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Creating Coherent Texts in English as a Foreign Language: Theory and Practice

ABSTRACT

Writing in English has become an important tool for communicating knowledge in today's international academic discourse community. The need to fully participate in the activities of this community has motivated also Estonian academic writers to produce increasingly more academic prose in English. There is a considerable concern, however, that Estonian writers are not sufficiently knowledgeable about the cross-culturally different norms and conventions of the Anglo-American writing style and lack discourse and socio-cultural competences in English writing necessary for them to succeed in the target discourse community. Previous studies (Rummel 2005) have revealed that, apparently due to the dominance of traditional grammar- and lexis-driven English language instruction at school, Estonian writers tend to consider mastery of grammar and lexis as one of the key contributors to the production of effective English texts, whereas they attribute minimal significance to text level aspects of discourse in this process. In order to remedy this communicative deficiency in writing and raise Estonian academic writers' awareness of the important textual aspects of English written discourse a renewed perspective for teaching writing will be required.

This doctoral thesis attempts to investigate whether discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing could raise Estonian writers' awareness of the Anglo-American academic writing norms and principles and thus enable them to enhance the communicative quality of their English texts; whether a discourse perspective to teaching writing could encourage writers to switch their attention away from sentence-level aspects of writing and enable them to focus their attention to the global aspects of text construction instead; and whether discourse-oriented teaching of writing could be beneficial also for writers at lower levels of English language proficiency. The thesis addresses the findings of a two-phase empirical study (2004-2008) conducted with 73 students of three tertiary settings of Estonia (the Tallinn University of Technology, the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities and the Estonian Information Technology College) at two different levels of L2 proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1, CEFR) in two test samples, taught in an experimental discourse-oriented EAP writing module, and two control samples, taught under traditional L2 instructional methods. The research instruments included student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires, student post-course evaluation questionnaires and expert reader evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts.

The outcomes of the research appear to confirm the positive effect of discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing on the communicative quality of Estonian writers' English texts. The research outlines writers' perspective needs in English academic writing instruction and suggests practical implications for instructors and researchers to be able to conform to these needs. Implications of the research include the necessity of raising writers' awareness of the textual and socio-cultural aspects of English academic writing through a renewed discourse perspective for EAP writing instruction in Estonia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

B1	Level B1, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)
B2	Level B2, CEFR
C1	Level C1, CEFR
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CS of EAC	Control sample of the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities (EAC)
CS of ITC	Control sample of the Estonian Information Technology College (ITC)
EAC	The Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities
EAP	English for academic purposes
EFL	English as a foreign language
ITC	The Estonian Information Technology College
L1	First language
L2	Second language/foreign language
PEAP	English for Academic Purposes Preparation Course
Q	Question (s)
TS1	Test sample 1 of TUT
TS2	Test sample 2 of TUT
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL iBT	Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL ITP	TOEFL English Institutional Testing Program
TUT	The Tallinn University of Technology
W	Week(s) of study

PREFACE

Since Estonia regained its independence in the early 1990s, Estonian academic writers have shown a growing interest to participate in international English-medium discourse communities in order to share their field-specific knowledge and promote their research. However, writers are often not quite successful in their efforts to publish research articles in English due to their deficient knowledge of the discoursal and socio-cultural phenomena of the Anglo-American writing tradition. Apart from that, writers seem to lack the competences and skills necessary for the construction and interpretation of English texts, and confidence in their ability to communicate their meaning effectively to the target audience. Estonian writers' fairly poor communicative competence in English academic writing may be associated with the traditional L2 instruction at school and university that tends to prioritise linguistic rather than text-level aspects of interaction. In this context, it would seem clear that in order to confront the professional challenges in the international academia, Estonian writers should become better informed of the intricacies of English written discourse by the best practices of L2 (EFL/EAP) writing research and pedagogy.

The aim of this doctoral research is to investigate whether a discourse perspective to teaching English academic writing could improve the communicative value of Estonian writers' English texts. Drawing on a two-phase empirical study (2004–2008) in three tertiary institutions of Estonia — the Tallinn University of Technology, the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities, and the Estonian Information Technology College — the research attempts to explore the efficacy of discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction on Estonian undergraduate students' writing performance. The research addresses students' composing abilities and practices in English writing so as to clarify how knowledgeable they are about the Anglo-American academic writing norms, discourse patterns and genre conventions, and what students perceive as their main constraints in written discourse. The research outlines Estonian students' perspective needs in EAP instruction and suggests practical implications for L2 instructors and researchers to be able to conform to these needs.

The doctoral thesis aims to find answers to the following questions:
1. Could discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing inform Estonian students of the significance of writing as an important mode of communicating knowledge in the international academia and thus empower them as more motivated writers?
2. Could discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing raise Estonian students' awareness of the Anglo-American academic writing norms and principles of text-construction and thus enhance the quality of their English texts? Could a discourse perspective to teaching writing

encourage students to switch their attention away from sentence-level aspects of writing and focus on text-level features instead?

3. Could discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing be beneficial for students also at lower levels of L2 proficiency in drawing their attention to the global aspects of writing?

The thesis is structured as follows:

The introduction addresses the increasing significance for Estonian writers to improve their competences in English academic writing required to participate in international discipline-related discourse. It outlines important theoretical and practical considerations of EAP writing and draws perspectives for EAP writing instruction in Estonia. The introduction emphasises an urgent need for EAP curriculum designers and instructors to upgrade EAP writing programmes in Estonia in order to provide students with a more advanced knowledge of the Anglo-American writing style and thereby meet their further demands for international discourse.

Chapter 1 reviews different research methodologies and instructional techniques in L1 and L2 writing and discusses their effects on L2/EAP writing pedagogy. The chapter addresses several writing issues critical in the development of instructional programmes for tertiary study, including the specific nature of the Anglo-American academic writing style, fundamental principles of text construction, varied competences and knowledge bases of writing, and the socio-cultural aspects of English written discourse. Drawing on the works of distinguished writing scholars — Belcher, Bhatia, Carson, Connor, Flower, Flowerdew, Grabe, Halliday, Hasan, Hayes, Hoey, Hyland, Kaplan, Kroll, Leki, Matsuda, Mauranen, Ortega, Raimes, Silva, Swales, Tribble, Ventola, Weigle, Wennerstrom, White, Zamel, and a number of others — the chapter serves as a theoretical and methodological basis for the design of the empirical study into Estonian undergraduate students' English academic writing.

Chapter 2 presents the rationale and methodology for the empirical study conducted in the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT), the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities (EAC) and the Estonian Information Technology College (ITC). The research was performed in the test samples of TUT (TS1 and TS2) and the control samples of EAC (CS of EAC) and ITC (CS of ITC) at two levels of L2 proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1; CEFR) by means of different research instruments, including student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires and post-course evaluation questionnaires, and expert reader evaluation of student experimental texts. The aim of the first phase of the study (2004–2005) was to examine how knowledgeable Estonian writers are about the Anglo-American academic writing competences and conventions, and what problems they may encounter in composing English academic texts. The aim of the second phase of the study (2006–2008) was to clarify writers' perspective needs in English academic discourse and test the

efficacy of the experimental discourse-oriented EAP writing module devised for the undergraduate students of TUT.

Chapter 3 reviews the principle methodological approaches, instructional content and classroom procedures employed in the discourse-oriented EAP writing module. The module was designed with the twofold aim: to foster improvement in the communicative quality of students' English texts and to identify appropriate instructional strategies and techniques for their acquisition of skills and competences crucial in English academic written discourse.

Chapter 4 reports on the findings of the empirical study obtained from student pre-course and post-course questionnaires, and from expert reader evaluation of student experimental texts. The chapter identifies the students' perceptions of the instructional methods, classroom procedures and assignments of the experimental EAP writing module, and thorough a statistical analysis of expert reader ratings on student texts interprets the effect of discourse-oriented instruction on student achievement in writing.

Chapter 5 provides an interpretation of the qualitative and quantitative data collected in the empirical study and discusses the value of discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing to Estonian students. The chapter addresses the implications of this doctoral research on L2 (EFL/EAP) writing research and pedagogy in Estonia and other EFL contexts, proposes perspectives for further investigations in the field, and identifies possible limitations of the research. The overall data obtained from the study lend themselves to the conclusion that focus on the communicative aspects of discourse in EAP writing instruction can minimise the constraints Estonian academic writers have in English writing and enable writers to improve the quality of their English texts.

The conclusion argues that in the English-medium international academia, with its increasing demands on written communication, it is essential for writing skills to be presented to L2 students through discourse. On the above basis, this doctoral research advocates a discourse perspective to teaching EAP writing in Estonia so as to encourage instructors to address the global features of English writing adequately and empower students in writing texts that truly communicate.

The thesis is complemented by 38 Appendices that list additional methodological details and summarised results of the data collected in the research, including illustrative theoretical input on L2 writing research and pedagogy, samples of the research instruments (e.g., questionnaires), the syllabus of the experimental writing module, a sample set of instructional materials and activities of the module, samples of student written texts, and other relevant data.

INTRODUCTION

English as a lingua franca for international academic discourse

In the globalising world, communication across cultures and languages in all walks of life has become more significant than ever. To facilitate communication, English is now being widely recognized as a global *lingua franca* in many spheres of discourse both in oral and written modes (see, e.g., Crystal 1997; Seidlhofer 2005). Even though there is some controversy over the global status and long-term future of English (see, e.g., Brown 1999; Jenkins 2003), it is considered a 'key to entry into the community of the educated elite' (Tonkin 2001: 2) and due to its socio-cultural power the primary means of imparting and storing knowledge and information (e.g., Crystal ibid.; Graddol 1997). To date, the vast majority of academic, scientific and technical texts are being published in the English medium; however, most writers of these texts are not native speakers of English.

For academics, writing texts in the internationally accepted medium of discourse is central to their success and professional development in the target community (e.g., Flowerdew 1999; Kaplan 2001; Ortega 2004, Tardy 2004). The ability to produce effective texts in English enables writers to communicate their knowledge to the intended readership on a wider scale and thereby gain recognition as members of the international academia. However, although writers may be highly motivated to disseminate their research findings in English-medium publications, to be eligible for publication, writers have to conform to the conventions and standards of the Anglo-American academic writing style and of the field-specific discourse community. Beyond doubt, the ability to produce effective texts for international academic publication is of utmost importance for non-native writers, especially of smaller nations and language communities.

For Estonian academic writers, representatives of a nation of fewer than one million native speakers of Estonian in the country of origin, competence in English written discourse is a prerequisite for their success in the academic world. Since Estonia regained its independence in the 1990s, new possibilities have opened up for academic writers to promote their research accomplishments on an international scale. There is a concern, however, that writers' knowledge of the Anglo-American academic writing conventions and principles of text production is not always adequate to adhere to the expectations of the target audience. Anecdotal evidence suggests that quite a few Estonian academics have experienced difficulty in publishing their research results and have often been rejected due to poor readability of their texts.

Recent studies along these lines (Rummel 2005b, 2009) have revealed that while Estonian academic writers may appear linguistically quite proficient in

English and able to recognise reader-based English texts, they are not always successful in communicating their knowledge to the intended readership. They seem to lack the global competences of the target language and are therefore not sufficiently aware of what aspects of writing to focus on in the production of English academic prose. More specifically, writers are not quite familiar with the discourse and socio-cultural differences in the Estonian and English writing styles in regard to the communicative aspects of discourse such as the purpose and the writer-reader relationship, text overall organisation and patterning, coherence and cohesion, argumentation and style, metadiscourse, and genre conventions, among other issues. In short, when composing in English, Estonian academic writers tend to overlook the macro-level features of discourse and focus on the micro-level aspects of writing such as grammar, lexis and syntax instead; similar findings have been observed in the English written discourse of Finnish academic writers, representatives of another Finno-Ugric language akin to Estonian (see, e.g., Mauranen 1996; Ventola 1996). As the textual deficiency in writing may further limit Estonian academics' participation in scholarly discussions and considerably impede their professional interaction, one of the priorities for writers should be to acquire knowledge about how to write for the academic audiences guided by Anglo-American writing norms and conventions.

Spoken versus written modes of discourse

Language competence has a complex nature: it entails a number of different abilities, including speaking proficiency, literacy (with writing and reading as its vital components) and socio-cultural awareness, among others. For many years linguists have maintained that written language is simply a reflection of oral language, whereas education researchers have taken the position that 'written language is the true representation of the correct forms of language' (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 15).

Despite the fact that constant attention to the spoken mode of English has partly challenged the status of written language, it is now generally recognised that written language has adopted a number of unique functions not shared by oral language (see, e.g., Olson 1994). Thus, written language has gained a new perspective for academics as a prime communication skill central to their professional development:

> In our present globalized and technologized world, it is writing in English, rather than simply speaking in English, that can open or close doors to individual, national, and international progress and advancement. (Ortega 2004: 1)

Scholars (e.g., Biber 1988; Brown and Yule 1983; Halliday 1989; Harklau 2002; Kern and Schultz 2005; Kress 1989; Olson 1994; Purves 1991; Riley

1996; Wennerstrom 2003) have examined different properties of oral and written languages and various ways of how these media vary and overlap depending on functional dimensions and register variation. Whereas a strong relationship between the competences of spoken and written discourses has been found, certain crucial distinctions in rhetorical, organisational and lexico-grammatical constructs manifest themselves in these two modes of discourse. The characteristic features of written mode as opposed to spoken mode can be outlined as follows:

1. specific rhetorical structures (e.g., paragraphs);
2. explicit cohesive devices (e.g., 'however', 'furthermore', etc., in academic essays);
3. frequency of specific grammatical structures;
4. frequency of nominalizations in scientific writing;
5. parallel structures, sentential organization, and embedded clauses;
6. linguistic features common to certain text types (e.g., corpus linguistics data);
7. specific relationship between the speaker/writer and the audience.

(Wennerstrom ibid.: 8)

Literacy experts maintain that written language is vastly more complex to acquire and teach than spoken language as it involves a rich variety of specific qualities and parameters and requires a myriad of highly varied thinking processes and ways of composing (e.g., Arndt 1987; Raimes 1985; Riley 1996; Wennerstrom 2003). These variations may occur not only in structural and organisational patterns and frequencies of use of specific linguistic features but also in different discourse production methods, register constraints, and the specific relationship between the producer of the discourse and the audience. What exactly constitutes effective L2 writing performance still remains difficult to judge since apart from various socio-cultural influences and cognitive differences in the writing process, various learner differences (e.g., age, socio-psychological factors, personality, cognitive style, learning strategies, gender, etc.) may play a significant role in L2 production and interpretation (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991).

Brown and Yule (1983) have referred to different communicative functions as one of the fundamental distinctions between the oral and written languages: while speech is applied primarily for immediate human interaction, written language is used for transaction of information and knowledge over time and distance. Yet, while writers appear to have more opportunity than speakers to review and revise their final products, this feature of writing may not necessarily serve as an advantage in communication since 'there is higher audience expectation for written text' (Wennerstrom 2003: 9). Awareness of the audience is of critical importance in the production of texts since, unlike speaking, writing is a monologue-type discourse with no direct contact between the writer and the reader. Therefore, writers should aim to contribute to as

coherent transaction of ideas and write as effectively as possible, making their intentions and arguments 'unmistakably clear' (Lorentz 1999: 55) and reading as easy as possible.

The communicative nature of writing seems to lie in Cooper's (1979) basic question *'Who writes what to whom, for what purpose, why, when, where, and how?'* elaborated by Kaplan (1991) into a model of parameters involved in a generation of written text (Figure 1).

Within a socioculturally defined universe
(when and where)

Constrained by author's intent **(why)**	Constrained by the shared phenomeno-cultural conventions and available genres **(what)**	Constrained by logical world and by **reader's** intent

(how)

AUTHOR ◄- - - - - - - - - ► TEXT ◄- - - - - - - - - ► RECEPTOR
(who) (Text construction) **(to whom)**
(what)

And performative ability (process), and recognition of audience expectation **(writes)**	And further constrained by Steiner's four kinds of difficulty **(for what purpose)**	And performative ability and ability to perceive author's intent **(why)**

Figure 1. Model of parameters involved in writing (Kaplan 1991, quoted in Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 215).

The writer-reader relationship embedded in this question well reveals the social character of the writing practice: the writer influences the reader by the selection and organisation of material, signposting and variation of emphasis; the text itself contributes to effective communication both through the language (structures and vocabulary) and the physical appearance; and the reader responds to the text based on his or her motivation, attitudes and also mental state. In written discourse, both the writer and the reader, applying the overall knowledge of the typical genre conventions (e.g., layout, specific ways of organising thought and formulating intention) contribute to the joint construction of ideas.

Socio-cultural considerations
of English written discourse

Writing is socially and culturally situated in specific intellectual and institutional frameworks; beyond the immediate social context of writing is the broader cultural context in which the written discourse occurs (e.g., Gee 1990, Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hayes 1996; Myles 2002; Scollon and Scollon 1981, 1995). The socio-cultural phenomenon of writing is well presented in the following words:

> [Writing] is also social because it is a social artifact and is carried out in a social setting. What we write, how we write, and who we write to is shaped by social convention and by our history of social interaction /…/ (Hayes ibid.: 5)

In this sense, the ability to write is 'learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices' (Myles ibid.: 1) that reflect the social and cultural background of the writer.

Writing in the academia

Writing in the academia has generated considerable interest among researchers attempting to unfold the specific nature of this phenomenon (e.g., Barton 1994; Borg 2003; Burgess 2002; Connor 1996; Flowerdew 2002; Hyland 2003; Johns 1997; Joliffe and Brier 1988; Jones 2004; Myers 1989; Porter 1986; Scollon and Scollon 1995; Swales 1990; White 1997, among others). Researchers have recognised academic writing as a crucial means of communicating scholarly knowledge within a particular discourse community that 'involves more than the generation, translation and organization of ideas' (Connor ibid.: 18). Writing in the discourse community can be characterised by a number of unique features shared by members of the community, in particular, 'common goals, participatory mechanisms, information exchange, community specific genres, a highly specialised terminology and a high general level of expertise' (Swales ibid.: 29). Community writers are often concerned with various textual patterns of arrangement of 'analyzing and interpreting information critically, synthesizing disparate sets of information, creating information, arguing alternative perspectives, and presenting and promoting research' (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 341). This group of communicators can be viewed as a distinct segment of the academic society such as, for instance, Estonian expert academic writers' discourse community or Estonian undergraduate students' discourse community. Focused on the community-oriented features, scholars view academic writing as a socio-culturally embedded practice and strongly emphasise the communicative nature of the writing process.

Novice and expert academic writers

The true membership of the academic discourse community may be difficult to define, yet, three broad categories based on the mode of communication (i.e., oral or written), communicative context (e.g., general or discipline-specific*)* or discourse experience (e.g., novice or expert) can be outlined. The latter classification is related to the concept of academic literacy that indicates fluency in particular ways of interaction in the community. While the specialised language of the community may be readily understood by expert writers, it is not always comprehensible for outsiders and novice academic writers. McDonald (1994, quoted in Leydens and Olds 2000: 2) has proposed the 'novice-expert continuum' to specify four different types of writing members of the academia may be concerned with: non-academic writing, general academic writing, novice approximation of disciplinary writing, and expert/insider writing. Whereas the first three groups involve members of the academia with general knowledge of the academic field, the expert writers' group includes 'established members' (Swales 1990: 22) of the community, 'dealing with the same field-specific problem or closely related problems' (Myers 1989: 3).

Since writing is socially situated, special consideration should be given to situational expectations and writing practices of specific discourse communities displaying a range of different literacies and specific interdisciplinary conventions (e.g., Bhatia 2002, Taylor and Drury 1996). In this regard, the ultimate stage of expert academic literacy would involve the ability to communicate knowledge in ways that reflect scholarly standards in both L1 and L2 media. The diverse nature of the academic discourse community, however, has raised concerns among L2 writing scholars as to the extent to which L2 students as novice academic writers should be exposed to the narrowly discipline-specific norms of the community. In fact, most scholars regard knowledge of the academic 'common core', specific to most of the discourse types in the academia, as most valuable for novice L2 academic writers — as a 'vehicle for engaging with core content' (Hedgcock 2005, quoted in Panofsky et al. 2005: 18). This perspective to teaching English academic writing to L2 novice writers is highly relevant in the light of a recent emphasis in research to create awareness of the communicative context of writing rather than tackle with the intricacies of unique academic discourses.

In Estonia, tertiary students as novice academic writers are mostly engaged with general academic writing to demonstrate their native language (L1) academic literacy and L2 linguistic proficiency. For students, L1 graduation paper is an important genre for expressing field-specific knowledge, while L2 argumentative essay functions as the assessment mode for demonstrating linguistic competence in a foreign language. These types of writing denote a transition stage from school literacy practices to the ones specific to expert academic practices for which novice academic writers are expected to adopt a basic set of disciplinary discourse conventions.

English written discourse and L2 writers

The study of contrastive rhetoric (e.g., Clyne 1987, 1991; Connor 1996, 2002, 2004; Čmejrková 1996; Fine 1988; Hinds 1987; Johns 1990, 1993, 1997; Kaplan 1966, 1987; Leki 1991, 1992, 2000; Markkanen et al. 1993; Mauranen 1993a, 1993b, 1996; McCarthy 1993; Riley 1996; Swales 1990; Vande Kopple 1985, 1997, 2002; Vähäpassi 1998; Ventola 1996, Wennerstrom 2003, among others) has demonstrated that L2 writing ability is conditioned not only by writers' level of L2 proficiency, but also by the cross-cultural similarities or differences of the languages in question. As different cultures and discourse communities value different ways of expressing thoughts and exploit different rhetorical patterns for written discourse, writers' socio-cultural background may limit or enhance their comprehension of other writing cultures and the ability to produce texts acceptable to the norms of the target culture. Of relevance here is Wennerstrom's argument that even those L2 writers whose academic texts are considered excellent in one socio-cultural system, may struggle with the academic traditions of another system.

It is widely recognised that the Anglo-American writing tradition with its linguistic, discourse and socio-cultural intricacies may pose particular challenges for writers. Composing a quality text in English that conforms to certain rules that 'most good writers unconsciously follow and native readers unconsciously expect to find' (Hadley 1995: 2) is a difficult task to accomplish even for L1 expert academic writers, let alone L2 writers. Many of the common problems of L2 academic writers producing texts in English may stem from their poor knowledge about reader expectations in terms of the discourse and textual strategies employed in English writing (Hinds 1987) and from writers' applying the typical native language composing processes and conventions to writing in English (see, e.g., Connor 1996; Mauranen 1993a, 1993b, 1996; Ventola 1996).

For many years, the prevailing assumption was that L1 and L2 writing are in their broad outlines similar and L1 writing strategies are transferable to L2 writing contexts (e.g., Arndt 1987; Jones 1982; Krapels 1990; Krashen 1984; Zamel 1983). This approach led L2 writing researchers and practitioners to adopt writing techniques and practices directly from L1 composition theories applied in Anglo-American colleges and universities (e.g., Johns 1990; Silva and Leki 2004). As a result, researchers largely failed to address the specific needs of a much wider community of L2 academic writers.

Although experts have reported several findings of common underlying processes that writers are involved in while composing both in L1 and L2 (Zamel 1987), it has been established that fundamental differences between L1 and L2 writing practices persist (see, e.g., Raimes 1991; Silva 1993). Silva (ibid.: 657), for example, refers to 'salient differences' manifesting themselves not only in composition processes but also in specific features of written texts including 'fluency, accuracy, quality and structure'. Even if the composing

behaviours of L1 and L2 writers may be identical in nature, L2 written texts are typically regarded less effective in terms of quality and reader expectations as opposed to L1 written products. Some writing scholars (Carson 2001; Hyland 2003; Raimes 1991) believe that due to the above influential factors, non-native learners rarely achieve native-speaker proficiency and therefore, they should be viewed as distinct from L1 writers. Some scholars (Krashen 1984) maintain that writing ability is not language specific at all but abstract knowledge that writers have about composing and in many cases the low quality of writing may be inherent already in the original L1 written text. Yet, while coherence problems in L2 written texts may sometimes stem from poor L1 writing, insufficient knowledge of L2 writing conventions as well as generally inadequate communicative competence in L2 remains one of the main reasons why L2 writers composing in English fail to attend to the whole text aspects of written discourse and tend to focus on the local features of writing instead (e.g., Lorentz 1999; Mauranen 1996).

Clearly, L2 academic writers have a different English language competence than L1 academic writers, and therefore, L2 writers may experience difficulty in expressing their thoughts appropriately and persuasively in the Anglo-American writing style. While L1 writers have the inherent ability to handle the grammar and lexis of English when they begin to compose in English as their native language, L2 writers have to transform their expert knowledge and develop their L2 linguistic competence simultaneously. Formulating ideas in a coherent manner can be quite challenging for L2 writers as they have to acquire proficiency not only in L2 writing strategies, techniques and skills but also in text processing issues.

Theoretical and practical considerations of English academic writing

Most L2 academic writers aim to produce error-free texts to be able to 'cope with the demands of academic discourse, and receive recognition as well-informed, critical thinkers' (Myles 2002: 9). Writers often assume that the linguistic competence of English grammatical and lexical conventions is likely to ensure the good quality of their written products and acknowledgement of their research by the Anglo-American discourse community. However, writing effective academic prose in English is not an easy task to accomplish for L2 writers since the English text should conform to certain norms and exhibit specific communicative qualities that the target readership would expect to find in the text. In line with this, many scholars (e.g., Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987; Bhatia 2002; Connor 1996; Cooper 1979; Coulthard 1994; Flowerdew 2002; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Halliday and Hasan 1989; Hyland 2003; Kroll 1990; Leki and Carson 1994; Mauranen 1996; Raimes 1991; Silva 1993; Swales 1990; Tribble 1996; White 1997; Zamel 1998, 2004) have emphasised the need for L2

writers to become more thoroughly informed of the intricacies of Anglo-American writing in terms of the various discourse strategies, knowledge bases, skills and competences necessary for the production of reader-based English texts.

The multifaceted nature of the English written text would certainly require awareness from L2 writers of both micro-level and macro-level attributes of discourse: syntax and semantics on a sentential level, cohesion and coherence on a textual level and lexicon as the 'diffuse element' underlying the other four (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 62). The textual level of discourse exhibits the linguistic properties, which reflect its organisation, logical flow, rhetorical force and thematic focus. In this respect, effective academic writing can be defined not only by the linguistic quality of isolated sentences but rather by the textual patterning and logical presentation of meaning in context. The textual information structures and patterned functions of English, such as, for example, the problem-solution (Hoey 1994), the claim-counterclaim (McCarthy 1993), the hypothetical-real (Winter 1994), the general-specific (Coulthard 1994), and various other structures enable writers to achieve the communicative purpose of written discourse.

In reality, as a likely consequence of grammar- and lexis-driven methods of traditional L2 writing instruction at school, L2 writers tend to attribute a primary role in the production of English texts to micro-level features of writing such as grammatical conventions, word choice and syntax. While the writers may have become linguistically fairly competent in English after years of language study at school, they do not always appear to have acquired the communication skills essential in effective written discourse. This discrepancy is likely to remain an issue of constant debate among L2 writing scholars: whereas some scholars (e.g., Swan 1985a, 1985b) seem to believe that L2 writers must master the language forms before aiming at fluency, coherence and style, a growing number of scholars (e.g., Cumming 2006; Ferris 1999; Hyland 2003; Kepner 1991; Raimes 1991; Semke 1984; Sheppard 1992; Truscott 1996) insist that in L2 context the ability to construct meaning in discourse and the fluent expression of ideas are the most crucial aspects of English writing that should be developed right from the start.

The primary focus on grammar, as Hyland (2003: 26) argues, 'shifts writing instruction from the implicit and exploratory to a conscious manipulation of language and choice'. This can be well seen in examination-driven L2 instructional contexts in which excessive focus on accuracy affects students' writing behaviour as it encourages them to produce texts simplified in meaning though grammatically correct. However, research (e.g., Grobe 1981; Spack 1988; Truscott 1996; Widdowson 1979) has revealed that increased linguistic proficiency does not necessarily contribute to increased writing quality and is therefore not the only prerequisite for good academic writing. While mastering grammar may be a great challenge for non-native writers, learning to write effectively in Anglo-American academic settings requires not only linguistic

competence but also communicative competence related to the discoursal, socio-cultural and strategic aspects of the English language (see, e.g., Canale and Swain 1980; Chapelle et al. 1993; Savignon 1997). Therefore, in order to succeed in English-dominant academic discourse, L2 writers should attempt to combine the inherently complex characteristics of writing ranging from 'mechanical control to creativity, with good grammar, knowledge of subject matter, awareness of stylistic conventions and various mysterious factors in between' (Wall 1981: 53). Apart from focusing on the micro-level linguistic features of discourse, L2 writers should recognise the macro-level fundamentals of unity, text organisation, and coherence. Moreover, writers should consider a number of important socio-cultural conditions for writing, in particular, the intended message, the writer's purpose, the topic and the expectations of the audience.

English academic writing in the Estonian context

In order to participate in the distribution and processing of academic-scientific knowledge, Estonian writers will have to adapt themselves to the situation in which the English language has a dominant position in the global academia. However, as the differences between Estonian and English languages are quite remarkable and the forms of transmitting knowledge vary considerably, acquiring adequate proficiency in English academic writing requires considerable effort from Estonian writers.

Estonian belongs to the Finnic branch of the Finno-Ugric group of languages, whereas English is an Indo-European language of the Germanic branch. Estonian is spoken by only about 1.1 million native speakers throughout the world with 86% of them living in Estonia and 14% scattered over Sweden, Canada, USA, Russia, Australia, Finland, Germany, the UK and some other countries (Sutrop 2008). The first educated Estonians began publishing scholarly research in their mother tongue only in the 20th century. The historical and cultural development of the Estonian academic writing tradition appears to have mostly been affected by German, Russian and Finnish styles, once influential foreign languages taught at Estonian schools (Laanekask 2004). As one of the Finno-Ugric languages, Estonian can be linguistically compared with Finnish; yet, in the course of history, Estonian is likely to have adopted far more academic writing norms from the German and Russian languages than from its kin language. While up to the 1930s, the Estonian writing tradition can be regarded as greatly influenced by the German writing style, after World War II, Estonian was for many decades strongly constrained by the (Soviet) Russian writing norms and practices. In fact, both German and Russian academic writing styles represent the Teutonic intellectual style of thought and behaviour (Galtung 1981). Recent changes in the global socio-political context and that of Estonia in the 1990s have probably introduced a new era in Estonian academics'

native-language writing style with the growing influence of the Anglo-American writing tradition on it.

Over the years, English has held a special position in Estonia as one of the major foreign languages taught and studied at secondary and tertiary institutions. The tendency to opt for English has been steadily growing amongst Estonian students; according to the data of the National Examinations and Qualifications Centre of Estonia (E. Roosmaa, personal communication, 4 March 2008)[1], learners of English account for as many as 84% of the total population of foreign language learners in secondary education and nearly 47% of the learners in tertiary education. Another important finding is that roughly 50% of the Estonians claim to use English 'quite frequently' with the largest representation being the youth (ages 15–29) and the highly qualified professionals (Masso and Vihalemm 2005).

Research in L2 (EFL) academic writing and pedagogy

Gap in the research

The unique, interdisciplinary nature of L2 (ESL/EFL) writing has given rise to a number of distinct developments in L2 writing theory, research and practice and different approaches to L2 writing instruction (further discussed in Chapter 1). Until quite recently, EFL academic writing was a relatively neglected area in the research of L2 writing theory and pedagogy. Even today, most EFL instructional programmes attend primarily to the development of oral language and grammatical conventions, whereas due to several constraints, they rarely address the critical issues of written discourse (e.g., Casanave 2003; Ferris 1999; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hedgcock 2005, Hinkel 2000; Kepner 1991; Leki 2000, 2001; Panofsky et al. 2005; Semke 1984; Sternglass 1997). This common oral product-oriented approach to language in ESL/EFL pedagogy can be explained by a number of reasons. First of all, in the past few decades, oral cross-cultural communication was deemed highly important all over the world and oral proficiency was considered the primary goal of ESL and especially of EFL instruction (e.g., Harklau 2002; Ortega 2004). Since instruction was mainly focused on grammar and correctness in oral and written language, most L2 instructors were also educated in that orientation (e.g., Leki 2000; Panofsky et al. ibid.). Teachers' focus on spoken language, error correction and grammar teaching, and limited attention to the issues of written language may have largely contributed to the widening gap between the EFL learners' English

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[1] The National Examinations and Qualifications Centre is a governmental body administered by the Ministry of Education and Research. Its main objective is to implement the national education and language policy in the field of primary, basic and secondary education as well as vocational and adult education.

linguistic proficiency and their discourse proficiency of writing (e.g., Ferris 1997; Truscott 1996).

In the last three decades, the number of non-native speakers using English as a medium of professional international communication or study in Anglo-American tertiary educational institutions has grown dramatically. This development has led to an increasing interest in the research of L2 (ESL/EFL) writing and writing pedagogy and the need to equip L2 writers and language instructors with the latest body of knowledge in the field (e.g., Hyland 2003; Kroll 1990; Silva and Matsuda 2001; Swales and Feak 1994). However, despite the marked interest in L2 writing research and outstanding developments in this field, scholarly work on ESL/EFL writing contexts has been relatively scarce, except for studies in ESP and contrastive rhetoric. A considerable shortcoming in the research lies in its primary focus on issues specific to the needs of international ESL students in the educational institutions of the UK and US, while scholarship in EFL, especially in non-native English contexts, has remained quite insignificant (see, e.g., Casanave 2003; Matsuda 2003; Ortega 2004). This may also be one of the reasons why important EFL-oriented issues of academic writing have not been addressed adequately and the research base and practice literature available for EFL instructors is rather limited. Data from a recent survey by Ortega (ibid.) on 109 studies of L2 writing published in 1992–2004 is quite revealing: while as many as 54% of these studies investigated ESL students in higher educational contexts of the English-speaking countries such as the USA, Canada, the UK, New Zealand and Australia, only 34% of the studies focused on EFL contexts for Anglo-American writing, with most research conducted in Japan and Hong-Kong. However, as in the recent years non-native writers' academic and professional needs for English writing have increased enormously, a much wider range of writing research from different non-native cultural backgrounds and educational settings of EFL writing instruction will be required:

> Recently, L2 writing research has shifted its focus from ESL instruction into the specific contexts of EFL instruction. Yet, caution should be taken when applying research findings across the wide population of EFL learners in different educational and socio-cultural settings. (Ortega ibid.: 8)

Ortega insists that EFL researchers are uniquely equipped to make 'cutting edge contributions' relevant to their educational and socio-cultural EFL contexts. In the same vein, context-specific investigations would allow L2/EAP teacher-researchers in Estonia to produce theoretical knowledge for the development of L2 writing expertise in the country.

Perspectives for research in EAP writing and pedagogy in Estonia

While the need for a more thorough knowledge for teaching English academic writing in Estonia has grown substantially, involvement of scholarship in this field of research is not quite well pronounced. With such a small population of native speakers, it is perhaps not surprising that text-level contrastive studies of the Estonian and Anglo-American writing styles have not gained a wider perspective so far and detailed studies on English texts composed by Estonian academic writers are rare.

Nonetheless, a few significant studies by EAP/ESP professionals from different tertiary institutions of Estonia, including the University of Tartu, the Tallinn University of Technology and the Tallinn University have added a substantial value to the research in L2 academic writing and pedagogy, and contributed to the development of expertise in the field. In detail, Alas (1999, 2004, 2005) has explored L2 academic writing assessment and subject reader expectations to L2 student academic essays; Konovalov (2005) has studied transfer in English academic texts of L2 writers; Laane (1997), and Laane and Tammelo (2006) have analysed Estonian academic writers' English texts with regard to rhetorical and cultural differences in comparison with native speaker texts; Rummel (1997, 1999; 2005a, 2005b, 2006, 2009) has investigated L2 academic writing assessment and syllabus development, Estonian academic writers' practices and common problems in English writing, discourse and socio-cultural phenomena of English texts, and perspectives for discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing in Estonia; Türk (1989, 1996, 2002) has explored ESP courses and their relevance to teaching foreign languages in Estonian universities, and the aspects of testing (e.g., national school-leaving examinations in English); and Vogelberg (2003, 2004) has examined negotiation of power in intercultural communication, models of politeness behaviour and interpersonal meanings in academic discourse.

Furthermore, a number of international projects have been implemented in Estonia with the aim to promote change in EAP writing syllabus design and in quality assurance and assessment, and disseminate knowledge in the field. In 1996, a two-year Pan-Baltic Academic Writing Project was undertaken at the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT), sponsored by the British Council and supervised by Clare Furneaux and Ron White from the University of Reading (the UK). As a direct outcome of this project, the first EAP Writing Programme was introduced in TUT, and an international Advanced Writing Conference was held in 1997 (Rummel 1997). In 2002, another two-year project — Quality Assurance in Languages for Specific Purposes (QALSPELL) — was launched at TUT on the initiative of Hele Saar and Mari Uibo, and with the assistance of Barry O'Sullivan from the University of Reading (the UK). Drawing on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), this project aimed to establish unified criteria for quality assurance and assessment

in learning and teaching Foreign Language for Specific Purposes (all language skills) at tertiary institutions. In line with the above projects, Rummel has devised an experimental discourse-oriented EAP Writing Module (tested in 2004–2007) for the integrated-skills EAP course of TUT.

It should be admitted, however, that despite several efforts, the issue of how to teach Estonian academic writers to produce quality texts for the English-medium audiences has not received sufficient attention from EAP/ESP curriculum designers and instructors at TUT and elsewhere in tertiary study. This situation may derive from a number of factors. First of all, due to its complex nature, writing is traditionally considered to be the most difficult skill to teach and acquire. A more plausible reason for writing to have been sidelined, however, is that for immediate communicative purposes, developing learners' oral proficiency has been targeted as a priority in L2 instruction in Estonia for many years, both in secondary and tertiary education. As a result, even at tertiary institutions, EAP writing courses are exceptional and in most cases, the teaching of writing is incorporated in the integrated-skills EAP/ESP courses of different levels and types. In these L2 instructional programmes, however, writing as a mode of communication has traditionally remained undervalued. Perhaps a valid argument for neglecting L2 writing may be the lack of instructional resources and administrative capacities. Since the Estonian education system is not well endowed, and the majority of higher educational institutions have been forced to curtail their EAP/ESP programmes, it seems clear that these institutions are not in the position to earmark resources for the development of autonomous EAP writing courses.

On the other hand, there is evidence (Rummel 2005b) to suggest that L2 teachers in Estonia may lack not only instructional time but also knowledge, strategies and techniques to encourage students to compose effective English prose for intended audiences, reflect critically on their written drafts and revise their products for better readability. Even though teachers may recognise the role of text-level discourse in effective writing, teaching discourse and socio-cultural aspects of English writing to Estonian students is not an integral part of EAP instruction in Estonia. Furthermore, while teachers may aim to draw on a number of instructional approaches to L2 writing in their pedagogy, in effect, most of them are inclined to employ merely one preferred approach in their classrooms. Under these circumstances, it appears to be increasingly important for Estonian L2 teachers to familiarise themselves with the latest research on L2/EAP writing and pedagogy in order to maximise their learners' efforts for interaction in the English-medium academia.

The aim of this research

This doctoral research attempts to investigate the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing in enhancing the communicative quality of Estonian undergraduate students' English texts. The research focuses on undergraduate students — novice academic writers — with the assumption that in their target academic careers, these writers would be expected to function as expert writers in the international academia. Although due to socio-cognitive differences, students may lack not only L1 (and L2) linguistic and discoursal competences but also subject knowledge, which may prevent them from producing effective texts, this research treats both novice and expert writers as nearly similar in regard to their deficiencies in L2 writing.

The research is aimed at exploring whether discourse-oriented teaching can develop students' understanding of writing as an important mode of communication; whether discourse-oriented teaching can raise student awareness of the significant principles of the Anglo-American writing style and text construction; whether discourse-oriented teaching can provide students with skills and competences necessary for the construction and interpretation of English texts and thus enable them to improve the quality of their written products; and whether discourse-oriented teaching can be effective also with students at lower levels of L2 proficiency. An important consideration is to reflect on Estonian students' experiences, practices and common deficiencies in English writing, and identify students' perceptions of the most important aspects of effective written discourse.

The research is guided by the hypothesis that Estonian writers, regardless of their L2 proficiency, prioritise the linguistic aspects of grammar and lexis while composing English written texts and thereby tend to disregard the communicative aspects of discourse. Another assumption is that Estonian writers do not have adequate knowledge of the textual and socio-cultural phenomena of English written discourse nor do they have awareness of the skills, competences and strategies contributing to effective writing. A likely reason for that may be that L2 writing instruction in Estonia has focused primarily on developing learners' linguistic rather than discourse proficiency in English writing.

The ultimate aim of the research is to suggest general guidelines for the further development of discourse-oriented EAP writing modules in Estonia. It seems clear that the increasing need for academic writers to produce effective English texts for publication should shift the focus of instruction from surface-level features of grammar and mechanics to the communicative aspects of written discourse. It is hoped that a discourse perspective to teaching English writing would enable Estonian academic writers to become better familiarised with the Anglo-American writing style and gain mastery of the techniques and competences involved in it. In particular, writers should be provided with knowledge of how English-speaking writers organise their thoughts, what

features native speakers associate with coherent written texts, and how Estonian writers should communicate with the readership that is guided by the Anglo-American academic writing. Drawing on the above issues, the importance of discourse-based research into EAP writing and pedagogy in Estonia should be well recognised.

CHAPTER 1:
THEORETICAL ISSUES IN TEACHING ENGLISH ACADEMIC WRITING IN L2 CONTEXTS

This chapter provides an overview of the pertinent issues of L2 writing theory and pedagogy that should be regarded as instrumental in teaching English written communication to Estonian tertiary students. These issues comprise the varied competences and knowledge bases involved in writing, the inherent features of written text and the principles of text construction, the specific nature of the Anglo-American academic writing tradition, and the socio-cultural differences between the English and Estonian writing styles. Furthermore, drawing on various research methodologies and teaching techniques, complementary as well as conflicting, applied over the history of L2 writing pedagogy in different educational settings, the chapter outlines the instructional principles and themes relevant to the development of Estonian students' discourse proficiency in English writing. The chapter serves as a theoretical and methodological basis for the design of a discourse-oriented EAP writing syllabus for the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT), and for the further development and implementation of discourse-oriented EAP writing syllabi in Estonia.

Insights into L2 writing research and pedagogy

In recent years, research on L2 writing and pedagogy has experienced an unprecedented growth due to the increasing number of non-native speakers using English as a medium of professional communication or academic study. The history of this field of research, however, can be characterised as 'a merry-go-round of approaches' (Silva 1990) and 'pendulum swings' (Erickson 2002) from one theoretical-instructional method to another, each designed to compensate for the deficiencies of the preceding pedagogies:

> This merry-go-round of approaches has a number of negative effects on the discipline: it generates more heat than light and does not encourage consensus on important issues, preservation of legitimate insights, synthesis of a body of knowledge, or principled evaluation of approaches. (Silva ibid.: 18)

The disciplinary origin of L2 writing lies in the four most influential pedagogies outlined by Silva (1990) as controlled composition (Brière 1966; Pincas 1962), current-traditional rhetoric (Carr 1967; Kaplan 1972), the process approach (Arndt 1987; Flower and Hayes 1981; Hayes and Flower 1983; Krapels 1990; Krashen 1984; Raimes 1985; Silva 1990; Zamel 1987) and English for

academic purposes (Horowitz 1986; Reid 1984). Research in L2 writing has also addressed a number of significant theories of L1 writing, many of them complementary and overlapping in nature, including the genre-based approach (Hyland 2003; Swales 1990), the socio-literate approach (Johns 1999; Scollon and Scollon 1995), the critical literacy approach (Blanton 1999; Morgan 1998), the functional approach (Halliday 1999), and the post-process approach (Atkinson 2003; Grabe 2003; Kent 1999), among others. Three commonly applied approaches to writing − the formalist approach (product), the constructivist approach (process) and the social constructionist (genre) approach – can be distinguished (Nystrand, Greene, Wiemelt 1993; quoted in Warschauer 2002).

The multitude of approaches and supporting theories of L2 writing has led several prominent writing scholars (e.g., Bruce 2008; Grabe 2001; Hirvela 2004; Johns 1990; Leki 1991; Raimes 1991; Reid 1984; Silva 1990; Silva and Leki 2004) to argue for the importance of establishing a comprehensive overall conception of L2 writing, combining the elements of writing in the communicative interaction of the writer, reader, text and socio-cultural context:

> An appropriate and adequate theory of L2 writing /.../ is one that, at a minimum, regards writing as an interactive activity; is reasonably comprehensive and internally consistent; reflects an understanding of historical developments in the field; is informed by current work in relevant disciplines; and is sensitive to the cultural, linguistic, and experimental differences of individuals and societies. (Silva ibid.: 19)

Focus on writing as communicative interaction has led writing scholars to pronounce the need for a renewed instructional paradigm of writing with focus on the communicative purpose of written discourse:

> Twenty-five years ago, writing instruction was characterized by an approach that focused on linguistic and rhetorical form. Since then, we have gone into the woods in search of new approaches, focusing in turn on the writer and the writer's processes, on academic content, and on the reader's expectations. (Raimes ibid.: 407)

Today, socially-culturally oriented research (see, e.g., Casanave 2004; Grabe 2001; Rienecker and Jörgsen 2003; Silva 1990; Warschauer 2002) has gained increasing prominence in the communicative teaching of L2 written discourse, which is indicative of a move from a cognitive view of language learning to a socio-cognitive one. That perspective may be especially relevant in the context where the dominance of English in political, economic, cultural and educational spheres sets particular communication barriers for L2 academic writers. A few of the significant examples of the latest developments in the pedagogy of L2 writing are 'the post method condition' (Kumaravadivelu 1994), the process genre approach (Badger and White 2000), the lexical approach (Lewis 1993,

1997), the task-based approach (Bruton 2005; Hyland 2003; Nunan 2001; Willis 1996) and the 'enlightened and eclectic approach/method' (Brown 2007).

Limitations to L2 writing paradigms

Controversies in L2 writing research have initiated major debates within the field, which have set up several false dichotomies, for example, those between product and process approaches to writing (e.g., Erickson 2002; Kroll 1990), between pragmatist and critical approaches to EAP (e.g., Casanave 2001), or discussions on the validity and best application of critical contrastive rhetoric (e.g., Atkinson 2004; Connor 2004; Kubota 2004a, 2004b; Kubota and Lehner 2004). Other controversial issues in the theoretical literature concern the dilemma of accuracy versus fluency in L2 writing (e.g., Coe 1987; Elbow 1986), the guiding principles for teacher response and assessment of writing (e.g., Wennerstrom 2003), and a number of others. Today, quite a number of theoretical assumptions about L2 writing and the early writing practices have been found questionable (see, e.g., Cumming 2006).

Pedagogical variation in L2 writing instruction

Despite the fact that scholars have attempted to combine different developments and approaches of L2 writing to formulate a universally acceptable L2 writing theory, these efforts have yet not been successful. The three leading approaches to writing (product, process and genre) have frequently been regarded as mutually exclusive, each focusing attention on only one important element of writing (see, e.g., Grabe 2001; Raimes 1991; Silva 1990). However, Raimes insists that an ideal EAP writing syllabus should combine the product, the process, the genre (social context and the subject matter content) in a meaningful whole with its perspectives and constraints.

The product approach

The formalist approach to teaching L2 writing focuses on the correct form of the product. The concept of the linear form of Western rhetoric, first addressed in Kaplan's (1967) work on contrastive rhetoric contributed much to L2 writing pedagogy, even though it was based on the false assumption that both textual form and the writing process are linear in nature. To a certain extent, product-oriented writing can have a highly positive effect on L2 writers' discourse skills both in text composition and comprehension. For writers, the primary benefit of this approach lies in the helpful composing notions such as thesis, topic sentence, and transition, and the text constructing principles of arranging ideas more effectively into a well-constructed paragraph and the standard five-

paragraph essay, for example. While product-oriented writing may be considered most valuable at the beginning stages of academic text construction and for lower-level students, this pedagogical approach might also assist other writers to arrange their thoughts more effectively (Johns 1986).

However, despite its notable instructional benefits, product-oriented teaching of L2 writing has distinct shortcomings in terms of its impact on the writers' communicative abilities in composing. This is the likely reason why several scholars do not regard product-oriented writing 'real writing' (Ferris 1999) and refer to it as 'writing without composing' (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). A significant disadvantage of the product approach lies in its instructional practices: although some L2 instructors have adopted more communicative methods to raise their students' awareness of English text construction principles, the existent practices in many L2 settings still reveal 'the lockstep rigidity of traditional pedagogy' (Matsuda 2003: 69) and focus on form, grammar and correctness still remains a prevalent practice in EFL writing pedagogy (see, e.g., Casanave 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock 1998; Matsuda ibid; Sheppard 1992; Truscott 1996).

The process approach

The most notable influences in L2 academic writing instruction can be associated with the process approach. With roots in the cognitive linguistics of Chomsky (1959, 1965), this approach originates from the 1980s scholarship in L1 composition that developed a cognitive theory of writing with focus shift from product to process. The process theory introduced the cognitive models of writing, formulated by Flower and Hayes (1981) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), focusing on the development of distinctive mental processes of what writers do as they write rather than the mastery of formal models. According to Coe (1987):

> /…/ any process approach /…/ concerns itself with one or more of the *hows* formalists traditionally ignore: how writers create; *how* writers think, feel and verbalize to enable writing; *how* writers learn while writing; how writing communicates with readers; and how social processes and contexts influence the shaping and interpreting of texts (Coe ibid.: 14).

In process writing pedagogy, L2 writers are trained how to master the thinking processes and composing strategies of expert L1 writers (e.g., Ferris 2002; Raimes 1991; Reid 1984, 1993; Silva 1990; White and Arndt 1991). This approach, which regards writing as a complex, multi-layered and recursive cognitive process, postulates certain conditions for writing and therefore, writers are instructed to perform communicative tasks in multiple steps through pre-writing activities, peer collaboration, multiple drafting, self- and peer editing, and other similar activities, whereas attention to the surface-level issues of writing is intentionally postponed to the very end of the writing process:

> /.../ that students should write multiple drafts of their papers, that feedback on content and form should be given at separate stages of the writing process, that grammar issues should be de-emphasised and perhaps skipped altogether, that students should collaborate in peer-feedback sessions, and that one-to-one teacher-student writing conferences were critical. (Ferris ibid.: 5)

A common feature for the multiple variations of process-oriented L2 writing pedagogies is that they all focus on the writer to create meaning. In the meaning construction process, the cognitive activities that the writer is involved with appear to contribute to the production of more effective texts. The attendant benefit of the process method is that it advocates writers' active role in the writing skills development process.

While process pedagogy and the composing processes of academic writers have received increasingly more emphasis in both L1 and L2 academic writing contexts, especially in North-America since the 1990s (for recent contributions see Ferris 2003, 2006; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005), this method has also provoked certain controversy among L2 writing scholarship (see, e.g., Faigley 1986; Hamp-Lyons 1986; Horowitz 1986; Liebman-Kleine 1986). Indeed, in spite of the seemingly efficient strategies of the process approach, its positive effect on L2 writers' composing skills may not always be as well pronounced as expected. Even though L2 'process writers' are provided with maximum individual freedom for creative writing with minimal teacher intervention, their composing problems in regard to content, form or rhetoric do not always disappear. Likewise, even if the cognitive models of writing seem to closely characterise the composing processes academic writers are engaged in, a major demerit of those models is that they fail to consider audience, context, purpose and the significance of a discourse community. While focusing merely on the writer, the process method appears to ignore the social construct of meaning in the writer-reader relationship in a specific context (Bhatia 1993).

Due to the above demerits, the concept of process was further challenged in the 1990s through the introduction of the post-process approach to teaching writing (e.g., Kent 1999; Matsuda 2003). This approach posits that writing should be regarded as a public, interpretative and situated interchange of meaning, even if no generalised writing process exists. Matsuda considers the term 'post-process' as a useful heuristic for expanding the scope of L2 writing and pedagogy since the term describes complex intellectual developments. Thus, the post-process paradigm denotes recognition of the multiplicity of L2 writing theories and pedagogies rather than the rejection of process:

> /.../ post-process might be more productively defined as the rejection of the dominance of process at the expense of other aspects of writing and writing instruction. (Matsuda ibid.: 67)

In short, whereas the introduction of the process approach to teaching writing was claimed to be a response to the dominance of the product approach, the

growth of the post-product approach was a reaction to the theories of process that ignored the importance of the socio-cultural aspects of constructing meaning best reflected through genre. In this respect, the post-process method provides a sound framework for the genre-based approach to teaching L2 academic writing.

The genre approach

The social constructionist genre approach, introduced by Hymes (1972), views writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of language in context and as an interaction between the writer and the reader. Hyland (2003) has characterised this approach in the following words:

> Teachers who take a genre orientation to writing instruction look beyond subject content, composing processes and textual forms to see writing as attempts to communicate with the readers. They are concerned with teaching learners how to use language patterns to accomplish coherent, purposeful prose. /.../ genre teachers focus on texts, but this is not the narrow focus of a disembodied grammar. Instead, linguistic patterns are seen as pointing to contexts beyond the page, implying a range of social constraints and choices that operate on writers in a particular context. (Hyland ibid.: 18)

The genre approach has contributed much to both L1 and L2 analytical writing research and methodology and to the understanding of academic discourse. Written genres of the academia and their role in EAP pedagogy have been thoroughly investigated (e.g., Bazerman 1988; Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995; Bhatia 1993; Bronson 2001; Dudley-Evans 1994; Frankenberg-Garcia 1990; Hyland 2003; Johns 1997; Jordan 1996; Leki and Carson 1997; Nystrand et al. 1993; Silva 1990; Swales 1996, 2001; Wennerstrom 2003) with special focus on the importance of a discourse community and the social construction of language in the community. In this respect, the genre-approach has common features with what Silva refers to as 'English for academic purposes approach'.

   The recent corpus-based studies of academic writing (e.g., Hyland 2000, Salager-Meyer 1994; Swales et al. 1998) have strengthened the significance of genre-based approach to teaching, revealing the diversity of salient linguistic and organisational features inherent in different academic genres. As English academic writing is highly rhetorical, to be able to construct and process the rhetorical styles and discourse types employed in different academic settings, specific writing skills and competences would be required. The ability to produce the most common text types for the academia (e.g., research papers and other research related genres) should be considered a major goal of tertiary writing instruction and thus writing scholars have posited the need for L2 academic writers to become aware of the traditional modes and conventions of the English-medium academic discourse community to be able to further adapt their writing to field-specific generic conventions:

> While process-oriented pedagogies have given too much attention to teaching [L2 skilled] writers skills they already possess, product-oriented approaches have promoted little more than standards of correctness these writers are already aware of /…/ what these writers seem to need most is to become aware of the discourse conventions of the genres they wish to master in L2 /…/. (Frankenberg-Garcia 1990: 6)

Moreover, scholars (e.g., Johns 1997) believe that genre-based writing can also be highly beneficial for novice writers facing the discourse and textual demands of the academia.

The main criticisms of the genre approach have been that it minimises the significance of text production skills and views writers as largely passive (see, e.g., Badger and White 2000). The latter factor may lead to writers' inability to deal with real-world writing tasks effectively and thus reduce their motivation and creativity in composing. To accommodate for the inadequacies of the genre approach, a modified version of genre-based writing, the process genre approach, has been introduced. This pedagogy is geared towards training writers to produce texts in line with their own specific academic needs and with the support by the teacher, peers and sample texts.

In sum, academic writing is a multifaceted mode of interaction between 'continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text' (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987: 12); likewise, written text construction in academic English involves activities from the more mechanical aspects of knowledge telling to the more complex act of knowledge transforming. This complexity has necessitated more recent approaches to teaching L2 academic writing to recognise the importance of integrating all the different aspects of writing with focus on the writing process, a written text as a product, and writing as communication dependent on the specific purpose and context of writing.

English written text construction

Although *text* is a commonly used notion in writing research, there is as yet no consensus among scholars about how to define text precisely as the term embodies a multitude of concepts. Some scholars (Brown and Yule 1983) refer to text as a pre-theoretical term for any stretch of language collected or recorded — 'the verbal record of a communicative event'; others (Halliday and Hasan 1976) consider text as a theoretical 'unit of language in use' (both quoted in Trappes-Lomax 2000: 1). Whereas some linguists treat text as 'static' distinct from discourse as 'alive', most linguists still seem to agree that any verbal data has 'social meaningfulness only as texts not as collections of isolated word or phrases' (Lemke 1998: 7). From this perspective, text is equated with discourse defined as a verbal form of social behaviour, an instance of communicative

language use, and the process of unfolding an idea into a text (Brown and Yule 1983; Cook 1989; Nunan 1993).

Written text can be defined as an instance of textual communication that adheres to certain principles of 'textuality' (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981) comprising the 'constitutive principles' of cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertexuality; and the 'regulative principles' of efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness. As written interaction involves 'not only the process writer uses to put words to paper but also the resulting product of that process' (Archibald 2004: 9), written text should likewise be viewed from three different perspectives as a *product*, *process* and *communication*. Written text can be viewed as a product with its text-internal linguistic, organisational and discourse features, and communicative functions. Another perspective is to view written text as a process with its text-external factors of how academic prose in English is composed. Most significant of all, however, is the position that treats written text as communication with focus on how the text is received and interpreted by target readers (see, e.g., Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Markkanen and Schröder 2000; Raimes 1983b; Widdowson 1980, 1996).

Written text structure

According to the prevailing approach, a written text is a case of writer-reader interaction that can be considered as the writer's attempt to communicate his or her intentions and information to the reader. Scholars who advocate that approach (e.g., Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987; de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981; Brown and Yule 1983; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Halliday and Hasan 1989; Hyland 2003; Kinneavy 1971; Martin 1992; Raimes 1983b; Singer 1990; Ventola 1987; Widdowson 1980) have attempted to create models of written text construction considering the essential parameters of communication: the message, the writer's purpose, the topic and the reader expectations. While different scholars have each emphasised certain isolated aspects of text analysis in their models, most experts have accepted the notion that text is 'a multidimensional construct' that is made up of various interacting components and subcomponents at a number of different levels which reflect its organisation, logical flow, rhetorical force and thematic focus. The following linguistic, sociological and psychological features influencing written text construction can be specified:

1. Gricean maxims – the need to be informative, factually correct, relevant, and clear /.../
2. Conventions for conveying status, situation, intent and attitude.
3. Mechanisms for indicating newness of information, rate of information, and probability of information.

4. Predictability of cognitive structures which anticipate larger patterns of organization: schemata, scripts, frames, goals, etc. (Grabe and Kaplan ibid.: 41).

Research has provided substantial evidence to assume that the structure of a written text contributes significantly to textual coherence and to how the text is received and interpreted by the reader. Not only surface-level structuring of text but also structuring at deeper levels can considerably affect the quality of written communication. Figure 2 depicts the fundamental elements of text structure introduced by Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 62) as syntax and semantics on a sentential level, cohesion and coherence on a textual level and lexicon as the 'diffuse element' underlying the other four. More specifically, text is constructed of syntactic structures, semantic senses, cohesion markers, organisational structuring, lexical forms and relations, stylistic dimensions and non-linguistic knowledge bases (Appendix 1 provides a more elaborate model of text construction by Grabe and Kaplan).

	Surface	LEXICON	Deep
Sentential	Syntax		Semantics
Textual	Cohesion		Coherence

Figure 2. Elements of text structure (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 62).

Hyland (2003: 6) emphasises that an important principle in text construction is to relate communicative meanings to rhetorical modes or genres as 'language forms perform particular functions' which help to achieve the purpose of writing. By these modes (e.g., descriptive, narrative, expository, persuasive, and others) text is developed in a unique discourse context dependent on a specific purpose and written for a specific audience. For example, writing academic essays requires a different mode of discourse than writing research articles since these types of writing are aimed at creating and transmitting knowledge with specific meanings and appeal to specific readerships. Despite generic differences, however, both types of writing rely on the same basic principles of text construction.

Cohesion and coherence

Cohesion and *coherence* have frequently been addressed in L2 writing research as central to the study of written text and discourse (e.g., Basturkmen 2002; Connor 1984; de Beugrande and Dressler 1981; Halliday and Hasan 1976; Hinkel 2004; Hoey 1991; Johns 1986; Lee 2001; Nunan 1993; Phillips 1985; Seidlehofer and Widdowson 1999; Sinclair 1991; Tribble 1996; Winter 1994) — as 'two important standards that a text must meet if it is to be regarded as communicative' (de Beugrande and Dressler ibid., quoted in Hoey ibid.: 11); however, scholars have not yet fully agreed on what cohesion and coherence denote, how these aspects of textual communication can be created in written discourse, and how they contribute to the quality of writing. While both cohesion and coherence are partly overlapping in meaning and can be attained by the means used to order parts of a text, generate causal links, maintain topic continuity, determine relations among discrete units of discourse and establish connectivity between distinct parts of discourse, these two notions denote clearly distinct properties of text and discourse. Since the seminal work by Halliday and Hasan, the term cohesion has been widely accepted as a well-defined category for the analysis of text beyond the sentence level whereas the term coherence has been considerably more difficult to define and thus regarded as 'a vague, fuzzy and rather mystical notion' (Sinclair ibid.: 102).

Cohesion can be regarded as a surface feature of text that makes explicit the connectivity of ideas in sentences and paragraphs — a semantic relation realised through the lexico-grammatical system of the language (see, e.g., Basturkmen 2002; Halliday and Hasan 1976; Hinkel 2004; Hoey 1991; Lee 2001; Sinclair 1991; Winter 1994). Whereas lexical cohesion involves the recurrence of a word or item and is a 'measure of similarity /.../ assessed by looking at the lexis shared among sentences' (Hoey ibid.: 3), grammatical cohesion is clearly structural as it deals only with sentences and clause complexes and thereby 'reclassifies a previous sentence by demoting it into an element of the structure of the new sentence' (Sinclair ibid.: 22). Halliday and Hasan's (ibid.) universal list of devices of achieving cohesion in writing comprised the notions of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and relation. By now, this list has been modified to include pronouns, reference words, lexical repetitions and other logical markers as typical cohesion-building instruments (e.g., Hoey 1991; Tribble 1996). However, as these semantic and lexico-grammatical cohesive devices do not always create the relationships in a text but 'make relationships explicit' (Nunan 1993: 27), cohesion as only a reflection of coherence is not enough to produce a coherent text.

Coherence is a complex phenomenon in written discourse that entails a multitude of reader and text-based features (see, e.g., Hasan 1984; Hoey 1983, 1991; Johns 1986; Lee 2001; Phillips 1985; Winter 1994). Although coherence is most obviously reflected in cohesive ties, it is always dependent on

background knowledge and a generally accepted way of organising ideas as follows:

- a macrostructure that provides a pattern characteristic and appropriate to its communicative purpose;
- an information structure that guides the reader in understanding how information is organized and how the topic of the text is developed;
- propositional development that refers to connectivity of the underlying content evidenced by relations between propositions;
- cohesion that denotes connectivity of the surface text evidenced by the presence of cohesive ties;
- metadiscourse that helps the reader organise, interpret and evaluate information. (Lee ibid.: 33)

For a text to be coherent, the content of the discourse should have its logical progression and organisation. This can be achieved by linking the macro-structures of main ideas with the microstructures of supporting ideas with each sentence in a text related not only to its preceding and following sentences but also to the whole text. In this respect, both coherence and cohesion contribute to creating a larger organisation of a text; yet, distinct from cohesion, coherence should be considered as a discourse unity adding to textual unity rather than sentence-level connectedness and paragraph unity.

Textual unity as an important discourse phenomenon has been examined by a number of scholars (e.g., Carter 1993; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hoey 1994; Horning 1991; Lee 2001; McCarthy and Carter 1994; Trappes-Lomax 2000; Tribble 1996; White 1999; Winter 1994). Tribble (ibid.: 33) , for example, defines text unity as larger structures 'which are not directly expressed by the sequence of sentences in a text' but rather 'some underlying principle of ordering which supports coherence'. Horning addresses the organisational factors of textual unity through the concept of consistency:

a. consistency of context of situation (setting, reader, etc.);
b. consistency of function (i.e., the text is coherent when it has a purpose and when it has something to communicate);
c. consistency of discourse topic;
d. consistency of register (e.g., the Hallidayan 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode').

(Horning ibid.: 5)

In principle, text unity can be defined by two basic structural elements such as discourse structure and information structure, the former denoting schema-like patterns of structure designated as microstructure and macrostructure, and the latter guiding the reader in understanding how information is organised in the text and how the topic is developed. While microstructure represents the smallest definable unit of a text, macrostructure denotes the global components of discourse that contribute to whole text unity and coherence. Researchers have

referred to a number of descriptive frameworks relevant for the analysis of textual macro patterns and clause relations that represent the common underlying structures of different texts and text types. These frameworks include Halliday and Hasan's model of cohesion (Halliday and Hasan 1976), Gricean maxims (Grice 1975), Hoey's textual macrostructures and associated lexical patterns (Hoey 1991), Halliday's field, tenor and mode (Halliday 1989) and Leech's politeness maxims (Leech 1983, all quoted in Carter 1993: 100). The characteristic sub-patterns of discourse involve the problem-solution structure (Hoey 1994), the claim-counterclaim structure (McCarthy 1993), the hypothetical-real structure (Winter 1994) and the general-specific structure (Coulthard 1994). Besides that, there are rhetorical patterns explicitly seen in many texts, including those of comparison-contrast, cause-effect, relationships of time and process, and some others (see, e.g., Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 1987). In addition to employing the textual macro-patterns listed above, the easiest way to achieve coherence in a text is to employ the specific devices of structural cohesion such as parallelism, theme-rheme and given-new information patterns (e.g., Fries 1981; Gopen and Swan 1990; Halliday 1994).

The structural patterns of text 'organize the sharing of meaning as well as /.../ create the meaning' and enable writers to make the discourse relations of texts either implicit or explicit (Sinclair 1991: 6). In unambiguous contexts, the underlying textual pattern often remains implicit, whereas it becomes explicit when the reader's interpretation of the text is directed by lexical signals (see, e.g., Carter 1993; Hoey 1994; Tribble 1996). The potentially wide range of meanings of written discourse forms is narrowed down to specific meanings dependent on a specific genre, whereas the structure of each particular genre is created through the characteristic features of overall textual pattern, specific lexical signals, inter-clause relations, and lexical and grammatical cohesive links (Cook 1989).

