft and calls for revisions of certain mistakes, usually followed by corrections. Sometimes, corrections are inserted directly in the drafts by using different font types. Most likely this covers the use of language.

Example *Rainforests has many advantages to support living. (S04)*

*Rainforest **have** many advantages **in their role of support life.** <CM041>*

14. Instruction (INS)

This type of comments implies an instruction of what a writer has to do, usually by using imperative form. Also, comments relating to the course requirements and suggestions on writing style (specified in the course) are included in this type. This type may occur together with other moves such as suggestion for improvement. Instruction has a nature of requesting a revision.

Example *Remember to use a capital letter when you start a new sentence!*

Example *Be careful of a sentence structure.*

Example *last name of the author must write before first name;*

Example *you have wrong word as prepare (CAW), check again (INS).*

15. Miscellaneous interactions (MC)

Miscellaneous interactions refer to other comments occurring in the discussion, most likely, as a result of NBC, such as greeting, introducing oneself, other expressions, general talks, and other requests not related to the drafts. Basically, this move covers any communication made during the correspondence and by nature not requesting a revision.

Example *Hi Ple!*

Example *Hello,*

Example *Could you also send the first draft to me again? I accidentally deleted the document. Sorry about this, and thank you.*

Study of moves in the commentary is one of the interesting fields in the teaching of writing. The study of moves in this context is not aimed at a perfect view of move study. Rather, it was expected that by looking at moves in a comment, one may identify types of feedback that the low proficiency students attend to. Communication through network also accounts for special features of the written language, which may result in effectiveness of interactions.

5.4.2.2 Particular characteristics of feedback

In order to conduct a complete analysis of the comments given by peers and other readers, the present study has been influenced by previous studies by Bridwell (1980), Sommers (1980), Faigley and Witte (1984), Ziv (1984), and Ferris (1995, 1997). Together with the use of moves, the comments are identified by their characteristics as to whether or not they are text-specific (TS), and whether or not there is a request (RQ) for revisions to be made. As a result of this, the comments made can be related to their effects on the revision process.

This method is necessary because not only does it identify whether a move needs revision, it also leads to whether the request is addressed in the revision process. Some moves, such as the verbal-like communication or positive general impression do not call for revision while surface correction or probing types would bring about some revisions. To make the analysis more precise, in some cases when applicable, the span of text being focused on was also taken into consideration. By this means,

one could detect more accurately whether the target was addressed at the requested level in the revised draft.

5.4.2.3 Examination of feedback effects

Based on two types of identification in the feedback, the comments were studied together with the t-units established in the study of the draft. Correlation of comments and changes in the drafts presumably would determine whether or not a comment has effect on the revision process. The effective comments were then accumulated to establish a direction of effective guidance for unskilled writers in this context.

Nature of comments by different audience groups

Parts of the analysis on feedback investigated the nature of comments given by different peer groups, which were readers, and peer students. The investigation was to find out how two peer groups with different levels of language proficiency gave comments, which type of comments were commonly used in which group and differences in the effects, if any.

5.4.3 Online participation (Eng4Wr)

The interactions that took place in the electronic environment were recorded and analysed from two sets of data in co-operation with the follow-up study. First, the on-line correspondences during the course were examined in term of students' contributions to the discussion. Students' degree of participation could be determined individually or as a whole by the number of correspondences in the online activities. The participation might indicate the level of motivation in attending the online environment.

Second, statistical records of users' access to the online environment could be retrieved from the online course and gave information on who was online on what day at what time. By generating specific records, it would be possible to investigate the involvement in the project and might lead to the understanding of certain

behaviours related to using the online course. The latter one refers to the time and day of the week that the course was mostly accessed. The statistics might also confirm the insights from the interview and questionnaire.

5.4.4 Questionnaire and interview

The questionnaires were conducted in association with the interviews (23 students) as a follow-up study. The combination of these two sets of data was used in qualitative analysis for the attitudinal study. Data obtained from this subset of students was extrapolated to fit all participants.

The information from the interviews was noted down but only partly tape-recorded due to technical problems during the data collection. Recorded tapes were listened to and noted. Study was conducted on the notes. Translation into English was done at the end of the analysis as a summary to present different details because mostly the group revealed similar points of view, and the study intended to investigate a holistic view, not an individual's perspective. This data set is presented together with the online participation in Chapter 8.

5.4.5 Diary

The author kept a diary during the time of the experiment. She made notes on unanticipated problems during the experiment, solutions to the problems, interactions on NBC, daily events, records of changes of plan or adjustment, records of students' participation in discussion forum, and communication with the students (including questions and attitudes by emails). All the information was used in the data presentation as part of the findings, and problem and solutions.

Chapter Conclusions

The chapter has presented the research design and methodology. The results from the empirical study are presented and discussed in the Chapter 6, 7 and 8.

6 The written texts and feedback

Presentation and discussion of the data from the empirical study is presented in the following three chapters (Chapter 6, 7, 8). The aim is to report the features of the written texts and feedback, to discuss the revision processes in EFL writing by undergraduates who participated in an on-line environment and to provide the insights of students' attitudes. The chapters mainly investigate five research questions (see 5.1.2 for details).

1. Does participation in a discussion forum via NBC affect students' writing performance?
2. Does exposure to feedback by peer groups affect students' revision process?
3. Is there evidence that students incorporate new ideas into their writing and/or change their language use and writing styles as a result of the interaction with the peer groups?
4. Does NBC affect students' writing attitudes and strategies?
5. Does NBC motivate students to use the target language?

Various methods of analysis were carried out as detailed in 5.4. The data presented and discussed in these three chapters are interrelated. They include the written drafts, the feedback, the online interactions, the questionnaires and the interviews, the statistical records and the research diary. Chapter 6 presents two initial sets of data obtained from the study: the written texts and feedback, which are fundamental in the investigation of the revision process. The written texts were analysed and general features such as quantity, rhetorical styles and basic linguistic features are presented here. Most importantly, the texts were transcribed into t-units as the first step for

further investigation into the revision processes, the result of which are presented and discussed in Chapter 7. The second section in this chapter looks at feedback and its features. These features will be referred to in Chapter 7 in the investigation of feedback effects on the revisions. In Chapter 8, students' participation in the online environment and their attitudes are discussed.

6.1 The written texts

Two types of academic writing were collected in two phases. These were expository and argumentative texts, as shown in Table 6-1. These written texts are referred to as 'drafts', and are labelled first draft, second draft and final draft. They are presented in this chapter in two formats: the quantity of the drafts and the t-units.

6.1.1 Quantity of the drafts

It had been expected that the complete set of data would include 96 drafts on expository writing from 32 subjects in phase one and 33 drafts of argumentative genre from 11 subjects in phase two. However, the data obtained in the study was incomplete. In total, 90 expository drafts and 17 argumentative drafts were collected. The rough details of these drafts are given in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1

Drafts: quantity and text length

SUBJECTS	Phase 1 Expository writing (words/paragraphs)			Phase 2 Argumentative writing (words/paragraphs)		
	Draft 1	Draft 2	Draft 3	Draft 1	Draft 2	Draft 3
S01	103/1	125/1	140/1	-	-	-
S02*	154/1	157/1	146/1	x	521/8	x
S03	380/3	592/11	322/2	-	-	-
S04	135/1	195/2	x	-	-	-
S05	159/2	x	x	-	-	-
S06	156/2	242/1	178/1	-	-	-
S07	206/1	264/2	167/2	-	-	-
S08*	115/1	462/3	153/1	536/7	1392/8	1169/8
S09	217/1	442/1	190/1	-	-	-
S10	x	210/1	141/1	-	-	-
S11*	157/2	248/2	237/2	x	515/8	x
S12	179/9	815/19	285/1	-	-	-
S13	110/1	155/1	210/4	-	-	-
S14	148/1	162/1	x	-	-	-
S15	161/1	187/1	122/1	-	-	-
S16*	126/1	172/1	180/1	x	695/5	x
S17*	152/1	189/1	177/1	x	x	462/5
S18	103/1	218/1	161/1	-	-	-
S19	168/1	195/1	197/1	-	-	-
S20*	160/1	x	166/2	358/6	515/5	x
S21	88/1	191/2	176/1	-	-	-
S22*	151/1	153/1	122/1	x	253/5	x
S23	230/1	307/1	298/1	-	-	-
S24*	130/1	144/1	143/1	x	442/5	427/6
S25*	117/1	132/1	129/2	x	419/5	513/5
S26*	89/2	162/1	95/1	x	338/5	x
S27	117/1	285/1	198/1	-	-	-
S28	221/10	364/11	300/1	-	-	-
S29	126/1	182/1	219/2	-	-	-
S30	140/6	286/1	244/1	-	-	-
S31	160/2	218/1	217/1	-	-	-
S32*	149/1	131/1	132/1	373/8	429/9	x
Average length	155.06/1.9	252.83/2.1	187.79/1.27	422.33/7**	511.2/6.3**	462.75/6**
Total drafts	31	30	29	3	10	4
Grand total	90			17		

* Students participated in both Phase 1 and 2

x Denotes no submission (see texts for explanation)

- Denotes the non-involvement of the students

** The values shown are not indicative of a classroom population due to a small sample size

The quantity of drafts displayed in the table suggests that an in-depth analysis could be appropriately conducted on the expository writing revisions. The data from phase two was incomplete for a reliable analysis. Therefore, from this point onward in this chapter, the major analysis is on the expository writing while the features of argumentative writing are referred to when relevant. The information in the table suggests several features regarding the drafts.

- 1) The text lengths produced by 32 students involved in expository writing were inconsistent. The shortest draft contained 88 words (S21) while the longest contained 815 words in nineteen paragraphs (S12). This high number of paragraphs was the result of a list of definition of nutrients. This could be a result of either the student's misunderstanding of the task or her unawareness of what constitutes a paragraph.
- 2) A continuing pattern was seen among successive drafts. Generally, the second drafts contained more words and more paragraphs compared to the other drafts. The final drafts were shorter than the second drafts, but not as short as the first ones despite having a smaller number of paragraphs. As far as the data allowed, this pattern could also be observed in the argumentative genre. In addition, both the number of words and paragraphs fluctuated between different drafts. Most of the final drafts were written in one paragraph.
- 3) The incomplete draft sets as revealed in the table can be explained by an investigation into the network-based correspondences, online environment, and the diary. The six missing pieces of expository writing were attributed to the following reasons:
 - S04 mistook the drafts, submitting the first draft in place of the final draft. Despite several attempts to contact S04, the author received neither a reply, nor the missing draft.

- S05 only submitted her first draft. Consequently, her data was considered inadequate and it was removed from further investigation.
 - While retrieving data submitted online in the DropBox in Blackboard CourseInfo, the author deleted S10's first draft file by mistake. The deleted file could not be restored. Attempts made to contact S10 for the draft to be resubmitted were not successful even though S10 continued submission for the other assignments.
 - S14 did not submit her final draft.
 - S20 submitted the assignment as a hard copy to the tutor of the course in the actual classroom instead of using the electronic facility for submission as agreed. Thus, the draft was not received for the study. S20 reported in the interview having problems with the computer system while trying to submit the assignment electronically.
- 4) The low submission rate in argumentative writing was due to voluntary participation.

6.1.2 Features of the texts

Focusing on the final draft as the end product, a simple text analysis was conducted to get an overview of rhetorical patterns and linguistic usage in the writings as displayed in 29 expository final drafts. A similar analysis was conducted on the 10 second drafts in the argumentative group. The reason for using the second drafts was the sample size.

6.1.2.1 Rhetorical patterns of the writing

The two types of academic writing while showing similarities differed in several aspects. The study of rhetorical patterns may lead to better understanding of how Thai EFL learners write a composition. Three aspects of the patterns of composition were looked at: the composition structure, the styles of writing a conclusion and the use of references.

a) Composition structure

Writing usually consisted of three parts: introduction and the thesis statement, body and conclusion, as taught in the writing course (Moudraia 2000: 4, 76). The use of a topic sentence or thesis statement was a part of the paragraph's organisational structure, which the students applied in their writing. A topic sentence outlines the main theme of a composition. An introduction functioned as a guide for a general overview on the subject and was usually relevant to the topic. Introduction usually contained one topic sentence and some supporting details rather than a long paragraph, most likely due to the emphasis being placed on the usage of a clear topic sentence or thesis statement. The pattern of composition structure as aimed in the course is illustrated in Appendix 8.

It should be noted that not all topic sentences and introductions were used effectively. It appeared that some topic sentences did not cover the main content of the composition or the introduction did not always correlate to what was being presented or what the aims of the writer were (e.g. S07, S09, S26).

Example 1

S26 wrote a composition about the effects of deforestation with this topic sentence:

Rainforest can protect soil erosion.

Example 2

S07 wrote the following topic sentence while describing Thai handicrafts.

Nang thalung shadow puppets theatre or nang yai in which huge hide shadow puppets narrate the Ramaya (Clutterbuck, 1995)

b) Writing a conclusion

Writing a good conclusion was another objective of the course. The study revealed that several types of conclusions were used. They included:

- 1) Repetition of the topic
- 2) Summary of the content
- 3) Concluding by giving new information, e.g. suggestion of consequences or solution

Although it appears that these patterns of conclusion were used in both composition types, pattern three was more widely used in argumentative writing (10 second drafts were studied instead of the final draft) while pattern one was more common among the 29 expository compositions. Students took a stance in their argumentative writing, which was quite unexpected since it has been reported in other studies that Asian students are prone to be inhibited (Bloch and Chi 1995, Connor and Kramer 1995).

Example 1

S23 concluded his second draft of argumentative composition by stating that:

Pollution cannot be solved successfully if everyone doesn't cooperate.

Example 2

S16 proposed that something need to be done to preserve Thai crafts.

If we see important of Thai crafts, we must preserve now because later it may be too late.

The use of conclusion in the essays was a consequence of the writing course, which provided students with the essay patterns and a formulaic conclusion. Having followed the taught patterns, the writers did not need to rearrange the text sequences in their revision process, resulting in a small number of t-units being reordered, as the results presented in Chapter 7.

Additionally, the unexpected stance the students took in concluding the composition might be a result of the uncontroversial topics of writing, which encouraged the students to express their ideas without feeling that they might be wrong. For example, topics like “why we need to prevent pollution” and “why save the rain forests” are commonly unarguable and only require good reasoning to support the proposal. This has a pedagogical value for being a potentially effective way of training a novice writer to put forth arguments.

c) The use of references

In addition to learning to write a composition in different genres of academic writing (e.g. narrative, expository, argumentative), the students were required to learn to use the references from different sources. In theory, the use of references should support the content of the writing. However, the use of references in this study did not always improve the text since they were ineffectively inserted into the text. The first drafts, which were the writers’ original writing, often appeared more comprehensible than the second and final drafts, which included references. The later drafts were mixed with the quoted sentences or excerpts from textbooks and were not smoothly inserted into the main passage although the content was related. As a result, the drafts lacked coherence (to be further pursued in the next section), which is a feature of good writing (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Donnelley 1994). Different levels of language use between that of the references and written text of the students also indicated students’ unfamiliarity with norms in academic writing⁴. For example, cited texts were inserted without a quotation mark or were directly copied and not

⁴ It should be noted, however, that the attempt to identify different linguistic features written by the students and cited from other sources is not to incriminate the students or detect chunk of language being ‘illegitimately used’ (Pennycook 1998). Rather, a purpose was to evaluate the students’ proficiency in using references and conforming to the norm required in the Western academic writing community.

paraphrased; risking plagiarism (Bloch and Chi 1995), an important concept in the Western academic community (Pennycook 1998). It can be concluded that the students showed potential to learn academic writing but the gap between their language proficiency and the proficiency required by the genre constrained their ability to produce a high quality writing product.

The examples below show students' use of references and the difficulties experienced that prevented the production of coherent texts. Examples 1-3 show the appropriate use of references that fit in with the context although they exhibit some linguistic errors. In example 4, the second citation was placed without coherence with the preceding text while in example 5 the reference attached displays sophisticated lexis in an ungrammatical sentence.

Example 1

S16 (305-307)

Thai crafts can divide into tree parts: crafts use in ceremony, crafts use daily life, crafts use for gifts. Many of crafts serve for a ceremony purpose (Cambel, M. 1981) all of them are beauty and durable because Thai people think it's send to Buddha or Thai gods.

Example 2

S13 (306-308)

The other way to reduce the air pollution by carried a maximum of two to four person, car length and width could be reduced. Such cars would require smaller lane widths and less park space, thus helping to ease traffic congestion. (Moriarty, 1999)

Example 3

S09 (301-302)

In Thailand, there are four main regions, such as Northern, Southern, Middle, and Northeastern. Thailand is culturally strong tourist destination has many wonderful things to offer to tourists (Dodson, Rob & Courtney, John Joseph, 1994).

Example 4

S11 (204-206)

Study actively by develop an interest in what you are studying, try to fine out something, react to readings, ask yourself questions, recite, work out examples illustrate principle and apply your learning (Clark, 1986). One-way to recognize reading as an integral part of life, reading always happens (Doiron, 1997). Students go to read book at the library at free time and discus in groups about the lesson.

Example 5

S04 (201-203)

Rainforests have many advantages in their role of support life. On the synoecological level of ecosystems with the different types of rain forests (Luttge, 1997). But now the rainforests are being destroyed.

The rhetorical patterns and writing styles presented above suggest the students' attempts to meet the course requirement even though their language proficiency and lack of experience might have obstructed them in producing a well-established academic text.

6.1.2.2 Linguistic features: cohesive ties

An aspect of good writing considered in this study is the proper use of cohesive devices in expository writing. The cohesive devices being investigated are based on Halliday and Hasan's set of cohesive ties (1976). They are categorised as references, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical. This study focuses on the use of conjunctions, as they are explicit and are thought to be easily applied by ESL writers while native speakers use more sophisticated and implicit means of cohesion (Silva 1993). Observations were made to see if the EFL group was competent in using so-called simple devices such as conjunctions, coordinating and subordinating adverbs and sequential markers. The conjunctions including additive, adversative, causal and temporal elements are considered useful for expository writing and are emphasised in the writing course. In other words, cohesion here is treated as a context-sensitive strategy (Brandt 1986).

By and large, the study found that the expository compositions contained the most simple conjunctions such as *and*, *but*, *also*, *however*, *then*, *next*, and others as shown in Appendix 9.

The conjunction ties used in successive drafts usually remained the same and were rarely expanded. Temporal conjunctions or sequential markers, in particular, accommodated text readability of expository writing. Eight out of 29 students included sequential markers in their drafts, partly as a result of feedback (S01, S03, S10, S27) while the others did not use the device despite suggestions that they do so.

The students show awareness of using conjunctive ties, like the Chinese students in Meisuo (2000). However, the usage was not always correct, partly because of language transfer, which resulted both in appropriate and inappropriate use of

conjunctions. Simple conjunctions that have the same usage in Thai are used correctly such as 'and', 'because' and 'therefore' while the difficulty was reflected in some causal conjunctions and use of subordinate clauses. For instance, 'due to' could be mixed up with 'cause'. Forms of certain conjunctions that were mistakenly used were 'result in', 'except', and 'that' clauses. The examples below illustrate conjunction usage by these EFL students.

Appropriate usage

Simple conjunction like 'therefore', 'in conclusion', 'besides' were usually correctly used, as presented in the first three examples written by S18, S10 and S22. Example 4, on the other hand, illustrates uncertainty if the choice of conjunction was best selected to convey the writer's meaning.

Example 1

310 *Therefore, both automobiles and motorcycles are causes of air, noise, and smog pollutions.*

Example 2

309 *In conclusion, the business finish the destination and success by the executive and everyone in the business cooperates together.*

Example 3

308 *Besides that, these toxic gases can also produce sulfur dioxide that when it mixes with the rain, the rain will be harmful.*

Example 4

S16 used 'until' to refer to the fact that handicrafts have always been a part of Thai life. Probably an appropriate conjunction would be 'even'.

302 *Crafts are part of Thai life from part until now a days.*

Difficulty of usage

Some cohesive ties could be confusing for these EFL students probably because they perceived the meaning in L1, thus attempted to transfer that meaning into English, which was not always equivalent, as shown in the following examples:

Example 5

S24 used 'on the other hand' in an incorrect context, which resulted in difficulty in understanding the message.

103- *The energy is important to human they use energy everyday. On the other hand, the*
105 *people there lived by hunting fishing and gathering. .*

Example 6

S18 was confused about the cause and effect relationship.

105 *Automobiles are due to smog (from exhaust pipe) and noise,*

206 *Automobiles cause smog (from exhaust pipe) and noise which becomes pollution,*

Example 7

S16 applied sequential marker in the final draft, resulting in easier readability of the unit.

210 *Another one craft use for gift, all of them...*

310 *Third, crafts use for gifts all of them...*

Example 8

S12 used the conjunction 'without' as a verb (as is acceptable in Thai).

261 *If we without them. Bodies occur diseases and wounds*

Example 9

S30 constructed the sentence using 'that' to combine the meanings, as acceptable in Thai.

306 *Ginger is the root of reed that it retards the development of rancidity in frozen ground meats (Kofschevar, 1998).*

Interestingly, some of these EFL students tackled the difficulty of using cohesive ties by making changes. The changes were often but not always suggested by their peers. In example 6, the writer made changes in unit 206 according to a comment. On the contrary, S16 in the example 7 explored his text and used the temporal marker without any outside interaction. This self-initiated use of conjunctions highlights the ability of these students to self-reflect through the process of writing and raises the possibility that this linguistic skill is present in low-proficiency writers.

Other linguistic features that were looked at included the use of simple structures such as subject-verb-object order, which is also present in Thai. The texts did not display nominalisation although it is claimed to be an overused feature of academic writing for NNS of English such as by Finnish EFL students as noticed by Ventola (1996). Such aspect is beyond the level of these Thai students and they are not familiar with this structure in their L1. The group used technical terms from the cited texts (as it had been used in the original). They did not develop the ability to express analytical and abstract thinking, unlike observations made by Ventola (1996) whose students were more advanced; and hence able to produce writing which was closer to what is expected in real-world academic writing.

6.1.3 T-units for text analysis

A crucial stage for the in-depth investigation of the revision processes was to transcribe the texts into t-units (as described in 5.4.1.1). T-units accommodated the investigation in two aspects. First, t-units simplified text analysis, especially when comparing sequential drafts and cross-checking for revision (examples in Appendix 10). Second, error-free t-units helped determine the overall quality and accuracy of the final drafts.

Eighty-nine expository drafts were examined, and individually transcribed into t-units as described in 5.4.1.1. Among these, there were 30 first drafts, 30 second drafts, and 29 final drafts. Note that the figures for first, second, and final drafts are the total number of drafts submitted. They do not imply the sequence of drafts produced by the same writer. For instance, S04 produced first and second drafts while S10 produced second and third drafts. The 89 drafts by 31 students (S05 excluded) generated 1215 t-units in total, of which 343, 501, 371 were from the first, second, and final drafts respectively.

Table 6-2 presents the quantitative data of t-units, sentences and words. It should be noted that there were several factors which created difficulties in transcribing t-units and the counting of sentences. An independent sentence which was correctly punctuated by the writer was counted as a single unit. In many cases, the use of forms such as punctuation or capitalisation was incorrect. For example, what a writer considered one sentence, at times contained more than one. Other times, only phrases were present. In this respect, judgement was made by the author as appropriate, as examples shown in Appendix 10.

Table 6-2

General information of t-units

Categories	Total	First drafts	Second drafts	Final drafts
Number of drafts	89*	30	30	29
Number of t-units	1215	343	501	371
Average number of t-units	13.65	11.06	16.7	12.79
Number of sentences	972	287	394	291
Average number of sentences	10.92	9.56	13.13	10.03
Average number of words/draft	-	155	252.8	187.8

* The total number excludes the single draft submitted by S05

On looking at the t-units, several interesting findings can be reported.

1) On average the second drafts were the longest. They contained more sentences and more t-units than the others (average of 13 sentences, 16.7 t-units), while the first drafts were the shortest (average of 9.5 sentences, 11.06 t-units).

2) A sentence as determined by the students often contained more than one t-unit, linked mostly by a comma and the co-ordinator 'and'. This resulted in a run-on sentence with more than one idea in it. Many complex sentences displayed errors while the simple sentences tended to be grammatically correct.

3) As revealed in the follow-up study, many students tried to cram all the information in their final drafts into ten sentences, as instructed by the course teacher. The average number of sentences in the final drafts (10.03) confirms this. The ten-sentence paragraph requirement may be limiting the writing style as it could lead to the writing of strings of ungrammatically connected units instead of relatively error-free multiple short sentences.

4) Finally, the study of t-units also shows that in most cases, t-units were not reordered in a revised draft. Texts might be lengthened or shortened but the structure mainly remains the same with the exceptions of a few cases (S10, S20, S27, S28, S32). The analysis of t-units in revision process will be reported in-depth in 7.1.

6.1.4 Implications from the written texts

The basic examination of the texts provides some insights into the learning environment as well as the students' writing performance. The findings related to text length and quantity reflect the importance of classroom instruction, which subsequently dictated the length, numbers of paragraphs, and writing styles in each draft. The influence of face-to-face interaction in the classroom on the writing assignment was also confirmed in the follow-up study. The students followed strictly the instructions to write a long second draft and to use references while producing a shorter and more precise final draft (*interview S03*). Similarly, a guideline on the number of sentences per paragraph was also given in the writing course. This stated that the drafts must not be longer than ten sentences per paragraph. The small number of submission of argumentative writing may indicate the students' lack of motivation to participate. Missing drafts or problems in submission highlighted two problem areas. First the difficulties in using the online tool to submit the drafts compelled the students to submit their work in person instead (*S20*). Second, the findings suggest that problems occur when working with a virtual document. Student *S04* mixed-up the drafts while the teaching assistant mistakenly deleted a file. This cursory overall view of the texts has led to four assumptions about the online learning environment, which are:

- 1) Commitment was weak when the subjects participated on a voluntary basis. This corresponds to the situation in the pilot study when the students gave priority to activities that were either directly related to their major subjects or involved marks. While only 5 drafts were missing in expository writing, only 17 drafts were submitted instead of the expected 33 drafts for argumentative writing. That is, only half were submitted electronically, indicating low motivation to participate, probably because this phase operated on a voluntary basis. Furthermore, only one-third of the class participated in the second phase despite the extra five-point reward that was offered, implying a low level of interest or motivation to take part in the online discussion.

- 2) Submission of writing assignments via an online tool probably was not simple. The online environment might not accommodate language learning in this particular context because students seemed to find it problematic and too complicated. To avoid the problem, they turned to the usual hard copy format. This is also related to the marks they would be given, that is, students were certain that their paper was submitted and therefore confident in obtaining a mark.
- 3) Classroom instructions certainly had a strong influence on students' performance. This was reflected in the number of words and paragraphs. This influence might also constrain writing fluency as it limits the writing styles and freedom to compose. In addition, students might not learn to develop a correct form of sentence because they were overly concerned about the number of sentences, as seen in the crammed complex structure and the overuse of commas and the coordinator '*and*'.
- 4) In circumstances where a combination of classroom teaching and online environment are required, preparation and co-ordination are crucial.

Examination of text features revealed the rhetorical patterns and linguistic aspects of the writing by EFL students. Evidence from the written texts indicates that the students were capable of dealing with simple sentence structures while they encountered difficulties with more complex ones. The texts were understandable although they did not reach the requirements for academic writing. The two factors that accounted for this were language proficiency and the L1 influence.

The low level of language proficiency clearly impacted their ability to write effectively for academic purpose in English. These students were unskilled writers and were able to perform a static transcription but were often unable to connect the phrases cohesively. Cohesion in the texts came from explicit use of simple conjunctions, which were intrinsically possessed by the students. Rather complex cohesive ties might be difficult for them although their usage would be helpful in

achieving text readability. Temporal ties or sequential markers helped these EFL writers organise the text, probably because they fit the expository genre. Use of ties resulted in more readability of the texts. This corresponded to Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995), who reported that metadiscourse promoted a better quality of ESL writing. The findings also support the claim that unskilled writers are able to use lexical cohesive ties (Silva 1993) but not other implicit lexical cohesion, which are mostly used by native speakers (Scarcella 1984).

In addition, unskilled writers seemed to reflect the influence of L1 on their writing particularly in rhetorical styles, expression, certain linguistic features and grammatical difference between L1 and L2 structure. The study did not conduct a thorough study on the grammatical structure; and hence can only state that students had difficulty in expressing the meaning in English.

Looking at texts in different stages revealed that the writing process helped the students detect errors and correct them before the final draft. The students showed possibility to use correctly few conjunctive items that improved text readability. The usage of these conjunctive ties might be considered as simplistic or unsophisticated writing that it unable to capture the reader's attention. This study, however, looked at the writing habits of low proficiency students and believes that these explicit ties are well-suited to the level. These students need a basic foundation in learning how to use these simple linguistic features before moving on to a more sophisticated aspects. This study was not concerned with the number of errors made. Rather, it focused on the types of errors made by the students, which highlighted the problem areas in English learning. This information can then be incorporated into future teaching plan, which are more tailored to students' needs.

6.2 Feedback

The feedback or commentary was an important external factor in the revision process. In the study, feedback refers to responses to the drafts given through an electronic medium. The real audience included readers, peers, and teachers. In the following sections, the comments given are examined and presented in two aspects: the amount of commentary retrieved online and the characteristics of the feedback.

6.2.1 The online commentary

Feedback for expository drafts generated in this study consisted of a total 159 commentary messages delivered online, counted by the number of messages electronically sent to the forum and occasional emails. These messages were from both external readers and peer students.

Commentary is categorised into three stages. Stage 1 revision refers to the feedback given between the first and the second drafts. Stage 2 of revision refers to feedback given between the second and final draft. Stage 3 refers to feedback given after the final draft and was intended only as a final assessment and contained suggestion for students' future reference. Obviously, comments given in the assessment stage had no effects on the revision processes.

The total 159 messages are categorised in Table 6-3 by the sources, i.e. the readers, peer students and the teaching assistant. In stages 1 and 2 of the revision, the values in the brackets represent the number of comments by external readers and peer students respectively. The number without brackets refers to the total number of comments given by the readers.

Table 6-3

Subjects	Comments	Comments retrieved online				
		By readers	By peers	Stage 1 revision	Stage 2 revision	Stage 3 assessment (by TA)
S01	10	3	6	3 (2,1)	6 (1,5)	1
S02	6	2	3	1	4 (1,3)	1
S03	4	3	0	2	1	1
S04	5	3	2	2	3 (1, 2)	0
S05	2	1	1	2 (1,1)	0	0
S06	5	3	1	3 (2,1)	1	1
S07	4	3	0	2	1	1
S08	10	5	4	1	8 (4,4)	1
S09	5	3	1	3 (2,1)	1	1
S10	3	2	0	1	1	1
S11	2	1	0	1	0	1
S12	3	2	0	1	1	1
S13	4	2	1	2 (1,1)	1	1
S14	8	3	5	1	7 (2,5)	0
S15	9	3	5	3 (2,1)	5 (1,4)	1
S16	5	2	2	2 (1,1)	2 (1,1)	1
S17	4	3	0	2	1	1
S18	3	2	0	1	1	1
S19	4	2	1	1	2 (1,1)	1
S20	3	2	0	2	0	1
S21	9	4	4	2	6 (2,4)	1
S22	3	2	0	1	1	1
S23	4	3	0	2	1	1
S24	6	3	2	3 (2,1)	2 (1,1)	1
S25	6	4	1	2 (1,1)	3	1
S26	6	3	2	4 (2,2)	1	1
S27	9	3	5	1	7 (2,5)	1
S28	4	2	1	2 (1,1)	1	1
S29	3	2	0	1	1	1
S30	3	2	0	1	1	1
S31	3	2	0	1	1	1
S32	4	2	0	2	1	1
Total	159	83	47	58 (46,12)	72 (37, 35)	29

Of the 83 feedback messages provided by the readers, 46 were given after the first drafts and 37 after the second drafts. Peer students sent 47 messages to the forum. Of these, 12 commented on the first drafts and 35 referred to the second drafts. It was clear that the dramatic increase of peer students' responses in the second stage was due to a classroom session organised for peer reviews, as confirmed by the date and time the messages were posted. The records of access to the online course also

confirm the reason for this increase. This resulted in more feedback for Stage 2 of the revision.

So far, the quantity of feedback given has been studied. Other aspects of feedback such as length, feedback types and content also have to be considered. With regards to length, a commentary contained no more than twenty sentences. External readers wrote longer comment than the peers, who usually wrote comments in three sentences at the most. The types and content of the feedback are presented and discussed in detail in the next section (examples of feedback in Appendix 11).

6.2.2 Feedback types and characteristics

The analysis of feedback characteristics was conducted with two distinct purposes in mind. First, types of comments provided by the different peer groups were examined. Second, the types of feedback that influenced the revisions were looked at. The system developed to identify the characteristics of feedback include fifteen moves as well as two other characteristics: text-specification and request for revision (see also 5.5.2). A comment might contain many moves. The classification of a move was dependent on the attention of the comment provider. A new move started when a new attention took place. Table 6-4 shows the codes for all moves and the two additional characteristics.

Table 6-4

Scheme of comment identification

Move		Characteristics	
1-GI	General impression	Text-specific (TS)	Request revision (RQ)
2-HS	Highlighting strengths	Generic (GN)	Not request revision (NQ)
3-REF	Referencing		
4-CAW	Calling attention to weakness		
5-SUG	Suggestion for improvement		
6-AJ	Affective judgement		
7-EX	Exemplification		
8-EV	Evidentiality		
9-JX	Juxtaposition		
10-PS	Positivising		
11-PRB	Probing		
12-OJ	Overall judgement		
13-SF	Surface correction		
14-INS	Instruction		
15-MC	Miscellaneous interactions		

The moves and characteristics of feedback are classified in Table 6-5, Table 6-6 and Table 6-7 according to sources of the comments. Table 6-7 reports the characteristics of feedback from the teaching assistant in the assessment stage (after the final drafts). It is obvious that feedback at this stage would have no impact on another draft. Therefore, the assessment feedback in Table 6-7 is presented as supporting details on the features of feedback.

Note that the presentation of the feedback types includes the feedback from both stages, and categorised only by the feedback sources. It is hypothesised that incorporation of feedback given in stage one might impact the revisions at stage two directly or indirectly. Directly, the nature of this network environment permitted the student writers to access peer comments at anytime. Hence, the incorporation of comments into revision apparently depended on when the feedback was read, which was beyond the control of this study. Indirectly, students' understanding of feedback from stage one might result in revisions made in stage two. For example, suggestions on certain grammar use given after the first draft might not be addressed till the second revision. Each group offered different types of feedback. Such effects are investigated and discussed more in 7.3.

Table 6-5

Characteristics of feedback by peer readers: 83 messages

Move type		Number of move	TS	GN	RQ	NR
1-GI	General impression	67	6	61	10	57
2-HS	Highlighting strengths	25	10	15	1	24
3-REF	Referencing	11	10	1	10	1
4-CAW	Calling attention to weakness	59	37	22	57	2
5-SUG	Suggesting improvement	70	43	27	68	2
6-AJ	Affective judgement	10	2	8	4	6
7-EX	Exemplification	13	13	0	13	0
8-EV	Evidentiality	8	8	0	7	1
9-JX	Juxtaposition	3	0	3	3	0
10-PS	Positivising	3	1	2	1	2
11-PRB	Probing	42	24	18	27	15
12-OJ	Overall judgement	12	1	11	1	11
13-SF	Surface correction	44	44	0	44	0
14-INS	Instruction	32	14	18	28	4
15-MC	Miscellaneous interaction	39	4	35	2	37
Total		438	217	221	276	162

Table 6-6

Characteristics of feedback by peer students: 47 messages

Move Type		Number of move	TS	G	RQ	NR
1-GI	General impression	34	2	32	3	31
2-HS	Highlighting strengths	8	2	6	0	8
4-CW	Calling attention to weakness	21	8	13	21	0
5-SG	Suggesting improvement	11	3	8	0	11
6-AJ	Affective judgement	4	0	4	0	4
9-JX	Juxtaposition	9	2	7	7	2
10-PS	Positivising	1	0	1	0	1
12-OJ	Overall judgement	3	0	3	0	3
13-SF	Surface correction	1	0	1	0	1
14-IN	Instruction	2	1	1	2	0
15-MC	Miscellaneous interaction	7	0	7	0	7
Total		101	18	83	33	68

Table 6-7

Characteristics of feedback by the teaching assistant (Assessment): 29 messages

Move Type		Number of move	TS	G	RQ	NR
1-GI	General impression	26	0	26	2	24
2-HS	Highlighting strengths	13	8	5	0	13
3-RF	Referencing	4	3	1	3	1
4-CW	Calling attention to weakness	19	12	7	19	0
5-SG	Suggesting improvement	16	8	8	15	1
6-AJ	Affective judgement	7	1	6	2	5
7-EX	Exemplification	3	3	0	3	0
8-EV	Evidentiality	3	3	0	3	0
9-JX	Juxtaposition	1	1	0	1	0
10-PS	Positivising	1	0	1	0	1
11-PR	Probing	19	15	4	17	2
12-OJ	Overall judgement	2	0	2	0	2
13-SF	Surface correction	8	8	0	8	0
14-IN	Instruction	9	3	6	7	2
15-MC	Miscellaneous interaction	15	0	15	0	15
Total		146	65	81	80	66

Feedback from different groups

The tables show that in revision stages one and two, the 47 messages generated by peer students contained 101 moves while the 83 messages by external readers generated 438 moves (examples shown in Appendices 11, 12). At stage three (assessment), feedback from the teaching assistant contained 146 moves in 29 messages. Three groups of feedback providers employed the fifteen moves differently, as reported below.

Peer students

1. While peer readers and teacher applied all fifteen moves in their feedback, peer students did not use RF, EX, EV and PR. The most common move in the feedback by the peer students was GI and often followed by CAW, i.e. a brief compliment on the writing followed by pointing out the errors. Suggestion for

improvement was also given after GI, but was usually generic rather than specific. These suggestions were related to course requirements and usually contained a vague comment on surface corrections such as “*check the grammar again*” or “*some words mistakes*”. Using GI as the most common move indicated that peer students were mostly concerned with providing appraisal feedback. The finding that peer responses usually included compliments followed by suggestions for improvement are similar to those in Sullivan and Pratt (1996), conducted in synchronous peer reviews.

2. In correlation with GI, most comments by peer students had the particular characteristic of not requesting revisions, and of being generic rather than text-specific. An exception was for CAW, which by its definition calls for revisions. However, it should be noted that despite this intention of asking for writer’s action, the input for the revision was rather generic. Some were related to the text but were not precise. For example, a comment might state generally that the writer needed to check some word mistakes or grammar, but would not really specify which words, or which grammatical mistakes. There were only a few cases that mentioned the misspelt words.
3. Text-specific commentary by peer students mainly concerned the course requirements such as, the number of sentences, the length, format and genre of writing. Word choices were sometimes specified in the comment as not conforming to the genre of writing, which was part of the classroom requirement. Again, this confirmed the influence the course had on the writing.

External readers and teaching assistant

4. In contrast to peer students, peer readers used all the moves in a more proportional manner. It can be seen that the number of moves cluster in fairly equal levels, especially the first three most frequent moves, which were GI, SUG and CAW. The move that distinguish the readers and the students was SF, which was intensively employed by the readers.

5. Commentary styles by the readers varied among individuals. In general the commentary was more precise than that of the peer students. Compliments were given as well as suggestions to improve the drafts, which usually co-occurred with references to the points that needed revisions. Suggestions included grammar correction, grammar notes, negative comments on organisation, advice on how to write or how to structure the writing, and what should be included in the draft. Sometimes, the readers' encouragement to the writer was informal and friendly although usually the content in readers' feedback had a serious tone to it. This suggests that the readers took their authority of giving feedback more like a teacher or grammarian than just an interested audience, as Keh (1990) suggested. It can be hypothesised either the readers were more comfortable to correct over grammar, or they tried to give objective feedback by referring to sets of grammar rules, rather than subjective judgement as a reader. Claims have been made that grammar correction is provided by those teachers who were not good at writing themselves (Zamel 1982). Another possible reason for grammar-focused comments could be the language proficiency of the writers. That is, these readers might be first obstructed by the linguistic aspects that affected comprehensibility. Hence the readers might feel the need to explain grammar usage before they could proceed to responding to the content of the essays. Finally, the research framework given to the readers may account for readers' response. That is, the guideline may have misled the readers as it was based on the course instruction in which criteria used to evaluate might replicate those for a teacher. Following the guidelines to look at language use, content and organisation, the readers might be refrained from freely giving their own response.
6. The external readers provided both general and specific comment. Usually these comments requested for revision. Possibly the readers felt greater responsibility for helping the writers with their revision than one would expect.

7. Comments given at the assessment stage displayed all types of feedback including ones that would require revision such as INS, CAW and SUG. This feedback was given with an expectation of being used in future writing. Some of the instruction was on grammar usage, which indicated that the teaching assistant perceived her role as a teacher and sometimes a grammarian.
8. Move 15 (miscellaneous interactions), is special for NBC and was employed by all groups. It was likely that the informal interaction in written form took place due to the nature of NBC that allows speech-like written language. Such interaction included not only feedback to the composition, but also greetings and other jovial comments, that might not appear on usual feedback given on paper. The teaching assistant also took advantage of NBC by interacting informally with the students. Even though it was expected that informal interactions would help reduce the gap between the teacher and the students; hence would improve learning attitudes (Bloor 1996), the follow-up study did not confirm that.
9. As expected, the peer readers exploited the feature of the electronic medium in providing feedback while the students and the teaching assistant did not. The computer was used for referring to the text by several moves such as EV, SF and CAW.

6.3 Remarks from the data limitations

Limitations of written texts and feedback were uncovered during the analysis, which have led to some useful remarks for future research in the same area.

1. When dealing with low-proficiency EFL students, one needs to anticipate that their texts tend to display ungrammatical features, which may constrain the t-unit analysis.
2. In designing for sequential data collection, students' commitment is crucially important. For example, an incomplete set of drafts would limit a study of revision on three consequential drafts.

3. Language skills alone might not be sufficient as a criterion for selection of the readers since other factors such as lifestyles, professions and personal interests could impact the way feedback was provided. The study has found a non-homogeneous quality of response. For example, differences were evident in the use of grammar, word choices and thoroughness of the comments. Such diverse feedback might affect the revision.
4. In determination of t-units and interpretation of feedback moves, several examinations may not suffice. Having more than one judge could lead to a more precise result.
5. Channels for NBC were also variables in the study, namely the discussion forum and email. While a discussion forum was publicly seen, students with rather low language competence may not be able to well exploit the medium. Email, although more direct to the addressee, was more difficult to control; and observations of the interactions made were difficult.
6. Guidelines given to the readers need to be clear, or it may have biased results. For instance, the study found authoritative comments from the readers. The guidelines, as shown in Appendix 7, which was based on the course assessment might have fostered a reader's role as a teacher. In addition, suggestions how to respond to the texts might affect the readers' natural response as a real audience.

Chapter conclusions

This chapter has presented the written texts and the feedback retrieved from NBC during the writing course. The features of the texts written by these EFL students showed L1 influence and indicated low language proficiency that caused difficulties in academic writing. The students' attempt to meet the course requirements was reflected in the rhetorical patterns of the texts, which included the introduction-body-conclusion structure and the use of references as required for academic writing. The comments provided by different peer groups have different features. While the readers gave more detailed comments and also focused on grammar aspects, peers mainly gave compliments and short suggestions. The NBC allowed more casual or jovial comments that would make the students feel at ease.

7 The revision processes

This chapter aims to find out whether and how feedback delivered through NBC impacted the revisions in the drafts. In order to achieve this, revisions made were identified and the effect of feedback on these revisions examined. The final stage of analysis was to investigate if the revisions resulted in better text quality. With the limit of students' proficiency, the study considers the writing quality in terms of linguistic accuracy in the final drafts. This chapter presents the data in four main sections: 1) the revisions 2) the effects of feedback on revisions 3) correlation between the source of feedback and revisions 4) the association between revisions and overall quality of the texts.

7.1 Revisions: what students do while revising

The term revision used in this study carries two meanings. First, revision refers to the general stage of revising a draft. Second, revisions, changes or revision changes are used interchangeably to refer to the changes made during the revision process in between three successive drafts.

To investigate the revision processes, the study has adopted and modified taxonomies from several studies as previously described in 5.4.1.1 and 5.4.1.2. The revision changes were identified by comparing and cross checking the t-units in two stages of revision. Stage 1 took place when the writer revised the first draft to produce the second draft, while Stage 2 revision produced the final draft. These revisions were examined using the framework of different linguistic levels or text spans of the changes from Bridwell (1980), but modified to fit this study (see 5.4.1.2 for taxonomy).

A total of 1215 t-units from 89 drafts reported in 6.1.3 were studied. The findings related to revisions are reported in two dimensions. The first dimension views overall revisions (7.1.1) while the second (7.1.2) presents the revisions in detail and is concerned with the different linguistic categories and operations of the changes.

7.1.1 Overall revisions

The examination of revisions reveals that all subjects in this study made at least a few changes in each stage of their revision process. It may be inferred that students have perceived the importance of the revision process or they may have revised their drafts only because they were told to do so in the writing course. In Stage 1, a total of 343 t-units from the first drafts were examined against 501 units from the second drafts. In Stage 2, a total of 501 t-units in the second drafts were examined against 371 t-units in the final drafts. Results are presented in Table 7-1, which illustrates the overall number of revisions.

Table 7-1

Number of revisions categorised by different linguistic levels

Revision level	Stage 1	Stage 2	Total	Percentage
Surface/ form/ mechanics	195	170	365	30.4 %
Lexis	74	66	140	11.7 %
Phrase	92	60	152	12.7 %
Clause	55	35	90	7.5 %
Sentence	145	111	256	21.3 %
Multi-sentence	106	83	189	15.7 %
Text	4	4	8	0.7 %
Total of revisions	667 (55.6%)	533 (44.4%)	1200	100 %
Number of t-units being examined*	343: 501	501:371	1215	-
t-units unaltered	49	93	142	-

* Stage 1 compared t-units from the first drafts with the second drafts while Stage 2 compared the second drafts with final drafts.

The table shows that more changes were made in Stage 1 (55.6%) than in Stage 2 (44.4%). Correspondingly, there were a smaller number of unaltered t-units in Stage 1 compared to Stage 2. Stage 1 had more revisions at all levels of text span. The most revised elements in both stages were at the form level (also called mechanics changes) and accounted for 30.4%. The changes at form level included spelling, punctuation, verb forms and other surface changes and will be described more in 7.1.2. Interestingly, revisions on forms took place more frequently in stage one even though the course suggested that surface changes should be made after the second draft (Stage 2). Most of the focus in stage one should have been on content and structure. This indicated that students paid similar attention to mechanics changes at both revision stages. The second most intensive revisions were made at the sentence level (21.3 %). The least revised level was the text level (0.7 %).

7.1.2 Patterns of revisions

The operations of revision processes were recorded from the two stages under the framework of seven linguistic levels, which are form, lexis, phrase, clause, sentence, multi-sentence and text (Bridwell 1980). The quantitative results are presented in Table 7-2.

Table 7-2

Revisions at different levels

Code	Revision operations	Stage 1	Stage 2	Total
Surface				
11	Spelling	18	25	43
12	Punctuation and spacing between words	49	61	110
13	Capitalization	11	8	19
14	Verb form	31	14	45
15	Abbreviation vs full form	4	2	6
16	Symbol vs full form	0	0	0
17	Contraction vs full form	2	0	2
18	Singular vs plural	29	14	43
19	Morphological conditioning	4	1	5
110	Internear and marginal notations related to any of the above	25	13	38
66	Indentation	12	10	22
67	de-indentation	6	26	32
	Total	191	174	365
Lexis				
21	Addition	31	26	57
22	Deletion	7	11	18
23	Substitution (synonym, pronoun)	34	29	63
24	Order shift of single word	1	0	1
25	Expansion of word to phrase	1	0	1
26	Interlinear and marginal notations related to single words	0	0	0
	Total	74	66	140
Phrase				
31	Addition	63	17	80
32	Deletion	4	22	26
33	Substitution	3	5	8
34	Order shift	5	3	8
35	Expansion of phrase	17	5	22
36	Reduction of phrase	0	0	0
37	Interlinear and marginal notations related to phrase, e.g. reference	0	8	8
	Total	92	60	152

Code	Revision operations	Stage 1	Stage 2	Total
Clause				
41	Addition	36	12	48
42	Deletion	6	14	20
43	Substitution	4	1	5
44	Order shift	3	0	3
45	Expansion of clause	6	5	11
46	Reduction of clause	0	3	3
47	Interlinear and marginal notations related to clause	0	0	0
	Total	55	35	90
Sentence				
51	Addition	42	15	57
52	Deletion	17	30	47
53	Substitution	27	18	45
54	Order shift	4	8	12
55	Expansion of sentence	11	5	16
56	Reduction of sentence	10	10	20
57	Interlinear and marginal notations	34	25	59
	Total	145	111	256
Multi-sentence				
61	Addition	81	10	91
62	Deletion	6	44	50
63	Substitution	4	2	6
64	Order shift of two or more sentences	5	0	5
65	Reduction of two or more sentences	10	27	37
68	Interlinear and marginal notations	0	0	0
	Total	106	83	189
Text level				
71	Change in function category of essay	0	0	0
72	Change in audience category of essay	0	0	0
73	Change in overall content of the paper	0	1	1
74	Total re-write of essay with few or no one-to-one correspondences between sentences	4	2	6
75	Change in the main idea or focus of the content, but keep the topic and conclusion	0	1	1
	Total	4	4	8
	T-units not altered	49	93	142

Findings

The investigation of the revisions and the figures in the table above suggest several findings related to revision of expository writing by the EFL group.

The operations carried out in the revisions varied in different linguistic levels. The most frequently employed operations in the writings were additions and deletions, with an exception of substitution at the lexical level. Additions usually occurred in the first stage of revision whereas deletions took place mostly in the second stage of revision. The large number of additions in the first stage might be a result of students searching for meaning while producing the second draft, which resulted in text expansion. In producing the third draft, they had to re-adjust the second draft into a more concise final draft according to the course requirement of a ten-sentence paragraph, leading to increased deletion. This second revision resulted in a paragraph containing long ungrammatical sentences which yielded numerous t-units in a single sentence.

Surface level

As previously mentioned, the figures suggest an outstanding number of changes made at the surface or form level when compared to other levels. This finding agrees with the other studies (e.g. Sommers 1978, Bridwell 1980). However, one-third of the surface changes occurred in punctuation, which was unlikely to affect the text quality. Over half of the punctuation changes were addition, deletion and substitution of punctuation marks, while 44% was concerned with spacing between words and sentences as traceable by a word processor. As the correct practice of writing (especially by using an electronic medium) is to leave a space between words and sentences, the study has revealed that few students did not use the form correctly. However, students made changes which did not always result in improvement. Changes in punctuation were made by the writers' own intuition since no comment was made on punctuation or spacing. Hence, this may indicate that the students did not attend to the correct form used by the others even though it was expected that the students would take notice of a correct usage by peers or corrections as prompted by

word processing software. It was also observed that the use of punctuation by an individual writer showed no major difference over time. Those who used the function correctly at the beginning kept doing so until the end (e.g. S28) while the opposite group almost had no change in the misuse of punctuation (e.g.S32). Some students showed inconsistent use of spacing, such as S24 and S25. These two students changed punctuation, inserted or deleted spaces between sentences with no consistent pattern. Obviously, it can be drawn from the study that punctuation was not a major area of concern of these students and the peers since comments did not refer to the use of punctuation.

Indention and de-indention are another two categories in the form level where a high number of changes were made. These two types of revision were originally categorised in multiple-sentence level (Bridwell 1980) while it has been counted here as a format level. This was done as indention and de-indention used in this study did not impact the text quality or meaning as did other changes in multiple-sentence level. Some students even overused indention, which implied an unawareness of the proper form of a sentence. For example, S03, S12 and S28 made an indent after each sentence.

Other revisions of form that students paid attention to were spelling, verb forms, plural morphemes and capitalisation. This implied that students were not familiar with the different language typology of English as verb forms, plurality affix and capitalisation are not present in Thai. Hence, mistakes concerning these features were easily made and detected.

Lexical level

Lexical level was the only level in which substitution occurred more frequently than any other operation. Substitution of lexical items usually carried the same meaning. That is, the choice of words was made probably on the sound or the look. Examples were observed in the changes of prepositions and verbs. Very often the changes in lexis came from feedback. The examples below illustrate substitutions of the lexis (coded [23]) and an addition (coded [21]). Examples 1 and 2 were from the feedback (coded as <CMxxx>) while 3 and 4 were self-initiated.

Example 1

S13 changed the lexis in unit 107 to 207 according to the surface correction feedback by a reader.

- 107 use without lead oil
207 use unleaded fuel
[23] <CM131>

Example 2

S23 altered the meaning of this unit by following the surface correction feedback from a reader.

- 106 it can kill person in a few minutes
207 it can kill people in a few minutes
[23] <CM 231>

Example 3

S18 changed the meaning of the unit by using a proper verb recommended by a reader in surface correction feedback.

- 104 When city grow up the transportation is...
205 When cities grow, the transportation is...
[21] <CM181>

Example 4

S16 made changes in both revision stages using his own initiative. Although these changes are phrasal, they are considered lexis because the intention of the writer was to replace with a synonym. However, it should also be noted that the choice made for the final draft (304) was incorrect usage of English.

- 103 All of people in local can make crafts.
204 A lot of people in Thailand can make crafts.
304 Large of people in Thailand can make crafts.
[23] <self-initiated>

Example 5

S10 replaced the noun phrase with a single noun probably as it was a better choice.

- 214 by the good manager
309 by the executive
[23] <self-initiated>

Revisions at lexical level also included determiners although these were not made as often as other lexical revisions. As anticipated, the determiners seemed to be one of many difficulties for the students since the typology is not present in Thai. The texts often displayed incorrect uses of determiners while only ten attempts were made to revise the determiners. This low level of revisions in determiners could arise for several reasons. Students did not pay attention to or attempt to revise the

determiners, as they were unaware of the correct usage. Second only two comments referred to the use of articles. Yet, none of them resulted in a correct revision. Third, the students incorporated a citation in its entirety; thus resulting in the inclusive correct use of determiners. The correct form apparently needed no revision especially in the t-units that were cited from other resources.

Phrase level

The high number of phrase addition in stage one was most likely due to insertion of references, which was part of the course instruction. Students inserted relevant phrases that were copied or quotations from a textbook. In general, the use of citation indicated that the students did not fully understand what academic writing is about or how to produce a piece of academic writing. For example, they usually copied a phrase (also clause, sentences and beyond) as it was without realising it was plagiarism.

Example 1

S19 added the phrase to her existing clause

- 105 *and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins
 and vitaminlike factors.*
- 205 *and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins
 and vitaminlike factors, various essential macrominerals and
 microminerals (Ensminger, 1994).*

Sophisticated use of verb phrase or noun phrase as a subject was not present in the texts written by this particular group. This could imply one of two things, the linguistic feature demands high language proficiency or the students' competence was rather low. The latter one is likely to be the case since many students showed difficulties dealing with phrases. A phrase was mistaken as a clause or a complete sentence. Improvement at phrase level was not evident despite comments on it. The example below shows that phrases may be difficult to revise, and/or comments that draw attention to the form may not be enough.

Example 2

S32 kept the same phrase although a comment suggested that it was not a correct form (comment did not provide correction, though).

- 210 *Ocean pollution because the people work to fish and travel to*
313 *Ocean pollution because the people work to fish and travel to*
<CM323> 'This is not a sentence'

Clause level

With the exception of text level, clause level received the least frequent revisions. These revisions were additions or deletions of whole clauses or subordinate clauses. The reason for changes in clause level was similar to that in phrase level; that is, the need to expand or collapse the drafts conforming to the course requirements.

Example 1

S15 removed a subordinate clause from the clause 209.

- 209 *most will obtain the protein that they need for repairing tissues and keeping healthy.*
307 *most will obtain the protein for repairing tissues and keeping healthy.*

At the clause level, subordinate clauses and examples were often added. Reduction of the clause to a smaller unit occurred very scarcely and only during the second revision, probably with an aim to shorten the draft. Clauses tended to be correctly used more often than phrases although some clauses displayed errors at a smaller level. Revisions at the clause level changed the content locally but not globally. These changes were self-initiated rather than by feedback. Of course, a cited element also resulted in more accurate linguistic aspects.

Example 2

S13 added what is considered a clause in the final draft to elaborate the previous claim she made in the second draft

- 203 *There are many solution of air pollution from traffic jam.*
303 *There are many solution of air pollution from traffic jam such as: to put the catalytic converters, a device fitted to cars to convert the exhaust gases to become less harmful gases, because they contain a catalyst such as platinum.*

Sentence level

Addition of a single sentence occurred mostly in Stage 1 and was the most frequent operation at this level. It was clear that the operation was an attempt to expand the text since it provided more details and examples. Second to addition was rephrasing of a single sentence [code 57] which was common in both stages. It occurred more often than substitution of the sentence, which meant the writers intended to keep the meaning but tried another way to express it. It is also noted that rephrasing came from both explicit correction and self-initiation. In contrast, substitutions of sentences correlated with the additions of references and self-initiation.

Example 1

S23 reconstructed a sentence by combining two t-units and rephrasing the expression.

115 *Noise is danger with ears*
116 *and finally it makes ears deaf.*
219 *noise is dangerous to people hearing and can make people deaf.*
 [57] from <CM231> explicit corrections, rephrased sentence given

Multiple- sentence level

Multiple-sentence level changes were made heavily in the first stage of revision when in-text citations were added. This means the students such as S03 and S12 inserted at least two sentences in a row. The insertion sometimes introduced new information that changed the focus of text. The difficulty in using references encountered by static writers was reflected in the multi-sentence level. They replaced their own sentence(s) with cited sentences, which resulted in a new text lacking coherence and cohesion. It was also found that addition of multiple-sentences in Stage 1 often resulted in the multiple-sentence deletion in Stage 2, as illustrated by S12 and S21.

Text level

There were 8 text-level revisions, which might be rare when compared to other levels. If text-level revisions took place, they were not influenced by feedback. An exceptional case was S02 who rewrote the first draft with a new content and

developed it into the second and final drafts. Thus, the data collection took into account the new draft set and discarded the original first draft.

It was noticed that these text changes mostly resulted in the final draft being similar to either the first or the second draft, except in two cases. Student S22 rewrote a final draft which changed the summary of the text, while S26 revised the content at both stages; thus producing three texts, each with a different summary.

The finding raised a question as to why the writers made such a global change as such corrections were not found in the texts of unskilled L1 writers in studies conducted by Bridwell (1980) and Faigley and Witte (1984). As a claim was made that experienced writers tend to have a flexible plan in their writing (Zamel 1983), the text changes of EFL writers suggested a flexible plan too. However, this could not be concluded from the data available. A possible reason for the phenomenon could be that these unskilled writers sought for 'the right' content for the topic. Thus, the original plan was changed after they found supporting references that they could use.

7.1.3 Revisions by individual writers

Individual students varied in their focus on revisions. While many of them gave priority to the form, others worked on the content of the paper. A summary of the revision patterns of each student is shown in Table 7-3 for comparison.

Table 7-3

Revisions by individual writers

Student	Topic	Essay length (Words)			Number of revisions		Revision level						
		1	2	3	Stage 1	Stage 2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
S01	Exam	103	125	140	14	10	12	5	1	1	1	4	0
S02	Exam	154	157	146	5	11	10	0	3	0	3	0	0
S03	Crafts	380	592	322	53	55	41	10	23	6	20	8	0
S04	Forests	135	195	X	24	N/A	5	5	6	1	8	2	0
S05	Wedding	159	X	X	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
S06	Activities	156	242	178	25	18	11	5	6	6	11	4	0
S07	Crafts	206	264	167	22	10	14	0	10	0	3	5	0
S08	Social	115	462	153	1-tx	14	1	2	0	4	5	1	1
S09	Tourism	217	442	190	44	15	22	1	12	8	15	0	1
S10	Tourism	X	210	141	N/A	28	2	5	3	3	15	0	0
S11	Exam	157	248	237	26	10	18	5	0	6	2	5	0
S12	Food	179	815	285	70	98	38	14	7	3	23	83	0
S13	Traffic	110	155	210	9	10	5	1	4	1	6	2	0
S14	Food	148	162	X	28	N/A	19	1	2	2	4	0	0
S15	Food	161	187	122	14	11	2	2	2	4	13	2	0
S16	Crafts	126	172	180	28	24	14	17	11	4	4	2	0
S17	Food	152	189	177	24	10	9	1	3	2	9	10	0
S18	Traffic	103	218	161	20	15	6	4	5	4	10	6	0
S19	Food	168	195	197	13	12	13	6	5	1	0	0	0
S20	Food	160	X	166	N/A	22	13	0	3	3	3	0	0
S21	Exam	88	191	176	22	20	6	1	4	4	9	6	0
S22	Traffic	151	153	122	17	6	14	3	2	1	2	0	1
S23	Traffic	230	307	298	29	14	17	7	4	7	7	1	0
S24	Forests	130	144	143	19	12	10	1	2	5	6	6	1
S25	Education	117	132	129	24	22	14	12	7	2	9	2	0
S26	Forests	89	162	95	2-tx	1-tx	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
S27	Food	117	285	198	29	13	5	6	1	5	22	3	0
S28	Wedding	221	364	300	30	23	15	10	6	8	6	8	0
S29	Exam	126	182	219	21	20	8	5	4	2	16	6	0
S30	Food	140	286	244	4	11	3	0	3	1	4	3	0
S31	Traffic	160	218	217	23	5	10	7	6	1	4	0	0
S32	Traffic	149	131	132	24	13	8	4	1	1	15	8	0

The texts mostly revised were those that involved text level, such as that by S08 and S26. The global changes affect the outline and summary of the text. The most extensively revised essay at other linguistic levels while maintaining the outline was written by S12. She made 70 changes in stage one and 98 changes in stage two with the multiple sentence level mostly revised. Forty-six out of 70 changes in the first stage alone were multiple-sentence additions, most of which appeared to be deleted in the second stage. Heavy addition of sentences in the first revision was clearly an attempt to include citations. Nevertheless, it could be noticed that the added chunks

were copied from a text book as indicated by the language use. The second draft risked plagiarism because the texts were copied directly and without proper referencing. In addition to the content, the writer was concerned about mechanical changes such as punctuation and format, which resulted in the improved final draft that was more organised and focused. Sequential markers were used to facilitate readability.

The second most intensive reviser was S03 who made 53 and 55 changes in two revision stages respectively. Unlike S12, she revised mostly at the form level, mainly changing the verb form. She relied more on the first draft and only modified it by adding phrases and clauses to provide examples, using references. Like S12, sequential markers were used in the final draft and the content became more focused.

While S12 did most of the revisions by herself, S03 showed attempts to revise according to feedback, resulting in the well-developed final draft. A comment after the first draft on irrelevant content was responded to in the deletion of that part in the second draft. The same comment calling attention to weakness in the usage of passive form and verb 'to make' also affected the revisions of verb forms. The example is shown below:

Example 1

S03 attempted to revise the use of the verb 'to make' according to a comment.

<CM033>... Check your use of the passive construction, and your use of the verb "to make" (eg. "to be used to make", "to be made from").

The second draft exhibited her confusion of the usage, and so made changes when it was not needed, which resulted in an incorrect form. In the final draft, the form was correctly used.

- 102 *Ceramics are ware which make from the earther to use...*
104 *Carving use the material to carve such as stone which make the mortar in Chonburee, wood which make furniture and household furnishings, skin of cow which make puppet used in shadow play in south quarter of Thailand.*
209 *Carving use the material to carve such as stone which is made from the mortar inChonburee, wood which is made from furniture and household furnishings, skin of cow which is made from puppet used in shadow play in south quarter of Thailand.*
210 *...goldware, brassware and equipment which are made from iron*

- 306 *Third, Carving use the material to carve, such as the mortar is made from the stone,*
307 *furniture and household furnishings is made from the wood,*
308 *The puppet used in shadow play in south quarter of Thailand is made from the skin of cow.*

It was seen that S03 could reflect on her writing with some help from an audience, although the comment was not an explicit correction. The example provides evidence that the revision stages accommodate a writer to explore the correct form of the language.

The two least revised papers were those by S02 and S13. Student S02 made a total of 16 changes (5 and 11 changes at the two revision stages). Of these, ten were made at formal level such as punctuation, verb form and indentation. A sentence was added in the second draft but deleted in the final. These drafts obviously represented the writer's view of revising as editing and tidying up for a neater final draft (Bridwell 1980). At most, the writer seemed to have thought that adding a sentence from a resource book would be enough for revision.

In comparison, S13 made 9 and 10 changes in the two revision stages. She revised more than S02, especially at the sentence level which involved addition, substitution and expansion. Mechanics changes were not the major revisions of this writer.

One thing in common in the revision process between these two writers was that the organisation of the drafts remained the same in three drafts while some content was added straightforwardly without any changes in the existing text. Although the final products were not greatly improved, more extended content and supporting detail resulted in more academic-like text by S13.

An interesting observation was made concerning changes and feedback implementation. S23 who had the largest amount of unaltered t-units, i.e. 4 from 19 in draft one and 14 from 23 in draft two, was also the most frequent feedback incorporator. She incorporated feedback in 19 of her 29 changes in her first revision and in 6 of her 14 changes in the second stage. The unaltered units appeared to be those that received no comment from the readers while other units had received surface correction that resulted in one-to-one changes. The changes by this student

mostly generated more accurate units. The revising patterns of S23 may be interpreted that the writer was mainly dependent on feedback; hence only revised as suggested with very rare self-initiated changes to insert referenced texts. Additionally, incorporating the comments tended to result in improving linguistic accuracy. The lack of comments might have been interpreted by the student that the units were satisfactory and that no changes were needed. On the other hand, S28 maintained in her second draft 8 t-units from 19 units in the first draft without changes and 6 from 27 t-units in the next stage. Numerous revisions were made within other units at both stages (30, 23 changes) and at all levels although only the minority suggested linguistic accuracy improvement. Of all these changes, only one lexical item could be generated by peer response although the writer also received feedback including surface correction.

The performances of S23 and S28 indicate individual strategies in revising. While S23 incorporated every single suggestion, S28 tended to be more selective. The findings also imply that feedback especially explicit surface correction, if incorporated, resulted in accuracy improvement.

7.1.4 Discussion and implications of revisions

All types of revisions were found in this study. The students revised at all linguistic levels. The texts were expanded, shortened, consolidated and reorganised as the writers went through the revision stages. These revisions affected the linguistic aspects and resulted in the improvement of linguistic accuracy. These linguistic aspects in many cases changed the local meaning of the particular units. Changes hardly took place at a global scale except those essays that were revised at the text level. This suggests that in general these EFL students kept the outline and did not readily change what they had written possibly as they were attached to it and were not able to view the texts from a different angle (Fairbairn and Winch 1996). While Faigley and Witte (1984) associated skilled writers with the ability to see their own texts from an angle other than from their own eyes, the students in this study did not seem to look at their text from the readers' point of view. Instead, they revised

heavily at the surface level. Their low level of language proficiency dictated the types of revisions made.

Sommers (1978) reported that addition was the major operation by experienced writers while deletion and substitution were those of unskilled college L1 writers. Her findings indicated that the students usually relied on the first outline and were unlikely to elaborate the plan as they wrote; hence leaving the final draft with the similar concepts as the first one. The current study found elaboration made in the second draft (mostly by addition), to add relevant content, to modify the meaning and to describe or provide examples as a support to the existing ideas. The intensive addition in the second draft became frequent deletion in the third draft. It appears that these deletions did not result in a clearer text. It is uncertain that the operation was an attempt to convey the ideas in a more concise manner. Rather, it seems to indicate students' intention to follow classroom instruction of not writing more than ten sentences in the final draft.

The intensive use of addition and deletion in format or surface levels may correlate with the writers' low proficiency. Other operations that require more skills were employed far less. Changes made also indicated the student writers' concern about text length and use of references, which were the course requirements. The findings suggest that the students had little concern over correct form of punctuation. Difficulty in making changes at phrase level might imply that operations at that level require higher language proficiency than that possessed by the writers. This also suggests a necessary step to build up language competence for the EFL writers at this level.

These students were able to deal with simple sentences. However, they were confronted with difficulties when dealing with complex structure, which they tended to produce rather than using simple ones. Nevertheless, it should be noted that using complex sentences was a result of unfamiliarity with the language structure, i.e. an L1 influence. In Thai, a sentence is placed one after another as long as a thread of meaning is kept, usually combined by prepositions 'and', 'but' or other relative pronouns to include subordinate clauses. When writing in English, the students

transfer directly the form, very often grammatically incorrect and resulting in an incomplete complex unit.

The study has shown that through revision processes, students had an opportunity to explore the meaning they planned to convey and the language needed. For instance the improvement in the final drafts suggested the benefits of revision processes that allowed the students to play around with the text until they found the most satisfactory way to present the meaning. The revision processes were enhanced by proper guidance from peers, as suggested in Faigley and Witte (1984: 107) that revisions without guidance may be 'detrimental to the final product'.

Limitations in identifying a revision

Certain limitations in the study of revisions should be noted. Since the examination was conducted with the t-units that were not always correctly formed, it was difficult to identify the level of a revision in a malformed structure. This was also ambiguity in classifying the linguistic units affected by the changes. For example, the lexical item 'grow' was revised to 'grow up'. It was counted as a lexical change although use of preposition alone would be counted in grammar categories.

7.2 Effects of feedback on revisions

Two rubrics were used for an examination of effects of feedback on revisions in order to answer the research question of whether or not and how feedback given during NBC affects the revision process of the EFL students. As suggested in the previous section, some of the revisions came from feedback while many came from other sources. Ideally, the investigation would be conducted on 130 commentary messages in revision stages 1 and 2. However, fifteen correspondences (eight from peer students and seven from peer readers) were counted as inapplicable (N/A) since they were not followed by a draft or were not directly related to the drafts. The correspondences being examined consisted of 39 from peer students and 76 from peer readers. The inapplicable comments were 44 in total, of which 15 were given during Stages 1 and 2 of revision and 29 were given after the final drafts as the assessment by the TA.

The first rubric, views the influential feedback from its characteristics to identify which type was attended to and possibly influenced the revisions. The feedback types and characteristics tallied in 6.2.2 were examined against the revisions to ascertain which features held in a comment that received students' attention. The second rubric views the effect of feedback from the revisions made by individual writers at both stages. It is aimed at identifying actual changes and those influenced by comments.

Limitations should be noted here concerning determination whether a comment influenced revisions. While explicit and/or text-specific comments were straightforward and easy to analyse for their effects, the implicit ones were difficult. The generic type of moves caused an arbitrary determination as the judgement was based on possibility rather than explicit evidence.

Rubric 1 Influential feedback

The examination of influential comments was done in separated moves to identify which one was mostly understood and incorporated in the revision process. Insights found from using this rubric could benefit the way one would provide a comment so that students tend to pay attention to it. The results presented in Table 7-4 show all comments, comment providers and the effective comments.

Column A shows the moves and their specific features in three-digit strings of code (m-t-q), while m refers to the move type, t -characteristics of feedback, and q - revision request, when:

m: move (15 types as previously described, see also 5.5.2)

t: 1 = text-specific, 2 = generic

q: 1 = requesting revision, 2 = not requesting revision

Column B refers to the number of moves given by peer students and readers, which would be considered in accordance with effective comments in column C.

Column C indicates the feedback that impacted the sequential drafts, counted by the number of revisions that responded to a particular comment move. The effective

comments were only taken from those in column B and excluding those in column D.

Column D shows the number of inapplicable comments that were excluded from all feedback previously reported in 6.2.2. They were inapplicable because they were not followed by a draft due to two reasons: a sequential draft was not submitted or feedback was given after the final drafts. These comments are referred to as assessment.

The sums of effective comments are given with two references: (i) and (ii). One is based on all comments given. The other counts only those comments that request revision.