Coherence can be arrived at through socio-cognitive understanding (e.g., Bublitz 1999; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Halliday and Hasan 1976; Östman 1999; Richards 1990). In this respect, a coherent text has been designed with the reader's perspective in the accepted textual form:

> Beyond the surface form, text is organized by the writer's relation to it, to the reader's assumed knowledge, and to the subject matter. Coherence as a theoretical construct in text structure refers to the underlying relations that hold between assertions (or propositions) and how these assertions contribute to the overall discourse theme (or macrostructure). (Grabe and Kaplan ibid.: 70)

This leads to another focal object of discourse analysis besides text structure — the concept of texture, which takes the social context of discourse into consideration. As defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976), texture involves cohesion and two other features of a text: syntactic redundancy (i.e., common knowledge) and semantic redundancy (i.e., the reader's prior knowledge). The above features of texture promote coherence: while cohesion comes from the

writer's language as an important agent in providing the reader orientation in the text, redundancy stems from both the writer's language and the reader's knowledge. In the words of Östman (ibid.: 78) 'text conceptualization relies primarily on [socio-culturally different] discourse patterns, and then only on genre'. With this respect, coherence may be regarded not only as a qualitative feature in the written product but also as a process of achieving textual unity at different levels of communication:

> /…/ coherence is not a state but a process, helped along by a host of interacting factors situated on all levels of communication (from prosodic variation to textual organization, from topic progression to knowledge alignment) /…/ we use coherence as a context-dependent, hearer- (or reader-) oriented and comprehension-based, interpretive notion. (Bublitz ibid.: 2)

As understanding a text is highly dependent on what knowledge the reader brings to the text, coherence can also be defined as something that the reader establishes in the process of reading connected discourse. Readers expect texts to be coherent with an orderly development of ideas, continuity and no irrelevance, and a sense of completeness (Richards 1990). Therefore, it may be assumed that the main difficulty with coherence is to discover how much is displayed in the text and how much is in the reader's mind.

One of the fundamental aspects of textual organisation that writers use to achieve their communicative goals and negotiate interactional meanings with readers is metadiscourse (e.g., Connor 1996; Crismore 1989; Crismore et al. 1993; Hyland 2005; Lautamatti 1978; Markkanen et al. 1993; Swales et al. 1998; Vande Kopple 1997, 2002; Williams 1981). Metadiscourse is applied to guide readers in the text and help them to connect, organise, interpret, evaluate and develop attitudes towards the content and the writer. In academic genres metadiscourse may contribute 'to a writer's voice which balances confidence and circumspection' (Hyland ibid.: 112); yet, for the clarity of content metadiscourse should still be used sparingly. Features of interpersonal metadiscourse (e.g., hedges, certainty markers, attitude markers, commentary, etc.) signal the author's degree of commitment to the propositional content of the text as well as politeness towards the reader, whereas the signals of textual metadiscourse (e.g., logical connectives, sequencers, etc.) reveal the organisation and intertextuality of writing and thereby contribute (e.g., by code glosses, illocution markers, etc.) to the interpretation of the text by the reader (e.g., Vande Kopple 1985, quoted in Connor 1996: 46; see also Appendix 2). Another important aspect of textual organisation is visual discourse (e.g., first impression, external skeleton, consistency, etc.) where the concept of meta-discourse 'is expanded from the textual realm to the visual realm' (Kumpf 2000: 1). Although frequently deemed irrelevant by L2 writers, visual discourse is likely to confirm 'the concept of metadiscourse as defined for the text' and therefore highly relevant in order to improve text coherence (Kumpf ibid.: 24).

Quite a number of writing experts (see, e.g., Brookes and Grundy 1990; Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 1987; Jordan 1997; Liu 2000; Marsen 2003; Oshima and Hogue 1999; White and McGovern 1994, among others[1]) have attempted to contribute to the teaching of the above discourse phenomena of writing in L2 contexts; nevertheless, these concepts are 'famously neglected' rather than addressed in instruction (Hinkel 2004: xii). The likely reason for this situation may be that so far, most ESL/EFL writing textbooks have disregarded the role of textual phenomena in L2 writing; coherence, for example, is traditionally described in rather narrow terms as connectedness between sentences, use of explicit cohesive devices at the paragraph level and use of connective devices such as pronouns, repetitive structures, and transitional markers (Lee 2001: 33). This simplified approach to discourse, however, may lead to L2 writers' producing cohesive but incoherent written texts.

Competences and knowledge bases of L2 writing

In recent years, several scholars (e.g., Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hyland 2003; Tribble 1996; White 1999) have emphasised the need for L2 writers to become aware of the various discourse strategies, competences and knowledge bases of L2 writing to be able to communicate information effectively in the English medium. The concept of communicative competence was first addressed by Halliday (1971), Hymes (1972) and Widdowson (1978); however, as the ability to negotiate meanings and conventions it was defined by Savignon (1972) and Breen and Candlin (1980). Since the concept became operational in L2 acquisition research and practice in the 90s, EFL writing pedagogy has grounded it in the theoretical framework of the utilitarian discourse system (see also p. 58) prevalent in the Anglo-American writing tradition (Pica 1995; Scollon and Scollon 1995). A model of communicative language ability was developed by Canale and Swain (1980), and elaborated by Chapelle et al. (1993) (see Appendix 3) and Savignon (1997). This model postulates the interaction of four essential competences for effective language use as follows: *discourse competence* referring to the ability to understand how texts are constructed beyond the sentence level with regard to context; *socio-cultural competence* denoting the ability to express, interpret and negotiate meanings in relation to cultural norms and expectations; *strategic competence* involving the

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[1] Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (1987) have introduced students to the topics of super-ordinates and hyponyms in writing; Brookes and Grundy (1990) have suggested that students need to be made aware of the devices through which cohesion is effected in English; White and McGovern (1994) have provided a set of guidelines for students to organise material in a written text coherently and effectively; Oshima and Hogue (1999) have introduced students to the rhetorical components of academic writing in terms of text unity, coherence and logical organisation; and Marsen (2003) has highlighted the issues of professional style and audience considerations for L2 writing classrooms.

ability to compensate for insufficient knowledge in any of the language areas; and *grammatical* (or *linguistic*) *competence* as one of the inherent components of communicative competence. Drawing on Chapelle's model, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) have introduced a model of communicative theory of writing, providing the taxonomy of academic writing skills, knowledge bases and processes involved in L2 academic writing. Though not conclusive, this taxonomy describes *discourse knowledge* and *sociolinguistic knowledge* as follows:

VII. Discourse knowledge

A. Knowledge of intrasentential and intersentential marking devices (cohesion, syntactic parallelism)
B. Knowledge of informational structuring (topic/comment, given/new, theme/rheme, adjacency pairs)
C. Knowledge of semantic relations across clauses
D. Knowledge to recognize main topics
E. Knowledge of genre structure and genre constraints
F. Knowledge of organizing schemes (top-level discourse structure)
G. Knowledge of inferencing (bridging, elaborating)
H. Awareness of differences in features of discourse structuring across languages and cultures
I. Awareness of different proficiency levels of discourse skills in different languages

VIII. Sociolinguistic knowledge

A. Functional uses of written language
B. Application and interpretable violation of Gricean maxims
C. Register and situational parameters
D. Awareness of sociolinguistic differences across languages and cultures
E. Self-awareness of roles of register and situational parameters

(Grabe and Kaplan ibid.: 221–222)

Tribble has visualised (Figure 3) four fundamental knowledge bases, including content, context, language system and writing process knowledge that L2 writers need to gain control of in composing English texts in the following circle:
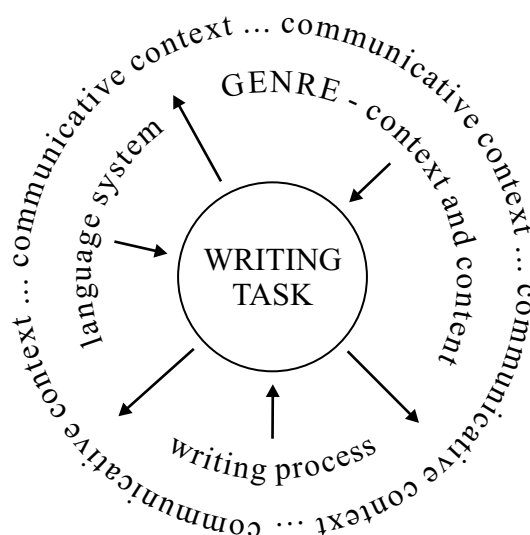
Figure 3. Knowledge bases of effective writing (Tribble 1996: 68).

As the figure suggests, the interrelation of these knowledge bases is applicable to any writing task:

> /.../ if writers know what to write in a given context, what the reader expects the text to look like in a given context, and which parts of the language system are relevant to the particular task in hand, and have a command of writing skills appropriate to this task, then they have a good chance of writing something that will be effective. (Tribble ibid.: 68)

It seems quite clear that the knowledge about genre and about the parameters in which readers will process and interpret the written text (i.e., knowledge about context and content) should be regarded as the most essential factor for effective written interaction in English (Hyland 2003). The discourse interpretation strategies that L2 writers should employ to effectively communicate with the audience include principles of pragmatics, propositional analysis, discourse coherence and cohesion, lexical choice, information management, syntactic structure, rhetorical organisation, and the types of discourse strategies used to advance a position, build an argument and refute an argument; in other words:

> /.../ the interpretation of any particular text is governed by a variety of syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic factors, that a meaning representation is much more than just the literal meanings of the words and the sentences, that both explicit and implicit information are used, that bridging assumptions are constructed, that pragmatic knowledge is exploited, that a variety of rhetorical strategies are employed, and that participants' attitudes colour interpretations. (Prideaux 1997: 3–4)

In the main, two central aspects of writing tend to distinguish L1 academic writers from L2 writers — the linguistic competence and the knowledge of L2 discourse conventions (i.e., knowledge of the readership and context-specific writing genres). While L1 writers evaluate their writing by drawing mainly on content knowledge and discourse knowledge (Leydens and Olds 2000), L2 academic writers may not always be well aware of the 'subtle but powerful role' (Frankenberg-Garcia 1990) of discourse knowledge to be able to apply it in their writing, even if they demonstrate sufficient knowledge in the English language and field-specific content. Knowledge of English discourse conventions, however, enables writers to reflect the communicative purposes of writing and its value in the specific discourse community. It seems likely that L2 writers' preference for linguistic form as opposed to meaning in discourse stems from the inadequate emphasis of current L2 writing pedagogy on different aspects of English writing, '[which] while giving priority to syntax and lexis, neglects to consider the communicative conventions of English discourse' (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 28).

Discourse and socio-cultural considerations of English academic writing

The nature of academic writing

Research into writing in the academia has generated considerable interest among writing scholars attempting to unfold the specific nature of this phenomenon (e.g., Barton 1994; Bhatia 1997; Borg 2003; Burgess 2002; Chandler 1995; Connor 1996; Dillon 1991; Dudley-Evans 1994; Flowerdew 2002; Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 1987; Hyland 2003; Johns 1997; Joliffe and Brier 1988; Jordan 1992; Leki 1999a; Mauranen 1993b; Myers 1989; Porter 1986; Scollon and Scollon 1995; Swales 1990; Tribble 1996; White 1997; White and McGovern 1994). According to Tribble, the context of English academic writing and the language use it generates can be described by two contrasting views. *The intellectual/rhetorical approach* (e.g., Hamp-Lyons and Heasley; Jordan; ibid.) relates language system knowledge to context knowledge, and favours the modes of classical rhetoric, assuming that all academic discourse has a common intellectual framework and academic context, whereas *the social/genre approach* (e.g., Dudley-Evans; Mauranen; Swales; White and McGovern; ibid.) advocates the concept of a discourse community and exploits structure and organisation, argumentation, and style as the three most important aspects of academic writing. The social/genre approach recognises writing in the academia as a crucial means of communicating scholarly knowledge within a particular discourse community that 'involves more than the generation, translation and organization of ideas'

(Connor ibid.: 18). In this view, academic writing is a socio-culturally embedded practice characterised by a number of unique features shared by members of the community, in particular, 'common goals, participatory mechanisms, information exchange, community specific genres, a highly specialised terminology and a high general level of expertise' (Swales ibid.: 29). Focused on the community-oriented features, the social/genre approach strongly emphasises the writer-reader interaction in the writing process with the writer providing the text with an accepted form and coherent structure by means of various linguistic, stylistic and rhetorical devices to facilitate the reader's interpretation of the text. In this respect, the academic discourse community may be considered as corresponding roughly to the concept of audience in rhetoric (e.g., Joliffe and Brier 1988).

Academic writing conventions and genres

Academic writing is conditioned by a range of textual and socio-cultural conventions concerning the genres of discourse, their established structure and the particular behavioural norms of the surrounding discourse community; as follows:

1. understanding of the specialist code;
2. acquisition of genre knowledge (including the rhetorical forms and content);
3. sensitivity of cognitive structuring of specialist genres;
4. proficiency in the manipulation of specialist genres.

(Bhatia 1997: 2)

Written discourse in the academia contains a wide range of fairly traditional genres (e.g., dissertation, research article, laboratory report, academic essay, etc.) and rhetorical structures (e.g., process, description, classification, summary, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, etc.). Towards entering the specific discourse community, academic writers face a variety of tasks and the genres become progressively more demanding the farther they proceed in the field. However, even a personal essay may be universally accepted as academic when it serves 'as a vehicle for academic reflection and self-expression' (Spack 1988: 32).

Genre as a socially conditioned text lends itself to full structural description (see, e.g., Bhatia 1997; Cook 1989; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Halliday and Hasan 1989; Hyland 2003; Mauranen 1993b; Swales 1990; Ventola 1987, Wennerstrom 2003, among others). Swales, for example, regards genre as the organisational pattern of written communication that defines a discourse community and Mauranen refers to genre as a social behaviour of a specific discourse community realised in written language as text. In practice, members of a discourse community develop 'schemata — sets of expectations based on

repeated experiences — for the rhetorical patterns of written genres' (Wennerstrom ibid.: 9). According to Hyland, academic genres are constructed considering all the layers of English written text organisation, including the surface structure level, the rhetorical level and the level of (scientific) assumption. Typical of any written text, genre is created through an overall textual pattern, specific lexical signals, inter-clause relations, and lexico-grammatical devices. However, an important consideration is that in shaping and conveying the message to the audience, the rhetorical level of the text has a dominant role over the surface structure level of the text. Thus, an appropriate type of academic rhetoric is required to meet the audience's expectations and achieve recognition in the discourse community.

The above commonly accepted principles of academic writing do not refer to uniform socio-cultural and disciplinary writing practices as they are developed differently within each specific context and academic discipline and by each individual writer in the discourse community. Apart from the socio-cultural preferences for academic written discourse stemming from various ways of thinking, shaped by socio-cultural phenomena such as educational, rhetorical, political and philosophical systems, there is variation also across field-specific discourse communities in terms of norms, genres and modes of writing as illustrated by the example of two genres (i.e., textbooks and research articles) in Figure 4 below. However, while certain overlapping between discourses appears, distinct conventions in regard to disciplinary knowledge and range of genres still characterise different groups of communicators. In essence, each discipline in the academy may have slightly different requirements to the written interaction of knowledge and a different kind of thinking:

> /…/ for each discipline, writing may involve examining the kinds of issues a discipline considers important, why certain methods of enquiry and not others are sanctioned, how the conventions of a discipline shape the text in that discipline, how individual writers represent themselves in a text, how texts are read and disseminated within the discipline, and how one text influences other texts. (Spack 1988: 38)

Especially at the higher level of subject expertise, clear differences are likely to occur among texts typical of specific scholarly fields; for instance, in science and technology, the prevalent writing functions are defining objects, describing processes and charts, whereas in the humanities, the standard modes are analysing and synthesising multiple sources (see, e.g., Hyland 2001).
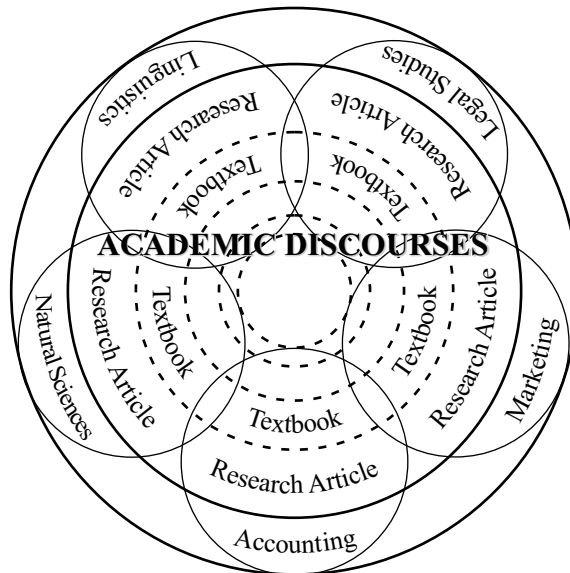
Figure 4. Variation in academic discourse (Bhatia 2002: 34).

 Writing differences among various genres in different discourse communities are manifested mostly in the functional and organisational logic of text, and the rhetorical features applied in writing (e.g., Bhatia 2002; Čmejrková 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hyland 2003; Selinker and Douglas 1989; Spack 1988; Tribble 1996; Wennerstrom 2003). While at the macro level, academic domains are likely to involve conventional patterns of argument structure, exemplification strategies, and similar others, at the micro level, certain lexico-grammatical structures are likely to occur more frequently in one discourse domain than in another. A further complication of the matter posing a problem especially to novice academic writers who are not familiar with the genre conventions yet is that no academic discipline can be considered static and uniform and its sub-disciplines may have their own set of conventions and constraints subject to change in time:

> /.../ the principles of reasoning in a discipline may change over time /.../ Formal scientific papers, then, through often considered final statements of facts, are primarily contributions to scientific debate. (Spack ibid.: 39)

Moreover, although most researchers have accepted that generic constraints on academic modes reflect social-communicative rather than linguistic regulations set by the community on its members, there appears to be some controversy in the scholarly views on these matters. The idea that language is not universally distributed across discourse communities (e.g., Grabe and Kaplan 1996) and the nature of a discourse community cannot be clearly defined (e.g., Cooper 1989)

has inspired some scholars to suggest a more universalist hypothesis of discourse communities void of any linguistic barriers (Widdowson 1996). Some researchers dispute whether there is a fixed and stable construct of academic writing even in one discipline and whether there is such a notion as 'academic discourse' to teach and to learn (Raimes 1991). As several issues regarded characteristic of the discourse community (e.g., extension, purpose, stability and discourse mode of the community; Borg 2003) have not yet been well defined, the term 'community of practice' has been adopted recently as more appropriate for the socio-cultural nature of academic written discourse (see, e.g., Johns 1997; Wenger 1998).

Despite the above discrepancies it seems likely that insofar as genre conventions of the discourse community are normative and stable, writers should adhere to those standards in order for them to be accepted as members of the community. Consequently, so as to develop appropriate communicative expertise in English academic writing, it is especially important for L2 writers to become 'empowered' (Widdowson 1996) by the specific norms of the surrounding academic community. Yet, it remains controversial whether undergraduate students as novice academic writers should be exposed to the specific norms of a discourse community or whether they should be encouraged to appropriate those norms for their own purposes (see, e.g., Borg 2003). In the light of the recent emphasis in English academic writing research to create awareness of the communicative context of writing rather than deal with the intricacies of specific discourse communities (e.g., Cooper 1989; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Johns 1997; Tribble 1996), it would be especially relevant for L2 novice academic writers to gain knowledge of the 'academic common core', characteristic of most of the discourse types in the academia.

Argumentation and style in English academic prose

The primary goal of writing within professional discourse systems is to communicate the investigated knowledge to a critical and informed audience by means of particular rhetorical strategies, a well-formulated argument and effectively presented evidence:

> /…/ all of us, as academic writers and whatever our backgrounds, are engaged with thinking about our readers' likely expectations and reactions, with deciding on what to say — about our data, and with organizing our texts in ways that meet local conventions and yet create a space for ourselves. (Swales 1990: 5)

In the social co-construction of knowledge in the Anglo-American academic writing style the application of appropriate argumentation criteria and reasoning strategies is one of the essential prerequisites for effective discourse (see, e.g., Connor 1991; Hyland 2003; Mauranen 1993b; Myers 1985; Swales 1990;

Tribble 1996; White 1997) as 'every sentence is charged with rhetorical significance' and 'the writer with the most appealing argument — often triumphs' (Myers ibid.: 220). Thus, although in essence academic writing should be deemed as highly factual, it is likewise highly rhetorical and value laden.

Academic writing in the Anglo-American style reflects the ideology of the Utilitarian discourse system (Lanham 1974; Scollon and Scollon 1995; White 1995a, 1997) described in six principles as anti-rhetorical, positive-empirical, deductive, individualistic, egalitarian and public (or institutionally sanctioned) (Scollon and Scollon ibid.) and in three attributes of clarity, brevity and commitment (i.e., 'the extent to which the writer is prepared to be accountable for the claims they make and the propositions they put forward' White 1995a: 2). Isaksson-Wikberg (1999) addresses the main principles and practices of Anglo-American argumentative writing traditions in three major theoretical approaches as follows. The traditional, logic-based approach views argument as a way to demonstrate an already existing truth by means of induction (generalising from evidence), and deduction (reasoning from general principles to a specific case) avoiding logical fallacies; the rhetorical approach sees argumentation as a knowledge-creating and knowledge-establishing activity (Higgns 1992, quoted in Isaksson-Wikberg ibid.); and finally, the analytical model of argumentation provides a scheme for analysing and evaluating arguments based on six elements: claim, data, warrant, backing, qualifier, and rebuttal (Toulmin 1958, quoted in White 1995a). Socio-culturally different argumentation criteria and reasoning strategies in different languages and lack of knowledge about the principles of argumentation in English written discourse appear to be the most common causes for L2 writers' poor argumentation in English texts.

In the academic context, the writers' ability to employ appropriate register and style in their texts plays an essential role in demonstrating their communicative competence (see, e.g., Chanell 1994; Hyland 1996; Jordan 1996; Skelton 1988; Williams 2000). The two major aspects of appropriate communicative style instrumental for L2 writers in voicing their claims and avoiding responsibility or showing tact are formality and hedging. Whereas knowledge about these important stylistic features would enable writers to increase text readability and establish the writer-reader relationship (see, e.g., Tribble 1996), lack of knowledge about these features may often be a source of pragmatic failure (e.g., Hyland 1995; Markkanen and Schröder 2000). Another important principle in English academic writing, reflecting socio-culturally different rhetorical and stylistic preferences of writing, is concerned with achieving and maintaining balance between politeness and efficiency:

> Finnish and Anglo-American preferences for rhetorical strategies seem to reflect very different notions of politeness /.../ It is likely that the typical strategy in

each culture is perceived as the positive, polite one and the untypical as the negative, impolite one. (Mauranen 1993b: 16)

In regard to Anglo-American preferences for the rhetorical strategies of politeness, White (1997: 14) quotes two sets of principles, including the Politeness Maxims (Lakoff 1973) and the Co-operative Principle (Grice 1975). In line with Lakoff's politeness principles of solidarity politeness and deference politeness, White emphasises the need for L2 writers to master both deductive and inductive strategies in intercultural communication:

> A deductive strategy is considered to be better, when the readership do not wish to assert their independence from the writer /…/ [it] is based on solidarity politeness, which emphasizes the common grounds shared by participants in a discourse. An inductive strategy is more effective when writers wish to show that they do not automatically assume that the reader will agree with their position. (White ibid.: 1)

In terms of discourse efficiency, different interpretations of Grice's maxims by writing scholars might be relevant (see, e.g., Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 1987; Perelman et al. 1998; White 1999). White (ibid.: 16) refers to 'quality, quantity, relation and manner', whereas Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (ibid.: 105) regard these notions as 'co-operative principles of 'honesty, reality, relevance and clarity' respectively. In detail, the principle of quality/honesty means that the writer is supposed to provide adequate evidence; the principle of quantity/reality indicates that the writer is expected to provide neither less nor more information than is required for meaningful interaction; the principle of relation/relevance postulates that the writer is expected to present only relevant data and the principle of manner/clarity advocates clarity. White (1995a: 6) also suggests that the overly frequent use of cautious language (i.e., politeness strategies) and the misuse of the Co-operative Principle can result in ineffective discourse, which 'contains redundancies, ambiguities and obscurities'.

In all, as the writing process and the research activity appear to be co-extensive, to be able to report knowledge in the English-medium academia and engage the target community readership in a persuasive manner, mastering academic discourse skills of English writing (and reading) is a key consideration for L2 writers' success and recognition in today's globalising academia:

> A paper is judged as a contribution to a particular field by an audience of colleagues who are potentially in a position to make use of it. If editors, referees, proposal readers, conference attendees, or journal readers regard it as original and significant, allow it to be published, cite it in their own work, and develop it further, then the writer receives the reward of recognition. (Hyland 2008: 1)

The ability to adhere to the accepted standards of written discourse, understand specialist background knowledge and use genres appropriately is a prerequisite

for the membership of the community (e.g., Fine 1988; Hyland 2003; Mauranen 1993b; Swales 1990; Tribble 1996). As the English-medium audience anticipates certain conventions regarding organisation, argumentation and style, knowledge about how information is organised and conveyed to the reader in English academic settings is instrumental for L2 writers, the more so that knowledge of discourse facilitates not only the construction but also the cognitive processing of written texts (e.g., Fine ibid.).

Socio-cultural differences of the Anglo-American and Estonian academic writing styles

As already mentioned the contemporary theoretical frameworks for L2 writing posit that not only cognitive-linguistic perspectives but also different socio-cultural norms and practices of writing in different social settings may largely affect L2 writers' target language acquisition and learning processes. Tribble (1996: 83) rightly suggests that L2 writers cannot assume that 'the way things are done in the language of one culture will correspond exactly with the way things are done by expert writers in another culture'. Therefore, to demonstrate mastery of their subject area in English-medium academic contexts, writers should communicate their knowledge to the audience according to the Anglo-American writing conventions with the appropriate academic stance.

The forms and modes of transmitting knowledge in the Estonian and English languages and cultures vary quite considerably; therefore, writing in English probably remains a challenging task even for established Estonian academics. Distinctions in the writing norms of the two cultures may partly be attributable to different approaches to writing and diverse traditions of native language writing instruction. While in the Anglo-American writing culture, an essay is a widely accepted format of assessing writers' subject knowledge and composition skills, in the Estonian context, the essay-format has so far been employed primarily for testing writers' language competence. It is important to note that Estonian students' knowledge in other subjects is traditionally examined through summary-type reference texts, which tend to focus on conveying facts rather than developing arguments.

In essence, the Estonian essay-writing practices differ from those of the Anglo-American writing tradition in many respects. For several reasons, the Estonian school-writing tradition has favoured the expository essay aimed at explaining or acquainting the reader with a body of factual knowledge. Since the primary focus of such writing lies in the content, the format of the text frequently remains quite loose. In this sense, the Estonian essay-writing tradition postulates an 'audience-free' style, where the reader is responsible for interpreting the information adequately. This contradicts the English writing tradition that favours the argumentative type of essay aimed at persuading the

specific audience, and thus requires communicative competence from the writer to convey the intended message to the readership effectively.

Based on a number of contrastive studies on L2 writing (e.g., Clyne 1987, 1991; Connor 1984; Čmejrková 1996; Hinds 1987; Mauranen 1996; Perelman, et al. 1998; Silva 1993, among others), previous research by Rummel (2005b) has established socio-culturally sensitive areas of English academic writing in which Estonian academic writers (both novice and expert) may encounter difficulty in discourse. While universally characteristic of many other L2 writers' English texts, the following features in Estonian writers' English texts reflect socio-cultural perspectives different from Anglo-American writing in regard to text organisation, argumentation and style, and audience awareness:

1. Text organisation: different organisational preferences such as
   - a looser segmental (the introduction, the discussion, the conclusion) structure;
   - less paragraphing or no paragraphing at all;
   - less explicit formal closure;
   - less rhetorical connectedness (e.g., less linking of the concluding statements to the preceding subtopics of the problem);
   - less variety and more errors in the use of conjunctive elements (e.g., different uses of cohesive markers, etc.);
2. Argumentation: different approaches to argument structuring such as
   - less adequate support for claim;
   - less effective linking of the arguments;
   - more mixed arguments (e.g., arguing for both 'for and against' or mostly for 'for');
   - more argument alternations;
   - more argument digression (e.g., the argument ending in a different direction than it began);
3. Style: different stylistic preferences such as
   - deficient structures (e.g., overloaded and over-complex sentences; sentence fragments; choppy sentences; interrupted sentences; lack of parallelism; comma splices, etc.);
   - less tentative and more personal style;
   - wordiness (e.g., unnecessary words and redundant phrases; unnecessary repetition, over-nominalisation; over-passivisation, etc.);
   - misplacement of information (e.g., in structures such as given/new; theme-rheme; general/specific, etc.);
   - register-mixing (i.e., inconsistency of diction and tone);
   - less metadiscourse (e.g., less use of interpersonal and textual devices.)
4. Audience awareness: different perspectives on reader orientation such as
   - less audience awareness (e.g., attention gaining devices, estimates of reader knowledge, etc.).

(Rummel ibid.: 51)

In principle, it is highly probable that Estonian academic writers experience the same type of hardship in English academic writing as their Finnish and German peers as the writing standards of those three communities are linguistically and/or culturally quite similar. Research on Finnish L2 academic writers (e.g., Connor 1996; Mauranen 1993b; Ventola 1996) has shown that in comparison with Anglo-American writers, Finnish writers are less successful in organising the text and orientating the reader since they employ inefficient textual rhetoric characterised by poor text organisation, inductive style of writing, absence of politeness strategies and implicit rather than explicit rhetoric. Connor, for example, has data to reveal that, from the point of the Anglo-American reader, Finnish writers do not handle thematic variation effectively, employ too few connectors and have problems with the use of pronouns and articles as reference.

Likewise, contrastive studies of English and German rhetoric (see, e.g., Clyne 1991; Kaplan and Grabe 1996) have exposed evidence for certain cross-cultural discrepancies in the textual patterns of these two writing traditions. Clyne maintains that a key difference between these discourse cultures lies in the organisational and stylistic aspects of writing as follows:

- Form orientation versus content orientation;
- Linearity versus digressiveness;
- Continuity in argumentation;
- Use of advance organisers;
- Abstractness versus concreteness of the content;
- Writer responsibility versus reader responsibility;
- Textual symmetry;
- Data integration;
- Content structure.

(Adapted from Clyne ibid.)

While the Anglo-American academic writing tradition emphasises form and postulates that texts are linear and have advance organisers to facilitate reading, the German academic writing style seems to prioritise content. While the English writing tradition favours linear structure and a certain development of superstructures in the text, the German writing style favours interruptions and digression. When compared to native English speakers who write deductively, German writers are reported to write inductively, employing the strategy of introducing key elements relatively late in the text. The inductive style of writing, however, may result 'in the feeling of vagueness and indirectness in a native English reader' (Connor 1996: 50). English academic texts can be said to be precise and plain to the extent that they are even 'closer to non-academic ones' (Čmejrková 1996: 144). In maintaining the learned style of writing, the role of diction and tone is considered highly important in English texts, while in

German texts this aim can be achieved by the use of complex syntactic structures (Clyne 1991).

Since Estonian and German discourse cultures appear to be related, it can be assumed that Estonian writers' problems in English academic writing are comparable to those of German writers. Indeed, the Estonian academic writing style tends to emphasise content over form and favours digression, textual asymmetry and discontinuity of argument. One has to agree with Laane (1997) that the Estonian academic writing style may be characterised by a frequent use of nominalisations, agentless passives, impersonal constructions, and over-loaded phrases. Another typical feature of this style is toleration for multiple standpoints, the delaying of purpose and vagueness.

Clyne (1987) believes that the cross-cultural differences between languages reveal diverse attitudes towards the communicative aspect of writer-reader relationship in discourse. A prominent feature in the Anglo-American writing culture is the writer's role in making the text clearly understandable to the reader. The underlying concept of reader expectation is most immediately evident at the level of largest units of discourse:

> Native speakers of English expect writing to be hierarchically organized, with explicit connections between ideas and direct statements, and with original content. (Leki 1992, quoted in Weigle 2002: 21)

English academic writers are expected to show their audience the formal structure of the text, clearly indicating the divisions and sections such as, for example, introduction, purpose, method, results, discussion and conclusion in the research article. This type of patterning is less likely to appear in Estonian academic writing, where the macrostructure of the text is exposed by internal theme development rather than external factors. The Estonian writer's emphasis in text construction is on providing the reader with knowledge and theory rather than facilitating reading. Following Hind's classification (1987), Estonian can be considered a reader-responsible language in contrast to English that is a writer-responsible language. It should be noted here that the aspect of responsibility seems to be an intriguing issue for L2 writing research. While some discourse analysts (e.g., Čmejrková 1996; Mauranen 1993b; Ventola 1991) argue for reader-responsibility as an asset rather than a demerit, most researchers (e.g., Hayes 1996; Weigle 2002) regard reader-responsibility as a demerit from a point of view of the Anglo-American reader. Hayes (ibid., quoted in Weigle 2002: 22) believes that the textual quality of writing affects the native reader's representation of the writer's persona as well, admitting that 'it is a short step from perceiving a text as incoherent to perceiving the writer as somehow being deficient as well'. Weigle seems to imply that an English-speaking reader 'is apt to find the writing difficult to read, poorly organized, or excessively vague' (ibid.: 22) if the L2 writer comes from a reader-responsible culture.

In sum, as the Anglo-American and Estonian academic writing conventions differ quite significantly, Estonian academic writers' likely preferences for the traditional schemata of the Estonian writing style in English texts may hinder their success in the target discourse community. The first stage for Estonian writers in acquiring an effective and readable academic writing style in English is to gain awareness of the textually and socio-culturally different writing standards and factors that contribute to quality in Anglo-American writing. This aim is likely to be achieved through discourse-oriented instruction of writing.

Perspectives for discourse-oriented L2 academic writing pedagogy

Writing as communication

As stated earlier, most writing experts acknowledge that L2 academic writing pedagogy should essentially be concerned with the communicative aspects of English to inspire writers to use the language more effectively in real-world interaction (e.g., Brown 1994; Ferris and Hedgcock 1998; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hyland 2003; Johns 1990; Nunan 1989, 1991; Raimes 1991; Swales 1990; Widdowson 1996). The key pedagogical principles of the communicative approach include the presentation of language forms in context and the importance of 'genuine communication' (Beale 2002: 3). The traditional L2 writing pedagogy, by contrast, almost entirely neglects the concept of writing as a communicative act and gives prominence to the teaching of writing as characterised by linguistically correct sentences. Focus on the meaning of writing rather than form has further emphasised the need in L2 instruction to compensate for the shortcomings of traditional instructional paradigms and synthesise different writing orientations, pedagogical approaches and classroom procedures in order to integrate all aspects of writing and achieve the desired result for L2 writers (see, e.g., Badger and White 2000; Ferris 2004; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hoey 2000; Hyland 2003; Raimes 1991).

In principle, the instructional theories and approaches to L2 writing pedagogy differ from each other mostly in the way they relate to the four inherent components of writing: the writer, the reader, the text and the context. While controlled composition highlights the syntactic and lexical aspects of a written text, current traditional rhetoric focuses on the discourse-level text structures. While the process approach gives prominence to the composing stages the writer is involved in, the social-constructionist approach accentuates the academic discourse community. From another perspective, while the traditional grammar approach and the discourse analysis approach both deal with a written text as a product, the cognitive approach is mostly concerned with writing as a process. The socio-linguistic approach, in turn, views text as

writer-reader interaction in the context-specific genre. It seems clear that to serve the communicative purpose of discourse (e.g., Bruton 2005; Hyland 2003; Ortega 2004), the unique procedures and techniques of each of the above developments should be interrelated with L2 writing theory, research and practice in a specific teaching-learning context or 'curriculum option' (Hyland ibid.). In order to regard writing as communication, an ideal EAP writing syllabus should combine the product, the process, the social context and the content matter in a meaningful whole with all its perspectives and constraints (e.g., Grabe 2001; Raimes 1991; Silva 1990).

The discourse-oriented approach to teaching
L2 academic writing in the Estonian context

The following overview is designed to present the research principles and methodological practices drawn from the above writing theory as most applicable to teaching the discoursal and socio-cultural aspects of English writing in the tertiary context of Estonia. The rapidly changing needs of university students and academics in Estonia for more effective skills in English written discourse would require from the curriculum designers and instructors the introduction of a more complex L2 academic writing pedagogy, which would reflect the increasing focus on the purpose of writing and the writer-reader relationship in communication. There are a number of considerations to bear in mind in teaching EAP writing to Estonian students. First of all, writers need to be made knowledgeable about the communicative purpose of writing and the importance of writer-reader relationship in effective interaction. Apart from that writers should be familiarised with the different knowledge bases of writing and discourse strategies for the production and interpretation of English texts. In other words, writers would need to know what constitutes English written text as a product with its linguistic, discourse, and textual charac-teristics, and communicative functions. It is likewise important in instruction to view writing as a process through which a quality English text is produced, received and interpreted by the target readership. Based on the above, this doctoral research insists on the need for EAP writing instruction to combine different developments and approaches of L2 writing in order for students to achieve the communicative purpose of writing. In line with this, the context-specific instructional paradigm of the research is organised around discourse, the communicative purpose of writing, the socio-cultural and rhetorical phenomena in English writing, and written text as a product of the writing process. The integration of these perspectives in teaching English writing to Estonian students is likely to contribute to students' understanding of writing as a mode of communication.

The discourse-oriented approach to teaching English academic writing can be referred to as learner-centred, cooperative, content-based, task-based, and

using whole language (e.g., Brown 1994). This approach to teaching writing fosters learning to communicate through authentic interaction in the language. Thus, it can be argued that discourse-oriented methodology not only provides students with an improved knowledge of the English language, English written text construction principles and writing processes, but by employing authentic real-life texts and materials, it also encourages writers to learn about the socio-cultural differences between the languages and contexts. Focus on discourse in teaching L2 students how to write effective texts can be expected to enable writers to relate their classroom practices to further real-life use of English.

The development of the knowledge bases (i.e., *content, system, process, genre* and *context knowledge*) to achieve the communicative purpose of writing can be best attained through task-based writing activities, in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome and thereby are encouraged to notice particular features of the target text. Hyland (2003: 113) suggests that the 'pedagogic tasks' should be designed on the basis of 'metacommunicative criteria' to promote discrete skills and to improve students' competencies of writing required to accomplish 'real-world tasks'. Even though writing is an individualist, highly cognitive and largely non-social activity in that 'the writer is alone and may not know his audience' (Atkinson 2003: 10), in task-based activities discourse is constructed socially with different contributions from different learners (e.g., Bruton 2005). Owing to this the task-based approach to L2 writing pedagogy can be considered one of the most essential components of communicative language teaching and learning (e.g., Kumaravadivelu 1994). The real value of task-based activities is that they enable novice writers to minimise the state of linguistic uncertainty and contribute to their acquisition of communicative writing strategies.

Integrated skills

As real communication involves a combination of various language skills, recent research into L2 writing pedagogy advocates the whole-language approach to acquiring communicative competence in written English. By nature, discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction incorporates teaching the traditional language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing in a communicative context (e.g., Bruton 2005; Dawson 2002; Finocchario and Brumfit 1983; Lewis 2007). Dawson (ibid.: 12) believes that awareness of how these skills are interconnected in communication can lead to 'increased student motivation and its attendant benefits' in the acquisition and use of real world English. Many scholars contend that L2 writers should, first and foremost, be considered as readers and advocate for the integration of reading and writing instruction (Carson and Leki 1993; Coe 1987; Cumming 2006; Eisterhold 1990; Gee 2000; Grabe 2001; Hirvela 2004; Horning 1991; Hyland 2003; Johns 1997;

Kamil et al. 2000; Krashen 1984, 1993; Langan 1987; Leki 1992, 1993; Liu 2000; Micek 1994; Spack 1988).

Written discourse analysis

Many of the problems with coherence and text unity in L2 student writing may be attributed to their not knowing how to organise text or how to store the relevant information. Evidence suggests that effective written interaction can be established when L2 learners are aware of the regular textual and lexical elements of discourse (see, e.g., Bazerman and Prior 2004; Brown and Yule 1983; Coulthard 1994; Crewe 1990; Crystal 1992; de Beaugrande 1997; Hadley 1995; Hoey 1994; Hyland 2003; Lemke 2003; McCarthy 1993; Prideaux 1997; Swales 1990; Wennerstrom 2003; Winter 1994). On these grounds, EAP writing instruction should incorporate written discourse analysis to highlight larger discourse segments (i.e., paragraphs and whole texts) rather than concentrate only on smaller textual units (i.e., words or sentences). Written discourse analysis focuses on teaching text as communication 'constituting a coherent unit' beyond the sentence level (Crystal ibid.: 25).

Text analysis appears to be a valuable method for L2 learners as it allows them to evaluate, for example, how lexical features such as textual patterns (e.g., Coulthard 1994; Hoey 1994; McCarthy 1993) and signalling devices (e.g., Crewe 1990; Hoey 1991; Millward 2005; Thornbury 1997) organise an English written text. Focusing on the patterning of the whole text (e.g., cause-effect, problem-solution, etc.) and within the text (e.g., definitions, examples, instructions, etc.), learners could recognise and employ various textual patterns of development and thus process and produce text more efficiently. Written text organisation at both the sentence and the text level is important for effective communication of meaning, and ultimately, for the quality of the written product (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987); the techniques of written discourse analysis may help L2 academic writers to focus on the meaning of text and thus communicate their ideas more fluently to the English readership:

> /.../ with discourse analysis research attention is typically focused on /…/ texts and on the roles and strategies of the /…/ writers and the /…/ readers who participate in that text. (Prideaux 1997: 4)

As the English written text is organised into various types of patterns, both *top-down* and *bottom-up* approaches to analysing the text are required:

> /…/ it needs to consistently reconcile analyses that begin from the smallest unit of meaning (normally phrases and clauses) and look for how these aggregate together into larger units, with analyses that begin from the largest units (normally /…/ genres and their stages and look for how these are composed of functional constituents. (Lemke 2003: 6)

Some writing scholars (e.g., Jordan 1992) favour the bottom-up approach, a presentation-practice production model, where students progress from the writing activity to text. This approach may be useful at lower levels of L2 proficiency as 'students are given a secure and systematic means of controlling a set of rhetorical modes, and they can work with the materials independently in a controlled way' (Tribble 1996: 94). However, as text production at lower levels may not ultimately transfer to higher levels of text organisation, most scholars (e.g., Tribble ibid.; White and McGovern 1994) advocate the top-down genre approach, which moving from text to writing activity focuses on discourse organisation, helping learners 'to match language use to communicative purposes, requiring discussion, investigation and the discovery of rules of patterns'. As this approach 'allows for integration between the level of argumentation and the higher level of text organization' (Tribble ibid.: 95), it may be rewarding for students with varied L2 proficiency.

Finally, although the concept of written discourse analysis may be criticised for dealing with the characteristics of text rather than the writing process (e.g., O'Banion 1982), this method offers a new perspective for L2 writing pedagogy on processing the target language.

Authentic context and task relevance

Effective academic writing in English requires authentic context composed of four elements — *audience, author, text,* and *socio-cultural context* (e.g., Kinneavy 1971). In the rhetorical situation of writing, the reader-writer interaction leads to an authentic communicative purpose for discourse. Kinneavy's analysis of written discourse can be highly significant for L2 academic writing pedagogy in designing authentic writing assignments. It might also be a useful heuristic for L2 writers even if it is aimed merely at providing students with academic practice. Apart from enabling writers to identify the elements of academic written discourse, this theory also helps them to establish the aim of the discourse (e.g., expressive, exploratory, informative, scientific, literary and persuasive). Despite some criticism on Kinneavy's model as being static and failing to account for the rhetorical choices and composing processes in writing (e.g., O'Banion 1982), it appears to be a valuable tool that motivates learners to compose significant writing within an 'authentic' discourse context.

Several writing experts (e.g., Hyland 2003; Soles 2006) have argued for the pedagogical value of the five-paragraph essay as the main instructional genre for L2 academic writing instruction; however, novice academic writers may feel that the sample texts and the writing activities that they are supposed to carry out for that purpose are distant from their immediate or target interests and needs. Indeed, in real academic contexts, writers would be more likely to be producing more extensive pieces of text such as research articles for publication or grant proposals rather than snippets of text or short essays. Nevertheless, even though the essay genre does not represent the more complex academic

genres, mastery of the essay genre 'enables comprehension and generation of a multitude of different more complex text types facilitating students' entry to academic discourse communities' (Hyland 2003: 1) An important aspect here is to 'have students work with texts that are meaningful to them' (e.g., authentic peer-written texts) not only with non-authentic exercises from course books (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 32).

Authentic model texts

The communicative approach to teaching writing has altered the traditional concept of models as a valid means of developing L2 students writing ability. While some scholars (e.g., Pica 1986; Taylor 1981; Watson 1982) seem to question the use of models in L2 writing instruction altogether, there are others (e.g., Harwood 2000; Hyland 2003; White 1988) who maintain that contextualised models still provide students with a 'reliable genre schema to prepare them effectively for authentic writing situations' (Hyland ibid.: 127) and are therefore 'to be drawn upon as a resource rather than to be mimicked' (White ibid.: 7). Authentic models can contribute to the teaching of English discourse to L2 writers since they can provide them with knowledge about English rhetorical structures that, due to cross-cultural differences, may otherwise be difficult for learners to master (see, e.g., Stolarek 1994). Not only can authentic models encourage L2 writers to produce acceptable academic prose in English but models can also enable writers to understand and interpret English written texts better:

> /…/ a model serves an initial basis for students to elicit the framework of theoretical structures and stylistic characteristics of a particular discourse or even language forms, or content for that matter, and later for producing a parallel piece of writing. (Pilus 1993: 4)

Consequently, L2 writers should be presented with authentic models of both coherent and incoherent texts to introduce them to the underlying basics of English written text.

Sequencing writing assignments

The concept of sequencing writing assignments provides a coherent framework for an EAP writing course as closely related writing techniques and strategies help students to develop both cognitive and rhetorical abilities of English discourse (see, e.g., Hall 1999; Kiniry and Strenski 1985). In this sense, a coherent writing programme enables students to perceive the communicative purpose in their writing rather than see the writing exercises as isolated pedagogical tasks. In this kind of programme, students complete a series of smaller writing assignments, gradually building to more complex ones. Furthermore, the recursive nature of sequencing encourages students 'to return

again and again to bolster and build upon earlier skills' (Hall ibid.: 1). Kiniry and Strenski see the benefits of sequencing as follows:

> Moving through a sequence of writing assignments over the course of the semester we discover that we are moving not only forwards but circularly backwards, reinforcing and recouping our previous gains as we call upon the earlier writing strategies in service of the later ones. In its system of repetitions, gradations, and recursions, a sequence /.../ encourages students to develop a few basic /.../ strategies for approaching a multiplicity of university materials boldly and attentively (Kiniry and Strenski ibid.: 201–202).

Another aspect of sequencing in genre-oriented communicative language learning is that it draws on Bruner's (1986, adopted from Vygotsky 1978) ideas of scaffolding that Hyland (2003: 21) has described as a teaching-learning cycle of 'contextualizing-modeling-negotatiating-constructing' (shown in Figure 5) with learners engaged with tasks that are within their Zone of Proximal Development. This teacher-assisted and peer-evaluated technique involves writing activities for genre familiarization, model analysis and controlled composition. At the beginning of the learning cycle, L2 writers are introduced to the ways information and arguments are presented in English, and provided with knowledge for organising information and attending to conventions. In further independent text construction activities, students are encouraged to show their knowledge of text organising principles and practice their writing skills in fulfilling complex writing tasks. While fairly common in any communicative teaching-learning context, in a genre-based EAP writing course, these activities can be used to extend learners' 'awareness of the genre to existing knowledge' (Bradford-Watts 2003).
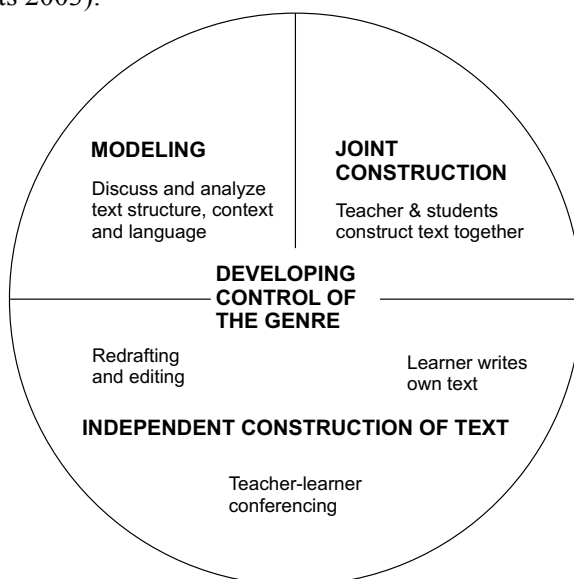
Figure 5. The teaching learning cycle (Hyland 2003: 21).

Writing frequency: Practice and experience

Composing a written academic text in English is an extremely time-consuming effort for L2 writers, which would require a lot of practice and experience. Indeed, whereas 'writers do not learn to write only by writing, they cannot learn to write without writing' (Hyland 2003: 132). However, practice in writing per se without proper instruction will not increase learners' communicative proficiency in writing (see, e.g., Bean 2001; Flower 1998; Krashen 1984; Leki 2003; Myles 2002; Zamel 1976). For example, Myles (ibid.: 14) believes that although practice may improve fluency, errors that are not drawn attention to and corrected can become 'ingrained or fossilized' in L2 student writing. Furthermore, as Leki (ibid.: 3) maintains, extended practice in writing cannot be equalled with writing experience: while *practice* means focusing on some isolated feature of the written text or writing process, *experience* is holistic, 'encompassing the whole enterprise and entailing a purpose beyond practicing writing in the writing class'. In order to enhance L2 writers' composing skills and enable them to gain experience in writing, they should be provided with opportunities to write in the communicative context under the guidance and support from the language teacher.

Collaborative learning

Several researchers (e.g., Davies 1993; Johnson, Johnson, and Smith 1991) have reported that students acquire language best when they are actively involved in the process of interaction. From that perspective, collaborative learning (Nunan 1993; Vygotsky 1978) should be an integral element of any EAP writing curriculum as an authentic communicative activity contributing to L2 writers' social interaction skills and the communicative quality of their English written texts. Collaborative learning provides opportunities for novice academic writers to use and improve language in an individual manner and thus increase their motivation (e.g., Nunan ibid.); more importantly, however, it provides opportunities for writers to practice the English language skills in a meaningful communicative context. As a problem-solving device for a number of pre-writing, writing process and post-writing activities, collaborative learning is likely to empower L2 writers to go beyond sentence-level discourse and thereby raise their awareness of the audience and the purpose of writing.

A valid strategy of collaborative learning is *peer response* that could encourage L2 writers to enhance the quality of their English written texts. On principle, peer critique can be considered an essential part of each academic writer's progress, offering a forum where writers' ideas are tested against the careful and critical thinking of others (see, e.g., Hall 1999). By analysing peer texts and giving feedback to them, L2 writers will develop a wider perspective on the writing process in English; by receiving critical response from their peers, L2 writers will be able to reflect on the communicative weaknesses in their writing. Clearly, a precondition for success in the collaborative method

approach to teaching L2 writing is the encouraging instructional atmosphere so that students would be comfortable critiquing each other's written work. A noteworthy aspect is that while students regard peer response on the content of their writing to be 'potentially constructive' (Bruton 2005) in L2 instruction, linguistically, they prefer response from their teacher rather than from their peers.

Discourse evaluation strategies: Self-evaluation and teacher response

L2 writers should be encouraged to be 'critical of their own work and /…/ trained to make judgements on whether they have successfully communicated their ideas or not' (Pilus 1993: 8). Self-revision is a cognitively demanding task for L2 students since it involves not only 'task definition, evaluation, strategy selection, and modification of text in the writing plan, but also the ability of students to analyze and evaluate the feedback they receive on their writing' (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 187). Before a written text is complete, L2 writers should continuously improve and modify their initial drafts, which according to Frankenberg-Garcia (1990: 9), 'might enable L2 writers to bridge the gap between a deliberate awareness and a more spontaneous use of L2 discourse conventions'.

An important aspect in the evaluation of L2 student writing is *teacher response* that can significantly affect the learners' development as competent academic writers (see, e.g., Kasper 2001). It is well known that in text revision, L2 writers tend to focus too heavily on editing the linguistic features of writing thus neglecting the global text-level revising issues. However, according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 293), if attention to linguistic errors in evaluating L2 writers' texts becomes 'the totality of the response, then language, discourse and text are equated with structure'. As a result, L2 writers may acquire a deficient knowledge of how the target language functions in real life academic settings. With regard to the communicative student-centred EAP writing instruction, some scholars (e.g., Raimes 1983a; Robb, Ross, and Shortreed 1986) seem to encourage revision and writing without or with minimal teacher intervention. They argue that detailed feedback on sentence level grammar and syntax may not be beneficial for L2 writers since improvement in these areas can be gained by writing practice alone. By contrast, some other researchers (e.g., Fathman and Whalley 1990) believe that students can significantly improve their texts when teacher feedback is provided, even though they admit that 'rewriting is worthwhile and teacher invention is always not necessary'. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) suggest that in order for L2 writing instructors to enhance academic writers' communicative competence, their comments on students' written text should address global rather than surface conventions of English text construction. They insist that teacher response should offer the L2 writer positive support rather than

'overwhelm the student with the sense of failure' and ask for clarification rather than 'point at ambiguities' (Grabe and Kaplan ibid.: 394). On balance, to raise the communicative quality of L2 writers' English written texts, writing instructors should provide feedback on the content and rhetoric of student writing and minimise attention to surface-level linguistic errors.

To conclude, the theoretical and methodological principles of L2 writing addressed in this chapter provided a basis for the development of a two-phase empirical study (2004–2008) into English academic writing by Estonian undergraduate students (Chapter 2) and for the design of an experimental discourse-oriented EAP writing module at the Tallinn University of Technology. In the design of the writing syllabus (Chapter 3), various pedagogical methods and instructional techniques of L1 and L2 writing were combined so that the instruction would prove most effective for the development of students' communicative competence in English. The practical application of the syllabus and the efficacy of discourse-oriented instruction will be discussed in more detail in Chapters 3–5.

CHAPTER 2:
AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

The aim of the research

This chapter provides an overview of a two-phase empirical study (Phase I 2004–2005; Phase II 2006–2008) into the English academic writing of students from three tertiary-level educational settings of Estonia — the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT), the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities (EAC) and the Estonian Information Technology College (ITC). The research was performed in two test samples (TS1 of TUT and TS2 of TUT) and two control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC) with 73 subjects specialising in different disciplines. The aim of the study was to examine Estonian novice academic writers' English text-composing skills and practices, and to explore whether discourse-oriented writing instruction could improve their communicative competence in English.

Prior to this research, a pilot study was conducted at TUT (2000–2002) involving 45 undergraduate students of information technology and engineering. Results of the pilot study proved to be crucial in evaluating the reliability and validity of the research instruments (e.g., pre-course and post-course questionnaires) and in determining the format and content of a discourse-oriented EAP writing syllabus.

The first phase of the research (2004–2005) was aimed at investigating how knowledgeable Estonian writers are about the Anglo-American academic writing conventions and how effective they are in English written discourse (see Rummel 2005b). The research attempted to map specific problems in Estonian writers' English texts, and identify the aspects of writing that are likely to be affected by Estonian cultural and language conventions. The primary goal of the first phase of the study was to clarify Estonian academic writers' behaviours and needs in the English-medium written interaction in order to upgrade EAP writing instruction in Estonia and provide writers with the knowledge and skills necessary for them to improve the quality of their English texts.

Based on the findings of the first phase of the research, the following conclusions can be highlighted (Rummel 2005b):

1. Estonian academic writers identify English writing competence with the mastery of grammar and lexis and consider those attributes of writing as the most important prerequisites for effective English written discourse;
2. Estonian academic writers lack competence in the textual and socio-cultural aspects of Anglo-American written discourse. Even though writers have a sufficiently high linguistic competence in English, they may not have the communicative competence necessary to produce quality academic texts.

3. EFL writing instruction in Estonia is still heavily focused on developing students' linguistic competence of grammar and lexis, whereas the discoursal, rhetorical and socio-cultural aspects of Anglo-American writing are not adequately addressed.

Drawing on the above conclusions, the second phase of the experimental study was initiated in 2006. The aim was to investigate whether the discourse-oriented approach to teaching EAP writing could enhance Estonian academic writers' English composing skills and enable them to produce texts acceptable for the English-medium audiences. The results obtained from the second phase of the study make up the core of this doctoral research; however, to provide a coherent overview of the research activities conducted throughout 2004–2008, this survey attempts to partly combine and document the data regarding both phases of the study.

Hypotheses

Three main hypotheses were formulated and tested in the research as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Discourse-oriented EAP/ESP writing instruction with emphasis on the communicative aspects of interaction could inform Estonian undergraduate students of the significance of writing as an important mode of transforming knowledge to the intended audiences. Whereas Estonian students have traditionally prioritised interaction in the oral mode of English, focus on the communicative aspects of writing would enable them to recognise the value of effective writing skills in their future academic careers.

Hypothesis 2: Discourse-oriented EAP/ESP writing instruction could raise Estonian writers' awareness of the Anglo-American academic writing conventions. This knowledge would enable writers to improve the quality of their English texts and produce internationally acceptable discourse. Enhancement of Estonian writers' English text composing skills cannot be achieved by merely employing the traditional lexico-grammatical approach to L2 instruction.

Hypothesis 3: Discourse-oriented EAP/ESP writing instruction may be increasingly effective with writers at higher levels of English language ability. More importantly, however, such instruction at the early stages of L2 acquisition could enable learners to focus their attention on the global principles of writing already at the lower level of English proficiency.

In order to explore the validity of the above hypotheses, the following research questions were addressed:

- How effective is discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction in raising Estonian students' awareness of writing as a crucial skill for communication?

- How effective is discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction in the enhancement of the communicative quality of Estonian students' English texts?
- At what level of L2 proficiency should discourse-oriented teaching of English writing be introduced to learners in order for it to be effective?
- What amount of discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction could provide Estonian students with the skills necessary for them to achieve the desired effect in the English-medium academic context?
- What aspects of writing should be highlighted in teaching English academic writing to Estonian students? How should students be trained to be able to produce coherent English texts?

The study setting

The two-phase study (2004–2008) into Estonian novice academic writers' competences and practices in English was conducted in three tertiary-level educational settings of Estonia: the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT), the Educational Advising Center of the North American Universities (EAC) and the Estonian Information Technology College (ITC). The study involved five EAP/ESP instructors from several tertiary institutions of Estonia as expert readers of student experimental texts.

The aim of the study was to analyse Estonian students' competences and practices in English academic writing, investigate the effectiveness of the experimental discourse-oriented EAP writing module at TUT, and test some of its working principles in different educational and administrative settings. The students were examined by means of different qualitative research instruments in two test samples (TS1 of TUT and TS2 of TUT) and two control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC). Based on student performance on the institutionally administered English language placement test, the subjects were streamed into two L2 proficiency-level groups — Level B2 and Level C1 in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR; Appendix 4 presents the description of the competences at CEFR levels). The rationale for investigating students at two different levels of L2 proficiency was to find out whether a higher level of English competence would guarantee an increased ability of English writing and whether the discoursal and socio-cultural aspects of writing could and should be taught already at a lower level of L2 proficiency at an earlier stage of language acquisition.

Empirical data for the study were collected over a period of six consecutive academic semesters in two phases (Phase I 2004–2005; Phase II 2006–2008) by the following qualitative research instruments:

Phase I (2004–2005)
- Test Sample 1 of TUT (TS1): student L2 writing competences and practices. Integrated-skills EAP course, incorporating the experimental EAP writing module (see Appendix 5 for the Syllabus);
- student pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (Appendix 6);
- student post-course evaluation questionnaires (Appendices 8–9);
- written discourse analysis of student pre-course experimental texts (the findings discussed in Rummel 2005b).

Phase II (2006–2008)
- Test Sample 2 of TUT (TS2): student L2 writing competences and practices. Integrated-skills EAP course, incorporating the experimental EAP writing module (see Appendix 5 for the Syllabus);
- Control Sample of EAC (CS of EAC): student L2 writing competences and practices. Integrated-skills EAP course, incorporating a short seminar on discourse-oriented writing;
- Control Sample of ITC (CS of ITC): student L2 writing competences and practices. Integrated-skills ESP course;
- student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires (see Appendices 6–7);
- student post-course evaluation questionnaires (see Appendices 8–11);
- expert evaluation of student pre-course and post-course texts (across the samples);
- Student's t-test analysis of expert evaluation data.

Method

Sample

The empirical study involved tertiary students as novice academic writers and EAP/ESP instructors as expert readers of student experimental texts. The student sample was composed of 73 subjects examined throughout 2004–2008 in two test samples and two control samples. While the first phase of the study (2004–2005) explored the target group of undergraduate students of TUT (Test Sample 1), the second phase of the study (2006–2008) examined three different populations of learners, including students of TUT (Test Sample 2), EAC (Control Sample of EAC) and ITC (Control Sample of ITC). Test Sample 1 of TUT (TS1) comprised 23 subjects (Level B2: 12; Level C1: 11) and Test Sample 2 of TUT (TS2) 13 subjects (Level B2: 7; Level C1: 6). Control Sample of EAC (CS of EAC) involved 19 subjects (Level B1: 1; Level B1/B2: 1; Level B2: 8; Level B2/C1: 2; Level C1: 7) and Control Sample of ITC (CS of ITC) 18 students (Level B1: 1, Level B2: 7; Level C1: 10). As can be seen, the second phase of the study recruited a larger and more varied sample of subjects (N = 50) than the first stage of the research (N = 23). An important consideration is that although the samples were fairly similar with regard to the subjects' age,

the level of education and L1 literacy, these populations were clearly distinguishable by the learners' specific needs for English academic writing and by the instructional methods of writing provided to them. The test subjects of TUT were exposed to discourse-oriented writing instruction throughout the experimental integrated-skills EAP course. In contrast, the control subjects of EAC were taught under traditional L2 instructional methods and only briefly introduced to discourse-based writing, and the control subjects of ITC were delivered a fairly traditional ESP course. The students' exposure to different methods of EAP/ESP writing instruction was driven also by the institution-specific requirements.

In order to conduct assessment of the students' pre-course and post-course experimental texts from an independent position, five expert readers — EAP/ESP instructors from various tertiary settings of Estonia — were included in the study. The rationale for conducting expert evaluation of student texts was to investigate whether discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing had any effect on the students' communicative competence in English. The data were obtained through Student's t-test analysis of the ratings provided by experts to student pre-course and post-course experimental texts in six attributes of writing: *grammar, mechanical accuracy, vocabulary, organisation, content* and *style*[1]. The analysis involved a nearly equal number of sample texts selected at random from both the test samples (TS1 and TS2) and the control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC).

Student sample

The test sample

Test Sample 1 (TS1) and Test Sample 2 (TS2): The undergraduate students of the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT)

The test sample was composed of two groups of undergraduate students of TUT (TS1 and TS2) investigated at two levels of L2 proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1) in the integrated-skills EAP course in 2004–2008. The experimental integrated-skills EAP course was designed to incorporate a discourse-oriented EAP writing module, specifically tailored to develop the students' communicative competence of English academic writing. The data for the test sample were gained through a number of research measures, including the pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (Appendix 6) and the post-course evaluation questionnaires (Appendices 8–9), written discourse analyses of student pre-course written texts (TS1; see Rummel 2005b), and expert evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts.

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[1] The same aspects of writing in the students' essays were assessed at the EAP Final Examination Writing Test of TUT (see Appendix 12).

English for Academic Purposes instruction at TUT

The English faculty of TUT have implemented two English courses for undergraduate students, namely, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Course and English for Academic Purposes Preparation Course (PEAP). These courses are targeted at enhancing students' English academic literacy skills in order to make them eligible for graduation.

The EAP course is an institutionally administered integrated-skills English programme, the primary objective of which is to cater for students' present or target academic needs, and provide them with the foundation for English-medium academic discourse. This credit-yielding compulsory course for second-year students runs over a 16-week semester for a total of 40 academic hours and concludes with an in-house EAP Final Examination. The prerequisite for enrolment in the EAP course is the minimum score of 51% at the in-house placement test[1].

To be eligible for graduation, all undergraduate students of TUT are required to participate in the EAP course and after its completion pass the EAP Final Examination. Upon completion of the course each student is awarded a progress mark ('5' – excellent; '0' – failure) for active participation and linguistic advancement in the course. The Final Examination provides students an equally weighted assessment of English academic literacy skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing (25% each) based on which students are awarded a final mark ('5' – excellent; '0' – failure). If the examination mark remains between two values, the course progress mark can contribute towards its higher value. This factor motivates students to participate in the EAP course and earn good progress marks for learning.

The EAP Final Examination Writing Test requires students to compose a 45-minute first draft sample of a 200-word argumentative text on one of the two topics assigned by the examination board. Student scripts are scored on an institutionally devised five-point analytic rating scale (see Appendix 12) in regard to writers' proficiency of grammar, mechanical accuracy, vocabulary, organisation, content and style. Each examination script is rated independently by two English faculty members of TUT; in case considerable discrepancies occur in these ratings, the essay is handled by a third reader.

Prior to embarking on the EAP course, second-year students can opt for a 40-hour preparation course for EAP (PEAP) geared towards developing learners' overall skills of English. As a rule, approximately half of the students subscribe for the PEAP course to be able to improve their English skills and thus conform better to the standards set by the academic curriculum and the

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[1] In TS1 (2004–2005), the prerequisite for enrolment in the EAP course was the minimum score of 75% at Nelson Placement Test (a paper-based diagnostic proficiency test of English with the highest score of 125 points). The in-house placement measure adopted in TS2 (2006) was a modified version of Nelson Placement Test with the highest score of 100 points.

EAP Final Examination. As language instruction at TUT is conducted in L2 proficiency groups, PEAP courses attract quite a large population of advanced L2 learners as well. A likely reason for the popularity of the PEAP course among proficient L2 students may be the extra credit points (3.0 ECTS) that they can earn for completing the course.

Instructional context for the discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing at TUT

The discourse-oriented EAP writing module, incorporated in the experimental EAP course, was designed on the theoretical and instructional principles of L1 and L2 writing outlined in Chapter 1; the Syllabus of the module is displayed in Appendix 5 and a detailed description of the instructional procedures of the module is presented in Chapter 3. The implementation of the writing module was performed in a number of stages: while some of the instructional components were tested already in 2000–2002, the module was trialled as a whole with Test Sample 1 (TS1) in Autumn 2004. An upgraded version of the module was tested with Test Sample 2 (TS2) in Spring 2007.

The test samples (TS1 and TS2) were composed of second-year undergraduate students (aged 18–20) of information technology and enginee-ring. There were 19 (83%) male subjects and 4 (17%) female subjects in TS1, and 8 (62%) male subjects and 5 (38%) female subjects in TS2. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency is presented in Tables 1A–1B (TS1) and Table 2 (TS2) below. As Tables 1A–1B suggest, the subjects of TS1 were investigated in two L2 proficiency groups (Level B2 and Level C1) in the experimental EAP course in Autumn 2004. Table 2 reveals a minor instructional discrepancy in TS2, namely, due to administrative constraints, these subjects were taught in one mixed L2 proficiency group, including students of both Level B2 and Level C1.