Table 7-4 Rubric 1
Feedback types and their effects on revisions

Commentary moves	A Characteristics (m-t-q)	B Peer groups (115 exchanges)		C Effective comments		D N/A feedback (44 exchanges)		
		Peers	Readers	By peers	By readers	By peers	By readers	By TA
GI	1-1-1 (TX-RQ)	1	1	1	1	-	-	-
	1-1-2 (TX-NQ)	1	5	-	-	-	-	-
	1-2-1 (G-RQ)	1	8	1	3	1	1	2
	1-2-2 (G-NR)	26	51	-	-	4	1	24
	2-1-1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
HS	2-1-2	2	8	-	-	-	1	8
	2-2-2	5	15	-	-	1	-	5
	3-1-1	-	9	-	1	-	-	2
REF	3-1-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
	3-2-1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
	4-1-1	7	33	3	9	1	3	12
CAW	4-1-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	4-2-1	13	20	8	6	-	1	7
	4-2-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	5-1-1	1	40	1	10	2	2	8
SUG	5-1-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	5-2-1	4	23	3	5	3	3	7
	5-2-2	1	1	-	-	-	-	1
	6-1-1	-	2	-	-	-	-	1
	6-2-1	-	2	-	-	-	-	1
AJ	6-2-2	4	6	-	1	-	-	5
	7-1-1	-	10	-	-	-	3	3
	8-1-1	-	6	-	2	-	2	3
JX	9-1-1	2	0	1	-	-	-	1
	9-2-1	3	2	2	1	2	1	-
	9-2-2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-

A		B		C		D		
Commentary moves	Characteristics (m-t-q)	Peer groups (115 exchanges)		Effective comments		N/A feedback (44 exchanges)		
		Peers	Readers	By peers	By readers	By peers	By readers	By TA
PS	10-1-1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	10-2-1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	10-2-2	1	2	-	-	-	-	1
PRB	11-1-1	-	21	-	8	-	2	15
	11-1-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	11-2-1	-	4	-	1	-	-	2
	11-2-2	-	13	-	-	-	1	2
OJ	12-1-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	12-2-1	-	1	-	1	-	-	-
	12-2-2	2	8	-	-	1	2	2
SF	13-1-1	-	42	-	20	-	2	8
	13-2-2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
INS	14-1-1	1	13	-	6	-	-	2
	14-1-2	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
	14-2-1	1	15	1	4	-	-	5
	14-2-2	-	2	-	-	-	1	1
MC	15-1-1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	15-1-2	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
	15-2-1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	15-2-2	5	31	-	-	2	3	15
Total (i)	84	409	21 (25%)	80 (19.55%)	17	29	146	
All applicable feedback types		493		101 (20.48%)		192		
Total (ii)		34	257	21 (61.76%)	80 (31.12%)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Only feedback that requests revisions (q =1)		291		101 (34.7%)				

Table 7-5 Rubric 2

Feedback – Revisions - Accuracy

Students	Stage 1				Stage 2			
	All changes	Feedback affected changes	Accurate changes	Accurate changes from feedback	All changes	Feedback affected changes	Accurate changes	Accurate changes from feedback
S01	14	7	4	2	10	3	6	1
S02	5	0	1	0	11	2	1	0
S03	53	5	9	1	55	5	23	5
S04	27	18	19	15	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
S05	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
S06	25	1	13	0	18	1	6	1
S07	22	0	2	0	10	0	6	0
S08	1-tx	0	tx	0	14	0	5	0
S09	44	2	24	1	15	0	9	0
S10	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	28	2	18	2
S11	26	5	16	5	10	0	1	0
S12	70	1	48	0	98	1	6	0
S13	9	2	7	1	10	0	2	0
S14	28	0	5	0	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
S15	14	2	4	0	11	0	1	0
S16	28	2	11	2	24	0	9	0
S17	24	1	11	0	10	0	4	0
S18	20	10	14	9	15	0	3	0
S19	13	1	3	1	12	6	0	0
S20	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	22	0	11	0
S21	22	1	9	1	20	3	6	0
S22	17	11	11	9	6	2	2	2
S23	29	19	20	17	14	6	4	0
S24	19	1	8	1	12	3	5	2
S25	24	0	9	0	22	8	14	5
S26	2-tx	1	1	1	1	0	tx	tx
S27	29	3	19	1	13	0	5	0
S28	30	1	7	1	23	0	7	0
S29	21	0	8	0	20	0	10	0
S30	4-tx	0	0	0	11	0	0	0
S31	23	14	15	12	5	0	1	0
S32	24	4	10	3	13	0	0	0
Total	667	112	308	83	533	42	165	18

n/a - not applicable

tx- text level

Rubric 2 Feedback - Revisions - Accuracy

The total of 1200 revisions presented in 7.1 were further investigated for the effects of feedback on them and their accuracy, based on individual writers. The results of this investigation are shown in Table 7-5.

The study has found that from 667 revisions made in Stage 1, 112 changes could be traced backed to feedback. In Stage 2, only 42 from 533 revisions were made according to feedback. Considering both stages together, 154 changes from the overall 1200 revisions were influenced by feedback. This figure indicates a small proportion of the comments had an effect on the written text.

Additionally, in term of accuracy, feedback accounted for about 23% of overall accurate changes made. It appears that the applied feedback at Stage 1 resulted in nearly 27% of more accurate revisions. The number of more accurate revisions from the use of feedback decreased to less than 11% in Stage 2. From this, it can be inferred that students attended more to comments at Stage 1 than at Stage 2. The number of students who implemented feedback in their drafts also confirms this. That is, while 7 out of 30 students did not use feedback at stage one, only 12 students possibly made use of comments at Stage 2.

Findings and discussion

The examination of feedback against revisions has uncovered the possibility that the students attended to the comments and incorporated some into their drafts. Among the total of 493 moves of commentary investigated, 101 moves were possibly attended to. Of these, 80 moves were from the external readers' comments while 21 were from peer students'. The primary concern here is that 80 moves are counted as a small proportion (19.5%) of the total 409 moves the readers suggested. Effective suggestions by peer students counted as a slightly higher proportion (25%) than those by the readers. The figures indicate that feedback from the two groups received similar attention.

All these comments that students attended to and reflected in their drafts were clearly the moves that request for revision (RQ) (i.e. $q = 1$), of which 34 were from peer students and 257 from the readers. Considering the RQ alone, students responded to 21 out of a total of 34 RQs (i.e. 61.76%). In contrast, only 31% of RQs from the readers were attended to (80 out of 257 RQs).

The tallied figures also indicate that three moves most frequently attended to were calling attention to weakness (CAW or MV4), surface correction (SF or MV13) and suggestion for improvement (SUG or MV5). These moves were mostly more effective when they were text specific. While SF always cooccurred with text specification, CAW and SUG might request for revision without being text-specific. Contradictorily, CAW and SUG were found to be equally influential whether or not they were text-specific or generic. This is likely to be owing to the flexible scheme used to judge the feedback effect in this study. This scheme allows a clue, which shows certain possible relation with a revision, to be counted as having a possible effect. Thus, generic comments are prone to be open to any possibility. This is another limitation of the investigation.

By and large, the influential moves indicated here do not represent revisions in a one-to-one pattern. One feedback move may result in more than one revision. A writer might make use of a certain move on many corrections, resulting in many revisions generated by only one move. This seems to occur with grammar suggestion, generic comment on content that resulted in writers making several changes. Surface correction has a special aspect to note in this analysis. This move was counted as one although it might cover a sentence length or beyond and contain several corrections in it. This one move usually resulted in many revisions, which were counted separately. In turn, a revision can also be related to more than one move in at least one comment given to a particular writer. For instance, two peers may comment on the same point. Or, in pointing out an 'error', one may first call attention to weakness, then give suggestion or correction to improve that error. As a matter of fact, the second rubric has revealed that 154 changes were made according to comments.

The way a comment affected revision is worth looking at. The writers tended to make use of feedback selectively. If the whole text was inserted with corrections, it might seem obvious that a writer would change the whole text accordingly. However, the findings revealed a slightly different result; not all writers took full advantage of the opportunity. They implemented feedback selectively.

The findings may be interpreted in three possible ways. First, the students did not perceive feedback as important as their own plan in revising the paper. This may well be a result of the course instructions that placed emphasis on the internal process of revision, not the need to interact with the reader (as in the genre approach). Once the students have fulfilled the task requirement, for them there might be no need to alter the text extensively. Second, they did not receive comments before they revised or in time to incorporate the feedback before the submission due. Therefore, the revisions only coincided with the feedback. Finally, students received the comments but were unable to interpret what was suggested. Lack of understanding or incompetence to revise accordingly, the students were then compelled to disregard the feedback.

It would be unfair to ignore the fact that those writers who relied strongly on self-initiated revisions also produced more accurate units. Nevertheless, with regard to each individual writer, it was uncovered that feedback was more likely to help improve unit accuracy although producing a more accurate change was conditioned by feedback types. Explicit comments such as specific surface corrections had a higher tendency to result in more accurate changes while implicit ones were ignored, misinterpreted, or resulted in erroneous attempts to revise accordingly.

The rubric to analyse feedback effects allowed a second look at the revisions. Although the findings suggest that feedback did not have significant influence on the students' revisions, it was seen that the comments impacted on all revision levels. In particular, most revisions caused by feedback were reflected at formal, grammar and lexical levels. Other levels being revised according to feedback included sentence construction or paraphrase. Very often, this was a result of explicit corrections (SF). Conceptual changes came mostly from the writers' own plan and/or generic comments. Reorganising the drafts was usually self-initiated.

7.3 Correlation between sources of feedback and revisions

Implications of feedback types (RQ or NQ)

As presented in the previous section, about 20% of comments possibly influenced the revisions. These comments were all RQ type, which is not surprising. However, this major influence of RQ comments does not imply that RQ is more effective than NQ or that NQ is useless. The RQ type may have explicit influence that is evident on the written text while the effect of NQ comments may not be seen easily. Rather, the NQ comment was reported to have effects on the students' attitudes and gave moral support because of its positive nature. For example, an NQ comment can be praising, greeting or other remarks that may encourage the students about their writing. In particular, the NBC environment in this study permitted irrelevant chats such as greeting and casual comment in the commentary message, which would not easily happen in an on-paper comment. These chats were expected to help reduce the serious tone of the negative comments and invite students to look at the feedback from peers and teachers in a more friendly way. However, the information gained from the follow-up study did not confirm this. Students only revealed their preference for positive feedback or praising although it did not help them with revision. Like other studies such as Carroll's (1984: 327), the students found this NQ type more encouraging than corrections or comments that could be viewed as 'blaming' (S09). This has led to a claim that the students took the comments too personally. However, it is still dubious whether taking the feedback personally or feeling humiliated was merely a tendency of an individual or was a negative result of NBC that permitted speech-like interaction.

Implications of revision sources

The total amount of 154 revisions that came from feedback accounts for only 12.8% of the overall 1200 changes made during both stages of revision (as illustrated in 6.1). The changes influenced by feedback were usually at lexical level, grammar use and sentence formation. Organisation and content-based revisions were not always generated by comments although certain generic comments were possibly influential. The small number of revisions from feedback implies that at least 87% of revisions

were not a direct result of comments given. Variables other than those investigated seemed to be influential. These variables might include self-initiation, conversation with the instructors, face-to-face talks with peers, consulting grammar books or other unknown sources.

As suggested earlier, feedback from the external readers generated more revisions than that by peer students. However, when compared to the amount of feedback given by each group, feedback by peer students tended to be more attended to (25%) than that by readers (19.5%). This is unclear if peers' influence according to their age group (Silva, Leki, Carson 1997: 408) as students exhibited easy interaction with their peers while keeping distance with the readers. More likely the comments from peer students were more attended to, as their comments were brief and rather general while the readers offered longer, more complex sentence structure and possibly more difficult-to-understand comments.

Feedback by external readers might result in more traceable revisions because it was more precise. In addition, in many cases, feedback by the readers tended to affect the accuracy of the draft, especially the form-based one, like that found in Fathman and Whalley (1990). On the other hand, feedback by peer students was mostly concerned with forms (especially spelling and a reminder of text length). Interestingly, although revisions made according to feedback improved the unit accuracy, the revisions without feedback did so too. It has been reported that ESL writers are able to revise and improve grammatical accuracy even without a feedback setting (Polio, Fleck, Leder 1998). It can, therefore, be inferred that the students were able to initiate more accurate changes at a simple grammatical level and revision process allowed them the time to do so.

The investigation of the changes also revealed that most changes made in normal cases have not affected the global meaning of the draft. Most changes were made on a surface level, preserving the meaning and/or changing the meaning locally (Faigley and Witte 1981, 1984). Changes in the global meaning only occurred when the drafts had text-level revisions. However, such revisions were due to students' own decision; they were not due to any feedback except for one comment on the content which was given to S02, who then wrote a new first draft with an entirely new

content. Four subjects who altered the content did so in either revision stage. One subject made global changes in the content in both stages.

With regards to external readers as sources of revision, the study found that the readers often played a role of ‘someone who knew more’ rather than as a ‘reader who wanted to know more’. The implication was made from the comments that tended to dictate to the writer and showed the reader’s authority over the text. However, these authoritative comments had major effects on students’ revisions while the suggestions or requests asking for more clarification did not result in appropriate changes. This might have been due to the students’ ability to interpret the comments due to the level of language competence as well as their perception of readers’ authority. As Thai students regard teachers as ‘someone who knows more’, they are prone to give importance to teachers’ comments. The concept might have been transferred to their perception of the readers, as it was noticed that students sent their drafts to the forum and requested for feedback.

7.4 Association of revisions and text quality

As a final stage of examining the revision processes, this section associates the revisions, the incorporation of feedback into successive drafts and the text quality (the final drafts). Two approaches were applied. First, the error-free t-units (EFTs) were identified and used to determine the overall quality of the final products. Second, each revision was examined and judged for its increased accuracy, which may or may not be influenced by feedback.

By looking at the error-free t-units, the author is aware of the argument that fewer errors might not be interpreted as an indicator of development (Polio 2001: 111). Instead, the examination of EFTs here is aimed at assessing the overall improvement in the quality of the drafts after the revision processes. The only contributor to the text quality used in the current study⁵ is accuracy at both micro and macro levels, as

⁵ Attempts were made to consult marking scales of available standard examinations such as the IELTS. However, the author was informed that the examiners who are trained for scoring the IELTS may not assess any other exam papers with reference to the IELTS scoring system (The British Council, Bangkok: May 2003).

defined by Bridwell (1980). At the micro level, fewer grammatical mistakes and fewer spelling errors were looked for whereas the macro level refers to content readability or improvement in meaning clarity (Faigley and Witte 1981, 1984). To prevent misinterpretation of the results concerning linguistic accuracy, format and other marginal errors were not taken into consideration. The findings indicated that the final drafts improved although the improvement was not always a result of feedback. The table below shows that there is a high number of drafts (22) that implemented feedback in Stage 1, but only 14 first drafts were more accurate than the first draft. In contrast, 17 students did not make use of feedback in Stage 2, yet 14 of them improved the text accuracy. This indicates that the major factor that influenced the quality of writing was not the feedback, but the process of revision itself, as the students were able to reflect on their own errors and improve the accuracy even without feedback.

Table 7-6

The number of accurate texts

Stage	Feedback implementation	More accurate text	Non-improvement	Less accurate text	Total
Stage 1	Using feedback	14	5	3	22
	Not using feedback	3	1	3	7
Stage 2	Using feedback	8	2	2	12
	Not using feedback	14	1	2	17

Several findings concerning error-free t-units were uncovered.

1. In general, the final drafts contained more error-free t-units than the other two drafts, especially the first one. This is thought to be due to the revision process as it usually results in an improved final product. Only some drafts showed no improvement of EFTs such as S08, S21 and S25.
2. An insertion of references and citation may result in either EFTs or error t-units. On the one hand, a citation results in more error-free t-units, especially when it is copied or directly quoted e.g. S15. On the other hand, incorporating text from other sources may lead to more error t-units when

texts are badly paraphrased or reformulated due to the limited language proficiency of the writer.

3. The higher number of EFTs may not always indicate improvement related to the content and readability of the draft. Cases are present where attempts to insert citation or supporting information from other resources without successful binding with the text, resulted in error-free units, but incoherent text.
4. Error-free t-units are not always influenced by feedback although it was found that surface correction had a tendency to generate EFTs.
5. As expected, the use of conjunctive ties such as sequential markers, although not resulting in linguistic accuracy, benefited the organisation and readability of the writing in this particular study even though the markers employed by these writers were simple (see 6.1.2.2 for conjunctions). Partly, the use of these cohesive ties was influenced by suggestion provided by peer readers.
6. At the macro level, all final texts maintained the same concept as the first or the second drafts, except S22 and S26 whose text summary were altered. Most changes were made at micro level, which were simpler such as form, lexicon and grammar.

7.5 The incorporation of language and ideas

Revisions on linguistic form that were made according to feedback reflected students' attention to the language use. This implies that the students in **Eng4Wr** learned the correct linguistic forms from peers and often improved the accuracy of the final drafts. However, it was noted that the incorporation of grammatical features was inconsistent, which indicated attempts to apply the linguistic form although the knowledge was still in its early establishment as illustrated in the examples below.

Example 1

S24 learned the correct passive form and tried to use it. The example shows the process of learning by exploring for the right form.

- 109 *If something was destroyed and remainder things are destroy too.*
115 *If the rain forests were destroyed is like equal to human is destroy too*
207 *If the forests were destroyed*
212 *If the rainforests were destroyed*

Example 2

S23 repeated the mistakes without noticing the correct use or the different forms.

- 312 *and it is danger to eyes and plants*
319 *noise is dangerous to people...*
323 *but some pollution is very dangerous while some pollution is less dangerous*

The findings also confirmed the point previously made that the students' level of proficiency influenced their ability to incorporate the correct form. Self-observation on the correct form did not take place, as the skills might have been beyond their level. They needed explicit instruction although certain types of grammatical teaching might have been too difficult to understand, and therefore did not result in correct incorporation, as evident in the example below.

Example 3

S17 received a direct suggestion as how to use 'they' and 'their'. However, her subsequent drafts did not show her incorporation of the language form suggested.

<CM171> ...'they' and 'their' are different. 'They' is a pronoun, used as a subject of a sentence. 'Their' is a possessive pronoun...

different (adj) – difference (n)

- 104 *People choices about food are linked to they physical needs, they environment and they emotions.*
105 *Everybody needs foods but foods that they need are difference.*
211 *Compared to females, males tend to be bigger, and there body composition is difference*

In terms of idea incorporation, it was not possible to make a conclusion from the data obtained for the expository writing, as students were not actually exposed to a discussion to exchange ideas. Since they only treated the **Eng4Wr** as platform to receive comments from the others, the incorporation of ideas only took place as stimulated by the feedback and not a discussion. For example, S03 removed the

content related to architecture after she received a comment stating that architecture is not a handicraft, the topic she was writing about. In contrast to expository writing, the argumentative writing in Phase 2 might have yielded more data concerning idea incorporation, as there were more discussions carried out in the forum. However, the drafts were not complete enough to observe this phenomenon.

As seen from the study, incorporation of ideas and language was found in students' attempts to use explicit feedback. They did not spontaneously incorporate the language forms as used by more competent English users, which was expected to take place through the online interactions. It can be inferred that the language and ideas by external agents could influence the students' writing only when given explicitly. The occurrence might be due to several factors, which included the short time of exposure to the target language, task types, the students' language proficiency, their participation and the readers' interactions. Further discussion concerning these aspects is in Chapter 9.

Chapter conclusions

The chapter has presented the findings in the revisions and has identified effective feedback. The findings indicated that these EFL students revised heavily, but mostly on surface levels in both stages of revision. This suggests their overconcern about surface corrections and/or their difficulties in dealing with more sophisticated revisions. Changes in meaning only occurred locally, not globally except for a few drafts where the outline was altered. Major operations taken were addition and deletion. This suggests that the students may find it difficult to handle other complex operations such as substitution or reordering. It was also obvious that students revised with a concern for course requirements.

Overall, around 60 % of feedback resulted in revisions. Most effective feedback was surface correction, which resulted in 20% of all effective feedback. Feedback that gave suggestion for improvement and called attention to weaknesses was also addressed. However, effective feedback has certain characteristics such as being text-specific and requesting revision. Obviously, the feedback that requested revision

usually stimulated revisions. It was also noticed that text-specific feedback was easy for the writer to act on although it did not have a significant effect.

Comparing the overall revisions with the feedback, it was found that most revisions were from self-initiation (85%) rather than feedback (15%), which corresponded to other studies (Connor and Asenavage 1994, Paulus 1999). Even though NBC could facilitate interactions with a global audience who were more competent in the target language, this did not have significant impact on revision processes.

8 Eng4Wr: Participation and attitudes

This chapter is aimed at answering two research questions that are related to students' motivation to participate in the online environment and their attitudes in the practice of writing. The questions are:

- Does NBC affect students' writing attitudes and strategies?
- Does NBC motivate students to use the target language?

Two aspects of the online course, **Eng4Wr**, run for the empirical study are presented and discussed: firstly, section 8.1 presents and discusses students' participation in the network-based activities. The presentation is dependent upon two major sources: networked communication in **Eng4Wr** and the research diary. Secondly, in 8.2, students' attitudes are reported and discussed based on the data obtained from questionnaires and the interviews in the follow-up study.

8.1 Students' participation in Eng4Wr online course

Students' participation in NBC activities refers to the online communication that took place in **Eng4Wr** online course. Although the communication was conducted by correspondence in the discussion forums and by electronic mail, the study mainly investigates communication via the discussion forums, as evidenced in the **Eng4Wr** course. Students' participation is presented and discussed based on frequency of use. Two dimensions of the usage are investigated: the amount of correspondence and the frequency of access.

8.1.1 Correspondences in the discussion forums

Interactions in asynchronous NBC in **Eng4Wr** online course took place in ten discussion forums in **Eng4Wr** online course. Altogether there were 46 registered users, which included 34 students, 9 assigned readers⁶, 2 guest accesses and the teaching assistant (TA). The participants are classified into two groups: 'students' and 'others' because the students' participation is the main concern of the study. The 'others' group, thus, included readers, TA and guests who logged in via open access. Note that guest access was uncontrolled and anonymous.

Table 8-1 shows contributions, counted as the number of exchanges in correspondence generated by the students and the others in two phases according to the course outline: expository and argumentative tasks. The number in the brackets indicates the number of students who wrote their composition under that topic.

Table 8-1

Number of exchanges in Eng4Wr forums

Forum	Phase 1 (expository)			Phase 2 (argumentative)		
	Exchanges	By students	By others	Exchanges	By students	By others
1 Foods	38	27 (8)	11	16	5 (2)	11
2 Examination	13	7 (5)	6	19	4 (2)	15
3 Rainforests	12	9 (3)	3	8	2 (2)	6
4 Handicrafts	7	4 (3)	3	11	3 (1)	8
5 Traffic	14	11(6)	3	28	13 (2)	15
6 Education	6	3 (1)	3	15	4 (1)	11
7 Social problem	0	0 (1)	0	13	4 (1)	9
8 Wedding	6	4 (2)	2	6	1 (0)	5
9 Tourism	3	2 (3)	1	0	0 (0)	0
10 Personal thoughts	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	99	67	32	116	36	80

As seen, contributions in the discussion forum were higher for argumentative writing, mostly by non-students to stimulate the discussion. In contrast, students contributed more in the expository writing forums. The correspondences in the first phase included drafts, threads of messages and commentary given during the peer review.

⁶ The registered readers did not always imply participation.

Examples

S15 *this is my second draft*

S07 *I am sorry for E-mail but I'll try to send better than more ago. Thank you.*

In contrast, the correspondences in Phase 2 (examples to follow) were more discussion-based and were attended by 11 from 12 students who volunteered to continue working in **Eng4Wr**.

The number of correspondences often correlated with the number of students writing on the topics. The higher the number of writers, the more messages posted to the forum. For example, there was a high number of contributions in food and traffic forums which were joined in by students writing on those topics, while correspondences in the tourism forum were very low. Real discussion only took place in the argumentative phase although it was expected in the expository phase as well. Correspondences in the forum for argumentative writing in Phase 2 consisted of topical discussion on the assignments. The students posted questions and replied in order to elaborate the ideas. It should be noted that the correspondence in this phase was only examined in its general aspects, as it could not be related to the revision processes in argumentative writing due to the insufficient written drafts obtained.

A major finding from the correspondence in Phase 2 is that the students put an effort to present their ideas although their performance indicated their unfamiliarity with the activity. The students elaborated their ideas when asked and gave feedback to their peers, as illustrated in the example below and more examples in Appendix 13.

Example 1

S25 presented her outline before writing a draft on Higher Education. A reader asked for explanation of an idea in her plan.

R10 *Can I ask a question about 'reduce the gap of the society? What do you mean by that?...*

S25 *I think same you in higher education increase gap because when people have high they think not same people who low education so it may be increase the gap. so i chang my opinion. Thank you for your comment.*

Example 2

S26 commented on S04's brainstorming task.

S26 I think your brainstorm should add more information. And the information have to be more clear. Thank you.

Example 3

Student S22 asked for explanation about a discussion, which might also imply that the handout provided had not been clear to the students.

S22 Hi wararat. How are you?

I want to ask about how to discuss, how to send and which subject to discuss. Thank you for your kindness.

The correspondence in Phase 1 was not as frequent nor as sophisticated as expected as in Phase 2. The number of correspondences from non-student group in expository discussion forums was significantly low when compared to the total amount of comments provided by the reader (83 comments), as reported in 6.2, which included those by email. Even though email was expected to be used as a second choice and substitution for the discussion forum in case of any technical problems, readers tended to rely more on email than the discussion forum. According to the research diary, three major readers addressed the difficulty in accessing **Eng4Wr**, by requesting for the drafts to be forwarded to them via email as well, to which they commented and sent back by email.

The preference placed on using email over the discussion forum may imply that use of the online course was less convenient than email, which was found to be more efficient for immediate and specific interactions, i.e. giving feedback to particular students. The implication can also be applied to the low contribution in the discussion forum by the students.

Another possible reason for low participation could be the lack of anonymity or alias in this online environment. Having their real name shown in the forum in which joined by peer students might negatively affect shy or inhibited students. 'Weak' students in the classroom might find themselves unable to express or expose themselves in the forum although many studies have found shy students participate more often in the online environment than in face-to-face meeting (Kroonenberg 1994/1995, Sullivan and Pratt 1996, Warschauer 1996). Feeling unjustified or

uncertain of their competence might affect providing feedback in peer review. These students might feel uneasy openly commenting on their peers' writing.

Student correspondence was unsophisticated in the linguistic features used. Students wrote short sentences, some of which exhibited aspects of spoken language, such as the greetings, salutation, some casual comments and mistyped words (it is presumed here that the mistyped were not errors). The correspondence did not significantly indicate that the language was used as naturally as expected. Neither did the students employ a wide variety of linguistic features. This raised a question if the lack of breadth was due to poor linguistic competence. Despite attempting to participate in the forum, the students were not advanced enough to communicate naturally in English. Even though the messages were comprehensible, some of them exhibited students' difficulty in using the language to convey meaning, as shown in the examples given below.

Example 1

S04 To.. S24

I read your first draft .It's very well. But to improve gramma . Second draft may be better .

Example 2

S22 *I'm sorry. I sent final draft too late because on Wednesday and Thursday computer in computer center can't use so i did't sent final draft to you. I send my Assignt and I hope I get a good mark and Please comment*

Example 3

S32 *I have some question to ask teacher*

1. *How as writing we should word for write is good but sometimes we not find word?*
2. *Do we need to read a book of Thai language before writing?*

Thank you

8.1.2 Statistics for access to the online environment

The analysis of students' participation in the online environment is based on the frequency of access **Eng4Wr**, as records generated by the online course tool. Results cover the overall access, the number of accesses by each user, the hours and the days of access during the period of the fieldwork (12 June – 24 August 2000).

Phase one ran from 12 June to 16 July 2000 and phase two from 16 July to 24 August 2000⁷ based on the classroom assignments. There was a flat period of no activity for a few days between the two phases. The gap facilitates the retrieval of statistical records and avoids overlap in activity.

A specific aspect to take into consideration when generating the records of access in **Eng4Wr** is that the Blackboard site functioned in Eastern Standard Time (EST= GMT- 05:00). So, the statistical data recorded by EST in **Eng4Wr** was converted to Thailand time, which was GMT+06:00⁸, a difference of 11 hours between the course server and the actual time of access from Thailand.

Overall access to the online course

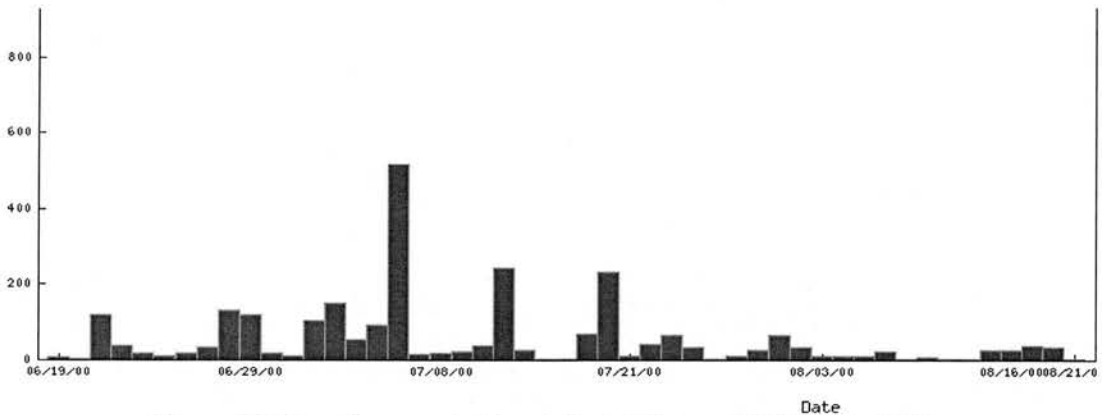


Figure 8-1 Overall access by the students (12 June- 24 August 2000)

(Source: Generated by Course Statistics, <http://courseinfo.blackboard.com/bin/common/access>)

⁷ A boundary was made according to the flat period when Eng4Wr was not activated during 15-17 July.

⁸ GMT + 06:00 was used instead of GMT + 07:00 because summer saving time was being used during the fieldwork.

Figure 8-1 indicates that there was inconsistent participation in the online environment. The Figure shows the inequitable distributions over the period. The peak of participation by the students was on July 6, when there was a compulsory peer review in the classroom session as seen in the highest column in the figure. The previous columns during the same week imply the submission of their assignments.

After the peer evaluation, the overall participation was not so great again although two columns later are also quite large. These other two high columns correspond to the dates of the revised draft submissions. Likewise, the other columns tend to correspond to the time when students were to submit their assignments such as the brainstorming task, note cards and different drafts. Towards the end of the project in Phase 2, participation by the voluntary group was low, but still corresponding to the due dates of submission. Together, these results support the claim that participation in this particular group was low and mainly relevant to classroom activities; not personal motivation to participate.

Total accesses by all users

The access was recorded by the number of hits generated on the course server. The total number of hits generated by all 46 users was 4610 hits, as displayed in Table 8-2. This number is misleading because it includes a highly frequent access of the author as a teaching assistant and the researcher. Excluding the TA's participation, the total hits by students and the other participants was 3151, of which 2724 hits were by the students and 427 hits were by the other participants. Since the study is concerned with the students' participation in NBC activities, the statistical analysis will, from now on, only refer to access by the students.

Total ratio

The total number of hits per student in this project varied between 9 to 132 hits (0.34 - 5.01 percent of the total number of hits), with an average of 80 hits (2.94 percent). This indicates low interaction with the system. Obviously, those students who participated in Phase 2 accessed the course more than those who did not participate in Phase 2. Records also suggest that some of the students who did not officially join

Phase 2 also accessed the system. Some of these non-participants even made more hits in Phase 2 than some official participants, such as S01 and S07 who generated 48 and 50 hits unofficially in Phase 2. This suggests that some students found the course interesting although they were not able to fully take part or they had to give priority to other subjects. Figure 8-2 compares student accesses the online course in two phases.

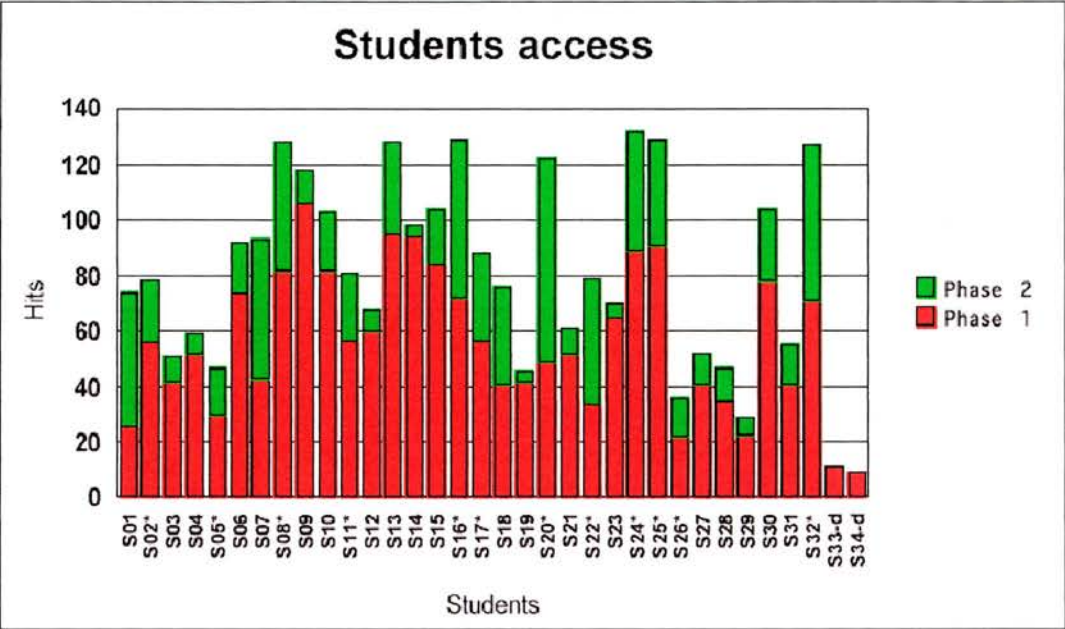


Figure 8-2 Overall student access Eng4Wr

Table 8-2

Total access by all users

Users	Hits	%	Hits	%						
R01	99	2.11	99	3.14						
R02	23	0.49	23	0.73						
R03	5	0.11	5	0.16						
R04	7	0.15	7	0.22						
R05	53	1.13	53	1.68						
R06	15	0.32	15	0.48						
R07	109	2.32	109	3.46						
R08	84	1.79	84	2.67						
R09	6	0.13	6	0.19						
R10	19	0.40	19	0.60						
R11	7	0.15	7	0.22						
RTA	1551	32.99	xclcd	Xclcd						
					Students only					
					Hits	%	Phase 1	%	Phase 2	%
S01	74	1.57	74	2.35	74	2.72	26	1.36	48	5.87
S02*	78	1.66	78	2.48	78	2.86	56	2.94	22	2.69
S03	51	1.08	51	1.62	51	1.87	42	2.20	9	1.10
S04	59	1.25	59	1.87	59	2.17	52	2.73	7	0.86
S05*	47	1.00	47	1.49	47	1.73	30	1.57	17	2.08
S06	92	1.96	92	2.92	92	3.38	74	3.88	18	2.20
S07	93	1.98	93	2.95	93	3.41	43	2.26	50	6.11
S08*	128	2.72	128	4.06	128	4.70	82	4.30	46	5.62
S09	118	2.51	118	3.74	118	4.33	106	5.56	12	1.47
S10	103	2.19	103	3.27	103	3.78	82	4.30	21	2.57
S11*	81	1.72	81	2.57	81	2.97	57	2.99	24	2.93
S12	68	1.45	68	2.16	68	2.50	60	3.15	8	0.98
S13	128	2.72	128	4.06	128	4.70	95	4.98	33	4.03
S14	98	2.08	98	3.11	98	3.60	94	4.93	4	0.49
S15	104	2.21	104	3.30	104	3.82	84	4.41	20	2.44
S16*	129	2.74	129	4.09	129	4.74	72	3.78	57	6.97
S17*	88	1.87	88	2.79	88	3.23	57	2.99	31	3.79
S18	76	1.62	76	2.41	76	2.79	41	2.15	35	4.28
S19	46	0.98	46	1.46	46	1.69	42	2.20	4	0.49
S20*	122	2.59	122	3.87	122	4.48	49	2.57	73	8.92
S21	61	1.30	61	1.94	61	2.24	52	2.73	9	1.10
S22*	79	1.68	79	2.51	79	2.90	34	1.78	45	5.50
S23	70	1.49	70	2.22	70	2.57	65	3.41	5	0.61
S24*	132	2.81	132	4.19	132	4.85	89	4.67	43	5.26
S25*	129	2.74	129	4.09	129	4.74	91	4.77	38	4.65
S26*	36	0.77	36	1.14	36	1.32	22	1.15	14	1.71
S27	52	1.11	52	1.65	52	1.91	41	2.15	11	1.34
S28	47	1.00	47	1.49	47	1.73	35	1.84	12	1.47
S29	29	0.62	29	0.92	29	1.06	23	1.21	6	0.73
S30	104	2.21	104	3.30	104	3.82	78	4.09	26	3.18
S31	55	1.17	55	1.75	55	2.02	41	2.15	14	1.71
S32*	127	2.70	127	4.03	127	4.66	71	3.73	56	6.58
S33-d	11	0.23	11	0.35	11	0.40	11	0.58	-	-
S34-d	9	0.19	9	0.29	9	0.33	9	0.47	-	-
AVG	4702	100.01	3151	99.99	2724	100.02	1906	99.98	818	99.73
	-	-	-	-	80.11	2.94	-	-	-	-

* marks the official participants in phase 2
-d S33, S34 dropped out from the course
AVG Average
R Reader identification
S Student identification

Note: The numbers of hits by the students only in two phases are illustrated in Figure 8-2.

Student accesses by time and day

The records on the time and the day students accessed the online course are interesting in that they clearly show a peak on Thursdays. The Figure 8-3 suggests that computer access occurred equally throughout the day, with a peak time at 5 p.m. The high frequency of access at 9 a.m. was most probably due to the peer review as allocated by a classroom session. Access in the late afternoon could be due to students' free time, which would allow them to work on their assignments.

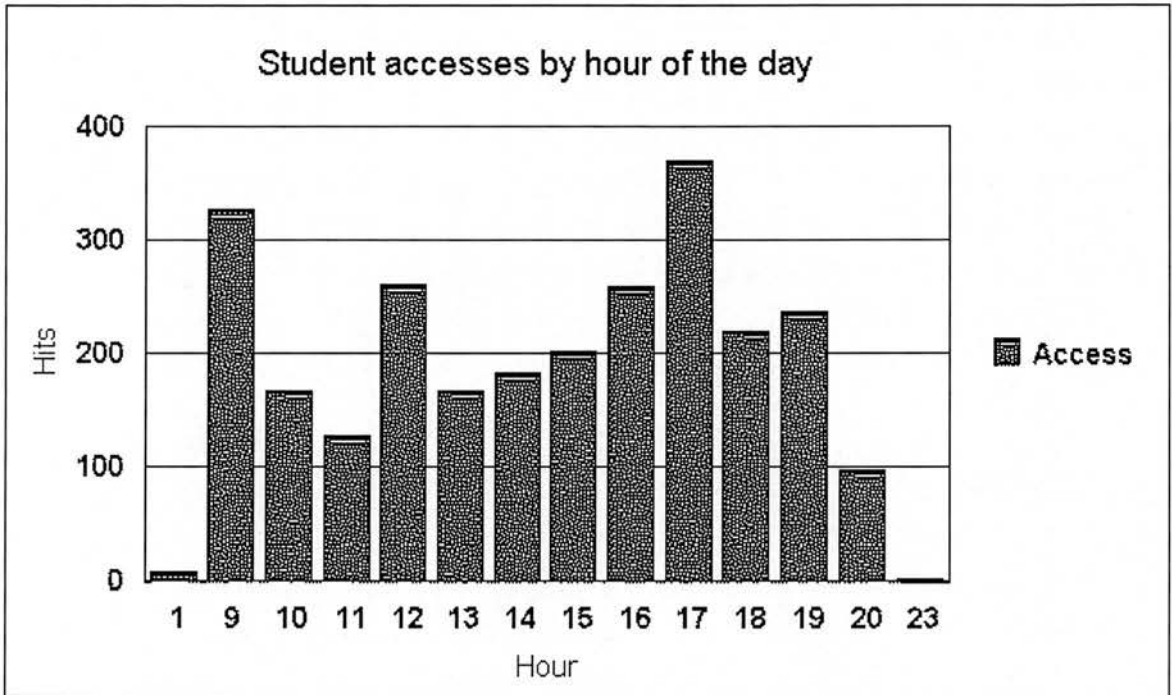


Figure 8-3 Student access by hours of the day

8.1.3 Access during the week of peer review

The peak access by the students during peer review as previously shown in the overall access necessitated a more attentive study on that particular week to confirm the findings. The day of access in Figure 8-4 clearly indicates an abrupt rise and fall in access before and after the peer review classroom session. That is Friday during the tutorial (0800-10.00 am), which is confirmed by the Figure 8-4. Unfortunately, there was only one assigned peer evaluation activity in this study. Otherwise, it would have been interesting to compare students' behaviour for any pattern of participation in the activity as an assignment.

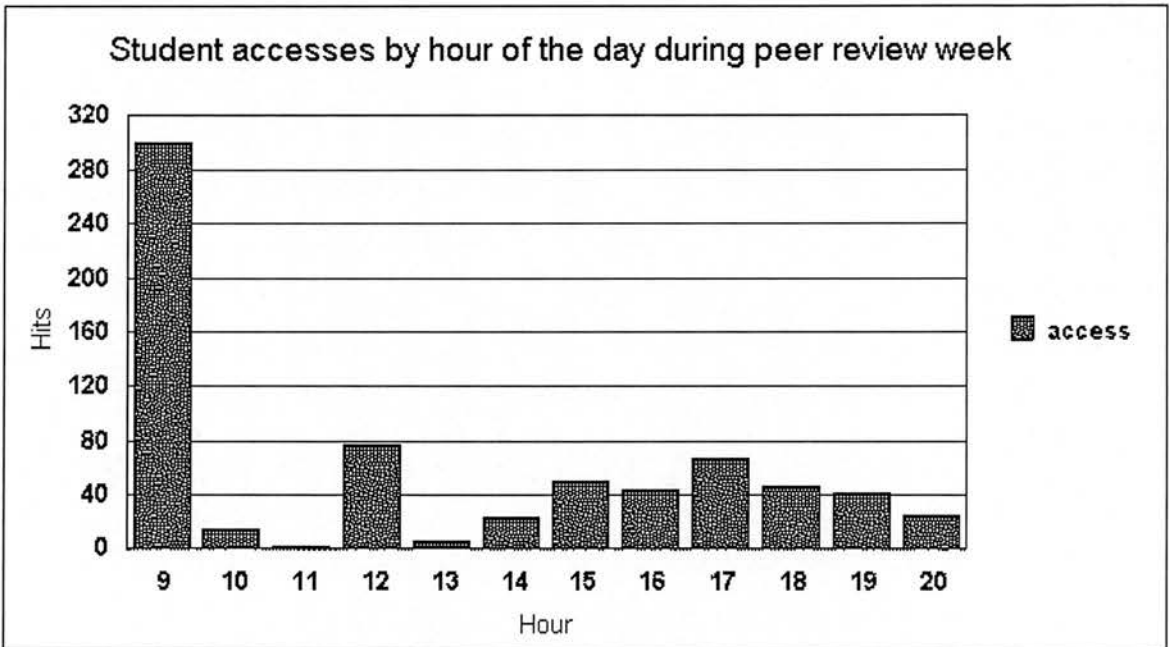


Figure 8-4 The access time of the day during the week of peer review

The figure above (Figure 8-4) shows a high number of hits during the peer review session allocated by the classroom instructor. It indicated up to 300 hits made during the hour while the access was low during other time in the rest of the week. This implies students' low motivation in using NBC in their own time. Students only joined the forum when commanded to. This can be interpreted in two dimensions.

First the students were not used to carrying out independent learning, as the educational system had fostered them with 'spoon-feeding' system. Second, the course online and the discussion forums did not capture students' attention or did not inspire the students to use the networks for out-of-classroom learning. Both of these two reasons resulted in low participation.

8.1.4 Access versus production

The research question 'Does NBC motivate students to use the target language?' is answered by the findings presented in the previous sections. A possible answer is that the students in the current study participated in the online environments only when required to. Individuals' interest in interacting with their peers in NBC was not reflected in participation in the discussion forums although there were signs of students having an interest in interacting with the system when they did not need to (Phase 2). It can be concluded that the inconsistent participation over the time clearly indicates a low level of self-motivation to interact with peers in the target language.

It was observed that a high frequency of interactions of an individual with the system did not always result in a high quantity of correspondence. Some participants accessed the **Eng4Wr** (as measured from the number of hits) but did not always contribute to the forum. For example, S09 made 106 hits in Phase 1 and contributed once while S32 made 71 hits and contributed 3 times. Many students only visited content pages or 'lurked' around the discussion forums. Two conclusions can be drawn. First, the students attempted to observe the correspondence in NBC, but were probably not confident enough to contribute or simply did not find the topics interesting. Compounding the problem, low motivation in taking part in the discussion might come from language difficulties on top of the lack of interest. Second, the system was difficult to use; and thus students were trying to figure out what to do by exploring the site, or students mainly explored the site out of curiosity or their interest of using the computer.

8.2 Students' attitudes

The follow-up study was conducted with 23 students from the total 32 students involved in the fieldwork, the rest of whom were not available during the interview time. The study was aimed at investigating the students' background and their attitudes in three areas: English learning, writing and the use of computer, and finally the online environment. The information gives some insights that support claims and understanding about their behaviours, as identified in this section in four categories 1) general information, 2) computer use, 3) writing, and 4) peer review.

8.2.1 Student background

The students had learned English for at least 9 years through compulsory education. Having acknowledged the importance of the language, all but one (S28) showed positive attitudes. Their most preferable skill was speaking while reading was reported the least favourite activity. As hypothesised, these students seldom practised English outside the classroom. On average, English conversation occurred once a week in the English classroom. However, some students did use English occasionally in the activities such as the Internet, films, news, the media, occasional talks with friend (for fun) and listening to songs in English.

Likewise, these students were computer literate although they were not heavy users and did not spend much time at the computer. More than a half used the computer 1-2 times a week, a quarter 2-5 times and the minority more than 5 times. This indicates a small number of heavy computer users.

The background information indicating low frequency in both using English and the computers may be correlated with the low participation in the online study. Although the students find these two skills important, they were not particularly keen on doing extra practices outside the classroom other than for entertainment.

Particular use of computer

Despite not being heavy users, the students experienced using the computers for the Internet, NBC—email, text-chat and newsgroups. Sixteen of the participants had

used CALL software programmes before. They were familiar with using both synchronous and asynchronous NBC, especially electronic mail and some chat programmes although most correspondence was in Thai and only occasionally in English. More sophisticated applications were not common and most students never experienced, for example, voice chats, perhaps because of the absence of these facilities on campus.

The questionnaires also showed that students were not familiar with computer programmes for language learning, other kinds of CALL, or any other online courses even though they have some simple usage of the online resources such as dictionaries and the World Wide Web. The unfamiliarity with such programmes might be a contributing in the difficulties encountered by students joining the online course.

8.2.2 The attitudes towards the online English Writing Course

In general, students showed positive attitudes towards the course as they found it was beneficial to receive feedback from the audience. They also mentioned the online course allows them more flexible time for submission and they experienced a new learning environment.

There should have been the same kind of treatment in other courses such as English 1-3. That would help improve students' language skills. (S17)

Learning through computers is very useful because it expands both my English and computer application skills. (S02)

If there will be another English course, I'd like to have this same method of learning. That is submitting the assignments to the instructor and other teaching assistants. (S23)

I hope there will be a compulsory course like this. It gives us knowledge and feedback on our writings. (S18)

We gained experience in writing during the course. (S07)

I like the course, and it helped me to write properly. (S24)

I can apply the knowledge to write more effectively. (S26)

The online course was easy to use. I also found it's more convenient and flexible to submit work at 9pm. (S31)

At first, I got frustrated with using the computer. But after a while, I kind of got used to it. (S01)

However, negative views were also raised. The students found using online course inconvenient, especially when compared with face-to-face communication that they preferred. Some students even considered the online course disadvantageous for their learning due to the inconvenient access and usage.

I think I was confused with what to do with this new thing. (S09)

In this kind of learning, students should have a chance to ask questions and discuss (synchronously) with the teacher through the Internet. Chat would be preferable. (S26)

Submission online is a modern method, applying technology to classroom. But for assignments, submitting the actual draft face-to-face is better because corrections or improvement will be given directly. In addition, two teachers used different standards. Therefore, students are confused and not sure whose measurement matters (S15).

I prefer face-to-face communication. (S02)

Communication was quite difficult. It was not as convenient as direct meeting. It took time to check emails. (S08)

One way communication through email might not be totally understood. It should have been both ways. Without real communication, feedback was misinterpreted because we didn't know what we were supposed to do. (S27)

A main concern detected from the interview was that after the course, the students had not established a full account of academic writing and were not aware of the discourse community. Since the basic needs for a discourse community of academic writing were not introduced, the students lack of knowledge on purpose and goal of the writing. They had no awareness of the audience or who the writing was for, other than the course work and the readers (who were, in their view, teachers). Their revisions were therefore rigid to the course instructions. This resulted in confusion and negative attitudes towards the writing course:

It was not made clear what 'fact' means in expository writing. (S09)

Writing an argumentative essay is more fun (than expository writing). There are too many rules (S08).

I like writing, but I don't like academic writing. It is too rigid. (S28)

8.2.3 The attitudes towards writing and peer review

As most students found writing their weakest skill, they attempted to develop some strategies to accomplish the tasks. The strategies applied included translation and copy-and-paste from text books, which apparently resulted in a number of incomprehensible sentences, mistakes with punctuation marks and incoherent texts. Importance was not always given to writing an outline although the course emphasised the process of writing and the planning stages. The information obtained from the interview and questionnaires suggests that these students were not familiar with academic writing, nor with the concept of plagiarism, as seen from the excerpts:

I wrote like telling a story. I had no outline, just wrote in one go. I know an outline would help, but I didn't want to spend time on it. And I don't like any kind of writing. (S09)

I translated from Thai to English. I copied from a book, so there are lots of examples, making a long draft. (S03)

I copied those nice sentences from books. These simple ones are mine. (S19)

In addition to writing itself, the study also investigated students' attitudes towards the revision process and peer review activity conducted via NBC. Positive views towards receiving comments were reported as very or most useful since it helped improve the writing skills. In addition, it was claimed that the external readers as well as the discussion forum influenced the subsequent improved draft. Only one interviewee (S09) found having peer readers barely useful and another (S28) admitted peer review had no effect on her writing.

Concerning the feedback itself, different perspectives were uncovered. Difficulty occurs in dealing with feedback from the external readers. Students found some comments too long to concentrate on (S02), too difficult to understand, too many points were suggested or too harsh (S09). Many of them only made a mental note when reading the feedback on screen (S16, S28), which resulted in not being able to recall or incorporate the feedback within their drafts. Other students viewed the

feedback as unclear and so it was not possible for them to act on it (S03, S09). Strategies employed in revising varied; some followed every single comment while others only revised selectively. Some excerpts follow showing both positive and negative comments about peer review, specifically by NBC. These views suggested that the revision process is a difficult matter and deserves a strong emphasis. For future course development, one needs to be aware of several factors such as the length and focus of comments, linguistic features, students' language level and students' understanding of the purpose of this activity.

Positive view

The feedback guided me to write better. (S31)

Feedback resulted in my change of writing style from first draft to the second. (S30)

The revision was due to the comments. I made the changes because of what the readers suggested. (S08)

Negative view

Sometimes the feedback was not clear. (S07)

It took a long time before we got feedback from the readers. (S20)

After a while I got bored of reading the feedback. It was too long and the vocabulary was too difficult. So I did not try to edit the draft. (S02)

I didn't look at the suggestions. They were too broad, I didn't know what to do. I only wanted grammar correction and comment. I understand that feedback has an effect on writing. But I just don't understand. (S03)

I got the feedback but I never edited my drafts according to the feedback. (S17)

I didn't revise after every single comment. I only did what I understood. (S09)

Reading the feedback on screen is difficult. We cannot remember everything, and we don't print it out. So we can't correct all the points. (S16)

...For assignments, I wish the teacher could give feedback in front of the student, which would make it possible to correct his or her own work (S19).

Knowing that there are readers, I tried to improve my writing. (S06)

It does not matter whether there are readers or not. I will always write that way. (S18)

8.2.4 Feedback types

The students with low language proficiency had shown their attitudes towards different kinds of feedback, which may be useful for future writing course. Feedback given was categorised in four broad groups.

1) Complimentary feedback

Compliments were considered very helpful as it encouraged one to write although its effects on revision were only moderate.

2) Calling attention to weakness of the writing

Comments in this category were perceived as very to most useful for revision. This type was preferable to most students because with their language ability, they could try to correct the grammar or revise the writing themselves.

3) Precise suggestions for corrections

This type of comments was considered very useful. The interview also confirmed the findings that most students were keen on surface correction, which they could easily incorporate. However, a student (S26) stated it did not help with learning because no thinking process is required.

I didn't care about feedback because I'm not good at writing anyway. I would not know how to revise though I understood the comments. I prefer the correction feedback. (S02)

4) Broad suggestions of what to do to improve the writing

Most students asserted in the interview that they did not like broad suggestions because they did not know what to do in their revision to respond to such feedback. Hence, broad suggestions were reported the least useful type of feedback although some students realised that this type of comment urged them to think (S24, S26). Student S26, who did not like correction feedback, preferred this type instead, as he clearly said:

I don't use direct correction. I'd rather have advice how to improve the writing.
(S26)

It was found that the group had difficulties in judging their peers' work. They seemed inhibited in commenting beyond giving a good impression or slight hints on form. For example, S23 provided a retrospective comment about peer review:

Although I saw mistakes in other drafts, I did not give a comment on them because I was not confident enough. (S23)

It was recognised that the questionnaires might reveal more results if it referred to all types of feedback appearing in the study. However, the follow-up study aimed to obtain some broad attitudes. These four types of feedback were adequate at this stage as they covered the major feedback types found in this study. In addition, the study placed emphasis on observations made from the data from fieldwork, that is, the written drafts and the feedback. The follow-up study was used as additional information, as it was realised that participants provided biased responses. The students usually offered positive answers to satisfy the interviewer (TA).

Constraints of the follow-up study

In generating data from the Blackboard online course, one needs to bear in mind some effects it has on the data. Despite records being precise, showing the user name and frequency of access, there is no guarantee that the person logging on is the actual owner of the account. Records only show the actual access, but may not indicate complete attention. In terms of feedback given, despite a possibility to track if the feedback was opened, it does not mean that attentive reading has taken place.

The questionnaires and the interview may have resulted in biased information for the attitudinal study since participants tended to give more positive information in the interview than the actual results shown during the research project. In addition, the guided questions probably affected the interviewees' responses. For instance, they provided information upon anticipation of expected answer, such as that they found the online course useful. The questionnaire might have been too broad, and perhaps, the five-point scale could have resulted in the students choosing the mid-point to

avoid taking a stance either way. Additionally, a further interview with the readers would have given more information concerning the online environment.

Chapter conclusions

The findings from the follow-up study related to students' participation in and attitudes about the online **Eng4Wr** course were reported in this chapter. It was found that participation was low, as shown by the amount of correspondence in the discussion forums and the infrequent access to the online course. The students did not show high motivation to attend to NBC in the forum provided in **Eng4Wr**. They only participated minimally, only as far as they were required, for example in the peer review session and in submitting their assignments. Possible reasons for this include students' low language proficiency, their unfamiliarity with the computer, the constraints of the network at WU, students' priorities in their study time. Most of all, the expected active interaction in NBC did not take place because writing tasks only required students to accomplish each writing activity individually. The students were not raised awareness of the audience and were not introduced to see writing as a communicative event, which would need their communication with the readers.

Concerning the attitudes towards feedback, the students in the current study preferred surface correction. In contrast, feedback at length was reported as difficult and probably vague that resulted in misinterpretation. Comments in an electronic form did not aid revision because students only made a mental note instead of printing out on paper, which they could not recall while revising. Students' indifference to the comments implies low attention paid to feedback. The study also found students' inhibition in criticising their peers' work.

9 Discussion and conclusions

9.1 Summary

Presented in this thesis is a study of a network application to accommodate feedback from a real audience, during two revision stages in a writing process in an EFL classroom at Walailak University (WU). The research explored literature in two major fields: 1) writing -- particularly the teaching of EFL writing and aspects of revision; 2) computer-assisted language learning focusing on the network-based language teaching. The empirical study aimed at establishing authentic language use through a network community. It was hoped that the network community would encourage extra language practice and motivate students to write for a real audience who would also respond to their writing.

The main research question being pursued is whether or not and how network-based communication (NBC) affects students' writing performance in a process approach classroom, given that the electronic environment permits a real audience to intervene in their revision process.

The *Blackboard Course Info*, an online course tool was adopted. The study was integrated in the writing course for one academic term and the online course was called **Eng4Wr**. Student writers followed the course outline in the actual classroom on campus. They submitted their assignments electronically to the discussion forums in **Eng4Wr**. Feedback by two groups of audience-- peer students and external readers -- was given after both the first drafts and the second drafts to the forum. Student writers revised their drafts after receiving feedback, on which they could ask for clarification. After the final drafts, the teaching assistant gave feedback as evaluation.

Data collected for the analysis were the drafts, the feedback, and correspondences in network-based communication. In addition, the follow-up study included the interviews, questionnaires and statistical records from the online course. The data analysis of the revision process was conducted in order to investigate the effects of feedback through network-based communication. The analysis was based on t-units in the drafts and the feedback characteristics. The taxonomy used to investigate the revisions was adapted from Bridwell (1980) and Faigley and Witte (1981, 1984). A framework for feedback analysis was adopted from Mirador (1999) with additional material from Ferris (1997). In addition to the revision process, the study also investigated the online environment in terms of students' participation, and the potential of the online course as a new learning environment at WU.

Peer students provided less and shorter feedback than that provided by the external readers. Usually the students gave general comments and did not request revision while the readers' feedback mostly requested revision. Readers gave equal importance to both specific and general comments. The readers exploited the electronic medium by quoting the text in the comments. Furthermore, NBC allowed 'casual' comments among participants although the communication was not sophisticated.

With regards to the revision process, results indicated that students in this group revised their drafts by incorporating around 20% of all feedback. The feedback requesting revision being responded to in a successive draft was 34%, while the rest did not have effects. Explicit feedback such as surface correction was found mostly incorporated while an implicit comment was not responded to, especially when it was general rather than text-specific. Potential feedback tended to affect mainly surface/ mechanical and lexical levels. However, the revisions that were possibly a result of feedback made up only 12.8% of all revisions made. This implies that 87.2% was due to other sources such as self-initiation.

Total revisions were frequently made at the formal level, sentence, multiple-sentences levels and lexical level, and in that order. While mechanical and lexical revisions might be incorporation of feedback, sentence and multiple sentence revisions could be a result of a course requirement that restricted the draft length.

Statistical records of access to **Eng4Wr** indicated low frequencies of participation, while the interview and questionnaire revealed positive attitudes among students towards using a network-based computer and the online course.

9.2 Discussion

The five research questions being investigated in the study have been answered as follows:

1) Does participation in a discussion forum via NBC affect students' writing performance?

Students' participation in NBC in this study had a limited effect on their writing performance given the nature of programme instruction. As NBC permitted interactions with an audience, the students received response from external readers. The response given was helpful when incorporated into the draft in the revision stages of the writing process.

2) Does exposure to feedback by peer groups affect students' revision process?

Exposure to interactions with peer groups via NBC in the context of this study had a small effect on students' revision process since the students did not mainly rely on the feedback given. Rather, most revisions made were self-initiated and based upon the classroom instructions.

3) Is there evidence that students incorporate new ideas into their writing and/or change their language use and writing styles as a result of the interaction with the peer groups?

The study found only few examples of students incorporating new ideas as generated in the discussion forum. There was no sign that language form used by the others was internalised by students' after exposure to the target language in the forum. The only evidence that indicated students' change in language use and incorporation of ideas was in the revision when students responded to explicit teaching or direct suggestion. However, this was not observed in all participating students.

4) Does NBC affect students' writing attitudes and strategies?

Students' exposure to the online environment neither improved their attitudes towards writing nor altered their writing strategies. They did not feel compelled to write better in the NBC. They also did not make full use of the abilities of the word processors to facilitate writing. On the contrary, network environment might have obstructed their learning processes, as the students found it inconvenient to access the online course.

5) Does NBC motivate students to use the target language?

Students in the current study did not show motivation to use the computer network for communication in the target language. They only accessed the online course when told to do so and they did not interact significantly with each other in NBC. It was found that NBC was not the only issue to motivate the students. Others factors are also of concern such as the classroom approaches, course instruction, students' language proficiency, the perception of the online environment and the need for the usage of the target language.

The findings generated a discussion on two major aspects: the online environment and the written products.

Online environment

The results suggest that the students were not highly motivated in initiating communication in the online environment beyond sending a draft and asking for comments from the readers. An observed pattern of NBC in the study indicated no interactive response. Students expected to receive only feedback from the readers and did not discuss or exchange ideas in the discussion forums. Neither did they ask for clarification on the comments given after the drafts. The pattern of interaction occurred is shown in the Figure 9-1.

The figure illustrates the hierarchy of interaction that was seen in the discussion forum. The thickness of the arrows indicates the amount of input given to the forum. The readers gave the greater input on the written texts while the students' response to

the readers was significantly less than expected. Students' response to peers (via peer review) although present, was kept to a minimum.

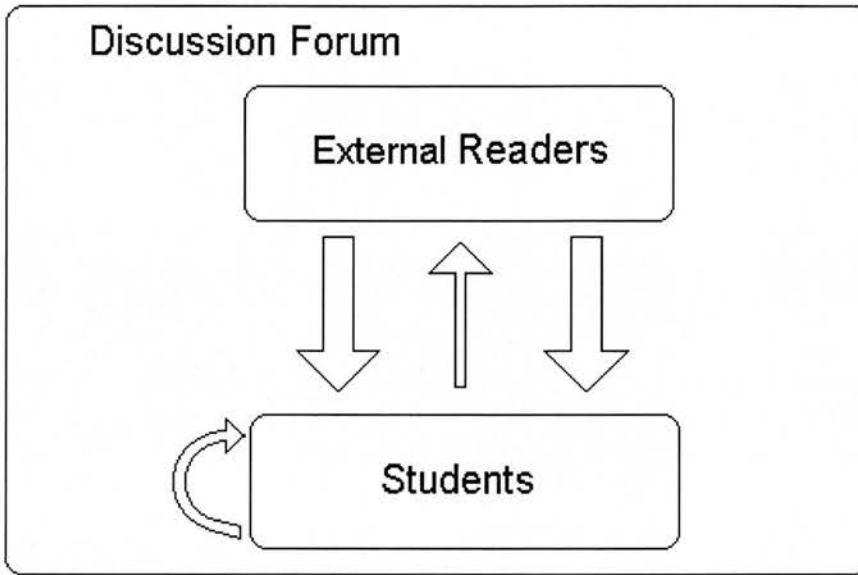


Figure 9-1 The observed hierarchy of interaction in the discussion forum

Compared to the expected model in Figure 5-1 (page 116), this figure illustrates that the external readers played the biggest role in peer review sessions. It was observed that the reader-student interaction, although bi-directional, was unequal and was done upon different stimuli. While readers provided feedback as input to improve the draft and stimulate a discussion, the students made contact with the readers so as to submit the assignments. It did not go unnoticed that the students never questioned the comments made or proposed to negotiate or defend their reasons. If they disagreed, they would have, at best, ignored the comments (as also found in Ferris 2001). The distinct lack of discussion of the essay topics among the groups also indicated an attitude to accomplish the writing task on their own, regardless of the opportunities for collaborative work. The intention to use the online environment manifested only when the assignments had a requirement to do so. This was also confirmed by a quiet period in the online environment before the first assignment and after each task was done.

The high frequency of access during peer review sessions and at the time when an assignment was due indicated the students' obligation to perform in **Eng4Wr** and

their attendance for the benefits of their marks rather than for self-growth purposes. It can be inferred that many students need more encouragement to attend classroom activities (including on-line activities) and might be more enthusiastic if they had a better understanding of the learning process and the purpose of each activity. When allowed to choose whether or not to join the second phase in **Eng4Wr**, the students were given a chance to voice their (un)willingness to use the online environment. The consequence of less than one-third of the classroom participated in Phase 2 indicated that most students did not find the online course a good experience that they would continue. It was uncertain whether the students who joined Phase 2 did so because of the five extra marks given or because of their own motivation.

The **Eng4Wr** also revealed students' passive roles, the same as their roles in a conventional teacher-centred classroom, which on the one hand indicated a low level of independent learning. This might have been due to the nature of the Southeast Asian students and their perception of teacher's role and authority, as reported in Jacobs and Ratmanida (1996). On the other hand, the passive roles might be interpreted differently. That is, instead of viewing the indifference to feedback as evidence of not carrying out independent learning, it may be argued that students' persistence in their own revisions and decision to go in a different direction from the feedback may be a result of an independent thinking; the view also noted by Ferris (2001).

The low motivation observed in this NBC setting was not a flaw caused by the environment itself, but crucially the classroom approaches did not facilitate the use of NBC in this study. While the NBC was aimed at giving an extra channel for communication, the classroom, based on the process approach, stressed too much on the writer's dynamic revision process and an awareness of what he/she was doing. It then appeared that the problems lay in the writer's ignorance of content and the lack of communicative purpose in the writing while scrutinising the linguistic features. If the classroom approach was to take into considerations some other views such as genre studies, the writer would be required to understand the activities and not just focus merely on the language sets and rhetorical forms.

Another reason that would justify the students' low frequencies in attending the online activities was that the students did not see the necessity in using NBC with their peers when they had a chance to meet up in person at anytime. As they perceived the readers as teachers, they did not consider them to be as the same level as peers that they could interact with beyond the formal level.

Task types were also crucial for determining the interactions in the online settings and keeping the students' attention, as reported in other studies related to network-based communication, such as Pellettieri (2000). The writing task in the current study was such that students only needed feedback from readers and did not build upon knowledge that the students already possessed. It might not be as stimulating as a negotiation task that requires the students to solve the problem together, as suggested in Spack (1998). As reported in other studies, students became more attentive particularly when joining synchronous communication (Beauvois 1992, Kroonenberg 1994/5) while numerous correspondences were needed to sustain asynchronous communication (Stockwell and Levy 2001). Even though students' high attention and a variety of discourse types have been reported in many studies related to CMC, synchronous communication in particular (Kelm 1992, Kern 1995, Davis and Thiede 2000), the students in this study did not find the environment engaging nor did they produce various types of discourse. Factors attributed to this might include the nature of asynchronous communication and the lack of discussion in Phase 1, as well as the limit of networked communication to the classroom assignments. In Phase 2, however, discussions were carried out but the quantity was inadequate for a meaningful analysis on incorporation of language use in the NBC.

Even though it was found in many studies that a large number of ideas could be generated via an email discussion (Mabrito 1991, Honeycutt 2001), the students in this study did not exchange ideas through the discussion in Phase 1 while an observation in Phase 2 revealed more active participation. The lack of participation in Phase 1 may imply students' unfamiliarity with the activity.

The current study also found that the students did not exploit to the full extent the benefits of an electronic medium, as did the students in some other studies (Hoffman 1994). This may be because they were novice computer users (Phinney 1996). For

example, they wrote longhand on paper and copied the text onto the computer, revised very little and did not use spell checking facilities provided by the word processing software. They also admitted making a mental note instead of printing out the feedback, expecting to recall the suggestion while revising, which they were unable to do. However, they did not return to the virtual copy of the feedback during the revision process. Hence, revisions were made based on what they could recall, leaving many comments unattended. It is evident that a virtual environment may not be a suitable educational environment for students at this language and computer proficiency level and that adequate instructions and training must be given.

Written products

With regards to the written products in **Eng4Wr**, it was found that the lack of linguistic competence in L2 and cultural knowledge did stand in the way of academic success, as reported in other studies such as Spack (1998). The writings reflected difficulty in using references, which is a major concern in academic writing. Considering the revision process, the EFL writers in this study revised their drafts heavily. Despite the emphasis placed on the process of writing during the whole term, students exhibited their concern over the product, i.e. grammatical and lexical concerns, like those in Silva (1992). Most revisions were generated by sources other than feedback, which corresponded to the studies in conventional classrooms by Paulus (1999) and Connor and Asenavage (1994) that compared teacher's response with peer students'. This study found that the readers provided more useful feedback than peer students and resulted in more revisions. The other sources of revision included self-initiation and unknown sources which in this study were writing course requirements and the classroom interaction. They clearly influenced the revision process.

It was not found that students' proficiency level has changed by the end of the course and after going through the training of the writing process. Their texts still displayed the features of writing by unskilled writers and did not achieve some criteria of 'good writing'. For example, despite the planning process (such as making outline and note cards), the texts were not successful in communicating with their readers because the

writings lacked of purpose and the inability to convey a meaningful message to particular group of audience. The written products did not serve a social-semiotic perspective even though the use of cohesive ties was present in some texts to signpost the readers. Patterns of text were present, but it was observed that students only followed the patterns as taught in the classroom without an understanding of genres.

On a smaller scale, comparison of three drafts written by an individual found improvement in terms of effective changes and linguistic accuracy in the final drafts. This was due to both positive influences from feedback and students' self-initiative. However, it was found that those students who incorporated feedback did not outperform those who did not, as students had a certain level of ability to self-correct. The finding corresponded to other studies such as Fathman and Whalley (1990), and Polio et al (1998). This highlights the revision process itself as enforcing improvement even though feedback did slightly influence the text.

With the limit of their language proficiency, these EFL students were able to reflect on their writing to a certain extent, especially at the form level. Such a finding agrees with the claims made that the competence to revise simple linguistic aspects is as an innate property of a writer (who can use the language) among low-proficiency or unskilled L1 writers (Sommers 1978) and L2 writers (Ferris and Roberts 2001). They can use a minimal hint to self-edit their text. Nevertheless, the self-corrections were found to be inconsistent. This suggested that student had not yet established their knowledge to form rules for the correct use of language.

In contrast, despite their proficiency to self-edit the texts, the students in the current study were not successful in global revision. They rarely made changes that affected the text meaning. There were few students who made changes at text level but this did not signify their high skills in writing. Rather, it seemed that changes at this level were a consequence of their attempt to use references. That is, they made changes as they found a new resource that would fit the topic they were writing about, thus they changed the original plan. While it has been reported that unskilled writers hardly make changes to their plan while writing (Zamel 1983), the low proficiency unskilled writers in this study showed their flexibility in planning. In a way, such

behaviour among the group might be indicative of the process of exploration that occurred while the students were revising.

The written products were partly influenced by the external readers, whose roles were two-fold: as partners for communication and as a tutor at a distance. The study has found that these external readers played mainly a pedagogic role, and gave advice as a tutor (that is, to give comment on linguistic features) rather than as a real reader giving response to the writing (that is, commenting on the content). The feedback provided by the peers and external readers was a major external influence in the revision process in this study. Different feedback types were given and implemented. Peer students usually gave praise probably because they were not confident in giving negative criticism. On the contrary, the external readers and teacher provided all kinds of feedback; and praise was sometimes given in order to soften criticism, which was also the case in Hyland and Hyland (2001).

The most effective feedback that resulted in revisions was specific surface corrections, which often improved linguistic accuracy while implicit suggestions or questions were not as successful as declarative comments. Furthermore, the ample space allowed in the electronic medium was beneficial for giving comments both at the end of the texts and as insertion between the lines.

Finally, it did not go unnoticed that the success of using NBC depended as well on other factors such as the course instruction and the classroom approaches. The course instruction was based on the cognitive process approach rather than highlighting functional models of language as in socio-functional approaches (Bernhardt 1986). As mentioned in Chapter 2, emphasis placed on inner process of the writer learning descriptive linguistic features in the process approach may be criticised as insufficient because students only learn to read and write aimlessly, not understanding the functions of genres and lack awareness of audience. As well, the students in this study were not prepared 'to function appropriately in what is a social environment that has relatively rigid rules for acceptable ... communication' (Motta-Roth 1999).