As required by the English Department of TUT, the subjects of TS1 were streamed into language groups based on the results of *Nelson Placement Test*, whereas the subjects of TS2 were grouped based on the results of an in-house placement test (see footnote on p. 79). Thus, TS1 was made up of 12 (52%) subjects designated as *intermediate* level of English proficiency with an entry level placement test score 85–90 (see Table 1A), and of 11 (48%) subjects designated as *advanced level* of English proficiency with an entry level placement test score 99–113 (see Table 1B). With the aim to relate the subjects' L2 proficiency to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR, 2001; see Appendix 4 for the description of the competences at the CEFR levels), a computer-based diagnostic test DIALANG[1] was applied in the second

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[1] DIALANG is a computer-based Internet-delivered diagnostic test developed with the support of the European Commission. DIALANG covers a number of languages at all levels from beginner to advanced. It offers separate tests for reading, writing, listening, grammatical structures and vocabulary. DIALANG provides users with self-assessment opportunities, gives them feedback on their performance and tells them how they can improve their competence

week of instruction. According to DIALANG test results, the subjects were operative at either Level B2 (Vantage Level) or Level C1 (Effective Operational Proficiency Level).

TS2 (see Table 2 below) was composed of 7 (54%) subjects designated as intermediate level of English proficiency (Level B2, CEFR) with an entry level placement test score 75–90 (see the equivalent scores of Nelson Placement Test in Column 3), and 6 (46%) subjects designated as advanced level of English proficiency (Level C1, CEFR) with an entry level placement test score 95–118.

Table 1A. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Test Sample 1, Level B2 (CEFR). EAP course (TUT, Autumn 2004)

Subject No	Nelson Placement Test	DIALANG Writing Test	DIALANG Structure Test
1	90	B2	B2
2	89	B2	B2
3	89	B2	C1
4	89	B2	B2
5	88	B1	B2
6	88	B2	B2
7	87	B2	C1
8	87	B2	B2
9	87	B2	B2
10	86	B2	B2
11	86	B2	B2
12	85	B1	B2

Table 1B. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Test Sample 1, Level C1 (CEFR). EAP Course (TUT, Autumn 2004)

Subject No	Nelson Placement Test	DIALANG Writing Test	DIALANG Structure Test
1	113	C1	C2
2	113	C1	C2
3	112	C1	C2
4	111	C1	C1
5	109	C1	C2
6	108	B2	C1
7	107	C1	C1
8	105	C1	C1
9	104	C1	C2
10	104	C1	C1
11	99	B2	C1

Table 2. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Test Sample 2, Levels B2–C1 (CEFR). EAP Course (TUT, Spring 2007)

Subject No	Modified Nelson Placement Test[1]	Nelson Placement Test (equivalent scores)[2]	DIALANG Writing Test	DIALANG Structure Test
1	85	118	C1	C2
2	75	104	C1	C2
3	71	99	B2	C1
4	70	97	C1	C1
5	69	96	C1	C2
6	68	95	C1	C2
7	65	90	B2	C1
8	63	88	B2	B2
9	60	83	B2	B2
10	59	82	B2	B2
11	58	80	B2	B2
12	55	76	B1	B2
13	54	75	B2	B2

[1] This in-house placement test is a modified version of a 125-point Nelson Placement Test, yielding the highest score of 100 points. To establish equivalency between the scores obtained from the in-house placement test and Nelson Placement Test each new score was multiplied with the coefficient of 1.39.

[2] Scores of the in-house placement test mapped to the scores of Nelson Placement Test.

The control sample

The control sample was composed of two groups of students investigated at two levels of L2 proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1): the subjects of the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities (CS of EAC) were taught under traditional L2 instructional methods with a short 2-hour introductory seminar on discourse-based academic writing, and the subjects of the Estonian Information Technology College (CS of ITC) were delivered a fairly traditional ESP course with no focus on discourse-based writing.

Control Sample 1 (CS of EAC): The students of the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities (EAC)[1]

In the control sample of EAC, the students were taught under traditional L2 instructional methods; however, in a short 2-hour seminar, they were introduced to discourse-based writing and the communicative aspects of English text production. The data for the sample were collected from qualitative research

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[1] The Educational Advising Center at Tallinn Technical University was opened in April 1993 and it belongs to a network of the 470 United States Government affiliated educational advising centers worldwide. EAC provides current information about all accredited U.S. higher education institutions and administers international tests.

measures, including the pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (Appendix 7), the post-course evaluation questionnaires (Appendices 10–11), and expert evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts.

The control sample of EAC was composed of 19 subjects enrolled in the TOEFL Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL iBT[1]) Preparation Course. This credit-yielding (3.0 ECTS) course runs over a 16-week semester for a total of 40 academic hours. The course provides equal prominence to teaching the English academic literacy skills and the use of language. An important aspect of the course lies in the familiarisation of learners with TOEFL test-taking strategies.

As can be seen in Tables 3A–3B and Table 5, the control sample of EAC involved learners at three levels of L2 proficiency (Level B1, Level B2 and Level C1, CEFR) specified according to the scores the subjects received at the TOEFL Institutional Testing Program (ITP) (for mapping of TOEFL scores to CEFR see Appendix 13). However, as B1-level students were not the target of this research, the data obtained from them were not subjected to any further analysis.

The sample of EAC included 13 (68%) female and 6 (32%) male subjects from different age groups (18–40). The subjects represented varied educational backgrounds, including undergraduate and graduate students, academic faculty members, and highly qualified professionals of a wide variety of fields such as engineering, economics, business administration, information technology, bio-technology, and some others. Based on the researcher's observation and the subjects' self-evaluations, their experience with English academic writing varied quite significantly. Upon completion of the experimental TOEFL iBT Preparation Course, nearly half of the subjects registered for the official TOEFL iBT; however, since EAC is not eligible for collecting data on the applicants' official test scores, no quantitative record of the subjects' TOEFL iBT scores or progress in the course can be provided.

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[1] TOEFL iBT was first introduced in 2005. The TOEFL iBT Preparation Course was designed and trialled by the researcher in 2006–2007 according to the standards set by TOEFL Educational Testing Service (ETS).

Table 3A. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Control Sample of EAC, Levels B1–B2 (CEFR[1]). TOEFL iBT Preparation Course (2006–2007)

Subject No	TOEFL ITP[2] scores	TOEFL iBT estimated scores	CEFR
1	517–533	66–73	B2
2	517–527	66–71	B2
3	510–520	64–68	B2
4	500–513	61–65	B2
5	500–513	61–65	B2
6	487–503	57–63	B2
7	477–490	53–57	B2
8	473–483	52–56	B2
9	447–463	44–50	B1/B2
10	440–457	42–47	B1

[1] TOEFL Test scores have been mapped to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (see TOEFL 2005; a report issued by ETS). Based on this source, the minimum TOEFL score for Level B1 is 457 points and for Level C1 560 points. Further information on the equivalency of scores is provided in Appendices 13–14.
[2] TOEFL ITP stands for 'TOEFL Institutional Testing Programme'; derived from TOEFL PBT (the paper-based TOEFL Test), it is a low-tech and cost-effective method of evaluating academic English language skills.

Table 3B. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Control Sample of EAC, Level C1 (CEFR). TOEFL iBT Preparation Course (2006–2007)

Subject No	TOEFL ITP scores	TOEFL iBT estimated scores	CEFR
1	580–640	92–111	C1
2	570–610	88–102	C1
3	553–593	81–97	C1
4	547–563	77–84	C1
5	540–580	76–92	C1
6	540–557	76–83	C1
7	540–557	76–83	C1
8	533–550	72–80	B2/C1[1]
9	530–550	71–79	B2/C1[1]

[1] Based on the data presented by ETS (TOEFL 2005; see Appendix 13), the minimum TOEFL ITP score for Level C1 is 560 points; thus, the TOEFL ITP scores of these two subjects should be regarded as equivalent to Level B2. Data presented by other sources (see, e.g., TOEFL Equivalency Table, Appendix 14), however, allow for a slightly different interpretation of these scores; therefore, these two subjects can be regarded as operative between two levels of L2 proficiency.

Control Sample 2 (CS of ITC): The undergraduate students of the Estonian Information Technology College (ITC)

In the control sample of ITC, research activities were conducted under traditional ESP teaching-learning conditions in 2006–2007. The data for the sample were received through standard qualitative measures of the integrated-skills English for IT Course, including the pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (Appendix 6) and the post-course evaluation questionnaire (Appendix 8). In order to provide comparative data across the samples on the subjects' achievement in writing, expert evaluation of student experimental texts was performed.

English for IT is an integrated-skills ESP course that is slightly more focused on oral communication and presentation skills in ESP, field-related terminology and language use rather than academic writing. The course cannot engage students with complex academic writing assignments mainly due to curricular and time constraints. This optional credit-yielding ESP course runs for a 16-week semester in a total of 64 academic hours and concludes with a Preliminary Examination. At the examination, students are awarded a mark ('5' – excellent; '0' – failure) on the basis of in-course continuous assessment and a post-course oral interview with the instructor.

The control sample of ITC was made up of 18 first-year and second-year students (aged 18–30) of information technology, including 13 (72%) male subjects and 5 (28%) female subjects. The majority of the subjects had not experienced any previous encounters with real-world English academic writing. As can be seen in Tables 4A–4B, the sample involved learners at three levels of L2 proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1, and also Level B1) as follows: 7 (39%) subjects designated as intermediate level English proficiency displayed an entry-level Nelson Placement Test score of 75–91, whereas 10 (56%) subjects designated as advanced level of English proficiency displayed an entry-level score of 96–115. One subject displayed an entry level score of 40 points.

Table 4A. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Control Sample of ITC, Levels B1–B2 (CEFR). English for IT Course (Autumn 2006)

Student No	Nelson Placement Test score	DIALANG Writing Test	DIALANG Structure Test
1	91	B2	B2
2	87	B2	C1
3	85	B2	B2
4	81	B2	B2
5	79	B1	B2
6	77	B2	B2
7	75	B1	B2
8	40	B1	B1

With the aim to relate the subjects' L2 proficiency to CEFR, they were asked to perform the computer-based DIALANG test in the second week of instruction. According to DIALANG test results, most subjects of ITC were operative at either Level B2 (Vantage Level) or Level C1 (Effective Operational Proficiency Level). The subject with an entry-level Nelson Placement Test score of 40 was operative at Level B1 (Threshold Level). Again, as B1-level students were not the target of this research, the data obtained from them were not subjected to any further analysis.

Table 4B. The subjects' level of L2 proficiency: Control Sample of ITC, Level C1 (CEFR). English for IT Course (Spring 2007)

Student No	Nelson Placement Test score	DIALANG Writing Test	DIALANG Structure Test
1	115	C1	C2
2	113	C1	C2
3	110	C1	C2
4	107	C1	C2
5	106	C1	C1
6	104	C1	C2
7	102	C1	C2
8	100	C1	C1
9	99	C1	C1
10	96	B2	C1

Table 5 below lists comparative data on the total sample of students involved in the research and on the content of EAP/ESP instruction provided in each curricular setting (TUT, EAC and ITC):

Table 5. Comparative data on the instructional contexts of TUT, EAC and ITC

Sample profile	Test Sample 1 TUT	Test Sample 2 TUT	Control sample EAC	Control sample ITC
Educational setting	University	University	Educational advising center	Applied higher educational establishment
Sample size	23	13	19	18
Subjects' gender	Male/ female	Male/female	Male/female	Male/female
Subjects' age	18–22	18–22	18–40	18–30
Subjects' academic status	Undergraduate students	Undergraduate students	Undergraduate and graduate students; academic faculty; employees	Undergraduate students

Table 5. Continued

Sample profile	Test Sample 1 TUT	Test Sample 2 TUT	Control sample EAC	Control sample ITC
Subjects' academic field	Information Technology, Engineering	Information Technology, Engineering	Information Technology, Economics, Business Administration, Engineering, etc.	Information Technology, Engineering
Subjects' level of L2 proficiency (CEFR)	Level B2: 12 Level C1: 11	Level B2: 7 Level C1: 6	Level B1: 1[3] Level B1/B2: 1 Level B2: 8 Level B2/C1: 2 Level C1: 7	Level B1: 1[3] Level B2: 7 Level C1: 10
Placement instrument	Nelson Placement Test + DIALANG	Nelson Placement Test (modified) + DIALANG	TOEFL ITP	Nelson Placement Test + DIALANG
Course type	EAP	EAP	EAP (TOEFL iBT)	ESP
Course duration (in academic hours)	40	40	40	64
Course content	Integrated skills	Integrated skills	Integrated skills	Integrated skills
Course focus	Listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills equally weighted	Listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills equally weighted	Listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills equally weighted; language in use; test-taking strategies	Listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Focus on oral interaction and presentation skills, and IT terminology
Course status	Compulsory	Compulsory	Optional	Optional
Main genre	5-paragraph essay (expository)	5-paragraph essay (expository)	5-paragraph essay (expository)	5-paragraph essay (expository)
Other texts	Paragraph; summary; short argument; opinion article; written peer review; a set of writing tasks and assignments	Paragraph; summary; short argument; opinion article; written peer review; a set of writing tasks and assignments	Paragraph; summary; analysis of multiple sources; various test-specific writing assignments	Paragraph; summary; short argument; a set of writing assignments
Assessment mode	EAP Final Examination[1]	EAP Final Examination[1]	Standardised Test TOEFL iBT	Preliminary Examination[2]

[1] A grade-earning examination that is a prerequisite for graduation.
[2] A grade-earning preliminary examination that is based on continuous assessment.
[3] Level B1 was not the target of this study; data obtained from these students were not subjected to further analysis.

Expert readers

Eight expert readers, EAP/ESP instructors of Estonian tertiary institutions, were addressed via e-mail with a request to contribute to the research and participate in the evaluation of student experimental texts. Five instructors (63%) responded to the call. As shown in Table 6, the expert group involved both native (N = 2) and non-native (N = 3) speakers of English, representing different academic and educational backgrounds (Estonia, the UK and the USA), age groups (28–55), and EAP/ESP tertiary-level teaching experiences (5–20 years). The expert readers' educational background can be outlined as follows: one expert had a Bachelor's degree and an English teacher qualification certificate, two experts had a 5-year Diploma degree in English Language and Literature equivalent to a Master's degree, one expert had a Master's degree in Linguistics (studying for an extra Master's degree in Sociology) and one expert was pursuing a Doctor's degree in Linguistics.

Table 6. *Expert reader profile*

Expert No	Age group	Gender	Native (N)/ Non-native (NN)	Academic background	Experience in teaching EAP/ESP
1	45–55	F	NN	5-year diploma equivalent to a Master's degree	20–30 years
2	45–55	F	NN	Master's degree	20–30 years
3	< 30	F	N (UK)	Master's degree	< 10 years
4	45–55	F	NN	5-year diploma equivalent to a Master's degree	20–30 years
5	30–45	M	N (USA)	Bachelor's degree; Teacher certification programme	< 10 years

All five expert readers were qualified ESP/EAP teachers with relevant academic expertise and practice in scoring student English compositions; two of the experts had long-term experience in teaching EAP writing courses and three of the experts had participated in regular in-house training courses on assessing and evaluating student writing at EAP examinations. All the non-native experts had been involved in a number of international EAP/ESP training courses and projects initiated by the British Council or some other institutions (e.g., the British Council Pan-Baltic Academic Writing Project; the British Council Pan-Baltic English for Specific Purposes Project, and Leonardo da Vinci Quality Assurance for Languages of Specific Purposes Project, among others.)

Research procedures

Student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires

Two pre-course needs analysis questionnaires were designed for this doctoral research based on the specific requirements of the EAP/ESP course the students were enrolled in. Appendix 6 presents the pre-course questionnaire for the test samples of TUT and the control sample of ITC; Appendix 7 presents the pre-course questionnaire for the control sample of EAC.

The primary objective of the pre-course questionnaires was to gain further data on the students' English language skills and competences, and their general views and expectations in regard to university-level L2 instruction. Another objective was to extract information on the students' background as L2 writers; therefore, quite a few of the questions were tailored to elicit the students' views on their English writing experiences and practices. The pre-course instruments contained a bank of questions that were standard to all samples and questions that were modified according to course content. Both questionnaires included short-answer open-ended questions, a few rank-order items, and a general comments section. The questionnaires were completed in the first English class in English and collected immediately after completion. The choice of language for conducting and completing the questionnaires was driven by administrative and instructional requirements.

The pre-course needs analysis questionnaire for the test samples of TUT and the control sample of ITC

This pre-course needs analysis instrument (Appendix 6) was composed of 10 questions, including short-answer open-ended questions (N = 6); rank-order items (N = 3), one coupled with a separate comments section (Q10); a multiple-choice question, and a general comments section. While the questionnaire was targeted towards investigating the students' expectations for the integrated-skills EAP/ESP instruction and their perceptions of their overall L2 proficiency, six of the questions of this measure were closely concerned with extracting data on the students' education and background as L2 writers. Thus, the students' English writing skills and practices were addressed in rank order items (Q3, Q8 and Q10), open-ended questions (Q7 and Q9) and a multiple-choice question (Q5). Question 3 asked the students to self-assess their English language ability, including their competence in writing, on a 5-point scale ('1' – poor; '5' – excellent); Question 5 enquired about the frequency of writing activities the students were supposed to do in their studies or at work; Question 7 examined the students' specific writing needs in English; and Question 8 explored what English academic literacy skills the students perceived should be improved most for their target careers. Question 9 directed the students to provide a short definition for 'academic writing'. Question 10 asked the students to rank in descending order of importance six criteria of writing (1 – most important;

6 – least important): *grammatical accuracy, spelling and punctuation, subject content, overall organisation, vocabulary* and *good ideas*. The students were encouraged to write further comments on each aspect selected.

The pre-course needs analysis questionnaire for the control sample of EAC

This needs analysis instrument (Appendix 7), composed of eight questions, was an adapted version of the standard questionnaire administered to the students of TUT and ITC; however, the questionnaire was slightly different from the instrument applied in the above samples in that it included a number of TOEFL iBT Test specific items. The questionnaire contained four questions (Q1–4) aimed at eliciting the students' views on their practices and needs of academic English in regard to preparation for the TOEFL test and four items (Q1; Q4; Q5 and Q6) that were nearly identical to those in the pre-course questionnaire of TUT and ITC. The instrument contained two rank order items (Q5, Q6) and two open-ended items (Q7, Q8) devised to provide opportunities for the students to reflect on their experiences and expectations for English instruction. Thus, Question 5 instructed the students to self-assess their competence in English on a 5-point scale (1 – poor; 5 – excellent) in listening, reading, writing, speaking, and structure and written expression (i.e., grammar). Question 6 directed the students to reflect on what skills and attributes of English they perceived should be focused most on in the TOEFL iBT course. Responding to this question, the students were asked to rank the issues such as listening, speaking, reading, vocabulary, structure and written expression, essay writing, and test strategies on a 7–point scale (1 – most important; 7 – least important;). Question 7 instructed the students to list the techniques and strategies they believed would contribute most/least to their achievement in the TOEFL iBT preparation course; Question 8 asked the students to discuss their immediate objectives for embarking on the TOEFL course. The questionnaire included a general comments section.

Student post-course evaluation questionnaires

Different post-course evaluation questionnaires were designed according to the institutional context (TUT, ITC or EAC), English course content (EAP, ESP or TOEFL iBT) and the nature of EAP writing instruction provided to students. The test subjects of TUT were asked to fill in two post-course instruments: a standard questionnaire eliciting their views on the integrated-skills EAP course (Appendix 8) and a tailor-made questionnaire providing their feedback on the experimental EAP writing module (Appendix 9). Likewise, the control subjects of EAC were instructed to complete two post-course instruments: one drawing on the students' evaluation of the integrated-skills TOEFL iBT preparation course (Appendix 10) and the other one providing data on their writing activities and achievement in the course (Appendix 11). The aim of the post-course instruments for the test samples of TUT and the control sample of EAC

was to determine the subjects' perceptions of EAP instruction (the experimental EAP course or TOEFL iBT preparation course respectively) with special focus on its likely effect on the students' English academic writing performance. The questionnaires asked the students to reflect on their writing experiences during the course and evaluate the course-related writing assignments, instructional techniques and organisational matters. The questionnaires directed the students to evaluate their post-course English writing performance as opposed to their pre-course writing performance.

The control subjects of ITC were administered a standard evaluation questionnaire of the English for IT Course (Appendix 8) that included no separate items on academic writing. The questionnaire was aimed at exploring the students' attitudes on the effectiveness of the integrated-skills ESP instruction on their overall competences in English. The reason for not enquiring about writing in more detail was that written discourse was not the target of instruction in this sample. Nevertheless, the questionnaire provided opportunities for the subjects to reflect on their views on writing and the likely development of their English writing ability through instruction in the general comments section.

The post-course evaluation instruments were composed mainly of open-ended questions, and a few rank-order items coupled with a separate comments section. Each questionnaire included a general comments section. The questionnaires were completed two weeks before the end of the course out of class and submitted for discussion in the final English class. The follow-up discussion in class was expected to initiate the students to communicate their views on the English course they had participated in and provide them with feedback on their achievement in the course.

Due to the limited scope of the doctoral thesis, this survey does not report in detail on the general findings of EAP/ESP instruction obtained through standard post-course evaluation questionnaires (Appendix 8 for the test samples of TUT and the control sample of ITC, and Appendix 10 for the control sample of EAC). Rather, it highlights the data concerned with English academic writing with special attention devoted to the enhancement of student writing competences through discourse-oriented instruction (Appendices 9 and 11).

The post-course evaluation questionnaire for the test samples of TUT

This post-course evaluation measure of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module for the test samples of TUT (Appendix 9) was composed of 12 (TS1) or 13 (TS2) open-ended questions and 2 rank-order items grouped into three subsections, specifically tailored to explore the strategic, task and personal variables of the students' English writing in the course. The rationale for applying open-ended questions as the core of the questionnaire was to provide the students with an opportunity to expand on their ideas in the communicative mode. The questionnaire included a general comments section.

The first subsection of the questionnaire was designed to address the issues concerned with the improvement of student English writing performance through discourse-oriented EAP instruction, as follows:

- In what aspects did the students' English academic writing performance improve in the EAP writing module? (Q1)
- What were the positive and negative aspects of the writing module? How should the module be developed further? (Q2, Q3)
- What perceptions did the students have of the instructional materials and assignments of the writing module? (Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7)

The second subsection was aimed at identifying whether the instruction had been effective in fostering the students' awareness of the important features of the Anglo-American writing style, principles of English text construction, and the writing competences a good academic writer should possess. This section addressed the following central issues:

- What aspects of language competence do the students consider most important in writing an English academic text? (Q8)
- What strategies do the students perceive as most effective in developing their writing? (Q9)
- How would the students characterise an effective English text? (Q10)
- How could writers improve the quality of their English texts? (Q11, Q12).

The third subsection was targeted towards eliciting the students' views on the following cognitive aspects of English writing:

- What do the students like about writing and what do they find hard about it? (Q13, Q14)
- How would the students assess their post-course writing ability in English in comparison with their pre-course writing ability? (Q15)

The post-course evaluation questionnaire for the control sample of EAC

This post-course evaluation questionnaire (Appendix 11) was an adapted version of the instrument devised for the test samples of TUT. The questionnaire comprised 8 items addressing both TOEFL iBT course related and universal L2 writing issues (e.g., qualities and strategies of EAP writing instruction, characteristic features of Anglo-American written discourse and self-cognitive aspects of student L2 writing practices) as follows:

- How has the students' English writing performance developed in the course? (Q1)
- What aspects of L2 competence do the students consider most important in writing an English academic text? (Q2)
- What activities do the students perceive as most effective in improving their performance in English academic writing? (Q3)
- How would the students characterise an effective English text? (Q4, Q5)

- What do the students like about English writing and what do they find hard about it? (Q6, Q7)
- How would the students assess their post-course English writing ability as opposed to their pre-course writing ability? (Q8)

The questionnaire included a general comments section.

The post-course evaluation questionnaire for the control sample of ITC

This standard post-course evaluation instrument (Appendix 8), conducted with minor modifications also in the other samples of the research, was expected to elicit the students' general attitudes and experiences of the integrated-skills English for IT Course. The questionnaire for the sample of ITC was composed of 8 open-ended items. Although none of these items were directly related to the skill of writing, the questionnaire offered the students opportunities to reflect on writing in response to quite a number of items.

Student pre-course and post-course experimental texts

In the first phase of the study (2004–2005), written discourse analysis of the B2-level and C1-level subjects' (TS1) writing samples was performed to diagnose Estonian novice academic writers' common problems in their English written texts (see Rummel 2005b for detailed discussion of the results). Student pre-course and post-course experimental texts were analysed with focus on the discoursal and rhetorical categories of English academic writing as follows:
- the main idea and the writer's purpose;
- communicative aspects (audience awareness, reader expectations, etc.);
- text organisation (the introduction, the body and the conclusion, etc.);
- paragraph organisation (topic sentences, supporting sentences, concluding sentences, etc.);
- text unity: cohesion and coherence (patterns of structure, cohesive devices, textual references, etc.);
- style and register (hedging, metadiscourse, variety of structures, etc.).

In the second phase of the study, expert evaluation of a selection of student experimental texts (written in 2004–2007) across the test and control samples was conducted in order to detect achievement in the test subjects' communicative competence of English academic writing through participating in the discourse-focused instruction. This evaluation was expected to reveal comparative data on the subjects' English writing performance at two levels of L2 proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1) in different instructional contexts.

Text production procedure

In the first class of EAP/ESP instruction, the subjects across all samples were directed to write a 250-word draft on a prompt 'How can we make the Internet more effective?' The texts were composed in class under timed test conditions (45 minutes) subject to further self-evaluation, peer evaluation (applied only in the test sample) and teacher feedback. The discourse mode of the text was not clearly specified; however, the students were expected to produce an expository essay with some elements of argumentation and problem solving embedded in it. The rationale for employing the combined genre was to examine the novice academic writers' overall written discourse competence in English. Moreover, it was assumed that many of the students might not have acquired the specific skills of argumentation at school to be able to produce adequate argumentative texts.

Towards the end of instruction, the subjects were asked to revise their pre-course texts and produce second drafts of these. Submitting the revised version of the pre-course text for teacher evaluation was a prerequisite for completing the English course in all samples. While working on their final products, the students were encouraged to rely on their initial drafts and derive improved versions from these.

In revising and editing their English writing, the test subjects of TUT were directed to focus on the discourse and rhetorical categories of English academic writing as outlined on p. 93 above. More detailed information on the procedural steps that the test subjects were expected to follow in composing and revising their experimental texts is presented in Chapter 3.

Expert reader evaluation of student texts

Five outside readers, tertiary EAP/ESP instructors, were enlisted in the study in order to conduct evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts from an independent position. The rationale for expert evaluation was to observe whether a discourse-oriented approach to teaching English academic writing to the test subjects of TUT had enabled these writers to enhance the communicative quality of their post-course English written texts in comparison with the quality of their pre-course texts Likewise, expert evaluation was expected to reveal data on the progress in the post-course texts produced by the control subjects of EAC and ITC (taught under traditional instructional methods). Another objective for including expert evaluation in the study was to complement the subjects' responses to the post-course evaluation questionnaires (Appendices 9 and 11) regarding student perceptions of the improvement of their English writing performance. Furthermore, the expert evaluation was expected to provide insights into whether the discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing had been equally rewarding for both B2- and C1-level writers. The evaluation involved a nearly equal number of texts selected at random from the test samples of TUT and the control samples of EAC and ITC.

The data from expert readers were obtained as ratings provided to student pre-course and post-course experimental texts in six attributes of writing: grammar, mechanical accuracy, vocabulary, organisation, content and style (the same aspects of writing in student essays were assessed at the EAP Final Examination Writing Test of TUT). While this doctoral research focused on the development in student writing of the textual aspects of English written discourse (i.e., text organisation, content and style), an important consideration still was to establish the extent of improvement in each of the six criteria of writing assessed, including grammar, mechanical accuracy and vocabulary.

Text evaluation procedure

Experimental texts. Evaluation of student pre-course and post-course texts was conducted in Spring 2008. The target group of subjects (N = 23) was pre-selected from the total sample (N = 73) with the intent to involve writers of each sample (TS1, TS2, CS of EAC, and CS of ITC) and both levels of L2 proficiency targeted in the research (Level B2 and Level C1, CEFR). The text bank (N = 46) comprised the pre-course and post-course written drafts of these 23 subjects.

Prior to the evaluation process, the original drafts were cleared of student identification data. The texts were then photocopied, numerically coded (No 1–46) and grouped into two evaluation sets (Set 1: N = 23 and Set 2: N = 23), both composed of a random distribution of pre-course and post-course texts in terms of student L2 proficiency level and sample. The strategy of mixing student texts and displaying them to expert readers in random order was employed with the aim to maintain maximum objectivity and reduce the possible contrast effect in rating (Weigle 2002).

Expert readers. In a preliminary individual interview with the researcher, each expert reader (N = 5) was introduced to the experimental procedures of evaluation, the subjects' L2 writing context and the writing task they had been asked to fulfil. However, the experts were not exposed to any further details concerning the objectives of the experiment, the principles of text selection or the subjects' L2 academic profile. The readers were familiarised with the scoring instructions, text evaluation criteria and technical-numerical aspects of applying these criteria. Further, they were informed of the suggested techniques of marking student texts and providing comments on these. Most importantly, the expert readers were asked to conduct the evaluation process independently of other readers.

The texts were subjected to an analytic evaluation that involved the expert readers numerically rating ('5' – excellent; '0' – insufficient) student writing in the aspects of grammar, mechanical accuracy, vocabulary, organisation, content and style. The raters were instructed to fill in their scores in the essay evaluation grids (Appendix 15); however, they were not provided with any practical training nor equipped with any evaluation tool, model essay or assessor-oriented

scale to guide them in the rating process. This strategy was adopted so as to avoid false consensus among reader assessment and to ensure its maximum authenticity (e.g., Huot 1996; Napierowksi 2003). It is important to note that the above six evaluation criteria were adopted in the experiment and presented for expert evaluation in the identical format that they are traditionally applied in scoring student written scripts of EAP Final Examination Writing Test of TUT (see Appendix 12 for the essay evaluation scale of TUT). Applying these evaluation criteria in the experiment was considered critical in order to maintain consistency of rating texts for the subjects. From another perspective, this strategy was instrumental in order not to reveal to the expert readers the true focus of the experiment and thus ensure greater objectivity in assessment. Apart from numerically rating the subjects' essays in the six pre-determined criteria, the expert readers were asked to write both in-text and post-text evaluative comments on student writing.

After the introductory interview, the expert readers were exposed to student experimental texts Set 1 (N = 23; Appendix 15 Table A) submitted to them in a sealed envelope. In about two weeks' time, having conducted assessment of texts Set 1, the readers returned the texts to the researcher with their scores and comments provided on each text. The same procedure was applied to texts Set 2 (N = 23; Appendix 15 Table B).

Statistical treatment of expert evaluation data

Scores ('5' – excellent; '0' – insufficient) obtained from expert reader evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts (N = 23+23) were analysed for statistically significant improvement in each of the six aspects of writing: grammar, mechanical accuracy, vocabulary, organisation, content and style. Within-sample analyses of these data across the test samples of TUT and the control samples of EAC and ITC were performed as follows[1]:
- test sample B2 and C1
- control sample B2 and C1
- test sample B2
- control sample B2
- test sample C1
- control sample C1

In order to assess statistical significance of improvement, the *paired one-tailed Student's t-test* for *dependent datasets* was performed. In pedagogical context, the directional nature of achievement can be expected. For each subject (N = 23), the mean value of the scores across the five raters for each of the six aspects of writing was calculated. Improvement in each aspect was measured as a difference between the rater mean scores of the post-course texts and the pre-course texts. The sample mean and variance of improvement for each aspect

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[1] B2 – Level B2; C1 – Level C1 (CEFR).

was then calculated and subjected to statistical significance test assuming *Student's distribution* of sample with f = n–1 degrees of freedom, where n is sample size. The null hypothesis (H_0) of no improvement in student post-course experimental texts was adopted. So as to assess the statistical significance of improvement, the null hypothesis has to be rejected with the probability value p satisfying the significance test at the pre-selected level α. The assessment was performed based on one-tailed statistics at the 2.5% and 5% levels of significance. Both levels were adopted for statistical observations considering the limited sample sizes.

In socio-linguistics studies, several authors (e.g., Bachmann 1990, 2007; Carletta 1996; Gwet, K. 2001; MacLennon 1993) have advocated for the use of inter-rater reliability as a statistical tool to control the quality of data collection methods and to provide reliability statistic of how consistent the ratings are. This research examined inter-rater consistency in the framework of generalizability theory (G-study) (Cronbach 1972, quoted in Bachmann 2007). A two-way analysis of variance was applied on the students' text scores to partition and evaluate the observed variances due to multiple sources of statistical errors (i.e., variances between the raters, between and within the students' texts, and residuals). To assess the consistency of ratings from multiple expert readers, intraclass correlation coefficients to all six aspects of writing were also calculated. Following the guidelines by Shrout and Fleiss (1979) and considering the *k* raters as fixed effects, the inter-rater reliability index r was estimated in a form of intraclass correlation coefficient ICC(3, *k*). With multiple raters, the unit of analysis can be defined as a mean measure, yielding reliability for an average rating across multiple raters, or a single measure, yielding reliability for a single rater's score (Shrout and Fleiss ibid). With focus on the reliability of the average of multiple ratings, the mean measure r_m was applied to evaluate consistency of the observed ratings.

This chapter presented an overview of a two-phase empirical study into the English academic writing of Estonian undergraduate students in three curricular settings of Estonia (TUT, ITC and EAC). It outlined the design and methodology of the research, and summarised sampling, instrumentation and data collection methods applied in the investigation. The aim of the study was to explore whether a discourse-oriented EAP writing module implemented at TUT could enhance Estonian novice academic writers' English composing skills and thus enable them to produce acceptable texts for the English-medium academia. The next chapter (Chapter 3) will address the issues related to the instructional content of the experimental EAP writing module in further detail.

CHAPTER 3:
THE DISCOURSE-ORIENTED EAP WRITING MODULE AT THE TALLINN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

This chapter introduces the instructional content of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module designed and implemented as an integral component of the experimental integrated-skills EAP course[1] at the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT). Given the relatively limited scope of the doctoral thesis, this survey does not aim to provide detailed information on all the thematic components, teaching techniques and classroom practicalities of the writing module; instead, it attempts to highlight the fundamental principles and procedures of discourse-focused instruction. A sample set of instructional documents and instruments (e.g., the syllabus, themes for writing, writing tasks, tailor-made handouts, checklists, etc.) can be found in Appendices.

The EAP writing module was delivered at TUT in the academic years 2004–2007. Initially, the syllabus for the module was designed for Test Sample 1 (2004–2005) based on the findings of the pilot study conducted in the same university in 2000–2002. Data obtained from these two studies enabled the research to identify the writing procedures, activities, topics and assignments that best represented Estonian academic writers' needs and expectations in the English-medium academia. These data provided a solid ground for further development of the module for instruction in Test Sample 2 (2006–2007).

As academic writing was not a major activity of the integrated-skills EAP course the range of instructional provision of writing in the course was developed in accordance with an institutional requirement to teach all language skills central for the advancement of student L2 academic literacy. In line with this, teaching of the receptive skills of listening and reading and the productive skills of speaking and writing was equally weighted in the course. However, as the experimental integrated-skills EAP course was designed to adopt the communicative approach to teaching the language, most of the activities geared towards the development of student speaking, reading and listening skills were highly beneficial also for the development of their writing skills.

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[1] The integrated-skills EAP course is a compulsory programme that caters for second-year undergraduate students' current and target needs in English-medium academic settings. This compulsory course runs over a 16-week semester for a total of 40 academic hours (2-4 academic hours a week) and concludes with an in-house EAP Final Examination. As passing the exam is a university graduation requirement for students, much of the instructional content of the EAP course is focused on training students for the examination.

Principles of the discourse-oriented
EAP writing module

Rationale

The EAP writing module was developed in response for an increased need by Estonian academic writers to produce effective texts for publication in English-medium academic journals. To this end, the writing instruction was focused on reinforcing the students' (i.e., prospective academic writers') communicative competence of English text-level discourse. Additionally, the instruction was expected to provide the students guidance in completing the English writing tasks required of them in the academic context of TUT.

Design

In the design of the writing syllabus, a number of guidelines and pedagogical principles from different methodological approaches were adopted from previous research into L1 and L2 writing, academic writing, English rhetoric, contrastive rhetoric, and L2 academic writing instruction (addressed in detail in Chapter 1). The syllabus was built upon a combination of pedagogies drawing on product, process and genre writing theories and collaborative task-based teaching methods. As regards the general instructional orientation of the module, it was designed to be discourse oriented and student centred. The rationale for adopting different methodological approaches was to maximise the positive effect of instruction on the students' English writing performance and by that cater for their current and target needs.

   In detail, the communicative approach to teaching English academic writing was considered a prerequisite for achieving the primary goal of instruction to develop the students' consciousness of English written discourse — to motivate them to turn their attention away from form and give prominence to meaning instead. The product approach was applied to introduce the students to the nature and form of an English academic text and the fundamentals of text construction. The process approach was adopted to keep the students aware of multiple procedural steps while writing and focus their attention on meaning, purpose and audience, and whole text organisation rather than corrective language issues. The genre approach was employed to highlight the social-communicative purpose of writing manifested in different external formats and contexts of use. The task-based approach was applied to meet the students' cognitive and sociolinguistic needs; by selecting relevant content and sequencing the writing assignments according to perceived difficulty of discourse organisation, the students were directed to simulate the communicative situations they may encounter in target academic settings. The

collaborative approach was used to motivate the students to become actively involved in the learning process and apply the acquired knowledge in intellectually rewarding (pre-writing and post-writing) discussions with their peers.

Based on the requirements of advanced writing, three central organising principles of communicative syllabus design (Grabe and Kaplan 1996) were followed: planning for writing, organising information and attending to conventions, and assisting and guiding writing. The first principle highlights issues that help writers to gather information and plan for writing through guided discussions and critical reading in a positive classroom atmosphere. The second principle considers the importance of organising information according to the established conventions and attending to audience expectations, and expands upon supporting activities that can develop writing skills. The third principle addresses the instructional tasks and activities that enable writers to respond to the greater complexity of advanced writing and become more effective writers through guidance and feedback from expert sources. It is important to note here that while Grabe and Kaplan made a distinction between the organising principles for teaching intermediate and advanced levels of L2 writers, this research implemented, partly due to administrative constraints, advanced-level practices for teaching both B2- and C1-level writers.

Drawing on the above instructional principles, a number of teaching objectives were specified for the writing module. First of all, the instruction was aimed to equip the students with theoretical and practical skills for English academic writing in order to raise their awareness of the cross-cultural differences between the Estonian and English writing styles and the socio-culturally different audiences and purposes for writing, highlight the significance of the writer-reader relationship in the English-medium written interaction, enhance the students' knowledge of the Anglo-American academic writing conventions and principles of text organisation, and increase the students' confidence and motivation in expressing themselves in written English. Above all, the instruction was designed to be based on discourse-oriented classroom activities and writing assignments that could facilitate the students' writing development and guide them towards the greater complexity of writing required in their target academic careers. Thus, while the students were trained how to approach writing a short 5-paragraph essay, the target of this activity was to encourage them to proceed to more complex academic papers required by the academia. One of the major aims of instruction was to provide the students with the ability to draw on the acquired knowledge of writing in their future academic careers composing research articles, conference materials, and other texts in specialised English-medium discourse contexts. To attain these objectives, a reading component was related to the writing module enabling the students to perform written discourse analyses of authentic English texts and investigate the writing conventions and discussion methods of their academic fields. The students were constantly reminded of their ultimate goal to

produce reader-based writing for their intended audiences. In order to gain readership awareness and improve the quality of their English texts, the students were frequently asked to reflect upon their own and their peers' writing, and produce multiple drafts of their texts.

Considerations for themes, tasks and techniques

The teaching-learning process in the writing module was supported through specially geared in-class and out-of-class tasks and activities developed according to the five 'metacommunicative' criteria of English writing knowledge — content, system, process, genre and context (Hyland 2003). In order to cater for each specific knowledge area, a bank of writing topics was compiled from which a selection of appropriate themes for advanced level writing instruction was extended and incorporated into the academic context of TUT (Appendices 16–17). An important aspect in teaching was to form a coherent progression of tasks that have both linguistic outcomes and real world related outcomes (e.g., Nunan 2001). In other words, a central issue was to balance the activities that focus on form to enable writers to construct meaning (i.e., *language scaffolding* and *pedagogic tasks*) and the activities that develop and practice real world writing skills (i.e., *authentic composing tasks*). The concept of language scaffolding (Bruner 1986, quoted in Hyland ibid.) was employed to enable the students to gradually increase their awareness of various rhetorical L2 text-structuring patterns prior to addressing the issues of real world composing for expert audiences. While the pedagogic tasks were geared towards improving the students' genre knowledge and text construction skills, the authentic tasks were aimed at catering for their target communicative needs. The writing activities and assignments were based on model texts, student sample texts, authentic academic and professional texts, L2 textbook excerpts, class and tailor-made handouts, and the students' real-world experiences, knowledge and skills.

The instructional activities were devised to move from teacher-controlled writing assignments towards authentic text composing practices, following the stages of the teaching-learning cycle (Hyland 2003) such as building the context, modelling and deconstructing the text, joint construction of the text, independent construction of the text and linking related texts. The recurring procedures for written activities and assignments included reading and observing; evaluating one's knowledge; discussing with peers in pairs, small informal groups or whole class settings; analysing texts at macro and micro levels; practicing writing in a whole text/paragraph/sentence/paragraph/whole text cycle at different levels of text construction; applying different discourse instruments and strategies for designing a text; and composing, evaluating, editing and revising a text.

Since the experimental integrated-skills EAP course as a whole was organised around communicative interaction and classroom-based discussion, it was possible to incorporate a wide range of interactive skill-specific activities in the writing module. The teaching of writing was conducted through a variety of instructional techniques, methods and strategies, including short teacher input seminars, pre-writing and post-writing activities and tasks, peer evaluation sessions, whole class writing conferences, and student-teacher individual consultations that were designed to enable the students to discuss academic matters, communicate their language needs, ask questions about writing and other language skills, and develop both their overall L2 competence and discourse proficiency of English academic writing.

In all, the writing module was focused on training the students to produce English academic writing that would demonstrate sufficient discourse proficiency in text construction, sociolinguistic appropriateness and language control. As an indication of a desired instructional outcome, the students were expected to be able to write coherent 250–300 word 5-paragraph essays that exhibit familiarity with English text organisation and methods of its development. The syllabus was designed to maintain relevance with real-world language use by inspiring the students to engage in intellectual academic discussions and apply authentic texts from their own academic studies as a basis for the EAP classes.

The instructional content of the EAP writing module

An overview of the instructional activities and assignments

The instructional activities and assignments of the EAP writing module can be broadly outlined as follows (the pedagogical procedures for completing these activities and assignments will be addressed further in the text, the full list of the writing tasks with specific details for these tasks is presented in Table 7 and the detailed syllabus for the writing module is displayed in Appendix 5):

1. Pre-course writing:
   – student pre-course experimental essay;
   – student pre-course needs analysis questionnaire;
2. Teacher input seminars:
   – the Anglo-American academic writing style;
   – the socio-cultural issues of writing; genre conventions;
   – meaning and purpose of writing;
   – principles of text construction;
   – text unity, cohesion and coherence;
   – readability;
   – audience awareness;
   – metadiscourse, etc;

3. Language scaffolding tasks and activities:
   – addressing the intended audiences;
   – writing with meaning and purpose;
   – achieving better readability;
   – organising whole texts, junks of texts, paragraphs, and sentences;
   – considering macro-patterns and textual flow;
   – applying textual cues and cohesive devices;
   – addressing various rhetorical issues (e.g., argumentation and style, clarity, focus, etc.);
   – enhancing the strategies of evaluating, redrafting and revising;
   – choosing the appropriate vocabulary and structures, etc.;
4. Written discourse analyses:
   – model texts; authentic non-academic and academic texts; student sample texts, etc.;
5. Reading tasks and activities (see above);
6. Discussion and presentation tasks and activities;
7. Text composing tasks and activities;
8. Evaluation tasks and activities:
   – self-evaluation: student pre-course and post-course experimental texts; essays; continuous assessment scripts, etc.;
   – written peer evaluation: a peer's paragraph; a peer's pre-course experimental text (Draft 2);
   – reader response discussions: with peers, the L2 teacher, and subject teachers;
   – revising and editing texts for global and linguistic errors;
9. Writing conferences:
   – whole class-teacher writing conferences;
   – student-teacher writing conferences;
10. EAP Final Examination Writing Test related activities
    – a practice essay;
    – an examination essay;
11. Post-course writing:
    – student post-course experimental essay — the revised and edited final version (Draft 4) of student pre-course experimental essay;
    – student post-course evaluation questionnaire of the EAP writing module.

The teaching of writing in the EAP course was conducted in a considerably short period of time in integration with the instruction of other skills of English academic literacy; therefore, to enable the students to achieve their aims and improve their performance in English writing, a substantial number of in-class

and out-of-class writing tasks were assigned. As Table 7[1] shows, the students were required to fulfil different language scaffolding exercises and tasks, and analyse and compose short authentic academic texts, including summaries, short paragraphs, opinion texts, essays, and written peer reviews. The first in-class composition was the pre-course experimental essay '*How can we make the Internet more effective*?' (this text will be discussed in more detail on p. 127) and the first out-of-class written assignment was a 200-word self-cognitive needs analysis report '*What are my expectations of the EAP Course?*'. The latter text was expected to serve as an introduction between the language instructor and the students — while the written script provided the instructor with valuable information on the students' English writing competencies, the follow-up group discussion in class facilitated the students' introduction to their peers and self-evaluation of their language needs, including those for written discourse. With the aim to obtain additional data on the students' current and target needs in academic English, they were asked to fill in the pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (Appendix 6) for submission in the following English class.

In the initial stage of instruction, teacher-controlled language scaffolding activities of genre familiarisation based on model text analysis were performed in class; for example, the students were introduced to the fundamental principles of Anglo-American writing and familiarised with the attributes of English text. Further on, teacher-supported and peer-evaluated independent text construction activities were initiated with the students exhibiting their knowledge of text organising principles in composing out of class.

In each class, the students were presented with a 5–10 minute teacher-led tutorial on a specific aspect of English written discourse (see Appendices 16 and 17 for details). Having received theoretical input, the students were engaged in communicative activities performing teacher-assisted language scaffolding tasks aimed at facilitating further rhetorical analysis of texts and peer discussion on them. These instructional activities introduced the students to the concepts of audience awareness, readability, and text unity, among others, and enabled them to understand how texts, paragraphs and sentences were organised and structured. The language scaffolding exercises assigned out of class were designed to test whether the students had become familiar with the writing concepts covered in class; these assignments were expected to provide the students opportunities to apply the acquired knowledge and skills into practice on their own. As a rule, the out-of-class scaffolding exercises were checked and commented on in collaborative writing seminars in the following classes.

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[1] Detailed information on the content of the writing tasks and assignments is presented in Appendix 5 (the syllabus) and Appendix 18 (assignments for Test Sample 2). Data on how the assignments were mapped in the course schedule can be found in the syllabus.

Table 7. Written assignments of the EAP writing module

Written assignment	Further details	Word length	Time limit	Setting
Student pre-course experimental essay	the essay mode not specified	250	45 minutes	in class
Student pre-course needs analysis questionnaire	*see Appendix 6*	–	not specified	out of class
Student pre-course self-cognitive needs analysis report	free-writing	200	suggested time: 30 minutes	out of class
Language scaffolding exercises and tasks	regular; subject to teacher response and evaluation, and further discussion in class	–	not specified	in class out of class
Paragraphs	– paragraph (*Appendices 20 and 33*) – opinion text (*Appendices 19E and 35*) – written argument (*Appendices 19F and 36*)	150	not specified	out of class
A short summary	source material: 3000-character model text	100	not specified	out of class
A global summary	source material: 50,000-character authentic/field-specific text	200	not specified	out of class
5-paragraph essays	multidraft (drafts 1–4); N = 4–5; subject to self evaluation, peer evaluation and teacher response; the revised and edited final drafts submitted for teacher evaluation and marking	250–300	not specified	out of class
Written peer reviews	opinion/evaluation texts; N = 2; subject to peer discussion, self-evaluation and teacher response; the revised and edited final drafts submitted for teacher evaluation and marking	200–250	not specified	out of class
Literature review	10,000-character authentic/field-specific text	250	not specified	out of class
Student post-course experimental essay	5-paragraph argumentative text; the revised and edited final version (Draft 4) of student pre-course experimental text; submitted for expert reader evaluation	250	not specified	out of class
EAP Final Examination practice writing test	5-paragraph argumentative essay; a choice of two general-type academic topics; subject to teacher evaluation and marking; and further self-evaluation, revising and editing	250	45 minutes	simulated examination settings in class

Table 7. Continuation

Written assignment	Further details	Word length	Time limit	Setting
EAP Final Examination writing test	*see the details for the practice writing test above*	200	45 minutes	examination settings
Student post-course evaluation questionnaire on English academic writing	*see Appendix 9*	–	not specified	out of class
Student post-course evaluation questionnaire (standard)	*see Appendix 8*	–	not specified	out of class

A facilitative instructional component of the writing module, available to the students on the instructor's website, was a tailor-made support tool for writing that displayed both theoretical input materials and practical assignments for home study. The website listed also other electronic resource materials on English academic writing that the students were encouraged to access for further reference and study. Each week, a new writing assignment related to the input material covered in class was posted on the course website. The students were asked to complete the task and submit it electronically for teacher evaluation; this procedure was followed by further feedback and discussion in class.

From midterm on, apart from fulfilling various language scaffolding exercises, the students were engaged in composing multiple drafts (N = 3) of 5-paragraph academic essays for their target audiences (i.e., peers, the L2 instructor and subject teachers). These essay-length texts formed a crucial part of the writing produced during the EAP module and provided the students with authentic material for peer discussions. The essay topics were specifically selected to highlight a particular textual aspect of L2 academic writing (e.g., comparison-contrast, problem-solution, cause-effect, etc.) as well as to satisfy the requirements of the EAP Final Examination (see Appendix 18 for the essay topics for Test Sample 2).

In preparation for each new aspect in essay writing, a 5–10-minute strategy instruction was presented to the whole class through explicit text composing tools and handouts, including material on writing introductions and conclusions (Appendix 22), patterns of text organisation (Appendices 24–26), frameworks and templates for essay writing (Appendices 21 and 23), and essay evaluation (Appendices 28–30). An essential tool for the development of student communicative skills in English was a set of handouts ('*package*'; Appendix 19) that the writers were expected to use regularly throughout instruction. This

set included Discourse markers for oral and written modes of communication (Appendix 19A), Cohesive devices (Appendix 19B), Strategies for summarising and giving opinions/critiques (Appendix 19D), Argumentation strategies (Appendix 19F), and a number of other materials.

The final out-of-class composition — the post-course experimental text — was a multi-refined version (Draft 4) of the pre-course experimental text. In the course of instruction, this text was developed in four drafts subject to self-evaluation (Draft 1), peer evaluation (Draft 2), multiple self-revision and editing (Drafts 1–3), and multiple teacher feedback and evaluation (Drafts 2–4) (further information on text composing procedures can be found on pp. 119-130). Another important course final text was the timed 5-paragraph practice essay of the EAP Final Examination Writing Test (a 250-word argumentative essay in 45 minutes) composed under simulated examination conditions in class. Finally, towards the end of instruction, the students were required to submit their revised and edited continuous assessment scripts of both scaffolding exercises and composing tasks for teacher evaluation and marking. The students were also asked to complete the standard post-course evaluation questionnaire of the EAP course (Appendix 8) and the tailor-made questionnaire of the EAP writing module (Appendix 9), and submit them for further discussion in the final class.

Course policies

In the experimental integrated-skills EAP course (see Appendix 5 for more details), attendance was compulsory for the students and entered into the course final mark (>85% = '5'; <50% = '0'). While no specific writing tests were administered during the course, the subjects' progress in writing was measured through continuous assessment; therefore, fulfilling all the writing assignments was a prerequisite for successful completion of the course. Given the time constraints of the EAP course, individual out-of class writing activities clearly dominated over (collaborative) in-class writing activities. Individual writing tasks were assigned every week and each task was based on a specific writing theme (see Appendices 16–17) introduced by the teacher in class prior to setting the assignment. As a rule, each out-of-class writing assignment was preceded by theme-related pair-or group-discussions in class. The students were instructed to develop their out-of-class compositions in multiple drafts, refine those drafts and submit them to the instructor together with the revised and edited final product.

In completing written assignments, the students were expected to follow the written text format introduced to them at the beginning of instruction. Due dates were assigned for the essay tasks and late assignments were not accepted without a valid reason. In most cases, the students were allowed to choose whether they presented handwritten or computer-generated text versions; yet, they were required to provide a computer-generated final version of the post-course experimental text and peer evaluation texts. The students were expected

to submit their written scripts in class in printed form; electronic submissions were accepted only on rare occasions.

Student-teacher collaboration throughout the experimental EAP course was considered of utmost importance so as to increase student achievement in English academic literacy and serve the instructional goals of the writing module. The students were encouraged to approach the instructor in the office hours twice a week or correspond with her via e-mail in order for them to request additional information on the input material or assignments of the course, and receive feedback on their written texts or assistance with a particular language problem.

Writing development process

The following section details the most significant principles and methodological procedures applied in the development process of the students' English writing performance: the rehearsal and activation processes for composing in English (*Writing process stage 1*), and the consolidation and implementation processes for composing effective English texts (*Writing process stage 2*).

Writing process stage 1:
Rehearsal and activation processes for composing in English

Enhancing communicative interaction and cross-cultural awareness

The EAP writing module was designed to emphasise the communicative aspects of English with the aim to encourage the students as novice academic writers to use the target language more effectively in their real-world specialist discourse. Therefore, an important consideration in instruction was to provide the students with practical information on the socio-culturally different rhetorical situations and genres that Anglo-American academic writing presents, including several significant categories of discourse such as communicative interaction, the main idea and the writer's purpose, audience awareness, whole text organisation, text unity, style and register, and metacommunicative practices and strategies for writing in the English-speaking academic discourse community. Collaborative language learning techniques (i.e., pair, group and whole class work) were embedded in the module to offer the students regular opportunities to discuss their ideas and writing issues in the authentic and meaningful communicative context. Peer interaction was expected to motivate the students to go beyond surface-level writing in search of meaning and equip them with the knowledge of how to relate information into textual units (i.e., whole texts, paragraphs and sentences) to perform various communicative roles.

Sequencing writing assignments

Sequencing writing assignments was a key principle to follow in instruction so as to provide the students with a coherent writing course. Consistent with that principle, the students were directed to attend to a series of writing activities, starting from simpler pedagogic tasks devised to allow the writers to rehearse and activate their English writing knowledge and skills, gradually moving to more complex composing tasks designed to train the writers for specialist discourse in authentic settings. In broad outlines, the students were directed to perform a number of recursive and partly overlapping procedures and activities either in class or out of class:

1. Initial pair/group/whole class discussion
2. Authentic material and data collection
3. Brainstorming and self-evaluation of data
4. Teacher input
5. Written discourse analysis (with focus on different aspects of texts)
6. Pair/group/whole class discussion
7. Planning and outlining
8. *Writing the first draft*
9. Peer discussion
10. Self-evaluation
11. *Writing the second draft*
12. Peer evaluation
13. Peer discussion
14. Teacher response and evaluation
15. Revision and editing
16. *Writing the final draft*
17. Teacher evaluation and marking

While activities 1–6 were applicable to nearly all the tasks and assignments of the writing module, activities 7–17 were mostly applicable to composing tasks. Each next composing task, for example, was built upon a sequence of practical pre-writing, writing process, and post-writing activities from peer discussion and rhetorical analysis of texts to peer and teacher evaluation, and the application of the acquired knowledge into real-world writing contexts. The pre-writing activities were conducted either in the previous EAP class (e.g., initial discussion) or out of class (e.g., data collection), whereas the essay-writing activities were predominantly performed in multiple stages in the researching-composing-reviewing-revising-editing-evaluating process out of class. Due to time constraints, it was not possible to employ all the important writing process activities (e.g., peer evaluation and reviewing) in every composing task.

Authentic context and task relevance

An important precondition for qualitative changes in the students' English writing performance and their text composing practices was the opportunity for them to fulfil numerous authentic writing assignments under the guidance and support from their academic peers and L2 instructor, and partly also from their subject teachers. This was expected to inspire the students to create significant writing for the interested readership. As the primary goal of instruction was to maintain relevance with real-world use of academic English, it was essential to motivate the students to use authentic material from their own academic studies as a basis for their discussions and texts. In selecting the source material relevant for the students' field-specific context, subject teachers were invited to assist the students.

A crucial aspect of teaching was the creation of real academic context for pre-writing and post-writing activities in class, especially in the later stages of instruction. A regular feature of these classes was the students presenting their shorter written texts aloud in pairs, in groups or to the whole class. This method was expected to provide opportunities for the students to create a realistic application for their writing and receive constructive feedback both on the content of writing and the text from several peers. Authentic interaction with peers was expected to enhance the students' text revising and editing skills, and most importantly, improve the discourse quality of their texts.

Audience awareness

Orienting readers in the development of textual discussion is an important feature of effective academic texts. To achieve this aim in writing, the students were familiarised with native-reader expectations for the structure of Anglo-American prose already in the first sessions of instruction. They were introduced to the issues of clarity and focus, and the means for achieving these by providing information and explanations wherever necessary. In teacher-led writing seminars followed by collaborative in-class writing activities, the students were informed of the attributes of reader-based writing, namely, the linear form of writing, information flow from given to new, subject-verb close position, the linguistic stress position (theme-rheme) of the discourse unit, the inclusion of relevant material, and avoidance of verbosity and redundancy. To enable the students to practice these features of writing, they were assigned a set of out-of-class exercises to be checked and commented on in the following classes. Another instructional method was to apply written discourse analysis in class; for example, the students were provided with a short authentic excerpt of academic-scientific prose and working in pairs, they were directed to analyse the excerpt with specific focus on different readability factors.

Use of models

Both coherent and incoherent model texts were drawn upon in teaching as a resource to introduce the students to the framework of rhetorical structures and stylistic features of English written discourse. Models were expected to facilitate the students' understanding and interpretation of effective and non-effective texts and initiate them to improve the quality of their own writing. In language scaffolding activities, non-authentic models from various sources (e.g., course books, online instructional resources, etc.) were applied to introduce the students with relevant writing concepts and ensure learner reception of the material. Fine examples of how models were applied in instruction were parallel writing assignments out of class, including the tasks to draft a paragraph-length snippet (see Appendix 19E for the task and Appendix 35 for student sample texts) or a short written argument (see Appendix 19F for the task and Appendix 36 for student sample texts). These tasks were designed to empower the students to employ the knowledge they had gained from analysing models in their own texts and then present their ideas to the peer audience in class.

While pedagogic models were regarded as relevant in the introductory activities to different writing topics, the students were constantly reminded of the need to collect and examine authentic texts and not rely on non-authentic model texts as sole sources of English writing. Thus, further on in the course, authentic academic texts (e.g., excerpts from academic essays and short research articles) and student own texts were applied as authentic models in teaching so as to set the writers with meaningful tasks and through this increase their motivation for written interaction.

Written discourse analysis

The rationale for adopting some of the techniques of written discourse analysis (Wennerstrom 2003) in teaching was to encourage the students to treat written text as a means of communication. From the beginning of instruction, it was crucial to draw the students' attention away from the surface-level aspects of grammar and lexis and train them to focus on the global aspects of writing instead. Written discourse analysis of model and authentic texts was expected to allow the students as writers to better understand the whole text organisation, recognise forms of the whole text and within the text (e.g., in regard to the main ideas and supporting details) and detect various kinds of rhetorical patterns of development in writing. Another important aim of text analysis was to raise the students' awareness of genre-specific structure and motivate them to communicate their ideas better in relation to the purpose and audience of the text.

The dominant approach to text analysis applied in instruction was the top-down genre approach (e.g., Tribble 1996). By this approach, the students were first introduced to the concept of form on the whole piece of writing, then on the

level of paragraph and finally on the level of sentence. Likewise, in writing and reading English texts, the students were asked to concentrate first on larger discourse segments (i.e., clusters of paragraphs and single paragraphs) rather than smaller text units (i.e., sentences or words). This approach was expected to facilitate the students' discovery of text structuring patterns from whole text structure to paragraph and then only to sentence structure, and thus match language use to communicative purposes. However, depending on a specific writing task or situation (e.g., examining cohesion within or between sentences, etc.), the bottom-up structural analysis of texts starting with the smallest unit and moving to larger segments of discourse was also performed.

The first analytical activities were geared towards raising awareness of English text organising principles to aid the students to notice particular features of the target language. A typical written discourse analysis assignment was initiated with a workshop-mode discussion aimed at motivating the students to apply the specific rhetorical principles introduced by the teacher into practice, and facilitate their successful completion of the writing task. A good example of this strategy was a task conducted in informal groups (in Week 3): the students were asked to perform a written discourse analysis of short incoherent sample texts and provide suggestions for their improvement. Collaborative text analysis was hoped to raise the students' autonomy in class and thereby empower them as more effective writers.

In order to raise the students' awareness of a written text as a whole, they were asked to compare and contrast different model and authentic texts starting from pedagogic texts and short review articles, and moving to student sample essays and field-related scientific articles. The texts were first analysed in regard to the purpose, audience and meaning, and then to different attributes of writing, including the genre presentation, visual layout, paragraph development, use of specific features, and argumentation and style, among others. These activities were aimed at encouraging the students' understanding of different aspects of whole text organisation and different text-structuring patterns (e.g., problem-solution, general-specific, cause-effect, comparison-contrast, and some others). In written text analysis out of class, the students were directed to research the literacy practices of their academic fields and detect the key factors contributing to reader-based writing.

The focus of text analysis activities in the final stages of instruction ranged from the global level of writing and the written text as a whole to the surface level of discovering and applying specific lexico-grammatical features in texts. Hereby, it is relevant to note that the grammatical and lexical features of writing were not totally disregarded in instruction; these linguistic attributes were addressed in the communicative context of discourse in the final revision stage of writing. This instructional strategy was consistent with the overall concept of the writing module to focus on the textual phenomena rather than surface attributes of writing.

Text unity: Cohesion and coherence

An important consideration in teaching writing was to direct the students' focus on the attributes of discourse unity to achieve logical flow of thought in their texts. Thus, the students were acquainted with the intrinsic features of a coherent English text: a macrostructure, cohesion, an information structure, propositional development, and metadiscourse. The rationale for attending to these coherence-building attributes in teaching was to make the students aware of the interaction of these features in an English text and to encourage them to create coherent texts of their own.

Drawing on models of coherent and incoherent texts, the students were instructed to fulfil tasks on how to recognise, appreciate and create textual cues both on the surface level of writing (cohesion) and on the deeper levels of discourse (coherence). To help the students achieve greater coherence in their texts, a number of model-based activities were designed by imitating certain patterns of usage (e.g., connectedness on whole text, paragraph and sentence levels), and use of explicit cohesive devices (e.g., pronouns, repetitive structures, and transitional markers). In teacher-led seminars, the students were familiarised with the commonly occurring textual patterns in English academic genres, in particular, the general-specific, problem-solution, comparison-contrast, and cause-effect patterns, among others. They were likewise introduced to the conventional rhetorical patterns of technical writing, including those of mechanism and process description, classification and definition. In the activities to follow, the students were directed to recognise a specific pattern in a short pedagogic text to be able to apply the same macro-pattern as a way of organising thought in their own written texts.

As the problem-solution framework is one of the overarching patterns of English expository prose, this pattern was attended to in more detail. By way of illustration, the students in groups were instructed to examine an argumentative text on a specific issue (e.g., *Mobile phones*) and then expand on the topic in a 3-minute group presentation applying the problem-solution framework to it. Prior to building up the presentation, the students were expected to specify their prospective audience and purpose of discourse to be able to communicate their message with better focus. As a follow-up home activity, the students were invited to elaborate on their presentation notes and produce an individual argumentative essay based on these notes (see Appendix 18).

To teach the progression of information in English texts as a crucial contributor to coherence, the students were introduced to a number of inherent thematic patterns of English academic writing, including the principle of given-new and the principle of theme-rheme (Week 5). Drawing on these two principles, the students in pairs were assigned a task to analyse an extract of an incoherent student text and suggest changes to the text to improve the flow of logic in it. Further on (Weeks 6–7), the students were trained to use several whole text revising strategies to enhance the overall coherence and balance of their course essays. To specify, the student writers were instructed to copy the

thesis statement and paragraph topic sentences from their text into one paragraph, or applying a similar procedure, test the coherence of isolated paragraphs. While refining their written texts, the students were advised to focus on the concepts of propositional development and metadiscourse to be able to make explicit to the readership their communicative intentions. Application of the latter two concepts into teaching is addressed under '*Argumentation*' (p. 117) and '*Academic writing style and register*' (p. 118) respectively.

Integrated skills

Integration of different L2 academic skills in the teaching of writing was expected to enable the students to perceive purpose and audience in their texts rather than see the writing exercises, activities and tasks as isolated assignments. From another perspective, this strategy was expected to sustain student motivation and increase their benefit both from the writing module and the EAP course as a whole. Indeed, while the students were directed to engage in the complex matters concerned with English academic writing, they were also encouraged to discuss the issues related to the skills of speaking, listening and reading.

Analytical reading serves as a prime example of the above relation. Reading activities were designed to engage the students with English written text and thus provide them with a more advanced knowledge of text organisation and its attributes. Through closely related writing and reading activities both at macro and micro levels of language learning (e.g., data collection for writing; written text analysis, etc.), the students were expected to develop both their English competence and their cognitive and rhetorical abilities of text production and interpretation. While reading texts from different sources was expected to trigger the students' awareness of genre structure and recognition of genre-specific textual patterns and core linguistic features, examining field-related texts was expected to inform the students of the need to be able to adjust their writing to different academic contexts and purposes.

Prior to assigning the students reading tasks, written discourse analysis of model or authentic English texts was performed in class to enable the learners to receive genre and linguistic structures in reading and aim to produce them actively in their own writing. Another strategy was to encourage the students to search for supplementary reading material outside classes and bring this material to class for further reference and analysis in groups. On a weekly basis, the students were directed to read and analyse texts from different sources (e.g., newspapers, journals, electronic materials, etc.) and text types (e.g., summaries, popular-scientific texts, academic essays, opinion articles, critical reviews, field-related articles, etc.), and asked to report on their findings in peer discussions in class (see Appendix 5 for more details).

Towards the end of instruction (Weeks 9–15), the students were required to research excerpts from scientific articles, and analyse a more extended 50,000-character text of specialist discourse. They were asked to synthesise information provided in the text and draft a 200-word global summary for submission to the teacher. In addition, the students were invited to give a 2-minute talk on the issues discussed in the text. This activity was designed to allow the students to learn about their peers' research interest and practice their English discourse skills addressing authentic audiences.

Sentences as constituents of effective paragraphs

Although the primary goal of teaching was to develop the students' discourse proficiency in composing essay-length English texts, it was likewise important to improve the quality of their sentences. The rationale for addressing sentence skills was to introduce the students to the subtleties of sentence formation and combination in order for them to achieve focus, clarity, and flow at every level of writing. Thus, sentences were not examined in isolation but rather as the constructing elements of clear and effective paragraphs. Along these lines, in nearly each class in the second half of instruction, the students were exposed to common sentence formation and sentence combining problems, for example, faulty parallelism, faulty pronoun reference, sentence fragments, and misuse or lack of key words and cohesive devices. In addressing a problem area, different instructional methods were applied; for example, the students were presented with an instructor-led illustrative sentence analysis on board and then asked to analyse sets of flawed sentences collected from student sample essays (see Appendix 32) in pairs in class or individually out of class. A similar communicative task involved the students reading sentences from their texts aloud to their peers. Through a combination of reading aloud and receiving instant peer response, the students were directed to detect the sentences in which their ideas were not communicated effectively.

In the revision stage of writing, the students were encouraged to apply the significant concepts of thematic progression in texts (i.e., given-new and theme-rheme) to further revise their sentences and paragraphs for appropriate placement of topics and emphasis. The students were also trained to avoid verbosity, redundancy and unnecessary nominalisations in their sentences and encouraged to employ parallel constructions and pronoun referencing for better textual flow. Prior to editing the final version of their post-course experimental text (Week 11), the students were assigned to fulfil a complex task (adapted from Perelman et al. 1998) out of class to improve the style and quality of sentences taken from authentic academic articles. This writing activity was followed by a collaborative teacher-led seminar addressing the problems the students had detected in the sentences and the ways these problems could be avoided.

Paragraphs as constituents of effective texts

Significant attention in instruction was paid to paragraph writing (Week 2), especially in regard to the fundamentals of organisation and unity. Paragraph writing activities were focused on providing the students with practice in detecting the important discourse structures of smaller textual units and aiding them to exploit these structures successfully in their written texts. These activities were designed to foster both single paragraph development and combining paragraphs into whole texts. A traditional teacher-led input activity involved the use of sentence strips that the students were asked to reconstruct into a coherent model paragraph. After peer discussion in pairs, the students were introduced to a paragraph model and its basic components, including a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence with their inherent elements. The out-of-class language scaffolding assignments that followed were directed to identifying parts of a paragraph: determining the main idea, recognising topic sentences, deciding on the order of the supporting sentences, detecting and eliminating flawed and irrelevant sentences, writing topic sentences for the paragraphs, writing concluding sentences for the paragraph, combining topic sentences with supporting sentences based on various rhetorical models, and completing incomplete paragraphs. Additional activities, including, for example, matching headings to paragraphs, matching the beginnings and endings of sentences from a text, and similar others were assigned to the students to enable them to gain better awareness of English textual patterns.

Another paragraph writing activity, preceded by a rhetorical analysis of a few flawed paragraphs from student sample texts, directed the students to modelling paragraphs in pairs. As a follow-up activity, the students were asked to draft a couple of paragraphs out of class subject to further peer response and discussion in class (Weeks 2–3; for samples see Appendix 20). First, the students were required to compile an introduction and a conclusion to a model text in class, and then a short paragraph-length text on one of the teacher-provided general topics (e.g., *TV, Sport*, etc.) out of class. Already at this stage of 'composing', the students were required to narrow the topic down and follow the fundamental principles of paragraph development. They were instructed to provide their propositions with examples, details, and reasons to avoid general statements, and to create coherence through the logical development of ideas. Once these paragraph-length texts were due, they were submitted to the teacher and posted on the EAP course website. The students were then asked to select five paragraphs from the set and produce a coherent written evaluation of these texts (see Appendix 34 for student sample commentary). In the further stages of paragraph development in composing, in order to achieve paragraph unity, the students were advised, for example, to convert topic sentences from their own sample texts into questions and try to provide answers to these in the following sentences of their text (e.g., Hoey 1994). In a teacher-led input seminar (Week 2), the students were introduced to the important principles of textual

metadiscourse (see Appendix 2) and visual metadiscourse (e.g., first impression, chunking, and convention, etc.; Kumpf 2000) and reminded of the need to follow the surface organisation of an English text into visible functional units (i.e., introduction, body, and conclusion).

Argumentation

Lack of effective argumentation skills appears to be one of the most common deficiencies in Estonian writers' English academic texts (Rummel 2005b). In order to remedy this problem, a series of pedagogic writing tasks were devised for completion both in class and out of class (Week 6). In a mini-lecture, the students were introduced to the conventional argumentation modes of English rhetoric and the basic constituents of an argument (i.e., claim, counterclaim and rebuttal), and the organisation templates of the Anglo-American argumentative essay (Appendix 23). Next, the students were directed to perform a rhetorical analysis of a model argumentative essay in terms of text organisation, patterns of organisation, flow of logic, argumentation structure, and textual and visual metadiscourse. Further on, the students in informal groups were asked to respond to a general-interest topic supplied by the teacher (e.g., *Tourism*, etc.), create the thesis statement and invent supportive arguments for the thesis. In the reasoning process, the students were expected to list the possible counterclaims for their positions and exhibit awareness of the target audience that would either agree or disagree with their propositions. The students were then trained how to voice an opinion of their own and defend it in their writing not to merely transfer information or show their factual knowledge of a certain subject area. An important concern in this activity was to familiarise the students with appropriate rhetorical and linguistic tools for showing commitment or expressing criticism in English-medium academic contexts (see Appendices 19H and 19I). The main focus of the task was to introduce the students to the stylistic subtleties of English academic writing and encourage constructive rather than blaming criticism among them.

The students were then assigned a home task to choose a theme out of the four instructor-provided topics (or choose their own topic), define their position and defend their views in a short 150-word written text based on a six-step format of argumentation (see Appendix 19F). In the following class, the students were invited to present their texts aloud to persuade the real audiences (in pairs and as a whole class) and receive authentic feedback from their peers. As a preliminary step to composing an argumentative essay (Week 7), the students were instructed to compare two authentic student essays in regard to the purpose, and the mode of argumentation, and then invited to discuss in pairs their preferences for the rhetorical devices employed by the writers. The following activities out of class (reading) and further on in class (discussion) engaged the students in comparison of sample texts on the same topic written by different authors and representing differing viewpoints. In this procedure, the

students were asked to elicit attributes of language that the authors were employing to convince their readership of their claims. They were directed to consider the advantages and disadvantages of the issue discussed and find justification (i.e., evidence, support and examples) for their opinions. The rationale for these activities was to provide the students with an opportunity to apply the knowledge of English text construction and of rhetorical tools of argumentation to an original academic text.

Academic writing style and register

Advanced writing should exhibit a strong sense of style and register that matches the purpose of writing; however, as research has shown (Rummel 2005b), Estonian academic writers do not consider clear and contextually approriate written language an important textual feature of effective English prose. With this in mind, a range of instructional activities and practical exercises was developed for the writing module to inspire the students to adopt their individual composing styles to the Anglo-American academic writing style. The students were equipped with handouts detailing the instruments for hedging or showing commitment (Appendix 19H) and the most frequent epistemic devices used in English academic writing (Appendix 19I). The first instructional activities in this line were focused on adopting the appropriate register for academic writing. In order to raise the students' awareness of differences between the informal and formal written languages, they were directed to analyse sentences and paragraphs from various sources, identify the type of text and its level of formality, and elicit the distinguishing features of text style and register. The analysis was started as a whole-class teacher-supported activity and continued with students working in pairs. In the following teacher-led mini-lecture, the students were familiarised with the fundamental aspects of English academic writing style and register, for example, expressing neutrality, claim, uncertainty, agreement, disagreement and other subtle forms of writing. Partly as a drill of lexis, the students were instructed to compile and complete a list of vocabulary commonly applied in academic English providing formal equivalents to their informal counterparts (e.g., *to use → to apply*, *to implement*, *to adopt*, *to exploit*, etc.). In another task, they were expected to adjust a collection of sentences and paragraphs so as to cater for the requirements of formal written style.

In a more complex activity on style and register, the students in groups were directed to perform a task that combined writing, reading, speaking and sociolinguistic skills, and was aimed at enabling the students to achieve a greater delicacy of meaning in interaction. The students were provided with a sample text of their academic field and asked to identify features of metalanguage in it, including, for example, tentative verbs, modal auxiliaries, weak and strong reporting verbs, and some others. In the next stage of stylistic advancement, the students were expected to discuss the issues of the sample text

in groups, applying the stylistic features of tentative spoken language in their discourse. Finally, the students were instructed to perform a critical analysis of a challenging article in their academic field (10, 000 characters) and produce a written review of it, voicing their own opinion on the matter in the appropriate academic tone. For successful completion of the task, the students were directed to attend to the discourse development handouts of applying appropriate academic style and register in writing (Appendices 19H and 19I), giving opinions/critiques (Appendices 19D and 19E), and some others.

Writing process stage 2: Consolidation and implementation processes for composing effective English texts

The main text for composing: A five-paragraph essay

The dominating pedagogic text of the EAP writing module was a five-paragraph theme with its specific generic constraints for each sub-type (e.g., problem/ solution, comparison/contrast, argumentative, review, opinion, feedback, etc.). In the time-constrained instructional conditions of TUT, essay writing was expected to provide opportunities for the students to present their arguments and communicate those to their peers in an authentic academic context.

For the students, composing 5-paragraph essays was the most challenging activity of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module as successful completion of these texts demanded assimilation of the theoretical knowledge and practical skills they had acquired through instruction. To specify, the students were asked to research, write, and revise multiple drafts (N = 3–4) of 250–300-word texts (N = 5) for specific purposes and audiences (i.e., peers, the L2 instructor, subject teachers). The essays were produced in response to tutor-provided general-type topics that required synthesis of information and critical analysis of the given issue (for sample topics see Appendix 18). Although no restrictions to text length were set in essay writing tasks, the students were advised to compose texts of not more than 300 words so as to maintain their focus on text organisation and readability issues.

Text development and evaluation procedures

As mentioned earlier, the first essay-length composition of the EAP writing module was the pre-course experimental text 'How can we make the Internet more effective?' composed in the first English class (for further data see p. 127). The first out-of-class text was a 200-word self-cognitive needs analysis report 'What are my expectations of the EAP Course?'. Whereas the more complex composing tasks of writing the multiple-draft 5-paragraph themes were assigned to the students in the second half of instruction, the activation and rehearsal processes for these tasks were initiated already in the early stages of instruction

(see Writing process stage 1 on p. 108). Thus, from the first weeks of instruction, the students were introduced to the main principles of Anglo-American academic writing and familiarised with the qualitative criteria of an effective English text. With the aim to lead the students to a revised perception of English text construction, the following attributes of text and discourse were constantly highlighted in the composing stage:

- communicative aspect: audience awareness, reader expectations, and writer-reader relationship;
- the main idea and the writer's purpose;
- text unity: cohesion and coherence, patterns of text organisation, textual cues, cohesive devices, ordering of information, etc.;
- text organisation: introduction (thesis statement), body, and conclusion, etc.; evidence, details, and examples to support the statements, etc.;
- paragraph development: topic sentences, supporting sentences, and concluding sentences; evidence, details, and examples to support the statements, etc.;
- style and register: hedging, metadiscourse, variety of structures, clarity and focus, etc.

The same textual categories were attended to in providing teacher feedback to the students' finished essays and defining their progress in academic written discourse.

In drafting an essay, the students were required to respond to class discussion, a reading text or some other input stimulus and apply a specific text organisational pattern (e.g., problem-solution, comparison-contrast, etc.) introduced to them by the instructor prior to setting the task. In the writing process, the students were engaged in various autonomous and collaborative in-class and out-of-class activities: synthesising and analysing information, presenting relevant information, constructing an essay outline, arguing for alternative perspectives and providing evidence, details and examples to support their statements, applying patterns of text organisation, and focusing on the purpose and the target audience. In composing texts, the students were encouraged to take a position on the issue, based on that formulate a thesis statement and support their conclusions with examples and evidence. Having drafted their essays, the students were directed to revise and edit their first drafts; for each following essay task, they were introduced to a more complex evaluation procedure with more elaborated evaluation tools to apply (see Appendices 28–30 for Essay evaluation checklists).

The essay construction process was performed in six different stages involving various pre-writing, text composing and evaluation procedures in the following sequence of activities:

Stage 1 (autonomous in-class/out-of-class activity): in class, the students were asked to interpret the instructor-provided essay topic, narrow the theme down and collect their thoughts and opinions on the topic (1–2 minutes). In

some cases, the students were assigned an out-of-class pre-writing task combined with extended reading in order for them to gather information for writing from varied authentic sources.

Stage 2 (collaborative/autonomous in-class activity): the students were directed to discuss the essay topic with their peers (in pairs or groups) so as to collect additional information and identify relevant data for the development of the topic (5–7 minutes). In some cases, this stage was completed with an individual activity, in which the students were asked to formulate their thesis statements for the essay in written form (1–2 minutes).

Stage 3 (autonomous out-of-class activity): the students were assigned a task to draft a written text, self-evaluate it based on Essay evaluation checklist A (Appendix 28) and submit the text for feedback in the following week.

Stage 4a (autonomous out-of-class activity): the students were asked to evaluate a peer's second draft with focus on the macro-level attributes of writing applying Essay evaluation checklist B (Appendix 29), and then produce a well-structured 200–250-word written critique on the peer text. The peer evaluation pairs were pre-selected based on the placement test scores and teacher observation.

Stage 4b (collaborative in-class activity): drawing on their written critiques, the students were directed to discuss the peer drafts in the pre-selected pairs and provide comments on each other's texts with focus on the macro-level attributes of writing.

Stage 5 (autonomous out-of-class activity; recursive procedure): the students were instructed to revise and edit their drafts applying Essay evaluation checklists A and B (Appendices 28–29). They were asked to submit their revised and edited second drafts/third drafts for teacher evaluation and response. Having received feedback on their writing, the students were asked to further refine their texts and produce the final drafts subject to teacher evaluation and marking.

Stage 6a (collaborative in-class activity): the students were engaged in a whole class teacher-led writing conference (Week 12) discussing their writing achievements and the common problems in their essays. The focus of this discussion was on meaning rather than form, whereas the aspects of form were addressed in more detail in the final stages of text construction and also in regard to EAP Final Examination Writing Test (Week 13).

Stage 6b (student-teacher conferencing): in the pre-scheduled student-teacher conferencing sessions (Weeks 11–12), each student received feedback on the collection of his/her course written texts and advice on further revision of the texts. Apart from participating in student-teacher conferencing sessions, the students were directed to receive feedback on their texts also in regular office hours.

It should be noted that whereas stages 1, 2, 3, 5 were applied with minor modifications to most essay writing assignments of the writing module, stages 4a, 4b (peer evaluation) and stages 6a, 6b (conferencing) were employed only in

the more complex writing tasks (e.g., the post-course experimental essay) in the final stages of instruction. At each stage of composing, multiple self-evaluation, revision and editing of drafts was performed. As Table 8 suggests, most essays were developed in three drafts (A), except for the peer-evaluated pre-course experimental text that was elaborated in four drafts (B). While the first drafts were refined mostly with focus on the macro-level attributes of writing, the final text was revised and edited also in regard to the micro-level features of writing.

Prewriting activities

It was an instructional priority in the writing module to involve the students in text production activities that would allow them to communicate meaning prior to addressing the form. For that purpose, the students were invited to explore the writing topic collectively in a positive atmosphere in class to motivate them to express their ideas rather than be constantly concerned with language issues. In a teacher input session, the students were presented with different ways of how to structure information by note taking, semantic mapping, flowcharting and graphic organisers, and how to establish the logical flow of ideas. Prior to pair, group or whole class discussion on the assigned writing topic, the students were asked to complete a 2-minute note-taking or free-writing task to extract ideas of interest for the theme. In peer discussion, the students were invited to share their existing knowledge in order for them to collect additional data and elicit relevant details for their writing. The data collection process was continued with additional pre-writing activities out of class, in which the students were directed to consult various authentic information sources (e.g., non-academic and academic texts; periodical articles; field-specific journal articles and books; electronic, audio and video materials, and other sources), and synthesise and analyse the information gained from these texts for further reference in class.

Table 8. Drafting and evaluation procedures in the composing stage of the EAP writing module

A. The conventional procedure for course written essays[1]
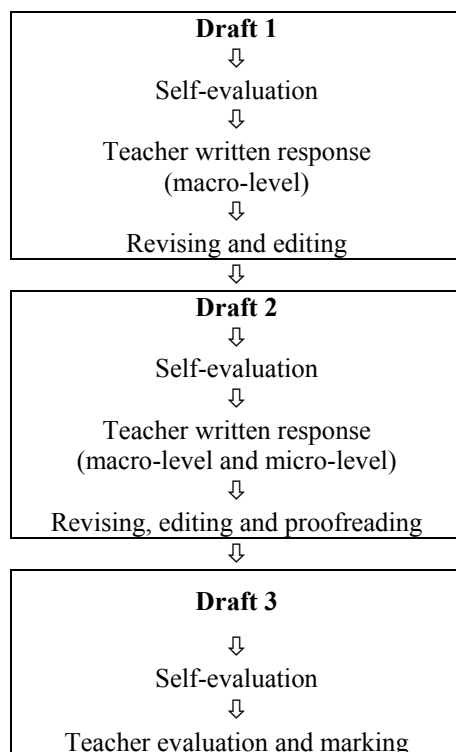
B. The procedure for the pre-course experimental essay[1]

Draft 1
⇩
Self-evaluation
⇩
Teacher written response (macro-level)
⇩
Revising and editing

⇩

Draft 2
⇩
Self-evaluation
⇩
Teacher written response (macro-level and micro-level)
⇩
Revising, editing and proofreading

⇩

Draft 3
⇩
Self-evaluation
⇩
Teacher evaluation and marking

Draft 1
⇩
Self-evaluation in class
⇩
Self-evaluation out of class
⇩
Revising and editing

⇩

Draft 2
⇩
Self-evaluation
⇩
Peer written response (macro-level)
⇩
Peer discussion
⇩
Teacher written response (macro-level)
⇩
Revising and editing

⇩

Draft 3
⇩
Self-evaluation
⇩
Teacher written response (macro-level and micro-level)
⇩
Revising, editing and proofreading

⇩

Draft 4
⇩
Self-evaluation
⇩
Teacher evaluation and marking
⇩
Expert reader evaluation and marking

[1] These drafting and evaluation procedures involved student individual consultations with the teacher in office hours or whole class-teacher conferencing sessions in class.

Evaluation and assessment procedures

Revising and editing

The EAP writing module was devised so as to offer the students both non-evaluative (in the rehearsal and activation stage) and evaluative (in the composing stage) opportunities for writing. The student-centred approach to teaching was highlighted in the formative feedback such as self-evaluation and peer-evaluation, combined with teacher response and evaluation to student writing at each following stage of the writing process. The students were encouraged to evaluate and critique, in a constructive manner, their own work and their peers' work, and make judgements on whether they had successfully communicated their ideas to the intended readership. Text revision and editing in the collaborative atmosphere was expected to contribute well to the desired instructional outcome of the module. Thus, throughout instruction, the focus of evaluation of written drafts was primarily on the macro-level aspects of discourse (e.g., readability, content, text unity, writing process, etc.) rather than the micro-level attributes of language (e.g., grammar, lexis and mechanical accuracy); however, in consideration of the EAP Final Examination requirements, the final drafts of student essays were evaluated and marked also on the surface features of writing (i.e., grammar, lexis, and mechanical accuracy; see Appendix 12 for Sample marking scale of TUT).

First of all, the students were introduced to the procedural steps in text evaluating, revising and editing, and to the criteria of evaluation and marking (Appendices 28–30). For each stage in the evaluation process, the students were directed to attend to a different checklist to evaluate their own and their peer's writing. Essay evaluation checklists A and B were devised with focus on meaning, purpose, audience, text organisation and rhetorical skills of communication, providing the students with schemata in regard to evaluating text unity, cohesion and coherence, patterns of organisation, paragraph unity and other attributes of writing. Essay evaluation checklist C was instrumental in enabling the students to edit the final versions of their texts in terms of the linguistic features of grammar, lexis and mechanics. As mentioned above, the students were advised to focus on linguistic matters only in the final drafts of writing.

In each subsequent stage of instruction, the students were required to demonstrate mastery of increasingly more complex discourse skills and rhetorical patterns, and address problems and remedy flaws specifically concerned with these issues. A good in-class collaborative practice (in pairs or groups) was to critique different language units such as whole texts, single paragraphs and, in the final stage of teaching, sentences for 'non-grammatical' errors. These revision and editing activities were devised to help the students to detect flaws in the textual patterns and logic of their own and their peers' writing, minimise deficiencies in their writing and thus lead them to perceive the basic textual conventions of English written discourse.

Peer evaluation and response

Peer evaluation and response as the writer-reader-writer authentic interaction was embedded in the writing module to promote the students' communicative competence in English and thereby motivate them to enhance the discourse quality of their texts. Peer feedback was given in written and oral formats addressed to both course participants and the instructor. The ultimate aim of peer collaboration was to provide opportunities for the students to internalise guidelines for producing reader-based writing. By giving feedback to their peers and suggestions for how to improve their texts, the students were expected to develop a wider perspective on the writing process and the writer-reader relationship in it. By receiving encouraging comments from their peers, the students were expected to become more motivated to communicate their knowledge in a more effective manner. By receiving critical response from their peers, the students were directed to start reflecting more deeply on the textual deficiencies in their texts.

Peer evaluation proficiency was developed in several in-class and out-of-class tasks and activities. A typical in-class activity engaged the students in a lengthy discussion in pairs or groups on both the positive and negative features of a model text distributed to them for immediate evaluation and critique. As a follow-up activity, the students were expected to provide suggestions for the further improvement of the text. In different out-of-class activities, the students were instructed to respond to the ideas presented in the peers' drafts (see, e.g., Appendix 38), evaluate the drafts for meaning and rhetorical structure, or revise own drafts in response to peer comments. Again, in reviewing peer texts, the students were asked to focus primarily on the discoursal aspects of writing; however, with the aim to train the students' in text editing and proofreading skills, especially for the EAP examination, they were also asked to provide comments on the local aspects of writing. In the succeeding peer discussions in class, the student 'critics' were expected to provide their peers with both challenging and encouraging oral feedback on how the writers could reformulate the ideas and restructure their English texts for better readability and quality. A central requirement of the writing module for the students was to peer evaluate and critique each other's post-course experimental essays; thus, prior to submitting the revised and elaborated third drafts for teacher feedback, the students were expected to refine their papers considering also their peers' suggestions.

Teacher guidance and response

Teacher guidance in student writing activities and regular response (both oral and written) to their writing was regarded crucial to the improvement of the students' discourse proficiency in academic English. In order for the instructor to be able to provide weekly response to the writing in progress and prompt evaluation of the finished texts presented for marking, the students were

required to submit their texts on due dates assigned in the course schedule. Again, as the EAP writing module was designed to be discourse driven, teacher feedback, especially in the early stages of drafting, was focused primarily on larger textual issues, highlighting the mechanisms instrumental in the development of the students' writing ability for purposes, meanings and audiences rather than surface-level linguistic deficiencies. With each next composing task, teacher response was geared to draw attention to certain text-specific points, assessed in the form of short in-text and marginal comments, and a post-text conclusive commentary. While in-text feedback was provided mostly in symbols and codes, the commentary was composed as a coherent whole to foster writer-reader interaction. Both positive comments and critical remarks were included in the feedback (Ferris 2006) to emphasise the students' achievement in their English written discourse proficiency and aid revision in patterns of textual errors. In consideration of the EAP Final Examination requirements, the final versions of the regular essays were assessed also on the linguistic aspects of texts (i.e., *minimal marking*; Hyland 2003), especially in respect to more serious flaws in writing. Substantial written feedback, covering both the global and local aspects of writing was provided to the students' post-course experimental texts.

Writing conferences

Towards the end of instruction (Weeks 12–14), teacher response to student writing was provided also by means of interactive writing conferences either in the collaborative class-teacher mode or individual student-teacher mode. Teacher-led collaborative writing conferences were incorporated into teaching to aid the students' text revision processes, and address the frequent rhetorical problems and patterns of error. The first class-teacher conference was held before the peer evaluation session (Week 8); this session introduced the students to the principles of text evaluation on a model text and provided opportunities for them to practise the skills they should be applying in the text evaluation procedure. The second class-teacher conference was conducted before the EAP Final Examination Writing Test (Week 12); this session was based on the analysis of student peer-commented, revised and edited post-course experimental essays, and the examination practice essays composed in the previous class. The third class-teacher writing conference was held in the final week of the EAP course (Week 16); by that session the students had submitted the evaluation questionnaire of the EAP writing module and the standard evaluation questionnaire of the EAP course. The final conferencing was designed to address the students' achievement in the writing module and elicit their perceptions of the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing. In regular student-teacher conferences, the students were provided with additional feedback on both their essays and the (commented and marked) course continuous assessment texts.

Student pre-course and post-course experimental texts

The rationale for conducting a comparative diagnostic test with student pre-course and post-course essay-length texts across the samples was to explore whether the discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing in the test samples of TUT was beneficial in fostering the students' English discourse proficiency in contrast to a more traditional teaching in the control samples of EAC and ITC. In the first class of EAP instruction, the subjects across all samples were assigned a task to compose a 250-word experimental essay '*How can we make the Internet more effective?*' under timed test conditions (45 minutes). A revised and edited version of this pre-course experimental text (i.e., the post-course experimental essay completed out of class), due for submission in Week 12 of instruction, was expected to serve as a qualitative measure of the students' course exit English academic writing proficiency. A pre-selected set of the pre-course and post-course essays (N = 23/23) were assessed and marked by expert readers (N = 5) from several tertiary institutions of Estonia in spring 2008 to provide the research with valuable data for further analysis.

Text composing procedure

The procedure in the test samples (TS1 and TS2). The students accomplished the pre-course essay assignment under timed conditions (45 minutes) in class and submitted their written drafts to the instructor (Week 1). As can be seen in Table 9, in the course of instruction, the students were expected to develop the essay in four drafts subject to self-evaluation (Draft 1), peer evaluation (Draft 2), multiple self-revision and editing (Drafts 1–3), and multiple teacher feedback and evaluation (Drafts 2–4). The final version of the pre-course experimental text (Draft 4; i.e., the post-course experimental essay) was submitted for teacher evaluation and marking in Week 12.

In Week 8, the first drafts of the pre-course essay were returned to the students (with no teacher feedback provided) in order for them to perform a 10-minute written discourse analysis of their own texts in class. It was a central instructional strategy not to provide teacher response or any comment on the first draft but let the students self-evaluate their texts. Prior to the self-evaluation activity, a 'focus' draft (White 1995b) was analysed collaboratively in class to enable the students to reflect on the discourse knowledge they had acquired in instruction, and to empower them to introduce parallel improvements to their pre-course drafts. The focus draft was an authentic student essay selected from the sample texts of the pilot study (2000–2002). In the process of analysing their pre-course first drafts, the students were instructed to attend to the text evaluation criteria (p. 93) and Essay evaluation checklist A (Appendix 28), and write note-form post-text comments on their texts; the students were not allowed to write any comments in their original texts except

Table 9. The composing procedure of the pre-course experimental text

Week	Draft No	Activity	Peer response	Teacher response	Focus on text	Writing skills
1	1	1. In class: composing a 250–word written essay in 45 minutes on a teacher-provided topic 'How can we make the Internet more effective?'	–	–	unknown	composing
8		2. In class: analysing the essay based on text evaluation criteria (p. 93) Essay Evaluation Checklist A; writing note-form post-text comments on the original version	–	–	macro-level	self-evaluation and revision
		3[1]. Analysing and revising the essay based on Essay Evaluation Checklist B; writing the *second draft*	–	–	macro-level	self-evaluation and revision
9	2	1. Peer evaluating the partner's *second draft* based on Essay Evaluation Checklist B; producing a *written peer review*	peer response	–	macro level	peer evaluation, self-evaluation and revision
		2. Submitting the second draft for teacher evaluation	–	teacher response	macro-level	
		3. Revising and refining the essay based on self-, peer and teacher evaluation and the Essay Evaluation Checklist B; writing the *third draft*	peer response	teacher response	macro-level	self-evaluation and revision

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Table 9. Continuation

Week	Draft No	Activity	Peer response	Teacher response	Focus on text	Writing skills
10	3	1. Submitting the third draft for teacher evaluation	–	teacher response	macro-level and micro-level	self-evaluation, revision, editing and proof-reading.
		2. Revising, editing and proofreading the text based on self-, peer and teacher evaluation and the Essay Evaluation Checklists A, B and C; composing the *final text*	peer response	teacher response		
12	4	1. Submitting the finished text for teacher evaluation and marking	–	teacher evaluation and marking	macro-level and micro-level	–
2008 spring		2. Submitting the text for expert reader evaluation	–	expert reader evaluation		

[1] If not specified otherwise, the following activities were performed out of class.

for circling the cohesive devices used in writing. The focus of analysis was on the communicative aspects of English written discourse (i.e., meaning, purpose, and audience), and the macro-level attributes of writing (i.e., text unity, coherence, argumentation and style).

By Week 9, the students were expected to produce a revised version (Draft 2) of the pre-course text drawing on their post-text comments, the essay evaluation checklists, and the knowledge gained through instruction. In revising their texts, the students were instructed to maintain their focus on the macro-level attributes of writing. Draft 2 of the pre-course essay was presented for peer evaluation: the students as critical readers were distributed a copy of a peer's draft each and assigned a task (out of class) to produce a critical 250-word review of the text addressed from the student writer to his or her fellow student and the English instructor. Peer evaluation pairs were pre-selected based on the students' placement test scores and teacher observations. The written peer reviews were expected to involve a general assessment of the peer's text in accordance with the text evaluation criteria and Essay evaluation checklist B (Appendix 29), and a brief overview of both the accomplishments and areas for improvement in the text. The reviews were submitted for further pair discussion in class. Upon completion of the peer discussion, the students were instructed to present their second drafts (with their original first drafts and end-note self-evaluation comments) and peer reviews for teacher feedback and comment.

Once the students had completed the self-evaluation (Draft 1) and peer evaluation (Draft 2) procedures, and received discourse-focused feedback from the teacher (Draft 2), the students were required to revise and refine their second drafts attending to both the macro-level and micro-level features of writing (Essay evaluation checklists B and C; Appendices 29–30). While submitting the revised and edited texts (Draft 3) for teacher response, the students were also required to submit all the previously produced texts related to the experimental essay, including the pre-course original text with the self-evaluation comments, the peer written review and Draft 2. The students were instructed to submit the elaborated final versions of their pre-course experimental texts (Draft 4; i.e., the post-course experimental texts) for teacher evaluation and marking by Week 11 prior to the English Examination Writing Test (Week 13). Again, the students were required to hand in all the writing process texts of the experimental essay (the original text with the self-evaluation commentary, the peer evaluation review, and Drafts 2–3).

Student post-course feedback on the writing module

The students were encouraged to provide feedback on the EAP writing module through regular tutorial-workshop-seminar-conference-type discussions and the post-course evaluation written measures, including student post-course evaluation questionnaire of the EAP course (Appendix 8) and student post-course evaluation questionnaire of the EAP writing module (Appendix 9).

Continuous formative feedback was obtained during regular class activities and during class-teacher and student-teacher conferencing with students commenting on their written assignments, writing difficulties, the course organisation and other relevant topics. Summative feedback was received both in written and oral forms. By Week 15, the students were asked to submit their responses to the post-course evaluation questionnaires for further reference and discussion in the class-teacher conferencing session in the final class. In this session, the students were encouraged to reflect on the knowledge and experience of English academic writing they had gained in the EAP writing module, discuss the positive and negative aspects of instruction, and comment on the development of their writing performance through discourse-oriented teaching.

This chapter addressed the theoretical principles and instructional practices of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module designed for the undergraduate students of TUT (TS1–TS2). Chapter 4 will present the overall findings of the research obtained from the empirical study (2004–2008) through student pre-course and post-course questionnaires and through expert reader evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts.

CHAPTER 4:
RESULTS

This chapter reports on the findings of the empirical study conducted with the test samples of TUT (TS1 and TS2), and the control samples of EAC (CS of EAC) and ITC (CS of ITC) in 2004–2008. The aim is to provide evidence for the efficacy of discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction and for the improvement in the communicative quality of the test subjects' post-course English writing performance through this instruction. The chapter presents data obtained from student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires (Appendices 6–7) and post-course evaluation questionnaires (Appendices 8–11) across the four samples, and from expert reader evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts. Consideration is also given to variations in data collection (e.g., sample-specific research instruments) due to different instructional contexts.

Student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires

One of the aims of the empirical study was to investigate how to teach Estonian students to enhance their discourse proficiency in English academic writing. From that perspective, it was important to determine the students' experiences and practices in English writing, and their needs and expectations for tertiary writing instruction. The students' responses were expected to provide valuable qualitative data for this research and for the further development of EAP writing programmes in Estonia.

The pre-course needs analysis questionnaire
for the test samples of TUT and the control sample of ITC

This pre-course needs analysis measure (Appendix 6) comprised eight writing-related questions regarding the students' L2 background and their expectations for EAP instruction (Q1–2), and their background as L2 writers (Q3, Q5, Q7, Q8, Q9 and Q10). The students (TS1: N = 23; TS2: N = 13; CS of ITC: N = 18) completed the questionnaire in the first English class. Most students (94%) responded to all the questions in sufficient detail. In rank order items (Q3, Q8, Q10), however, some students (7%) appeared to have misinterpreted the questions and provided unexpected, incomplete or irrelevant answers. As is often the case, most students left the space provided for comments unfilled and only as few as 18% of the students added further comments to their responses. An expected finding in student responses across L2 proficiencies was the diversity of form: while the C1-level subjects addressed the questions in several

lines, the B2-level subjects tended to respond to the questions in short note-form statements.

Question 1 asked the students to reveal their motives for enrolling in the EAP course. As was only anticipated, the most frequently suggested answer for this question was formulated as '*to improve my knowledge of English*' or '*to develop my skills in English'*. Further, the students articulated a need to develop their grammar and speaking skills (27%) and only a few of them (5%) mentioned writing in this respect.

Question 2 asked the students to reveal how they had acquired their L2 skills. It appeared that more than half of the students (54%) had studied English at school for 8–10 years, 22% of them had studied the language for 11–12 years and 24% of them for 5–7 years. None of the students reported any previous experience with real-world English academic writing.

Question 3 was devised to elicit the students' perceptions of their L2 proficiency; in response to this item, the students were requested to self-rate their skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking on a 5-point scale ('5' – excellent; '1' – poor). The responses to this question reflected minor distinctions in student self-assessment across the three samples and L2 proficiencies. In Test Sample 1, for example, none of the B-level subjects considered their L2 proficiency as equivalent to mark '5' in any of the four skills, while the C1-level subjects identified mark '5' as relevant for their reading (72%), listening (45%), and speaking (54%) proficiencies. As regards the skill of writing, the B2-level subjects rated their ability as equivalent to marks '4' (41%), '3' (33%), '2' (16%) or '1' (8%), whereas the C1-level subjects rated it as equivalent to marks '4' (66%) and '3' (33%). It was apparent that the B2-level subjects rated their L2 speaking ability (mark '4' 25%, mark '3' 58% and mark '2' 33%) considerably lower than their L2 writing ability. The trends were reversed for the C1-level subjects that attributed high marks (mark '5' 54% and mark '4' 45%) in regard to their L2 speaking ability.

In Test Sample 2, no significant differences in the responses of the two L2 proficiency groups were detected. Surprisingly, none of the subjects of TS2 perceived their L2 proficiency as equivalent to mark '5' in any of the skills. The subjects assessed their writing skills with marks '4' (46%), '3' (38%) and '2' (15%), speaking skills with marks '4' (46%), '3' (46%) and '2' (7%) and reading skills with marks '4' (33%) and '3' (67%). It was not unexpected that the subjects considered listening the most difficult L2 skill to acquire with the lowest mark of '2' (67%) dominating in student responses.

In Control Sample of ITC, none of the B-level subjects valued their English skills as highly as equivalent to mark '5', except for one case in speaking. At the same time, an unexpectedly large proportion of these subjects assessed their reading (87%) and listening skills (75%) quite highly as equivalent to mark '4'. A somewhat surprising finding was that as many as 37% of the B-level subjects regarded speaking as their least developed L2 skill with marks '2' and '1', whereas they assessed their skills in writing considerably more highly with

marks '4' (50%), '3' (37%) and '2' (12%). The C1-level subjects' responses were equally distributed over marks '5', '4' and '3'. Whereas the students attributed mark '5' to listening (40%) and reading (30%) as their most advanced L2 skills, they expressed slight concerns about writing with only 10% of responses for mark '5', 50% for mark '4' and 30% for mark '3'. In all, clear variations existed in student responses across the samples and L2 proficiency groups. It can be argued that the C1-level subjects seemed to realise that they had deficiencies in L2 writing, whereas the B2-level subjects tended to disregard problems with writing and considered speaking as their most underdeveloped skill of English.

Question 5 requested the students to indicate the frequency (A – often; B – sometimes; C – rarely; D – never) of English writing in their academic or professional activities. The B2-level subjects' responses to this question across the three samples were quite similar: only one student of both TS1 and TS2 selected the answer '*often*', the majority of students selected the answer '*sometimes*' (TS1 58%; TS2 57% and CS of ITC 87%), and the rest of the students opted for the answers '*rarely*' (10–17%) and '*never*' (10–17%). By contrast, the C-level subjects' responses across the sample groups varied quite significantly. Thus, 36% of the subjects of TS1, none of the subjects of TS2, and as many as 60% of the subjects of CS of ITC reported that they would '*often*' need to write in English. Only a few of the C1-level subjects chose '*rarely*' as an answer and none of the subjects suggested that they would '*never*' have to write anything in English. An almost equal proportion of the subjects of TS1 (46%) and CS of ITC (40%), and a slightly larger number of the subjects of TS2 (67%) opted for '*sometime*s'.

Question 7 asked the students to report what kind of English writing they would need to produce for their immediate and target academic and professional purposes. A fairly large proportion of the subjects (TS1 62%; TS2 56%; CS of ITC 68%) believed that they would need to write '*letters'* most frequently; the other texts suggested were '*reports*' (TS1 27%; TS2 18%; CS of ITC 42%), '*specialist material*' (TS1 27%; TS2 18%; CS of ITC 47%), and '*lecture notes*' (TS1 18%; TS2 23%; CS of ITC 21%). A somewhat surprising result was that writing '*translations*' was considered relevant by as many as 53% of the subjects of ITC; this may be due to the existence of a specific text type of technical translations in IT. Writing '*essays*' was mentioned only by 9% of the subjects of TS2. In some cases (13%), the students did not specify the text.

Question 8 directed the students to reflect on what English academic literacy skills they would need to develop further for success in authentic academic contexts. Responses to this item revealed anticipated results: a fairly substantial number of the students across the samples and L2 proficiencies (TS1 75%; TS2 80%; CS of ITC 78%) ranked speaking as the most valuable language skill for English academic discourse. However, the students were partly divided in regard to the skill of reading; for example, while the C-level subjects of ITC appeared to appreciate reading, ranking it first (50%) or second (20%) in

importance, quite a few of the subjects of TS1 (19%) and TS2 (38%) placed reading only as third in importance or regarded it as the least important L2 literacy skill for their target careers (TS1 38%; TS2 38%).

Most students seemed to recognise the value of effective English writing skills for their future academic success; nevertheless, responses indicated some variability across the samples and L2 proficiencies. It appeared that a relatively small proportion of the subjects (TS1 12%; TS2 7%; CS of ITC 11%) attributed the highest significance to writing, ranking it first among the other skills; however, an encouraging result was that almost one third of the subjects of TS1 (30%) and TS2 (23%) ranked writing second in importance. A somewhat unanticipated finding was that the subjects of ITC rated the skill of L2 writing dominantly as third (61%) or fourth (28%) in significance.

Responses obtained from the subjects of different L2 proficiency groups were varied. Clearly, the C1-level subjects attributed far greater importance to the development of their English writing skills and further instruction in EAP writing than their lower-level peers. This attitude was particularly noticeable with the C1-level subjects of TS1 (64%) giving prominence (Ranks 1–2) to competence in writing as one of the major contributors to their academic success. As opposed to that, only 23% of the B2-level subjects of TS1 considered the improvement of their EAP writing skills of high importance. Whereas in TS2, no clear differences between the B2-level and C1-level subjects' views could be observed, certain distinctions in student preferences emerged in CS of ITC. By way of illustration, the C-level subjects of ITC appeared to value the skill of reading ranking it first (50%) or second (20%) in importance, whereas the B2-level subjects prioritised speaking (88%) as the most significant skill to develop for their careers. It was somewhat unexpected that the subjects of ITC did not attribute high value to the development of their L2 writing skills and ranked this ability as third (44%) or even fourth (40%) in importance.

Question 9 asked the students to define 'academic writing'. The students referred to academic writing as being '*formal*' (56%), '*complex*' (30%), '*scientific*' (15%), '*technical*' (11%), '*serious*' (6%), and requiring specific '*terminology*' (35%), '*academic form and style*' (22%), and '*conventions and norms*' (11%). A brief sampling of student definitions is presented below:

- Academic writing is a way of a student to express his (her) thoughts on a piece of paper with appropriate academic phrases. (B2)
- Academic writing is official style of writing. You must know a little bit more than you have studied in high school. (B2)
- /.../ [it is] writing research in an academic manner. (C1)
- An academic writing course is an excellent way of improving one's writing skills in order to perform well and persuade people. (C1)
- Academic writing requires using academic form and style in writing. (C1)

An encouraging observation was that in their definitions, nearly none of the subjects seemed to perceive English academic writing as merely a manifestation of the writer's linguistic competence of grammar and lexis, although one B-level subject referred to L2 academic writing as '*writing accurate English*'. Although the students' responses did not reveal any significant variations, some reservations as to how to interpret the term 'academic writing' could be observed in CS of ITC. This was probably due to the specific curricular context of ITC with focus on the development of learners' English oral presentation skills and terminology rather than academic writing skills.

Question 10[1] directed the students to rank six aspects of English academic writing: *grammar, organisation, vocabulary, spelling* and *punctuation, content* and *good ideas*.
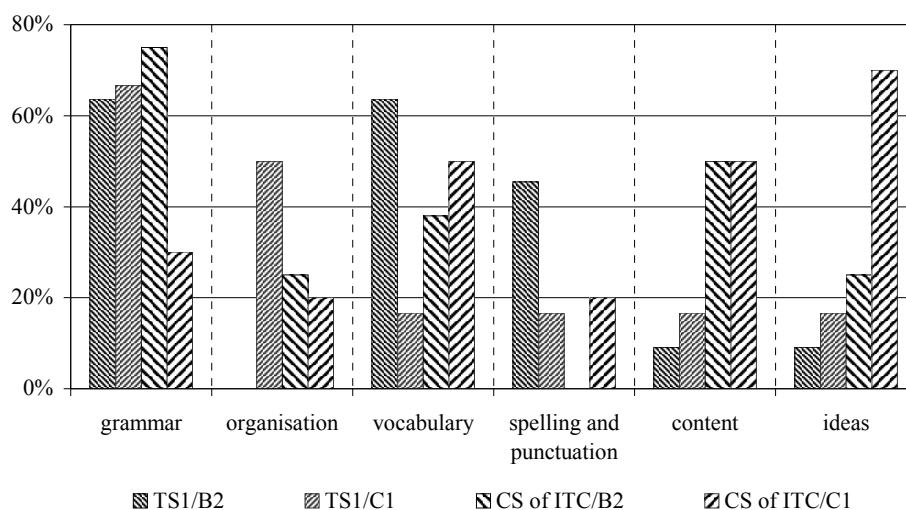
Figure 6. Distribution of student responses to Question 10 obtained from samples TS1 and CS of ITC.

Figure 6 presents the combined totals of Ranks 1 and 2 (1 – of high importance; 6 – of low importance) in TS1 and CS of ITC. As the figure reveals, the students' responses showed a fairly significant division of opinion in these six aspects of writing. A considerable number of the students ranked grammar as the most important aspect of English academic writing; the values attributed to

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[1] Question 10 was applicable to TS1 and CS of ITC only; samples TS2 and CS of EAC addressed the item in their post-course questionnaires. The choice of samples for responding to this specific item either pre course or post course was dependent on the development of the experimental study: TS1 and CS of ITC were examined in 2004–2006, whereas TS2 and CS of EAC were examined in 2006–2007.

grammar were equally high in the B2-level samples of TS1 (63%) and CS of ITC (75%), and in the C1-level sample of TS1 (67%). It is worth noting though that the C1-level subjects of ITC attributed grammar a considerably lower value (30%) and recognised good ideas (70%) and content (50%) instead.

Comparing the students' responses in the other aspects of L2 writing, certain distinctions between the different sample groups could be noticed. It appeared that as many as 63% of the B2-level subjects of TS1 and 50% of the C1-level subjects of ITC considered vocabulary of utmost importance in English academic writing, whereas in the other samples, a fairly small number (17–38%) of the subjects attributed the highest significance to that feature. Nearly half (45%) of the B2-level subjects of TS1 ranked spelling and punctuation first and second in importance, whereas only 17–20% of the subjects of the other samples placed these aspects high in their rating.

Text organisation was the area that brought in marked differences in the students' answers. Even though almost half (45%) of the subjects of TS1 ranked text organisation third and fourth in value, nearly the same number (50%) of the subjects of ITC ascribed minimal importance to this aspect of English writing. A noticeable observation was that while as many as 50% of the C1-level subjects of TS1 attributed the highest significance to text organisation, and 33% of the subjects placed it third and fourth, only 20% of the C1-level subjects of ITC regarded organisation of high importance in L2 academic writing, and 40% of the subjects ranked it third and fourth. It was found that none of the B2-level subjects considered text organisation highly significant in English written discourse.

The role of content knowledge and good ideas in the production of effective English texts brought in distinctions between the subjects of TS1 and ITC. These aspects received low scores from the subjects of TS1; for instance, only 9% of the B2-level subjects and 17% of the C1-level subjects placed them first and second in value. As opposed to that, the C1-level subjects of ITC recognised good ideas (70%) and content knowledge (50%) highly; likewise, a considerable proportion of the B2-level subjects of ITC ranked content knowledge (50%) first in significance.

The pre-course needs analysis questionnaire for the control sample of EAC

The primary objective of this tailor-made instrument (Appendix 7) was to obtain data on the students' L2 experiences and practices and their expectations for the integrated-skills TOEFL iBT Test preparation course (Q1–4; Q8). Apart from this, the instrument was expected to provide data on the students' L2 writing ability and their perceptions of the development of this academic literacy skill (Q5, Q6, Q7 and Q8). Responses to the latter four questions will be reported here as relevant for this research.

The students completed the pre-course needs analysis questionnaire in English in the first EAP/ESP class. Most students provided complete answers to Questions 5, 6, 7 and 8. However, some students (4%) failed to rank the seven aspects in Question 6 and selected a few most important items instead, whereas some other students (8%) reported to have reservations about Question 7 and did not fill it in.

In Question 5, the subjects were expected to evaluate their English skills — *listening, reading, writing, speaking,* and *structure (grammar)* — on a five-point scale ('5' – excellent; '1' – poor). Data received from the responses revealed expected variations between students of different L2 proficiency levels. Only the C1-level subjects rated their L2 proficiency as highly as equivalent to mark '5', for example, in listening (33%), speaking (33%) and reading (22%). Just over half (55%) of the C1-level subjects attributed mark '4' to their L2 reading and listening proficiencies. From another perspective, only the B-level subjects assessed their L2 proficiency as low as equivalent to mark '2', for example, in writing (50%), structure (30%) and speaking (20%), although none of the subjects attributed mark '1' to any of their English skills. Further, the B2-level subjects maintained that their L2 proficiency was equivalent to mark '3' in structure (60%), speaking (60%) and reading (50%), and mark '4' in reading (40%) and listening (40%).

A surprising result regarding writing was that while nearly half (44%) of the C1-level subjects assessed their ability with mark '4', an equal number (44%) of the subjects did not attribute more than mark '3' to their English writing skills. A nearly identical number (40%) of the B2-level subjects assessed their writing ability with mark 3, whereas 50% of the subjects attributed only mark '2' to their writing ability.

Question 6 asked the students to rank, in descending order of importance, (1 – most important; 7 – least important) seven aspects of academic English they would require most support in the TOEFL iBT Test preparation course. A clear difference emerged in student responses across the two L2 proficiency groups. While the B2-level subjects attributed high significance to support for structure (60%), vocabulary (30%) and listening (30%), they did not consider the support for writing nearly as important, placing it in Ranks 3–4 (40%) and even in Ranks 6–7 (40%). By contrast, a large number (66%) of the C1-level subjects considered writing as the most important skill to acquire in the TOEFL iBT course. Admittedly, the students regarded the assistance for speaking (55%) and structure (55%) as equally important.

Question 7 directed the students to reveal their instructional preferences for learning English. Responding to this question, the students were fairly agreed on what activities to regard as efficient in L2 instruction. An encouraging finding was that the students listed a number of collaborative activities such as discussions, group work, interactive practice tasks, and intensive learning as relevant to the development of their L2 communicative competence. An anticipated outcome was that the students highlighted test-specific issues,

including '*tips and tricks for the test*'. In regard to the inefficient techniques and strategies, the students mentioned '*large group discussions*', '*passive and non-intensive activities*', and '*theoretical sessions*', but also '*pair discussions*' and '*speaking tasks*'. Nearly 21% of the students prioritised student-teacher interaction and self-efficacy for learning over communication with their peers.

Question 8 directed the students to reflect on what they hoped to have achieved by the end of the TOEFL iBT Test preparation course. Not surprisingly, nearly all of the students claimed that their ultimate aim was '*preparation for the test*' and '*a high test score*'. Further, most students emphasised the need for the enhancement of their L2 academic literacy skills (68%) so as to be able to pursue their studies and careers (42%) in international English-medium settings. In regard to the development of their overall proficiency in English, the students highlighted the aspects of speaking (37%), vocabulary (26%) and grammar (21%), while only some C1-level subjects (16%) pronounced the need for the improvement of their English '*essay writing*' skills.

In brief, student responses to the pre-course needs analysis measures collected from the test samples (TS1 and TS2 of TUT) and the control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC) contributed significantly to the outcome of the empirical study and served as a basis for the further development of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module of the Tallinn University of Technology.

Student post-course evaluation questionnaires

The post-course evaluation questionnaires for the test samples of TUT and the control sample of EAC

This section reviews the findings of two different post-course evaluation questionnaires on English academic writing conducted with the test sample of TUT (TS1 and TS2) and the control sample of EAC respectively. The aim is to provide a general overview of the students' perceptions of EAP writing instruction in these different curricular settings: the test subjects of TS1 and TS2 were exposed to instruction in an experimental discourse-oriented EAP writing module, whereas the control subjects of EAC were taught under traditional instructional methods and they were only briefly introduced to the discourse principles of EAP writing. The section highlights the test subjects' views on the efficacy of the experimental EAP writing module and improvement of their L2 writing performance by means of this instruction.

Due to differences between the samples in regard to EAP/ESP instruction, certain post-course questions were exclusively aimed at the test sample. Thus, the instrument designed for the test sample of TS1 and TS2 comprised 15 questions (see Appendix 9) whereas the abridged and adapted version of the instrument designed for the control sample of EAC comprised 8 questions (see

Appendix 11). In this review, responses to the identical questions will be addressed together under the same question head. In case there are distinctions in the students' responses across the samples and L2 proficiencies, these will be addressed separately. There may be occasional repetition and overlapping of content in reporting the results since a few of the questions were reframed and asked again to ascertain the reliability of student responses.

The post-course evaluation questionnaires were distributed to the students as part of a routine EAP course evaluation process two weeks before the end of instruction. The students were instructed to complete the questionnaire out of class to allow them for more intense reflection and refinement of responses. The students were allowed to complete the questionnaire anonymously so as to minimise any outside influence on their responses; however, they were required to specify their L2 proficiency level on the questionnaire. A noteworthy observation was that while none of the test subjects of TUT filled in the questionnaire anonymously, nearly half (47%) of the control subjects of EAC chose this option. These results seem to indicate the test subjects' fairly positive attitudes as compared to the control subjects' slightly refined attitudes towards the likely effect of EAP instruction on their L2 writing proficiency.

The students were encouraged to offer as detailed feedback on their EAP writing instruction as they found relevant for their target academic contexts. An encouraging finding was that most students were highly cooperative and motivated in completing the questionnaire, and attempted to reply to nearly all the questions in adequate detail. With regard to rank-order items (Q8–9 in the instrument of TUT, Appendix 9; and Q2–3 in the instrument of EAC, Appendix 11), the majority of students (92%) interpreted those questions adequately providing numbers from 1–7 respectively. Some students, regardless of their L2 proficiency (14% in TS1 and TS2; 6% in CS of EAC), failed to complete one item each concerning Questions 1, 2, 3, 7 in the instrument of TUT and Questions 2, 5, 6 in the instrument of EAC.

Comparison of data obtained from different samples revealed certain distinctions in the ways the students responded to the questionnaire. As regards the test samples of TUT (TS1 and TS2), 100% of the C1-level subjects and 89% of the B2 level subjects completed nearly all of the open-ended items in fully elaborated sentences. This contrasts the data obtained from the control sample of EAC. Even though most of these subjects indicated their commitment to the EAP programme (TOEFL iBT), almost half (44%) of them seemed to be slightly reserved in responding to the questions and provided short answers, isolated sentences or did not address certain items at all. Variation in student responses may be due to several factors. It cannot be denied that the subjects of TS1 and TS2 were slightly more homogeneous in their L2 communicative ability of writing, which may have allowed for more refined responses. Another explanation for the test subjects' more elaborated written responses may be that they were attempting to employ the knowledge and skills introduced to them in the EAP writing module in practice.

Post-course evaluation data

Question 1: Has your writing in English improved during the course? How?

Question 1 directed the students to reflect on the extent to which they believed their English academic writing proficiency had developed in the EAP writing module. Further, it asked the students to indicate in what aspects their writing ability had advanced most. The overall findings of the study suggest that the vast majority of students across the samples TS1, TS2 and also CS of EAC believed that the discourse-oriented approach to teaching EAP writing was beneficial for the enhancement of their writing ability. As Table 10 indicates, a significant proportion (83%) of the subjects reported that their L2 writing performance had improved *('yes, a lot'* or *'yes, I believe so'*) through discourse-oriented instruction; moreover, nearly one third (28%) of the subjects perceived that their writing ability had developed *'a lot'*.

The positive attitude towards EAP instruction was especially evident with the test subjects of TUT (TS1 and TS2). As outlined in Table 10, the average of 42% of these subjects reported to have progressed towards their goals '*a lot'* and 54% of them believed they had progressed through instruction ('*Yes, I believe so')*.

Table 10. The subjects' perceptions of the improvement of their L2 writing performance through the EAP writing module. Distribution of student responses across TS1, TS2 and CS of EAC (in percentages)

Answers	TS1		TS2		CS of EAC		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Yes, a lot	27	50	40	50	0	0	28
Yes, I believe so	73	33	60	50	50	63	55
I do not know/ perhaps a little	0	17	0	0	33	38	15
Not very much	0	0	0	0	17	0	3

Although a few of the students (15%) did not provide a definite answer or remained neutral in this respect (e.g., '*I know now on what level I am in English writing')*, none of the students denied the effect of instruction on the development of their English writing ability. The students clearly appreciated that their English writing skills had been well focused on during the integrated-skills EAP course and that they had made significant gains in their writing performance. This can be further illustrated by the following quotes:

- /.../ it was great to start writing again. (B2)
- I totally forgot writing as it was in the school... and began to analyse my writing. (B2)
- I feel much better now when it comes to writing some serious paper. (C1)

- Yes, /my writing/ has improved significantly. I have realised that my previous texts were below standard compared to the ones I have been writing during this course. (C1)
- An academic writing course is an excellent way of improving one's writing skills in order to perform well and persuade people. (C1)

It is remarkable that not only the C1-level students but also the B2-level students exhibited direct satisfaction with the experimental writing module:

- My writing has improved 500% or more.
- Of course, it has improved; otherwise, the time I have spent in the classroom would be pointless.
- My English has gone better in every part of it. It is not good but way better than before.

In all, the test subjects of TUT tended to attribute far greater value to discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing than the subjects of EAC who were considerably less decided on this issue and far more hesitant in discussing their achievement in writing. Thus, even though quite a large proportion (50–63%) of the subjects of EAC recognised the effect of EAP writing instruction, none of these subjects perceived that their English writing ability had improved '*a lot'*. Over a third (33–38%) of the subjects were not clear whether the instruction had yielded any appreciable effect on their composing abilities.

Comparative analysis of the responses obtained across the samples and L2 proficiencies revealed certain variations. It was found, for example, that while all of the subjects of TS2 acknowledged the effect of teaching on their English writing skills, as many as 35% of the subjects of EAC were not quite clear about the outcome of instruction. There were slight discrepancies in the responses of the subjects of TS1; for instance, while 50% of the C1-level subjects reported to have progressed in their L2 writing ability '*a lot'*, 73% of the B2-level subjects believed they had made progress.

With regard to the aspects of L2 writing that the test subjects (TS1 and TS2) believed they had advanced most through instruction, the subjects highlighted communicative competence, text organisation, cohesion and coherence, Anglo-American academic style and register, among other areas. In detail, the C1-level subjects appreciated the improvement of their L2 writing performance attributing it to their enhanced self-expression (83%), wider academic vocabulary (67%) and increased confidence (58%) in interaction. The subjects recognised the knowledge of English text construction skills that had enabled them to express their ideas in writing more effectively:

- I am especially happy that I am better in expressing my ideas more logically.
- There is a considerable rise in the structural skills and in the use of various textual markers.
- I pay more attention to the organisation of the essay and the formal/informal words.
- I use a lot more discourse markers now to achieve better logic.

Not only the vast majority (92%) of the C1-level subjects but also nearly half (47%) of the B2-level subjects reported noticeable improvement in their English writing in regard to written text structure and flow of logic as illustrated below:

- I can now write essays in the right form.
- I learned how to use good paragraph starters.
- I am structuring my text and making better paragraphs.
- Now I know how a good essay looks like and I know how to use discourse markers.
- My writing has improved a lot. Mostly in structure /.../.
- I have learned to structure the text better and use the markers.
- /.../ and I also know how to focus on the issues like the main idea and the controlling idea.

The B2-level subjects' responses revealed some interesting details. For example, although one student claimed to have acquired the adequate EAP writing techniques already at school, he still seemed to recognise the efficacy of the EAP writing module:

- I resembled the academic writing techniques that we were taught at school. I also discovered some new things to use in essays.

As expected, a certain proportion (25%) of the B2-level subjects regarded the assignments of the writing module as too time and effort consuming for them:

- /.../ we lost some valuable time.
- I didn't like /writing/ much because of loads of homework.
- Less homework, I am sure would please the future students most.
- We wrote too much.

In the control sample of EAC, most of the subjects (86%) admitted that introduction to discourse-oriented writing had enabled them to gain better awareness of the principles of English written text construction and as a result, improve the logic of their texts. A brief sampling of student responses is as follows:

- Now I can write a well-organised text. (B1)
- Now I have a frame how to write something. (B2)
- I can write the English-style essay, a well-structured text. (B2)
- My text structure is better now. (B2)
- My text is much more logical and organised. (C1)
- I got to know the main points and details of writing in the Anglo-American style. (C1)
- I have learned to structure and organise my thoughts in writing. (C1)

Quite an expected finding with the B2-level subjects of both the test samples of TUT and the control sample of EAC was their excessive concern with the surface-level devices of writing, especially those of lexis, although in their responses they claimed to have focused on the discourse instruments as well. The examples below will summarise the subjects' views on the importance of lexis in the production of effective English texts:

- Now I am trying to use more academic words and phrases.
- I studied different beginning markers and more linking words.
- I know more academic words now.
- Yes, I have learned good paragraph starters.

Similarly, the C1-level subjects regarded appropriate vocabulary as an important contributor to the development of their English academic writing style:

- I learned many new words and phrases. I use more academic terms.
- My vocabulary is much wider now and I have learned to express myself better.
- /.../ there is a considerable rise in the structural skills and in the use of various markers.

What is surprising to note is that only one B2-level subject (TS1) addressed the aspects of grammar and accuracy in his evaluation of the writing module:

- We had to do lots of writing, and when it was time for error correction, there was just too much of it.

On the whole, the test subjects expressed satisfaction regarding the role of discourse-oriented teaching in the development of their communicative competence in English writing. Although the control subjects remained refined about their progress in writing, they still seemed to value the theoretical knowledge gained through instruction.

Question 2°: What were the good sides of the writing module? What did you like most?[1]

Question 2 directed the students to reflect on the instructional content, techniques and activities of the experimental EAP writing module to explore what the students believed had contributed most to the enhancement of their English writing ability. The following text provides a brief overview of the students' preferences addressed in their responses. Different aspects of instruction will be discussed in more detail further on in the survey.

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[1] Items marked with (°) were not applicable to the control sample of EAC.

It should be emphasised that nearly all of the test subjects (91%) were confident about discourse-oriented teaching of English writing and expressed satisfaction regarding the role of instruction in the development of their L2 communicative proficiency:

- It is good that I can use English anywhere now. (B2)
- I felt that home writing (essays) developed me very much. (B2)
- The good side was the whole idea, because the writing module was very developing. (B2)
- It brought my attention to being better in English. I also got some new ideas how to improve. (C1)
- It helped me think in English, not in my mother tongue. Also it gave me a chance to practice writing. (C1)

The most commonly mentioned features and activities of the EAP writing module recognised by the subjects as having contributed to their achievement in English writing can be listed as follows: discussing interesting topics, communicating ideas, providing knowledge about text construction, developing the logical flow of ideas, raising awareness of the audience, practicing composing, writing essays, writing summaries and arguments on specialist topics, writing paragraphs and sentences, developing academic vocabulary, developing peer evaluation skills and receiving adequate teacher feedback, among others. Student responses revealed that essay writing tasks were attributed the highest value by an equally large proportion of students of both L2 proficiency levels. The students declared that writing essays had enabled them to develop their overall academic writing skills in English, and most importantly, improve their communicative competence in writing; for example:

- We had to do constant work all the time. For me it is not usual to express my opinion on some theme. (B2)
- Good sides were that we could practice English. (B2)
- I mostly liked the essay topics. Most topics were interesting and it was easy for me to express myself. (C1)
- It helped to develop and express my thoughts about different topics. (C1)
- I liked that the topics for academic writing were quite abstract so that one can find many ideas discussing the topic. (C1)

The students admitted that focus on the communicative aspects of discourse had motivated them to express their thoughts '*clearly and with ease*' (B2) and made them '*fluent in every aspect of the language*' (C1). They reported that not only writing activities but also reading, discussion and presentation tasks had facilitated the improvement of their English writing ability:

- The oral presentations helped me in writing. (B2)
- I liked writing 1-minute arguments and presenting them. (B2)

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- Another good thing was that before writing an essay we read texts that contained the necessary vocabulary. (C1)

The students believed that the acquisition of structural patterns and academic vocabulary in the communicative context of reading and speaking had improved their English written expression and thus enhanced the qualitative value of their texts.

Most students appreciated the facilitating role of peer evaluation and teacher feedback in providing them awareness of the writer-reader relationship in English written discourse; for example:

- [I liked] writing the paragraphs, essays and the critical style of evaluation and marking. (C1)
- I would also like to thank the teacher who made lots of comments and pin-pointed the mistakes. The feedback is something I'm very grateful about. (C1)

While the C1-level students expressed significantly more profound knowledge in regard to the concept of audience than their lower-level peers; the need to write for a specific readership was apparent also in the B2-level students' comments:

- Communicate with other students and let them to express their opinion.
- Let others mark and express opinions of text.

It can be concluded that at the end of the experimental EAP writing module, the students recognised English academic writing as both '*useful*' and '*enjoyable*', and appreciated the enhancement of their composing skills through discourse-oriented instruction. Only one B2-level subject of the total sample claimed that he did '*not enjoy writing at all*' and another B2-level subject articulated his immediate objective in the course related to the EAP Examination Writing Test ('*writing module helped students to prepare for the exam*'), most students seemed to view the objectives and outcomes of instruction from quite another perspective.

Question 3°: What were the negative sides of the EAP writing module? What suggestions for improvement would you make?

Question 3 was devised to elicit the students' views on the inadequacies of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module in terms of their immediate and target academic needs. The intention was to encourage the students to present suggestions for the further development of the module. Responses to this question revealed what techniques and activities the students perceived had not contributed to the improvement of their L2 writing skills or which had been irrelevant for their needs. The following text provides a brief summary of

student responses, whereas their suggestions will be addressed in more detail further on in the survey.

It was found that while some students did not respond to Question 3 at all, most students (89%) provided adequate answers highlighting the typical problem areas such as '*less homework*', '*fewer essays*', '*more time for correction*', '*more interesting writing topics*', and some others. The statements below illustrate the students' concerns about the experimental EAP writing module and provide suggestions for its further enhancement:

- Some of the themes were boring or not interesting to write about. (B2)
- Topics were a bit difficult to write. (B2)
- Negative was that in some cases I had no idea what to write about. When it comes to suggestions: to write more about the topics, which are in the exam. (B2)
- Maybe too much homework but otherwise we would not be able to pass the exam. (B2)
- We had to write a lot of essays. It was good for preparing for the writing exam but if we had to write fewer essays then we would have had more time to work on them. (C1)
- I think it would have been wise to exercise different letter writing types as well e.g. business letter writing. (C1)
- We could have read more academic texts for home reading as well as home assignments. (C1)

As anticipated, some students had expected more exam-oriented writing tasks and activities in preparation for the EAP Final Examination. However, a telling result regarding the intensiveness of instruction was that nearly on third (30%) of the students did not express any criticism on the instructional activities of the writing module but indulged in self-criticism instead. Statements illustrating this point include:

- I think that there were no negative sides to mention. (B2)
- I did not find any negative side in academic writing module; however, nothing is perfect and I believe there were some. (B2)
- There weren't any negative sides, actually. The only problem was my laziness. (B2)
- The most negative side was myself. I should have been learning more, then there would have been no negative sides. (C1)

In all, the test subjects' responses did not reveal any significant differences either by L2 proficiency levels or samples (TS1 and TS2), although slight distinctions in the data emerged. In the C1-level sample, for example, negative responses were more likely to occur when the students perceived that the writing assignments and activities were not particularly challenging for their L2 proficiency level or academic purposes. A fine example of this would be online exercises. Besides, some C1-level subjects regarded the Anglo-American

academic writing standards as overly restrictive to their creative expression of thought:

- Sometimes the rules of writing seemed too difficult to follow in real texts. (C1)
- The personal writing style is being criticised a bit too much. There should not be a 'perfect model' of academic writing. (C1)

In the B2-level sample, some students expressed uncertainty about or even resistance to having to write more demanding academic English prose as follows:

- The writing module makes you shy in your own ideas of writing so the content is missing.

Obviously, these B2-level subjects considered the communicative learning situation too challenging for their L2 proficiency and based their expectations for the EAP writing module on the previous experiences in traditional L2 grammar- and lexis-driven language classes.