It was hoped in the online environment that communication with peers and readers would, to certain extent, strengthen students' sense of audience, understanding of written modes and responding to the reader's need. However, the study did not provide an explicit instruction for the students to recognise this. Hence, they did not establish the communicative bonds with the audience as skilled writers may do to reach the communicative goals of writing. This indicates that these students are novice writers and need explicit instruction, as stated in Bourne (2001). Not having an awareness of the audience, in effect, reflected on the students' revision processes the lack in content and the failure to communicate effectively and to meet with the readers' needs, the important issue raised by the genre theorists such as Swales (1990) and Hoey (2001). The results, however, did not indicate a failure of NBC. Rather, the constraints of these unskilled students writing came from both the lack of English proficiency and by the context in which NBC was used. Since the NBC was used to provide a vehicle for writing tasks determined by the **Eng4Wr** programme, which was based on the process approach, it inhibited rather than encouraged the social functions of the writing tasks.

Indeed, the study has confirmed that lack of knowledge on genres also limited the way the students created texts, as claimed in Miller (1984). The writing programme with the NBC could be more successful if students were aware of other models and approaches to learning writing and approaches to use language to serve social function as well as to be aware how language works and why certain features are used and to what effect. Following the socio-functional approach, novice writers would benefit from both process-oriented practice and 'guided scrutiny of how texts work' (Thompson 2001: 75) as they develop 'a sensitivity to the conventions in order to ensure the pragmatic success of the text in the appropriate academic ... context' (Bhatia 1999).

9.3 Conclusions

The study has led to a conclusion that a computer network, with its merits, could serve at a basic level by connecting EFL student writers in a remote area to the English speaking world. The connection, as evidenced in the study, allowed them to give input as well as receive response for the writing tasks. In particular, the online course tools allowed file upload and download, and/or file attachment. Correspondence was delivered electronically in the form of electronic mail and messages in the discussion forum in several manners: one-to-one, one-to-many and many-to-many. Since the course was also open for guest access, the classroom boundaries were extended by network-based communication.

Nevertheless, the NBC could have been more successful if the writing course were to employ as well other approaches than merely the process one, which stresses too much on the writer's dynamic revision processes. Within this given context, students made use of the feedback delivered through electronic medium and improved linguistic features of their writing in the stages of revisions.

As in any process-approach classroom, feedback given at the stage of writing through the network affected revisions, although incorporation of feedback in the sequential drafts was done in a selective manner. Most effective feedback, which refers to feedback that has been attended to, was text-specific, usually explicit, and obviously requesting revisions. The type of feedback was also influential in the learners' response in the revision process. For example, text-specific surface correction tended to be interpreted correctly and responded to accordingly. In contrast, feedback that required writers to generate their own revisions was not likely to be effective. It could be concluded from these points that the student writers, being constrained by their low proficiency, needed explicit feedback, otherwise, they would find feedback too difficult to understand, and might misinterpret it.

Although peer response was made possible via NBC, other factors were influential and several constraints limited its effectiveness. Feedback provided via NBC did not result in substantial revisions. Instead, the prominent source of revisions was students' self-initiative, which highlighted the students' inner process (or cognitive

process as stressed in the process approach) and the influence of course instructions. In other words, as they were novice writers, they applied rigid writing strategies and borrowed the text from existing document rather than adjusting it to their own content. **Eng4Wr** did not raise awareness among these students of the social function of the language nor the necessity of communicating with the readers. Instead, the writing course stressed the importance of rhetorical patterns and the writing process, which resulted in students' attempt to produce texts with clean surface features, regardless of establishing relationship with their readers through the words. Since the tasks were not perceived as parts of 'communicative events', revisions were not made as necessary, and the produced texts failed to communicate with its readers. As it is commonly agreed that novice writers could not see the lack of communicative purpose in their text themselves, they should be aided by the writing course instruction.

Finally, the study has concluded that short time exposure to the NBC framework only accommodated language incorporation through explicit instructions or corrections. There was no evidence that learners internalised a correct form of language by simply attending to it. Probably, the period of exposure to the target language was too brief, which limited the communication and students' dedication to the discussion forum. As it was considerably difficult to encourage the low-proficiency learners to incorporate the explicit feedback, having them attend to correct linguistic form, absorb and incorporate language use after a short time of exposure to the language without explicit instructions would even be harder.

9.4 Significance and limitations

This study involves a combination of network technology and EFL writing, a field that is still developing. It has shown that a network environment can be a supportive device for the teaching of writing.

An application of this study could be its contribution to research in network technology for EFL writing in Thailand where network technology has recently been introduced into education. Suggestions drawn from this empirical study are related to the nature of the revision process of a particular group of EFL students, as well as the

strengths and weaknesses of the network environments employed in the study. It is hoped that findings may bring some useful insights to the field. The flaws and idiosyncrasies of the study, which lay mainly in areas of the research design, the data analysis, students' proficiency level and the writing course, could give some directions to further studies in a similar context.

1) The time allowance limited the interactions in the electronic environment. Despite the empirical study being accommodated by the integration into the writing course, the gaps between assignments set in the course were found to be too short. There were difficulties in distance communication among participants of different locations and time zones, and rapid communication could hardly be expected. In addition, students might not be able to acquaint themselves to the environment in such a short period of time. Any similar study should allow more time so that students would be able to acquaint themselves to the environment.

2) The six-week fieldwork might have been too short for an observation of asynchronous communication while a greater time span may allow more useful data. Correspondence in an online discussion forum usually takes time and requires active participants.

3) An experiment should run independently. While there are strengths in combining a new practice to an existing course such as the ease of student and tutor cooperation, validity of the exercise and the time scales, there are also considerable disadvantages in operating a research study within a given context. These include the constraints in the research approaches (must be based on the process approach), the required environment, the desired activities (usually limited to the course instructions), the data size and features (in this case, text length and the rhetorical patterns). The existing course greatly influenced students' revisions and contributions to the discussion forum, which necessitated changes in the research plan.

4) Difficulties concerning the course schedule and preparation resulted in the idiosyncrasy of data sets. Students were unwilling to participate actively in on-line discussions due to time constraints imposed during Phase I resulting in more drafts

and fewer messages for discussion in expository writing when the online course was compulsory. In contrast, fewer drafts and more discussion were observed in argumentative writing when the course was optional. This constraint in the data set was noted as a critical problem, which coerced the author into regarding mainly the expository writing for data analysis.

5) It was noticed that the level of students' proficiency could also constrain the research design. Low proficiency students displayed difficulties in understanding and incorporating the feedback. In addition, not having been exposed to different genres of writing might make conforming to the task requirements difficult.

6) The absence of the author affected the fieldwork since the study had to rely too much on the handouts while the study was conducted. Communication carried out through emails only might have compromised its effectiveness, while a face-to-face interaction might have been needed instead. The author discovered that the subjects did not totally understand and as a result failed to follow the instruction given.

7) Despite a variety of taxonomies used in the process of data analysis, it would have been useful to have another person to check the texts in order to verify the judgements and probably give more accurate employment of the taxonomies. This would minimise the number of mistakes and lead to greater reliability of the analysis, also noted by Polio (2001). However, too many judges, on the other hand, may cause difficult agreements.

8) The taxonomy used to identify feedback adopted from Mirador's (1999) study of moves of feedback in a content course sometimes did not fit the feedback in EFL writing. Nevertheless, the incorporation of two other characteristics as applied from Ferris (1997) and Ziv (1984) (i.e. being text-specific and requesting revision) accommodated identification of feedback effects on revisions.

9) The interview and questionnaire might have reactive effects. The casual unstructured talk for 20 minutes per subject might have misled the interviewees to provide expected information. In addition, the questionnaire at times suggested contradictory information to the data obtained from the interview. A follow-up study,

if possible, should be carried out soon after the experiment; otherwise the information accuracy might be undermined.

10) The statistical records as generated from the *Blackboard Course Info* servers were based on Eastern Standard Time, not Thailand time. Therefore, indication of access time could be imprecise. The author calculated and applied the data from this source as appropriate.

11) Technical problems occurred while conducting the fieldwork. The servers on campus were quite often disrupted, probably due to the monsoon season, and/or the university location. The problems impacted on students' online submission, resulting in incomplete data sets and delays on feedback for revision stage.

12) The issues relating to the readers should be considered while making adjustment to future studies. First, the selection of these readers was only based on their English competence, but did not require their experience with EFL writing, which might be helpful for the perception on the texts produced by the EFL students. Second, the guidelines provided to the readers were based on classroom evaluation scheme; hence might enforce them as tutors, focusing on the language use, content and organisation instead of allowing their natural response based on their intuition. Finally, the readers' feedback to writing might be influenced by the public nature of the environment. For example, readers might feel more compelled to show their authority over the text as they were aware that their comments would be seen by many students and other readers.

13) The author's participation as a teaching assistant in the online communication process may have affected the study in some way. However, it was inevitable as the important role was to stimulate the interactions and to make sure the students received feedback from the readers.

9.5 Recommendations for language teaching at WU

Focusing on implementation of network technology to enhance language learning at WU, some recommendations emerged from the study.

The most important factor in using network technology is obviously the network itself. Improving the system server would benefit the university not only for language learning, but also for the entire education on the campus. Opportunities for further development are still wide open. However, the technology innovation is not the only factor in running a successful CALL programme. The institution needs to have, as the first priority, a sound, up-to-date pedagogy that would facilitate the use of technology. Controversially, the existing writing course syllabus probably needs some restructuring in terms of its approaches, task design and the activities if technology is to be integrated into a writing classroom.

Recommendations for the Eng4Wr

The current writing course was aimed at students understanding the process of writing and developing students' knowledge of different types of writing, i.e. descriptive, expository and argumentative writing. It did not particularly establish awareness of audience, understanding of genre and textual interactions with the reader, as stressed in the genre-based approach. The emphasis on the process approach appeared to be the main reason for the students' low participation and did not highlight the benefits of NBC. It may be helpful if the course would consider other views from the genre-based approach and encourage the use of language to serve communicative purposes. Students, if made aware of the audience would likely be able to look at their texts in a different light with an attempt to communicate with the readers.

The writing product based on American rhetorical structure, i.e. introduction-body-conclusion or a five-paragraph essay, might have misled the students as they followed the template without understanding the activities. It has been noted that using template in teaching of writing and genres may be risky, as genre tends to change upon the use and situation (Johns 2002). The rhetorical patterns found in

American academic prose might be misleading for stressing the use of a topic sentence and a detailed paragraph of sophisticated academic topic, as Spack (1998) suggested. Such rhetorical patterns, as it turned out, were inappropriate for the EFL students who were not yet familiar with writing. Adjustments to the course may consider using text structure as guidance only and not as a compulsory structure that would limit student creativity. Studying many kinds and forms of writing genres may also help with students' use of text structure.

Likewise, the stress placed on using references and citation should be made clear to the students by firstly establishing their understanding of the academic discourse community. Having understood what is needed, even though their rhetorical background is different, the students are likely to conform to the new norms and avoid plagiarism.

Considering the tasks in the writing course, topics of writing may be altered to match the students' proficiency. For example, these EFL students may need extra instruction in building arguments from evidence since they are not familiar with academic writing as also found in many other Asian students (Connor and Kramer 1995). The topics assigned for expository writing in the study were rather open-ended and abstract, which urged the students to give opinions when only facts were needed.

As it appeared in the current study, the unskilled writers had difficulty in fulfilling the need for academic writing. Step-by-step tasks, starting from a more concrete and easy-to-write tasks, may better suit their level of proficiency. For example, an assignment to write a compare-and-contrast paragraph may include charts or statistical facts, which is easy enough for the basic writers. Pictures, procedure charts, visual graphs and factual records may be used to describe a process, explain a situation, and identify cause and effect. These straightforward tasks seem more comprehensible to low proficiency students and can be done effectively within the limited text length.

Importantly, the lack of communicative purpose observed in students' writings also indicates a need to revise **Eng4Wr** to include more communicative tasks and

probably the tasks that will be valid, motivating and suit students' needs in the real world. For example, students whose major is tourism should be introduced to the genres of writing they may make use of in the future situations/ careers, such as hotel booking letter, customer complaint letter, travel brochure, travel itinerary and so on. Together with writing, students should also be encouraged to read and perhaps write in response to a set of reading, as suggested in Zamel (1998: 261).

Extracurricular activities

Students should be encouraged to practice the language outside of classroom hours, particularly writing. So far, there have been some useful activities on campus to promote English learning, such as English camps arranged by the students' English Club, movie shows, online discussion boards and Liberal Thoughts, an online journal from the Institute of Liberal Arts. These activities promote speaking, reading, and listening skills, but probably disregard the writing skill. Thus, activities for writing should be provided, probably via a network, such as keypal (electronic penpal) correspondences with other universities, or a composition contest for publication on the university website.

Since it was implied from the current study that students were more encouraged to join the online activities for entertainment rather than for a serious purpose, students should be introduced to basic online activities and use of NBC as leisure before moving on to an academic use. In addition, it may keep students' attention higher in real-time NBC, which might also be more suitable for the students' language level. Keypal activities might be conducted with students from other countries in the region in which time zone would not be a problem for synchronous communication such as, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Japan or China. To pursue this, it is important to carry out a good design of communicative writing tasks that involve authentic use of English to exchange the ideas, facts and opinion within an agreed framework and interesting topics under a mutually appropriate timescale.

As the current study is the first one conducted at WU, there is still room for future development. For example, a further investigation conducted with the set of data in phase 2, the argumentative writing as shown in Appendix 15, may lead to deeper

insights into language competence of the students in this context that will contribute to teaching plan improvement.

9.6 Recommendations for further development in EFL writing

One of the aims of this study is to explore the possibilities of employing network technology in an EFL writing classroom based on the process approach. The study has revealed that a network could be a potential support for extending the classroom to more competent peers as an audience who provide feedback to students' written products. The study has brought into consideration some remarks for future development in EFL writing courses.

The process approach, even though encourages students to reflect into their own writing, may not suffice since it does not establish awareness of the discourse community. By following blindly the rhetorical patterns, students are not likely to achieve a writing goal to convey a message to the readers. The study has realised that students' knowledge of genres and awareness of audience would strengthen the process of writing. A writing classroom will benefit more from a writing model that trains students to establish communicative purposes into their writing. It has been recommended that genre literacy be regarded as a social process and given pedagogical space in the curriculum (Cope and Kalantzis 1993).

Revision stage should be acknowledged in EFL writing courses. Current classroom practices for collaboration between teacher and peers are seemingly ineffective as many teachers and peers provide feedback on grammar, and other surface corrections instead of focusing on content and organisation. It has been commonly agreed that a focus on the whole text over its parts would improve writing quality (Lehr 1995). By shifting focus from surface correction to text-based meaning, student writers may benefit more from the feedback and collaborative work. At the same time, peer students as readers can benefit from practice of critical reading.

Moving away from convention, the classroom can be extended to a more global audience by network technology. Although the students' writing in the current study has, as it turned out, less to do with NBC than with an instructional emphasis on the

process writing, it was found that NBC supports collaborative work, enhances revision process, and promotes authentic language use, even though in a limited manner. Such extended-classroom is advantageous for EFL students in particular because EFL students tend to have few opportunities to expose themselves to the target language. Most of all, authentic interaction with native speakers is also made possible.

There are issues in employing technology of which educators should be made aware. Network facilities should be well provided so as to confine technological problems to a minimum. Many other factors should also be considered such as students' proficiency, writing tasks, classroom instruction, the teaching approaches, pedagogy and other extracurricular activities. Perhaps the most basic of all, students should be helped to understand what makes a good writer and what are the principles and purposes underlying the writing tasks. Thus, advice and information about the process of writing and revision should be given so that students understand what writing is, why it contains different stages, and how important the revision stages are.

9.7 Directions for future research in the field

Research in combined fields like this study tends to be protean and divergent in its directions. As it is still in its infancy, research in network technology incorporating EFL writing has gaps for development. The directions for further research emerging from this particular study cover two main areas: research instruments and implementation, and the taxonomy for data analysis.

Selecting instruments is obviously crucial for a study that aims to investigate behaviour in the provided environment. Since technology is evolving all the time, software instruments are prone to being quickly surpassed by newer versions. The online course provided by Blackboard Course Info has proved an instrument that fits perfectly the purpose of this study. However, researchers should note that there are hundreds of online tools available for a similar research design, such as discussion forums, other online course tools, which are particularly useful for distance learning. Importantly, online course tools like this one usually provide many functions including a platform for synchronous communication. Exploring different modes of

communication and other functions in the entire online course environment could be interesting for both language educators and course providers.

Concerning the period of implementation of a research study related to improving performances or behaviours in a given environment, researchers may consider an extended period of time which is longer than just one term. That might lead to more evidence of effects of the students' performance. Also, in terms of the pace of the research study, an independent time schedule (not dependent on a classroom's tight outline) would allow enough time for interactions, receiving feedback and revising the drafts.

In addition, it would be interesting to conduct a study with a control group who write and receive feedback in a teacher-centred conventional classroom. By comparing the revision behaviour of the two groups, teachers might be able to benefit more from the study in terms of giving appropriate feedback that is responded to. Last but not least, the major schemes used to examine the revision process were adopted from several composition studies, which may not be the ideal means of analysing low-proficiency EFL writing. Further research to establish a taxonomy that fits in the study of revisions in EFL writing could be very helpful for development in the field. Additionally, study of texts generated by EFL students may examine linguistic features of the drafts in comparison with the language they use casually in the discussion forum. This may lead to understanding their difficulties, and improving the way we teach writing in English to EFL students.

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Appendix 1

Written products by freshmen

Last weeks heavy rain cause congo river to burst its bank.
disaster this time because of zone cover kisangani city to
bring about people to be ill diarrhoea and 20000 people
had to leave. The Any way UNICEF organization
gave assist emergency medical and food supplies
to the right.

Rewrite !

2

Write complete sentences
subject + verb in every sentence.

SET 5. The reward for honesty

Sandy had only \$ 102 in her bank bank.
She wanted to withdraw \$ 100 from her account.
Then she went to press on A.T.M. booth. The first
time at A.T.M. \$ 70000 came out. The second time
she tried to withdraw again, then at A.T.M. \$ 5000
came out again. She came back home and told her
mother and relatives. Her mother told her that ^{she} took
these money return to the bank. After that, she
did that. The bank manager checked the computer.
which it ~~was~~ ^{had an} error. He gave the reward for
honesty to Sandy. Her mother was proud of
honest Sandy.

Narumol Junsathit 4/10/2017

6

Activity 10 : describe the picture set 1

On 25th December, 1997 my family was on Christmas and New Year vacation. That night my family, relatives and my father's colleagues had a party in front of a beautiful beach. The party finished at 2 a.m. but all of us split up to the other places, some went to star city to take photographs but my friends and I stayed at the beach and walked up and down looking ^{at} across the ocean and we saw the most beautiful scenes of the city. The light was so bright and beautiful at night. At 1 a.m I saw the three Irish Christmas revellers. They wore the old dresses. After the party finished they went home. During their way homes, they saw the sleeping motorist in the car on the roll off pier; moreover, the car was sliding into the sea. They wanted him to wake up and controlled his car before it fall down. After they decided what to do, one of the three Irish Christmas revellers; Aidan Maloney, suddenly threw the stone ^{at} the sleeping motorist's car to wake him up. Unfortunately, the action made Aidan Maloney frightened. He tried to stop his car ^{from} falling down but it was late to do that - the car was plunging into the sea. Aidan jumped quickly into the sea to help the motorist. The other two Irish Christmas revellers saw the whole event so that they decided to participate in rescuing his friend and also assisted the sleeping motorist, too.

To save someone's life, we not only impress ourselves and get good relationship but also make him know our way of life.

Appendix 2

Written products after a writing course

Vegetarian is perfect food

The vegetarian is popular in recent year with consumers. They have always been vegetarians who for religious or health purposes. Vegetarianism in general is the practice of not eating meat to being vegetarians food (Wayne, 1998), such as vegetables and fruits. The people who eating vegetarians food have many reason to eating vegetarians food. For example, for health, reduce weight or don't like eating meat food. Especially, they use vegetarian method to diet. Some believe that meatless diet is more benefit than diet with meat.

Vegetarian is more benefit. The first is vegetarians isn't dangerous for your body. They have more nutrient from vegetables and fruits. (Payne, 1997). For example, vitamin A, B, C, calcium and more carbohydrate. They reduce the risk of diseases such as cancer, stroke, diabetes, gastrointestinal disease and heart disease (Kane, 1996). Because they can control calories and alcohol. They reduce fat. There are causes of diseases. Vegetarians food don't have toxic from meat. And vegetarians food is easy digest.

The second benefit of vegetarians food is they don't have more cholesterol. If we prepare percent of cholesterol in meat food and vegetarians food that meat food is more cholesterol than vegetarians food about 30 percent. Vegetarians food don't have fat but they have more nutrients from vegetable and fruits instead.

The third benefit of vegetarians food is a good food for diets. In overweight man always misunderstand about reduce weight that not eat and hard exercise. That bring bad health. Reason to diet in teenager and overweight man and woman is beautiful body. The method to diet is vegetarian diet. Because it less cholesterol. Vegetarians diets, beginning with the least restrictive in term of food source. There are avolactovegetarian diet, lactovegetarian diet and vegan vegetarian diet (Howard, 1997).

Vegetarian is a food for health. They can reduce the risk of diseases and don't dangerous for your body. They have many benefit for your health. If you want to diet, vegetarian diet is a good choose for you. Because you will succeed and good for your health and you will have beautiful body.

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Appendix 3

Pilot study

Group 1

Name: Wattanee Somsiri

Date/Time : 26/1/00 8:54 AM

Subjec: Just say Hello!

Hello everyone, My name is Wattanee. You can call me Oh(maybe some of you know me.) I study Info Science at WU. Nakhon Si Thammarat, Thailand)my major is MIS which I didn't like it so much. Anyway I'm trying to do my best. Do anyone like computer programming language. Please help me to enjoy this class. Now I 'm hearing a song that I like it so much, because my first time to heard this song I was in USA. and my best friend(not my best friend is wedding)send it to me. I'm not sure about the name ,should be "So Far" by Boy-Gosiyapong.I've got to go now, see you later!

Oh

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 26/1/00 6:53 PM

Subject: Re: Films

> I think most likely we are going to talk about films

> in this group. Any objection?

I would like to ask a question to everybody: what is the best film you have ever seen?

I asked that question but I need a bit of thinking myself before I can answer. I will.

Let me take this chance to say hello to Oh and Despina.

This is to Oh: I happened to like programming...

Name: Mayura Prampun

Date/Time: 29/1/00 7:09 AM

Subject: hi! everybody.

hi! I'm apple I'm studying in Walailak University where located in the south of Thailand. I'm not well in English but now I'm trying and I think I will good in it soon ;)

hope to see anyone enjoy this forum (like me)

.....Today I had been test English Placement ,it so hard but

I like to do it and alway love to learn English.....

see you later.....bye

apple

Name: Mayura Prampun

Date/Time: 29/1/00 7:53 AM

Subject: movie in my mind

The movie that I like most is "Life is beautiful" Have you ever seen it? I saw it 2 times. The frist time I saw from Cinema Society by Oh and then i saw it again on video at library.

It's a Italian's film by Roberto Benigni(not sure about spelling) after I saw this film it gave me a power to live because it show that life's beautiful and don't worries about anything it'll be fine if we 're enjoy and face to problem smilingly

.....

I came out from cenema with tearfulness but happiness.

.....How about yours?.....Apple

Name: Wattanee Somsiri

Date/Time: 31/1/00 6:37 AM

Subject: Re: Films

Hello Giacomo, my best movie wow this is a hard question I don't really know what i like best because I wach many movie and I love them all except Sci-fi I would say One fine

day, Tin cup, A river runs through it, Sabrina, Gone with the wind and many. Have you ever seen those

Oh

Giacomo Correnti on 26/1/00 6:53 PM said:

>>> I think most likely we are going to talk about films >>

>>> in this group. Any objection? >>

>>>>

>>I would like to ask a question to everybody: what is the best film you have ever seen?

>>I asked that question but I need a bit of thinking myself before I can answer. I will.>

>>Let me take this chance to say hello to Oh and Despina.>>

>>This is to Oh: I happened to like programming.

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 1/2/00 3:07 PM

Subject: Re: Films

> say One fine day, Tin cup, A river runs through it, Sabrina

I would say you like sweet stories ;-).

I quite enjoyed Sabrina, but the recent one with Julia Ormond and Harrison Ford. Do you know it was a remake of an old film?

Well, it is not easy to find completely new stories unless you want to go for "strange" plots. Do you know Tarantino? Have you seen Reservoir Dogs?

Let me just name a couple of other films I can think of at the moment: The Blues Brothers and Blade Runner. Those are both cult movies and especially the latter is said to be a milestone in 80s cinematography.

I used to be really in love with cinema; I wrote stories and scripts as well and I shot short films with my friends back in Italy just for fun.

Since I moved to UK, and new problems arose, I am a bit less into it but I still like it very much.

Do you mind if I keep using 'film' (UK use) instead of 'movie' (US use)?

Name: Wattanee Somsiri

Date/Time: 31/1/00 6:31 AM

Subject: Re: movie in my mind

It's me Wattanee I didn't see the movie yet, in that dat I when to set up the system but I was absolutely busy I had a lot of assignment to do so I need to study. I realy want to see that I will find some time to see I will I heard that is a very good movie that someone who love movies couldn't miss. This Tuesday, we will show a very good one please come and check it out what we will show at the same time in 03 room 150 seats

Oh

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 1/2/00 3:16 PM

Subject: Re: movie in my mind

> The movie that I like most is "Life is beautiful"

> It's a Italian's film by Roberto Benigni

> (not sure about spelling)

The spelling is correct (we are from the same country ;-).

The film is good I think although it is a story made to make you cry. Anyway, it was great the way Guido managed to made up stories so quickly to prevent Josue' from being scared or worried. It was touching indeed!

I dropped a few tears too but it was also sanuk!

Did you know about the II World War and the atrocities Nazis did in the concentration camps?

Name: Despina Christaki

Date/Time: 2/2/00 9:06 AM

Subject: Re: movie in my mind

Hi all, first things first... Let me say hello to Giacomo, Oh and Apple.

I have to say and admit that I'm not a film fan. I rarely watch films and even when I do I rarely like any.. (tough case, I know ;))

Anyway, a film that I absolutely loved was "the Trueman Show". I liked the theme and I think it was presenting the bitter truth about the media in a very witty way. An iron hand in a velvet glove, I would say.

I have also enjoyed some other romantic films like "Shakespeare in Love" but I really think that a film is worth watching only if you can watch it twice and enjoy it as much as you did in the first place. What do you think ?

ok see ya all later
Take care
Despina

Name: Heike Pleisteiner

Date/Time: 3/2/00 5:47 PM

Subject: Re: movie in my mind

Hello everybody!

Let me say hi first - to all of you, and, in particular, of course, to Giacomo, Apple & Des!

First time I visit this forum - to tell you the truth, just diving in!
Don't really know whether this is what I'm supposed to do. Hope it is anyway....

>>> but I really think that a film is worth watching only >>> if you can watch it twice and enjoy it as much as you >>> did in the first place. What do you think ?

I'd really go along with that! I also think that watching a film twice makes you look at different aspects. You can concentrate on details rather than the ongoing plot itself. And often you "see" things you hadn't realised first time round.

Can't think of a film I really really liked right now....

Give me some time....

"Sliding Doors" maybe - I really enjoyed that one!

Talk to you later. Meanwhile, take care!

Heike

Name: Wattanee Somsiri

Date/Time: 6/2/00 6:00 AM

Subject: Re: movie in my mind

Have anyone seen "One Fine Day" this is a romantic comedy movie. I like it so much. I wathch maybe 5-6 time, our club used to show the film.

Oh

Name: Tanatorn Wisedchok

Date/Time: 11/2/00 7:19 AM

Subject: Hello...

Hello all...!!!

I'm Tanatorn Wisedchok...nick name is Ying...uhmmm I don't know what i should to say.. but in this forum we can say anything and join in anything that we interest in ,right?...I'm not good in English ..but it's not a problem .. because now i'm trying more and more...

I love to surf the net ..and i have an icq number if u want to talk with me .

Name: Tanatorn Wisedchok

Date/Time: 11/2/00 9:02 AM

Subject: Film again!!!

Have u ever seen the bicennial man yet?.. i have seen it already...it's fun and it will make u cry all the time when u see it..it's about robot who want to be a human ..In this story , u can see how he's trying to be a human and have anything that human have..i think....he's so poor !! because in the end of movie ..he will accepted to be a human but he can't wait for that words...he is programmed to be dead on that time...so sad !! : (I think..this movie present about many things that we didn't think about it before ...uhmmm it's not the beat but it can make u relax ...uhmm and about Life is beutiful that is a movie in Mayura's mind...i love it too...make mee cry every time that i see it...uhmm bye ..see ya

Ying

Name: Wararat Whanchit

Date/Time: 10/2/00 3:52 PM

Subject: read this

I have got this article from CNN. What do you guys think of it? I should have been in London, eh? :-)

<http://cnn.com/2000/ASIANOW/southeast/02/09/thailand.beach.ap/index.html>

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 12/2/00 6:41 PM

Subject: Re: read this

>><http://cnn.com/2000/ASIANOW/southeast/02/09/thailand.beach.ap/index.html>

I have read the article but what can we say?

I would rather ask: has anybody been there after the shooting? It would be interesting to know from you (pradet Thai) if that beach is really in such a bad condition now.

Of course, it is an objective point of view I am asking for.

Do not think you are Thai and they are the enemies...

Name: Heike Pleisteiner

Date/Time: 15/2/00 10:29 AM

Subject: Re: read this

What can you say?

Is there any limit in how far people go for money?

Heike

Group 2

Name: Bhalissa Rattanasaroj

Date/Time: 31/1/00 8:00 AM

Subject: I'm Peach

Hi everybody,

I'm Bhalissa but you can call me Peach. I'm study at Walailak University and I'm a sophomore.

My major is Mass Communication or Communication Arts.

I love nature, birds, dogs and cats.

Well, nice to meet you all.

See ya, ;) Peach

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 1/2/00 3:34 PM

Subject: Re: I'm Peach

Hi Peach,

We have something in common.

I like nature as well and to spend time the way I liked most I decided to become a Boy Scout when I was younger.

The story was that I could go for trekking or just camping on my own, as I was too young and so joining the Scouts was a good move.

I like even only seating on the meadows staring at the view.

This of this: I think when one says "I like nature" one is thinking of the 'type' of nature one is used to. Just to make an example, MY nature in Italy is completely different from the YOUR nature in Thailand. I think a reason why I like "staying in the nature" is that it reminds me of memories or pleasant moments I spent in a similar situation.

I do not know if experiencing a 'different' nature could cause the same sensations.

What do you think?

If it is too boring (I can be at times ;-)) just switch to a topic you would like to discuss.

Name: Despina Christaki

Date/Time: 3/2/00 11:19 AM

Subject: Re: I'm Peach

Hello Giacomo and Peach,

let me introduce myself to Peach... My name is Despina, I'm from Greece and I'm a teacher who is desperately trying to come to grips with programming :))but that's another sad story... ;)

As to what Giacomo was saying about the sensation that one gets when experiencing a 'different' nature I think that if you can appreciate and feel the beauty of a landscape it doesn't matter if it's different from that you've been experiencing as a child or for most of your life. Although it's true that all people feel more comfortable with things that are familiar -views, sounds, odours...

Let me take a wild guess Giacomo... you love the view of the sea, don't you? :)) Anyway, see ya all later and nice meeting you Peach. I think you're studying one of the most useful things in life... "Communication" that is. One of the simplest things that can get so difficult at times. :)

Despina

Name: Supawadee Pintong

Date/Time: 3/2/00 12:29 PM

Subject: Introduction

Hi, Everybody

My nickname is Bow. I study management information technology (MIS) in walailak university. I would like participants in discussion, which I have several topics such as conditions of social or university, behavior copying of teenage and impolite of student in dress etc.

So, I hope that we will find .

Thank you,

Bow

Name: Supawadee Pintong

Date/Time: 8/2/00 8:26 AM

Subject: Re: Introduction

I come back again with happy. Last week my friend and I went to Surathani province. During the way I saw natural, which river, animal, tree and mountain. It's wonderful. I think that Thailand has something I do not know, especially, my home town where Krabi province. Do you know that it has many islands such as PEE PEE, MAYA, GUI, etc. I dived at GUI island and I saw coral, fish and shell. It's very beautiful. So, I invite you to come to Thailand. See you again .

Bow.

Name: Heike Pleisteiner

Date/Time: 15/2/00 10:34 AM

Subject: Re: Valentine!!

So you do have Valentine's Day in Thailand, too?

I thought it would rather be a Western-European thing....

Do many people send Valentine's cards?

Who to? Just to "their loved one" or to friends, too?

Heike

Group 3 Pilot Study

Name: Morakot Suwannaphurk

Date/Time: 31/1/00 9:29 AM

Subject: Re: Welcome

Hi.....P' Noi

I got your message. ^_^

Hi...Everybody

My name is Aom. I live in Thailand.I study in Information Science Institute and my major is Mass Communication. My hometown is Trang. I'm happy to be here.

Aom

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 1/2/00 3:37 PM

Subject: Re: Welcome

Ciao Morakot, (it is Italian and it means Hello!)

I think you were in rush the last time you wrote. ;-)

Come on, tell me more about you and let's have a chat!

Name: Suriya Chuichom

Date/Time: 7/2/00 2:40 AM

Subject: introduce myself

hello,how are you ? i'm fine and i'm sorry,that, i slowly to sent message to you because that couldn't into your forum, but now i can into your forum.thank you for you tought gramma to me i feel my gramma is more good.

see you soon

bye

Name: Giacomo Correnti

Date/Time: 12/2/00 6:44 PM

Subject: Re: introduce myself

Hi Suriya,

Are you busy with exams and/or essays at the moment?

Out of curiosity: what do you like/dislike of Walailak University?

Name:Titiporn Wangpaitoon

Date/Time:22/2/00 9:29 AM

Subject:Hello!!!

Hello!...everybody

Sorry to joy to you every late. My name's Thitiporn ,my friends call me, Mod.

I study Information Science in major MIS.

Happy to know you all and hope that we are friends.