Whereas some critical remarks across the L2 proficiency groups concerned the students' individual learning styles and the cognitive loads they were able to tolerate, some other remarks concerned course administrative matters; for example:

- I didn't experience any negative sides besides getting bored a little. (B2)
- We wrote too much. (B2)
- I did not like the frequent writing works, however, the suggestion is you do not have to make any changes! (B2)
- I didn't like /writing/ much because of loads of homework. (C1)
- I would have liked to know in the beginning how exactly the course is going to be. This way I would have been more conscious of the coming events and there would have been less surprises. (C1)

Whether a link existed between some students' reserved attitudes towards English writing and their overall academic aptitude is a matter of further investigations.

Question 4°: How would you evaluate the writing assignments? Which of these would you consider most helpful in developing your writing skills?

Question 4 directed the students to reflect on the effectiveness of the instructional procedures, techniques, tasks and assignments of the experimental EAP writing module. In response to this item, both B2-level and C1-level subjects reported satisfaction with most of the instructional content and undertakings implemented throughout instruction. The subjects tended to agree that even

though the writing module was challenging, it was well balanced and rewarding. The following examples are revealing in several ways:

- Firstly, I will take out all the materials. Secondly, I will read them once again to refresh my memory. Finally, I will start to evaluate. I believe the most helpful were essay tasks. (B2)
- In my view all of them were helpful in developing our writing skills. The more different tasks, the more interesting the course is. (B2)
- [The materials] were interesting and might come handy in the future. (B2)
- The writing tasks were good. The most helpful were maybe revision tasks and peer evaluation. (B2)
- The most helpful is writing essays and also peer evaluation. (C1)
- The paragraph model is the most useful; nevertheless, other pieces of advice are essential as well. (C1)
- The most helpful for me were essay tasks. However, other writing exercises and revision tasks were useful as well. (C1)

Comparative data on student preferences in the instructional activities of the EAP writing module is presented in Table 11. It can be seen that a significant proportion (84%) of the students of both L2 proficiency levels (Level B2 77% and Level C1 92%) across the test samples attributed the highest value in EAP writing instruction to essay writing tasks and activities.

Table 11. A comparative overview of student preferences in the instructional activities of the EAP writing module across the test samples of TUT (in percentages)[1]

Tasks and activities	TS1		TS2		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Essay writing	73	83	80	100	84
Peer evaluation	55	33	20	33	35
Out-of-class writing assignments	27	17	40	17	25
– *online exercises: yes*	*36*	*17*	*–*	*–*	*27*
– *online exercises: no*	*9*	*33*	*–*	*–*	*21*
Rewriting and revising	27	33	20	17	24
Developing other L2 literacy skills	27	17	10	33	22
Paragraph writing	36	17	20	17	23
Developing sentence skills	27	17	20	17	20

[1] The online exercises were not applied in TS2.

Essay writing was deemed by the students the most promising tool in the development of their English academic writing facility, as follows:

- Essays were most helpful in my opinion. In that case I was looking for new words in the dictionary all the time. (B2)
- Essay tasks are probably the most helpful. (B2)
- In my opinion the most helpful were essay tasks. They were both interesting and useful. (C1)
- Most effective was writing many essays and seriously looking into the mistakes. (C1)

An encouraging result to emerge from the data was that all C1-level subjects of TS2 mentioned essay writing as one of the most effective instructional tools contributing to their L2 writing performance. Again (see also Q2; p. 144), several students declared that writing essays had enabled them to develop their communicative skills of interaction:

- The most helpful one is essay task, it needs vocabulary, global thinking and it helps me to express myself in English. (C1)

Not surprisingly, most students regarded the authentic writing tasks developed from peer discussions in class as more relevant for their real world contexts than the pedagogical writing assignments. This can be seen in the responses below:
- Most helpful were peer evaluation and essay tasks. Online exercises were good addition. (C1)
- Online exercises were fun, but the essays improved my writing skills I think. (C1)
- Essay tasks were most useful. However, some online exercises like deleting or adding the sentences or finding the topic sentences were not. (C1)

It was apparent from the students' responses that peer activities had improved their English communication skills (both spoken and written) and thereby added to their understanding of the audience's role in English discourse. Just over a third (35%) of all the test subjects and a surprisingly large number (55%) of the B2-level test subjects of TS1 attributed high importance to peer evaluation activities as follows:

- The best were peer evaluations and online exercises. (B2)
- The most helpful was the task where we had to look for other students' errors and omissions. (B2)
- Essay tasks, online exercises and peer evaluations. (C1)
- Essay tasks are improving my writing, and also peer evaluations. (C1)

Likewise, the students (22%) suggested that developing other L2 literacy skills through discussions and reading tasks in the communicative context had improved their ability to compose reader-based texts.

As regards paragraph and sentence level writing, on average 26% of the B2-level subjects and 17% of the C1-level subjects considered '*the paragraph model to be most useful*' to rely on in L2 written text construction and sentence-development procedures helpful in order '*to examine the meaning of their writing*'. Especially the B2-level subjects of TS1 appeared to attribute higher value to paragraph writing (36%) and sentence skills (27%). In contrast, most C1-level subjects (83%) of the two test samples did not address these issues or claimed that paragraph-based assignments were '*not challenging enough*' or even '*unnecessary*' for them. Instead, these subjects were more concerned about the '*overall structure of the essay*' and '*where certain ideas should be placed there*'. Altogether a rather small number (20%) of the students found usefulness and practicality in the writing assignments that treated sentences as units of discourse.

In Test Sample 1, some students did not consider all the writing assignments (e.g., online scaffolding tasks) and teacher-led instructional activities (e.g., course-initial theoretical input) universally beneficial. For example, some C1-level students declared that the scaffolding assignments were not particularly stimulating for their L2 ability whereas some B2-level students reported that the online assignments were not sufficiently rewarding for the development of their L2 academic writing skills. The following remarks cannot be considered sufficiently well grounded though:

· Online-exercises are a bad idea, because it was very easy to miss the deadline. (B2)
· It was unusual to find my English tasks on the web. (B2)

On average 27% of the students perceived that the online activities were '*very good*' and '*useful*' enabling them to revise the '*theoretical input material*' acquired in class and apply it into practice in different authentic writing tasks out of class.

Question 5°: How would you evaluate the writing materials and handouts?

Questions 5 asked the students to reveal their overall perceptions of the relevance of the instructional materials of the EAP writing module to their academic needs. An encouraging observation in student evaluations across the samples and L2 proficiencies (Table 12) was that nearly all of the students (94%) expressed satisfaction with the instructional materials and handouts of the module. A comparative analysis of student responses across the samples revealed slight variations in their evaluations of the qualitative attributes ('*very good*' or '*good*') to the materials.

Table 12. Student evaluations of the instructional materials of the EAP writing module across the test samples of TUT (in percentages)

Evaluation	TS1		TS2		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Very good/very useful	55	50	33	17	39
Good/useful	36	50	50	83	55
Hard	9	0	17	0	6
Not useful	0	0	0	0	0

In general, most students seemed to prioritise the practical tools that enabled them to construct, develop, analyse and revise their English academic texts. For that reason, the students attributed significant value to the tailor-made *Discourse development instructional materials* ('package'; see Appendix 19) and similar other instructional handouts (see, e.g., Appendices 21–27). The students referred to these handouts as being '*thorough*', '*effective*', '*informative*', '*perfect*', '*really good*', '*very useful*' and '*interesting*' as illustrated in the examples below:

- I had some difficulties with the structure of essay and the packages helped me a lot. (B2)
- My thanks belongs to the packages. (B2)
- These materials are perfect and make everything easier. (B2)
- The materials were interesting.(B2)
- They seem to be effective. I did not take them seriously at the beginning of the course. (C1)
- The handouts were good. They were thorough. (C1)
- They were nice and there was a lot of them. (C1)
- Handouts were helpful, especially the package. (C1)
- The handouts were very helpful and informative, especially the package. (C1)
- Everything was well prepared. (C1)

The students recognised the universal nature of the course instructional materials and handouts as applicable for the improvement of their communicative competence in different aspects of English academic literacy. Moreover, the students appreciated the stimulating effect these materials had on their confidence in English writing:

- I find them very useful in my everyday life. For example, I am writing e-mails in English every day and using the phrases from course materials. It just makes me very happy. (B2)
- They are good. I'm glad that I can use them in the future. (B2)
- The packages will always be with me to help me out if I forget something. (B2)
- The handouts are very good and useful. They can be used whenever writing in English. (C1)

Then again, it is not surprising that some students' responses were mostly driven by a desire to perform successfully at the EAP Final Examination; for instance:

- Handouts are definitely useful, especially for the oral exam**. (C1)

Admittedly, 26% of the B2-level students reported difficulty with applying the principles introduced to them in the course materials and handouts into their English texts. This difficulty may be partly explained by the highly intensive nature of instruction:

- A bit too hard to follow but contained much valuable information. (B2)
- Very nice materials; however, there was lack of time to study them properly. (B2)
- That was good to top together all the materials, because loose papers could have made orientating very hard. Still, there was little mess with the materials. (B2)
- I find some of them were too hard for me but I really feel that they all developed me enormously. (B2)

Question 6°: Did you find the Essay Evaluation Checklist[1] useful? Why?

Question 6 asked the students to assess the effect of the Essay evaluation checklist B (Appendix 29) on their English text construction, evaluation and revision practices. As outlined in Table 13, a considerable proportion (73%) of the subjects attributed high importance ('*yes, surely*' and '*yes*') to this tool. Only a fairly small number (18%) of the subjects did not consider the checklist useful and 9% of them did not address the issue in their responses.

Table 13. The subjects' perceptions of the practical value of Essay evaluation checklist B. Distribution of student responses across the test samples of TUT (in percentages)

Yes/no	TS1		TS2		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Yes, surely	60	50	80	83	68
Yes	20	0	0	0	5
No	20	50	0	0	18
No answer	0	0	20	17	9

Certain differences were observed in the responses received from TS1 and TS2. It was found that in TS1, the B2-level subjects tended to be positive (80%) rather than negative (20%) about the essay evaluation instrument; for example:

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[1] Essay evaluation checklist B (Appendix 29)

- It was very useful while doing my home tasks and I hope it will help me in the future if a similar evaluation will be needed. (B2)
- Of course, I learned many things from it. (B2)
- Yes. It shows other's mistakes you can also learn from. (B2)
- Yes, it makes it a lot easier to write. (B2)
- Yes. It helped a lot while writing an essay. (B2)

By contrast, the C1-level subjects tended to be either overly positive with '*yes, surely*' (50%) or negative (50%) about the checklist. Here are a few examples to characterise the positively inclined C1-level subjects:

- It surely is useful as it helps finding mistakes that one could miss without.(C1)
- I did [find the checklists useful] as it put me in reader's shoes and I could evaluate my essay better and see it from another point of view. (C1)
- I used them to improve my essays. (C1)

The students that were slightly critical about the evaluation instrument attempted to explain their views as follows:

- I didn't actually find it useful, as all the points in the evaluation checklist are logical and come from a person's mind straightforward. (B2)
- I must confess that I didn't use the peer evaluation checklist much, but I found the essay evaluation checklist quite useful. (C1)
- I do not find them very useful, but they help to evaluate presentations and stuff, of course. (C1)
- Unfortunately, I do not have the checklist. (C1)

In TS2, no distinctions between the two L2 proficiency groups were found. Thus, an equally large number of the students (80–83%) regarded the checklist as highly beneficial, and 17–20% of the students did not express their views on it. Quite a few students reported on the facilitating role of the essay evaluation checklist in peer reviewing:

- It was useful; otherwise it would have been hard to correct the classmate's essay. (B2)
- They were useful when checking other persons' essays. I did not still use them when writing my own essays. (C1)

One C1-level student highlighted the checklist's importance in a shorter perspective ('*It is good to think about these topics before the exam*'). A noteworthy result was that none of the students deemed the checklist irrelevant to their needs. Statements illustrating the students' encouraging attitudes include:

- It was useful, because I could use it when I wrote my essay. I knew what I have to do to write a better essay. (B2)
- Yes, I found it useful, because it helped to see all the details. (B2)
- Yes, it was because I had something to follow when I was reviewing my essay. (B2)
- I found that useful because I often forget some of the important points to keep in mind when writing. As I seem to write more in the Estonian style, the checklist helps to bear in mind the English style. (C1)
- Yes, because from that I learned that the biggest problem isn't how I spell the words, but using a variety of expressions and having a good structure. (C1)

In sum, the majority of the students seemed to attribute universal value to the essay evaluation checklist as a practical tool for English text construction and revision.

Question 7°: What would you say about peer evaluation activities in writing? What English academic literacy skills could it improve?

Question 7 was designed to examine the students' views on the role of peer evaluation activities in the development of their L2 composing skills, and in making them thoughtful writers and critical readers. The value that the students placed on peer reviewing was unexpectedly high in both test samples (TS1 and TS2). It was apparent from the responses (Table 14) that a large number (64%) of the students recognised the facilitating role of peer response in improving the communicative quality of their English texts. However, there was a noticeable distinction in student responses across the two L2 proficiencies; namely, the B2-level subjects attributed far more significance (TS1 78%; TS2 80%) to peer evaluation activities than the C1-level subjects (TS1 and TS2 both 50%). Moreover, none of the B2-level subjects appeared to be neutral or undecided about peer evaluation, while 17% of the C1-level students remained neutral about this technique and as many as 33% of them were not quite clear about the adequacy of peer reviewing in EAP writing instruction. Some B2-level subjects expressed reservations about the role of peer evaluation in EAP writing classroom as follows:

Table 14. The subjects' views on peer evaluation activities. Distribution of student responses across the test samples of TUT (in percentages)

Feedback on peer evaluation activities	TS1		TS2		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Positive	78	50	80	50	64
Neutral	0	17	0	17	8
Both positive and negative	0	33	0	33	17
Negative	11	0	20	0	8
Undefined	11	0	0	0	3

- [Peer evaluation] is not helpful because the teacher should be the one, who tells what to do.
- It was most annoying, since the student didn't understand the tasks quite clearly.

It was interesting to observe that some B2-level subjects highlighted the facilitating role of peer evaluation for both students and language instructors:

- Peer evaluation helps both teachers and students to see students' mistakes.[1]
- I believe it helps teachers. It helps you to analyze the writing to see it in essence.

In the C1-level sample, it was found that even those subjects that seemed to appreciate certain aspects of peer evaluation ('*it was interesting to hear what other students write and how they think')* still maintained that critiquing each other's English texts might not always be objectively addressing the writing situation and admitted that providing feedback to peers' texts was '*difficult*' and therefore '*not a very good idea'*. The students commented on the controversial nature of peer reviewing as follows:

- /.../ other students have moral ethics and their evaluation is biased.
- /.../ but peer commenting was too positive, because nobody wants to say anything bad for others' texts.
- Nobody wants to say negative things about someone's work, presentation or text and so we all tried to point out more the positive aspects rather than negative.

Table 15 below summarises data on the aspects of L2 academic literacy that the students believed peer evaluation could contribute to. It appeared that nearly half of the subjects recognised peer response as promoting the skills of written discourse (46%), analytical reading (42%), and critical thinking (41%), and providing a positive and useful incentive for interaction in English (40%). Further, the subjects reported on peer evaluation as a valuable strategy in raising audience awareness (29%) and developing confidence in writing (19%). A somewhat surprising finding was that the subjects attributed peer feedback nearly no significance (except for the B2-level subjects of TS2) in addressing the linguistic or lexical aspects of their English academic texts. The explanation for that may be quite simple; namely, as mentioned earlier, L2 students prefer feedback on the surface-level features of writing from their L2 teacher rather than from their peers (see p. 72).

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[1] It should be noted that the word 'mistakes' frequently appearing in student responses is often likely to refer to text-level discrepancies rather than 'linguistic errors'. The usage of the word 'mistake' by the students in this context is fairly well illustrated by the example of their written peer reviews (Appendix 34).

Table 15. The impact of peer evaluation activities on the subjects' English academic literacy skills. Distribution of student responses across the test samples of TUT (in percentages)

Aspects of L2 academic literacy	TS1		TS2		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Contributing to text construction skills (text quality and readability)	44	50	40	50	46
Promoting critical reading skills	22	33	80	33	42
Promoting critical thinking skills	22	17	60	67	41
Providing a positive and useful experience	33	17	60	50	40
Raising audience awareness	0	50	0	67	29
Developing confidence and motivation	22	17	20	17	19
Developing the linguistic aspects of writing	0	0	20	0	5

The students appeared to recognise the facilitating role of peer evaluation in improving the communicative quality of their texts and in enabling them to focus on the content and logical organisation of writing; for example:

- It helps us think — what I would do better. Also I had to say something sometimes I have nothing to say – it developed the thinking part. (B2)
- It helps to get your thoughts together. (B2)
- It helps you to analyze the writing, to see it in essence. (B2)
- It was interesting to read someone's thoughts about a theme that I had thought through. (B2)
- It helps to understand what others may expect from the same text and how they would write it. (C1)
- I didn't like searching for every single grammar mistake, but evaluating coherence and organisation would be useful /…/. (C1)

The students reported that peer reviewing encouraged them to examine critically their own written texts for meaning, and thus become more sensitive to the specific demands of English academic writing. Further, the students suggested that peer feedback enabled them to gain confidence in their writing and raise their motivation for composing in English, as demonstrated in the following examples:

- Analyzing others' works helps to improve my writing. (B2)
- It is the best way to see my own mistakes. Someone has to point them out in order to improve. (B2)
- It is good, because you also see others' mistakes and can avoid them in your own writing. You may also learn good expressions from others. (B2)

- Reading the [other student's] essay was interesting and helped to reflect on my own mistakes and see how the same essay can be written in other ways. (C1)
- As a final step in improving our writing skills, it was very useful. (C1)
- It is always useful to read someone's work who is about on the same level as you are, because you can then find the mistakes you yourself make also. (C1)
- /…/positive feedback is good for confidence. (C1)
- /peer evaluation/ is very useful, because sometimes it is hard to find mistakes in my own essay. If somebody points out the mistakes, it helps me to be more objective. At the same time it is useful to search for mistakes in somebody else's work, because I can be more objective. (C1)

Two critical issues of English academic writing were addressed in the post-course questionnaires of TS2 (Appendix 9, Q8 and Q9) and CS of EAC (Appendix 11, Q2 and Q3); namely, what aspects of English writing should be considered most in the production of reader-based texts and how L2 writers could improve the quality of their texts. The subjects of TS1 and CS of ITC were asked to report on these issues in the pre-course questionnaires (see also Appendix 8, Q10 and p. 136).

Question 8: How important do you think the following aspects are in English academic writing? Provide the order of importance (1 – most important; 6 – least important)[1]

This question asked the students to rank, in descending order of importance (1 – most important; 6 – least important), six criteria of L2 academic writing: *grammatical accuracy*, *spelling and punctuation*, *subject content*, *text organisation, vocabulary*, and *good ideas*. Data obtained from student responses are presented in the *combined totals* of ranks as follows: Ranks 1–2 (Table 16), Ranks 3–4 (Table 17) and Ranks 5–6 (Table 18).

The data presented in Table 16 below reveal striking similarities as well as distinctions in the students' priorities (Ranks 1–2) across the two samples and L2 proficiency levels. Thus, it can be observed that a significant proportion (64%) of the students ranked text organisation as the most central aspect of English academic writing. It is worth noting that the values attributed to text organisation were equally high in both B2-level samples (TS2 60% and CS of EAC 75%) and C1-level samples (TS2 57% and CS of EAC 63%).

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[1] Question 2 in the post-course questionnaire of the control sample of EAC.

Table 16. How important are the following aspects in English academic writing? Distribution of student responses in TS2 and CS of EAC. The combined totals of Ranks 1–2 (1 – most important) (in percentages)

	TS2		CS of EAC	
	B2	C1	B2	C1
Grammatical accuracy	0	14	25	13
Spelling and punctuation	20	14	0	13
Subject content	40	14	25	63
Text organisation	60	57	75	63
Vocabulary	20	43	0	25
Good ideas	60	71	75	25

While the C1-level subjects of TS2 attributed a slightly higher value to good ideas (71%) than to text organisation (57%), the B2-level subjects of both TS2 and CS of EAC provided equally high values to those two aspects (TS2 60% and CS of EAC 75%). The C1-level subjects of CS of EAC believed that content was as important as text organisation (63%).

Comparing the students' preferences in the other aspects of writing, marked differences in the answers across the sample groups could be observed. Thus, while subject content was highly recognised by 63% of the C1-level subjects of CS of EAC and 40% of the B2-level subjects of TS2, it was considered as important by only 25% of the B2-level subjects of CS of EAC and 14% of the C1-level subjects of TS2. Likewise, while vocabulary was highly recognised by 43% of the C1-level subjects of TS2, it was attributed the highest ranks by only 25% of the C1-level subjects of CS of EAC and 20% of the B2-level subjects of TS2. It was surprising that none of the B2-level subjects of CS of EAC regarded vocabulary of high significance in English writing.

An encouraging result for this research was that in comparison with the above aspects of English writing grammatical and mechanical accuracy were not prioritised by the students. For example, whereas only 13–14% of all the C1-level subjects and 25% of the B2-level subjects of CS of EAC attributed grammar the highest ranks, none of the B2-level subjects of TS2 prioritised that feature. Similarly, whereas as few as 13–14% of all the C1-level subjects and 20% of the B2-level subjects of TS2 attributed spelling and punctuation the highest values, none of the B2-level subjects of CS of EAC prioritised that aspect of writing. The low average ratings attributed by most students to grammar, spelling and punctuation, and even vocabulary may be indicative of a shift in perspective in student attitudes regarding writing in English.

Table 17. How important are the following aspects in English academic writing? Distribution of student responses in TS2 and CS of EAC. The combined totals of Ranks 3–4 (in percentages)

	TS2		CS of EAC	
	B2	C1	B2	C1
Grammatical accuracy	100	29	50	13
Spelling and punctuation	20	0	0	25
Subject content	0	57	75	38
Text organisation	20	14	25	25
Vocabulary	60	43	50	75
Good ideas	0	14	0	25

With reference to Ranks 3–4 (Table 17), an anticipated result was that the B2-level subjects opted for grammatical accuracy more often (TS2 100% and CS of EAC 50%) than the C1-level subjects (TS2 29% and CS of EAC 13%). A noticeable observation was that all the B2-level subjects of TS2 placed grammatical accuracy third and fourth in importance, while the C1-level subjects of TS2 and the B2-level subjects of CS of EAC rated mostly subject content (TS2 57% and CS of EAC 75%) and the C1-level subjects of CS of EAC vocabulary (75%) in these categories.

Table 18. How important are the following aspects in English academic writing? Distribution of student responses in TS2 and CS of EAC. The combined totals of Ranks 5–6 (6 – least important) (in percentages)

	TS2		CS of EAC	
	B2	C1	B2	C1
Grammatical accuracy	0	43	25	75
Spelling and punctuation	60	71	100	63
Subject content	60	14	0	0
Text organisation	20	14	0	13
Vocabulary	20	0	50	0
Good ideas	40	0	25	50

The aspect of L2 academic writing that a large number of students attributed least value to was spelling and punctuation (see Table 18 for Ranks 5–6). As expected, other features of writing brought in quite significant differences in student responses. It was found that while nearly an average of 60% of all the C1-level subjects regarded grammatical accuracy as the least important aspect of effective L2 written discourse, only 13% of all the B2-level subjects attributed the lowest ranking to this aspect. In contrast, as many as 35% of all the B2-level subjects rated vocabulary with ranks 5–6, while none of the C1-level subjects attributed the lowest ranks to this aspect. An encouraging

finding was that the least number of all the subjects attributed the lowest value in English academic writing to text organisation (12%) and content (19%).

Question 9: How important do you think the following activities are in the development of English academic writing skills? Give the order of importance from 1–7 (1 – most important; 7 – least important).

To investigate what the students of TS1, TS2 and CS of EAC believed could contribute most to the development of their English academic writing skills, they were directed to rank, in descending order of importance (1 – most important; 7 – least important) seven activities as listed in Table 19 below. The mean values of the combined totals of Ranks 1 and 2 (1 – most important) presented in the table show that the subjects attributed the highest ranks to writing (58%) and reading (58%), studying vocabulary (26%) and rewriting and revising (21%). A minor proportion of the students rated grammar (14%) and peer comments (10%) highly in the development of their English academic writing skills. Only 2% of the students considered imitating other writers an essential strategy in this process.

As shown in Table 20, the strategies ranked as least significant (Ranks 5–7) by the students were imitating other writers (89%), studying grammar (48%), inviting others to comment on one's writing (39%), and rewriting and revising (26%).

Table 19. How important are the following activities in the development of English academic writing skills? Distribution of student responses across TS1, TS2, and CS of EAC. The combined totals of Ranks 1–2 (1 – most important) (in percentages)

Activity	TS1		TS2		CS of EAC		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Writing frequently	45	67	80	43	50	63	58
Reading widely and frequently	36	83	40	86	50	50	58
Studying vocabulary	64	17	20	29	17	13	26
Rewriting and revising repeatedly	27	17	40	0	17	25	21
Studying grammar	36	17	0	0	17	13	14
Inviting others to comment on one's writing	0	0	20	0	17	25	10
Imitating other writers	0	0	0	0	0	13	2

There were no significant distinctions in student responses across the samples and L2 proficiency levels. As observed, the students tended to prioritise either writing or reading activities, except for the B2-level subjects of TS1 that placed a considerably higher value to studying vocabulary. Another interesting discrepancy emerged in the C1-level subjects' (TS1) slightly more pronounced preferences for reading rather than writing activities so as to improve their L2 academic writing performance. These priorities were reversed in the B2-level sample of TS1 and TS2, and the C1-level sample of CS of EAC.

Table 20. How important are the following activities in the development of English academic writing skills? Distribution of student responses across TS1, TS2, and CS of EAC. The combined totals of Ranks 5–7 (7 – least important) (in percentages)

Activity	TS1		TS2		CS of EAC		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Imitating other writers	91	100	80	86	100	75	89
Studying grammar	36	50	60	57	33	50	48
Inviting others to comment on one's writing	55	67	40	43	17	13	39
Rewriting and revising repeatedly	36	33	20	43	0	25	26
Studying vocabulary	9	50	40	0	17	0	19
Reading widely and frequently	45	0	40	0	17	13	19
Writing frequently	27	0	20	0	0	25	12

Question 10: What are the main features of an effective English text?[1]

To determine whether the students were able to focus on the communicative aspects of English written discourse, they were asked to highlight the features that they perceived would contribute most to the construction of effective reader-based texts. It is important to note here that in responding to that item, the students were not provided with any pre-determined criteria of readability to select from.

The mean values derived from student responses (Table 21) demonstrate that the students attributed high significance to the communicative aspects of discourse. Indeed, the most commonly mentioned features were text organisation (100%), coherence (70%), cohesion (59%), and content (45%). These textual features were nearly equally represented in the responses across the samples and L2 proficiencies. More precisely, the students characterised an effective English text with the words '*well organised*', '*informative*', '*easy to comprehend*', '*logically structured*', with '*interesting arguments*' and '*good ideas*'. They also referred to the features of text overall organisation as follows: '*strong introduction*', '*well balanced paragraphs*', '*proper body structure*', '*supporting details*', and '*strong conclusion*'. In addition, some students highlighted the importance of the first impression and visual layout in writing. The following examples outline the students' perceptions of the attributes of an effective text in more detail:

- Well structured, topic, key words, examples. (B1)
- Well organised, structure is clear, visual side is nice. (B2)
- There are beginning, supporting details and conclusion. No wordiness. A lot of vocabulary. (B2)
- Good and logical structure and interesting ideas. (B2)

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[1] Question 4 in the post-course instrument of the control sample of EAC. This question was not applicable to TS1.

- Proper introduction, presentation of your ideas, the development of your ideas, conclusion. (C1)
- Well structured, clear statements, well organised, completed thoughts, not wordy. (C1)
- Coherent, well structured, key words, organisation, sentence variety, clarity, topic. (C1)
- Structure, logical connection, proper body structure, well organized. (C1)
- Well balanced, well structured, has examples, cohesive, coherent. (C1)

Table 21. What are the main features of an effective English text? Distribution of student responses across TS2 and CS of EAC (in percentages)

Feature	TS2		CS of EAC		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Text organisation	100	100	100	100	100
Coherence	50	60	80	90	70
Cohesion	67	60	50	60	59
Content	50	40	50	40	45
Vocabulary	33	80	20	20	38
Style	17	0	20	40	19
Grammar and mechanics	17	20	20	10	17
Sentence variety	17	0	0	10	7

Although some of the B2-level subjects' responses may be considered quite stereotypical and even simplistic, they clearly demonstrate the writers' familiarity with the underlying principles of English text construction:

- A good vocabulary, coherence, cohesion and all the paragraphs should have equal length. Discourse markers. (B2)
- Good structure, involving discourse markers. (B2)
- A good written text should include introduction, body and conclusion. The body consists of 3 paragraphs which all provide the main idea. (B2)

Responding to this question, quite a number of the students indicated their enhanced awareness of the concept of '*audience*'. Even though the C1-level subjects tended to be more knowledgeable about the significance of writer-reader interaction in English written discourse than their lower-level peers, the following responses provide fine examples from both L2 proficiency-level groups:

- Organised structure, connecting words, understandable text. (B1)
- It is easy to follow the text. (B2)
- Understandable and logical. (B2)
- Interesting, easy to understand, but with new words. (B2)
- Text should have introduction, body and summary. Text should also be interesting, informative and easy to follow. And no new information in the conclusion. (B2)

- It has a good structure and is interesting to read. (C1)
- /…/ Fluent and good to read. (C1)
- Good structure, interesting arguments, wide range of vocabulary. (C1)
- Interesting and easy to follow texts are good to read /…/. (C1)

As Table 21 above indicates more than a quarter (38%) of the students regarded academic vocabulary an important feature of effective English texts with the attributes '*good and wide range', 'variation and no repetition' 'discourse markers', 'connecting words',* and *'key words'*. It was surprising that only 19% of the students recognised the value of *academic', 'clear', 'fluent',* and '*not wordy'* style in the production of readable English texts. Comparison of student responses concerning these two features indicated some variability across different samples. Namely, whereas a substantial number (80%) of the C1-level subjects of TS2 prioritised vocabulary, only 20–33% of the subjects of other samples valued this feature. Again, while an unexpectedly large proportion (40%) of the C1-level subjects of CS of EAC attributed high importance to style, only 17–20% of the subjects of other samples recognised this aspect. Surprisingly, none of the C1-level subjects of TS2 mentioned style as a significant feature of English academic writing.

The features of effective writing least highlighted by the students in their responses were grammar and mechanics (17%) and sentences (7%). This was an encouraging result since none of the students appeared to attribute universal value to grammar in L2 writing post instruction. Rather, the students seemed to regard grammar as one of the essential attributes contributing to the quality of an English written text:

- It is well organised, the content is easy to comprehend, there are no grammar mistakes. (B2)
- A good structure, equal paragraphs, interesting text, correct grammar. Also good ideas and hard sentences play their role. (B2)
- Good text should be well organized, logical, clear to understand. It has to include a wide range of vocabulary and be if it is possible without grammar resort. (C1)
-

Question 11: How would you improve the readability of your English writing?[1]

This question directed the students to reflect on how they could enhance the communicative quality of their English writing. In principle, the question was a reframed version of Question 10. As in the previous question, the students were not provided with any pre-determined criteria of readability to select from and therefore their responses were focused on fairly different aspects of L2 academic writing. Despite that a noticeable observation was that the vast majority of the students tended to indicate more preferences for whole-text level aspects of English written discourse rather than for its surface-level aspects.

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[1] Question 5 in the questionnaire of the control sample of EAC.

Based on the mean values presented in Table 22, the aspects that the students perceived as contributing most to text readability were text organisation (47%), vocabulary (32%) and coherence (29%). The following statements serve to illustrate the students' views on these features:

- Firstly, I will check the overall structure. Secondly, each paragraph structure (topic sentence, supporting sentence, etc). Finally, the most important, use of certain phrases (for example, in conclusion, finally, etc.). (B2)
- Text is divided into paragraphs. Simple and common words should be used. (B2)
- Text must be linked. The main idea must be easily understood. (B2)
- Divide the text into paragraphs, use phrases like moreover, however, further, etc. (B2)
- By balancing paragraphs and using discourse markers. (C1)
- I should be structuring it a bit more. (C1)
- Good structuring and fluent sentences. (C1)
- To use all the requirements of text organisation. (C1)
- With the logical and clear structure. (C1)
- I would use an easy structure, so that everyone would find it easy and enjoyable to read. (C1)
- Good structure and organised text. Completed thoughts. (C1)

However, while text organisation as an important readability factor was well recognised by most of the C1-level subjects across the sample groups (TS1 50%; TS2 60%; CS of EAC 70%) and the B2-level subjects of TS1 (64%), this aspect was not that often highlighted by the B2-level subjects of TS2 and CS of EAC (17–20%).

The role of appropriate academic vocabulary in effective English texts was mentioned by an average of 32% of the subjects. Whereas 30–50% of the C1-level subjects listed vocabulary in this respect, the number of B-level subjects that mentioned this aspect was nearly twice smaller (17–36%). The subjects of TS1 seemed to perceive the significance of vocabulary most clearly: 36% of the B2-level subjects and 50% of the C1-level subjects reported that the presence of appropriate vocabulary could improve the quality of their texts. Similar results from sample TS1 were obtained in response to Question 10.

Table 22. How would you improve the readability of your English writing? Distribution of student responses across TS1, TS2, and CS of EAC

Readability factors	TS1		TS2		CS of EAC		Mean value
	B2	C1	B2	C1	B2	C1	
Text organisation	64	50	17	60	20	70	47
Appropriate academic vocabulary	36	50	17	40	20	30	32
Coherence	9	50	17	40	10	60	31
Grammar and mechanics	27	33	33	40	0	30	27
Sentence structure	18	67	33	0	10	10	23
Practicing and reading	9	17	0	20	0	30	13
Revising and peer evaluation	0	0	0	40	0	30	12
Style	0	17	0	20	0	40	13
No answer	0	0	17	0	20	20	9
Good ideas	9	17	0	0	0	0	4

Another significant aspect of readability that gained sufficient response from the students was coherence, although this textual feature brought in variations in the answers across the two L2 proficiency levels. Data in Table 22 indicate that while on average only 9–17% of the B-level subjects recognised the crucial role of coherence in reader-based writing, as many as half (40–60%) of the C1-level subjects highlighted this aspect. It was apparent that the students associated readable writing with clarity and fluency; for example:

- Clear statements. Eliminate wordiness. (B1)
- And the text should be easy to follow. (B2)
- Keep the text short and simple. That is not always true, but it helps usually. (C1)
- Losing the passive voice, making sentences simpler, structuring it a bit more. (C1)
- Clearer sentences. (C1)
- Keep the text simple. (C1)
- With the logical and clear structure. (C1)
- Completed thoughts. Not wordy text. (C1)

Although the differences between the two L2 proficiency-level groups in the other readability factors were not significant, a number of specific issues can still be observed. Data presented in Table 22 above suggest that the C1-level subjects were not quite agreed on certain issues of readability. In particular, some C1-level subjects attributed more value to practicing writing and reading (TS1 17%; TS2 20% and CS of EAC 30%), whereas some others recognised the importance of revision and peer evaluation procedures (TS2 40% and CS of EAC 30%) and improving style (TS1 17%; TS2 20% and CS of EAC 40%); examples include:

- By reading more texts and exercising at home. I guess the readability depends whether you understand the words and text in general, so different vocabulary should be revised.
- By reading and writing /…/.
- I should read more about the subject to know more and express myself freely.
- I would read the text several times and look up the words in the dictionary.
- Read it out yourself and hear. Try to correct if needed.

One C1-level subject revealed the confident writer's syndrome reporting that '*usually I do not change my text much after it is finished*'.

It was an anticipated finding that the aspects of readability outlined by the C1-level subjects were not so frequently or not at all mentioned by the B-level subjects. To illustrate this, while the C1-level subjects regarded both text organisation and coherence highly important in producing reader-friendly texts, the B-level subjects tended to prioritise text organisation and grammar instead. This, however, does not apply to the B-level subjects of CS of EAC that did not mention grammar as a readability factor in their responses. The factors contributing to readability not reported in any of the B-level subjects' responses were revising, peer evaluation and improving style and the ones mentioned only by the B-level subjects of TS1were practising writing and reading (9%).

As anticipated, quite a large number (27–40%) of the students, regardless of their L2 proficiency, reported on the significance of surface-level aspects of writing and error-correction among other contributors to English text quality. It was perhaps not quite surprising that some of the students appeared to identify readability with handwriting. The following examples illustrate the above tendencies fairly well:

- Grammatical correctness, big vocabulary, good ideas. (B2)
- Good handwriting, then the paragraphing and grammar. (B2)
- I would improve my handwriting and then the paragraphing and grammar. (B2)
- To separate paragraphs, with bad handwriting it would be better to type. (B2)
- First of all I should improve my handwriting. And the text should be easy to follow. (B2)
- I would improve my handwriting, and then the paragraphing and grammar. (B2)
- I would separate paragraphs with a blank line. (B2)
- Study grammar**.** (C1)
- Removing grammar mistakes, balancing paragraphs, using discourse markers. (C1)
- Good structuring and fluent sentences. The text should be grammatically correct. (C1)
- By reading and writing + grammar. (C1)
- First of all I should improve my handwriting and try to use interesting structures. (C1)

However, drawing on the above examples, it seems fair to suggest that most of these students, while discussing readability issues, did not focus merely on the linguistic features of written texts, but rather, attempted to provide various ways of improving text quality.

In regard to sentences as components of effective paragraphs, certain variability in the students' responses was revealed between the samples of TS1 and TS2, and the sample of CS of EAC. Whereas most subjects of EAC did not mention sentences in their responses, altogether 30% of the subjects of TS1 and TS2 suggested that good sentence skills were crucial to improving text readability. The students referred to sentences as contributors to '*clarity*', '*logical structure*' and '*fluency*' as follows:

- Short sentences and good handwriting. (B2)
- Do not make long sentences and use academic words. (B2)
- Sentences should be shorter. Text is divided into paragraphs. Simple and common words should be used. (B2)
- Not making long and difficult sentences. (B2)
- Good sentence structure. Good vocabulary. (C1)
- Sentence structure. (C1)
- Good structuring and fluent sentences. (C1)
- Clearer sentences. (C1)
- Make the sentences shorter /…/. (C1)
- Logical sentences and paragraphs. Mostly short sentences. (C1)

As anticipated, both B2-level subjects (TS1 18%; TS2 33%) and C1-level subjects (TS1 67%; TS2 20%) perceived that good sentence skills were necessary for the construction of reader-based English texts, although this attitude was more pronounced in the C1-level sample. That the subjects of TS1 and TS2 addressed sentences in respect to readability may be explained by the fact that the experimental EAP writing module viewed effective sentences as contributors to the communicative quality of writing.

Question 12°: Should you always regard writing as communication with another person? Why?

Question 12 was devised to examine the students' awareness of the communicative nature of English written discourse; the question directed the students to reveal whether they considered writer-reader relationship an important factor in the production of reader-based texts. As the mean values in Table 23 demonstrate, a large proportion (56%) of the students considered the writer-reader interaction crucial in English written discourse.

Table 23. Should you always regard writing as communication with another person? A comparative overview of student responses across the test samples of TUT (in percentages)

	TS1		TS2		Mean
	B2	C1	B2	C1	value
Yes	27	50	67	80	56
No	36	0	17	0	13
Undetermined (Yes/no)	9	50	17	20	24
Undefined	27	0	0	0	7

The following list of responses may be indicative of student perceptions of writing as an act of communication:

- /…/ I want him to understand what I wrote. (B2)
- I think so, because then the reader feels like the writing is written to him/her. (B2)
- Yes, because you give ideas to other persons. (B2)
- Yes, because I usually don't write to myself. (B2)
- I think that's the only way to write a good text. (B2)
- Yes, because later other people read it. (C1)
- Yes, because the other may understand you better then. (C1)
- Yes, it is important to keep in mind the audience, who will be reading the text. Writing is usually not meant for yourself only. (C1)
- Yes, if you do it like this then your written texts will be more understandable to others. (C1)

By contrast, 13% of the students did not regard writing in English as interaction with the reader, 24% of the students were not clear about this aspect, and 7% of the students misinterpreted the question or did not respond to it. That some students were still not able to regard writing as a mode of communication post instruction was an anticipated result since L2 students tend to relate the term 'communication' with the spoken mode of interaction.

On average, the data obtained from the two L2 proficiency-level groups did not reveal significant distinctions, although variations in the samples existed; for instance, as many as nearly half (47%) of the B2-level subjects (TS1 27% and TS2 67%) and a considerably larger proportion (65%) of the C1-level subjects (TS1 50% and TS2 80%) considered writing as a mode of communication. The exceptionally large proportion of the subjects of TS2 that regarded writing as an act of communication was an encouraging finding for this research.

A distinct feature for most C1-level subjects was that none of them claimed that writing should not be referred to as communication; however, some C1-level subjects of TS1 appeared to be somewhat divided as to their perceptions of the communicative nature of writing. This can be clearly demonstrated in the following statements:

- ~~Yes.~~ No, because talking isn't formal.
- No, in many cases I am writing something that only I will be reading. However, in academic texts, the answer would be 'yes' since it makes me think of correctness.
- Not always. Speaking to oneself is nice. It helps to improve one's English.

It was somewhat surprising that as many as nearly one third (27%) of the B2-level students of TS1 had either misinterpreted the question, identified the term 'communication' with the term 'communication technology' or simplified the term 'communication' as restricted to the spoken mode of the language as follows:

- Of course, nowadays most of the information goes through the Internet.
- Yes, many people have foreigners in their MSN. It is only way to communicate with foreigners (calling is too expensive). E-mail is cheaper.
- Writing is good communication when you are far away.
- No. This is because you have a lot of time to formulate the ideas.
- No, because you don't need to write while talking.
- I think not, because writing is more correct and should be without speech markers.

Another source for differences in opinions was the allegedly varying role of writing in terms of its communicative purpose in different genres of writing, for instance, in letter writing as opposed to essay writing:

- Not always, but sometimes yes. For example, writing letters in English means communication with a person, but there is more time to think about the ideas. (B2)
- I think it depends on the text. If it's a letter then it's a way of communicating with another person. If it's an essay where I state and express my opinion then I don't really see it as a tool for communication. (C1)

Two cognitive-type questions were designed for the post-course questionnaires to determine whether there was any change of perspective in the students' attitudes towards English academic writing upon completion of the EAP courses (Q13–14 in the questionnaire of the test samples of TUT, Appendix 9; and Q6–7 in the questionnaire of the control sample of EAC, Appendix 11). In these questions, the students were asked to reflect on what they liked about writing in English and what they found overly challenging about it.

Question 13: What do you like about writing?[1]

This question directed the students to determine the aspects of English writing in which they regarded themselves as most confident. Overall, this question elicited positive views from an exceptionally large proportion (85%) of the

[1] Question 6 in the post-course instrument of the control sample of EAC.

students. Although the students admitted that writing in English was a difficult task to undertake, they attributed high value to the ability to express themselves in this mode. Not only the C1-level students but also the B2-level students appreciated the potential provided to them by writing to be '*creative*', and communicate their ideas and knowledge to the wider audiences:

- /…/ the fact that you make something that you can keep with you to the end of your life. (B2)
- The writing itself. I can put my thoughts and ideas on the paper and share them with others. (B2)
- Expressing my ideas for many readers. (B2)
- I like expressing my own structured and elaborated ideas. (B2)
- I like writing itself that I can see some development in things. (B2)
- It gives an opportunity to express myself. (C1)
- It's fun. Creative. (C1)
- The movement of the pen. Seriously, it is sometimes good to express yourself. (C1)
- It helps to organise my thoughts and shows me how little I know about things. (C1)
- The fact that I have to sit down, gain my thoughts and compose a complex of my thoughts. (C1)
- I enjoy it because it's a little bit hard for me but I like the feeling when it is well done. (C1)
- It is a way of expressing myself, and a very good way of persuading people since I can think the ideas through. (C1)
- It helps to express my ideas in a way that others would understand. (C1)

Furthermore, a number of students referred to a direct relationship between writing and speaking as the two productive modes of communication. Whereas some students clearly revealed their preferences for speaking reporting, for example, that '*It's hard to answer, actually I prefer talking*' (B2) or '*[writing is] harder than speaking and it needs practicing*' (C1), some others recognised the fact that writing could provide more opportunities for self-correction and reflection:

- In academic writing I liked most that there are rules how to do it. (B2)
- Opportunity to correct and check the text. (B2)
- I like the fact that I can think over the sentence before I write it. Sometimes I say before I think and everything comes out wrong. With writing I don't have that kind of problem. (C1)
- Apart from speaking, you can think for some time about grammar or examples. (C1)

It was not at all surprising that some B2-level students still identified good writing in English with demonstrating their linguistic competence of grammar and lexis:

- It helps to display language skills.
- I like that it shows others your language skills.
- It's easier for me to study some rules of grammar while writing.
- /…/ I like those topics where I know the vocabulary.

Some students (7%) did not reveal their views at all, whereas some others (12%) were hesitant or expressed direct reservations about writing with the following standard answers:

- Writing is not some kind of pleasure to me. Maybe what I like is the feeling that it is done. (B2)
- I'm not sure I like writing. (B2)
- It's hard to answer, actually I prefer talking. (B2)
- I don't like writing at all and it's my weak side. (C1)

It is evident from the above data that some B2-level students still regarded writing as mostly an indicator of L2 proficiency, requiring considerably more time and effort than speaking.

Question 14: What do you find hard about writing?[1]

This question directed the students to determine what aspects of English academic writing had posed them most difficulty in the EAP writing module. Answers to this question were expected to reveal the aspects of writing that the students would require further support and instruction in.

Considering the complexity of English academic writing and the intensiveness of the EAP courses, it was not surprising that L2 proficiency comparisons exhibited certain differences in how the students perceived their difficulty in writing. In particular, even though one B2-level subject of TS1 claimed to have no concerns with English writing ('*Writing is one of the things I do well, I suppose. That's why no difficulties*'), the majority of the B2-level subjects across the target groups reported difficulty in adhering to the course requirements and completing all the written assignments successfully; for instance:

- Nothing, but writing in foreign language is sure hard.
- As for me it was hard to hold in memory all the useful phrases, the structures and layouts and use them all at the same.

A remarkable result with some of the B2-level subjects of TS1 and TS2 was that in discussing their difficulty in English text production, these subjects attempted to articulate specific problem areas as follows:

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[1] Question 7 in the post-course instrument of the control sample of EAC.

- [It is difficult] to make the text coherent and fluent.
- The hardest part about writing — you are not related with the topic. Just do not have ideas.
- To draw readers' attention.

Quite a number of C1-level subjects admitted that composing a quality text in academic English would require a lot of time and effort:

- Starting the writing. Finding the ideas to write about.
- It takes time to make a perfect piece of writing.
- Firstly, for me it is very difficult to start. Secondly, sometimes I don't follow the structure. Thirdly, it is hard to find the most appropriate words in the text context.
- How to organise my ideas so that it would be readable.

Figure 7 outlines the areas of difficulty in English academic writing most frequently mentioned by the students. From the figure it is apparent that nearly a quarter (31%) of all the students reported that finding appropriate vocabulary and good ideas for writing was equally problematic for them. A nearly identical number of the B2-level subjects (34%) and C1-level subjects (28%) reported that vocabulary was one of their greatest concerns in English written discourse:
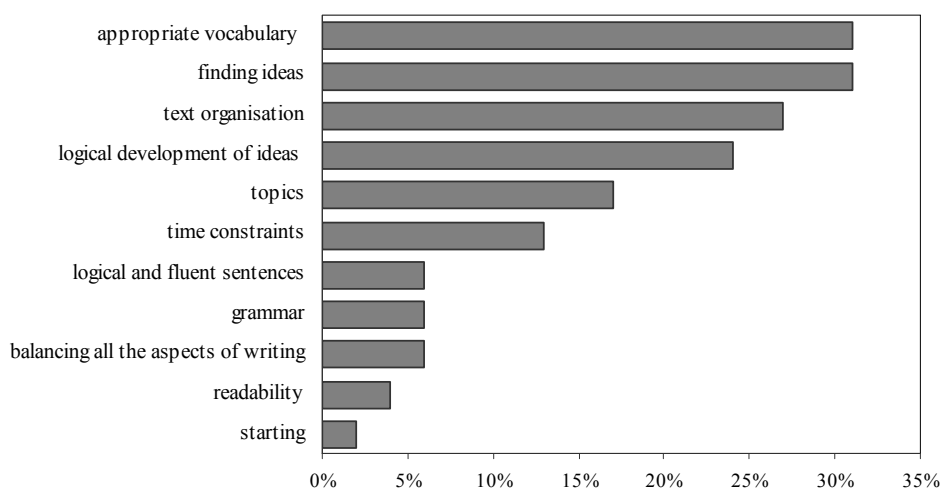
Figure 7. What do you find hard about English academic writing? An overview of the responses obtained from TS1, TS2 and CS of EAC.

- I'm making mistakes in difficult words and I would like to improve that. (B2)
- To find out good words. I don't have a good vocabulary. (B2)
- Some hard words. (B2)
- Because of my small vocabulary it is difficult to find the right words. (B2)

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- Finding right words that fit into context. (C1)
- Mostly vocabulary, I tend to forget most of the words I know and I just keep repeating myself. (C1)

In contrast, none of the B-level subjects of CS of EAC and C1-level subjects of TS2 believed that vocabulary was the most problematic aspect of L2 academic writing.

As mentioned above, the students found it hard to generate good ideas for writing (31%). This area of cognitive difficulty, specific not only to L2 writing but also to writing in one's mother tongue, can be exemplified in the following words:

- The hardest thing is to find a really good idea. (B2)
- It may take too much time. If the topic is difficult then it's hard to find ideas. (C1)
- Connecting my ideas as a whole. Lots of ideas pop into my head and it's difficult to choose the ideas to write about. (C1)
- Finding interesting ideas. Following the right structure and keeping good organisation of the text. (C1)
- Structuring my ideas, logical orders, finding core ideas. (C1)

Further, as can be seen in Figure 7, the students reflected their concerns with text organisation (27%) and the logical development of ideas (23%). Although the above two notions were mentioned more often by the C1-level subjects (52%) than the B2-level subjects (27%), the latter seemed to recognise the need for improvement in these important areas of L2 discourse proficiency even more highly. This can be further illustrated by the following quotes:

- To order ideas, statements, examples in logical order. Not switch between statements. (B1)
- To make the text coherent and fluent. (B2)
- It's hard to organize text and keep it logical. (B2)
- Making logical sentences and not making them very long. (B2)
- For me it is hard to structure the text. (B2)
- Organising my ideas into a whole. (C1)
- To keep text well structured, logical, comprehensive and concise. (C1)
- Sometimes I find it difficult to retain the proper structure and vary my vocabulary. (C1)

A certain area of difficulty common to quite a few students across the samples and L2 proficiency levels was composing under timed examination settings. Referring to their forthcoming EAP examination, the students expressed their reservations about the time constraints that would not allow them to refine their written texts and thus complete the task successfully. Another source for complaint among the students was the inadequacy or triviality of the writing topics that would not lend themselves to develop the text with proper examples

and supportive details. Here is a sample of statements demonstrating the above concerns:

- Little time. Sometimes bad topics. (B1)
- For me is the time limit, it is too short. I need to think my thoughts through and then write but here I have to write in the same time while thinking. (B1)
- The hardest part about writing – you are not related with the topic. Just do not have ideas. (B2)
- I find hard about writing the time limit. (B2)
- It takes time to organise thoughts. Sometimes topics are trivial, and hard to provide examples. (C1)
- Thinking what to write about certain subject. (C1)
- It may take too much time. If the topic is difficult then it's hard to find ideas. (C1)
- I don't like the time pressure. (C1)

Writing under timed test conditions seemed to be a source for anxiety especially in CS of EAC as in this sample almost 31% of the subjects identified lack of time as problematic in composing quality English texts and '*structuring [their] thoughts according to the test requirements'* (C1).

Figure 7 above reveals the students' concerns also with developing logical and fluent sentences, balancing correct grammar and the other aspects of writing, drawing readers' attention and starting with the writing process. It was an anticipated finding that not all of the students were able to readily adopt the teacher-suggested discourse-oriented writing strategies and techniques and distance themselves from the surface-level aspects of writing. Nevertheless, it is quite a remarkable result that, post course, only a minimal number (7%) of the students considered grammar as their major concern in English academic writing.

Question 15: What was your English mark at school? What mark would you expect to receive upon completion of this English course?[1]

This question directed the students to provide information on their pre-course L2 performance and suggest what mark they would expect to receive upon completion of instruction in the experimental EAP course or TOEFL iBT preparation course respectively. The students' evaluations of their pre-course and post-course English knowledge, skills and abilities revealed several unexpected details. It appeared that while in the pre-course questionnaires the students tended to value their proficiency in English (including writing) quite highly they were more hesitant about it in their post-course responses. Further, although most students seemed to have had realistic pre-course expectations of how intensive the EAP course would be, in their post-course responses they admitted that the course had been more difficult compared to how they had

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[1] Question 8 in the post-course questionnaire of the control sample of EAC.

initially viewed it. Thus, on average, only 8% of the subjects across the three sample groups expressed expectations to receive a higher mark for their achievement in the EAP course than they had earned at school, while 37% of all the subjects (TS1 40%; TS2 38% and CS of EAC 31%) believed that they would earn the same mark as they had done at school. When comparing the data obtained from the subjects of different L2 proficiencies, certain similarities could be observed. Namely, a strikingly large proportion (62%) of the C1-level subjects and a somewhat smaller proportion (53%) of the B2-level subjects estimated that their L2 marks in the academic context would be at least one rank lower than those at school. Responses obtained from the B2-level and C1-level subjects of TS2 (see Table 24) serve as an illustration of student general perceptions of this matter.

Table 24. What was your English mark at school? What mark would you expect to receive upon completion of this English course? A sample of student responses obtained from TS2

Subject No	Level of L2 proficiency	L2 mark at school	Estimated L2 mark at university
1	B2	4	3
2	B2	4	4
3	B2	4	3
4	B2	4	3
5	B2	4	4
6	B2	2	2
7	B2	3	1
8	C1	5	4
9	C1	5	5
10	C1	5	5
11	C1	5	undefined
12	C1	5	4
13	C1	5	4

The above data suggest that the majority of students seemed to acknowledge that the tertiary-level EAP programme had been significantly more demanding than L2 instruction at school and this could also be reflected in their L2 marks at university.

To conclude, it appeared that most students were able to accomplish the EAP courses successfully despite differences in their L2 proficiency levels. This can be further illustrated by the following figures: the EAP course completion rate at TUT was 92% (Level B2 100%; Level C1 83%) and the TOEFL iBT preparation course completion rate at EAC was 89% (Level B2 100%; Level C1 89%). The post-course evaluation responses obtained from the test subjects of TUT (TS1 and TS2) reveal a common feature — these students were quite satisfied with the experimental EAP writing module and regarded it as highly

relevant for their immediate and target academic and professional needs. This finding is somewhat at variance with the data received from the control subjects of EAC that did not pronounce their satisfaction with the writing instruction provided in the TOEFL iBT preparation course so clearly. A likely reason for these students' lesser satisfaction with the outcome of teaching was the highly intensive nature of instruction.

Expert evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts

This section presents the findings of the statistical analysis into the expert reader ratings on student pre-course and post-course experimental texts. The primary objective of the analysis was to investigate whether discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing at the Tallinn University of Technology had enhanced the communicative quality of the undergraduate students' English academic texts. In other words, the analysis was expected to quantify improvement in student post-course texts in comparison with their pre-course texts.

Student's t-test analysis

The paired one-tailed t-test analysis was performed on a set of student pre-course and post-course texts (N = 46) of the test samples (TS1 and TS2) and control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC). The texts had been numerically scored ('5' – excellent; '0' – fail) by five raters in each of the following six aspects of writing: grammar, mechanical accuracy, vocabulary, organisation, content and style. The results of the analysis are reported in the following four subsections:

- the test sample B2+C1 and the control sample B2+C1 (Tables 25–26; Figure 8);
- the test sample B2 and the control sample B2 (Tables 27–28; Figure 9);
- the test sample C1 and the control sample C1 (Tables 29–30; Figure 10);
- the test sample B2 and the test sample C1 (Figure 11).

The tables outline the descriptive statistics of improvement in student post-course texts. The data are tabulated as follows: the sample mean improvement μ with standard deviation σ in brackets; the t-test probability value p with the number of degrees of freedom (dof = sample size – 1) of the sample in brackets, and observations at the standard 5% and the more stringent 2.5% levels of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$ and $\alpha = 0.025$). The logical value of each observation about the statistical significance of improvement denotes, as a reading aid, the result of this decision (Yes – significant, rejecting the null hypothesis H_0; No –

not significant, failing to reject H_0). The figures present comparative data for qualitative assessment of improvement between the samples. Variances in student ratings and inter-rater reliability indexes are addressed at the end of the section (Table 31).

General statement of results

At the 2.5% level ($p < 0.025$), statistically significant improvement in the post-course texts of the test sample B2+C1 was observed in four aspects of writing, including style, organisation, content and grammar, while in the control sample B2+C1, improvement was detected only in content. Likewise, significant improvement was observed in the post-course texts of the test sample B2 in as many as five aspects of writing, including style, organisation, grammar, vocabulary and content, whereas in the control sample B2, improvement was detected only in content. Significant improvement in the test sample C1 was found in style and organisation, whereas in the control sample C1, improvement was observed only in mechanical accuracy.

Comparative data obtained from the samples

The following four subsections provide further statistical observations across the samples.

The test sample B2+C1 and the control sample B2+C1

As Table 25 indicates, in the test sample B2+C1, statistically significant improvement in student post-course writing at the 2.5% significance level ($p < 0.025$) was observed in the following aspects of writing: style ($p = 0.000$), organisation ($p = 0.001$), content ($p = 0.006$) and grammar ($p = 0.012$). The aspects of style, organisation and content yielded statistics significant even at the 1% level ($p < 0.01$).

Table 25. Descriptive statistics and observations: The test sample B2+C1

Aspect	μ (σ)	p (14)	p < 0.05	p < 0.025
Grammar	0.50 (0.76)	0.012	Yes	Yes
Vocabulary	0.24 (0.53)	0.052	~ Yes	No
Mechanics[1]	0.42 (0.93)	0.052	~ Yes	No
Organisation	0.70 (0.70)	0.001	Yes	Yes
Content	0.42 (0.58)	0.006	Yes	Yes
Style	0.55 (0.47)	0.000	Yes	Yes

[1] 'Mechanics' denotes 'mechanical accuracy' here and in the tables and figures below.

Table 26. Descriptive statistics and observations: The control sample B2+C1

Aspect	μ (σ)	p (7)	p < 0.05	p < 0.025
Grammar	0.03 (0.29)	0.385	No	No
Vocabulary	0.13 (0.47)	0.228	No	No
Mechanics	0.18 (0.44)	0.139	No	No
Organisation	0.29 (0.44)	0.050	Yes	No
Content	0.44 (0.45)	0.014	Yes	Yes
Style	0.26 (0.54)	0.112	No	No

It is worth noting that although no statistically significant improvement was found in the aspects of mechanical accuracy ($p = 0.052$) and vocabulary ($p = 0.052$), these results were close to the threshold of significance at the 5% level.

Table 26 above displays the findings for the control sample B2+C1. In this sample, statistically significant improvement at the 2.5% level was found only in content ($p = 0.014$), while organisation ($p = 0.050$) was observed to become statistically significant at the 5% level.
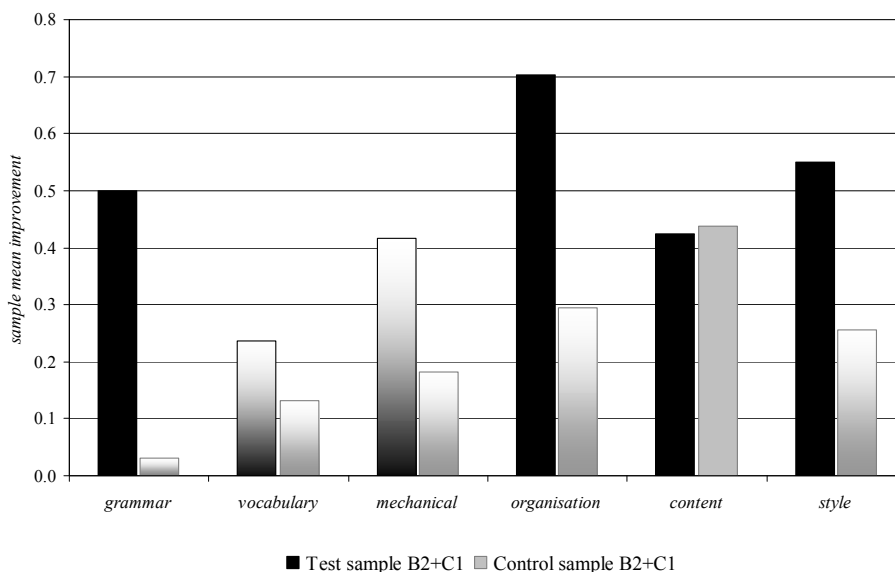
Figure 8. A comparative overview of the sample mean improvement (μ) of the test and control samples B2+C1 at the 2.5% level of significance. Solid columns correspond to improvement values observed as statistically significant. Gradient-filled columns correspond to statistically not significant values at this level.

The sample mean improvement values (μ) from Tables 25–26 are outlined in Figure 8 to provide comparison between the samples. It can be seen that the test sample B2+C1 demonstrated significant improvement in their post-course writing over the control sample B2+C1. Improvement was most pronounced and statistically significant in organisation ($\mu = 0.70$), style ($\mu = 0.55$), grammar ($\mu = 0.50$) and content ($\mu = 0.42$), whereas lower improvement close to the 5% threshold of significance was evident in mechanical accuracy ($\mu = 0.42$) and vocabulary ($\mu = 0.24$). In the control sample, at the 2.5% level, significant improvement was detected only in content ($\mu = 0.44$), while modest improvement in organisation ($\mu = 0.29$) was found at the 5% threshold level. No notable improvement was detected in grammar ($\mu = 0.03$).

The test sample B2 and the control sample B2

As Table 27 demonstrates, in the test sample B2, statistically significant improvement in student post-course writing at the 2.5% significance level was observed in style ($p = 0.009$), organisation ($p = 0.010$), grammar ($p = 0.022$), vocabulary ($p = 0.023$) and content ($p = 0.024$), whereas no significant effect was observed for mechanical accuracy ($p = 0.215$). The aspects of style and organisation yielded statistics significant even at the 1% level.

Table 27. Descriptive statistics and observations: The test sample B2

Aspect	μ (σ)	p (7)	p < 0.05	p < 0.025
Grammar	0.69 (0.79)	0.022	Yes	Yes
Vocabulary	0.45 (0.53)	0.023	Yes	Yes
Mechanics	0.29 (0.97)	0.215	No	No
Organisation	0.58 (0.54)	0.010	Yes	Yes
Content	0.50 (0.59)	0.024	Yes	Yes
Style	0.48 (0.44)	0.009	Yes	Yes

In the control sample B2 (see Table 28) statistically significant improvement at the 2.5% level was detected merely in content ($p = 0.023$).

The sample mean improvement values from Tables 27–28 are displayed in Figure 9. As shown in the figure, the test sample B2 demonstrated significant improvement at the 2.5% level in post-course writing over the control sample B2 in all the aspects of writing except for mechanical accuracy. Improvement was prominent and significant in grammar ($\mu = 0.69$), organisation ($\mu = 0.58$), style ($\mu = 0.48$), vocabulary ($\mu = 0.45$) and content ($\mu = 0.50$) the latter satisfying the significance test even at the 1% level. Improvement in mechanical accuracy ($\mu = 0.29$) cannot be considered significant.

Table 28. Descriptive statistics and observations: The control sample B2

Aspect	μ (σ)	p (2)	p < 0.05	p < 0.025
Grammar	0.00 (0.28)	0.500	No	No
Vocabulary	0.03 (0.55)	0.463	No	No
Mechanics	−0.13 (0.54)	0.355	No	No
Organisation	0.28 (0.33)	0.139	No	No
Content	0.65 (0.25)	0.023	Yes	Yes
Style	0.03 (0.06)	0.211	No	No
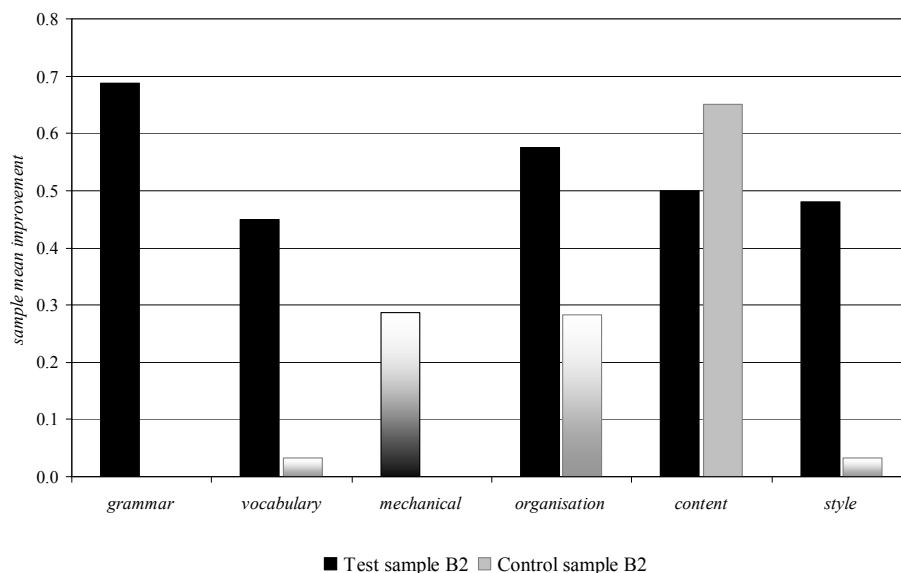
Figure 9. A comparative overview of the sample mean improvement (μ) of the test and control samples B2 at the 2.5% level of significance. Solid columns correspond to improvement values observed as statistically significant. Gradient-filled columns correspond to statistically not significant values at this level.

The only noteworthy improvement for the control sample B2 at the 2.5% level of significance was detected in content (μ = 0.65). Although some improvement was seen in the aspect of organisation (μ = 0.28), this effect was found to be statistically insignificant. No gains of statistical significance were observed for the other aspects of writing.

The test sample C1 and the control sample C1

In the test sample C1 (Table 29), statistically significant improvement at the 2.5% level was detected in two aspects of writing: style ($p = 0.010$) and organisation ($p = 0.020$). The aspect of style proved to be statistically significant even at the 1% level. For content ($p = 0.092$) and mechanical accuracy ($p = 0.080$) improvement can be considered significant at $\alpha = 0.1$.