Appendix 4 Questionnaire

แบบสอบถาม

ให้นักศึกษาเติมข้อความหรือทำเครื่องหมายในช่อง หรือหน้าช่องตามความเหมาะสม
(หมายเหตุ: แบบสอบถามชุดนี้เป็นส่วนประกอบสำคัญของงานวิจัยเรื่องการเขียน ภาควิชาภาษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเอเดนบอร์)

1. ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

- 1.1 ชื่อ-นามสกุล.....
- 1.2 อายุ.....
- 1.3 สาขาวิชา..... ชั้นปี.....
- 1.4 เริ่มเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเมื่ออายุ ปี

2. ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

2.1 ทักษะที่ต้องการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

- ชอบและเห็นความจำเป็น
- ชอบแต่ไม่เห็นความจำเป็น
- ไม่ชอบแต่เห็นความจำเป็น
- ไม่ชอบและไม่เห็นความจำเป็น
- อื่นๆ

2.2 ทักษะภาษาอังกฤษที่ชอบที่สุด

- ฟัง พูด อ่าน เขียน อื่นๆ (ระบุ)

2.3 ทักษะภาษาอังกฤษที่ถนัดที่สุด

- ฟัง พูด อ่าน เขียน อื่นๆ (ระบุ)

2.4 การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในชีวิตประจำวัน โดยการพูดคุย (รวมการใช้เวลาในชั้นเรียน)

- มากกว่าสัปดาห์ละหนึ่งครั้ง
- สัปดาห์ละครั้ง
- อย่างน้อยเดือนละครั้ง
- อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)

2.5 กิจกรรมอื่นๆ ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ และความสม่ำเสมอ (เช่น ก็ครั้งต่อวัน ก็ครั้งต่อสัปดาห์)

- พูดภาษาอังกฤษกับเพื่อน _____
- อ่านหนังสือพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษ _____
- ดูหนัง วิดีโอ ดูหรือฟังข่าวหรือรายการต่างๆ ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ _____
- ใช้อินเทอร์เน็ต (ที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ) _____
- อื่นๆ _____

3. ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์

3.1 ทักษะคิดต่อการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์

- ชอบและเห็นความจำเป็น
- ชอบแต่ไม่เห็นความจำเป็น
- ไม่ชอบแต่เห็นความจำเป็น
- ไม่ชอบและไม่เห็นความจำเป็น
- อื่นๆ

3.2 ใช้คอมพิวเตอร์กี่ครั้งต่อสัปดาห์

- 1-2 ครั้ง 3-5 ครั้ง มากกว่า ครั้ง

โดยเฉลี่ยคิดเป็น ชั่วโมง/สัปดาห์

3.3 จุดประสงค์ต่างๆ ที่คุณใช้คอมพิวเตอร์ และความถี่

การใช้คอมพิวเตอร์	ระดับความถี่ (1-น้อยที่สุด, 5-มากที่สุด)					หมายเหตุ
	1	2	3	4	5	
เพื่อวิชาเรียน (โปรตระกูลวิชา)						
เพื่อสันทนาการ (เช่นเล่นเกม ฟังเพลง ดูหนัง)						
เพื่อค้นคว้าหาความรู้เพิ่มเติม						
เพื่อการสื่อสารส่วนตัว (ให้รายละเอียดในข้อต่อไป)						
อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)						

3.4 การใช้คอมพิวเตอร์เพื่อการสื่อสาร

คุณสื่อสารผ่านคอมพิวเตอร์โดยวิธีใดบ้าง และใช้ภาษาใด

สื่อ	ภาษาที่ใช้			ระดับความชอบ (1 ไม่ชอบ - 5 ชอบมากที่สุด)					เหตุผล
	ไทย	อังกฤษ	อื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	
E-mail									
Real-time Chat (โต้ตอบโดยการพิมพ์ข้อความ เช่น icq, chat, yahoomessenger, อื่นๆ)									
Voice chat (โต้ตอบโดยใช้เสียง เช่น yahoomessenger)									

สื่อสารผ่านกลุ่มข่าว (newsgroup, mailing lists, discussion group, bulletin board) โปรตุระบุชื่อกลุ่ม									
อื่นๆ									

3.5 การใช้คอมพิวเตอร์เพื่อการเรียน

คุณเคยใช้สื่อการเรียนทางคอมพิวเตอร์หรือไม่ โปรดให้รายละเอียด

การใช้	ระดับความถี่ (น้อยที่สุด-มากที่สุด)					ระบุ
	0 ไม่เคย	1-3 ครั้ง	4-6 ครั้ง	7-9 ครั้ง	10+ ครั้ง	
ซอฟต์แวร์สอนภาษา โปรแกรมต่างๆ ซิตี-รอม เพื่อเรียนภาษา						
คอร์สอนไลน์นอกจาก Eng4Wr (ที่ต้องลงทะเบียนเป็นนักศึกษาในคอร์ส)						
บทเรียนทางอินเทอร์เน็ต (จากเว็บไซต์ต่างๆ)						
แบบฝึกหัดออนไลน์ จากเว็บไซต์ต่างๆ						
ข้อสอบออนไลน์ หรือ computer-based test (เช่น TOEFL)						
ดิคชันนารีและเอกสารอ้างอิง						
อื่นๆ						

3.6 คุณ(จะ)รู้สึกไม่ชอบการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์เพราะ

การใช้	เป็นปัญหาน้อยที่สุด-มากที่สุด					เหตุผล
	1	2	3	4	5	
ความขัดข้องทางเทคนิค เช่น server, connection						
ความไม่สะดวกในการใช้ห้องคอมพิวเตอร์						
ไม่มีเวลาวางพอ						
ไม่ถนัดพิมพ์						
เห็นว่าเป็นอุปกรณ์ที่ไม่จำเป็น, ทำให้เสียเวลา						
ชอบสื่อสารโดยตรง/เขียนจดหมาย/โทรศัพท์ มากกว่า						
อื่นๆ (ระบุ)						

4. ประเมินผลการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์ร่วมกับคอร์สการเขียน (English IV: Writing)

การใช้	ระดับ (ไม่เลย - มากที่สุด)					เหตุผล
	0 ไม่เลย	1 น้อย มาก	2 พอ สมควร	3 มาก	4 มาก ที่สุด	
ชอบหรือไม่						
มีประโยชน์หรือไม่						
มีผลเสียต่อการเรียนรู้หรือไม่						
การมีผู้อ่านบทความที่เขียน มีประโยชน์ต่อการเขียนงานชิ้นต่อไปหรือไม่						
คุณคิดว่าการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์เพื่อการสื่อสาร ช่วยให้คุณพัฒนาการใช้ภาษาหรือไม่						

5. กิจกรรม peer evaluation

ในกิจกรรม peer evaluation	ระดับ (ไม่เลย - มากที่สุด)					เหตุผล
	0 ไม่เลย	1 น้อย มาก	2 พอ สมควร	3 มาก	4 มาก ที่สุด	
คุณอ่านงานเขียน (draft) ของผู้อื่นหรือไม่						
คุณอ่าน feedback จากผู้อื่นหรือไม่						
คุณเข้าใจ Feedback (ที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ) หรือไม่						
คุณได้ปรับปรุงหรือเปลี่ยนแปลงงานเขียน ของคุณชิ้นต่อไปหรือไม่						
คุณคิดว่ากิจกรรม peer evaluation มีประโยชน์หรือไม่						
คุณคิดว่าการมีผู้อ่านจากภายนอก และ feedback ช่วยในงานเขียนของคุณหรือไม่						
คุณคิดว่ากิจกรรมแสดงความเห็นใน discussion board ช่วยงานเขียนของคุณ หรือไม่						

6. การรับ feedback ในงานเขียน

ลักษณะของ feedback	ชอบหรือไม่					มีประโยชน์หรือไม่				
	0 ไม่เลย	1 น้อย	2 พอควร	3 มาก	4 มากที่สุด	0 ไม่เลย	1 น้อย	2 พอควร	3 มาก	4 มากที่สุด
Feedback ที่กล่าวชมงานเขียน										
Feedback ที่ท้วงติงและระบุ ข้อบกพร่อง ของงานเขียน										
Feedback ที่แนะนำจุดที่ต้องแก้ไข อย่างชัดเจน เช่น การสะกดคำ การใช้ไวยากรณ์										
Feedback ที่แนะนำกว้างๆ ว่าคุณควรทำอะไรเพื่อปรับปรุง งานเขียน										

6. โดยส่วนตัวแล้ว กิจกรรมต่างๆ เหล่านี้ ช่วยคุณพัฒนาการใช้ และทักษะภาษาอังกฤษมากน้อยเพียงใด (ให้คะแนนตามระดับ 0-4 ในช่องว่างตรงท้ายข้อ)

การพูดคุยพบปะโดยตรงกับชาวต่างชาติ หรือติดต่อกับอาจารย์ต่างชาติ โดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

ฝึกคุยภาษาอังกฤษกับเพื่อน

การที่มีผู้ตรวจการบ้านโดยตรง และแนะนำแก้ไข

สังเกตการใช้ของผู้อื่น และเปรียบเทียบ แก้ไข

อ่าน ท่องจำ เช่น การท่องศัพท์ การจำหลักไวยากรณ์

การอ่านหนังสือภาษาอังกฤษบ่อย ๆ (ทั้งหนังสือเรียน หนังสือพิมพ์ แมกกาซีนต่างๆ)

การใช้อินเทอร์เน็ต ดูเว็บไซต์ต่างๆ ที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

การส่ง email และการใช้โปรแกรมคุยผ่านทางอินเทอร์เน็ต โดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

การฝึกฟังจากวิทยุ โทรทัศน์ หรือ รายการภาคภาษาอังกฤษ

อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)

7. หากนักศึกษาต้องการเขียนแสดงความคิดเห็นส่วนตัวอื่นๆ เชิญเขียนตามสบายนะคะ

.....

.....

.....

If you want to keep in touch, feel free to use my email address wwararat@holyyrood.ed.ac.uk
You can also reach me on the icq (60979719).

Thank you very much indeed.

Appendix 5

Guidelines of the questions for the interview

The online environment

1. What do you think about working online for the writing course?
2. What was the problem you encountered with?
3. What did you like/ dislike about **Eng4Wr**?
4. If you had a chance to choose, would you join an online course?
5. Please provide some suggestions concerning the use of computer network?

The writing course

1. Do you remember trying to use feedback in the revision process?
2. What was the reason for you not to incorporate feedback in the draft?
3. What kind of feedback did you find helpful?
4. How did you find peer review?
5. How did you write the paper? Did you usually outline before getting start?
Do you prefer writing on paper or on the computer? When writing an English essay, do you write in Thai first?
6. How would you judge yourself as a writer?

Appendix 6

Student manuals and screenshots from the online writing course (Eng4wr)

Student manual

1. Go to URL: <http://courseinfo.blackboard.com/courses/Eng4wr/>
You'll be asked for login and password.
2. log in with the correct username and password. You will see this page (*figure 1*):

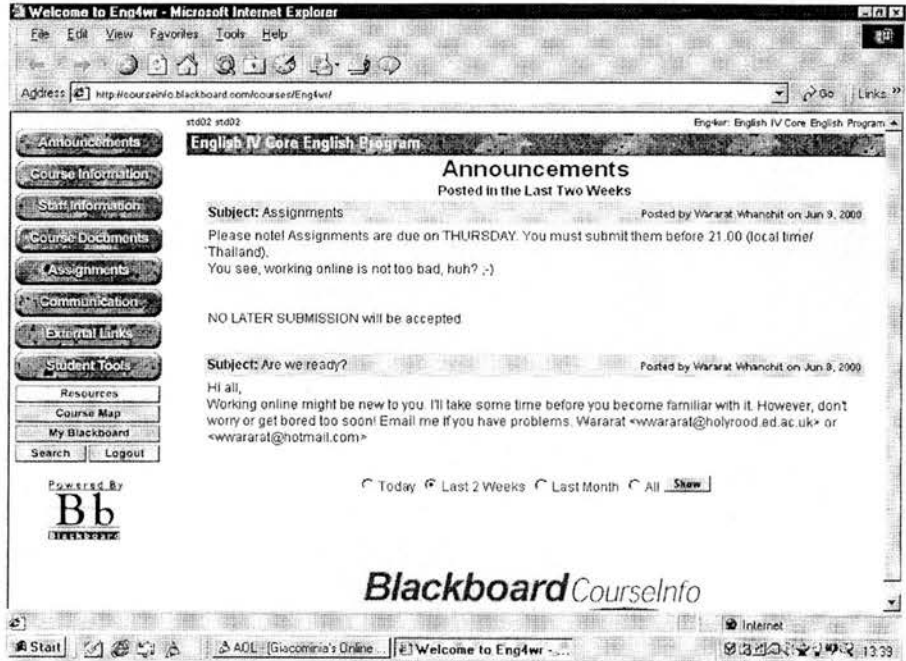


figure 1. Home screen

3. This is your homescreen. It consists of
 - Main Course Window (Announcements)
 - Navigation bar (purple buttons)
 - Control button (yellow and grey buttons)
4. Let's focus only on how to use the purple buttons at this stage. Select the page to go from the Navigation area. Each of them links you to...
Announcement:
Course information:
Staff information
Course document: in this case, the course document is used to present your pieces of writing, particularly the second draft.
Assignments: inform you what you are supposed to do as course assignment.
Communication: the main way to communicate, see more info 5.3
External links: this area made it easy to other resources on the Internet.
Student tools: the tool to submit your assignments, and organise your own work.
5. You can acquaint yourself with the course by browsing around and see what options you can make. However, there are only few options that you need to know because it will be regularly used.
 - 5.1 announcement
 - 5.2 assignments
 - 5.3 communication: use the area to communicate with the others, i.e. forum to discuss the topic you want to write about. By clicking on Communication button, you will see **Emails, Discussion board, and Student roster**

- Emails: use this when you want to emails other people in the course.
- Discussion boards: important one, you use this as a major way to communicate. Follow these steps: a) click on Communication → Discussion board → Enter the forum to discuss (figure 3)
- Student roster (where you can find other students' names and email address)

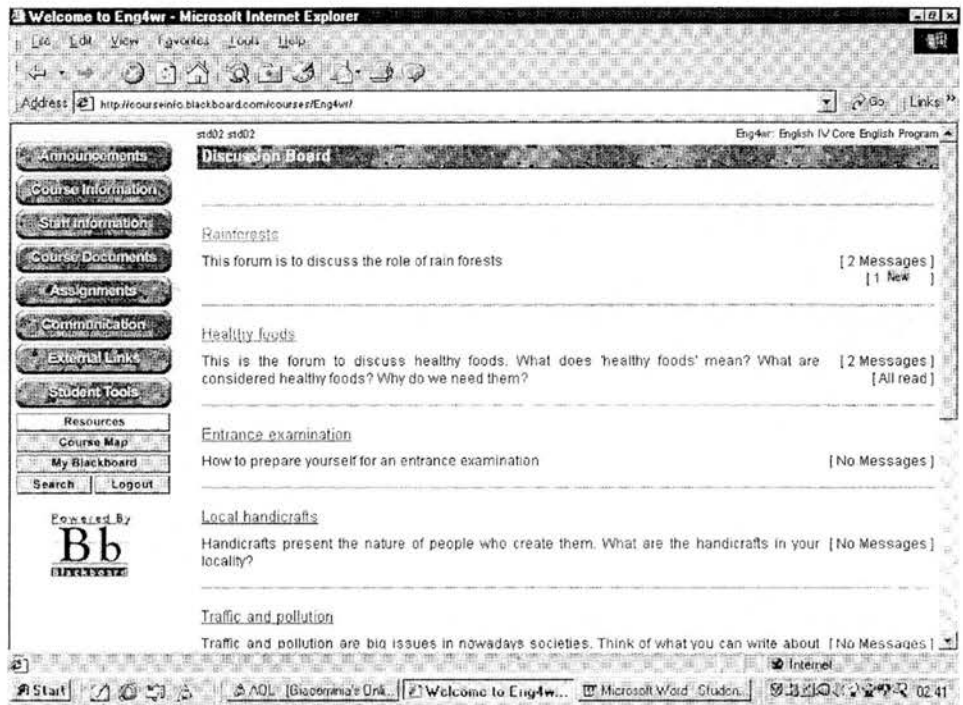


figure 3-1, 3-2. Discussion board: Forums

You can also attach a file to the message. This will be helpful if you use the computer to draw chart, make column, or even to write a paragraph. You don't need to do the work twice. For attachment, click browse to locate your file on the computer.

5.4 Student tools

Click on **Student tools**, you will find *Student Drop box*, *Change your information*, *Students Calendar*, *Student manual* (figure 4).



Figure 4. Student tools

- student drop box:

This area is to submit the assignment. You need to work with word processor or notepad and save your file. Then, from **student tools**, you click on **student drop box**. You will see this (figure 5):

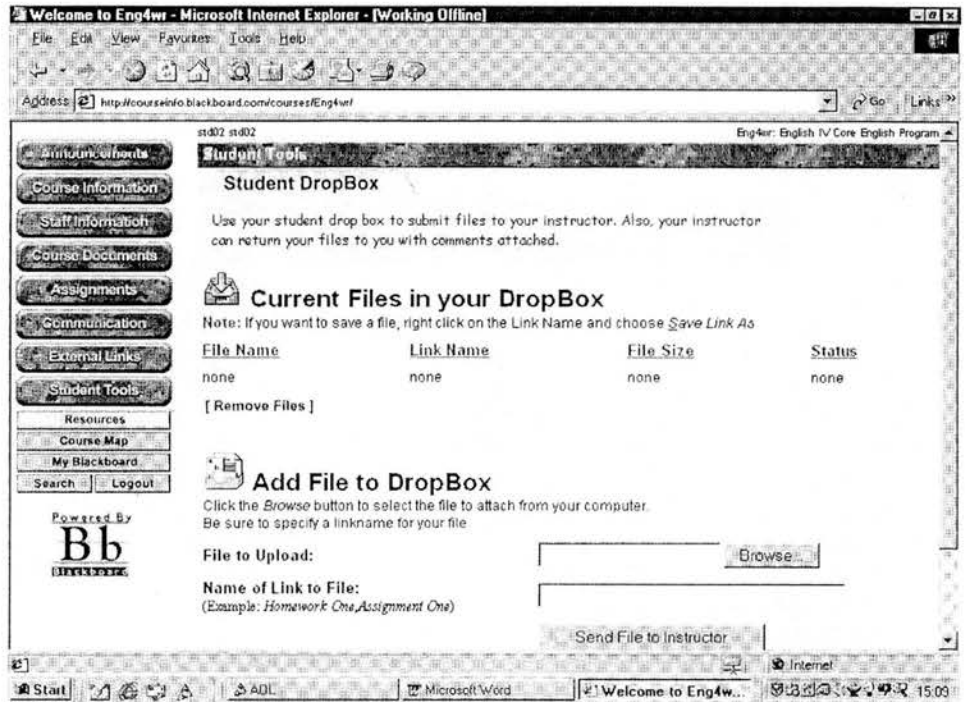


Figure 5. Student Drop Box (to submit the assignment)

To add file to dropbox, click on **browse** button to select the file to attach from your computer. Also, write a *name of link to file* before clicking **send the file to instructor**.

- Student calendar (only if you want to use it)
 - Student manual: The manual is helpful as your first aid. Although it is written in English, the language is quite simple.
6. The control buttons (set of grey and yellow buttons) consist of **Resources, Course Map, My Blackboard, Search, Logout**. They are not crucially important. However if you are familiar with the computer, you may use My Blackboard (see *figure 6*) to organise your tasks, schedules, and remind you of what to do, what is due, etc. The most important button to use here is the logout button to exit the course.

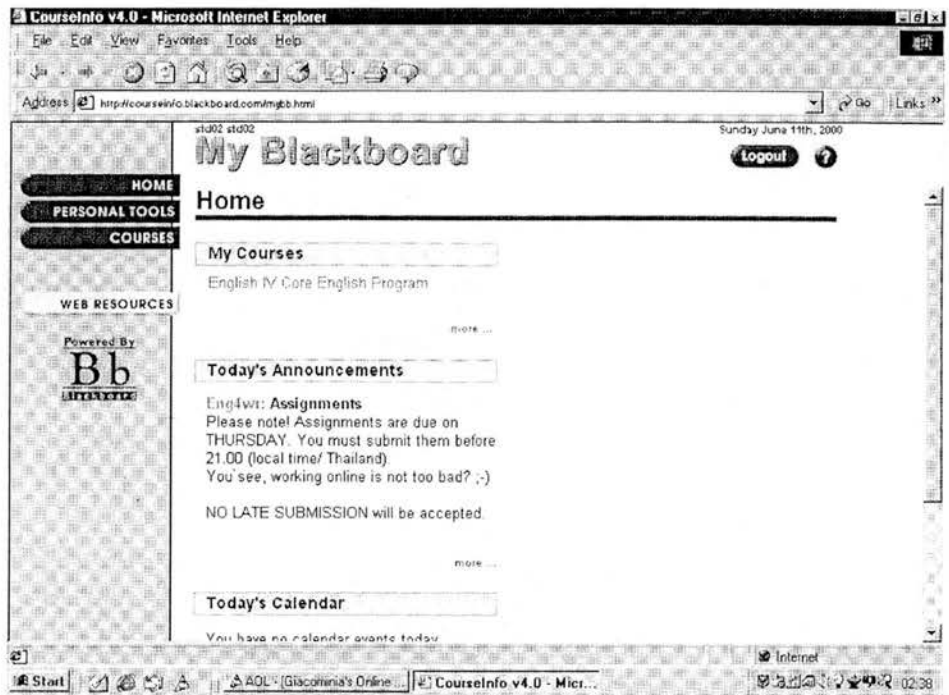


Figure 6 My Blackboard

7. To **log out**. Step 1 Click logout button. Step 2 close your browser.
8. In case of problems
 - 8.1 consult student manual, located in the student tool area
 - 8.2 Contact your teaching assistant (Wararat Whanchit) during the online office hours
Mon-Fri 12.30-02.30 pm. or email
wwararat@hotmail.com or wwararat@holyrood.ed.ac.uk or wwararat@wu.ac.th
You may also make an appointment for an online meeting.
 - 8.3 consult Dr. Olga Moudraia, if urgent.
9. You may also contact your teaching assistant (Wararat) if you would like to set a new forum of your own topic. A request for realtime communication (chat) might also be made if you find it necessary.

A screenshot: Dropbox in Eng4Wr

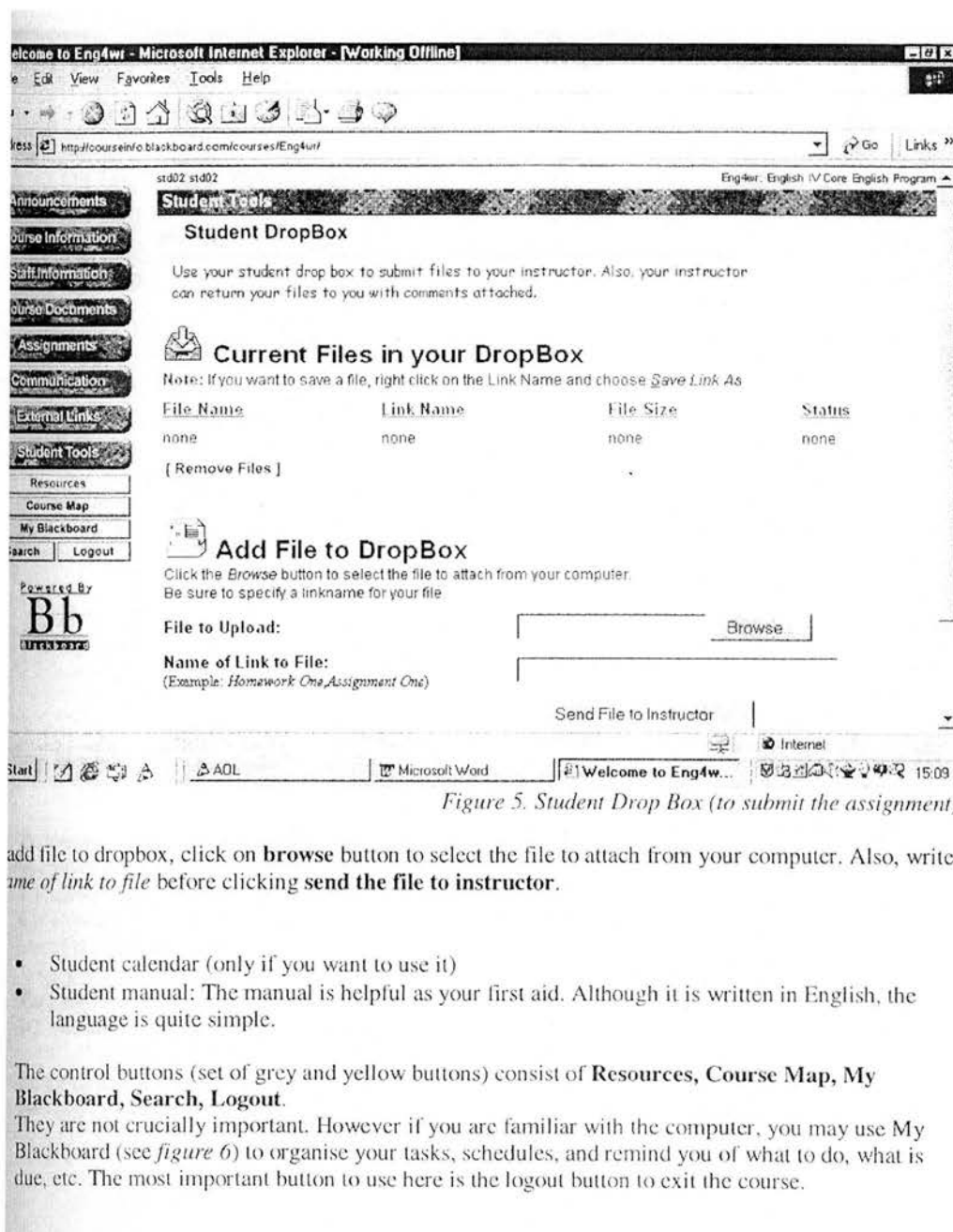


Figure 5. Student Drop Box (to submit the assignment)

add file to dropbox, click on **browse** button to select the file to attach from your computer. Also, write *name of link to file* before clicking **send the file to instructor**.

- Student calendar (only if you want to use it)
- Student manual: The manual is helpful as your first aid. Although it is written in English, the language is quite simple.

The control buttons (set of grey and yellow buttons) consist of **Resources, Course Map, My Blackboard, Search, Logout**.

They are not crucially important. However if you are familiar with the computer, you may use My Blackboard (see *figure 6*) to organise your tasks, schedules, and remind you of what to do, what is due, etc. The most important button to use here is the logout button to exit the course.

Appendix 7

Readers' guidelines

Writing an argumentative essay through process = 30%

Marking Criteria

Score	Mark	Content	Organization	Language Use
30	Very good	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Main idea of the essay is clearly stated and well supported Good development of the topic Opinion is strong 	Good organization with <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a strong thesis statement relevant topic sentences and conclusion logical sequencing transitions in-text citations and references 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 95% accuracy: correct spelling, few grammar mistakes, each sentence begins with a capital letter, names of people and places begin with a capital letter, each sentence ends with a period, commas are used where needed Good vocabulary
24	Good	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clear main idea Appropriate development of the topic Opinion is strong enough 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Loosely organized but The thesis statement, the topic sentences and the conclusion are appropriate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some grammar mistakes (in word order, articles, pronouns and prepositions) Good vocabulary
15	Fair	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Main idea is not clearly stated and / or not well supported but There is some development of the topic Opinion is not strong enough 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not well organized The thesis statement, the topic sentences and the conclusion are not good enough and / or don't correlate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minor grammar mistakes and <u>some major errors</u> in subject-verb agreement, tense and number Basic vocabulary
7	Poor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Main idea is unclear Insufficient development of the topic Opinion is too weak 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confused Disconnected The thesis statement, the topic sentences and / or the conclusion are weak 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <u>Frequent errors</u> in subject-verb agreement, tense, number, word order, articles, pronouns and prepositions Limited vocabulary
0	Unsatisfactory	Almost unintelligible	No organization to speak about	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Full of mistakes which hinder understanding Poor vocabulary

Appendix 8
The writing course instructions

Homework assignment: Look at your thesis statement and topic sentences, and make an outline for your own essay. Use the information from your note cards.

I. Introduction

A. Background information

.....
.....

B. Thesis statement

.....

II. First body paragraph

A. Topic sentence

.....

B. Supporting details

.....

III. Second body paragraph

A. Topic sentence

.....

B. Supporting details

.....

IV. Third body paragraph

A. Topic sentence

.....

B. Supporting details

.....

.....

V. Conclusion

.....

.....

Appendix 9

Cohesive ties exhibited in expository writing

(words presented as originally written)

S01	D1	<i>then, finally, and then, all of the step above</i>
	D2	<i>first, then, after that, finally, all of these steps</i>
	D3	<i>first, second, third, finally, all of these steps</i>
S02	D1	<i>so, then, all the above</i>
	D2	<i>so, then, and including, all the above</i>
	D3	<i>then, and including, all the above</i>
S03	D1	<i>in which, while, which, from above</i>
	D2	<i>in which, while, which, from above</i>
	D3	<i>in which, while, which, from above</i>
S04	D1	<i>such as, because, and, so that, besides, who, from all the above</i>
	D2	<i>such as, because, and, so that, besides, if, before, so, who, from all the above</i>
	D3	<i>such as, because, and, so that, besides, if, before, so, who, from all the above</i>
S05	D1	<i>but, after that, which, all of above</i>
S06	D1	<i>but, as to, because, when, as result, so, addition, therefore,</i>
	D2	<i>but, as, because, when, as result, and, that (cause damage), so, in addition, therefore</i>
	D3	<i>but, whose, as, because, when, as result, and, that, which, therefore, results in</i>
S07	D1	<i>which, such as</i>
	D2	<i>that, due to, which, and include, such as, so, therefore</i>
	D3	<i>due to, that, first, second, third, such as, forty, which are, finally, so, and, therefore</i>
S08	D1	<i>the first, it means, second, which, third, it refers, where, and forth, it defined from, therefore</i>
	D2	<i>and, for example, so that, next, who, the last, besides, which, the first, it means, second, where, third, and forth, because, since, therefore, in other words</i>
	D3	<i>and, when, it leads to, as a result, because, besides, since, therefore, the last, due to</i>
S09	D1	<i>the examples, such as, from all the above</i>
	D2	<i>but, such as, the example, where, that is, so forth, for example, from all the above</i>
	D3	<i>because, so forth, where, from all the above,</i>
S10	D1	<i>first, second, third, finally, from all above</i>
	D2	<i>first, second, third, finally, from all above</i>
	D3	<i>first, second, third, finally, from all above</i>
S11	D2	<i>first, the second, which, the third, and the last,</i>
	D3	<i>first, next, third, finally, in order to, in conclusion</i>
S12	D1	<i>numbering, that, so, if</i>
	D2	<i>which, that are, and, when, such as, because of, for the same reason, if, although, so, if</i>
	D3	<i>that, and, first, second, next, then, last, finally, such as, after that, from all of the above</i>
S13	D1	<i>because, so, except this way, and, when, then,</i>
	D2	<i>because, such, thus, except this way, which, and, when, then</i>
	D3	<i>because, such as, if, the other way, such, except this way, when, and, then</i>
S14	D1	<i>because, hyphening, which, and, in order to, therefore</i>
	D2	<i>because, which, and, in order to, therefore,</i>
S15	D1	<i>for, that, especially, because, therefore</i>
	D2	<i>thus, for, moreover, especially, because, and, such as, therefore</i>
	D3	<i>for, moreover, especially, because, and, such as, therefore</i>
S16	D1	<i>because, for example, another, from all the above</i>
	D2	<i>until, because, another, although, but, from all the above</i>
	D3	<i>until, because, that, third, although, from all the above</i>
S17	D1	<i>why, which, because, that, such as, when, for, what</i>
	D2	<i>which, because, actually, without, so, whether, unless, whenever, that, but, who, compared to, and, for, what</i>
	D3	<i>which, because, actually, without, so, whether, unless, how, but, who, compared to, for, what</i>
S18	D1	<i>because, when, due to, besides, therefore</i>
	D2	<i>because, that, according to, when, which, particularly, even, during, such as, so, result, therefore</i>
	D3	<i>because, such as, when, and, even, during, result, therefore</i>

S19	D1	<i>such as, and, hence, furthermore, besides that, from all the above</i>
	D2	<i>such as, and, hence, furthermore, besides that, from all the above</i>
	D3	<i>such as, and, hence, furthermore, besides that, from all the above, first, second, third, next, then, finally</i>
S20	D1	<i>and thus, althea above, such</i>
	D2	<i>No submission</i>
	D3	<i>from all the above, such as</i>
S21	D1	<i>first, second, third, and finally, when, such as, that, so</i>
	D2	<i>begin by, for, before, and, that, when, after, so, the lastway, what, if, who</i>
	D3	<i>before, begin by, so, when, that, after, and, the last way</i>
S22	D1	<i>when, and, but, for example, then, from all above</i>
	D2	<i>when, and, but, because of, for example, from all above, however</i>
	D3	<i>and, besides that, when, whomever, from all of above,</i>
S23	D1	<i>on the other hand, no matter, however, because, therefore, if, and, such as</i>
	D2	<i>first, second, third, forth, fifth, therefore, because, if, at the time</i>
	D3	<i>first, second, third, forth, fifth, therefore, because, at the time, if, and</i>
S24	D1	<i>and finally, from all the above, such as, if, which, when, that, and</i>
	D2	<i>in order to, from the above, while, such as, and, because, that, which, when</i>
	D3	<i>in order to, from the above, while, because, if, such as, which, when, that, and</i>
S25	D1	<i>because, that, and, more than, but (compare/contrast)</i>
	D2	<i>that, and, but (compare/contrast)</i>
	D3	<i>that, and, but (compare/contrast)</i>
S26	D1	<i>whose, from all the above</i>
	D2	<i>now, since then, that, and, so</i>
	D3	<i>this results in, so</i>
S27	D1	<i>that, such as, which, from all the above,</i>
	D2	<i>which, that, such as, also, first, next to, next, the last one, in order for, from all the above</i>
	D3	<i>first, next to, next, the last one, in order for, from all the above, such as, which, that, also include, and</i>
S28	D1	<i>for example, even, but, paragraphing, and, until, when, before,</i>
	D2	<i>for example, in the past, paragraphing, when, and, that, but, the last, paragraphing</i>
	D3	<i>even, in the past, that, when, before, during which, but, and last, so</i>
S29	D1	<i>so, and, but, that,</i>
	D2	<i>but, although (in quoted)</i>
	D3	<i>but, although (in quoted), even, because</i>
S30	D1	<i>but, therefore, numbering, which, often,</i>
	D2	<i>that is, due to, but, which, because, that, for example</i>
	D3	<i>that is, due to, but, and, for example, because, that</i>
S31	D1	<i>which, well as, due to, when, therefore, and consequently, besides, all from above, that</i>
	D2	<i>which, as well as, the reason is, due to, when, that, and therefore, consequently, besides, it can be seen from the above</i>
	D3	<i>which, the reason is, as well as, due to, when, that, and therefore, and consequently, also, besides, it can be seen from the above</i>
S32	D1	<i>which, such as, because, so, finally, as a result</i>
	D2	<i>which, such as, and, generally, but, until, because, which, that, as a result</i>
	D3	<i>depending on, generally, but, until, because, which, that, and, as a result</i>

Appendix 10

The texts (expository) and t-units

S03 Local Handicrafts

Note: <x> shows the tagged information used for data analysis

- 101 <p> Local handicrafts have to many to divided ten types in local community which have special character handicrafts.
- 102 <p><u><cl1>Ceramics</p></u></cl1> are ware which make from the earther to use in their life such as basin, bowl, large water-jar, earthen crock, dishware, flower, -pot.
- 103 <u><cl1>Textile and embroidery</u></cl1> have weaving silk cloth, weaving cotton cloth and embroider the flag of north and northeastern quarter for use in fare.
- 104 <u><cl1>Carving</u></cl1> use the material to carve such as stone which make the mortar in Chonburee, wood which make furniture and household furnishings, skin of cow which make puppet used in shadow play in south quarter of Thailand.
- 105 <u><cl1>Metal works </u></cl1> are other metal works example silver ware, nielloware in Nakhon Sri Thammarat, goldware, brassware and equipment which make from iron such as small hand – spade, knife, knives for all sorts and size a long – handle knife in Roiyadd and Buddhist monk’s spheroidal alms – bowl in Bangkok.
- 106 <u><cl1> Basketry mats </u></cl1> are local handicrafts make to plait to use natural material such as Kachud which a species of reed make the mats, Bamboo, Yan Lipao which make betel nut basket, bracelet, handbag and cigarette box, rattan ware in Nakhon Sri Thammarat, Lamchiak which genus Pandarus make the mats, rice baskets.
- 107 <u><cl1> Architectures </u></cl1> are Thai house in the middle, Kala house in the north, a float house posts in south and temporary accommodation such as hat, cabin, shack, cottage, Buddhist buildings and Public buildings.
- 108 <u><cl1>Painting and drawing </u></cl1> are related to Buddhist such as drawing on sermon hall in a monastery partition wall, sanotuary in a Buddhist monastery and the place for preaching, meditation and player, ware and boat.
- 109 <u><cl1>Sculpture and decorating </u></cl1> motive have sculpturing the doll for the children to play it.
- 110 <u><cl1>Paper maches </u></cl1> have to make paper such as the paper made from the paper mulberry of north, paper made from the fibers of a species of plane of middle and rice paper, to make flag, wreath and flower, umbrella, kite for flying, the mask and the masks worn by actors in marked performances.
- 111 <u><cl1> Various </u></cl1> which can’t arrange according to nine types such as adjusting the flower, carving the fruit, making musical instrument, ornaments make from glass, boat, wheeled vehicle and bullock cart.
- 112 <p> So, local handicrafts divided ten types for easy to learn but they don’t fit how many divide type.
- 201 <p> Nowadays, Local handicrafts of Thailand are interesting vary much in foreign group that come to Thailand due to local handicrafts of Thailand are beautiful, strange and importantly, it’s dislike other countries.
- 202 [no spc] For local handicraft of Thailand is divided nine types that are difference follow to produce method.
- 204 Local handicrafts have to many to divided nine types in local community which have special character handicrafts .
- 205 <p> <u><cl1>Ceramics</u></cl1> are ware to use in their life such as basin, bowl, large water-jar, earthen crock, dishware, flower -pot.
- 206 The places which make the earthenwares are in Ratburee, Songkhla and Nakhonratchasrima. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 207 <p><u><cl1>Textile and embroidery </u></cl1> have <cl2><i>weaving silk cloth, weaving cotton cloth</i></cl2></i> and <cl2><i>embroider the flag </i></cl2></i> of north and northeastern quarter for use in fare.
- 208 Textiles have Pa Kor Yor of Songkhla, Pa Pumrieng of Surat Thani, Pa Yok Muang Nakhon and Fabrics from Ban Na Mun Sri in Trang. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 209 <p><u><cl1>Carving </u></cl1> use the material to carve such as <cl2><i> stone </i></cl2></i> which is made from the mortar in Chonburee, <cl2><i> wood </i></cl2></i> which is made from furniture and household furnishings, <cl2><i> skin of cow </i></cl2></i> which is

- made from puppet used in shadow play in south quarter of Thailand. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 210 <p><u><cl1>**Metal works** </u></cl1> are other metal works example <cl2><i>silver ware, nielloware </cl2></i> in Nakhon Sri Thammarat, <cl2><i>goldware, brassware </cl2></i> and <cl2><i>equipment which are made from iron </cl2></i> such as small hand – spade, knife, knives for all sorts and size a long – handle knife in Roiyadd and Buddhist monk’s spheroidal alms – bowl in Bangkok. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 211 <p> <u> **Basketry mats** </u> are local handicrafts are made from plait to use natural material such as <cl2><i>Kachud </cl2></i> which a species of reed is made from the mats, <cl2><i>Bamboo, Yan Lipao </cl2></i> which is made from betel nut basket, bracelet, handbag and cigarette box, rattan ware in Nakhon Sri Thammarat, <cl2><i>Lamchiak </cl2></i> which genus Pandarus is made from the mats, rice baskets. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 212 <p><u><cl1>**Painting and drawing**</u></cl1> are related to Buddhist such as drawing on sermon hall in a monastery partition wall, sanotuary in a Buddhist monastery and the place for preaching, meditation and player. Adorning the ware and boat. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 213 <p><u><cl1>**Sculpture and decorating motive**</u></cl1> have sculpturing the doll for the children to play it and the doll use to propitiate the spirits to float the river. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 214 <p><u><cl1>**Paper maches** </u></cl1> have to be made from <cl2><i>paper </cl2></i> such as the paper is made from the paper mulberry of north,
- 215 paper is made from the fibers of a species of plane of middle and rice paper.
- 216 They cut the paper is made from <cl2><i>flag, wreath </cl2></i> and <cl2><i>flower </cl2></i> and include to be made from the <cl2><i>umbrella, kite </cl2></i> for flying such as a star- shaped Thai kite, a diamond-shaped Thai kite with a long tail, king-crab-shaped kite with one tail and diamond-shaped kite with on tail, the <cl2><i>mask</cl2></i> and the masks worn by actors in marked performances. (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 217 <p> <u><cl1>**Various** </u></cl1> which can’t arrange according to eight types such as <cl2><i>adjusting the flower, carving the fruit, making musical instrument, ornaments </cl2></i> are made from glass<cl2><i>, boat, wheeled vehicle </cl2></i> and <cl2><i>bullock cart. </cl2></i> (Sukhothaitummatirat University, 1990)
- 218 <p> So, we can sec that local handicrafts of Thailand, there are many type.
- 219 These are Ceramics, Textile and embroidery, Caring, Metal works, Basketry mats, Painting and drawing, Sculpture and decorating motive, Paper mache and Various.
- 220 These local handicrafts mush to be fine that show to foreigners Thais are abilities and indicate character of Thais that are tender mind.
- 221 Therefore Thais must to conserve them for Thai feel proud in art objects.
- 301 <p> Nowadays, Local handicrafts of Thailand are interesting vary much in foreign group that come to Thailand due to its are beautiful, strange and importantly,
- 302 there are handicraft of Thailand is divided many types that are difference follow to produce method.
- 303 First, <u><cl1>Ceramics</u></cl1> are made from the earthen and stone to use in their life such as basin, large water-jar and flower -pot.
- 304 The method of production uses molding and burning the earthen.
- 305 Second, <u><cl1> **Textile and embroidery** </u></cl1> have <cl2><i>weaving silk cloth, weaving cotton cloth </cl2></i> and <cl2><i>embroider the flag </cl2></i> of north and northeastern quarter for use in fare.
- 306 Third, <u><cl1> **Carving** </u></cl1> use the material to carve, such as the mortar is made from <cl2><i>the stone </cl2></i>,
- 307 furniture and household furnishings is made from<cl2><i> the wood </cl2></i>,
- 308 The puppet used in shadow play in south quarter of Thailand is made from <cl2><i>the skin of cow </cl2></i>.
- 309 Forty, <u><cl1>**Metal works** </u></cl1> are other metal works example <cl2><i>silver ware, nielloware, goldware, brassware </cl2></i>and<cl2><i> equipment which are made from iron </cl2></i> such as small hand – spade, knives for all sorts and size a long – handle knife in Roiyadd and Buddhist monk’s spheroidal alms – bowl in Bangkok.
- 310 The method of production uses casting molten in varieuse forms and striking the metal to be patterns and covering with gold leaf.