Table 29. Descriptive statistics and observations: The test sample C1

Aspect	μ (σ)	p (6)	$p < 0.05$	$p < 0.025$
Grammar	0.29 (0.72)	0.169	No	No
Vocabulary	–0.01 (0.44)	0.484	No	No
Mechanics	0.56 (0.93)	0.080	Yes[*]	No
Organisation	0.85 (0.86)	0.020	Yes	Yes
Content	0.34 (0.59)	0.092	Yes[*]	No
Style	0.63 (0.53)	0.010	Yes	Yes

[*] $\alpha = 0.1$

In the control sample C1 (Table 30), no statistically significant improvement was identified in any other aspect of writing except for mechanical accuracy ($p = 0.017$).

As the comparative data in Figure 10 suggest, the test sample C1 exhibited higher sample mean improvement values in post-course writing than the control sample C1 in all the aspects of writing assessed except for vocabulary ($\mu = -0.01$).

Table 30. Descriptive statistics and observations: The control sample C1

Aspect	μ (σ)	p (4)	$p < 0.05$	$p < 0.025$
Grammar	0.05 (0.33)	0.375	No	No
Vocabulary	0.19 (0.47)	0.211	No	No
Mechanics	0.37 (0.26)	0.017	Yes	Yes
Organisation	0.30 (0.53)	0.137	No	No
Content	0.31 (0.52)	0.126	No	No
Style	0.39 (0.67)	0.133	No	No

However, the figure reveals that while improvement in organisation ($\mu = 0.85$) and style ($\mu = 0.63$) qualified to statistical significance at the 2.5% level, improvement in mechanical accuracy ($\mu = 0.56$) and content ($\mu = 0.34$) gained statistical significance only at the 5% level. In the control sample C1, improvement was statistically significant only in mechanical accuracy ($\mu = 0.37$).
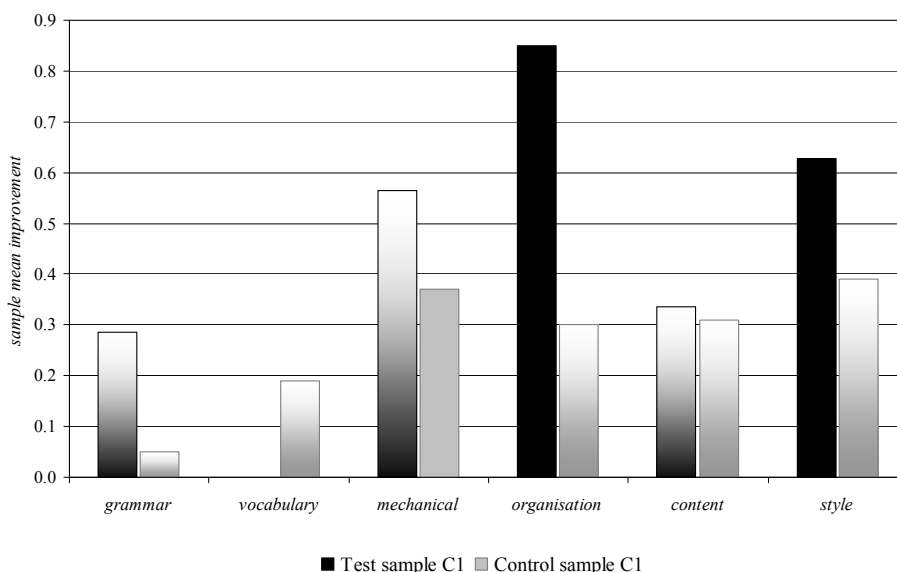
Figure 10. A comparative overview of the sample mean improvement (μ) of the test and control samples C1 at the 2.5% level of significance. Solid columns correspond to improvement values observed as statistically significant. Gradient-filled columns correspond to statistically not significant values at this level.

The test sample B2 and the test sample C1

The sample mean improvement data from Table 27 and Table 29 have been collected in Figure 11 to provide comparison between the test samples B2 and C1. In both test samples, substantial improvement at the 2.5% level of significance was discovered in organisation ($\mu = 0.58$ [B2] vs. $\mu = 0.85$ [C1]) and style ($\mu = 0.48$ [B2] vs. $\mu = 0.63$ [C1]). Improvement in content at the 2.5% level was notable in the sample B2 ($\mu = 0.50$), whereas in the sample C1, improvement was somewhat lower ($\mu = 0.34$) and significant only at 10% level. In the sample B2, a fairly high improvement value for grammar ($\mu = 0.69$) and a slightly lower value for vocabulary ($\mu = 0.45$) were observed statistically significant at the 2.5% level. By contrast, in the sample C1, the improvement values for grammar ($\mu = 0.29$) and vocabulary ($\mu = -0.01$) remained statistically insignificant. Furthermore, data for mechanical accuracy ($\mu = 0.3$) did not reach the threshold of significance in the test sample B2, while in the test sample C1 that aspect was observed significant only at the 10% level.
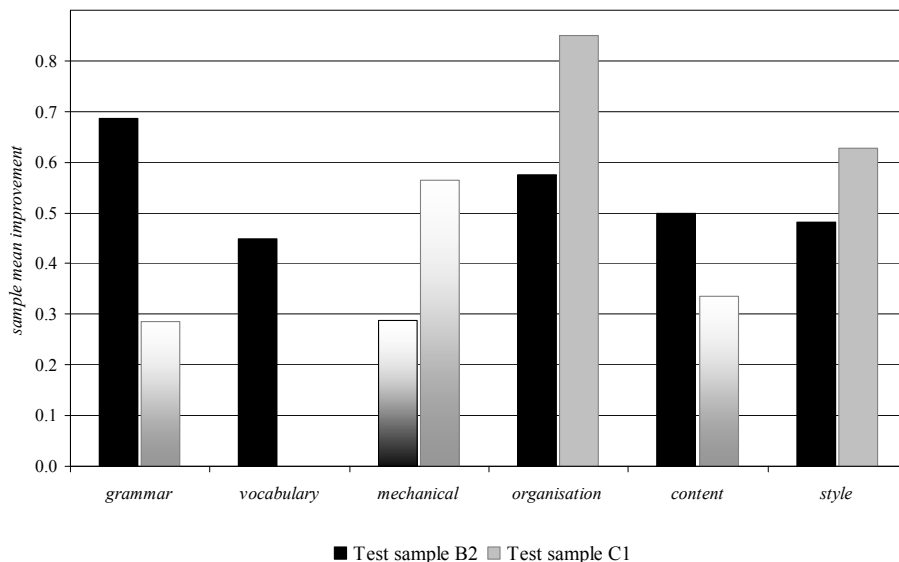
Figure 11. A comparative overview of the sample mean improvement (μ) of the test sample B2 and test sample C1 at the 2.5% level of significance. Solid columns correspond to improvement values observed as statistically significant. Gradient-filled columns correspond to statistically not significant values at this level.

Analysis of variance and inter-rater reliability

Following the guidelines by Shrout and Fleiss (1979), a two-way analysis of variance was applied to evaluate the observed variances in student ratings due to multiple sources of statistical errors (variances between the raters, between and within the students' texts and residuals) and to yield the intraclass correlation coefficient ICC as an estimator of the inter-rater reliability. Considering the k raters as fixed effects (Shrout and Fleiss ibid.), the inter-rater reliability index r was estimated in a form of intraclass correlation coefficient ICC(3, k) (outlined in Table 31.). With focus on the reliability of the average of multiple ratings, the mean measure r_m was applied to evaluate consistency of the observed ratings tabulated in Table 31.

The values of reliability index range from 0 to 1 (full agreement). According to Ebel (1979), in non-standardised testing contexts, the reliability index around 0.5 is considered quite common, while in standardised high-stake testing contexts, the index is expected to be above 0.9. Fleiss (1986) has applied the following criteria for intra-class correlation: a correlation < 0.40 denotes a low level of agreement, a correlation 0.41–0.75 indicates a regular-good level of agreement and a correlation 0.76–1.00 indicates a clearly high level of agreement.

On the basis of the above correlation criteria, it seems that the level of consistency among the five raters scoring student texts was sufficiently high. It can be seen in Table 31 that the inter-rater reliability index across the six aspects of writing was fairly uniform with most consistency in the ratings emerging in the aspect of grammar ($r_m = 0.9$). Identical values for inter-rater reliability indexes ($r_m = 0.8$) were found for the aspects of mechanical accuracy, organisation, content and style, whereas the lowest reliability value ($r_m = 0.7$) was detected in the aspect of vocabulary.

Table 31. Two-way analysis of variance and inter-rater reliability index

Aspect	Variance s^2 (F)				Inter-rater reliability index r_m
	between raters[1]	between texts[1]	within texts	residual	
Grammar	2.2 (6.1)	2.6 (7.0)	0.4	0.4	0.9
Vocabulary	2.7 (6.5)	1.3 (3.2)	0.5	0.4	0.7
Mechanics	14.5 (32.1)	2.8 (6.2)	0.8	0.5	0.8
Organisation	1.8 (3.4)	2.8 (5.1)	0.6	0.5	0.8
Content	8.2 (13.0)	2.8 (4.4)	0.8	0.6	0.8
Style	14.0 (31.0)	1.8 (4.1)	0.7	0.5	0.8

[1] The mean square values with the F-value in parentheses.

This chapter has summarised the results of the two-phase empirical study into the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing. Drawing on the data obtained from student pre-course and post-course questionnaires across the samples, and the statistical analysis of expert ratings on student pre-course and post-course texts, significant improvement in the post-course writing of the test sample (TS1 and TS2) was detected.

CHAPTER 5:
DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses conclusions arising from the two-phase empirical study into the likely effect of discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing on Estonian undergraduate students' communicative proficiency in English writing. Starting with a general statement of results, the discussion is organised in five sub-sections around the hypotheses and research questions presented in the thesis (p. 75). The chapter addresses the implications of this research for L2/EAP writing instruction and research in Estonia and elsewhere, and outlines its major limitations.

General statement of results

The empirical study has produced results that appear to support all the three hypotheses of the research thus confirming the efficacy of discourse-oriented pedagogy in the enhancement of students' skills and competences in English academic writing. In support of Hypothesis 1, there is data to suggest that teaching writing through discourse was instrumental in providing the students with knowledge about writing as an important component of academic literacy. In regard to Hypothesis 2, there is significant statistics from expert reader evaluation to confirm that discourse-oriented teaching of writing had a considerable effect in improving the communicative quality of the test subjects' post-course texts in comparison with the quality of their pre-course texts. The analysis of expert data reveals statistically significant improvement in the texts of the test sample in nearly all the six aspects of writing assessed, whereas it shows far fewer gains in the texts of the control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC) trained under traditional instructional methods. Thus, it seems valid to argue that discourse-oriented teaching of English writing is likely to have developed the test subjects' awareness of the textual and communicative aspects of writing and thus empowered them to enhance the quality of their post-course texts. Further, the study produced significant data that appear to confirm Hypothesis 3 that teaching writing at the level of discourse can be rewarding for students at different levels of L2 proficiency. While discourse-oriented pedagogy may be regarded as rewarding and intellectually challenging mostly for higher-level L2 writers (Level C1), this study exhibited statistically even more significant gains in writing for less proficient L2 writers (Level B2).

In short, the findings of the study seem to clearly indicate the relevance of discourse-oriented methodology to the enhancement of Estonian students' communicative fluency in English writing. These findings support the significance of this research to the instructional practices of EAP writing in Estonia and to further investigations in the field.

Review of the data to support the hypotheses of the research

Research question 1:
Writing as a crucial skill for communication

> How effective is discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction in raising Estonian students' awareness of writing as a crucial skill for communication?

It was assumed (Hypothesis 1) that instructional focus on discourse and text would engender the students' recognition of the value of effective writing skills in English-medium academic interaction. Student pre-course and post-course responses yield significant data to verify this assumption.

Student pre-course perceptions of English academic writing

Consistent with previous findings by Rummel (2005b), this research adds evidence to show that Estonian students tend to underestimate the importance of effective writing skills in English-medium academic discourse. Estonian students perceive their deficiencies in English predominantly in speaking, listening and vocabulary rather than in writing, even though mastery of writing should be cognitively more demanding for them to acquire than mastery of speaking or any other L2 literacy skill. In TS1, TS2 and CS of ITC, only 7–12% of the subjects attributed high significance to writing and 23–30% of them ranked writing second in importance. Even the subjects of CS of EAC, preparing for the high-stakes international test that contains an important writing component, ranked the skill of writing only as third (61%) or fourth (28%) in significance. In western academic contexts, however, writing is frequently cited as the most important academic literacy skill for success, whereas speaking is regarded as relatively unimportant (see, e.g., Bloor and Bloor 1991; Hyland 1997).

Linguistically more advanced L2 students generally attribute more value to writing than their lower-level peers (Johns 1993). In line with this, the C1-level subjects of this research reported to appreciate effective L2 writing skills and relevant instruction in EAP writing considerably more highly than the B2-level subjects. This attitude was especially noticeable in TS1 with 64% of the C1-level subjects giving the skill of writing high prominence in instruction. As opposed to that, only 23% of the B2-level subjects considered improvement of their English writing skills essential for success in the academia. A possible explanation for this discrepancy in values may be that the lower-level subjects perceived English academic writing a fairly difficult task for them to undertake and were thus inhibited from pronouncing their needs for writing clearly. Yet

another consideration must be that lower-proficiency L2 writers often tend to overestimate their ability due to lack of sufficient knowledge for accurate self-assessment, while high-proficiency L2 writers may underestimate their ability and not recognise 'the extent of their writing competences' or may have 'become more aware of their limitations in written communication' (Hyland 1997: 7). Similarly, the C1-level subjects of this research reported to have more concerns with their English academic writing and appeared to somewhat underestimate their writing ability, whereas the B2-level subjects seemed to slightly overrate their writing ability. To specify, while only 10% of the C1-level subjects rated their L2 writing ability as equivalent to the highest mark '5', a significant portion of both B2-level and C1-level subjects evaluated their writing skills equally with marks '4' (41–66%) or '3' (30–44%).

Traditionally, L2 students consider writing as a manifestation of L2 linguistic proficiency rather than a mode of communicating knowledge and frequently regard the linguistic aspects of grammar and lexis as the primary source for effective interaction (e.g., Riley 1996; Ventola 1996). Similar views on English academic writing were obtained from student pre-course questionnaires of this research, with a substantial proportion (63–75%) of the students (TS1 and CS of ITC) identifying writing in English as inherently a matter of grammatical accuracy and lexical complexity, and ranking grammar as its most fundamental aspect. These data further support the results of Rummel (2005b) indicating that while writing in English, Estonian academic writers focus on the surface rather than the whole-text aspects of writing.

Student post-course perceptions of English academic writing

It was anticipated that discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing would produce some change in the students' views on the aspects of writing contributing most to effective communication. Indeed, certain reverse trends in student priorities post instruction (TS2 and CS of EAC; see Appendix 9, Q8 and Appendix 11, Q2 respectively)[1] as opposed to student priorities pre instruction (TS1 and CS of ITC; see Appendix 6, Q 10) were found.

A notable outcome was the students' fairly identical response on these matters across the samples and L2 proficiencies with a substantial proportion (64%) of them ranking text organisation as one of the central attributes of effective writing, followed by good ideas (57%) and subject content (36%). Text organisation was valued equally highly by both the B2-level subjects (TS2 60% and CS of EAC 75%) and the C1-level subjects (TS2 57% and CS of EAC 63%). The relatively low average ratings ascribed by the students to vocabulary (22%), grammar (13%) and mechanical accuracy (12%) may be regarded as

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[1] The choice of samples for responding to this specific item either pre course or post course was dependent on the development of the experimental study: TS1 and CS of ITC were examined in 2004–2006, whereas TS2 and CS of EAC were examined in 2006–2007).

indicative of a shift in perspective in their attitudes. That none of the students attributed the most universal value (Rank 1) to grammar was an anticipated result since they were encouraged to regard grammatical and syntactical accuracy as merely one of the important contributors to effective English texts.

Discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing was expected to produce a change in the students' views on writing and thus empower them as more effective writers. While this prediction was fully supported by the responses received from the test samples of TUT (TS1 and TS2), change in the attitudes was evident also in the control sample of EAC. Most test subjects reported overly positive attitudes towards English academic writing *('/.../ it was great to start writing again.'*) and referred to writing as both '*useful*' and '*enjoyable*'. Both B2-level and C1-level students reflected their increased awareness of the communicative nature of English written discourse ('*I can put my ideas and thoughts on paper and share them with others.*' B2; or '*It is a way of expressing myself, and a very good way of persuading people.*' C1) and of the significance of writer-reader interaction in the production of effective texts ('*I think that's the only way to write a good text.*' B2; or *'/.../it is important to keep in mind the audience, who will be reading the text. Writing is usually not meant for the writer only.*' C1). A telling result was that the shift of perspective on writing as a communicative practice was especially evident in the B2-level sample. Although some of the B2-level subjects were rather conventional in their responses ('*I did not enjoy writing at all*' or '*The writing module helped students to prepare for the exam.*'), most of them seemed to view the outcomes of instruction in a far wider context.

Overall, it was apparent that the students recognised discourse proficiency in English writing as a means of facilitating communication and as a key to their further academic success. This finding is in agreement with the observations on L2 writers' attitudes in English written discourse reported by Hyland (1997) and by Leki and Carson (1994).

Research question 2: The efficacy of discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction

> How effective is discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction in the enhancement of the communicative quality of Estonian students' English texts?

It was assumed (Hypothesis 2) that focus in EAP writing instruction on discourse could raise the students' awareness of the Anglo-American writing norms and thus empower them as more effective writers. This assumption was confirmed by expert reader ratings on student texts and by student post-course evaluative responses.

Expert reader ratings on student experimental texts

It seems to be clear that the most compelling evidence for the enhancement of L2 learners' writing facility is the value that is added to them as they progress through a curriculum. From this perspective, the strongest evidence in this research to add support to the efficacy of discourse-oriented EAP writing pedagogy is the significant statistics obtained through the analysis of expert reader ratings on student pre-course and post-course texts. These data reveal statistically significant improvement in the post-course texts of the test sample of TUT (TS1 and TS2) in nearly all the aspects of writing in comparison with their pre-course texts. The data show minimal gains in the post-course texts of the control samples of EAC and ITC respectively.

The statistics highlight the central aspects of improvement in the test subjects' (B2+C1) English writing performance. A noteworthy result is statistically significant improvement in the subjects' texts at the 2.5% significance level ($p < 0.025$) in as many as four aspects of writing, including style ($p = 0.000$), organisation ($p = 0.001$), content ($p = 0.006$) and grammar ($p = 0.012$). Moreover, the discourse aspects of style, organisation and content were observed to yield statistics significant even at the 1% level ($p < 0.01$). The aspects of mechanical accuracy ($p = 0.052$) and vocabulary ($p = 0.052$) were close to the threshold of significance at the 5% level. In the control sample (B2+C1), statistically significant improvement at the 2.5% significance level was detected only in content ($p = 0.014$) and at the 5% level in organisation ($p = 0.050$). No notable gains in the aspects of grammar, vocabulary, or mechanical accuracy were found at either the 2.5% or 5% levels of significance.

With regard to the students' development in the grammatical and lexical aspects of writing, a number of interesting data emerged from the study. It appeared that while gains in grammar and vocabulary were not significant in the control sample trained under traditional methods, improvement in these aspects was statistically significant in the test sample. This seems to indicate that traditional approaches to teaching L2 writing— with their emphasis on the surface level of text— may sometimes do worse or at any rate do not appear to do better in improving learners' proficiency in grammar and vocabulary, while the discourse-oriented approach, seemingly 'neglecting' these aspects, is likely to help in all areas of writing, including those on the surface level. Graham and Perin (2007) have reported similar results in the instructional practices of teaching L1 writing for adolescent students with grammar instruction observed as yielding negative results, whereas strategy instruction identified as producing substantial effect on the quality of writers' texts. Perhaps a somewhat unanticipated finding within the test sample (B2+C1) was that while statistically significant improvement in grammar and vocabulary was found in the B2-level sample, gains in these aspects lacked statistical significance in the C1-level sample. This discrepancy may be due in part to the C1-level subjects' already 'sufficiently high' L2 linguistic proficiency.

It is encouraging to observe that the aspects of writing that yielded statistically most significant gains in the post-course texts of the test sample were style and text organisation. In effect, style and text organisation have been constantly referred to as the most problematic areas in L2 writing mainly because writers tend to lack knowledge of the rhetorical patterns of English texts (see, e.g., Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hoey 1991; Hyland 2003; Myles 2002). The test subjects' improvement in these important areas of writing can therefore be considered as a direct indication of the efficacy of discourse-oriented instruction. Teaching EAP writing at the level of discourse is likely to have added a particular value to the students' communicative competence in writing and to their ability to produce acceptable English texts. These data add further support to the argument that it is crucial to develop L2 writers' knowledge of the specific features of English text construction and style (e.g., Archibald 1994, 2001; Chanell 1984; Hyland 1995; Shaw and Liu 1998).

Student post-course evaluative responses

Bloom (1976) and Helmke (1989) have referred to a mutual relationship of influence between student attitudes towards learning and their achievement. This view accords with the observations of this doctoral research that suggest a direct relationship with the students' favourable perceptions of writing instruction and their improved performance in English writing. As expected, certain discrepancies in student responses in regard to instruction between the test sample of TUT (TS1 and TS2) and the control samples of EAC and ITC, and across L2 proficiencies were detected (as the post-course evaluation measure of the control sample of ITC did not include specific questions on writing, this sample is not discussed in detail here). While in the test sample, both level subjects were nearly equally satisfied with the writing activities and assignments of the EAP course (84–100%), the subjects of the control sample were divided on that matter. In the latter sample, 62% of the C1-level subjects and 50% of the B2-level subjects were quite satisfied with instruction, whereas altogether 33% of the B2-level subjects did not pronounce their views whatsoever and 17% expressed reservations about instruction. Variation in responses within the control sample may be due to the particularly intensive nature of teaching text-level writing that may have discouraged L2 lower-ability subjects. A notable result in the test sample was that none of the subjects denied the positive effect of discourse-oriented pedagogy on the development of their English writing ability.

As anticipated, the test subjects of TS1 (94%) and TS2 (100%) reported predominantly positive views ('*yes, a lot*' and '*yes, I believe so*') on the improvement of their English writing performance through instruction. The students appreciated that the skill of writing had been well focused on in the integrated-skills EAP course and recognised enhancement in the discourse

quality of their English texts ('*My writing has improved 500% and more.*' B2; or '*I feel much better now when it comes to writing some serious paper.*' C1). Quite a few of the subjects referred to the EAP writing module as highly relevant for their immediate and target academic needs. A rather noticeable L2 proficiency-level difference of opinion was observed in TS1. While as many as half of the C1-level subjects believed that they had improved their L2 writing performance '*a lot*', the B2-level subjects were more hesitant in their responses. Nevertheless, although only 27% of the B2-level subjects provided the highly positive response '*a lot*', as many as 64% of the subjects admitted progress in their English writing ('*yes, I believe so*'). In effect, analysis of student post-course writing revealed statistically more significant gains in the texts of the B2-level sample rather than the C1-level sample.

A valid indication of the test subjects' devotion to the discourse-oriented EAP writing module was that altogether 89% of them provided constructive suggestions for its further development. It is noteworthy that nearly a third of the subjects did not cite any critical views about the instructional activities of the module and indulged in self-critical attitudes instead ('*I should have been learning more.*' C1). However, as was only anticipated, not all of the students found the instructional activities facilitative to the development of their English writing skills and listed extensive homework, time constraints, the inadequacy of some themes and tasks, somewhat excessive focus on examination tasks and some administrative matters, among others, as potential disadvantages of instruction. Likewise, it was not surprising that some B2-level students found the communicative learning context far too challenging or even confusing for them to benefit from instruction ('*The writing module makes you shy in your own ideas.*' B2). Some C1-level students, on the other hand, perceived the instructional standards of the programme as not particularly motivating for their L2 proficiency level and limiting their creative expression of thought ('*The personal writing style is being criticised too much. There should not be a perfect model of academic writing.*' C1) or even irrelevant to real-world writing ('*Sometimes the rules of writing seemed to be too difficult to follow in real texts.*' C1). The extent to which each individual student benefited from the instruction and whether a link existed between the students' reserved attitudes towards English writing and their overall academic aptitude remains debatable and subject to further examination.

It was not surprising that the control subjects of EAC attributed far lesser value to the few intensive discourse-driven writing classes they had been provided with than the test subjects of TS1 and TS2 taught in a discourse-oriented course. Although the control subjects were familiarised with the important principles of English text construction and the communicative nature of academic writing, given the highly time-constrained nature of teaching, the subjects were not able to fully apply the knowledge acquired through instruction in their writing. Indeed, the subjects' post-course texts mirror their deficiency in the communicative and textual matters of writing apparently stemming from

lack of time for further reflection and practice. Nonetheless, despite time constraints in instruction, a substantial portion (56%) of the subjects of EAC admitted the positive impact of instruction on their L2 writing ability, even though none of the students reported to have developed their English academic writing ability '*a lot*'. It cannot be denied that some students (36%) remained slightly reserved ('*I do not know/perhaps a little*') or even negative ('*not very much*') about their improvement (9%).

On the question of which aspects of English academic writing the test subjects (TS1 and TS2) perceived they had advanced most (Q1), the subjects highlighted improvement in the communicative aspects of their writing and their increased awareness of the Anglo-American academic writing style, text unity and coherence, text construction skills, and the role of writer-reader relationship. Although L2 proficiency comparisons within the sample revealed no consistent patterns of difference, it was apparent that the C1-level subjects were slightly more familiar with the specific notions of English academic writing and they also cited their enhanced self-expression and communicative confidence as major contributors to the development of their L2 writing facility. A noteworthy result was that only one B2-level subject highlighted the aspect of grammatical accuracy in the feedback ('*We had to do lots of writing, and when it was time for error correction, there was just too much of it.*' B2).

An anticipated finding within the test sample was that most students cited advancement in vocabulary as an important contributor to the improvement of their English academic writing style ('*I learned many new words and phrases. I use more academic terms.*' C1) and reported progress in their ability to apply appropriate lexis to a specific discourse context. Although it cannot be denied that in the academia, knowledge of appropriate lexis is one of the most important indicators of L2 competence (see, e.g., Saville-Troike 1984), the subjects' intense focus on the lexical aspects of writing may not be always justified. An interesting finding emerging from the comparative analysis of student pre-course and post-course texts was the statistically significant improvement in lexis in the B2-level students' texts, while gains in this aspect in the C1-level students' texts appeared not significant.

Research question 3: Teaching writing through discourse at different levels of L2 proficiency

At what level of L2 proficiency should discourse-oriented teaching of English writing be introduced to learners in order for it to be effective?

Expert reader ratings on student experimental texts and student post-course evaluative responses

Expertise in writing has been viewed as an indication that students have mastered the socio-cognitive skills required to perform at expectation in the target academic context (e.g., Hinkel 2004; Leki 2003; Weigle 2002). Given that, it was predicted in this research that discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction would yield more effect with students at higher levels of L2 proficiency. Another prediction (Hypothesis 3), however, was that discourse-oriented instruction could empower students also at lower levels of L2 ability to communicate their knowledge more effectively in written English. These two predictions may be regarded as largely supported by the data obtained from expert reader evaluations of student experimental texts and from student post-course questionnaires. While the data indicate a general increase of student motivation in English academic writing and statistically significant improvement in writing for both L2 proficiency groups, the scope of improvement in the B2-level sample can be considered most noteworthy. In detail, the findings reveal statistically significant improvement in the B2-level subjects' texts at the 2.5% level ($p < 0.025$) in as many as five aspects of writing, including style ($p = 0.009$), organisation ($p = 0.010$), grammar ($p = 0.022$), vocabulary ($p = 0.023$) and content ($p = 0.024$), with the aspects of style and organisation yielding statistics significant even at the 1% level ($p < 0.010$). In comparison, the C1-level subjects' texts displayed improvement at the 2.5% significance level only in style ($p = 0.010$) and organisation ($p = 0.020$). Improvement in the aspect of style was significant even at the 1% level.

Perhaps one of the most unexpected findings of the study concerns the differences between the test sample B2 and the control sample B2 in regard to the subjects' development in grammar. In particular, while the B2-level test subjects showed statistically significant improvement in their English writing in the aspect of grammar ($p = 0.022$), the B2-level control subjects revealed no statistical gains in grammar ($p = 0.500$). These findings are likely to indicate the positive effect of discourse-oriented instruction not only on the lower-level subjects' communicative ability but also on their grammatical proficiency of English academic writing.

It was encouraging to observe the B2-level test subjects' willingness to value the slightest enhancement of their L2 writing ability in instruction. Apparently most B2-level subjects were not quite clear about the adequacy of their L2

literacy skills for the academic context; indeed, despite a nearly ten-year traditional L2 training at school not all of them had acquired adequate linguistic proficiency let alone discourse proficiency in English.

The above data seem to suggest that improvement in the students' English writing performance cannot be explained by their L2 proficiency level or grammatical and verbal abilities alone. In other words, while writers' general L2 ability may significantly contribute to their proficiency in English academic discourse, the higher level of L2 ability alone need not necessarily lead to more effective writing. These results concur with the findings of other research (e.g., Brown 1994, 2007; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hyland 2003; Kasper 1997, 1998; Ventola 1996; Zhang 2001) and support the view that teaching the discourse principles of English writing can be rewarding at different levels of L2 study. As verified by the data collected from the test sample B2, lower-level L2 learners can develop metacognitive strategies and skills for writing more fluently and independently. These writers are likely to enhance their discourse and textual strategies and become more efficient in English text production as they gain appropriate instruction, practice and experience in writing.

Hereby, it should be emphasised that the data obtained from the instructional practices of this research support the view that not all methodological approaches and procedures to teaching English academic writing at the level of discourse can apply to all L2 students (see, e.g., Brown 2007; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hyland 2003; Johns 1986; Kroll 1990; Reid 1984). As the methods and strategies of teaching writing at 'the surface level of syntax' and 'the deeper level of rhetoric' (Kroll ibid.: 153) may differ so widely, certain instructional modifications to teaching students of different L2 proficiencies might be required. In this research, the main goal of teaching was to improve the students' proficiency in English academic written discourse, the achievement of this goal, however, was highly dependent on the cognitive, linguistic and communicative load the students were able to handle. While the same underlying instructional principles were applied to all the students, minor allowances were still made for the B2-level subjects. In other words, while the primary focus with the linguistically more skilled C1-level subjects was to acquaint them with more complex possibilities of English academic discourse, the focus with the rhetorically and linguistically not as competent B2-level subjects was to introduce them to the fundamentals of discourse and assist them to gain knowledge of certain workable writing techniques and rhetorical options. The encouraging data obtained from the empirical study appear to validate both practices.

Although the intensive nature of the integrated-skills EAP course was challenging for all the students, it cannot be denied that the B2-level students were linguistically in a slightly more disadvantaged position than their higher-level peers. Probably due to lower L2 proficiency, it was considerably more effort- and time-consuming for these students to complete the writing tasks assigned in the writing module with the desired outcome. Yet, statistical data of

the research suggest that by the end of instruction, most B2-level students were able to display quite a good control of English text construction and communicate their ideas in an acceptable manner.

Research question 4: Time considerations for discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction

> What amount of discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction could provide Estonian students with the skills necessary for them to achieve the desired effect in the English-medium academic context?

Leki (2003) has argued for three important conditions — time, guidance and experience — to be reproduced in L2 academic writing instruction in order for students to become successful in English written discourse. Similarly, the findings of this research identify the amount of teaching and practising time as one of the most influential factors in the development of the students' English writing skills. A major limitation of the experimental EAP writing module was its highly constrained in-class instructional and practice time since writing accounted for only about 25% of the instructional activities of the 40-hour integrated-skills EAP course. An obvious difficulty for the students stemming from that was their need to complete most of the writing assignments individually out of class with minimal guidance from the teacher. As the writing development process requires focused attention and extensive experience, generally it is rather unlikely to be achieved in a short integrated-skills EAP course (TS1 and TS2), let alone in even more constrained teaching situations (CS of EAC and CS of ITC). However, the experimental data from the test sample of TUT suggest that focus in EAP writing instruction on the crucial aspects of discourse may still yield statistically significant improvement in student texts even in time-constrained contexts. Combined with the data obtained from the control sample of EAC, these findings lend themselves to a tentative conclusion that despite limited instructional time, with a discourse perspective on teaching, Estonian writers could be trained to become sufficiently well informed of the global features of the Anglo-American writing style and English text construction. This seems to accord with the observations by Kroll (1990):

> Without any mental formulation of what constitutes good writing or an awareness of the steps involved in producing it, students cannot know how to proceed in the task of writing and time could not buy them anything. (Kroll ibid.: 152)

The students' post-course evaluative responses suggest quite a number of interesting conclusions in regard to the possible impact of instructional time on their development in L2 writing. There appears to be a direct correlation between the students' satisfaction with instruction and its duration or/and intensiveness. Thus, the test subjects (TS1 and TS2) taught in a 40-hour integrated-skills discourse-oriented EAP course expressed satisfaction with both the educational content and the outcome of instruction. In contrast, the control subjects of EAC, minimally exposed to discourse-based writing, exhibited certain reservations about the effectiveness of instruction and the likely improvement of their English academic writing ability. These data agree with the findings of previous research (e.g., Hyland 2004; Leki 2003) indicating that a considerable amount of teacher-guided learning time is required for students to gain a deeper understanding of the Anglo-American academic writing style, and to practice and develop academic literacy skills in English.

This research supports the view that independent, extended writing should be one of the goals of any L2 writing syllabus (e.g., Hyland 2003; Leki 2003; Rose 1985); however, it would seem clear that without sufficient time and proper instruction extended writing will not always increase writing proficiency (e.g., Arnold 1964; Krashen 1984; Kroll 1990; Myles 2002; Zamel 1976). Mainly due to administrative and time constraints, extended writing was not embedded in the experimental writing module and therefore, the students were mostly involved in shorter practical assignments, writing 5-paragraph essays rather than in more authentic academic tasks writing more substantial pieces of text. Yet, as evidenced by the significant statistics of the study, essay-writing provided the students with sufficient discourse knowledge of English academic writing to enable them to accomplish real-world writing tasks in their target academic careers.

Research question 5: The most important aspects of EAP writing instruction

What aspects of writing should be highlighted in teaching English academic writing to Estonian students? How should students be trained to be able to produce coherent English texts?

This doctoral research has significant data to suggest that teaching English academic writing at the level of discourse could provide several writing enhancement opportunities for Estonian students. There are a number of reasons as to why discourse-oriented teaching should be considered effective, as one of the measures, in fostering the students' writing performance. Obviously the most fundamental advantage of discourse-oriented pedagogy over the traditional grammar- and lexis-driven pedagogy lies in the communicative context to

writing and the ways the input is provided to students. Another advantage of this pedagogy lies in its primary focus in written text production and interpreting processes on communication.

Discourse-oriented instruction was expected to develop the students' knowledge of the Anglo-American writing style and text. Based on student post-course feedback, this expectation can be regarded as nearly fulfilled; thus, even without any pre-determined criteria to select from, the majority of students across the samples were able to outline the basic features of effective English texts (TS2: Q10; CS of EAC: Q4) and the major contributors to text readability (TS1 and TS2: Q11; CS of EAC: Q5). It is quite significant that all the students identified effective writing in English with text overall organisation (100%). In addition, the students highlighted the phenomena of coherence and cohesion (59–70%) and content (45%), suggesting that readable texts are '*well organised*', '*well balanced*', '*informative*', '*easy to comprehend*', '*logically structured*' and have '*interesting arguments*' and '*good ideas*'. Some students mentioned the importance of the first impression and visual layout. Hereby, it is worth noting that although some B2-level responses sounded slightly stereotypical or simplistic, they still appeared to reflect the students' familiarity with the textual principles of English writing.

It was interesting to detect some variation in student responses regarding syntax. Whereas only 34% of the subjects of TS1 and TS2 cited sentences as contributors to readable paragraphs and most of the subjects of EAC did not mention sentences at all, as many as 67% of the C1-level subjects of TS1 addressed sentences in terms of readability. These subjects sentences as integral components of quality texts and as contributors to '*clarity*', '*logical structure*' and '*fluency*'. As data from student post-course texts reveal, a good command of sentence skills may have facilitated the writers to develop clear and effective paragraphs into a coherent whole. These data accord with those of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) suggesting that for effective communication of meaning, organisation at both the sentence and the text levels is important.

The need for discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing

First of all, there appears to be sufficient evidence to confirm the efficacy of discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction in the test sample of TUT (TS1 and TS2). The data lend themselves to the conclusion that in order to maintain relevance to the communicative context for writing, Estonian students should be trained in English academic literacy skills through a discourse-oriented approach rather than a traditional language-driven approach. In the light of the encouraging results obtained from this research, it seems relevant to feature the instructional principles, methods and activities of the experimental EAP writing module identified by the students and the researcher as most rewarding to the development of student English writing. It is likewise essential to address the

implications of this doctoral research for L2 writing instruction and research in Estonia and other tertiary contexts, and outline its major limitations.

The positive results obtained from the research appear to confirm the pedagogical concept that teaching writing at the level of discourse may help L2 writers to focus on the meaning and purpose of the text and thus communicate their ideas more fluently (e.g., Brown and Yule 1983; Coulthard 1994; Crewe 1990; Dawson 2002; de Beaugrande 1997; Hadley 1995; Hoey 1994; Hyland 2003; Kaplan 1966; Lemke 2003; McCarthy 1993; Prideaux 1997; Swales 1990; Wennerstrom 2003; Winter 1994, among others). Clearly, this is not to suggest that grammar and phraseology can be ignored in EAP writing instruction:

> /…/ no matter how well discourse is organised or how brilliant the writer's ideas may be, it would be hard to understand them if the language is opaque i.e., lacking language tools /…/. Hinkel (2004: preface)

However, while the value of grammatical accuracy in quality texts cannot be denied, accuracy should not be over-emphasised in EAP instruction since it will divert L2 students' attention from communicating meaning. Consistent with the research by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), James (1984), Hinkel (2004) and Swales (1996) this research considers the linguistic work situated in an appropriate discourse context an integral part of instruction.

Improvement in the Estonian students' English writing was initiated by the activities focused on rhetoric and discourse in text composing stages and on contextualised grammar, syntax, and lexis in text revision stages. The experimental writing module provided the students with knowledge for organising information in English text, presenting coherent arguments and attending to Anglo-American writing conventions. Most of the writing activities and assignments of the module were designed to stimulate the students' academic text construction abilities, promote integration of the newly acquired L2 academic writing skills and provide opportunities for learners to practice the rhetorical patterns of English texts in their own writing. On the assumption that L2 writers should master the communicative competences of English writing most, the students were constantly reminded of their ultimate goal to produce writing with purpose and meaning. To achieve these aims, the students were provided with opportunities to collaborate with their peers in whole-class, group and pair discussions in different academic situations. In order to gain audience awareness and improve the quality of their English texts, the students were asked to assess both their own and their peers' writing. It was equally important to motivate the students to explore the cross-cultural differences between the Estonian and English writing styles and the field-specific conventions of communicating knowledge. Whereas the instruction attempted to foster enhancement of student cultural awareness skills, study skills, critical thinking skills and individual language production (writing and speaking) styles as well,

it probably was more successful in emphasising the communicative aspects of discourse and the need to interact with specific audiences.

Wennerstrom (2003) believes that L2 students' competence and autonomy in English writing can be encouraged by written discourse analysis. While discourse analysis may be criticised on the grounds that it 'does not take into account the writer and the extent to which the writing event interacts with writer's intention /…/' (Zamel 1987: 709), this research has some evidence to reveal the relevance of text analysis activities in the development of the Estonian students' operational skills in English. These skills were observed as rewarding for both composition and comprehension of texts and as a foundation for successful completion of the more demanding writing tasks. Clearly, Estonian students need to be made conscious of English discourse construction principles before they can embark on complex writing activities on their own. As evidenced by the experimental data of this study, investigation of the specific rhetorical structure of different types of texts (e.g., summaries, essays, articles, peer reviews, etc.) in collaborative seminars enabled the students to gain a clearer vision of the final written construct and the rhetorical principles applied to it. It cannot be denied that in the initial stages of instruction, analysing authentic English texts proved to be quite challenging even for the C1-level students, let alone the B2-level students. While working alone, the students tended to overlook text organisation problems and were more concerned with the complex lexis and grammatical structures instead. However, towards the end of instruction, most students were capable of conducting both individual and collaborative discourse analyses of authentic writing samples, and suggest textual changes to these.

This doctoral research advocates an integrated-skills approach to applying the communicative principles to L2 acquisition and production. The rationale is that L2 writing instruction focused on the communicative aspects of interaction can largely support learners' development in different aspects of L2 proficiency (e.g., Bruton 2005; Cumming 2006; Dawson 2002; Finocchario and Brumfit 1983; Hyland 2003; Hirvela 2004; Lewis 2007). In line with this, the experimental EAP course of this research was geared towards the improvement of different areas of student English academic literacy with a hidden focus on the discrete skill of writing. The writing syllabus was organised around discussion, collaborative learning (Vygotsky 1978) and scaffolding (Bruner 1986), following the teaching-learning cycle. These instructional principles proved to be beneficial in a number of aspects: while the students were directed to reflect on the matters concerned with English academic writing, they were also encouraged to engage in oral communication with their peers, applying the newly acquired rhetorical structures and academic or/and technical vocabulary. Even though one might doubt whether the knowledge-transforming type of writing expected in an academic discipline can be developed 'through conversational or interactional' activities (Hinkel 2004: 1), the rationale for

combining speaking and writing was that both these skills involve characteristics of discourse necessary to communicate in academic situations.

Collaborative activities can be regarded as one of the likely incentives for activating L2 students as effective academic writers. This finding accords with the studies by Kasper (2001), for example, who asserts that a more student-centred, process-oriented approach to L2 writing can demonstrably increase L2 students' confidence, motivation and ability to present their views clearly and comprehensively. Kasper's view was well echoed in the students' post-course responses suggesting that the writing assignments, developed from prior peer collaboration in class, had an empowering effect on their communicative confidence both in L2 spoken and written media. It is worth noting that not only the C1-level students but also the B2-level students with lower L2 rhetorical competence and simpler facility of structures cited peer collaboration as a measure that added significantly to their understanding of the audience's role in English written discourse.

The concept of sequencing writing assignments (e.g., Elbow 1994; Hall 1999; Hyland 2003; Kiniry and Strenski 1985) was adopted in instruction to provide a sense of coherence for the EAP writing module. As post-course feedback revealed, this strategy enabled the students to perceive purpose in their writing and develop both cognitive and rhetorical abilities for the production of more complex texts. Hall (ibid.: 1) views sequencing as a rewarding method especially for lower-level writers as it encourages students to 'build upon the already existing academic skills'. This is in agreement with the data obtained from the B2-level students that reported to have experienced progressively less difficulty in completing their writing tasks as they became more knowledgeable about the Anglo-American writing norms.

One of the most effective means of fostering the students' English writing skills in the experimental EAP course was reading. This finding accords with the data presented in previous studies (e.g., Carson and Leki 1993; Coe 1987; Eisterhold 1990; Gee 2000; Grabe 2001; Hirvela 2004; Horning 1991; Hyland 2003; Johns 1997; Kamil et al. 2000; Krashen 1984, 1993; Langan 1997; Leki 1992, 1993; Liu 2000; Micek 1994; Spack 1988) suggesting that reading has a direct influence on L2 writers' English text composing skills at various levels of L2 proficiency. In this research, theme-based authentic readings were incorporated in the writing module to provide the students with thematic and linguistic input and through pair and group discussion prepare them for subsequent writing tasks. In other words, enhancement of the students' English writing skills was considered closely related to developing their academic reading skills both at macro and micro levels of language learning. This instructional strategy encouraged the students to approach text as readers and thereby understand the whole text organisation more effectively, recognise forms of the whole text and within the text and detect different patterns of development in the text. Another positive aspect of incorporating reading in the writing instruction was that it familiarised the students with genre conventions

and genre-specific lexis. The promising results of the research seem to imply that the integration of reading and writing in a communicative context may considerably improve L2 learners' writing performance, and activate their cognitive and linguistic abilities and the existing knowledge of both structure and content.

It is quite noteworthy that whereas a direct relation between reading and writing has been found, no similar relation between grammatical knowledge and ability to write has yet been established (e.g., Ferris and Hedgcock 1998). This fully agrees with the data obtained from student post-course questionnaires. A significant observation was that while most students related improvement of their L2 composing skills to the integration of reading and writing activities, they attributed minor value to grammar in this process. As regards the role the students attributed to different aspects of reading, some inconsistencies across the samples and L2 proficiencies still occurred. The B2-level subjects of TS1 appeared to place a high value in reading to vocabulary, claiming that the acquisition of academic words and phrases in the communicative context of reading (and also speaking) considerably improved the quality of their English writing. An interesting discrepancy emerged in the C1-level subjects' (TS1 and TS2) preferences for reading rather than writing activities in order to enhance their L2 writing skills. It was somewhat unexpected that while the students referred to reading as an important contributor to their L2 writing proficiency, they attributed minor value to imitating native authors. It may be that the students interpreted the term 'imitating' as equivalent to the term 'plagiarism'.

Adequate language input should be recognised as a necessary condition for developing L2 learners' communicative competence (e.g., Krashen 1984; Myles 2002; Schmidt 2001; White 1987). Indeed, the test subjects' exposure to both authentic and pedagogical language input materials was a crucial contributor to statistically significant improvement in their English texts. Relevance of the course input materials to the students' communicative and academic needs was reflected also in their post-course responses in which most students (94%) expressed satisfaction with the instructional materials referring to these as '*very good*' (39%) or '*good*' (55%). These data agree with the findings by Schmidt (ibid.: 329) suggesting that for L2 input to be effective 'it has to be noticed and detected under attention'. A telling result was that none of the subjects deemed the materials '*not useful*' although some B2-level subjects referred to these as '*complicated*'. The latter response may reflect the B2-level subjects' difficulty in adapting to the non-traditional ways of learning English and to interpreting discourse-based study materials.

The students' post-course responses displayed most appreciation for those instructional materials that contained practical tools for fostering their academic skills of interaction and for facilitating the construction, development, analysis and revision of their English texts. The students seemed to value the tailor-made pedagogical handouts most, highlighting the universal nature of these handouts as '*thorough*', '*effective*', '*informative*', '*perfect*', '*very useful*', and

'*interesting*'. It was encouraging to observe that the students attributed a leading role in their progress to Discourse development instructional materials ('*package*'; Appendix 19) (e.g., '*The packages will always be with me to help me out if I forget something.*' B2; or '*The handouts are very good and useful. They can be used whenever writing in English.*' C1) and the essay evaluation checklists (Appendices 28–30) (e.g., '*I know now what I have to do to write a better essay.*' B2; or '*As I seem to write more in the Estonian style, the checklist helps to bear in mind the aspects of English style.*' C1). According to the students, these handouts were instrumental in raising their confidence and aiding their progress not only in English writing but also in other areas of L2 academic literacy. Quite expectedly, the students reported appreciation also for authentic reading input (e.g., field-specific articles and peer texts), which further confirms the positive impact of reading to L2 students' motivation and confidence in English writing. An interesting observation was that the subjects of TS1 attributed somewhat higher value to the input materials than the subjects of TS2. This may be explained by the fact that in TS1, instruction was conducted in clearly defined L2 proficiency groups, which allowed for some adaptations in the application of materials.

On the question of the most rewarding writing activities, tasks and assignments of the writing module, the students ascribed the highest value to essay writing (84%) and peer evaluation (35%). Further, they mentioned activities concerned with text revision, paragraph writing, language scaffolding, and the development of L2 literacy skills and sentence skills. However, some C1-level students did not deem it useful to read peer essays, complete online tasks or develop sentence skills, viewing these means as too inefficient or time-consuming for activating their English writing skills.

The rationale for teaching EAP writing through a five-paragraph essay

A five-paragraph essay is a dominant genre in teaching L2 writing, the application of which in tertiary contexts has gained both proponents (see, e.g., Elbow 1994; Hyland 2004; Soles 2006) and opponents (e.g., Coe 1987; D'Angelo 1975, 1980; Wennerstrom 2003). A major criticism has been that through the traditional teaching of essay writing L2 writers may develop certain misconceptions of a commonly applied form. Whereas the above concern may be partly justified, in the words of Soles, the efficacy of the essay genre in relating form and meaning still cannot be underestimated:

> I endorse, in a limited way, assigning the infamous five-paragraph theme, as a way of alerting students to the importance of structure. With its clear thesis at the end of the first paragraph, its three paragraphs to elucidate the thesis, and its concluding paragraph to summarize the body and reaffirm the thesis, the five-paragraph essay reminds us of the relationship between meaning, clarity and structure. (Soles ibid.: 6)

Consistent with the above arguments, this doctoral research argues for the sound pedagogical value of the five-paragraph essay in time-constrained EAP settings. The positive impact of essay writing on the Estonian students' English writing ability was validated by statistically significant improvement in the students' post-course texts. A notable observation was that most students had highly positive attitudes towards essay writing and identified the essay tasks as enabling them to gain a more advanced knowledge of the notion of an English paragraph or composition, and motivating them to write fluently and independently without overly focusing on linguistic accuracy. In essence, none of the students denied the rewarding effect of essay writing on their L2 writing ability, although some C1-level students referred to essay tasks as slightly distant from their target academic needs. Admittedly, while, due to time and administrative constraints of the writing module, it was not possible for the students to investigate more authentic genres of academic writing, with the acquired knowledge and competences, it should not be difficult for them to transfer the text construction principles of a short English composition to a more extended piece of academic prose. An important issue emerging from this is that the essay genre may enable 'comprehension and generation of a multitude of different more complex text types facilitating students' entry to academic discourse communities' (Hyland 2004: 1). Furthering in their academic careers, students can adopt the literacy practices of their specific English-medium discourse communities and distance themselves from the formulaic structures of a pedagogical essay.

In terms of the prerequisites for effective essay writing, EAP writing instruction should acknowledge multiple drafting and revising of texts supported by multi-level feedback as an essential component of the writing process. This would guarantee L2 learners' development both in the textual and linguistic aspects of discourse. Whereas some studies (e.g., Boiarsky 1984; Fathman and Whalley 1990; Kroll 1990) suggest that multiple drafts need not necessarily be assigned and feedback can be provided on different aspects of writing simultaneously, this research has data to show that revising through multiple drafting can encourage students to focus on each specific level of the text and thus enable them to produce a more refined final product. The strongest indication of that was the statistically significant improvement in the discourse quality of the test subjects' texts (Draft 3).

Academic audience in EAP writing instruction:
Peers and the teacher

This research adds further support to the view (Berg 1999; Ferris 1997; Hall 1999; Hinkel 2004; Leki 1999b; Wennerstrom 2003) that improvement in the communicative quality of L2 learners' writing can be largely associated with the application of relevant self-, peer-, and teacher evaluation techniques. In the EAP writing module, the combination of these evaluation techniques appeared

to be especially valid in terms of their immediate effect on the students' written discourse skills and their overall academic literacy skills in English.

As validated by student post-course responses, peer critique and dialogue should be deemed an essential part of each L2 writer's progress, offering a forum where students' ideas are tested against their peers' critical thinking. Most test subjects seemed to recognise the rewarding role of peer reviewing in promoting the quality of their English texts ('*Especially I liked reading other students' written work.*') and raising their audience awareness in writing, although some subjects (TS2) were perhaps slightly more affirmative about applying peer evaluation techniques than the others (TS1). It was somewhat unexpected that none of the B2-level subjects (TS1 and TS2) mentioned peer reviewing as contributing to their audience awareness in writing. Whereas the reason for this result is not quite clear, it cannot be assumed that the lower-level L2 writers are not able to attach importance to writer-reader relationship in effective discourse. The encouraging data obtained from the B2-level control subjects of CS of EAC seem to fully support this assumption. Even though in CS of EAC, peer reviewing was not embedded in teaching nor addressed in the post-course evaluation instrument either, some B2-level subjects clearly pronounced the role of peer audience in improving the readability of their written texts ('*Let others to mark and express opinions of text.*' and '*Communicate with other students and let them express their opinion.*'). It may be that the cognitively more mature population of EAC (aged 18–30) was slightly more prone to authentic academic communication than their younger peers of TS1 and TS2 (aged 18–19). Although these data should be interpreted with caution, they may still have important implications for the need to introduce students to the concept of audience already at the early stages of L2 acquisition at school.

Above all, peer reviewing motivated the Estonian students to develop a wider perspective on English text and its construction process. By receiving response from their peers, the students were able to detect their weaknesses in English writing and thus become more critical readers both of their own and their peers' texts. The positive atmosphere of the evaluation process was fostered by an instructional requirement for the students not to be overly critical of their peers' writing. An interesting observation was that while the students identified peer suggestions on text construction, content and style as one of the key factors in the development of their communicative competence in English writing, on the linguistic aspects of writing they preferred response from their L2 instructor rather than their peers. This result accords with the data reported by Bruton (2005) and Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996) on the writing of L2 learners at US universities.

Further, the students perceived teacher guidance and response in all the English classes highly valuable for the development of their L2 academic literacy skills. In the initial stages of instruction, teacher-led language scaffolding activities enabled the students to become familiarised with the

fundamental aspects of Anglo-American academic writing; further on in the programme, teacher-supported (and peer-evaluated) writing activities motivated the students to exhibit their knowledge of English academic text in composing out of class. Drawing on the results of this study and the studies by several scholars (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991; Leki 1999b; Myles 2002; Robb, Ross, and Shortreed 1986, among others), this research advocates the multi-level response from the instructor that prioritises the global aspects of discourse rather than detailed feedback on sentence level grammar and syntax. In this research, teacher response to the students' English texts was focused primarily on organisation, logic and content, whereas detailed linguistic feedback was provided only in the final drafts, mostly with the aim to enable the students to meet the requirements of the EAP Writing Test. As anticipated, teacher feedback on textual meaning rather than grammatical error helped the students to gain a better understanding of the communicative goals of English academic writing and thus enhance the discourse quality of their texts. That text-oriented feedback can encourage both high-ability and low-ability L2 students to be considerably more superior in the measure of meaning has been reported previously by Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), Hyland (2003), and Truscott (1996), among others. Text-oriented feedback should be considered especially valid in time-constrained EAP contexts even though this approach may not be fully transferrable to exam-driven instructional settings in which attention on the surface-level aspects of writing is also required.

Finally, there is no question that L2 students can significantly improve their texts when teacher and peer response is provided; however, writers should also be encouraged to revise their texts without teacher intervention (e.g., Fathman and Walley 1990; Ferris 1999; Kroll 1990; Leki 1999b; Raimes1983a). Although it cannot be denied that self-revision as part of the written text construction stage is a cognitively demanding task as it involves the ability of students to analyse and evaluate the feedback they receive on their writing (e.g., Grabe and Kaplan 1996), this research yielded data to agree with those of other sources (e.g., Anderson 2002; Kruger and Dunning 1999) which suggest that it is possible to teach L2 learners at all ability levels to self-assess their own L2 performance more accurately. Consistent with the latter argument, the Estonian students, regardless of their L2 proficiency, were able to develop skills and strategies to revise their English texts at multiple levels in response to the audience's comments and also on their own. This was fully validated by the data obtained from expert reader ratings on the students' post-course texts displaying statistically significant improvement in these texts in comparison with the students' pre-course texts. To achieve improvement in writing, the students were trained to self-monitor their texts in response to teacher- and peer-feedback by means of different text evaluation instruments (Appendices 28–30). Whereas in the initial stages of instruction, the students still tended to focus too heavily on editing grammatical, lexical and mechanical errors, by the end of

instruction, they had adopted an ability to prioritise the global revising issues and then only attend to the surface level features of text.

The multi-level evaluation and revision of texts had a measurable effect on the communicative quality of the students' English texts. An obvious limitation to the scope of these activities was the highly intensive nature of teaching, due to which there may have been too little evidence of evaluation and development from one stage to another in student texts. Despite this constraint, by the end of instruction, most students seemed to be fairly confident not only in text construction but also in text processing and revision techniques. This result is likely to imply that these students will be able to apply the newly acquired knowledge and skills of writing into practice in real-world English-medium academic settings.

Taken together, data on the students' academic progress in the EAP programmes of the empirical study (the integrated-skills EAP course in the test samples of TUT, the TOEFL iBT test preparation course in the control sample of EAC, and the ESP course in the control sample of ITC) lend themselves to a number of tentative conclusions. In the test samples of TUT (TS1 and TS2), a significant conclusion is that most students were able to accomplish the EAP instruction successfully despite differences in their L2 proficiencies. Thus, the course completion rate for the B2-level students was 100% and for the C1-level students 83%. Nearly all of the students (96%) perceived that the knowledge gained through discourse-oriented teaching of English writing was highly valuable for their future academic careers and appreciated the design and implementation of the writing syllabus. This was echoed in the coherent and reader-friendly manner of student evaluative responses viewing the instruction not only as extremely challenging but also rewarding. A perspective to develop their discourse skills and competences of English writing motivated the students to fulfil the EAP course assignments with nearly maximum effort. It was encouraging to learn that none of the students referred to EAP classes as merely a preparation for the EAP examination but rather as a preparation for real-world communication. A noteworthy finding was that most students seemed to recognise improvement in the qualitative value of their English writing performance. Given that, it still cannot be concluded that all the students gained from instruction on equal terms. Some C1-level students, for example, allegedly knowledgeable about English writing already prior to embarking on the EAP course, did not perhaps display sufficient intellectual enthusiasm in completing the course assignments and may therefore not have advanced in their performance as anticipated. In contrast, the students that remained concerned about the instructional tasks and activities of the writing module exhibited also significant gains in the quality of their English texts (see Appendix 37 for illustrative material). From this perspective it can be suggested that the B2-level students as the most motivated participants of the course were even more successful in their studies than the C1-level students.

The comparative data received from the control samples of EAC and ITC contribute well to the validation of the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing in the test samples of TUT (TS1 and TS2). In the control sample of EAC, the course-completion rate was 95% (Level B2 100%, Level C1 89%). The subjects of this sample tended to prioritise the instructional content geared towards the development of TOEFL test-oriented skills. Although the students seemed to appreciate the discourse knowledge introduced to them in a few writing classes, their instrumental motivation to develop test specific skills probably hindered their progress in the global aspects of writing. Another impediment for the students' progress in writing was the highly time-constrained nature of instruction. On the question of which aspects should be given prominence to in English texts, clear differences in writing across L2 proficiencies emerged in the control samples. While most C1-level students attempted to communicate both meaning and form in their texts, the B2-level students were more focused on form and sentence-level editing, and exhibited considerably greater concern for grammar and lexis rather than the aspects of quality and readability. As expected, some B-level students appeared to be overly concerned about the practicalities of the TOEFL iBT Test.

Even though statistics for the control sample of EAC do not provide sufficient evidence of the positive impact of instruction on the readability of the students' English texts, student post-course evaluative responses suggest increase in their overall knowledge of Anglo-American academic writing, and in their motivation for writing in English. It can be concluded that with the discourse-oriented approach to teaching English writing, it is possible to familiarise Estonian students with the important aspects of text construction even in time-constrained contexts. However, for students to develop an ability to write effectively in English, considerably more learning and practicing time with teacher support and peer interaction is required. The highly intensive nature of teaching writing in the sample of EAC can be regarded as a major cause for the students' minimal progress in writing and their contradictory views on instruction.

In the control sample of ITC, the course-completion rate was 88% (Level B2 86%, Level C1 90%). The students of this sample tended to prioritise the instructional content geared towards the development of their L2 oral presentation skills and the surface-level skills of vocabulary and grammar. The data collected from these students provided the research with a comparative insight into the likely impact of traditional EAP instruction, focused neither on writing nor discourse, on L2 students' development in English writing.

Limitations of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module
(TS1 and TS2)

One of the major limitations of the experimental writing module for the students was the extensive out-of-class study time and effort it required from them. This was well evidenced by the high incidence of students questioning the quantity of written home assignments. However, the students' positive feedback on instruction (e.g., '*I find some of [the assignments] were too hard for me but I really feel that they developed me enormously.*' B2) and significant gains in their post-course English texts seem to justify the time and effort allocated to learning.

A considerable administrative demerit of teaching writing in the experimental study was the requirement to instruct students to produce texts within given time constraints for specific academic test situations (e.g., EAP Examination Writing Test at TUT). While timed writing on examinations is by far the most prevalent form of academic writing in tertiary study, the writing sample produced under examination conditions may not be a valid measure of L2 students' actual writing ability since it may not provide sufficient possibilities for students to demonstrate their ability of writing for real-world audiences. Examination writing affects L2 students' writing behaviour as it encourages them to produce English texts grammatically accurate but simplified in meaning (see, e.g., Campbell 1990; Carson et al. 1992; Hale et al. 1996; Hamp-Lyons and Kroll 1997; Huot 1996; Hyland 2003; Napierowski 2003; Riley 1996; Weigle 2002, 2007). Similar tendencies for the students to apply error-avoidance and grammar-correction strategies in examination scripts were observed in this research. For example, while in the writing classes, most students were able to minimise their attention on grammar through a communicative perspective on writing, in the examination context, they were 'forced' to regain their focus on sentence-level accuracy in order to adhere to the examination requirement to produce a grammatically correct text. Based on the above, examination writing should be regarded as exercising a discouraging effect on L2 students' communicative fluency in writing.

A possible contextual limitation of the writing module was a perspective that a tertiary-level L2 writing curriculum should serve students' field specific needs and purposes:

> The tertiary-level writing course represents that point of partition into more specific disciplinary demands, and it produces pedagogical tensions in that the writing course cannot by itself meet all the needs of the advanced students. (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 376)

Yet, while L2 writing instruction focussed on field-related content might be more relevant for learners' real writing needs in their academic careers (e.g., Leki 2003), the content for the writing classes still cannot always reflect the reality of academic writing. As this research has demonstrated, teaching written

discourse in the integrated-skills EAP course could also serve real purposes for communication and develop novice academic writers' fluency for authentic interaction.

Despite its universal communicative nature, discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing to L2 students may have certain limitations in regard to its degrees of focus on either form or meaning. Therefore, for instructional purposes, the complementary roles of form-focused and meaning-focused tasks should be combined in EAP writing classroom. The positive effect of this approach was confirmed by student post-course responses and by the statistical analysis of expert reader evaluation of student texts.

As with every methodological approach, a controversial aspect of discourse-oriented teaching may be its likely delay effect that did not show up during the relatively short period of instruction. Although the test subjects taught at the level of discourse displayed significant progress in their English writing ability, a substantial amount of learning and practicing time is still required for the students to develop the literacy skills necessary for them to perform successfully in an English-medium environment.

Perhaps it may not be appropriate to suggest that improvement in the Estonian students' communicative competence in English academic writing was merely due to discourse-oriented instruction since other extraneous variables, including age, gender, L1 academic literacy, learning strategies, among others may have affected each student's progress. Nevertheless, while the impact of these variables on the students' post-course writing may partly contest the findings of this research, improvement in their texts was more likely encouraged by discourse-oriented rather than traditional EAP instruction.

Conclusion

This doctoral research has produced results that suggest quite a number of significant conclusions in regard to the positive impact of the experimental discourse-oriented EAP writing module on the Estonian students' English writing performance, thus confirming the three hypotheses stated in the research. Data from student pre-course questionnaires strengthen previous research by Rummel (2005b), suggesting that Estonian writers have common textual and socio-cultural problems of L2 writers in producing English texts. While writers may demonstrate quite sufficient L2 linguistic abilities, they are not familiar with English text construction principles to achieve the desired effect on the reader. Likewise, writers are not sufficiently aware of L2 writing as an important mode of academic communication. Expert reader evaluation of the students' experimental texts and the students' post-course evaluative responses verify the positive effect of discourse-oriented teaching on the students' communicative proficiency in English writing. Data obtained from expert evaluations of student post-course texts indicate statistically significant

improvement in the test subjects' English academic writing performance. Student post-course evaluations reflect most students' satisfaction with their writing experiences and the outcome of discourse-oriented instruction.

The students' exposure to L2 writing at the level of discourse and the writing experience they gained through relevant instruction is likely to have improved their L2 writing ability with statistically significant results, regardless of differences in the students' L2 linguistic fluency. The students entered the experimental EAP writing module with varied English language proficiency (Level B2 and Level C1, CEFR) and different writing skills on which to build on in the course. Despite the fact that the students required reinforcement and development in different areas of L2 proficiency, the discourse-focused context of instruction aided the acquisition of not only the textual and discourse aspects of writing but also of the traditional aspects of linguistic knowledge and of other L2 academic literacy skills.

Thus, it can be concluded that the discourse-oriented EAP writing module fulfilled its primary objective to raise the students' awareness of writing as an important mode of communication and familiarise them with Anglo-American academic writing conventions and text construction principles. A significant advantage of discourse-oriented teaching was that it enabled the students, regardless of their L2 proficiency, to decrease their reliance on the linguistic aspects of writing and focus on other important features of written communication instead. This change of perspective in writing is likely to have initiated statistically significant improvement in the communicative quality of the students' English texts. Most importantly, teaching English academic writing through discourse appeared to considerably increase the students' motivation and confidence in writing.

Implications for L2 writing instruction and research

This research may have direct implications for English academic writing pedagogy and research in Estonia and elsewhere in L2/EFL settings. Probably the most significant contribution of the research lies in its implications for L2 pedagogic practice in tertiary institutions of Estonia. Above all, the results suggest that the communicative quality of Estonian academic writers' English texts could be improved if the writers' awareness of the discourse and socio-cultural aspects of Anglo-American writing were more developed. Improvement in the quality of texts could be attained through discourse-oriented pedagogy that would focus on the broader textual phenomena of English, and consider the linguistic aspects of grammar, syntax and lexis in the communicative context. Discourse-oriented writing instruction would recognise the primacy of text as an act of communication and provide a basis for considering text at a higher level of organisation. This would enable L2 academic writers to relate to writing as a

mode of communication and encourage their consideration of audience and purpose.

The above conclusions should lead L2 curriculum designers and instructors at both secondary and tertiary educational institutions of Estonia to introduce adjustments to the traditional teaching of English writing. Currently, most L2 writing classes place far more emphasis on the linguistic aspects of English and fail to consider the global purpose of writing. Although most teachers claim to use a communicative approach in some way or another, the standard audio-lingual, grammar- and lexis-driven methods are still quite prevalent in instruction. Apart from that, the teaching of English writing is often conducted in time- and resource-constrained instructional situations. Tallinn University of Technology, for example, can offer students only one-semester integrated-skills EAP courses, which, according to the findings of this research (see, e.g. student post-course responses), is not adequate to meet the students' expectations and future needs for writing. An obvious implication of this is that the university should expand their course offering in English academic literacy skills and incorporate a discourse-oriented writing module into the curricula.