311 Finally, **Woven goods** are local handicrafts are made from
 natural material such as the mats is made from *Kachud* which a species
 of reed, *Bamboo*,
 312 the betel nut basket, handbag and cigarette box, the rattan ware are made from *Yan*
Lipao,
 313 the mats, rice baskets is made from *Lamchiak* which genus Pandarus.
 314 The method of production uses weaving the thin bamboo-strips and reed.
 315 <p> So, we can see that local handicrafts of Thailand, there are many types,
 316 These are Ceramics, Textile and embroidery, Caring, Metal works and woven goods,
 317 its show the tradition and culture of Thailand and its can buy to visiter,
 318 therefore, we must to conserve them for Thais feel proud in the art objects.

S08 Social problems

101 <p>Social problem can be classified as 4 essences.
 102 Social problem affect everyone and lead to other problem as link.
 103 It can be categorized into population problem, city problem and other problem.
 104 The first is population problem,
 105 it means a number of people are over and effect other problem occur.
 106 Second, rural problem is the problem, which happened in small town where uncivilized.
 107 Third city problem, it refers to as a big town where have many matter.
 108 And forth other problem, it defined from 3 problems, which told in early sentences.
 109 There are only some of social problem.
 110 Therefore, everyone wants solution.
 111 Social problem signify the situation affect to many people and it have many essences.

201 <p>Social problem can be classified as 4 essences,
 202 and it can divide to several ways all of this are big problem that want solution.
 203 <p>“ Social problem affect everyone ”¹(Coleman, Jame and Donald Cressey,
 1999) or many people
 204 and it lead to several problem as link
 205 for example, corruption it is behavior of a politician if government is dishonest, the country
 is degrade so that it effect population next population is disadvantaged in other word is poor,
 many problem neglected or disregarded besides it effect crime problem, alcoholism problem
 and suicide problem etc.

206 It is categorized in population problem and separate one more,
 207 there are poor problem and unemployment problem that come from population, in case of
 have over number of people because people is high competition and snatch by force for
 work,
 208 rural problem which is man or woman who self oneself, gamble and narcotic too,
 209 drug problem is destroy people add society
 210 and crime problem is an act committed in violation
 211 the last is other problem,
 212 there are pollution problem which mostly occur in big town and suicide problem which
 happened frequent in teenage
 213 it is killing oneself.

214 The first is “population problem, it means a number of people are increase a lot and rapid it
 set off a chain reaction such as relocation, economic problem.”²(Gans, Herbert, 1973)
 </p>

215 Second “rural problem, it is the problem which happened in small town where uncivilized,
 the people haven’ t a lot and haven’ t a convenience and comfort addition to bad life’ s
 quality.”³(Thomas Adam, 1995) </p>

216 Third “city problem, it refer to as a big town where crowded people or have people densely
 through have a little convenience”⁴ (Thomas, Adam, 1995) </p> and the people
 interest only entertainment add don’ t think about social problem.

217 And forth other problem, it defined from 3 problems which told in early sentences,
 218 there are “pollution problem and suicide problem,
 219 pollution problem is some act which create an atmosphere and hazard to health”
 </p>⁵(Sherpard, Jonh M. and Harwin LVoss, 1978) </p>

220 and “suicide problem is an act of oneself direct and indirect through determined or not and
 know a result of it.”⁶ (Merton, Robert K. and Nib set, Robert, 1971) </p>

221 these are only some of social problem because in present, the society is in confusion and
 222 many things are changed from past, since now have a lot of people high technology,
 223 these do people change idea and behavior.
 224 Therefore, everyone wants solution that is the process for solve the social problem for relief
 225 or do it better by everyone.

<p>Social problem signify the situation affect to many people
 and it have many essence besides, “social problem make the people feel bad and want to
 solve together for relief or do it better.” <cl2>⁷ (Horton, Paul B. and Leslie, Gerald R, 1995)
 </cl2>

<p>Social problem can be classified 4 essences.
 “Social problem affect everyone ¹(Vincent, 1999)” and brings to several effect.
 Social problem is the cause from population problem,
 when have too many people it leads to unemployed and poor.
 In the city have many people, high technology, bad ethic as a result prostitute problem, drug
 problem and crime problem because the society is not well.
 Besides, rural is the social problem too since, the rural is undeveloped therefore, in “rural is
 uncivilized or bad life’ s quality ²(Thomas Adam, 1995)”.

The last effect of social problem is other problem
 there are pollution problem and suicide problem,
 these happened from the human is not think about the result that it affect to them.
 And in bad society some people unable solve by oneself
 it due to social problem that is suicide problem.
 Social problem define as several essences and effect to many people in the society.

S10 Tourism

<p>“Tourism Industry is service that the tourist get variety form and make them to satisfy.
 Focus into make higher tourist , stay longer time and pay more money” said Dr.Winit
 Werayangkul , a lecturer of Kasetsart University.

The four kinds of business in tourism industry are food & beverage , accommodation ,
 transportation and tour guide.
 First is food & beverage ,
 [no spc] there are several types of restaurant for example coffee shop , café terias , fast-food
 restaurant and deli shop etc.
 The second is accommodation , the five classes of hotel which divide by cost
 and there are variety kinds of hotel (e.g. motels , resort hotels , motor hotels , guesthouse
 etc.).
 Tourist have many way to choose the best package which from every business.
 The third is comfortable transportation without pollution and traffic jam.
 And the last is tour guide ,
 tourist become fascinated by service mind from the guide and good service that make them
 back to choose your service again.
 Planning and marketing are important in tourism industry.
 They are necessary the up date information.
 So the tourism industry is to be successful by the good managers use the information to plan
 and up date their business, how to make more money and finish the destination.

The business in tourism industry can be divided into four kinds.
 First, accommodation, which is divided by, cost such as motels, resort hotels, motor hotels,
 guesthouse etc.
 Next, food & beverage have lot of choices for tourists depend on their needs: coffee shops,
 cafeterias, fast-food restaurant and deli shops etc.
 Third, when we had a trip, we need good and safe transportation, also comfortable.
 Finally, tour guide, that tourists have many ways to choose package.
 The service have to make them festinated by service mind, have lots of up date information.
 Business in tourism industry needs a good service in order to make tourists come back to
 choose their service again.
 Planning and marketing help about how to do with the business.
 In conclusion, the businesses finish the destination and success by the executive and
 everyone in the business cooperates together.

S14 Pollution

- 101 Air pollution are usually most severe in big city, because there are many cars on the street,
102 so the cars emit carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, hydrocarbon and sulphur dioxide.
103 There are the cause of air pollution.
104 There are many solution of air pollution from traffic jam.
105 Everyone can solve this problem by carried a maximum of two to four persons,
106 car length and width could be reduced.
107 Except this way, people can solve this problem by use without lead oil, use small and slower
vehicles, always check their motor vehicles and use buses more than car ownership.
108 When everyone join to solve this problem, then it can decrease air pollution.
- 201 Air pollution are usually most severe in big city because there are many cars on the street.
202 Car is the major cause of air pollution because the incomplete burning of the petrol in the
engine produces carbon monoxide, nitrogen monoxide, sulphur dioxide and various
hydrocarbons.(S.Muttamara;Shing Tet Leong,2000)
203 There are many solution of air pollution from traffic jam.
204 Everyone can solve this problem by carried a maximum of two to four person,
205 car length and width could be reduced.
206 Such cars would require smaller lane widths and less park space, thus helping to ease traffic
congestion (P.Moriarty,D.Honnery,1999).
207 Except this way, people can solve this problem by use unleaded fuel and alternative fuels
such as ethanal, which produce fewer pollutants, use small and slower vehicles, use public
transport more than own cars and always check their motor vehicles.
208 When everyone use these ways and join to solve this problem, then it can decrease traffic jam
and air pollution.
- 301 Air pollution are usuall most severe in big city because there are many car on the street.
302 Car is the major cause of air pollution because the incomplete burning of the petrol in the
engine produces carbon monoxide, nitrogen monoxide, sulphur dioxide and various
hydrocarbons.(Muttamara, 2000)
303 There are many solution of air pollution from traffic jam such as: to put the catalytic
converters, a device fitted to cars to convert the exhaust gases to become less harmful gases,
because they contain a catalyst such as platinum.
304 [no space]These speed up the complete combustion of carbon monoxide and hydrocarbons,
converting them to carbon dioxide and water vapor.
305 Catalytic converters are useless if leaded pentrol is used, because the lead deactivates the
catalyst.(Rayfield, 1998)
306 The other way to reduce the air pollution by carried a maximum of two to four person,
307 car length and width could be reduced.
308 Such cars would require smaller lane widths and less park space, thus helping to ease traffic
congestion. (Moriarty, 1999)
309 Except this way people can solve this problem by use small and slower vehicles, use public
transnport more than own cars and always check their motor vehicles .
310 When everyone use these ways and join to solve this problem, then it can decrease traffic jam
and air pollution.

S23 Traffic and Pollution

- 101 <p>There are many kinds of pollution from traffic such as air pollution and noise
pollution.
102 Air and noise pollution come from cars and another vehicles.
103 Air pollution has many kinds such as carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, smog and dust.
104 Carbon monoxide is a poisonous gas,
105 it does not have color, taste and smell,
106 if air has carbon monoxide too much it can kill person in a few minutes
107 and carbon dioxide is a gas which does not have color, taste and smell.
108 Brown smog, it happens in city that the weather is dry and warm such as Bangkok,
Mexico and Los Anger list,
109 most cities have cars too much and traffic is very bad, brown smog is same fog
110 and it is danger with eyes and plants.

111 Dust is molecule of grounds which falls from trucks or open carts when they load
 112 grounds to somewhere,
 113 it make us to can not see car or another on road.
 114 Noise. a majority of noise is from motorcycles that they is changed exhaust pipe and
 115 do it to have loud noise
 116 and some owner do not take care his or her motorcycle.
 117 Noise is danger with ears
 118 and finally it makes ears deaf.
 119 From all the above, these pollution come from traffic.
 Most pollution are danger to people
 but some pollution is danger too much and some pollution is not danger too much.

201 There are many kinds of pollution from traffic such as air pollution and noise pollution.

 202 Air and noise pollution come from cars and another vehicles.
 203 Air pollution has many kinds such as carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, smog and dust.
 204 Carbon monoxide is a poisonous gas,
 205 it does not have color, taste and smell,
 206 high levels of carbon monoxide are often found in the air of big cities because there are lots
 207 of cars,
 208 if air contains too much carbon monoxide it can kill people in a few minutes.
 209 Carbon dioxide is a gas which does not have color, taste and smell
 210 and “now, the percentage of total carbon dioxide emissions from the transport sector is also
 211 growing because it has cars, motorcycles or another vehicles too much today.”
 212 Brown smog,it happens in city that the weather is dry and warm such as Bangkok,
 213 Mexico and Los Angeles,
 214 most cities have cars and too much traffic is very bad, as brown smog is same fog
 215 and it is danger to eyes and plants.
 216 Dust is made up of molecules of soil particles which fall from trucks or open carts
 217 when they load earth somewhere,
 218 it make people unable see another on the road.
 219 Noise pollution is usually on a much,
 220 it is from motor-vehicle (Gugler, 1997),
 221 the majority of noise is from motorcyclists that replace exhaust pipe in order to have loud
 222 noise
 223 and some owner do not take care his or her motorcycle,
 noise is dangerous to people hearing and can make people deaf.
 From the above, it can be seen that these pollution come from traffic
 and now ,these pollution increase too much because it has vehicles too much.
 Most pollution is dangerous to people but some pollution is very dangerous to people
 but some pollution is very dangerous while some pollution is less dangerous.

301 There are many kinds of pollution from traffic such as air pollution and noise
 pollution.
 302 Air and noise pollution come from cars and another vehicles.
 303 Air pollution has many kinds such as carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, smog and dust.
 304 Carbon monoxide is a poisonous gas,
 305 it does not have color, taste and smell,
 306 high levels of carbon monoxide are often found in the air of big cities because there are lots
 307 of cars,
 308 if air contains too much carbon monoxide it can kill people in a few minutes.
 309 Carbon dioxide is a gas, which does not have color, taste and smell.
 “Now, the percentage of total carbon dioxide emissions from the transport sector is also
 growing because it has cars, motorcycles or another vehicles too much
 today”(URL<http://www.bef.lv/Baltic/html/chapt1.html>.)
 310 Brown smog, it happens in city that the weather is dry and warm such as Bangkok,
 311 Mexico and Los Angeles,
 312 most cities have cars and too much traffic is very bad, as brown smog is same fog
 313 and it is danger to eyes and plants.
 314 Dust is made up of molecules of soil particles which fall from trucks or open carts
 315 when they load earth somewhere, it make people unable see another on the road.”
 Noise pollution is usually on a much (a lot),

316 [no spc] it is from motor-vehicle” (Gugler, 1997).
317 The majority of noise is from motorcyclists that replace exhaust pipe in order to have loud
noise
318 and some owner do not take care his or her motorcycle,
319 noise is dangerous to people hearing and can make people deaf.
320 From the above, it can be seen that these pollution come from traffic
321 and now, these pollution increase rapidly because there are too many vehicles.
322 Most pollution is dangerous to people
323 but some pollution is very dangerous while some pollution is less dangerous.

The writer obviously used a comma to keep a sentence long and to contain what she wanted to include with in, so called, a 'ten-sentence paragraph', as instructed in the course.

S26 Rain Forests

- 101 <p>The rainforests have importance role to life on earth.
102 Tropical rainforests are home to half the world 's species of animals and plants, including
many with medical properties.
103 The forests are also home to an estimated 50 million tribal people whose very survival is tied
to the forests.
104 Rainforests are critical in creating local rainfall (that why they are called rainforests).
105 Rainforests store and distribute water preventing floods and drought, control temperature.
106 <p>From all the above are the role of the rainforests to the living things and the earth.
- 201 Rainforests are the home of animal, plants and territory of an estimated 50 million
tribespeople.
202 There are about a thousand known forest tribes in the world and probably some undiscovered
ones.
203 Now the tribespeople are decreasing.
204 Since then at least one tribe has become extinct every year.
205 Rainforests create rainfall,75% of rain that falls on that falls on forests are recycles back into
atmosphere and becomes the basis for future rain. (Khor. K.P,1995)
206 The heavy tropical rain when it falls on the rainforests is broken by the thick tree canopy and
falls gently on the ground.
207 There it is conserved and retained on the rich leaf litter of the forest floor so rainforest can
prevent floods and drought.
208 Rainforests is important to prevent floods and drought.
209 Rainforest can control and manage temperature, keeping the balance of heat and coolness and
the balance of carbon dioxide and oxygen in the atmosphere.
210 So rainforests are very important for making the balance of the nature.
- 301 Rainforests can protect soil erosion.
302 Changing forests to plantations expose the soil directly to sun and rain.
303 This results in erosion of topsoil and thus nutrient loss.
304 The loss of the rainforests has very serious implications for all of us.
305 Global warming, and other climatic changes leading to floods and droughts, loss of valuable
plant and animal species
306 these are just some of the serious consequences that we face.
307 So the rain is importance to life on earth.
308 The government and the people must think about this and try to maintain and increase the
rainforests.

Appendix 11

The drafts and feedback

S16: Healthy foods (First draft)

There are many kinds of nutrition in healthy foods. For good nutrition a person needs to eat a variety of foods that provide adequate amount of carbohydrate, calcium, dietary fiber, protein and vitamins. Carbohydrate comes from cereals, bread, pasta and rice. Calcium strengthens bone and acts as a 'bone bank' to keep the bones strong as the person ages. Especially, teenagers need to eat a good deal of calcium because their bones are growing during the teenage years. Best sources of dietary fiber come from many foods such as orange, peas, oatmeal and etc. Most of people enjoy eating meat or meat products, most will obtain the protein that they need for repairing tissues and keeping healthy. A large number of people take vitamin tablets to make them feel healthier. Most people obtain all the vitamins they need from the food that they eat. Therefore, the healthy foods have much nutrition such as carbohydrate, calcium, dietary fiber, protein, vitamins and etc.

Comment: This paragraph is reasonably well written. However, your closing sentence does not sum up what you have been saying in the body of your work. You are talking about nutrition and healthy foods so maybe a better closing sentence would be..."Therefore, for a person to remain healthy they should eat nutritional foods..."

S17: healthy foods (First draft)

There are several reasons why people like to consume health foods. Health foods are natural food without chemical ingredients which people buy because they consider them to be good for them. Some health foods are referred to as organic food, which means food are grown without chemical that kill animal or insect. People choices about food are linked to they physical needs, they environment and they emotions. Everybody needs foods but foods that they need are difference. It depend on they body, they age, they sex and they activities. The quantity of foods that people need are difference , too. A kind of foods that important for life such as carbohydrates, vitamins, fat, proteins, mineral and water. When people shop for health foods they will look for foods that they want and useful. For good health and long life people have to know that what kinds of foods are important for them.

Comment: I like your first draft, brief, well-organised, and clear. However, there are some points that you may do to improve the writing.

..organic food, which means food that are grown without chemicals that kill animals or insects/ pesticides.

'they' and 'their' are different. 'They' is a pronoun, used as a subject of a sentence. 'Their' is a possessive pronoun, used before a noun to say that the noun belongs to 'they', i.e. their age, their sex, their activities.

different (adj) – difference (n)

you can say: Nutrients in foods can be classified into six main groups: carbohydrates, proteins,

...

your conclusion can be more expository if you say:

When people shop for healthy food, they will look for nutritious foods that their body needs.

Knowing what necessary and nutritious foods are will support healthy and long life.

Do you agree with me? Think about it first, as I said, your draft is already good.

S28: Wedding traditions (First draft)

The tradition between Thai and Western are different in many kinds for example eating, greeting even wedding.

In Thai, The man want to marriage with the woman he has to ask with the woman' parents at first but The West, they can consider by themselves.

The past choosing a spouse, Thai parents would decided the man or the woman that to be appropriate with their child for themselves but in west, the lover has right in choosing a spouse by Voluntary.

West bride and groom arrange marriage at church but Thai bride and groom arrange at bride's house.

Thai couples are coordinate with husband's parents or wife's parents but West live independent (one family).

Conjugal relation of Thai, The wife must be take care her husband and work everything like house keeping but West couple will share house keeping.

Thai husbands have powerful to consider and decided everything but couples in West, they to share opinion and coordinate decide.

People in Western often delay marriage and children until their career aspiration stabilize majority they marriage when they are in middle age but majority Thai people marriage sine teen-age to adult.

In Thai's tradition lovers don't have sexuality before wedding but lovers in Western almost live coordinate and have sexuality before wedding at that.

Each countrys have different existence and different tradition.

Comment:

Content: Very Good. Interesting (but a title at the top of the page would have helped to tell people what it was about).

Organization: Structure very good. It is logical and clear. Each key difference is looked at in turn and compared i.e. Thai v West. The use of simple sentences makes it very structured and clear.

Language Use: The language used is very good. a few words are not correct however, the majority of words used are relevant and appropriate. I have changes some of the words as the written English was not clear/correct in some cases. It was possible to understand without the changes.

The tradition between Thai and Western are different in many (**ways,**) for example eating, greeting even (**weddings.**)

In (**Thailand, if the**)man (**want's to marry**)a woman he has to (**this**) by themselves.

(**In the**) past (**when**) choosing a spouse, Thai parents would decided the man or the woman that (**was**) appropriate (**for**) their child for themselves but in West, (**the lovers have a right to choose a spouse by themselves.**)

(**Western brides and grooms**) arrange marriage at church but Thai brides and grooms arrange the wedding at (**the**) bride's house.

Thai couples often live with (**the**) husband's parents or wife's parents but in the West people live (**independently**) i.e. on their own, not living with their parents.

Conjugal (**relations for Thai require that the**) wife must take care of her husband and work (**out**) everything like house keeping but (**Western**) couple will share house keeping.

Thai husbands have (**the**) powerful to consider and decided everything but couples in West share opinions and coordinate decisions.

People in the West often delay marriage and children until their career aspiration stabilize. (**The**) majority (**marry**) when they are in middle age (**however, the**) majority (**of**) Thai people marry in their teen's.

In Thai's tradition lovers don't have (**sexual relations**) before (**the**) wedding but lovers in (**the**) West almost (**always live together**) and have sex before the wedding.

Each (**country**) has different (**culture**) and different traditions.

Appendix 12

Feedback analysis

Feedback ID	Owner	To	Draft	Feedback	Move	Effects
CM011	RTA	S01	01	Hello Peter read your draft and gave some responses. You organised the draft pretty good, giving good topic sentence and conclusion.	(Grt) OV Irl	
CM012	R01	S01	01	Sorry I have deleted some irrelevant feedback. Hello. My name is Peter and I am an Irish man living in Japan. Ms. Whanchit asked me to read your message and reply. Your study method is very interesting and systematic. You explained it quite clearly. Certainly, in my own experience, forcing myself to write things down rather than just write is very important. Some grammatical improvements: examinations [or: the entrance examination] questions [rather than question] [penultimate sentence] revision steps [final sentence] [Better would be] If you follow all of the these steps, you will...etc.	Intro/ Grt (GI) (OV) (Sup) (surf)	
CM013	RTA	S01	01-02	The drafts are quite good. However, I just noticed that I could not find the FOUR steps easily. Could you help me about this? Try to put second, third, finally, etc, if you can. There are some points to note: Wait for one day. 'Don't leave it all...' sounds a little bit argumentative.	NEW	
CM014	P08	S01	01	I think your first draft is too short and some word of you have the mistake for example, the plural, the smybol etc.	(GI) (AtWk)	
CM015	P02	S01	02	Your paragraph is clear. It's easy to understand. Good luck for your final draft.	(GI) (HL) (Sup)	
CM016	P25	S01	02	Your second draft is so good. But some word mistake. If you improve some word you may be get "A" in English 4.	(GI) (AtWk) (Sim) (end)	
CM017	P29	S01	02	From pretty Girl Your draft is good and easy to understand. there are many useful things from your idea.	(GI) (HL)	
Feedback ID	Owner	To	Draft	Feedback	Move	Effects
CM018	P11	S01	02	your organize so good but there are 11 sentences. you have wrong word as prepare, check again.	(GI) (AtWk) (AtWk) (Sim)	
CM019	P21	S01	02	Your second draft is ok. It's easy to understand. But you shoud change some word because some word is difficult to understand.	GI HL Sim AtWk	

CM010	RTA	S01	03	Good job, Akanit! Forgot the references? You did not receive my comments after the first draft, did you? Your final draft is quite good, clear, and easy to follow.	(Prs) (Prob) (Irl) (OV/ GI)		
CM151 05-Jul-2000 02:41:12	RTA	S15	01	Hi there, I have some responses from a reader. Hope they will be helpful for your next draft. However, bear in mind that you have to think about it before doing anything else.			
CM152	R03	S15	01	Dean Jacob commented: This papagraph is resonably well written. However, your closing sentence does not sum up what you have been saying in the body of your work. You are talking about nutrition and healthy foods so maybe a better closing sentence would be..."Therefore, for a person to remain healthy they should eat nutritional foods..."	(GI) (Atwk) (Sim)		
CM153 06-Jul-2000 22:24:58	P08	S15	01	Your first draft is good because it is easy to understand	(GI) (GL)		
CM154 06-Jul-2000 22:20:41	P19	S15	02	but some sentences are have a same word. Your second draft is good and the supporting details are clear.	(atwk) (GI)		
CM155 06-Jul-2000 22:32:49	P14	S15	02	Your second draft is clear to understand and you write it very good.	(GI)		
CM156 06-Jul-FeedbackI D	P30	S15	02	It is a good paragraph. It is short and clear.	(GI)		
	Owner	To	Draft	Feedback		Move	Effects
CM157 06-Jul-2000 22:59:40	P27	S15	02	I think you are a good writer. Your nd. draft it okey	(AJ) (GI)		
CM158	RTA	S15	02	but you forgot commas between the word moreover you information , it is not clear such as calcium is a mineral . Piyada, Very good draft, indeed.	(atwk) (Gr) (GI)		
CM159	RTA	S15	03	Piyada, Why did you not like your second draft? I prefer your second draft to the final one, to be honest. The ideas in the second draft were grouped well together. I am not asking you to change your final draft. I only would like to let you know some points that make the final draft different. The first few sentences of your final draft is quite good. But you should make it clear how many nutrient there are (you did in draft 2). The conclusion could be: Therefore nutrients in healthy food function differently to maintain our body systems. References: are there two authors here? Please check: Llewlyn, D. and Abraham, J.Z. (1992)...?	(Gr) (prob) (Aj) (HL) (HL) (Jxt) (Sim) (PROB)		

CM161 04-Jul- 2000	R01	S16	01	<p>Hello. Greetings from Japan. My name is Peter. I am Irish and have been asked to read your piece of writing.</p> <p>I think you have some interesting things to say about Thai handicrafts.</p> <p>Basically, though, I think you are trying to cram too many ideas into one short paragraph.</p> <p>For example, you write about three basic qualities of handicrafts, the uses of handicrafts, and their connection to Thai culture and identity (Thai "rule" sounds very dictatorial!). But you cram these three important ideas together and don't say much about each one.</p> <p>It would be better to develop each idea in a separate paragraph, I think.</p> <p>Your writing has a lot of grammatical mistakes in it, including basic things like subject-verb agreement.</p> <p>So, try to write simply, read your grammar book again, and check carefully what you write, asking yourself, "Am I sure this is grammatically OK in English?".</p> <p>Regards, Peter</p>	<p>(Grt)</p> <p>(AJ)</p> <p>(AtWk)</p> <p>(ref)</p> <p>(Sim)</p> <p>(Atwk)</p> <p>(Sim)</p>
CM162 06-Jul- 2000	P08	S16	01	<p>Your first draft have a opinion for example, must, can , plural and some of your detail is short, it is not clear</p>	(Atwk)
CM163 06-Jul- 2000	P03	S16	02	<p>Hello,</p> <p>I think you want to write kind of handicrafts which is topic sentence .</p> <p>You should make clear the kind of handicrafts such as what kind does it have.</p>	<p>(grt)</p> <p>(AJ)</p> <p>(Sim)</p>
CM164	RTA	S16	01- 02	<p>I enjoyed reading your drafts.</p> <p>Handicrafts can be divided into three categories (?) Crafts used in ceremony (passive form) (also some other places).</p> <p>Avoid the word important here because it has a degree of argument. You might say: from all of the above, handicrafts represent the cultures and support traditional careers for Thai people.</p>	<p>(AJ)</p> <p>(prob)</p> <p>(Sim)</p>
CM165 13-Jul- 2000	RTA	S16	03	<p>I guess you have received my comments via email. Was it not a late submission, by the way?</p> <p>Your final draft is good.</p> <p>(note) Some points to note: beautiful (adj) – beauty (n.) we say: they are beautiful, it is beautiful (or she is beautiful!) ☺</p> <p>Please also note the form of this: Thai crafts can be divided into three groups/ parts (be + v.3)= is divided, is classified as, are defined as... the reference might need more information, e.g. publisher, place (if it is a book).</p>	<p>(GI)</p>

Appendix 13

Correspondence in the Discussion Forums

Phase 1

Current Forum: Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository) Read 30 times

Date: 05-Jul-2000 05:45:45

Author: Pechry, Pairat <42102947@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Second draft:Traffic and pollution

Air pollution are usually most severe in big city because there are many cars on the street. Car is the major cause of air pollution because the incomplete burning of the petrol in the engine produces carbon monoxide, nitrogen monoxide, sulphur dioxide and various hydrocarbons.(S.Muttamara;Shing Tet Leong,2000)There are many solution of air pollution from traffic jam. Everyone can solve this problem by carried a maximum of two to four person, car length and width could be reduced. Such cars would require smaller lane widths and less park space, thus helping to ease traffic congestion.(P.Moriarty,D.Honnery,1999)

Except this way, people can solve this problem by use unleaded fuel and alternative fuels such as ethanal, which produce fewer pollutants, use small and slower vehicles, use public transport more than own cars and always check their motor vehicles. When everyone use these ways and join to solve this problem, then it can decrease traffic jam and air pollution.

Current Forum: Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository) Read 11 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:22:47

Author: Suwanrot, Wilasinee <42101535@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Second draft:Traffic and pollution

She write a second draft to fair but there are a little wrong vocabulary.

Current Forum: Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository) Read 17 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:29:24

Author: Sriwongvaew, Poomchat <42101154@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Second draft:Traffic and pollution

It is a quite good paragraph,some word mistake grammar and important think not have general reference after you finish draft.

Current Forum: Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository) Read 4 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:33:53

Author: Hongweingjan, Thussawan <42100552@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Second draft:Traffic and pollution

Your second dreft is easy to read .The paragraph is cleary .The language used is of a high standard. If you change some sentence ,it is a good than before.

I think ,your second draft is good.

Current Forum: Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository)Read 9 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:35:21

Author: Chaibandit, Thanyanut <42100636@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Second draft:Traffic and pollution

From your second draft is good but it's argumentative. some paragaphs aren't connect.

Current Forum: Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository)Read 6 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:39:25

Author: Somboon, Pornthip <42101030@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Second draft:Traffic and pollution

hello PAIRAT

your paragraph has some point mistake you have 2paragraph for this topic and it like you use your opinion more than a point of this topic .And should change your

conclusion so that hole your paragraph. However , you can use good word and easy to understanding
goodluck for 3rd draft

Current Forum: *Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository)* Read 5 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:44:30

Author: Hatcthong, Supaporn <42101873@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: *Re: Second draft:Traffic and pollution*

Your draft is easy to understand and clear to explain. Some structures are mistake and I think you should change them.

Good Luck.

Current Forum: *Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository)* Read 22 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 01:24:50

Author: Hongweingjan, Thussawan <42100552@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Attachment: [traffic_and_pollutionsecond_draft.doc](#) (21504 bytes)

Subject: *Second draft :Traffic and Pollution*

click at traffic and polltion(second draft)to read my second draft.

Current Forum: *Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository)* Read 2 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:47:20

Author: Pechry, Pairat <42102947@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: *Re: Second draft :Traffic and Pollution*

Your second draft is clear but sometime you should be find more infomation of causes such as people use more individual,they don't check their motor vehicle before they drive. so their emit pollution.

Current Forum: *Second draft: Traffic and Pollutions (expository)* Read 6 times

Date: 12-Jul-2000 02:36:18

Author: Hatcthong, Supaporn <42101873@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Attachment: [draft2.doc](#) (20992 bytes)

Subject: *2nd draft*

read 2nd draft.

Current Forum: *Second draft : Healthy foods (expository)* Read 24 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 01:13:36

Author: Chantakul, Awika <42102020@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: *Draft 2*

There are several kinds of healthy foods such as fish, fruits, rice, vegetable, milk and eggs.

A prime source of protein, fish products are among the most nutritious foods available to the consumer and fish can play a major role in the low-cholesterol diet. Fruits are high in water content and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins, vitaminlike factors, various essential macrominerals and microminerals (Ensminger, 1994). Rice has good nutritional values, (80% starch, 8% protein and 12% water) comparing favorably with those of the other major cereals used as food staples around the world (Ensminger, 1994). Vegetables are high in water content; hence, they are considerably lower in calories and proteins than most of grains and legumes and vegetables are the source of Vitamin A and C. The milk food group make important contributions to the diet. Futhermore, milk products are the leading source of calcium and high-quality protein. Eggs contain an abundance of proteins, vitamins and mineral. Besides that, eggs provide a well-balanced source of nutrients for person of all ages (Chen,1991).

From all the above, the healthy foods are fish, fruits, rice, vegetables, milk, eggs and so on.