Effective academic writing requires awareness from L2 writers of the different knowledge bases, skills and competences involved in the production and interpretation of English written discourse. This is to suggest that Estonian academic writers are more likely to be able to create coherent English texts when they are knowledgeable about what contributes to readable writing (a written product) and how to interpret and produce an effective text (the reading/writing process). As participation in international academic discourse rarely depends on writers' full command of grammatical forms, the EAP writing syllabus, especially in time-constrained academic contexts, should be designed with the aim to refine students' knowledge primarily of the textual and discourse phenomena of the Anglo-American writing style. Whereas the linguistic fluencies and abilities remain important components of instruction, these should be viewed as secondary matters to be addressed after matters of organisation and content. In order to mirror ways texts are organised, and information and arguments are presented in English, the communicative aspects of coherence and unity should be thoroughly interpreted in L2 instruction. Teaching students the logical sequence of ideas, typical clause relations and macro patterns of English texts should become a regular part of EAP writing programmes in Estonia. This is a particularly crucial aspect in academic fields in which most students have scientific backgrounds (e.g., engineering, information technology, etc.) and scarce knowledge of linguistic notions.

The increased recognition given to written text as communication should bring along implications for an integrated-skills approach to teaching English academic writing to Estonian students. Teaching writing at the level of discourse in integration with other important skills of academic literacy can empower students not only as effective writers but also as competent readers,

speakers and listeners, which would lead to increased student motivation and its attendant benefits:

> In pedagogic terms, the more teachers and students know about the operation of language as discourse, the greater the possibilities for the development of critical and independent readers, writers and talkers and for making sure that pupils master the forms and genres embedded in the dominant culture rather than be mastered by them. Control of language cannot be said to be properly exercised unless it is at the higher level of discourse organization. (Carter 1993: 101)

The theoretical perspectives and pedagogical choices to teaching the communicative aspects of English written discourse to L2 students should be adjusted to the context, the student population and their writing needs. In this respect, Estonian academic writers' negative experiences with English texts may be well due to the adoption in EFL/EAP classes of the traditional pedagogic exercises and assignments that have no real purpose or audience. In academic settings, L2 students should be trained for real-world tasks to produce texts that are meaningful to them and their readers; consequently, the EAP writing curriculum should be designed so as to activate students' L2 acquisition processes and improve their competencies of English writing required to accomplish these tasks. Apart from that, L2 instructors should attempt to familiarise students also with the rhetorical pluralism of English (Belcher and Liu 2004) and encourage them to develop strategies and skills for writing fluently and independently in diverse rhetorical situations.

In discourse-oriented instructional settings, the collaborative activities would lay the foundation for the effectiveness and authenticity of the writer-reader relationship and the text-level composing strategies would ensure the quality of student writing. Admittedly, the concept of authenticity might reflect the need for EAP curricula to highlight the relevance of content-based teaching of writing. Although this may have further implications for EAP writing instruction to consider students' field disciplines in order to determine their course content and instruction of rhetorical form, the current research has provided evidence to suggest that with appropriate tools and strategies, EAP writing classes can also become both discourse- and discipline-driven. Discourse-oriented teaching can provide students plenty of opportunities to create authentic academic texts even in L2 classes under the guidance and support from the L2 instructor and their peers.

Although differences in L2 writers' cognitive development may be regarded as one of the obstacles for their effective writing in English (e.g., Johns 1986; Reid 1984; Weigle 2002), the findings of this research indicate a clear justification for a discourse-oriented L2 writing curriculum at different levels of study. Discourse-oriented writing instruction can introduce students of different L2 proficiencies to the rhetorical principles of English text production and processing, and may initiate significant gains in their English writing performance. While the rhetorical complexity and variety implicit in skilled L1

writers' texts might be initially very challenging for lower-proficiency L2 writers, as the writers gain experience in English writing and enhance their cognitive skills, they would also become more efficient in English text production (Brown 2007). Consequently, to enable L2 academic writers to develop more accurate views on the textual and discourse phenomena of the Anglo-American writing style, they should be introduced to these concepts already at relatively early levels of L2 acquisition. This approach could have the desired effect for the consistent development of writers' L2 composing skills also at tertiary study. Whereas lower-proficiency L2 students may first need to be trained to adopt the basic techniques and strategies of writing that work in most discourse situations, they should also be taught how to analyse their own writing process, and develop, evaluate and edit their written texts in regard to discourse quality.

This research offers implications for L2 instructors involved in teaching and assessing English writing in examination-driven academic contexts. Although examination writing is an inherent component of academic studies, examination-driven teaching and learning cannot remain the primary goal of L2 writing instruction. This assessment mode appears to be in contrast with the concept of L2 writing ability as a complex phenomenon and writing as a rhetorically based situated act. Rather than promote the acquisition of narrowly focused composition skills for examination, EAP writing instruction should focus on developing students' competences for real-world writing. The concept of writing as a communicative act should be clearly reflected in the EAP examination script assessment procedures since different theoretical approaches to writing may influence how the text is evaluated and analysed. To avoid these limitations, EAP writing assessment could combine examination writing under timed conditions with writing (e.g., portfolio-based writing) under less constrained conditions (e.g., Hamp-Lyons 2006; Hyland 2006).

Instructional focus on discourse has significant implications for teacher response on L2 student texts. In their feedback, teachers should highlight the communicative aspects of writing and aim their attention more to the content, organisation and clarity of ideas rather than linguistic accuracy. While correction for accuracy may be partly beneficial for L2 students, it can still considerably hinder the learning process and affect complexity of student writing in regard to meaning. Therefore, in tertiary contexts, as writers progress in their academic studies and become more confident in their L2 writing ability, the need for L2 linguistic support and response should be seen as progressively less important (e.g., Ferris 1999; Hyland 1997; Kepner 1991; Lamm 2005). Furthermore, for L2 writers to benefit from teacher feedback it should be constantly provided during the writing process and students should be trained to apply the discourse knowledge acquired from the feedback in every next stage of their writing. However, L2 students' independence on teacher feedback towards the end of instruction should be considered a necessary prerequisite for the use of L2 writing conventions to become automatic for real-world writing

situations. A worthwhile benefit of discourse-focused feedback for L2 teachers is that it might motivate them to perceive their instructional competence not only as restricted to the surface-level issues of English.

Implications for further research

As already mentioned, many researchers (e.g., Hinkel 2000; Hyland 2003; Ortega 2004) have emphasised the need for small-scale L2/EFL writing research on the influences that different social purposes, cultural experiences, community expectations, instructional environments, and proficiency levels have on teaching English writing. Proceeding from this suggestion, this doctoral research has provided the first opportunity in Estonia to investigate the likely effect of discourse-oriented EAP writing pedagogy on the English writing performance of students of different L2 proficiencies. From this perspective, the research fills a yet non-researched niche in the body of knowledge of L2 academic writing and is therefore likely to benefit scholars both in Estonia and other EFL/L2 contexts and encourage them to pursue studies in the field. Further investigations will need to be undertaken in different tertiary institutions of Estonia to clearly establish the association between discourse-oriented teaching and improvement in the quality of student English texts. Likewise, further research into the teaching of English written discourse to lower-level L2 students will be required as so far no sufficient scholarly discussion on these matters has been carried out. Scholarly attention should also be given to L2 instructor practices in teaching English writing both in secondary and tertiary contexts of Estonia.

As regards the experimental EAP writing module, it would be interesting to observe the longer-term effects of the Estonian students' participation in instruction on their English writing practices in real-world academic settings. Whether the students' English writing performance has been retained or developed further after the completion of instruction might be one of the challenges for further research that would also necessitate the application of more longitudinal post-course assessment measures. Thus, a follow-up survey might be required in order to determine whether the students' positive perceptions of the writing instruction were justified in a longer perspective and whether they had acquired adequate knowledge for fulfilling authentic writing tasks. Likewise, instructor-performed written discourse analysis of the students' experimental texts might be required to yield additional data on the specific features of achievement in their English writing.

Limitations of the research

Despite significant findings regarding the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching of EAP writing there are also limitations that should be acknowledged. First of all, given the different instructional conditions, curricular guidelines and instructional practices imposed by the target settings (TUT, EAC, and ITC), the results of the study may not be fully transferable to every tertiary context of L2 writing in Estonia, let alone abroad. Moreover, while for the primary objectives and administrative possibilities of this research the size of the experimental sample of students and expert readers can be considered optimal, to allow for greater transferability of the findings, replication of the present results with a larger sample might be required. In effect, one of the most substantial barriers in the research to increasing the size of the student sample and performing more extended investigations on student texts was the difficulty of recruiting expert readers.

An obvious limitation to the instructional activities of the research was the rather time constrained nature of investigating the students' English academic writing in the course of one academic semester only. As a result, the data obtained may not be representative of the impact a more extended instruction in these settings would have yielded. Likewise, as the scope of the research did not allow for more profound discourse analysis of student texts, not all of the possible advancements in the students' writing may have been detected. Thus, the textual data received from the students may need to be further analysed and interpreted by means of a broader range of evaluation tools for it to add further support to the findings of this study and to provide a valuable justification for forthcoming research.

Perhaps a minor limitation of the analysis within this research was its focus on written data obtained from student questionnaires and experimental texts rather than other sources. In future research, this deficiency could be accomplished by adding a qualitative component in the form of an oral interview to the study to probe both students' and teachers' reflections and motivations in learning/teaching English writing on a deeper basis. An important consideration related to that is concerned with learner variables. As L2 learners differ from each other in a significant number of ways, not only the instructional aspects of L2 writing but also the social-cultural, personal and even the physical factors of the writing context may have influenced the quality of student written texts. Thus, future research will also need to address the effect of different learner variables on L2 students' writing skills and abilities so as to permit a better understanding of the learning process. Disseminating the data presented in this doctoral research would be highly important so as to stimulate discussion on the realities and needs for discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing in tertiary educational institutions of Estonia and elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

Writing in English has become a necessary tool for communication for Estonian academics in today's international academia. Writers' success in the English-medium academia, however, is being largely determined by their ability to operate effectively in this environment. It is well established that the discourse and socio-cultural complexities of English present particular challenges to L2 writers who often lack skills and competences for effective transaction of ideas. Most L2 writers aim to write faster, with better vocabulary, and with fewer grammatical errors; however, writers' primary concern should be how to communicate their intended meaning to the target audiences in a logically related manner. Thus, in order to succeed in the international academic community, Estonian writers should become knowledgeable about the important discourse, socio-cultural and textual phenomena of the Anglo-American writing tradition, in particular, the notions of audience, purpose, organisation, style, flow and presentation. When writers are aware of these considerations, they are more likely to produce socio-culturally acceptable academic prose for the target readership.

As verified by the results of this doctoral research, discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing can raise Estonian writers' awareness of the rhetorical patterns and conventions of the Anglo-American writing style and thus initiate improvement in the communicative quality of their English texts. The research addressed the efficacy of discourse-oriented instruction through the investigation of three hypotheses. Firstly, it was assumed that discourse-oriented instruction would enable Estonian writers to recognise the value of effective writing skills in English academic communication; secondly, it was predicted that the instructional focus on discourse would raise Estonian writers' awareness of the Anglo-American writing conventions and thus enable them to enhance the quality of their English texts; and thirdly, it was assumed that discourse-oriented instruction would enable learners to focus on the communicative aspects of English writing already at lower levels of L2 proficiency.

With the aim to validate these hypotheses, an integrated-skills EAP course, incorporating a discourse-oriented writing module, was designed. The hypotheses were tested in a two-phase empirical study (2004–2008) in three tertiary educational institutions of Estonia: the Tallinn University of Technology (TUT), the Educational Advising Center of Northern American Universities (EAC) and the Estonian Information Technology College (ITC). Investigations were performed in two different L2 proficiency groups (Level B2 and Level C1, CEFR) in the test samples (TS1 and TS2) taught under the discourse-oriented EAP writing programme, and the control samples (CS of EAC and CS of ITC) trained under traditional L2 instructional methods. Data for the research were collected through student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires, student post-course evaluation questionnaires and expert reader

evaluation of student pre-course and post-course experimental texts. The evaluation of student texts was conducted by five qualified teachers of ESP/EAP from several tertiary institutions of Estonia, including both native and non-native speakers of English.

The findings of the study provided sufficient evidence to validate the three hypotheses stated in the research. Based on the pre-instruction data, most Estonian students failed to acknowledge writing in English as an important mode of communication. In composing English texts, they tended to focus nearly exclusively on the surface-level rather than the text-level aspects of writing. Whereas the students seemed to be quite familiar with the basic features of English text, they demonstrated fairly poor knowledge of the discourse and socio-cultural aspects of academic writing.

The post-instruction data confirmed the efficacy of the discourse-oriented EAP writing module in fulfilling its main objectives (Hypotheses 1–2). The instruction proved to be instrumental in increasing the students' confidence and motivation in expressing themselves in English, enhancing their knowledge of Anglo-American academic writing conventions and principles of text construction, and providing them with the ability to apply that knowledge in the construction of written texts for authentic audiences. Probably one of the prime indicators of the efficacy of discourse-oriented instruction was the students' revised understanding of English writing as an important mode of communication rather than an indication of their L2 linguistic proficiency. Another notable finding was the students' recognition of the knowledge, skills and experience acquired through instruction as highly relevant for their future academic and professional needs.

Significant statistical data for the research were drawn from expert reader evaluation of student experimental texts. As validated by expert ratings, instructional focus on text-level discourse is likely to have engendered significant improvement in the communicative quality of the test subjects' (Levels B2+C1) writing. Moreover, in the test sample, statistically significant improvement in student post-course texts was found not only in the discourse aspects but also in the linguistic aspects of writing, whereas in the control sample (Levels B2+C1) far less improvement in texts was detected. In detail, in the test sample, statistically significant improvement at the 2.5% level ($p <$ 0.025) was observed in as many as four aspects of writing, including style ($p =$ 0.000), organisation ($p =$ 0.001), content ($p =$ 0.006) and grammar ($p =$ 0.012) with the aspects of style, organisation and content yielding statistics significant even at the 1% level ($p < 0.01$), while in the control sample, improvement was detected only in content ($p =$ 0.014).

In effect, the highly positive impact of discourse-oriented instruction was most pronounced in the B2-level test subjects' writing (Hypothesis 3). Even though these subjects must have been challenged by a substantial load of instructional content and constraints in their pre-course L2 proficiency and time, they appeared to be the most motivated participants of the experimental course.

This may be one of the reasons why improvement in their post-course English texts was statistically even more significant than improvement in the C1-level test subjects' texts. Thus, in the test sample B2, statistically significant improvement at the 2.5% level ($p < 0.025$) was observed in as many as five aspects of writing, including style ($p = 0.009$), organisation ($p = 0.010$), grammar ($p = 0.022$), vocabulary ($p = 0.023$) and content ($p = 0.024$) with the aspects of style and organisation yielding statistics significant even at the 1% level, whereas in the test sample C1, statistically significant improvement was found only in style ($p = 0.010$) and organisation ($p = 0.020$) with the aspect of style yielding statistics significant even at the 1% level. To compare, in the control sample B2, statistically significant improvement was detected only in content ($p = 0.023$) and in the control sample C1, improvement was identified only in mechanical accuracy ($p = 0.017$).

Among the major contributors to this research was the feedback data collected from student pre-course needs analysis questionnaires and post-course evaluation questionnaires. The needs analysis instruments were aimed at eliciting the students' perceptions of English academic writing and gain a further insight into the difficulty they may have in composing English texts. The evaluation questionnaires were aimed at revealing the students' revised interpretation of the most significant aspects of English academic writing and of the role of text-level rhetoric in writing. Responses to these questionnaires provided the research with a more profound understanding of student expectations for English academic writing instruction at university and thereby serve as a basis for the design, implementation and further development of EAP programmes in Estonia. The post-course responses informed the research of the level of student achievement in the experimental writing classes and were thus instrumental in evaluating their effectiveness.

The data collected from the test subjects of TUT (TS1 and TS2) contributed significantly to the validity of this research since these subjects were largely involved in the implementation and trialling procedures of the integrated-skills EAP course and the experimental writing module. The data received from the control subjects of EAC and ITC complemented the findings obtained from the test samples thus providing the research with a comparative insight into the likely effect of traditional L2 instruction on Estonian students' English writing skills.

This doctoral research has implications for L2 writing pedagogy and research in Estonia and elsewhere. Based on the overall findings and conclusions drawn from the empirical study, the research advocates a discourse perspective to teaching English academic writing to L2 students. Comparative analysis of the subjects' pre-course and post-course texts and student post-course evaluation data across the four samples has disclosed evidence to confirm the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing in terms of raising the students' motivation and confidence in writing and improving the quality of their English texts. These findings add support to the

argument that knowledge of the global aspects of English text production can easily be acquired by instruction and practice. By completing the instructional activities of the experimental writing module, the test subjects of TUT were considerably more knowledgeable about writing in the Anglo-American writing style than the control subjects of EAC and ITC trained through traditional methods. This allows us to suggest that L2 students are more likely to improve their English writing proficiency through discourse-oriented instruction rather than a traditional grammar- and lexis-based instruction. Even though one can never completely exclude the impact on the results of variables extraneous to the research, there is substantial reason to believe that discourse-oriented versus traditional teaching of EAP writing is mainly responsible for the differences between the test and the control groups.

An obvious conclusion is that Estonian writers can produce more coherent English texts in case they are informed of the communicative purposes of writing and the underlying principles of English text construction. Most importantly, however, it can be concluded that the attributes and strategies for effective writing in English can be taught, at least starting from Level B2, to learners of varying levels of L2 proficiency: all L2 writers can benefit from the instruction that highlights the communicative aspects of discourse, provided both the text-level and surface-level aspects of writing are addressed in instruction. The above conclusions seem to strengthen the position that more pedagogical resources should be devoted to teaching Estonian students the rhetorical and textual principles of English written discourse — topics, which at present seem to be fairly ignored in EAP/ESP curricula. Estonian writers would require considerably more instructional assistance and support in order to acquire the discourse competence and the writing standards acceptable for the English-medium academic contexts.

This doctoral research has data to show that discourse-oriented teaching of English academic writing could provide Estonian students with knowledge of the Anglo-American academic writing conventions, text production principles and stylistic intricacies, and raise their awareness of different audiences and purposes and the importance of interaction between a reader and a writer. Furthermore, there are data to suggest that the integrated-skills approach to teaching academic literacy skills in which writing is a tool for collecting and sharing information with peers might serve real purposes for communication and develop Estonian writers' discourse proficiency for further academic interaction. Raising awareness of the communicative aspects of English academic literacy through theoretical input, peer collaboration and feedback, teacher support and feedback, and self-monitoring strategies should become one of the priorities of EAP classes at any L2 proficiency level of instruction in Estonia.

In all, awareness of both the surface-level and whole-text level features of the English writing style, combined with considerations for time, experience and practice to write can empower Estonian academic writers to adapt to the

patterns of thinking dominant in the English-speaking academic world and construct effective prose for this audience. It is to be hoped that with the knowledge gained thorough discourse-oriented instruction and consistent practicing, Estonian writers would be able to sustain their L2 writing skills' development in their future careers. A need to verify this provides a foundation for further investigations.

To conclude, drawing on Estonian students' experiences and practices in English written discourse, this doctoral research has yielded significant quantitative and qualitative data to confirm the efficacy of discourse-oriented teaching and thus complemented previous research in L2 writing. A specific contribution the research hopes to have made to the field lies in its focus on teaching English academic writing from a socio-culturally different perspective of a small nation. Whereas the research serves as a foundation for further studies in EFL settings, it cannot be considered conclusive. Taking due account of the inevitable limitations of the study, it may nevertheless be claimed that the data provide valuable initial material from which further research can proceed. More longitudinal studies on English academic writing will need to be conducted in different educational contexts of Estonia with a larger target population to fully validate the instructional merits of discourse-oriented teaching. Further research is required to unpack the findings presented here, particularly in order to develop deeper understanding of the reasons for differences in the quality of student post-course English texts. Likewise, it seems necessary to investigate several essential factors contributing to the process of teaching Estonian students skills in deeper features of English academic writing and identifying appropriate input for the acquisition of these skills.

Disseminating the data presented in this doctoral research would be particularly important in order to facilitate further investigations in the field and increase the amount of reflection on Estonian academic writers' English writing practices and the problems they encounter in adapting to the Anglo-American writing style. The research could inform English language teachers in Estonia of the theoretical and practical developments in L2/EFL/EAP writing research and provide them with support for identifying and addressing students' real world needs. The research may have direct implications for curriculum design and pedagogic practice in EAP in Estonian tertiary institutions. The documented research might be a relevant reading material for Estonian academic writers interested in raising their awareness of the Anglo-American writing style.

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SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Sidusate tekstide loomine võõrkeeles (inglise keel).
Teooria ja praktika

Kokkuvõte

Doktoriväitekiri "Sidusate tekstide loomine võõrkeeles (inglise keel). Teooria ja praktika." (Creating Coherent Texts in English as a Foreign Language. Theory and Practice) käsitleb eesti autorite probleeme ja vajadusi ingliskeelsete akadeemiliste tekstide loomisel.

> *Kirjutaja peaks olema teejuht, kes aitab oma lugeja loogilise sisulise mõtte-arenduse teel läbi teksti, ideede ja mõtete ahela. Seepärast peaks ta oskama kirjutatut ka kriitiliselt analüüsida.*

Milleks, kellele ja kuidas tekste luua — need küsimused on ühtviisi olulised nii võõrkeeles kui emakeeles kirjutamisel. Sisu- ja vormitundmisele lisaks vajab kirjutaja ka kontekstuaalseid ja kirjutamisprotsessi juhtivaid teadmisi. Loetu mõistetavuse määrab teksti struktuur ja ülesehitus ning süntaktilised, semantilised ja leksikaalsed mehhanismid ideede loogiliseks tekstisiseseks sidumiseks.

Hästi kirjutatud, loetav tekst tähendab eelkõige adekvaatselt, sidusalt ja loogiliselt edasi antud sisu teksti makrotasandil ning alles seejärel korrektsust grammatilises ja ortograafilises vormistuses teksti mikrotasandil. Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli teadlaste ja õppejõudude hulgas läbiviidud küsitlus (Rummel 2005b) osutas aga selgelt, et ingliskeelse teksti loomisel ja redigeerimisel keskendutakse pigem teksti mikrotasandile, teksti sidususe ja organisatsiooniga seotud keelelisi probleeme ei teadvustata, neid peetakse oluliselt vähemtähtsaks või koguni ebaoluliseks.

Vähene tähelepanu teksti kui terviku arendamisele ilmnes ka akadeemilise inglise keele kursustel üliõpilaste kirjutamisoskusi-puudusi analüüsides. On mõistetav, et eriti madalamal võõrkeele oskuse tasemel luuakse tekst esmalt emakeeles ja tõlgitakse siis edasi võõrkeelde. Teksti loomisel keskendub kogenematu kirjutaja mikrotasandile (grammatika, ortograafia, jms.), jättes makrotasandi (teksti sidusus, loogilisus, ülesehitus, jms.) tähelepanuta. Paraku kannab just makrotasand teksti mõistetavuse-loetavuse tagamise kaalukat vastutust.

Keeleteadlased on formuleerinud inglise keele diskursuse tüüpmudelid koos signaalvahenditega, mille abil lugeja tuletab ja loob loogilised seosed teksti-lõikude vahele (*situation-problem-solution-evaluation* Hoey 1994; *claim-counterclaim* McCarthy 1993; *hypothetical-real* Winter 1994; *general-specific* Coulthard 1994). Nähtavad (*explicit ties*) ja nähtamatud *(implicit ties)* sidused annavad tekstis, diskussioonis või arutluses märku ideearendusest. Siduv-

vahendeid (näiteks sidesõnu lauseosade sidumisel või määrsõnu lausetevaheliste seoste loomisel) saab kasutada viitamaks ajalistele ja loogilistele suhetele, täpsustamaks üleminekut üldiselt erilisele ja vastupidi, eristamaks põhiideed näidetest, fakti arvamusest, viitamaks tekstilõigu ulatusele/piiridele jne. Sageli on seosed aga kontseptuaalset laadi ega väljendu konkreetsete lingvistiliste vahendite abil. Võõrkeeles kirjutajatel-lugejatel (eriti madalamal keeletasemel) on kindlasti lihtsam tajuda selgeid signaalvahendite abil esituvaid seoseid. Siduvsõnade olemuse ja kasutamise põhimõtete tundmine annab tekstile loetavuse, kuna aitab mõista, milliseid seoseid need tekstis väljendavad, kas erinevates keeltes väljendatakse samaväärseid seoseid sarnaste vahenditega või mitte, missugused on siduvvahendite loogilised seosed tekstis jne. Need teadmised aitavad kirjutajal oluliselt lihtsustada teksti loomisprotsessi ja lugejal omakorda teksti kiiremini töödelda. Uuringud näitavad, et kirjutajad, kes tajuvad teksti sisemist loogikat ja valdavad teksti sidusvahendeid hästi on ka märgatavalt meisterlikumad võõrkeelsete tekstide lugejad ja tõlgendajad.

Doktoriväitekiri käsitleb inglise keelt võõrkeelena kasutavate eesti üliõpilaste oskusi ingliskeelsete tekstide loomisel ja vormistamisel. Kirjutamis-õpetuse varamus leidub võimalusi ja lahendusi, mis aitavad võõrkeeles kirjutajatel edukamalt kohaneda rahvusvahelises akadeemilises suhtluses. Käesoleva uurimuse peamiseks sihiks on diskursusel põhinev akadeemilise inglise keele kirjutamisõpetus (*discourse-oriented EAP writing instruction*), mis võimaldaks üliõpilastel omandada oskused lugejasõbralike ingliskeelsete tekstide loomiseks ja aitaks juhtida nende tähelepanu teksti sisu kandvatele tasanditele ning lugeja ootustele paremini kui traditsiooniline teksti pealispinnale suunatud leksiko-grammatiline keeleõpetus.

Diskursusel põhineva akadeemilise inglise keele kirjutamisõpetuse efektiiv-suse uurimiseks püstitati doktoritöös kolm hüpoteesi:

1. Diskursusel põhinev kirjutamisõpetus tähtsustab kirjutamisoskust rahvusvahelises akadeemilises suhtluses olulise teabevahendina suulise keeleoskuse kõrval.
2. Diskursusel põhinev kirjutamisõpetus teadvustab anglo-ameerika aka-deemilise kirjutamise norme ja tavasid ning aitab luua rahvusvahelisele lugejaskonnale hästi loetavaid-mõistetavaid tekste.
3. Diskursusel põhinev kirjutamisõpetus, kuigi ehk tõhusam kõrgema inglise keele oskusega õppurite õpetamisel, juhib vähema keeleoskusega õppurite tähelepanu tekstiloome põhimõtetele ka keeleõppe varasemas järgus.

Nende hüpoteeside kontrolliks kavandati ja viidi läbi 2-etapiline empiiriline uuring (2004–2008) Tallinna Tehnikaülikoolis, Põhja-Ameerika Ülikoolide Teabekeskuses ning Eesti Infotehnoloogia Kolledžis. Uurimisandmeid koguti akadeemilise inglise keele kursuse eel- ja järelküsitlustes (*pre-course needs analysis questionnaires, post-course evaluation questionnaires*). Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli üliõpilaste tarbeks loodi diskursusel põhinev akadeemilise

inglise keele kirjutamise katsemoodul (*discourse-oriented EAP writing module*). Kursuslaste katsetekste hindasid ekspert-lugejad (*expert reader evaluation*). Õppeprotsessi eelküsitluse andmetest tuvastati kirjutajate loomistavad, ingliskeelses akadeemilises keskkonnas kirjutamise vajadus ja probleemsed kirjutamisvaldkonnad. Õppeprotsessi järelküsitluse tulemuste põhjal hinnati diskursusel põhineva akadeemilise keeleõpetuse tõhusust ning kirjutamisoskuste ja teadmiste arengut. Õppurite tekstidele antud eksperthinnangute statistiline analüüs hindas diskursusel põhineva akadeemilise inglise keele kirjutamisõpetuse tõhusust Tallinna Tehnikaülikoolis ja selle vajalikkust üliõpilaste kirjutamisoskuse arendamisel.

Uuriti ka kirjutamisõpetuse olulisi tahke:

- Kas diskursusel põhinev õpetus aitab teadvustada kirjutamisoskuse tähendust ja tähtsust akadeemilises suhtluses?
- Kui tõhusaks kujuneb diskursusel põhinev õpetus tekstitasandi kirjutamisoskuse arendamisel?
- Millisel inglise keele oskuse tasandil tuleks diskursusel põhinevat kirjutamisõpetust korraldada, et saada soovikohaselt häid tulemusi?
- Millises mahus tuleks teksti makrotasandi kirjutamist õpetada, et oskuste ja teadmiste areng oleks märgatav ja tagaks edu rahvusvahelises suhtluses?
- Milliseid anglo-ameerika akadeemilise kirjutamise olulisi aspekte tuleks diskursusele suunatud õpetuses käsitleda?

Doktoriväitekiri jaotub viieks osaks. Sissejuhatuses täheldatakse eesti autorite kasvavat vajadust osaleda rahvusvahelises kirjalikus akadeemilises suhtluses ja täiustada oma ingliskeelse teksti loomise oskusi. Tutvustatakse akadeemilise kirjutamise teoreetilisi ja praktilisi aspekte ning kirjutamisõpetuse hetkeseisu ja väljavaateid Eesti kõrgkoolides.

Väitekirja esimeses osas antakse ülevaade võõrkeeles kirjutamise teooriast, uurimis- ja õpetusmeetoditest ning mitmete autorite käsitlustest (Belcher, Bhatia, Carson, Connor, Flower, Flowerdew, Grabe, Halliday, Hasan, Hayes, Hoey, Hyland, Kaplan, Kroll, Leki, Matsuda, Mauranen, Ortega, Raimes, Silva, Swales, Tribble, Ventola, Vähapässi, Weigle, Wennerstrom, White, Zamel jt.). Vaadeldakse teooriate ja meetodite mõju inglise keeles kirjutamise õpetusele võõrkeelses akadeemilises keskkonnas (L2) ning tuvastatakse olulisemad õpetusvaldkonnad: anglo-ameerika akadeemilise kirjutamisstiili spetsiifika, tekstiloome põhialused, kirjutamisoskused (*competences*) ja teadmistebaasid (*knowledge bases*) ja kirjutamise sotsiaal-kultuurilised aspektid. Samas kirjeldatakse lugejasõbralikku, sidusat, kvaliteetset ingliskeelset teksti ja uuritakse, kuidas sellist teksti luua. Lõpuks lahatakse võõrkeeles kirjutajate põhiprobleeme eespool nimetatud valdkondades.

Väitekirja teises osas käsitletakse 2004–2008 teostatud empiirilise uurimuse eesmärke ja metoodikat. Uurimus hõlmas kahte testigruppi (Tallinna Tehnikaülikool) ning kahte kontrollgruppi (Põhja-Amerika Ülikoolide

Teabekeskus ja Eesti Infotehnoloogia Kolledž) kokku 73 õppuriga. Õppurite inglise keeles kirjutamise oskust ja selle võimalikku arengut uuriti kahes erineva inglise keele tasemega sihtgrupis B2 ja C1 (Euroopa keeleõppe raamdokument CEFR 2001 järgi). Testitavate keeletase määrati (institut-sionaalsetest erinevustest tulenevalt) mitmete tasemetestide abil (Nelson Placement Test, DIALANG, TOEFL ITP). Tasemetestide tulemusi saab võrrelda vastavusskaalade abil. Tallinna Tehnikaülikoolis läbisid testigrupid diskursusel põhineva akadeemilise inglise keele katsekursuse, millega ühitati doktoritöös loodud akadeemilise kirjutamise moodul (*discourse-oriented EAP writing module*). Põhja-Ameerika Ülikoolide Teabekeskuse kontrollgrupis õpetati traditsioonilist akadeemilist kirjutamist TOEFL iBT ettevalmistus-kursusel, kuid 2-tunnisel seminaril tutvustati õppuritele ka anglo-ameerika akadeemilise kirjutamise põhialuseid. Eesti Infotehnoloogia Kolledži kontroll-grupis rakendati erialase inglise keele kursusel (*ESP for IT*) tavapäraseid keeleõppemeetodeid.

Uuriti testitavate kursuslaste tekstiloome arengut makrotasandil (sidusus/ organisatsioon, stiil, sisu) ja mikrotasandil (grammatika, sõnavara, ortograafia) kirjutamisel, samuti nende tasandite keeloskuste võimalikke seoseid kirjaliku eneseväljenduse oskusega. Selleks võrreldi ja analüüsiti kursuse algul ja lõpus kirjutatud katsetekste (*pre-course and post-course experimental texts*) ülalnimetatud kuuest aspektist lähtuvalt. Kursusel osalejad kirjutasid esimeses keeletunnis kontrollitud keskkonnas 45-minuti jooksul 250-sõnalise teksti etteantud teemal (*How can we make the Intenet more effective?*). Kursuse lõpul viimistleti tekst keelekursusel omandatud teadmiste ja oskusteni. Katsetekstide valimit (23 õppuri kursuse alg- ja lõpptekstid kõikidest sihtgruppidest) hindasid ekspertidena Eesti kõrgkoolide inglise keele õppejõud.

Väitekirja kolmandas osas tutvustatakse diskursusel põhineva akadeemilise inglise keele kirjutamismooduli ainekava (*syllabus*) ning kirjeldatakse õpeta-mise metoodikat ja sisu:

- Kirjutamine kui akadeemilise suhtluse oluline vahend, millel on kindel sisu ja eesmärk (*meaning and purpose*);
- Sisulise, lingvistilise ja kontekstuaalse informatsiooni valdamise tähtsus;
- Anglo-ameerika akadeemiline kultuuriruum ja sotsiaalkultuuriliselt erinev kirjutamiskeskkond (*socio-cultural context*) ning tekstiloome põhimõtted (*Anglo-American academic writing conventions*);
- Kirjutamiskonteksti spetsiifilised erialalised normid ja tavad (*genre conventions*);
- Ingliskeelse lugeja ootused (*reader awareness*) ja lugeja-kirjutaja vaheline seos (*writer-reader interaction*);
- Ingliskeelsele tekstile omane sisemine loogika: lause/tekstilõigu/ kogu-teksti sidususprintsiibid (*unity, coherence, cohesion*) ja diskursuse tüüpmudeleid (*patterns of text organisation*);
- Üldtundtud retoorikavahendid (*rhetorical devices*);

- Akadeemilise kirjutamise stiil (*academic style and register*) ning kirjutaja seisukohta selgelt väljendavad või varjavad vahendid (*showing and avoiding commitment*);
- Väitlusstrateegiad (*argumentation*);
- Metadiskursus (teksti visuaalne külg) kui diskursuse oluline aspekt;
- Kirjutamine kui teksti loomise protsess (*writing process*), mille tulemuseks on hästi vormistatud valmistekst (*product*);
- Tekstiversiooni korduv sisuline parandamine, ümberkirjutamine, redigeerimine (*reviewing, redrafting, rewriting, proof-editing*) ja hindamine (*evaluation*);
- Ingliskeelsete tekstide lugemine kui kirjutamisoskuse oluline arendaja (ja vastupidi);
- Kaasõppurite kaasamine lugejatena (*peer collaboration*) teksti loomise (*pre-writing and text composing*) ja viimistlemise (*peer evaluation and response*) protsessi jne.

Kirjutamismoodulis käsitletakse ka teksti analüüsi ja täiustamise strateegiaid ja meetodeid: diskursuse kriitilist analüüsi (*written discourse analysis*), erinevates loomisfaasides teksti ja valmisteksti hindamist ning vigade analüüsi (*self-evaluation, peer response and evaluation, teacher response and evaluation*), teksti korduvat sisulist ümberkirjutamist, viimistlemist ja täiustamist (*reviewing, reformulating, reordering, revising, editing*), valmistekstide kõrvutamist ingliskeelsete originaaltekstidega (*contrastive analysis*) jne. Lisaks lahatakse võõrkeeles kirjutava autori põhiprobleeme ingliskeelse teksti loomisel ja vormistamisel (paljusõnalisus ja tarbetu kordamine, ülenominaliseerimine, sidussõnade ebaadekvaatne kasutamine, paralleelsusprintsiibi eiramine, tekstile voolavuse andvate võtmesõnade vähene kasutamine, teabe vale paigutamine lauses ja tekstilõigus, ülekoormatud ja pikkade lauselõikude kasutamine, asesõnade ala- või ülekasutamine tekstis jms.) ning diskursuse rolli nimetatud probleemide lahendamisel.

Doktoriväitekirja neljandas osas fikseeritakse empiirilise uurimuse tulemused. Viiendas osas hinnatakse saadud tulemusi.

Küsitluste andmed ning eksperhinnangute statistiline analüüs kinnitavad doktoritöös püstitatud hüpoteese. Kursusele eelnenud küsitlustest selgus sageli, et eesti kirjutaja arvates tuleneb inglise keeles kirjutamise oskus peamiselt grammatilistest ja leksikaalsetest teadmistest ja oskustest. Andmed viitavad õppurite vähesele teadmusele anglo-ameerika tekstiloome põhimõtetest ja iseärasustest ning kirjutamisprotsessi olemusest. Õppele järgnenud küsitluste tulemused kinnitavad diskursusel põhineva akadeemilise kirjutamisõpetuse tõhusust testigrupi õppurite teadmuse kasvatamisel anglo-ameerika tekstiloome aluste ja kirjutamisprotsessi olemuse kohta ning tekstitasandil kirjutamise oskuste ja teadmiste arengus. Tulemused viitavad õppurite motivatsiooni ja enesekindluse kasvule võõrkeeles kirjutamisel ning annavad positiivse hinnangu tekstipõhisele keeleõpetusele. Kontrollgrupi käsitlus inglise keeles kirjutamisest

õppeprotsessi käigus märkimisväärselt ei muutunud, kuigi Põhja-Ameerika Ülikoolide Teabekeskuse õppurite seas võis täheldada tekstiloome teadlikkuse mõningat tõusu.

Ekspertlugejate poolt keeleõppurite tekstidele antud hinnangute statistiline analüüs kinnitas diskursusel põhineva õppeprotsessi testigrupi kirjutajate märkimisväärset arengut kontrollgrupi suhtes. Tekstidest nähtus paremus nii kirjutamise makrotasandil (stiil, organisatsioon, sisu) kui ka mikrotasandil (grammatika). Kontrollgrupi kirjutamisoskus paranes samas märgatavalt vaid sisu osas. Tähelepanu väärivalt kasvas testigrupi B2-taseme õppurite kirjutamisoskus statistiliselt olulisena viies aspektis (stiil, organisatsioon, grammatika, sõnavara ja sisu). Testigrupi C1-taseme õppurite kirjutamisoskus kasvas vaid ühes aspektis (sisu). Testigrupi B2-taseme õppurite märkimisväärne areng kirjutamises viitab võimalusele, et hästi mõistetava teksti loomise eelduseks ei tarvitse olla kirjutajate kõrgem inglise keele oskus. Loogiliselt sidusaid ingliskeelseid tekste suudavad luua ka madalama keeleoskusega, kuid anglo-ameerika tekstiloome põhimõtteid teadvustavad autorid.

Doktoritöö tulemused osutavad vajadusele täiustada akadeemilise inglise keele kirjutamisõpet Eesti kõrgkoolides – selle fookus peaks nihkuma kirjavigadelt parema teksti loomise ja vormistamise oskuste täiustamisele. Edukama rahvusvahelise suhtluse nimel peaksid eesti autorid paremini tundma anglo-ameerika tekstiloomet ja selle iseärasusi. Ingliskeelse teksti kui terviku loomise ja täiustamise oskustele tuleks tähelepanu pöörata juba kirjutamis-protsessi alguses (vähemalt B2 keeleoskuse tasemel).

Tekstiloome õpetamine on mitmetahuline protsess ja eeldab keeleõpetaja valmidust asuda kirjutajasõbraliku ning peamiselt teksti sisust huvituva lugeja rolli, kes juhataks kirjutaja teksti sisu kandvatele tasanditele ja aitaks tal mõista lugejate ootusi. Doktoriväitekirjas esitatud tulemused kinnitavad katsekursusel rakendatud tekstipõhise kirjutamisõpetuse strateegiate ja meetodite toimivust ja kasulikkust.

APPENDICES

Appendix I

Model of text construction by Grabe and Kaplan (1996)

Linguistic
boundary

SURFACE   DEEP

Grammatical features ······►	Syntax	L I E	Semantics
Ideational (a sentential level)			
Functional features	Cohesion	X I C	Coherence
Textual (a whole-text level)			
Stylistic features	Posture	O N	Stance
Interpersonal (a writer-reader level)			

Motivations
for
form

Reference

World background
knowledge

Memory

Emotion

Perception

Intension (pragmatics?)

Logical arrangement
(Rhetorical patterns)

Situation

Figure. Model of text construction (Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 81).

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APPENDIX 2

Classification system for metadiscourse categories adapted by Connor (1996)

(Adapted from Crismore 1993: 46–47, quoted in Connor 1996: 46)

Classification system for metadiscourse

Textual metadiscourse
1. Text connectives, which help readers recognize how texts are organized, and how different parts of the text are connected to each other functionally or semantically (e.g., *first, next, however, but*)
2. Code glosses, which help readers grasp and interpret the meanings of words and phrases (e.g., *X means Y*)
3. Illocution markers, which make explicit what speech act is being performed at certain points in texts (e.g., *to sum up, to give an example*)
4. Narrators, which let readers know who said or wrote something (e.g., *according to X*)

Interpersonal metadiscourse
1. Validity markers, which assess the truth-value of the propositional content and show the author's degree of commitment to that assessment, that is, hedges (e.g., *might, perhaps*), emphatics (e.g., *clearly, obviously*), attributors (e.g., *according to X*), which are used to guide readers to judge or respect the truth-value of the propositional content as the author wishes.
2. Attitude markers, which are used to reveal the writer's attitude toward the propositional content (e.g., *surprisingly, it is fortunate that*)
3. Commentaries, which draw readers into an implicit dialogue with the author (e.g., *you may not agree that, dear reader, you might wish to read the last section first*)

(Vande Kopple 1985, as it appeared in Crismore et al. 1993: 46)

Revised classification system for metadiscourse categories
I. Textual metadiscourse (used for logical and ethical appeals)
   1. Textual markers
      – Logical connectives
      – Sequencers
      – Reminders
      – Topicalizers
   2. Interpretive markers
      – Code glosses
      – Illocution markers
      – Announcements
II. Interpersonal metadiscourse (used for emotional and ethical appeals)
   3. Hedges (epistemic certainty markers)
   4. Certainty markers (epistemic emphatics)
   5. Attributors
   6. Attitude markers
   7. Commentary

(Crismore 1993: 47)

Appendix 3

Model of writing as communicative language use by Chapelle et al. (1993)

CONTEXT

(EXTERNAL)

SITUATION	PERFORMANCE

Participants
Setting
Task
Text
Topic

TEXTUAL
OUTPUT

(INTERNAL)

INTERNAL
GOAL
SETTING

INTERNAL
PROCESSING
OUTPUT

LANGUAGE
COMPETENCE
- Linguistic
- Sociolinguistic
- Discourse

VERBAL
PROCESSING
- Metacognitive
Processing

ONLINE
PROCESSING
ASSEMBLY

VERBAL
WORKING
MEMORY

KNOWLEDGE
OF THE
WORLD
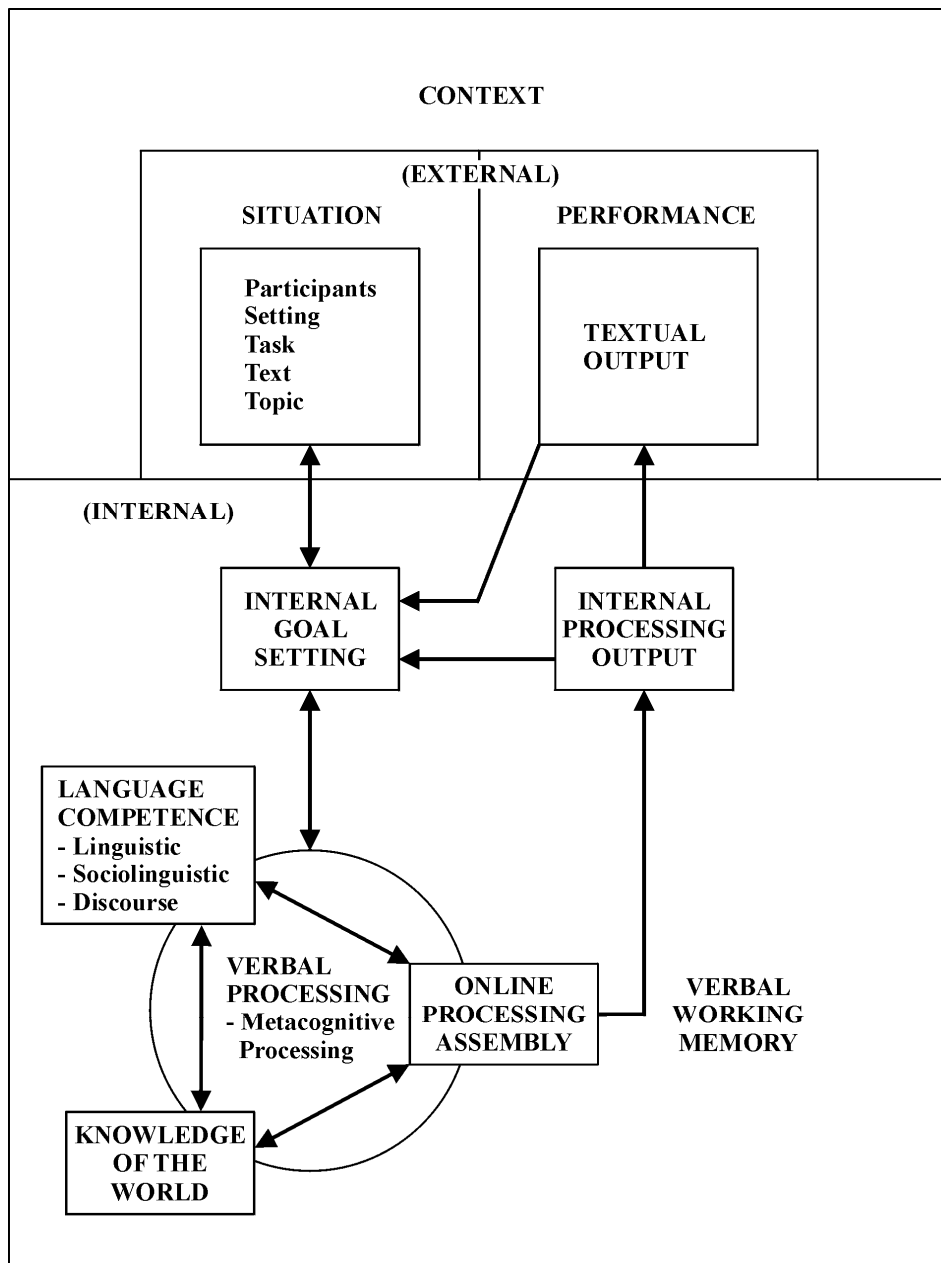
Figure. Model of writing as communicative language use (Chapelle et al. 1993, quoted in Grabe and Kaplan 1996: 225).

Appendix 4

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Global Scale of Levels (CEFR 2001)

Table. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Global Scale of Levels

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Inde-pendent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Appendix 5

Syllabus for the discourse-oriented EAP writing module

The syllabus was designed and taught by Kärt Rummel at the Tallinn University of Technology in 2004–2007.

Course information
English for Academic Purposes Writing Module is an integral component of English for Academic Purposes Course
The Tallinn University of Technology
Days of class: /…/
Hours of class: /…/

Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature
The Tallinn University of Technology
The Estonian Information Technology College
kart@itcollege.ee
Office hours: /…/

EAP course format	an equally weighted integrated-skills course; the teaching of academic writing skills accounts for 25% of the course
EAP course length	40 academic hours in class; 68 academic hours out of class
EAP course duration	16 weeks; in weeks 1–4 classes twice a week á 2 academic hours; in weeks 5–16 classes once a week á 2 academic hours
Credit points	3.0 ECTS
Prerequisites	51% of the in-house placement test or PEAP Course
Assessment mode	non-graded (pass/fail) preliminary examination; continuous assessment; mark for course participation (i.e., attendance, class activity and writing contributions)
Stake	a compulsory, high-stake course; a pre-requisite for EAP Final Examination (university graduation requirement)
EAP writing module length	10 academic hours in class 16–20 academic hours out of class
Written discourse modes	5-paragraph essay (expository/argumentative: problem-solution, comparison-contrast, etc.); summary; peer critique; article review, etc.

Course description

The discourse-oriented EAP writing module is an integral component of the English for Academic Purposes Course. The writing component is designed to reinforce Estonian undergraduate students' communicative abilities to enable them to produce written texts appropriate to the needs of an English-speaking academic readership. Additionally, the instruction is aimed at providing students guidance in how to handle the English writing tasks that are required of them in the immediate academic context.

The module is focused on training students how to produce English academic writing that demonstrates sufficient discourse proficiency in text construction, sociolinguistic appropriateness and language control. Students should be able to write coherent 250–300 word texts that exhibit familiarity with English text organisation and methods of its development. Knowledge of the underlying principles of Anglo-American academic writing will enable Estonian academic writers to increase their effectiveness in English-dominant intellectual discourse. Knowledge of how to approach writing a short academic essay will enable novice writers to proceed to more complex written texts for publication required by the English-medium academia in their target careers.

The experimental course is devised to maintain relevance with real-world language use by inspiring students to apply authentic texts from their own academic studies as a basis for the EAP writing classes.

The goals and objectives

The primary goals:
- to encourage Estonian novice academic writers to adjust their writing style to the English-speaking audiences in order to communicate their knowledge effectively and become accepted members of the international field-specific discourse community in future;
- to increase Estonian academic writers' chances of being published in international English-medium professional journals.

The more specific/immediate goals:
- to teach Estonian undergraduate students the use of English academic writing as a means of creating, processing and transforming knowledge in the English-medium academia;
- to familiarize students with the conventions of Anglo-American academic writing;
- to increase students' awareness of the socio-cultural aspects of English writing;
- to enhance students' discourse proficiency in English academic text construction;
- to provide students with fundamental techniques in composing expository and argumentative prose in academic English;
- to highlight writing as a multi-stage process;
- to engage the students in intellectual academic discussions;
- to develop the students' competency in reading authentic academic texts in English.

Instructional objectives:

By the end of instruction students will be able to:

- communicate their intended meaning to the target audiences (e.g., peers, the instructor, subject lecturers) effectively;
- adapt to the conventions of Anglo-American rhetorical contexts, including different audiences, purposes and formats;
- collect information and generate ideas by means of brainstorming, free writing, and analytical techniques;
- analyse an academic text for its meaning, structure and rhetorical attributes;
- develop coherent paragraph-length texts with clear focus;
- compose reader-based essay-length texts in regard to the English text construction principles;
- be able to develop positions rather than merely describe topics;
- critique and evaluate own written drafts for better quality of writing;
- critique and evaluate peer written texts for better quality of writing;
- revise and edit own written drafts for content, audience, organisation, and style in response to peer and teacher feedback.

Course content

Main writing themes (*Appendix 16*):

- Academic writing as a means of communicating one's knowledge to the target field-specific discourse community;
- Writing as writer-reader relationship. Meaning and purpose of writing;
- Socio-cultural aspects of English academic writing;
- Anglo-American academic writing conventions;
- Academic text construction in English;
- Strategies for effective academic writing in English.

Specific writing themes:

- English text internal organisation. Discourse modes;
- Cohesion and signposting;
- Coherence and textual cues. Macrostructures. Kinds of logical ordering;
- Structuring a paragraph; an introduction/ a body/a conclusion. Paragraph development;
- Sentence development. Sentence length;
- Types of essays (expository and argumentative). Analysis of essay titles and narrowing down the topic;
- Thesis statement development;
- Outlining. Planning an argument;
- Supporting arguments and acknowledging sources. Giving examples and evidence. Persuasiveness;
- Sequencing information. Focusing information;
- Academic style and register. Formality and hedging;
- Academic jargon and technical vocabulary;
- Grammar in discourse;
- Revising and editing. Self-evaluation and peer evaluation;
- Revising and editing for clarity and focus. Editing for language and style.

Reading topics:
- Reading as the process of constructing meaning;
- Transferring information. Identifying key themes and ideas;
- Selecting and prioritising information;
- Analysing the language and rhetorical conventions of the English-speaking academy;
- Analysing the attributes of English academic prose;
- Following and analysing arguments;
- Exploring field-specific written texts through note taking;
- Promoting active reading (extended reading; peer reading).

Instructional methods in class

Student individual work	2–5 minutes
Initial peer/group discussion	5–7 minutes
Teacher input	5–7 minutes
Written discourse analysis	10 minutes
Peer/group work	10 minutes
Presenting written work	10 minutes
Writing conference	20–30 minutes

Not all of these methods are applied in every class. Some of the activities are overlapping in nature. The time allocated for each activity is flexible and may be subject to change.

Materials

Tailor-made instructional materials and handouts:

> **Task bank**: scaffolding tasks/composing tasks
> **Text bank**: model texts/ student sample texts/authentic academic texts
> **Discourse development package** *(Appendix 19)*
> A. Discourse markers for oral and written modes of communication
> B. Cohesive devices
> C. Summary writing strategies
> D. Strategies for summarising and giving opinions/critiques
> E. Giving opinions/critiques: Phrases with *in*, *on*, and *at*
> F. Argumentation strategies
> G. Markers for comparison and contrast
> H. Academic style and register
> I. Most frequent epistemic devices in English academic writing
> J. Strategies for speaker-listener interaction

> **Handouts:**
> Paragraph development
> Essay framework: A five-paragraph essay *(Appendix 21)*
> Writing introductions and conclusions *(Appendix 22)*
> Templates of argumentative essays *(Appendix 23)*
> Common patterns of text organisation *(Appendix 24)*

Patterns of text organisation: situation-problem-solution-evaluation *(Appendix 25)*

Patterns of text organisation: comparison-contrast (*Appendix 26*)

Writing process activities in extended academic writing *(Appendix 27)*

Checklists:

Essay evaluation checklist A (short; focus on macro-level attributes of writing; for self-evaluation; *Appendix 28*);

Essay evaluation checklist B (extended; focus on macro-level attributes of writing; for self-evaluation and peer evaluation; *Appendix 29*);

Essay evaluation checklist C (focus on final editing and revising for grammar, vocabulary and mechanics; *Appendix 30*);

Essay marking scale for the EAP Final Examination Writing Test (*Appendix 12).*

Coursebook material:

- Marsen, S. 2003. *Professional Writing. The Complete Guide for Business, Industry and IT.* Palgrave McMillan.
- McGovern, D. 1994. *Reading.* Hemel Hempstead: Phoenix ELT. (class-sets)
- Trzeciak, J. and Mackay, S.E. 1994. *Study Skills for Academic Writing.* Hemel Hempstead: Phoenix ELT. (class-sets)
- White, R. and McGovern, D. 1994. *Writing*. Hemel Hempstead: Phoenix ELT. (class-sets)
- Oshima, A. and Hogue, A. 1999. *Writing Academic English* (3rd ed.). London: Longman.
- Greetham, B. 2001. *How to Write Better Essays.* Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- White, R. (ed.). 1995b. *New Ways in Teaching Writing.* In New Ways in TESOL Series. By Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL).

Course website:

- Language scaffolding exercises
- Teacher input notes
- Sources for extended reading
- Links to online English academic writing centres
- Academic word lists
- Grammar support module

Required writing

- a pre-course experimental text (250 words in 45 minutes);
- language scaffolding written exercises: text as a whole; text unity and text development; cohesion and coherence; paragraph unity and paragraph development; audience awareness; argumentation and style, sentence development and combination, etc.;
- a 100-word summary on a 3000-character model text and a 200-word global summary on a 50 000-character authentic/field-specific text;
- multidraft (N = 1–4) compositions (N = 4–5; 250–300 words) with final drafts submitted for teacher evaluation and marking;
- written peer reviews (N = 2);

- a post-course experimental text (250 words in 45 minutes; a revised and edited final version (Draft 4)of the pre-course experimental text);
- EAP Final Examination Writing Test: a practice argumentative essay in class (a choice of two general-type topics; 250 words in 45 minutes);
- EAP Final Examination Writing Test: an argumentative essay at the examination (a choice of two general-type topics; 250 words in 45 minutes).

Course policies

Written assignments and class work. Written tasks and exercises are assigned every week. In more complex essay tasks, due dates are provided in the course schedule. Students should submit written assignments on paper. They should submit online writing assignments by e-mail prior to the class and bring the completed tasks to class for further comment and discussion. Students should store any written work produced throughout the course for later reference and teacher evaluation and marking at the end of the module, including in-class and out-of-class language scaffolding exercises, written notes and drafts, drafts of essays, final drafts, and peer and teacher feedback material.

Essays. Essay writing assignments should be completed following the multistage writing process, including prewriting (with peer discussion), drafting, and rewriting (self/peer evaluation, revising, and editing). Students should refer to the essay evaluation checklists A-C (*Appendices 28–30*), the essay marking scale of TUT (*Appendix 12*) and the essay evaluation criteria provided under *Assessment* (see below). With each finished (revised and edited) essay, students should submit any preliminary drafts, written peer reviews and teacher written response. The writing schedule (see below) lists due dates for the submission of these texts. In exceptional circumstances (illness or emergency), minor allowances can be made for preliminary drafts when these are not due. Late final texts will not be accepted. All final essays should follow the standard format set in the writing module for written texts. The electronic submission of written work will not be accepted.

Regular attendance and active participation in the class are fundamental requirements for the successful completion of the writing module and critical for the evaluation of students' progress (see *Assessment* below). Written assignments should be submitted on due dates despite any absence from class. In case of absence, the student is responsible for obtaining class handouts and home assignments.

Assessment. Students' progress in the writing module will be monitored through continuous assessment. The assessment criteria include regular attendance and active participation in the classes, completion of all the assigned tasks on due dates, and the quality of writing and the writing process (drafting, revising, peer reviewing, and editing). The finished essays will be marked according to the seven broad categories outlined below and the essay marking scale of TUT (*Appendix 12*) to provide students feedback on their writing performance. A course final mark will be given for the continuous assessment scripts (30%), the essays (drafts + the final text) (60%) and student participation in class (10%). The final mark can affect the EAP Final Examination result if the examination mark is between two values.

- communicative aspect: audience awareness, reader expectations, writer-reader relationship;
- main idea and the writer's purpose;
- text unity: cohesion and coherence, patterns of structure, textual cues, cohesive devices, textual references, thematic patterning;
- text organisation: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion;
- paragraph development: topic sentences, supporting sentences, and concluding sentences, sentence development;
- style and register: hedging, metadiscourse, variety of structures, clarity and focus;
- language: grammar, syntax, lexis, and mechanics (in student final drafts).

Instructional schedule of the writing module

Note: This schedule is flexible and may be subject to revision according to class progress.

Class/ Week of Study	INSTRUCTIONAL CONTENT: Input activities (**Input**); Activities in class (**In class**); Task out of class (**Task**)
1/1	**Input**: Introduction to the EAP course. Testing of skills (speaking, listening, and writing) **In class:** A pre-course experimental essay '*How can we make the Internet more effective?*' (250 words in 45 minutes) **Task**: Filling in a pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (*Appendix 6*). Reading an authentic popular-scientific text (2,000 characters words) for first impression.[1] Extended reading by Week 9 (50,000 characters of field-specific literature).[2]
2/1	**Input:** Introduction to English academic written discourse. Main idea, purpose and audience. The author's voice. Writer-reader relationship. Conciseness, clarity, accuracy, and appropriateness. The global format of an English written text. *Handout: Discourse development instructional 'package' (Appendix 19)* **In class:** Written discourse analysis of short pedagogic texts (N = 3). **Task:** Writing a cognitive-style coherent text '*What are my expectations of the English course?*' (200 words). Analysing samples of good and poor introductions (N = 3) and conclusions (N = 3) (teacher-provided). Reading an authentic popular-scientific article (5,000 characters) for assessing writer's purpose and evaluating writer's attitude.

3/2	**Input**: English written text organisation. The format of an English written text: introduction, body and conclusion. Metadiscourse. A thesis statement. Paragraph: a topic sentence, supportive sentences, and a concluding sentence. *Handout: EAP course written assignment format* **In class:** Scaffolding exercises: input topics. Written discourse analysis of a model paragraph (N = 1). **Task:** Writing a short paragraph (Draft 1). Analysing model summaries (N = 3; teacher-provided). Reading a short non-academic text (1,500 characters) for understanding text organisation.
4/2	**Input:** English written text organisation. Paragraph development. Evidence and examples. Paragraphing problems. Irrelevant information. Research skills: summarising; extracting and synthesising information from multiple sources; transferring information. *Handout: Summary writing strategies (Appendices 19C-D)* **In class:** Written discourse analysis of flawed paragraphs (N = 3). **Task:** Reading a model text (3,000 characters) for main ideas; writing a 100-word summary. Revising the written paragraph (Draft 2). Scaffolding exercises: input topics.
5/3	**Input:** Logical flow of information. Text unity. Cohesion and coherence. Discourse markers. Cohesive devices. Pronoun references. Repetition of key words. Parallelism. Writing sub-skills definition and classification. **Handout: Discourse markers for oral and written modes of communication (Appendix 19A)** **Handout: Cohesive devices (Appendix 19B)** **In class:** Written discourse analysis of short pedagogic texts (N = 4). Drafting definitions and explanations. **Task:** Writing a paragraph (150 words). Reading a non-academic text (3,000 characters) for details. Scaffolding exercises: input topics.
6/3	**Input:** Logical flow of information. Text unity**.** Patterns of text organisation: chronological, general-specific, real-hypothetical, cause-effect, etc. Narrowing the topic down. Writing sub-skills: description. *Handout: Common patterns of text organisation (Appendix 24)* *Handout: Essay evaluation checklist A (Appendix 28)* **In class:** Written discourse analysis of model student essays (N = 3). Skimming and scanning for information; understanding text organisation. Paragraph presentations. Drafting descriptions: a device. **Task:** Composing **Essay 1 (Draft 1)**. Reading an authentic non-academic text (6,000 characters) for understanding text organisation, writer's purpose and writer's attitude. Scaffolding exercises: input topics.
7/4	**Input:** Patterns of text organisation: comparison-contrast. Parallelism. *Handout: Markers of comparison and contrast (Appendix 19G)* *Handout: Patterns of text organisation: comparison-contrast (Appendix 26)* **In class:** Drafting descriptions: a process. **Task**: Writing an essay-length comparative analysis of peer paragraphs (N=5). Reading authentic descriptions of devices, products or services (N = 2).

8/4	**Input:** Sentences as constituents of effective written discourse. Sentence and paragraph coherence. Sentence length and complexity. Coordinators and correlative conjunctions. Problematic sentences: sentence fragments, choppy or stringy sentences, run-on sentences, etc. **In class:** Written discourse analysis of model argumentative essays (N = 3). Project work: extracting information for group presentations (e.g., *Mobiles or Tourism*). Scaffolding exercises. **Task:** Revising and editing Essay 1 (Draft 2). Scaffolding: analysing and rewriting sentences. Reading an authentic problem-solution text (5,000 characters; teacher-provided).
9/5	**Input:** Patterns of text organisation: situation-problem-solution-evaluation. Information flow: given-new, theme-rheme, end focus, important information in the main clause, etc. *Handout: Patterns of text organisation: situation-problem-solution-evaluation (Appendix 25)* **In class:** Written text analysis of a problem-solution text (N = 1). Analysing peer written paragraphs based on written reviews. **Task:** Composing **Essay 2 SPSE (Draft 1)**. Reading a popular-scientific text (4,000 characters) for evaluating writer's attitude, text organisation and details. Scaffolding: restructuring and editing sentences.
10/6	**Input:** Argumentation. Evidence: facts and opinions. Claim, counter-claim, rebuttal. Persuasion. Pros and cons. Defending and refuting propositions. Sentence problems (lack of parallelism). *Handout: Argumentation strategies (Appendix 19F)* *Handout: Templates of argumentative essays (Appendix 23)* **In class:** Written discourse analysis of model argumentative essays (N = 3). Scaffolding tasks: flawed sentences. Group presentations (e.g., *Mobiles or Tourism*). **Task**: Drafting a short six-stage written argument (*Appendix 19F*). Scaffolding exercises: input topics. Reading an authentic academic field-related article (10,000 characters) for evaluating writer's purpose and attitude; understanding main ideas and text organisation.
11/7	**Input:** Academic style and register. Ways of showing and avoiding commitment. Complexity, formality, objectivity, explicitness, hedging, and responsibility. Formal versus informal style. *Handout: Academic style and register. (Appendix 19H)* *Handout: The most frequent epistemic devices in English academic writing (Appendix 19I)* **In class:** Written text analysis of excerpts from authentic academic texts (N = 2). Scaffolding tasks. Presenting arguments. **Task:** Composing **Essay 3** (argumentative) **(Draft 1).** Written discourse analysis of student sample essays (N = 3) for style and register. Scaffolding: problematic sentences. Reading an authentic field-related research article (10,000 characters) for main ideas; guessing unknown words.

12/8	**Input:** Evaluation and revision strategies. Reader (peer) response. _Handout: Essay evaluation checklist B (Appendix 29)_ **In class:** Writing conference 1. Principles of written text evaluation. Written discourse analysis of student essay-length texts (N = 3). **Task:** Composing a written critique of a peer's pre-course experimental text (Draft 2). Revising and editing Essay 2 (Draft 2). Scaffolding: typical discourse problems in student writing (e.g., _Appendix 31_).
13/9	**Input:** Evaluation and revision strategies. Editing and proofreading. **In class:** Written discourse analysis of student sample texts, paragraphs and sentences. Scaffolding tasks: typical mistakes in student writing. Peer discussion: written peer critiques of student pre-course texts (Draft 2). **Task:** Scaffolding: revising and editing flawed sentences _(Appendix 32)_. Revising and editing Essay 3 (Draft 2). Writing a global summary (200 words) on the Home Reading text (_see above Class 1_).
14/10	**Input:** Writing under pressure: preparation for the examination essay. **In class:** Written discourse analysis (global and local features of writing) of own pre-course experimental texts (Drafts 1–3). **Task:** Revising, editing and proofreading EAP writing module continuous assessment scripts. Revision exercises online. Revising and editing own pre-course experimental texts and written assignments. Reading field-specific academic literature (20,000 characters) for main ideas and writer's purpose; guessing unknown words
15/11	**Input:** Revision of the most important aspects of English academic writing. **In class:** Final self-evaluation and revision of continuous assessment scripts: revised and edited written texts. **EAP Final Examination Writing Practice Test:** composing an argumentative essay (250 words in 45 minutes; a choice of two general-type academic topics). Submission of the continuous assessment scripts for evaluation and marking. **Task:** Composing the _post-course experimental essay_ (i.e., a revised, edited and proofread Draft 4 of the _pre-course experimental essay_). Revision exercises online. Reading field-related academic materials.
16/12	**In class:** Writing conference 2. Analysing student revised and edited post-course experimental essays (Draft 4 of the pre-course experimental essay) and the EAP Final Examination practice essays. Teacher feedback on student continuous assessment texts (essays and other written accomplishments). **Task:** Submission of the post-course experimental essay[3]. Revision exercises online. Reading field-related research materials.
17/13	**EAP Final Examination Writing Test**[4]**:** Composing an argumentative essay (200 words in 45 minutes; a choice of two general-type academic topics).
18/14	**In class:** Student feedback on the EAP Final Examination Writing Test. **Task:** Filling in the standard post-course evaluation questionnaire of the EAP course (_Appendix 8_) and the tailor-made post-course evaluation questionnaire of the experimental writing module (_Appendix 9_). Reading field-related articles.