References:

Chen, W.(1991). *Relationship in foods*. Great Britain, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Ensminger, A. (1994). *The concise Encyclopedia of food & nutrition. The United states of America, CRC Press.*

Guthrie,H. (1995). *Human nutrition. The United states of America, Mosby-year book, Inc.*

Current Forum: Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 12 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:19:56

Author: Rujipuk, Orapan <42101964@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Draft 2

I read your draft2. It's o.k. You use words that are easy and I understand.

Current Forum: Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 5 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:39:22

Author: Nuntakiate, Thanithorn <42100438@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Draft 2

Your second draft is clear and short and your spelling is okay. Besides your paragraphs are connected together and concern with topic sentence.

Current Forum: Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 4 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:47:31

Author: Thanapate, Pornchanok <42101022@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Draft 2

After I read your 2nd draft. It is understandable and clear but I found that your draft has 3 paragraphs. Try to increase them in one paragraph. I think you can do the best one, right.

Current Forum: Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 4 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:47:59

Author: Chaibandit, Thanyanut <42100636@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Draft 2

Your paragraph is good and easy to understand.

Current Forum: Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 6 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:49:16

Author: Cheunsodsai, Thipsukhon <42100578@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: Draft 2

You write good. This paragraph is short and clear.

Current Forum: Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 19 times

Date: 06-Jul-2000 01:22:43

Author: Senarak, Praveena <42100875@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Second Draft

There are several kinds of healthy foods such as fish, fruits, rice, vegetable, milk and eggs.

A prime source of protein, fish products are among the most nutritious foods available to the consumer and fish can play a major role in the low-cholesterol diet. Fruits are high in water content and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins, vitaminlike factors, various essential macrominerals and microminerals (Ensminger, 1994). Rice has good nutritional values, (80% starch, 8% protein and 12% water) comparing favorably with those of the other major cereals used as food staples around the world (Ensminger, 1994). Vegetables are high in water content; hence, they are considerably lower in calories and proteins than most of grains and legumes and vegetables are the source of Vitamin A and C. The milk food group make important contributions to the diet. Furthermore, milk products are the leading source of calcium and high-quality protein. Eggs contain an abundance of proteins, vitamins and mineral. Besides that, eggs provide a well-balanced source of nutrients for person of all ages (Chen,1991).

From all the above, the healthy foods are fish, fruits, rice, vegetables, milk, eggs and so on.

References:

Chen, W.(1991). *Relationship in foods. Great Britain, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.*

Ensminger, A. (1994). *The concise Encyclopedia of food & nutrition. The United states of America, CRC Press.*

Guthrie,H. (1995). *Human nutrition. The United states of America, Mosby-year book, Inc.*

p.s Draft 2(healthy food) of Awika is a mistake because I want to send my draft 2 but the login is Awika 's name.

Current Forum: *Second draft : Healthy foods (expository) Read 5 times*

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:19:01

Author: Thongsane, Piyada <42100966@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: *Re: Second Draft*

Your second draft is good and you have some word mistake such as 'furthermore'. About conclusion maybe rewrite.

Current Forum: *Second draft : Healthy foods (expository)Read 7 times*

Date: 06-Jul-2000 22:21:49

Author: Rungrong, Sureeporn <42101881@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: *Re: Second Draft*

Your second draft is good. I understand that you write.

Sureeporn Rungrong.

(A pretty girl)

Correspondence in the Discussion Forums

Phase 2

Topic: Rainforests

Date: 03-Aug-2000 14:57:01

Author: D., Anne <adevenog@worldcom.ch>

Subject: Re: saving rain forest

Hello !

I had a look at your brainstorming. It's a starting point, certainly.

However, in my view one of the things missing in your approach is the mention of the CONTEXT in which deforestation is taking place. Any conservation plan has to take into account the economical, social, cultural, (=human) factor if it wants to have any chance to succeed.

For example, as you mentioned yourself in one of your messages economy is a crucial factor. Deforestation is taking place mainly in countries/areas where people live in (sometimes utter) poverty. It seems easy for someone living comfortably in a far off country, as I am, to say "you must protect the rainforest !" but one has to keep in mind how difficult life is sometimes for the people exploiting the rainforest.

However, if nothing is done to protect this natural resource, their life (and ours too ...) is certainly going to become even more difficult. Something must be done.

To be successful one should try and combine economical and ecological needs. What is your opinion on this ? In what way (concretely) do you think this could be done in your country ? Any other idea ?

Current Forum: Rainforests (argumentative)

Date: 20-Jul-2000 09:29:40

Author: Whanchit, Wararat <wwararat@holyrood.ed.ac.uk>

Subject: Re: saving rain forest

Hi there,

So there are many ways to save the rainforest. I have some questions to ask you for more clarification, though.

What do you mean by 'afforest'? What does it mean?

For the national park, I guess you wanted to say 'to establish' a National park.

What about other points such as to educate people, or to have strict measurements with deforestation? You can think and expand your thoughts. We can also discuss more of the topic here.

Topic: Healthy Foods

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 27-Jul-2000 17:41:52

Author: A., Pundita <pundita@hotmail.com>

Subject: Re: essay

As for the presentation method, I think it's a good idea to present something in flowcharts, figures, tables, etc. However, it does not seem to be a good idea to practise English:-)

Scientifically, by definition, human is 'omnivorous' animal i.e. we are able to take both vegetables and meats (etymology = eating all) although evolutionary, human evolves from 'herbivores'. I am not against the veggies but I would suggest you to have a balanced diet. Healthy food is everywhere. Having a variety of food is also good. Having too much or too less in any kind of nutrients can harm ourselves (carbohydrate, lipid, protein, vitamins and ionic compounds).

Don't forget to have good quality of drinking water too.

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 02-Aug-2000 07:27:20

Author: Kangkarat, Samreka <42100420@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: my openion

I read many textbook about meat and vegetable. I'm not sure eating meat or being a vegetarian which is better. It's has both advantage and disadvantage, so I can't specify which one is good.

I think, It depend on your purpose, example he/she is on diet. There're many reasons/info why they choose eating meat such as, their work, they must use power or energy a lot (a workman).

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 02-Aug-2000 09:40:49

Author: A., Pundita <pundita@hotmail.com>

Subject: Re: my openion ('opinion')

Eating just meat will of course harm ourselves. The reason for us having meat as it's the rich source of essential nutrients named 'protein'. Having said that, the word 'meat' is not equivalent to 'protein'. Proteins are found in almost every kind of food. Some vegetable, beans and nuts in particular, can richly provide us proteins too.

For working men, it's true that they may need much energy. But again, energy doesn't mean just to have meat. Carbohydrate (from rice, bread, or sugar) and fatty food (but beware, the latter is not so healthy) can provide us some high energy to work too.

Generally, most nutrients from meat can be substituted by a good sources of vegetables (except certain component of proteins).

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 04-Aug-2000 11:18:22

Author: Guest, Guest <quest@school.edu>

Subject: Re: my openion ('opinion')

Dear A, Pundita, I totally agree with you that all the nutrients in meat can also be found from other sources. There are many vegetarians in the world who don't suffer any ill health, and I would say are healthier. One only has to look at the USA, where they eat lots of meat to see the consequences; obesity and heart disease. Also most of the world's meat has been injected with anti-biotics, thus contributing to the human intolerance of the drug (this being a dangerous development).

yours Damo

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 09-Aug-2000 09:48:12 (Original: 02-Aug-2000 09:47:46)

Author: A., Pundita <pundita@hotmail.com>

Subject: Re: my openion

Continuingly from the previous message, I think being a veggie is good but somehow might be difficult for some (including me) in practice. Most of the reasons are not scientific reasons but of social matters e.g. socio-economic matter, there are not many shops/restaurants in an area/market we can go for and if so, some may be more expensive and ordinary meat-contained meal which may provide healthier food with more value for money. Staying with friends or people some time can be difficult to avoid eating meat. And for pleasure, many people enjoy more eating meat because of their taste... doesn't sound good but true for human beings.

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 03-Aug-2000 09:01:51 (Original: 03-Aug-2000 08:54:00)

Author: Macleod, Iain D. <iain_d_macleod@standardlife.com>

Subject: Re: my opinion

I am not sure why eating meat is so important if you want to have energy. As Pundita said, we can have beans and others to compensate. I think you could get as much energy from other foods

Can you explain what you think health foods are and why they are considered to be healthy.

Do you think Thai people are more concerned with the quality of food they eat than Western people. If there is a difference, why do you think this is the case?

To me, it seems that Western people are more likely to be veggies. Strange, but why is that?

Current Forum: Healthy foods (argumentative)

Date: 04-Aug-2000 22:59:28

Author: Thanapate, Pornchanok

Subject: healthy foods :->

In my opinion both meat and vegetable are good for our health but nowadays many people like to consume vegetarian because vegetables are high in fiber, vitamin and low fat. Meat is good too, meat and animal product is high protein and fat. The reason why people avoid meat or animal product I think meat is linked to heart disease and makes you fat. And we don't make sure where the meat is from and clean enough to consume. So we should have food that we thought it's safe to consume before we die from chemical or disease in meat.

Topic: social problems

Current Forum: Social Problems (argumentative) Read 13 times

Date: 28-Jul-2000 04:19:59

Author: Howell, Peter <howell@hpc.ac.jp>

Subject: Re: social problems

I am interested in social problems because both in the UK where I am from, and in Japan, where I live, there are many social problems, many of which have to do with young people.

Of course, I think the most important thing is to have a just and unbiased legal system, and open and democratic political system. Then there is some hope of dealing with the problems: violent crime, drug addiction, the sex industry or whatever.

In the UK, many people think that drug-taking and prostitution should be decriminalized in Britain - i.e. made legal. They think that it is the fact that these activities are illegal that allows them to be controlled by violent mafias, just like in the days when drinking alcohol was illegal in the US. If these activities were made legal, but well regulated by the authorities, crime might be reduced and the spread of sexual diseases like AIDS might be controlled.

Current Forum: Social Problems (argumentative) Read 13 times

Date: 01-Aug-2000 23:00:11

Author: Rumpivitaya, Napawun <42100677@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: social problems

I agree with you. Because we should have a strict legislation. Since now, the law for punish it very weak. It can not make the criminal fear. Besides, must have a strict legislation I think should study too. Because in present, the people in society not have common sense they do everything which they want the cause of this may be come from cultural which change and technology too. The people think only property they forget the ethnic. So we should learning and in the lessen. I think it can help although, not perfect. And the family, this is the parent should teach their children.

Current Forum: Social Problems (argumentative) Read 4 times

Date: 02-Aug-2000 10:31:54

Author: A., Pundita <pundita@hotmail.com>

Subject: Re: social problems

Dear k.napawun: Yes, that's good but what approach will you teach if you are a teacher/parent. Just telling them not to do what they want to experiment on?

Howabout the poor, uneducated, presuming things to be morally right just by following their friends? Perhaps they really need money. Someone (non-parents/teachers) successfully persuades them to do wrong? How will you guide/prevent them?

Current Forum: Social Problems (argumentative) Read 4 times

Date: 04-Aug-2000 11:10:06

Author: Guest, Guest <quest@school.edu>

Subject: Re: social problems

Dear Napawun, even though I agree that strict punishments are needed, this will still not solve the problem. In USA there are many people who are executed (which is the ultimate punishment), but this does not deter people from committing crimes. As we know the USA is one of the most violent societies. There are still many people who smuggle drugs into Thailand and Malaysia even though there is the death penalty. Education is the key to the problems, but unfortunately this will take many generations.

Yours Damo

Current Forum: Social Problems (argumentative) Read 1 times

Date: 06-Aug-2000 21:03:59

Author: Whanchit, Wararat <wwararat@holyrood.ed.ac.uk>

Subject: Re: social problems

Hi Damo,

Thank you for your contribution.

I definitely agree with you about education. I guess it is also one of the main concerns in Thailand. However, as you mentioned, in practice it is not that easy.

By the way, could you also introduce yourself too. We would love to know more about you :-)
ww

Current Forum: Social Problems (argumentative)

Read 5 times

Date: 01-Aug-2000 22:40:48

Author: Rumpivitaya, Napawun <42100677@praduu.wu.ac.th>

Subject: Re: social problems

I agree with you. There are many problems of social problems. In my mind, I think every problems take place by human. In Thailand have the social problem too. I think every country have the social problem both urban and rural however, it have process to prevention and solution. The human in society have a duty this. For Thailand, has social problem too for example, the corruption, the poor, the crime etc. I think the main causes come from behavior of the people in society if they have good thinking, have consciousness, the problem will not happened.

Appendix 14
Revision analysis

	S26: Rain Forests			[74]	FX	CM		[73]	FX	CM
101	<p>The rainforests have importance role to life on earth.	201	Rainforests are the home of animal, plants and territory of an estimated 50 million tribespeople.	[53] from (103)	NO FX FROM FB	NO REL	301		NO FX	NO REL
102	Tropical rainforests are home to half the world 's species of animals and plants, including many with medical properties.	202	There are about a thousand known forest tribes in the world and probably some undiscovered ones.				302	Changing forests to plantations expose the soil directly to sun and rain.		
103	The forests are also home to an estimated 50 million tribal people whose very survival is tied to the forests.	203	Now the tribespeople are decreasing.				303	This results in erosion of topsoil and thus nutrient loss.		
104	Rainforests are critical in creating local rainfall (that why they are called rainforests).	204	Since then at least one tribe has become extinct every year.				304	The loss of the rainforests has very serious implications for all of us.		
105	Rainforests store and distribute water preventing floods and drought, control temperature.	205	Rainforests create rainfall,75% of rain that falls on that falls on forests are recycles back into atmosphere and becomes the basis for future rain. (Khor. K.P,1995)				305	Global warming, and other climatic changes leading to floods and droughts, loss of valuable plant and animal species		
106	<p>From all the above are the role of the rainforests to the living things and the earth.	206	The heavy tropical rain when it falls on the rainforests is broken by the thick tree canopy and falls gently on the ground.				306	these are just some of the serious consequences that we face.		
		207	There it is conserved and retained on the rich leaf litter of the forest floor so rainforest can prevent floods and drought.				307	So the rain is importance to life on earth.		
		208	Rainforests is important to prevent floods and drought.				308	The government and the people must think about this and try to maintain and increase the rainforests.		
-	-	209	Rainforest can control and manage temperature, keeping the balance of heat and coolness and the balance of carbon dioxide and oxygen in the atmosphere.				-	-		
-	-	210	So rainforests are very important for making the balance of the nature.				-	-		

	S01: Entrance examination						feedback types	Fx				feedback types	Fx	
101	There are four steps to prepare yourself for entrance examination.	201	There are four revision steps to prepare yourself for an entrance examination.	[21] [11] [21del]	[21] [11] [21del]		<CM012>	[21] p[21del]	301	There are four revision steps to prepare yourself for an entrance examination.	[11]	P		<CM018> 'But some word mistake,' you have wrong word as prepare, check again.
102	First, quickly read over your notes the evening of the day of your lesson(Day one).	202	First,quickly read over your notes the evening of the day of your lesson (Day One) .	[12sp]	[12sp]			0	302	First, quickly read over your notes the evening of the day of your lesson (Day One).	[12sp]	0		
103	Then wait one day.	203	Then wait one day.	[0]	[0]		<CM013>	0	303	Second, wait one day.	[23]	0		<CM013> <Change w/o feedback>
104	After that revise again.	204	After that revise again.	[0]	[0]			0	304	Third, revise again.	[23]	0		Change w/o feedback
105	Set yourself some question about your notes.	205	Set yourself some questions about your notes [no punctuation]	[12d] [18]	[12d] [18]		<CM012> <CM014>	P+	305	Set yourself some questions about your notes.	[12a]	0		
106	Write them down.	206	Write them down.	[0]	[0]			0	306	Write them down.	[0]	0		
107	Try to answer those question without looking at your notes.	207	Try to answer those questions without looking at your notes.	[18]	[18]		<CM012> explicit suggestion <CM014>	P+	307	Try to answer those questions without looking at your notes.	[0]	0		
108	Write down the answers on another sheet of paper.	208	Write down the answers were right or not.	[65]	[65]			0	308	Write down the answers on another sheet of paper.	[55]	0		
109	Check whether your answers were right or not.			in 208	in 208			0	309	Check whether your answers were right or not.	[45] from (208)	0		
110	Finally wait seven days and then repeat the steps of revising again.	209	Finally wait 7 days and then repeat revision steps again.	[11]	[11]		<CM012> <CM014> <CM016>	0	310	Finally, wait seven days and then repeat in third step again.	[11]	0		
111	All of the step above the result almost certainly be able to remember 75% of what you studied on Day one.	210	All of these steps the result almost certainly be able to remember to 75% of what you studied on Day one.	[23del] [18]	[23del] [18]		<CM012> <CM014>	P	311	All of these steps the result almost certainly be able to remember 75% of what you studied on Day One.	[13]	0		
		211	Make sure that you space out your revision time throughout the school year.	[51]	[51]		<CM014> added because of 'I think your first draft is too short' ?	P	312	Make sure that you space out your revision time throughout the school year.	[0]	0		
		212	Don't leave it all to the last minute.	[51]	[51]		<CM014>	P	313	Don't leave it all to the last minute.	[0]			CM013
		213	Prepare yourself mentally and physically to increase your chances of passing the entrance examination. (Jandamit,Helen,1999)	[51] [31rf]	[51] [31rf]		<CM014> too short' ?	P	314	Prepare yourself mentally and physically to increase your chances of passing the entrance examination. (Jandamit, 1999)	[rf]	0		

	S18: Traffic and Pollution				FX	CM				FX	CM
101	The traffic is a cause of pollution.	201	The traffic is a cause of pollution.	[0]							
102	In big city, the traffic is a big problem because a cause of pollution comes from automobile.	202	In big cities, the traffic is a big problem because it is a cause of pollution that comes from automobiles.	[18] [41] [18]	Y	<CM181> surface corr	302	The traffic is a big problem because it is a cause of pollution that comes from automobiles.	[66] [32]	NO FX	NO REL
103	Flowing of people is lead to make many automobiles.	203	Population growth has lead to many more automobiles.	[57]	Y	<CM181> surface corr	303	The air quality is affect by both motor mobile emission sources different urban form, such as urban sprawl, a centralize core, or satellite cites. (Wright, Paul H., 1996).	[51] [31rf]		
104	When city grow up the transportation is very important to travel.	204	According to a large of number automobile that, because a luxurious of people: they want to have their a vehicle.	[51]					[52]		
105	Automobiles are due to smog (from exhaust pipe) and noise, it become pollution.	205	When cities grow, the transportation is very important to travel.	[18] [23]	Y	<CM181> surface corr	304	When cities grow, the transportation is very important to travel.	[0]		
106		206	Automobiles cause smog (from exhaust pipe) and noise which becomes pollution,	[23] [56] from (106) in (206)	Y	<CM181> surface corr			[57] in (305)		
		207	particularly peak traffic noises tend to be more disturbing than even higher levels during daylight (Wright Paul H., 1996)	[41] [31rf]			305	And exhaust pipe and noise are mainly of pollution in peak traffic noise tend to be more disturbing than even higher levels during daylight (Wright Paul H., 1996).	[65]		
		208	Air quality is affected by both mobile emission sources such as automobile and aircraft	[51]			303	The air quality is affect by both motor mobile emission sources different urban form, such as urban sprawl, a centralize core, or satellite cites. (Wright, Paul H., 1996).	[21det] [14] [65] (208)+(209) [31rf]		
		209	this sources to frequent most of area are different urban form, such as urban sprawl, a centralized core, or satellite cites (Wright, Paul H, 1996).	[51] [31rf]							
107	Traffic exhaust is a problem because management to traffic is poor.	210	Traffic exhaust is a big problem because management to traffic is poor interruption of traffic so that minor-street vehicles can enter the traffic stream, provision for the progressive flow of traffic in a signal-system corridor, possible improvements in capacity, and possible reduction in delay (Fred L., Walter P. Kilaeski, 1998).	[41] [31]			306	Traffic exhaust is a big problem because management to traffic is poor.	[42]= (107) [55] to (306) (307)		
108	Besides traffic regulations, drivers are not respect it.	211	Drivers have no respect for traffic regulations.	[57]	Y	<CM181> surface corr	307	The progression of flow of traffic in a signal-system corridor, possible improvements in capacity, and possible reduction in delay (Fred L. Walter P. Kilaeski, 1998).	[55] from (210)		
109	The pollution in the traffic that focus to automobiles and motorcycle on the road.	212	The pollution from the traffic result mainly from automobiles and motorcycle on the road.	[23] [57]	Y	<CM181> surface corr	308	Drivers have no respect for traffic regulations.	[0]		
110	213	[0]			309	The pollution from the traffic result mainly from automobiles and motorcycle on the road.	[0]		
			[0]			310	[18]		

S22: Traffic and pollution					CM	FX	CM		[74] txt chg. no rel but one	FX	CM
101	<p>There are many course of pollution for example.	201	<p>There are many courses of pollution for example.	[12sp]				301	There are many causes of pollution, one is traffic.	P[11]	<CM222>
102	Acid pollution occurs when fuels like wood, coal and oil are burned to produce energy.	202	Acid pollution occurs when fuels like wood, coal and oil are burned to produce energy.	[12sp]				302	Traffic can produce many problems to this world.		
103	Then the fuels is burned, poisonous oxides in to the sky with smoke from factory chimneys and fumes from exhausts of vehicle, gives rise to, in the air the oxides react with moisture to produce acid rain or acid snow and damages plants and trees.	203	When the fuel is burned, poisonous oxides released into the sky with smoke from factory chimneys and fumes from exhausts of vehicles, gives rise to, in the air the oxides react with moisture to produce acid rain or acid snow and damaging plants and trees.	[11] [18] [21]		Y[11] [18] [21]	<CM221> but not responding to all surface fb	303	and the air pollution is the most one.		
104	Acid pollution does not directly kill trees,	204	Acid pollution does not directly kill trees,	[0]				304	The way that traffic affects this world is produce the toxic gases to the atmosphere.		
105	but it weakens and makes it lose all theirs leaves.	205	but it weakens and makes it lose all theirs leaves.	[0]				305	These gases can damage the atmosphere		
106	Then it dies because Disease.	206	They die because of disease.	[21] [18] [14] => [57]		Y		306	and it makes the world hotter.		
107	Acid pollution is serious problem for the world,	207	Acid pollution is serious problem for the world,	[0]				307	This effect is called "Green House Effect".		
108	but it on that can be controlled.	208	but it on that can be controlled.	[0]				308	Besides that, these toxic gases can also produce sulfur dioxide that when it mixes with the rain, the rain will be harmful.		
109	For example coal can be wash, oil chemical treated,	209	For example coal can be wash, oil chemically treated,	[19]		Y		309	The water from those mixed rain will be not able to use,		
110	fumes from vehicles can be treated By fitting filters from the exhausts of cars and lorries, etc.	210	fumes from vehicles can be treated. By fitting filters from the exhausts of cars and lorries, etc.	[12d]		N		310	whomever use it will be sick or even die.		
111	<p> From all above. There are many course to produce pollution	211	<p> From all above. There are many courses to produce pollution	[18]				311	From all of above, these are just some part of the problems that are still big problems of this world.		

	S19: Healthy foods				FX	CM	301			FX	CM			FX	CM
101	<p>There are several kinds of healthy foods such as fish, fruit, rice, vegetables, milk and eggs.	201	There are several kinds of healthy foods such as fish, fruits, rice, vegetable, milk and eggs.	[67] [18]		CHG W/O FB	301	<p>There are several kinds of healthy foods such as fish, fruits, rice, vegetable, milk and eggs.	[66]						
102	A prime source of protein, fish products are among the most nutritious foods available to the consumer	202	A prime source of protein, fish products are among the most nutritious foods available to the consumer	[0]			302	[no spc]First a prime source of protein, fish products are among the most nutritious foods available to the consumer	[12sp] [21]					P[21]	<CM191>
103	and fish can play a major role in the low-cholesterol diet.	203	and fish can play a major role in the low-cholesterol diet.	[11]			303	and fish can play a major role in the low-cholesterol diet.	[0]						
104	Fruits are high in water content	204	Fruits are high in water content	[0]			304	Second fruits are high in water content	[21]					P[21]	<CM191>
105	and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins and vitaminlike factors.	205	and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins, vitaminlike factors, various essential macrominerals and microminerals (Ensminger, 1994).	[31] [31rf]			305	and most fruits are fair to excellent sources of calories, fiber, vitamins, vitaminlike factors, various essential macrominerals and microminerals (Ensminger, 1994).	[0]						
106	Rice has good nutritional values, comparing favorably with those of the other major cereals used as food staples around the world.	206	Rice has good nutritional values, (80% starch, 8% protein and 12% water) comparing favorably with those of the other major cereals used as food staples around the world (Ensminger, 1994).	[31] [31rf]			306	Third rice has good nutritional values, (80% starch, 8% protein and 12% water) comparing favorably with those of the other major cereals used as food staples around the world (Ensminger, 1994).	[21]					P[21]	<CM191>
107	Vegetables are high in water content;	207	Vegetables are high in water content;	[0]			307	[no spc]Next vegetables are high in water content;	[21] [12]					P[21]	<CM191>
108	hence, they are considerably lower in the calories and proteins than most of grains and legumes.	208	hence, they are considerably lower in calories and proteins than most of grains and legumes and vegetables are the source of Vitamin A and C.	[31]			308	hence, they are considerably lower in calories and proteins than most of grains and legumes and vegetables are the source of Vitamin A and C.	[0]						
109	The milk food group makes important contributions to the diet.	209	The milk food group make important contributions to the diet.	[14]			309	[no spc]Then the milk food group make important contributions to the diet.	[21] [12]					P[21]	<CM191>
110	Furthermore, milk products are the leading source of calcium and high-quality protein.	210	Futhermore, milk products are the leading source of calcium and high-quality protein.	[11d]			310	Furthermore, milk products are the leading source of calcium and high-quality protein.	[11a]						
111	Eggs contain an abundance of proteins, vitamins and minerals.	211	Eggs contain an abundance of proteins, vitamins and mineral.	[18]			311	[no spc]Finally eggs contain an abundance of proteins, vitamins and mineral.	[21] [12]					P[21]	<CM191>
112	Besides that, eggs provide a well-balanced source of nutrients for persons of all ages.	212	Besides that, eggs provide a well-balanced source of nutrients for person of all ages (Chen,1991).	[18] [31rf]			312	Besides that, eggs provide a well-balanced source of nutrients for person of all ages (Chen,1991).	[0]						
113	From all the above, the healthy foods are fish, fruits, rice, vegetables, milk, eggs etc.	213	From all the above, the healthy foods are fish, fruits, rice, vegetables, milk, eggs and so on.	[15]			313	From all the above, the healthy foods are fish, fruits, rice, vegetables, milk, eggs and so on.	[0]						

Appendix 15

Compositions from Phase 2

Argumentative writing

S20: Eating meat or being a vegetarian?

Two popular choices for the people who are interested in healthy food are eating meat and being a vegetarian. There are 12 million of vegetarian in the U.S. and the number is growing daily. The famous vegetarian, Dr. J.H. Kellogg said, "When we eat vegetarian food, we don't have to worry about kind of disease the food diet of. This makes a joyful meal!" (Clinic, August 10), I agree so. Although, there are both advantage and disadvantage of eating meat or being a vegetarian, the nutritional value of meat differs the nutritional value of vegetarian diet, being a vegetarian is good for health.

There are many reasons why people should become vegetarians. The first reason is a religious reason; the belief that it is cruel to eat animals. The second, a vegetarian diet help to prevent cancer and vegetarians also have lower rates of colon cancer than meat-eaters. Animal products are usually high in fat and almost devoid of fiber, colon cancer has been directly linked to meat consumption but vegetarians avoid animal fat that is linked to cancer and get abundant fiber and vitamins that help to prevent cancer. The third, vegetarian diets also help prevent heart disease. Animal products are the main source of saturated fat and than only source of cholesterol in the diet. Vegetarians avoid these risky products. Additionally, fiber helps reduce cholesterol levels. The fourth, food from plants is a more direct source of nutrition than meat we only need cereals, beans and vegetables to get all nourishment we need to maintain good health.

You don't worry about the ease with which a vegetarian diet can provide all essential nutrition. The fact is, it's very easy to have a well-balanced diet with vegetarian foods. Vegetarian foods provide plenty of protein, careful combining of foods is not necessary. Excess protein has been linked to kidney stones, osteoporosis and possibly heart disease and some cancers. A diet focused on beans, whole grains, and vegetables contains adequate amounts of protein without the 'overdose' most meat-eaters get. Calcium is easy to find in a vegetarian diet, many dark green leafy vegetables and beans are loaded with calcium. And some orange juices. Iron is plentiful whole grains, beans and fruits.

In my opinion, eating meat or animal products is harmful to human health because animal products are the main source of saturated fat the only source of cholesterol in the diet and contain no fiber. People who eat meat are at least 30% more likely to die of a heart attack, 40% more likely to get cancer and at increased risk for many other diseases and illnesses, including stroke, obesity, appendicitis, osteoporosis, arthritis, diabetes and food poisoning. Additionally, meat contains accumulations of pesticides and other chemicals up to 14 times more concentrated than those found in plant foods. (Macrac, 1993, p.2945)

So, being a vegetarian is a good choice for who want to be healthy. I think, the vegetarian's health is better than meat-eater. And you can help to save animal life, too.

Reference

Macrac, R., Robinson, R.K. and Sodler, M.S. Encyclopaedia of Food Science Food Technology and Nutrition. London: Academic Press.

S16: Preserving local handicraft.

Thailand is land of culture, I agree with these words. Culture of Thailand show in several ways for example, foods, sports, arts, handicrafts, that all of they are special. One of Thai culture is local craft, it make from hands or we call 'handmade'. Now a day local crafts are important for Thai because large of them were lose, if we don't understand about them some day Thai crafts go out from Thai social. There for all Thai people must preserve them to stand with Thai continue.

In my opinion, a lot of associate can preserve local crafts especially Thai government and private organizations. Government is main organization in Thai that can help to conserve local crafts, Way of this organize must put criteria for preserve crafts, put a quality of Thai crafts and should procure an experts about crafts to give knowledge to people about new designs, market and way to improve their products. About designs of Thai local crafts can increasing exchange of designs and technic, some time it can make products are interesting increase. (Cambel M,1981) Ways of private organizes all of private can help to conserve local crafts because them have a lot of capital to investment in preserving crafts. Private can cooperation between them to open company or store for crafts especially. Another ways I think, government and privates can use crafts for gifts in meeting, incentive, semina or conference to promote Thai crafts. Important thing in preserving local crafts in my idea preserve crafts not make Thai crafts are maintain only but it can support people have work and money also. So every associate must really cooperate to preserving crafts.

Preserving local handicrafts make younger generation know and understand about Thai culture, traditional and local crafts. So in this ways younger are major people to conserve crafts. Although a lot of young know about Thai crafts but it is a little parts of all. Relate organize should be put formulation about crafts in school and university to young can have choose study. Some way, can open association to give a chance for young have activities to preserve crafts. We can give occasion to them can adapt old crafts to new one, it can make them improve crafts and take it ton develop new design of crafts. In this way we not give only knowledge but we give them can use idea create new crafts also, it must make young study and remember in long time. If young generation know about preserving crafts and interest to preserve not only make crafts still continue but can make them far from drug also. It can increase quality of Thai young and Thai local crafts also.

I think, preserving crafts make Thai commerce develop. If crafts still practical and beautiful it must interest from market. (Moeys M,1993) Preserving crafts not preserve only old designs but w can improve new designs also. Present day designs of products are important so much to make other interest, seem local crafts if one of them is beautiful than another it much receive interesting than another also. We should improve designs of crafts to suitable with time and demand of people because if we improve them suitable with above must concede increase. New designs of crafts should improve by government cooperate with privates because can make crafts have good designs and quality. Crafts work require skill and a lot of line, it is not only sold in country it is also woven for exporting. (Cambel M,1983) When we can improve crafts suitable with time and demand of market it can help develop Thai commerce. So we must conserve crafts and improve them in new designs because it can support Thai commercial develop and make revenue to Thai also.

All of above are ways of preserving crafts and conserve Thai culture. It can help younger generation know about Thai crafts and cooperate to preserve. It can make all organize interest in conserve crafts and try to support local crafts to international and important it can develop Thai commerce to grow up. If we see important of Thai crafts, we must preserve now because later it may be too late.

Reference

- Cambel M. (1981 November) From the hands of the hills, p.212
Moeys M. (1993 May) Nature dyeing in Thailand, p.32

S25: Higher education

In many developed country they pay attention to higher education very much for example they make a standard of higher education, make education system get better because higher education is the way to develop every things in country. If the country develops it effect to people in country have a good life. So I think higher education improve the country.

Higher education gives more knowledge to people. People who study in university can get both theory and practice. It makes people have full knowledge and give more experience. That is the way to make the country develop because when people have more knowledge they know about every things more than. For example in past time when they do not study in university they do not know how to adapt themselves to new environment. But when they study in university they must try to adapt themselves to new environment and increase endurance. In the other hand higher education give practice to student. It give student know something more than in classroom. It teaches student take activity between studies such as make exhibition. So student can get full knowledge.

Higher education improves quality of life. "Education make personal development, including the development of personal skills and liberal arts education" (Apps, 1985 p.25). In higher education people can apply knowledge that they receive for work or life style. They can use theory and practice when they learn in university for their job. That makes student work very well more than people whom do not study in university. At the same time student can get new idea so fast and can create a good task to the manager. As a result it makes student receive a good position in their job. So student can improve life style and social status e.g. when student have a good job they have money to pay and improve their life. Not only that the higher education give student know how to improve themselves for the future. How to control the physical and mention when student stand among in public. Higher education can help student to improve quality of life and develop life style.

Higher education improve country by giving people have more wide attitude. The university make people know about every things around themselves more than. Therefore student can get more experience both direct and indirect way. Higher education seem like the candle to introduction people to walk allows (Woolfolk, 1995). Higher education makes people to large-minded to accept every thing (West, 1996). For example it help people comprehend why the government must participate with WTO or understand that why people must read a book (because a book is a resource of knowledge). In the other hand when people have a large-minded they can get any attitude from other people and can adapt opinion to use. So it takes people have more knowledge to apply in daily.

Higher education is necessary because it improve the country that makes the country easy to develop. And it effect to people get many value when the country developed. Consequently higher education is very important.

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S32: Fighting Pollution

What is pollution? Anything added to air, water, soil or food that threatens the health, survival, capacity, or activities of human or other living organisms is called pollution. This pollution made Thailand become a developing country and technology¹ for use in business and comforted. It should to solving these problems to lose.

The increase of pollution it comes from transportation, industries and people both business and travel. The process to fight pollution should to spread the main such as control locality of industries, noise pollution control, there are organization for environmental protection, preventing and controlling outdoor air pollution and reducing indoor air pollution. These ways in part to solving.

Control locality of industries. The density of investment in urban areas cases the high pollution to harmful effects on health, animals and plants. Nowsday the factories are expand in each province to there are many chemical and pollution. Control localities of industries are good way to control these problem to fixed places and important should to support Green industries to controlling environmental standards especially in factories product electronic, equipment and the chemical producing, factories are trying to let toxic waste get into the environment as little as possible.

Noise pollution control to set the standard sound level because the sound level which is over the standard many affect the hearing system and the mentality of near by people especially in the airport, factory and traffic jam.

There are organizations for environmental protection for the people are aware of the problem about pollution and try to find a refuge to stop the problem in various communities. The example is setting up of environmental units in the community to take of environmental problem like garbage, waste water and let the youth grow up with the understanding of environment problem.

Preventing and controlling outdoor air pollution. By there are controls laws are based on pollution clean up rather than pollution prevention. The only air pollution with a sharp drop in its atmospheric level was lead, which was virtually banned in gasoline.

Reducing indoor air pollution. Modifying building codes to prevent radon infiltration or requiring use of air-to-air heat exchanged or other devices to change indoor air at regular intervals, requiring exhaust hood, or rent pipes for way appliances that burn natural, gas or another fossil fuel and setting formaldehyde emission standards for building, furniture and carpet materials².

Being aware of the importance of the environment is need the people feel they are owner of natural resources. There is a resistance to new destructive projects for example the banning of road construction in the forest, the promotion of driving cars into natural resources³ but other kinds of vehicles like bicycles are allowed. The kind of sport using non-machine or the least natural destructive materials.

To fight pollution are function everybody it can't success if not co-operate from people in country all government and private industrial. These ways in part to solving. So we should to begin at present.

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