19/15	**Input:** Extended writing for English-medium academic audiences. *Handout: Writing process activities in an extended academic essay (Appendix 27).* **In class:** Teacher feedback on student post-course experimental texts. Submission of responses to the EAP writing module post-course evaluation questionnaire.
20/16	**In class:** Writing conference 3. Fulfilment of the goals and objectives of the experimental writing module. Feedback on student English writing performance in composing essay-length texts. Discussing the results of the post-course evaluation questionnaires.

[1] *Most reading assignments are designed to enable the students to extract, process and transfer information for discussions in class and writing out of class. In addition, these readings are expected to provide opportunities for the students to analyse text organisation (sentence, paragraph, and text level), technical vocabulary and the language use of English written discourse.*
[2] *The home reading text will be discussed with the teacher in Weeks 9–10 according to a fixed schedule.*
[3] *Teacher response on this text can be received in student-teacher conferencing at the end of Week 12. The text will be discussed in class in Week 15.*
[4] *The results of the EAP Final Examination Writing Test will be announced at the EAP Final Examination in May–June.*

EAP Course evaluation instruments
Student pre-course needs analysis questionnaire (*Appendix 6*)
Student post-course evaluation questionnaire (standard) (*Appendix 8*)
Student post-course evaluation questionnaire on English academic writing (*Appendix 9*)

APPENDIX 6

Student pre-course needs analysis questionnaire for the samples of TUT and ITC

Needs analysis questionnaire

Course title: EAP, the Tallinn University of Technology
                    English for IT, the Estonian Information Technology College
Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature

Name: ....
Date: ....

1. Why are you taking the course?

2. Where have you acquired your present language skills? How many years have you studied English?

3. How would you assess your English skills? Give points from 1 to 5 (1 – poor; 5 − excellent):
    reading   *writing*   *listening*   *speaking*

4. What subject knowledge in engineering/technology do you have?

5. Please indicate the frequency of each activity in your studies/work, etc.:

    A – often; B – sometimes; C – rarely; D – never

    Do you have to read anything in English?   *A B C D*
    Do you have to write anything in English?   *A B C D*
    Do you have to speak English?   *A B C D*
    Do you have to understand spoken English?   *A B C D*
    6. What do you need to read in English (for academic and professional purposes)?

7. What do you need to write in English (for academic and professional purposes)?

8. What English skills should you improve to be successful in your future career? Provide the order of importance (1 − most important; 4 – least important):
    reading   *writing*   *listening*   *speaking*

9. What is 'academic writing'?

10. How important do you think the following six factors are in academic writing? Provide the order of importance (1 – most important; 6 – least important) and give your comments on each factor.
    Grammatical accuracy ....
    Organisation ....
    Vocabulary ....
    Spelling and punctuation ....
    Content ....
    Good ideas ....

    Any other comments:

APPENDIX 7

Student pre-course needs analysis questionnaire for the sample of EAC

Needs analysis questionnaire

Course title: TOEFL iBT preparation course
              Educational Advising Centre of Northern American Universities
Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature

Name:
Native language: ....
Institution: ....
Job title: ....
Date: ....

1. Why are you taking the course?

2. How did you find out about the course?

3. Have you taken TOEFL before? Have you participated in any other TOEFL courses?
    Are you familiar with TOEFL iBT practice materials?

4. Where have you acquired your present language skills? How many years have you
    studied English?

5. Please assess your knowledge of English in the aspects below. Give points from 1 to
    5 (1 – poor; 5 – excellent):
                listening
                reading
                writing
                structure
                speaking

6. Please give the order of importance of the issues you would like to focus on at the
    TOEFL iBT course (1 – most important):
                listening
                speaking
                reading
                vocabulary
                structure and written expression
                essay-writing
                test strategies (test formats, general tips, time management, etc.)
                other (please specify)

7. What teaching/learning techniques do you find
                efficient? ....
                inefficient? ....

8. What do you hope to have achieved by the end of the course?

Any other comments:

APPENDIX 8

Student post-course evaluation questionnaire (standard) for the samples of TUT and ITC

Course evaluation questionnaire

Course title: EAP, the Tallinn University of Technology
English for IT, the Estonian Information Technology College
Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature

Name (optional): ....
Level of L2 proficiency (please, circle): B1 B2 C1
Date:..

1. What were the good sides of the EAP course? What did you like most?

2. What were the negative sides of the course? Was there anything irrelevant for your needs? What changes would you make?

3. What would you say about the classes in general?

4. How would you evaluate the course materials and handouts?

5. What skills should be more focused on in the course?

6. What do you think about the (amount of) home assignments?

7. Did you do your assignments regularly? Which assignments did you like most? Which assignments did you not consider relevant for your needs?

8. What suggestions and comments would you make about the course?

Any other comments:

APPENDIX 9

Student post-course evaluation questionnaire on English academic writing for the samples of TUT

Course evaluation questionnaire

Course title: EAP, the Tallinn University of Technology
Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature

Name (optional): ....
Level of L2 proficiency (please, circle):   B2   C1
Date: ....

1. Has your writing improved during the course? How?

2. What were the good sides of the EAP writing module? What did you like most?

3. What were the negative sides of the EAP writing module? What suggestions for improvement would you make?

4. How would you evaluate the writing assignments (e.g., essay tasks, revision tasks, peer evaluation tasks, writing exercises, etc.)? Which of these would you consider most helpful in developing your English writing skills?

5. How would you evaluate the writing materials/handouts?

6. Did you find the Essay Evaluation Checklist B useful? Why?

7. What would you say about peer evaluation activities (i.e., reading and commenting on each other's work)? What English academic literacy skills could it improve, do you think?

8. How important do you think the following aspects are in English academic writing? Provide the order of importance (1 − most important; 6 − least important):
    grammatical accuracy
    spelling and punctuation
    subject content
    overall organisation
    vocabulary
    good ideas

9. How important do you think the following activities are in the development of English academic writing skills? Give the order of importance from 1-7 (1− most important; 7− least important):
    reading widely and frequently
    studying grammar
    studying vocabulary
    imitating other writers
    writing frequently
    inviting others to comment on your writing
    rewriting and revising repeatedly

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10. What are the main features of an effective English text? *(This question was not applicable to TS1)*

11. How would you improve the readability of your English writing?

12. Should you always regard writing as communicating with another person? Why?

13. What do you like about writing?

14. What do you find hard about writing?

15. What was your English mark at school? What mark would you expect to receive upon completion of this English course?

Any other comments:

APPENDIX 10

Student post-course evaluation questionnaire (standard) for the sample of EAC

Course evaluation questionnaire

Course title: TOEFL iBT preparation course
   Educational Advising Centre of Northern American Universities
Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature

Name (optional): ....
Level of L2 proficiency (please, circle):   B1   B2   C1
Date: ....

1. What were the good sides of the TOEFL iBT course? What did you like most?

2. What were the negative sides of the course? Was there anything irrelevant for your needs?

    What changes would you make?

3. What would you say about the seminars in general?

4. How would you evaluate the course materials and handouts?

5. What skills should be more focused on in the course?

6. What do you think about the (amount of) home assignments?

7. Did you do your assignments regularly? What kind? Did you take any practice tests?

8. What suggestions and comments would you make about the course?

9. Would you recommend this course to your colleagues, friends, or fellow-students? Why?

Any other comments:

APPENDIX 11

Student post-course evaluation questionnaire on English academic writing for the sample of EAC

Course evaluation questionnaire

Course title: TOEFL iBT preparation course
Educational Advising Centre of Northern American Universities
Lecturer: Kärt Rummel, MA in English Language and Literature

Name (optional): ....
Level of L2 proficiency (please, circle):   B1   B2   C1
Date: ....

1. Has your writing improved during the course? How?

2. How important do you think the following aspects are in English academic writing? Provide the order of importance (1 – most important; 6 – least important):
    grammatical accuracy
    spelling and punctuation
    subject content
    overall organisation
    vocabulary
    good ideas

3. How important do you think the following activities are in developing writing? Give the order of importance (1 – most important; 7 – least important):
    reading widely and frequently
    studying grammar
    studying vocabulary
    imitating other writers
    writing frequently
    inviting others to comment on your writing
    rewriting and revising repeatedly

4. What are the main features of an effective English text?

5. How would you improve the readability of your English writing?

6. What do you like about writing?

7. What do you find hard about writing?

8. What was your English mark at school? What mark would you expect to receive upon completion of this English course?

Any other comments:

APPENDIX 12

Sample marking scale for argumentative essays

Table. Sample marking scale for argumentative essays (Saar and Uibo 2004: 61)

	GRAMMAR	MECHANICAL ACCURACY	VOCABULARY	ORGANISA-TION	CONTENT AND STYLE
5	wide range & correct use of complex structures *very few slips & minor errors	X X X	wide range of effective and appropriate vocabulary *controlled and natural use of language *appropriate register	completely logical organisational structure *varied use of cohesive devices *complex sentence structure	X X X
4		X X X			X X X
3	sufficient accuracy *some gross or systematic errors and more minor errors which do not distort communi-cation *sound grasp of tense system	almost no errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization	somewhat limited vocabulary but largely correct OR more adventurous but less accurate vocabulary *able to express oneself without distortion	sufficient organisation *easily followed most of the time *occasionally repetitive *some variety of sentence structure *some use of cohesive devices	arguments effectively related to specific area within the topic *consistent & appropriate style
2					
1	low accuracy *frequent basic errors *grammatical patterns based on direct translation *unable to apply the tense system appropriately	frequent or systematic errors but meaning mostly not confused or obscured OR some gross errors *POOR HANDWRITING	limited vocabulary *misuse of words makes communication difficult *essentially translation	practically no organisation *ONLY simple sentences or serious, frequent errors in sentence structure *no cohesive devices	written mostly to the point with occasional lapses *not consistent in tone *use of contractions *is shorter than 200 words
0	ignores topic	ILLEGIBLE HANDWRITING ignores topic	ignores topic	ignores topic	ignores topic OR is shorter than 180 words

12–13 points   Grade 1
14–15 points   Grade 2
16–17 points   Grade 3
18–19 points   Grade 4
20–21 points   Grade 5

APPENDIX 13

Mapping TOEFL scores to CEFR (2001): Total Score Comparisons

TOEFL

Total Score Comparisons

Score Comparison			Score Comparison, cont.		
Internet-based Total	Computer-based Total	Paper-based Total	Internet-based Total	Computer-based Total	Paper-based Total
120	300	677	62-63	177	503
120	297	673	61	173	500
119	293	670	59-60	170	497
118	290	667	58	167	493
117	287	660-663	57	163	487-490
116	283	657	56	160	483
114-115	280	650-653	54-55	157	480
113	277	647	53	153	477
111-112	273	640-643	52	150	470-473
110	270	637	51	147	467
109	267	630-633	49-50	143	463
106-108	263	623-627	48	140	460
105	260	617-620	47	137	457
103-104	257	613	45-46	133	450-453
101-102	253	607-610	44	130	447
100	250	600-603	43	127	443
98-99	247	597	41-42	123	437-440
96-97	243	590-593	40	120	433
94-95	240	587	39	117	430
92-93	237	580-583	38	113	423-427
90-91	233	577	36-37	110	420
88-89	230	570-573	35	107	417
86-87	227	567	34	103	410-413
84-85	223	563	33	100	407
83	220	557-560	32	97	400-403
81-82	217	553	30-31	93	397
79-80	213	550	29	90	390-393
77-78	210	547	28	87	387
76	207	540-543	26-27	83	380-383
74-75	203	537	25	80	377
72-73	200	533	24	77	370-373
71	197	527-530	23	73	363-367
69-70	193	523	22	70	357-360
68	190	520	21	67	353
66-67	187	517	19-20	63	347-350
65	183	513	18	60	340-343
64	180	507-510	17	57	333-337

Figure. TOEFL Total Score Comparisons (TOEFL 2005: 6).

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APPENDIX 14

Mapping TOEFL scores to CEFR (2001): TOEFL Equivalency Table

TOEFL Equivalency Table

Do you find all of the different English language test scores confusing? Do you have trouble comparing a TOEIC score to a TOEFL score? Well, that's understandable because there are a number of different language tests and they all have different systems. Even the TOEFL Paper Based Test, TOEFL Computer Based Test (TOEFL CBT), and TOEFL Internet Based Test (TOEFL iBT) all have different scoring schemes.

The table below shows comparisons between various test scores and level systems (like TOEIC, TOEFL and IELTS) and the VEC level system. Use this table to compare your own score or VEC level with the approximate equivalent score of another test.

TOEIC	TOEFL Paper	TOEFL CBT	TOEFL IBT	IELTS	Cambridge Exam	CEFR	VEC Online Score	Approximate VEC Level
0 - 250	0 - 310	0 - 30	0 - 8	0 - 1.0			0 - 34	2
	310 - 343	33 - 60	9 - 18	1.0 - 1.5		A1	35 - 38	3
255 - 400	347 - 393	63 - 90	19 - 29	2.0 - 2.5		A1	39 - 45	4 - 5
	397 - 433	93 - 120	30 - 40	3.0 - 3.5	KET (IELTS 3.0)	A2	46 - 53	6 - 7
					PET (IELTS 3.5)	B1 (IELTS 3.5)		
405 - 600	437 - 473	123 - 150	41 - 52	4.0	PET	B1	54 - 57	8
	477 - 510	153 - 180	53 - 64	4.5 - 5.0	PET (IELTS 4.5)	B1 (IELTS 4.5)	58 - 65	9 - 10
					FCE (IELTS 5.0)	B2 (IELTS 5.0)		
605 - 780	513 - 547	183 - 210	65 - 78	5.5 - 6.0	FCE	B2	66 - 73	11 - 12
	550 - 587	213 - 240	79 - 95	6.5 - 7.0	CAE	C1	74 - 81	13 - 14
785 - 990	590 - 677	243 - 300	96 - 120	7.5 - 9.0	CPE	C2	82 - 100	15
Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Level	Top Score	Top Level
990	677	300	120	9	100	C2	100	15

Figure. TOEFL Equivalency Table (Vancouver English Centre 2010: 1).

APPENDIX 15

Essay evaluation grids 1–2

Table A. Essay evaluation grid No 1

Writing context:
      Educational setting: tertiary study; ESP/EAP
      Student population: undergraduate and graduate students
      Target audience: academic peers and language instructors

Student written assignment:
      Write a 250-word text on the topic **'***How can we make the internet more effective?***'**
      (the essay mode not specified)

Could you evaluate the given student essays on a 6-point scale (0 − insufficient; 5 − excellent) in terms of the following criteria of writing? You are welcome to provide any comments both in the comments' section of the evaluation grid and on student written drafts.

Text No	Grammar	Vocabulary	Mechanical accuracy	Organisation	Content	Style	Comments
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							
10							
11							
12							
13							
14							
15							
16							
17							
18							
19							
20							
21							
22							
23							

Rater: ....
Institution: ....
Date: ....

Table B. Essay evaluation grid No 2

<u>Writing context:</u>

Educational setting:	tertiary study; ESP/EAP
Student population:	undergraduate and graduate students
Target audience:	academic peers and language instructors

<u>Student written assignment</u>:

Write a 250-word text on the topic 'How can we make the internet more effective?'
(the essay type not specified)

Could you evaluate the given student essays on a 6-point scale (0 − insufficient; 5 − excellent) in terms of the following criteria of writing? You are welcome to provide any comments both in the comments' section of the evaluation grid and on student written drafts.

Text No	Grammar	Vocabulary	Mechanical accuracy	Organisation	Content	Style	Comments
24							
25							
26							
27							
28							
29							
30							
31							
32							
33							
34							
35							
36							
37							
38							
39							
40							
41							
42							
43							
44							
45							
46							

Rater: ....

Institution: ....

Date: ....

APPENDIX 16

Themes for writing applied in the EAP writing module

- Writing as communication
- Main idea and purpose of writing
- Audience awareness. Writer-reader relationship. Readability
- Anglo-American academic writing style
- Socio-cultural aspects of English academic written discourse
- Academic genre (summary; essay; thesis; research article)
- Knowledge bases of writing (content/context/system/language/strategic)
- Text construction principles. Surface layout: introduction, body and conclusion. Paragraph
- Paragraph unity and development. Topic sentences; supportive sentences; concluding sentences
- Content development. Text unity. Logical flow of ideas: Coherence and cohesion (sentence/paragraph/whole text level unity)
- Macro-patterns of text level discourse e.g.,
    - general/specific
    - situation/problem/solution/evaluation
    - cause/effect
    - given/new information
    - claim/counterclaim
    - hypothetical/real
- Transitions. Textual cues. Cohesive ties. Lexical content ties
- Kinds of logical order. Information patterns
- Thematic patterning
- Argumentation
- Academic style: hedging, modality, tone, and register
- Metadiscourse
- Content/context/writing process/linguistic knowledge
- Design of sentences. Sentence development. Sentence combination
- Syntactic and semantic redundancy
- Revision and editing. Self editing and peer editing

APPENDIX 17

Types of writing tasks and the writing process activities employed in the EAP writing module

(Adapted from Hyland 2003 and White 1994)

Writing tasks

No	Type of writing task	Pedagogic function
1	Extract information from a written source	content
2	Brainstorm to generate ideas	content; process
3	Freewrite to generate ideas	content; process
4	Create mind maps for writing	content; process
5	Identify purpose of a text	genre; context
6	Practice construction of sentences	system
7	Reorganise scrambled sentences	system; genre
8	Complete unfinished texts	system; genre
9	Analyse an authentic text for patterns and features	genre
10	Practice use of metalanguage to identify parts of texts	genre
11	Compare texts with different purposes	genre; context
12	Compare texts with different audience	genre; context
13	Compare text with different structure	genre; context
14	Create a parallel text following a given model (introduction/paragraph/conclusion)	system; genre
15	Draft a text based on the outcome of pre-writing activities	content; process
16	Practice specific rhetorical patterns (argument)	process; genre
17	Practice various text types (summary, essay, critique)	process; genre
18	Revise a draft in response to peers' comments	content; system; process; genre; context
19	Proofread and edit a text for rhetorical structure and grammar	process; genre; system
20	Write a multidraft, essay-length text	content; system; process; genre; context
21	Read and respond to the ideas (and language) of another draft	content; system; process; genre; context
22	Research, write, and revise essay-length text for specific audience and purpose	content; system; process; genre; context

Writing process activities
- Gathering supporting information for writing
- Free writing and brainstorming
- Note-taking: semantic mapping and graphic organisers
- Outlining
- Language scaffolding: sentence/paragraph combining
- Summarising
- Critical review writing (peer evaluation analysis)
- Argument writing — taking a position and presenting the written text
- Editing
- Cooperative learning and group work
- Peer response
- Guided discussions
- Writing conferences

APPENDIX 18

EAP writing module assignments: Test Sample 2

Composing tasks:
- The experimental essay *How can we make the Internet more effective?*
      Draft 1 (*Pre-course experimental text)*
            → Draft 2
                  → Draft 3
                        → Draft 4 (*Post-course experimental text)*
- A self-cognitive report *What are my expectations of the English course?*
- Essay 1: *Would you prefer studying in large groups or studying alone?* (Drafts 1–3)
- Essay 2: *Should mobile phones be restricted in public places?* (Drafts 1–3)
- Essay 3: *Is tourism always beneficial for the host country?* (Drafts 1–3)
- Essay 4: *The effect of urbanisation on people and the environment?* (Drafts 1–3)
- A review article on extended reading (e.g., *Gene technology*) (Drafts 1–3)
- EAP Final Examination Writing Test: Practice Essay (a choice of two topics)
      1. *Are mistakes necessary for discovery and progress?*
      2. *Cloning is a danger to the future.*

Paragraph tasks:
- Writing introductions and conclusions (*Appendix 22*)
- Paragraph development. Writing a paragraph (*Appendix 20)*
- Paragraph analysis *What makes a good paragraph?*
- A short opinion text (150 words; a choice of topics; *Appendix 19E*)
- An argument (150 words; a specialist topic; *Appendix 19F*)

Summary tasks:
- A summary on a 3000-character model text (100 words)
- A global summary on a 50 000-character field-specific text (200 words);

Written evaluation tasks:
- Self-evaluation of the pre-course experimental essay (Draft 1): post-text comments
- Written text analysis *What makes a good paragraph?*
- Peer review of the pre-course experimental essay (Draft 2).

APPENDIX 19

Discourse development instructional materials ('package')

A. Discourse markers for oral and written modes of communication

1. **Focussing:**

Now, **as regards** (marketing),	I would say …
As far as (sport) **is concerned**,	I think …
In terms of (work and jobs),	I believe …
On the question of (current fashions),	I presume …
When it comes to (politics),	I feel …
In/with regard to (computers),	I reckon …, etc.

As for (politics), I don't care much about it. ('*as for*' shows lack of interest)

2. **Structuring:**

a. Divisions:

first(ly), … second(ly), … third(ly), …. (and) finally …

first of all	to begin with	to start with	in the first place
afterwards	last	lastly	

b. Adding (substitutes for 'and'):

moreover	furthermore	in addition	also
further	additionally	alternatively	instead
besides	what is more	on top of this/that	

Linking:

similarly	likewise	equally

c. Contrast with what came before (substitutes for "but"):

in fact	however	although
rather	in contrast	still
nevertheless	nonetheless	yet
though	actually	all the same
even though	as a matter of fact	at the same time

on the one hand … (but) on the other (hand)

d. Logical consequence (substitutes for 'so'):

as a result	then	in that case	
hence	therefore	consequently	thus

e. Generalising:

on the whole	in general	broadly speaking	to some extent
as a rule	by and large	in most cases	in many cases

f. Exemplifying and excepting:

for instance	for example	(take,) say	such as
including	in particular	apart from	e.g. (wr.)

and so on … and so forth   et cetera (sp.)/etc. (wr.)

except	excluding	with the exception of

g. Clarifying and re-stating:

in other words	in a sense	that is (to say)
I mean		i.e. (wr.)

3. Dismissal of previous discourse:
anyway anyhow at any rate

4. Change of subject:
by the way I say incidentally

5. Showing of attitude of what you are saying:

I think	I reckon	I guess	I suppose
I believe	I presume	I feel	I assume
I would say	I hope		
in my view	in my opinion	to my mind	as I see it

6. Preparing for something unwelcome:
I'm afraid (suggests an apologetic attitude or bad news)
Sorry, (but) (for disagreeing and criticising)
Frankly/honestly (for introducing strong points of view or critical remarks)

7. Conversation management:

well	now	right	OK	actually
anyway	by the way	I mean	you know	you see
sort of	kind of	so to speak	more or less	

Appendix 19

B. Cohesive devices

'And' type
in fact
also
furthermore
apart from this
what is more
in addition
in the same way
not only ... but also
as well as
besides

Example
for example
for instance
as follows:
that is to say
in this case

Stating the obvious
obviously
it goes without saying
clearly
naturally
of course
as one might expect
surely
after all

Generalising
in general
on the whole
as a rule
for the most part
speaking generally
in most cases
usually

'Or' type
in other words
to put it another way
to be more precise
or rather
alternatively

Contrast
on the other hand
alternatively
in contrast to

Equivalence
in other words
namely
that is to say

Concession
however
even though
however much ...
nevertheless
still
yet

Cause and effect
because
because of this
thus
accordingly
hence
in order to
so that
in that case
under those
circumstances
as a result
for this reason
as a consequence

'But' type
although
however
whereas
yet
nevertheless
despite
in spite of
on the contrary

Transition
now,
as far as X is
concerned
with regard to
as for ...
it follows that

Highlighting
in particular
especially
mainly
particularly

Referring
who
which
when
where
whose
that

Conclusion
so
finally,
to conclude

Figure. Cohesive devices (White and McGovern 1994: 67).

Appendix 19

C. Summary writing strategies

(Adapted from White and McGovern 1994)

1. Types of summary
There are various types of summaries academic writers may need to compile in English. Three main types can be distinguished as follows:
- A short summary (*abstract*) summarising the text in one or two sentences;
- A *global* summary summarising the entire content of the text;
- A *selective* summary summarising only specific information from a text.

2. Four universal features of any summary:
- Concise
- Comprehensive
- Coherent
- Independent (of your own opinion)

3. Tips for writing a summary:
Do
- Restate the main idea at the beginning of your summary and then mention the other major points.
- Incorporate the heading of the text and the author in the first sentence.
- Use the summary writing strategies (*Appendix 19D*).
- Express your ideas as economically as possible.
- Write the text in one block
- Be consistent and parallel in structures.
- Use the active voice.
- Use reference words (e.g., *this, these, it, such,* etc.)

Do not
- Do not retell, but analyse and synthesise.
- Do not include your own opinion.
- Do not include details of secondary importance.
- Do not use redundant phrases (e.g., *The article that I chose).*
- Do not use quotes from the text.
- Do not use bullets or numbering.

4. Useful vocabulary:
In this text '... '	about …	the author …	claims that …
The article '…'	written by …	discusses …	
The article '…'	about …	written by …	discusses …

Text as an 'actor': This article tells us about …
This text considers/discusses /addresses/summarises …
It outlines/lists three issues/aspects/factors …

Author as an 'actor': The author discusses/addresses/summarises …
He/she holds/believes/claims/asserts/insists that …

Appendix 19

D. Strategies for summarising and giving opinions/critiques

Useful phrases for giving summaries (adapted from White 1995b: 77)
1. In this article (about …) the author *asserts* that...

> Alternate verbs:
> a) states, claims, declares, argues, insists, holds, says, notes, points out, suggests, stresses, observes, proposes (that) … ;
> b) discusses, focuses on, deals with, addresses, outlines, summarises

- According to the writer, ...
- In the writer's opinion, ...
- Based on his/her research, the writer believes that ...
- The author thus claims that ...

2. The *thesis* of this article is (that)...

> Alternate nouns: the main point, the main idea, the central theme...

Useful phrases for making connections (adapted from White 1995b: 77)
- The ideas in this article remind me of ...
- I recall another article/text/lecture by ...
- This brings to mind another article by ...
- When I read about this article, I thought about ...
- As I considered the author's argument, another article/lecture/ incident came to mind ...
- A similar idea is expressed by ... in (*title* of the book; *heading* of the article ...)
- The author's text is reminiscent of another article by ...

Useful phrases for stating opinions/critiques
To express agreement:
- I agree with the author's views about ..., because/as/since ...
- The assertions/arguments/statements in this article are, in my opinion ...
- The author's assertions/arguments/statements are ...

persuasive	strong	compelling
convincing	adequate	sufficient
relevant	logical,	appropriate
consistent	well-founded	plausible
valid	effective	good
substantial	sound	solid
reliable	well-supported	predictable
correct	reasonable	complex

To express disagreement:

- I disagree with the author's views about... because/as/since ...
- The assertions/arguments/statements in this article are, in my opinion, ...
- The author's assertions/arguments/statements are ...

unconvincing	weak	faulty
limited	inadequate	insufficient
irrelevant	illogical	inappropriate
inconsistent	shaky	implausible
invalid	ineffective	poor
unsubstantial	contradictory	confusing
unreliable	unsupported	unpredictable
incorrect	unreasonable	trivial

Appendix 19

E. Giving opinions and critiques: Phrases with in, on, and at

(Adapted from Kingsbury and Wellman 1986: 33)

TASK 1
*Read the opinions on employment and unemployment below. Choose the one, which is closest to your own feelings and be prepared to convey the sentiments expressed to the rest of the class and to explain why you chose that particular view. As you read also note the underlined phrases with **in**, **on** and **at**.*

1. <u>In principle</u> there's nothing noble about work; <u>on the contrary</u>, <u>in most cases</u>, it's rather degrading. <u>In essence</u>, for most people work is a pay packet – <u>at any rate</u> as far as most manual work is concerned. <u>In short,</u> a necessary evil.
2. <u>In one sense</u>, being unemployed is like having one long holiday; <u>in another way</u>, it's like a hefty prison sentence. <u>On the one hand</u>, you've got freedom; <u>on the other (hand)</u> you've got no freedom at all. <u>On balance</u>, I'd rather have a job.
3. <u>At first sight</u>, being idle all day might seem attractive; <u>in reality</u>, it's horrific – <u>at least</u>, it is for me. <u>In some respects</u>, I feel the Government <u>are in the wrong</u>. But <u>in general</u>, I think it's just a phenomenon of the age we're living in.
4. <u>In my view</u>, it's unfair. <u>In theory</u>, unemployment benefit is for those who can't get a job. <u>In practice</u>, though, a lot of people choose the dole <u>in preference to</u> a job- <u>in particular</u> the lower-paid- because <u>in effect</u>, they can take home nearly as much <u>in benefit</u> as they would <u>in wages</u>; <u>in fact</u>, some can claim more. <u>In other words</u>, people like me are "paying tax <u>on their behalf</u>".
5. <u>In the main</u>, it's the uneducated who are losing their jobs: often <u>at short notice</u>- too short, <u>in my</u> <u>opinion.</u> And <u>at the same time</u> new jobs are being created which <u>in the long run</u> will only be done by highly qualified and super-intelligent people. <u>In the end</u>, only the clever will work. I'm against that <u>on principle.</u>

TASK 2
Now invent a similarly phrased opinion on one of the following topics. Write a text of at least 150 words.
1. The wisdom of the law
2. Equality of sexes
3. The fairness of your education system
4. The advances of modern technology
5. The problem of computer illiteracy

Appendix 19

F. Argumentation strategies

(Adapted from Kingsbury and Wellman 1986: 35)

You already know many ways of prefacing a simple opinion (see, e.g., Discourse markers): <u>in my view</u>, <u>to</u> *my mind, as I see it, in my opinion, etc. Here are other strategies you may wish to employ as discussion continues.*

Persuading
> Don't you see…? Surely…! You must know that …!
> Wouldn't you agree/accept that…? But isn't it a fact (that) …?

Contradicting
> *gently*
> You seem to be forgetting… But you're missing the whole point, which is …
> Surely you are not saying… Aren't you overlooking the fact that …?
> Are you telling me (that)…? Who says (that) …?
> *bluntly*
> That's absurd! That's ridiculous! Nonsense! Rubbish!
> Come off it! You know that's not true! Come on!

Conceding half a point
> That's true, I suppose. That may be true, but …
> Yes, that's all very well, but… Yes, of course, there is that, but …
> Yes. I can see that, but on the other hand… Well, to a certain extent, yes, but ...

Dismissing a point
> That makes no difference! That's irrelevant! That's beside the point!
> But that just doesn't make sense! That has nothing to do with it!

Playing hard to convince
> What point are you making? What exactly are you getting at?
> I can't quite see your point? What do you really mean by …?
> It depends on what you mean/understand by …?

Building up an argument stage by stage
> 1. For a start/First of all, …
> 2. And what's more, …
> 3. And that's not all …
> 4. And don't forget, either, that …
> 5. Of course, another consideration must be (that) …
> 6. And finally you've got to bear in mind (that) …

TASK
Now develop an argument of about 200 words on one of the following topics. Use the six markers of 'building up the argument stage by stage'. You can also choose your own topic for argumentation.

1. Printed books versus electronic books
2. PCs versus laptops
3. A nuclear power station in Estonia: yes or no?
4. Education is the single most important factor in the development of the country

Appendix 19

G. Markers of comparison and contrast

(Adapted from White and McGovern 1994: 68)

Comparison within sentences

❑ X is   very   like Y   in terms of   quality/size/expense.
     X and Y are   quite   similar   with respect to
     X is   rather   similar to Y   with regard to
❑ X resembles Y   in that   they are both large/expensive.
❑ X is   exactly/precisely/just/virtually/almost/nearly the same as Y.
❑ Both X and Y   are   large/expensive/sophisticated/compatible.
     X is as large as Y.
     X is not larger than Y.
     X is the same size as Y.
❑ X is costly to buy   and   it is also costly to maintain.

Comparison between sentences

❑ X is expensive to buy.   Similarly, it is expensive to maintain/operate.
     Likewise,
     Moreover,
     Furthermore,
     In addition,

Contrast within sentences

❑ X is unlike Y   with respect to   size/expense/durability.
     X differs from Y   with regard to
     X and Y differ   in terms of
     X is different from Y   *in that X is*   *smaller/ more expensive/ more durable.*

     X contrasts with Y
❑ X has four Zs   whereas/while/but/yet/although   Y has three.
❑ Y is   considerably/a great deal/   smaller than X.
     rather/somewhat/ a little/slightly/   more expensive than X.
     scarcely/(very)much/only just

Contrast between sentences

❑ X is expensive to buy.   However,   it is cheap to operate.
     By/In contrast,   it is cheap to maintain.
     On the other hand,   it is easy to install.

Appendix 19

H. Academic style and register

(Adapted from White and McGovern 1994: 71)

*You may sometimes want to be **direct** (i.e., show commitment) and emphasise that something is definitely true . At other times, you may want to be **tentative** (i.e., avoid commitment) and say that you are not completely certain about something, or that there is some doubt about the facts Here are some strategies that you can use.*

Ways of showing commitment (more frequent in oral discourse):
1. Use first person pronoun as subject (*I, we*);
2. Use verbs with first person subject: *I advocate/believe/feel/know/mean/think*, etc.;
3. Use personalised expressions: *it seems to me; from my point of view; in my view,* etc.;
4. Use verbs like *should, must, ought to*;
5. Use attitudinal signals such as:

assuredly	*it is clear that*	*beyond question*	*it is undeniable that*	*rightly*
certainly	*unarguably*	*beyond doubt*	*obviously*	*wrongly*
definitely	*undoubtedly*	*indisputably*	*significantly*	*(un)fortunately*
clearly	*unquestionably*	*undeniably*	*plainly*	

Ways of 'hedging' or avoiding commitment (in written discourse):
1. Avoid using first person pronouns;
2. Use impersonal subjects such as '*it*';
3. Use the passive voice so as to avoid specifying an agent or 'doer':
   It can be imagined ...
   Large numbers of foreign students have been admitted ...
4. Use verbs like *could, would, may, might, appear, seem, tend, suggest, suppose, be likely/feasible/probable/possible that, etc.*;
5. Use attitudinal signals such as:

apparently	*arguably*	*in theory*	*hypothetically*	*possibly*
seemingly	*admittedly*	*supposedly*	*unexpectedly*	*probably*
allegedly	*theoretically*	*superficially*	*ideally*	*presumably*
on balance	*conceivably*			*regrettably*

Directness versus tentativeness:
It is clear that ...
It seems/appears/tends to be clear that ...
It would seem/appear clear that ...
It seems/appears that ...
It would seem/appear that ...
It is likely /feasible/probable/possible that ...
It seems/appears probable that ...
It would seem/appear possible that ...

Appendix 19

I. Most frequent epistemic devices in English academic writing

Table. Most frequent epistemic devices in English academic writing (McEnery and Kifle 2002: 194)

Modal verbs
could
couldn't
may
might
should
shouldn't
would
wouldn't
will
won't

Adjectives
apparent
certain
clear
likely
obvious
evident
possible
probable
sure
unlikely

Nouns
assumption
belief
certainty

chance
claim
danger
doubt
estimate
evidence
explanation
fact
fear
hope
idea
opinion
possibility
tendency
theory
view

Lexical verbs
appear
argue
assume
believe
claim
doubt
estimate
expect
indicate
know

predict
presume
propose
seem
speculate
suggest
suppose
tend
think

Adverbs
about
actually
almost
always
(not) always
apparently
approximately
around
certainly
clearly
commonly
definitely
doubtless
essentially
evidently
frequently
generally

in fact
in general
in theory
in X's opinion
indeed
largely
likely
maybe
never
naturally
necessarily
normally
obviously
of course
often
perhaps
possibly
presumably
quite
rarely
relatively
sometimes
surely
undoubtedly
usually

Apppendix 19

J. Strategies for speaker-listener interaction

SPEAKER:

Checking understanding while speaking
Have you got that?
Are you with me so far?
Is that all right?
Is that clear enough?

Responding to questions
I'm coming to that in a minute.
I'd prefer to deal with that point later.
Yes, (I think) that's an interesting question.
That's a very good question.
I'm glad you raised that point.
I'm afraid I don't know the answer to that one.
I obviously didn't explain it clearly enough. Let me put it another way.
I'd like to say something else on that subject.
Hold on a minute. I'm thinking of an answer.

Restating the question
Listener: I'd like to ask what you think is the most effective treatment for this conclusion?
Speaker: What is the most effective treatment for this condition?

Introducing a speaker
1. Welcoming the audience: …
2. Introducing the speaker: …
    Ms Brown has kindly agreed to come along to speak to us about …
    Ladies and Gentleman, Ms Mary Brown … (clapping)
    It gives me great pleasure to introduce Ms Mary Brown … (clapping)
3. Thanking the speaker: …
    On behalf of everyone here, I'd like to thank Ms Brown for a most interesting/entertaining/enlightening/informative talk.
    Thank you very much indeed, Ms Brown. I'm sure I'm speaking for everyone when I say how much we've appreciated your being here today.

LISTENER:
Asking for clarification
I'm afraid I didn't follow your point/the bit about … Could you go over that again?
Could you go over what you said about …?
Could you explain what you meant when you said that …?
Could you give an example of (what you meant by) …?
Could you expand a little on what you said about …?

Could you be more specific about …?
Could you clarify what you said about …?
I'm still a bit confused about …
I'm still unclear/not quite clear about ...
I m still a little unclear as to what/why/how ...

Making your questions clear
I'd like to ask something about … (*the question follows*)
I have a question about … (*the question follows*)
You mentioned … (*the question follows*)
You referred to … (*the question follows*
Could I go back to the point you made about …? (*the question follows)*
I was interested in your comments on … (*the question follows*)

Pursuing a question
Sorry, I'm still not quite clear about …
That's not really what I was asking. My question was about …
Perhaps my question wasn't clear. What I'd like to know is …
I see what you mean, but don't you think that …?
I see you point, but …

Summarising to check that you have understood the speaker
So, what you're saying is that …
Just to make sure I've got that …
If I could just recap a moment/go back over that …

Expressing opinion
My (own), (personal) view (on this matter) is that …
Personally, I think that …
From my point of view …
It's my belief/opinion that …
The way I look at it is this …
As far as I can see …/As far as I'm concerned.../As I see it …
I understand both sides of the argument (points of view), but on balance I think that …
It is sometimes said that …, but my own view is that …
It is widely believed that … However, personally, I think that …
There is some evidence that …
It's my considered opinion that …
There is no doubt (in my mind) that …
It's quite clear/evident/obvious that …
I don't think there can be much doubt that …
I think it would be fair to say …
As far as I'm able to judge …
It seems to me that …
I would say that …

APPENDIX 20

Paragraph development: Sample tasks

Student written paragraphs collected in the experimental EAP writing module

TASK I

> *Choose **one** of the paragraphs on Television below and make it more coherent. In the revising process, try to maintain as much of the original text as you can:*

Paragraph 1
Nowadays the proportion of television has arisen. Many people watch television more than 6 hours a day. For example, children come home from school at 3 o'clock and turn on the TV and in most cases the TV stays on until 11 o'clock in the evening when they go to sleep. It is not very good for their eyes and they know it, but they still watch it. There are many commercials in TV and companies use television to advertise their products. Advertising is a main income for television, thus ? it is quite expensive. In cocnlusion, television has become an inseparable part of our life.

Paragraph 2
Today, we have so many TV channels, that even scanning them may take about half an hour. For example, when you have a satellite system, you have a chance to watch up to thousand TV channels and about 500 radio channels. Full of variety of TV channels offer everyone to watch what they desire.

Paragraph 3
The Asian action movies are different from the American ones. First of all, the script is usually much more complicated. Therefore, the movies are more interesting for intelligent people. On the other hand some people may find complexity too difficult to understand. Secondly the characters of Asian movies are not strictly good or evil but something in the middle which makes the movies more true to life. Thirdly, the visual art in Asian movies is much more pleasant and varied than the similar special effects in Hollywood movies. In conclusion, the Asian Action movies are more complex and entertaining to many people.

Paragraph 4
Television is a result of a technical progress. It opened a door in a visual communication between large distances and made people to discover the world. Television affects people in many ways. But is it all as good as it seems to be? I am sure it isnt'. First of all television has a very big influence on masses and wrongly presented information can lead to serious consequences. There were cases, when publical opinion on some subject was based on facts improperly presented on the TV. Moreover, television tries to do everything to make people spend more time in front of their TVs. It makes some kind of zombies from people by fetching their minds and showing them useless and silly advertisements and soap operas. It makes all of as TV addictive in some degree despite the fact that we have many other things to do and that are much more

important for us. Finally, television has some positive factors as well like educational programs and entertainment like films and music. But despite all good sides of a television, we should not underrate it's power over each of us and should be very careful to trust everything we are told by it means.

Paragraph 5
Violent cartoons make children violent. Children, who watch cartoons, where the characters kill and hurt each other, can try to do the same in real life. Children think it's a good thing because in the cartoon the characters., after they get hurt, are in full health again. Children, who try to hurt other children, may turn into very violent people, when they grow up. In conclusion, children could become serial killers just because they are watching cartoons.

TASK II
Write a 200–250-word text evaluating your peers' paragraphs displayed in TASK 1. While giving your opinions on these paragraphs, refer back to the instructional handouts distibuted to you in class. Be sure to follow the principles of paragraph development.

APPENDIX 21

Essay framework: A five-paragraph essay

Introductory paragraph
- engages the reader's interest
- provides context and background information to set up the **thesis statement**
- begins or ends with the thesis statement

Body paragraphs
- develop, expand and support the thesis statement
- include **a topic sentence** for each paragraph
- include **supporting details** to reinforce the topic sentence

Concluding paragraph
- reviews the thesis or sums up the argument
- frames the text by reminding the reader of the purpose of writing
- ends on a strong note and thus provides a real sense of closure

Introduction

Provides the thesis statement

Body

Paragraph 1

Topic sentence

Supporting sentence

| Detail 1 | Detail 2 |

Supporting Sentence

| Detail 1 | Detail 2 |

Paragraph 2

Topic sentence

Concluding paragraph

Restates the thesis statement or summarises the text
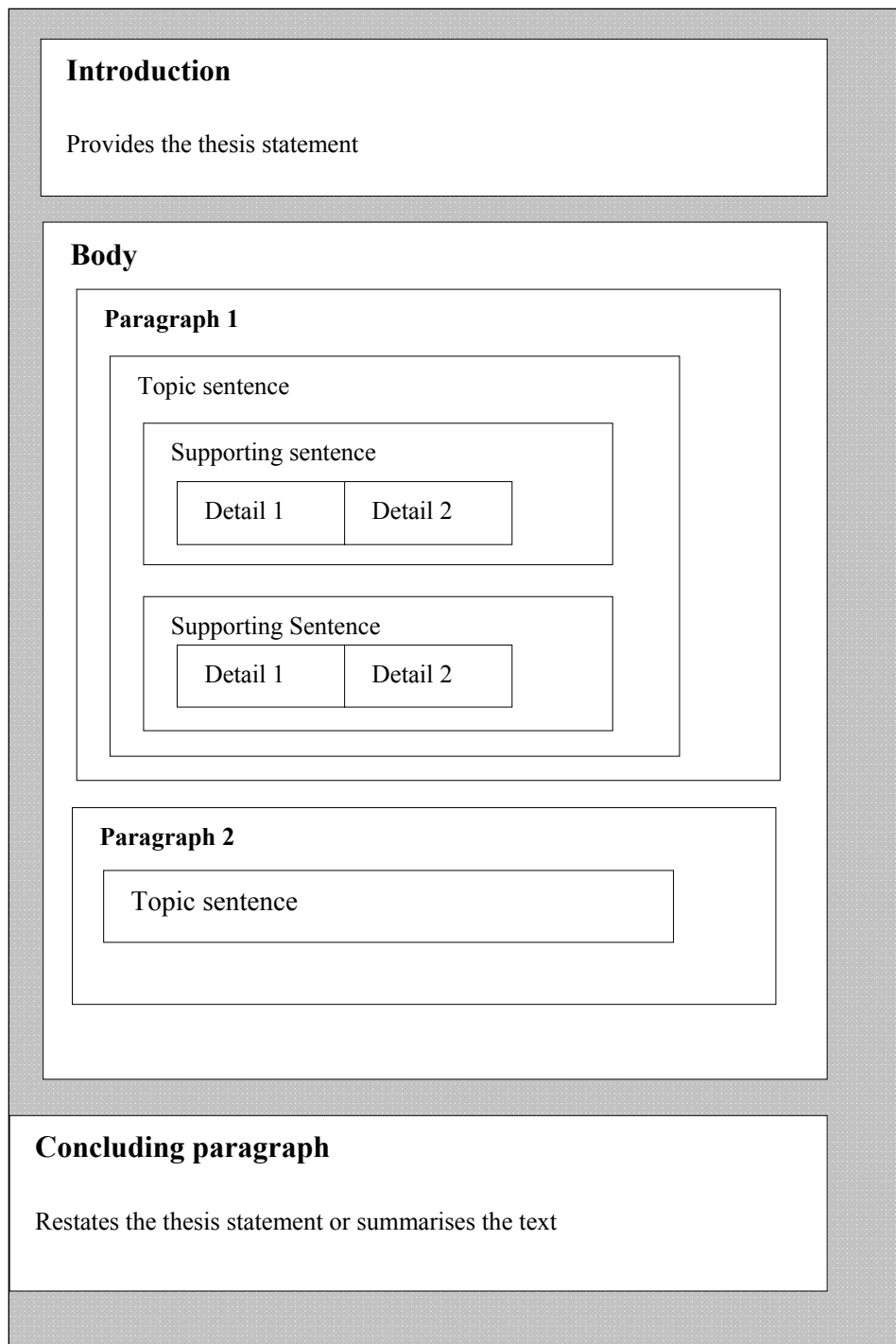
Figure. Format of a five-paragraph essay.

APPENDIX 22

Writing introductions and conclusions

(Adapted from Raimes 1999)

A good introduction
- is complete and independent and does not depend on the reader's being aware of an assigned topic;
- provides context and background information to set up the thesis;
- avoids being overly general and telling the reader the obvious, such as *'Crime is a big problem …'* or *'Nowadays, TV is a popular form of entertainment…';*
- leads your reader to expect a statement of your point of view;
- defines key terms that are relevant to the discussion
- establishes the tone of the paper: informative, persuasive, personal, impersonal, formal or informal;
- does not spend time on your writing intentions ('*In this essay, I will write about…')* or make extravagant claims *('This essay will prove that…'*);
- engages the reader's interest and provides some kind of hook to make readers want continue reading.

A good conclusion
- reviews the main points and restates the thesis in new words (in a long paper);
- includes a short summary of the points you have made; however, it does not repeat too much of what you have already said (in a long paper)
- frames your text by reminding the reader of something your referred to in your introduction and by reminding the reader of your thesis
- ends on a strong note: a quotation, a question, a suggestion, a call to action, or a look to the future;
- provides a real sense of closure.

When writing conclusions
- do not introduce new ideas;
- do not use the identical wording you used in your introduction;
- do not contradict what you have said previously;
- do not be too sweeping in your conclusions — hedge instead;
- do not apologise for the inadequacy of your argument ('*I do not know much about the problem…*') or for holding your opinions ('*I am sorry if you do not agree with me…*').

APPENDIX 23

Argumentative essay: organisation templates

In an argumentative essay, the writer does not only need to communicate information but also present propositions with the supporting and opposing ideas. In this type of writing, the writer should take a stand and try to persuade the target audience to adopt differing beliefs.

Three common textual patterns can be employed in composing argumentative essays:

Type 1
Thesis statement

Supporting idea 1
Supporting idea 2
Opposing idea(s) + rebuttal (s)

Conclusion

Type 2
Thesis statement

Opposing idea(s) + rebuttal (s)
Supporting idea 1
Supporting idea 2

Conclusion

Type 3
Thesis statement

Opposing idea 1 → rebuttal
Opposing idea 2 → rebuttal
Opposing idea 3 → rebuttal

Conclusion

APPENDIX 24

Common patterns of text organisation (an extract)

General → specific. This is one of the most common ways to organise units of information; for example, defining all computers is a more general discussion than discussing the different types of computers with their specific features.

Simple → complex. Another way to arrange units of information is to begin with the simple, basic, fundamental matters and then move on to the more complex and technical ones.

Spatial movement. In the description of the physical details of something, the pattern of physical movement might be relevant; for example, moving from top to bottom, left to right, or outside to inside, etc.

Temporal movement. One of the most common patterns of text organisation is based on arranging the discussion of events in relation to the temporal sequence.

Concept → application of the concept, examples. A common pattern is to discuss a concept first in general terms and then discuss examples of its application.

Data → conclusions. Another means of text organisation is to present data (e.g., observations, experimental data, survey results, etc.) first and then move on to the conclusions that can be drawn from these data. Sometimes the conclusion is presented first followed by the data that support it.

Problem → solution. This a typical pattern of text organisation in argumentative contexts: discussing a problem or raising a question and then moving on to the solution or answer.

Simplified version → detailed version. A useful way to explain technical matters to non-specialists is to begin by discussing a simplified version of the concept, establish a solid understanding of it, and then explain it all more thoroughly in technical detail.

Thing-at-rest → thing-in-motion. This pattern involves describing the concept first and then discussing its operation or process. This approach might work well for a discussion of a technical system.

Most important → least important: A more 'rhetorical' method of text organisation is to begin with the most important/dramatic information and then move on to information that is progressively less so. This pattern can also be reversed beginning with the least valuable information and moving on to the most dramatic one.

Most convincing → least convincing: Another 'rhetorical' pattern is to start with the most convincing argument(s) — with the aim to attract attention — and then gradually move on to less convincing ones. This pattern can also be reversed building up from less convincing arguments to most convincing ones.

APPENDIX 25

Patterns of text organisation: situation-problem-solution-evaluation

Organisation of essay	

Definition:	What is tourism?
Situation:	What is the present situation regarding tourism? How did it come about? What are the main features of the situation?
Problem:	Is there a problem? If so, what is it?
Solution/ Response:	How can the problem be dealt with? What alternative solutions are there? What constraints are there on each possible solution?
Evaluation:	Which of the solutions is likely to be the most effective? What would be the result of applying each of the solutions?

Figure. Situation-problem-solution-evaluation framework (White and McGovern 1994: 51).

APPENDIX 26

Patterns of text organisation: comparison-contrast
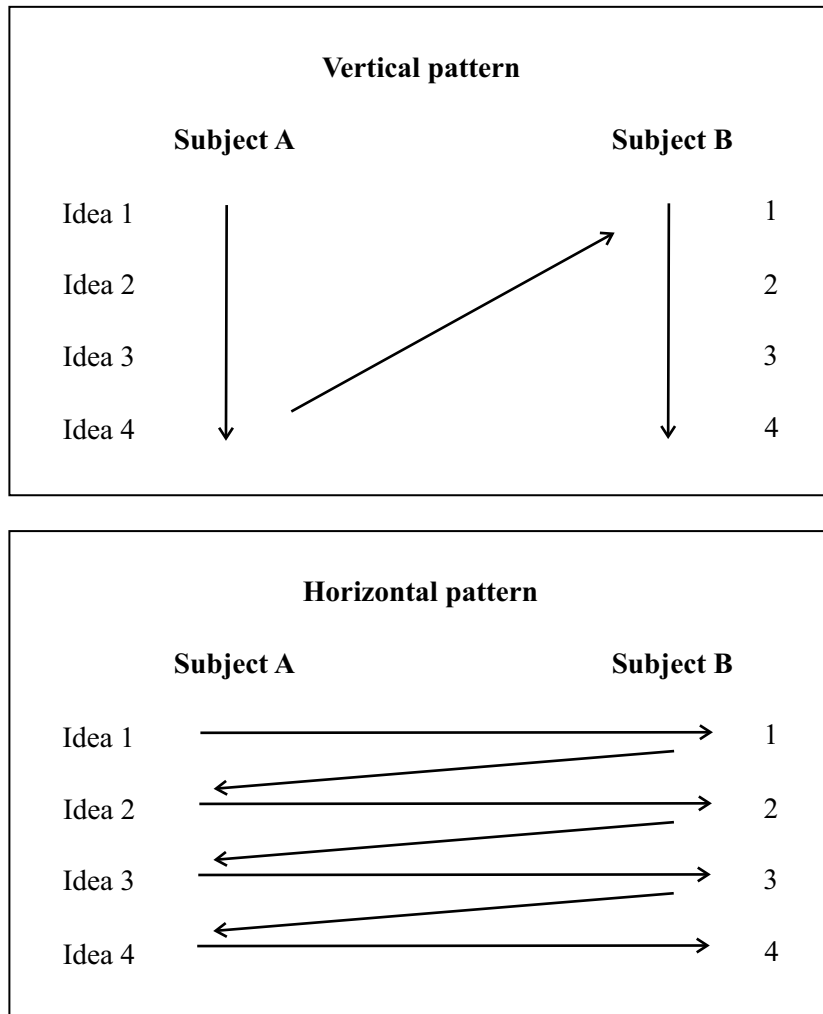
Figure. Patterns of text organisation: comparison-contrast (White and McGovern 1994: 38).

APPENDIX 27

Writing process activities in extended writing

SURVEY MATERIAL

Note references

SELECT MORE RELEVANT MATERIAL

TAKE NOTES

Note quotations

SUMMARISE

SYNTHESISE INFORMATION
FROM SEVERAL SOURCES

BRAINSTORM/START WRITING
MAIN BODY

WRITE 1st DRAFT

INCLUDE REFERENCES
+ QUOTATIONS

ORGANISE, WRITE CLEAR INTRODUCTION
+ CONCLUSION (+ ABSTRACT)

INCORPORATE ANY
TABLES OR FIGURES

WRITE 2nd DRAFT

ADD FOOTNOTES +
COMPLETE BIBLIOGRAPHY

Figure. Writing process activities in extended writing (Trzeciak and Mackay 1994: 2).

APPENDIX 28

Essay evaluation checklist A

(Adapted from White and McGovern 1994: 21)

1. Main idea
What is the writer's overall idea?

2. Writer's purpose

2.1 Is the writer's primary purpose clear? Is the purpose to:
- inform?
- persuade?
- or both?

2.2 Does the writer show how strongly he or she believes in the ideas in the essay? Are the opinions supported with evidence?

3. Content

3.1. Has enough been written about the subject to cover the topic or question adequately?

3.2. Is all the information relevant to the topic?

3.3 Are the main ideas supported by specific examples or evidence?

3.4 Are there any gaps in the information?

3.5 Is there too much information on some points?

4. Structure of text

4.1 Is there a clear introduction and a clear conclusion?

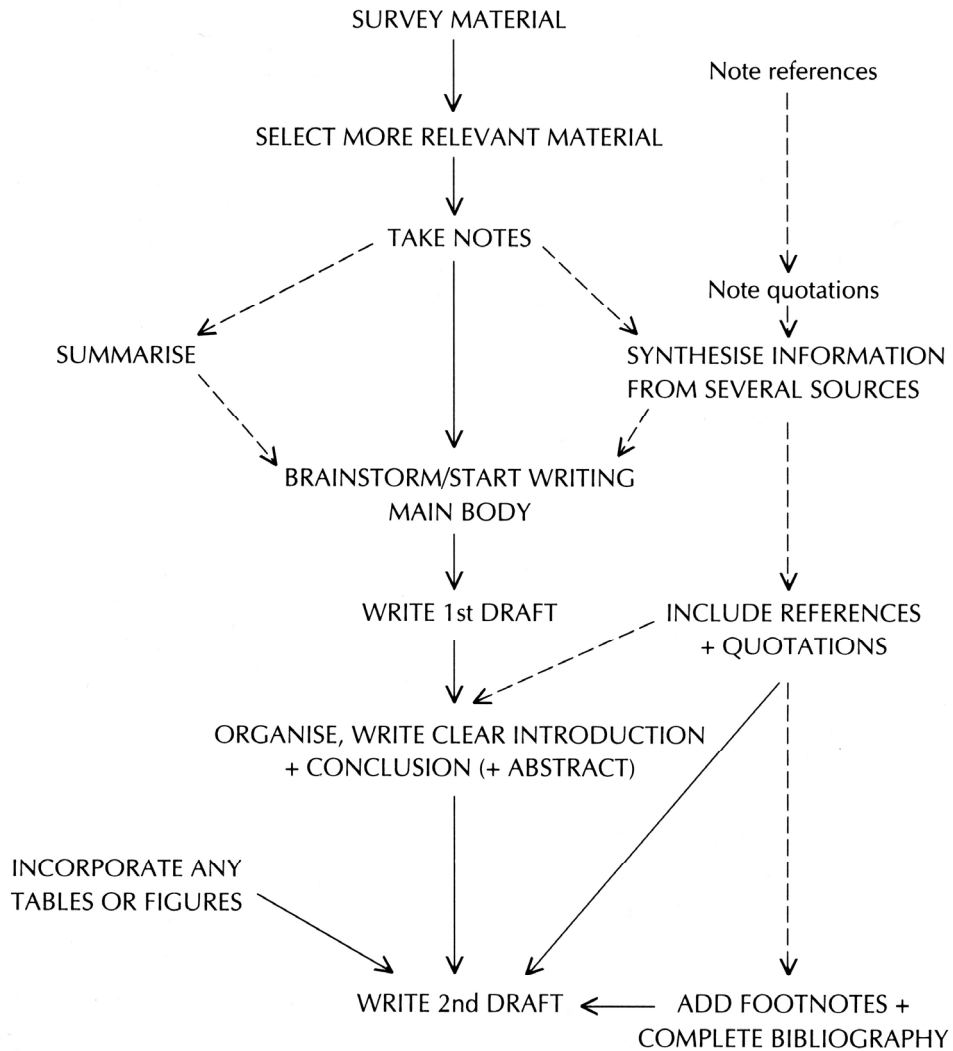**4.2** Is the sequence of ideas clear – earlier to later, general to particular, thesis to supporting points, supporting points to conclusion, weaker arguments to stronger arguments? If not, would it help to rearrange the order of ideas?

4.3 Paragraphs
- (a) Does the text have clear paragraph divisions?
- (b) Is each paragraph built around one main idea or topic?
- (c) Do the paragraph divisions match the organisation of ideas in the plan?
- (d) If not, should any of the paragraphs be:
  - joined together?
  - divided into smaller units?
  - rearranged?

5. Cohesion
(Students are directed to handouts displayed in Appendices 19A, 19B and 19G)

5.1 Do the connections between the ideas need to be made more clear or explicit?

5.2 If connecting words like the ones below have been used, have they been used appropriately? Do they give the reader a sense of 'flow' in the writer's ideas? Or do the ideas simply read like a list?

Types of connectors

'And' type: *furthermore, moreover, in addition, further*

'So' type: *therefore, as a result, accordingly, consequently, thus*

'Or' type: *in other words, to put it more simply*

'But' type: *however, yet, nevertheless*

Other connectors include:
- *who*
- *which*
- *that*
- *when*
- *where*
- *because*
- *since*
- *although*

5.3 Use of reference items – words such as *it, they, this, these, those*
- (a) Is each reference item used clearly? Can you easily identify the word or phrase which each one refers to?
- (b) Is each reference item used appropriately?

6. Response as readers

6.1 Does the opening paragraph make you want to read on?

6.2 Do you feel satisfied with the way the text comes to an end?

6.3 Indicate your interest in the text as a whole, using a scale from 1 to 5 where 1 is very interesting and 5 is not interesting.

APPENDIX 29

Essay evaluation checklist B

Compiled by Rummel in 2004; revised and developed throughout the experimental study (2004–2008)

1. Response as readers
- ✓ Does the opening paragraph make you want to read further?
- ✓ Do you feel satisfied with the way the text comes to an end?
- ✓ Is it easy to follow the ideas in the text?

2. Main idea and writer's purpose
- ✓ Does the writer's main idea come across?
- ✓ Is the writer's main idea expressed clearly?
- ✓ What is the writer's main idea?
- ✓ Is the purpose to inform, persuade or argue?
- ✓ Does the writer show how strongly he or she believes in the ideas expressed? Does the writer hedge?

3. Content
- ✓ Is the topic covered adequately?
- ✓ Is all the information relevant to the topic?
- ✓ Are the main ideas supported by specific examples or evidence?

4. Text organisation
- ✓ Does the text look well organised?
- ✓ Is the information in the logical order?
  Introduction
- ✓ Is there a clear introduction?
- ✓ Does the introductory paragraph have a clear thesis statement?
- ✓ Does the introductory paragraph have general sentences?
  Body:
- ✓ Is the pattern of organisation appropriate for the topic?
- ✓ Is the sequence of ideas clear:
  - · earlier to later
  - · general to specific
  - · thesis to supporting points
  - · supporting points to conclusion
  - · weaker arguments to stronger arguments, etc.?
- ✓ Are the main ideas listed in the most effective order? Should the order of ideas be rearranged?
- ✓ Is each paragraph given enough development (e.g., supporting details, examples, etc.)?
- ✓ Is there enough discussion and analysis of examples?

Conclusion:
- ✓ Is there a clear conclusion?
- ✓ Is there a concluding sentence: a (re)statement of the thesis or summary of the main points?

5. Paragraph organisation

- ✓ Does the text have clear paragraph divisions? Are the paragraph divisions logical?
- ✓ Does each paragraph have unity?
- ✓ Is each paragraph built around one main idea or topic?
- ✓ Should any of the paragraphs be:
  - · joined together
  - · divided into smaller units
  - · rearranged?
- ✓ Does the text have a variety of sentences?

Topic sentences
- ✓ Does each paragraph have a topic sentence?
- ✓ Does it have a controlling idea?

Supporting sentences
- ✓ Do all the sentences support the topic sentence?
- ✓ Do the supporting sentences flow smoothly?
- ✓ Are there any unclear sentences?
- ✓ Are transition signals used effectively both within and between sentences?

Concluding sentences
- ✓ Is there a concluding sentence?
- ✓ Does it begin with an appropriate end-of-paragraph signal?

Sentence structure
- ✓ Is the text checked for
  - · choppy sentences
  - · stringy sentences
  - · lack of parallelism
  - · run-ons and comma splices
  - · lack of referencing or faulty referencing

6. Cohesion and coherence

Surface organisation
- ✓ How well do sentences connect with those that come before and those that follow? Are sentences joined smoothly or do they read like a list?
- ✓ Do some sentences need to be combined?
- ✓ Do some sentences need to be divided?
- ✓ Are the clauses/sentences/paragraphs parallel in structure?
- ✓ Are key words appropriately used to achieve coherence?

Connectors
- ✓ Have connecting words/transition signals been used? Have they been used appropriately?
  - · starting the paragraphs
  - · connecting the paragraphs
  - · connecting the sentences
  - · connecting clauses

✓ Have too many connectives been used?
✓ Do the connections between ideas need to be made more explicit?
✓ Are reference items (e.g., *it, they, this, these, those*, etc.) used appropriately? Are those reference items used consistently throughout the paragraph?
✓ Can you easily identify the word or phrase which each one refers to?

Textual patterns
✓ Is the logical order of ideas applied?
- chronological
- general-specific
- problem-solution
- cause-effect
- comparison-contrast
- real-hypothetical
- claim-justification
- any other?

7. Argumentation and style
✓ Is appropriate academic style used? Is the text in the consistently formal style?
✓ Is style and register consistent**?**

8. Vocabulary
✓ Is the general/specialist/technical vocabulary accurately used?
✓ Should synonyms for some words be used?
✓ Should key words be repeated more often for better cohesion?

9. Grammar and mechanics
✓ Are there any errors in grammar and mechanics? (*for these errors consult Essay Evaluation Checklist C*)

APPENDIX 30

Essay evaluation checklist C

(An extract adapted from White and McGovern 1994: 30)

4. Vocabulary

4.1 Is specialist or technical vocabulary accurately used?
- If written for a general audience, is each term clearly explained when it first occurs?

4.2 Is general vocabulary accurately used?
- Have words been chosen with an accurate sense of their meaning as well as their use in this context? Can you think of better synonyms for some words?

4.3 Is the writing in a consistently formal style?

5. Grammar

5.1 Do subjects and verbs agree — are singular and plural subjects used with the correct verb forms?
- Is *s* or *es* used at the end of the third person singular, present simple tense (stem + *s* or *es*)?

5.2 Sometimes *it* or *there* are needed as an impersonal subject. Has either of these words been omitted from an impersonal construction? Example:
  > *There are many reasons for this conclusion.*
  > *It has been shown that this is not always the case.*

5.3 Verb tenses
- Are verb tenses correctly formed and correctly used?
- Are the present simple and present continuous used correctly? Is the present continuous used too often?
- Are the simple past (often used with an adverb of time) and the present perfect used correctly?
- Are the present passive verbs formed correctly? Are passive verbs in the simple past formed correctly? Is the auxiliary verb present (e.g. *is/are, was/were*)?
- Are too many passive verb forms used – is the passive used where it is not needed?

- Are the past tenses of irregular verbs formed correctly?

5.4 Check that the following are correct:
- Differences between *other* and *another*.
- Is *this* used with a singular noun and *these* with a plural noun?
- Are countable and uncountable nouns used correctly?
- Differences between the negatives *no* and *not*.
- Are the comparatives and superlatives of adjectives and adverbs formed and used correctly?

5.5 Check the correct use of:
- Prepositions – *in, on, at, for, to,* etc.
- Articles – *a, an, the*
- Relative pronouns – *who, which, that*
- Possessive pronouns – *his, her, their, its*

6. Mechanical accuracy

6.1 Punctuation
- Does each sentence end with an appropriate mark of punctuation? (e.g., full stop, question mark, exclamation mark)
- Is punctuation correctly used within sentences? (e.g., comma, semi-colon, colon, dash, brackets (or parentheses), inverted commas/ quotation marks, apostrophe for possessive *s* (*'s* or *s'*)

6.2 Capital letters
- Are capital letters used where they are needed? Are they used where they are *not* needed?

6.3 Spelling
- Check the spelling of words that you are not sure about in a dictionary, or use the spelling checker if you are working on a word processor.

APPENDIX 31

Common writing problems: A task sheet for students

PART A: TEXT ORGANISATION

TASK 1. Taking a stand

Write more convincing theses:

Smoking is hazardous to health.

There are many homeless people nowadays.

Working while studying has advantages and disadvantages.

TASK 2. Patterns of organisation: Macrostructures

Consider the following example of the situation-problem-solution-evaluation (SPSE) framework:

I am a foreign student living in Britain (S). I find it very difficult to meet British students (P). I will join some university clubs so as to meet some students (S). This should help to put me in contact with British students (E).

(Adapted from White and McGovern 1994)

Now read the following letter of complaint and then develop a new outline for the letter using SPSE framework:

Dear Sir,

Recently, I have noticed a marked increase in the number of dogs kept by families on my estate. I have lived on a public housing estate for more than 10 years. Tenants living on the estate are now allowed to keep dogs. However, I find the quality of management of my estate deteriorating. The rules are there for reason. The dogs make the estate dirty and they bark at night, keeping residents awake. However, in spite of the ban on dogs, the management has done nothing about the problem. I hope that the officer will take some action.

(Adapted from Lee 2000)

TASK 3. Given/new information

Choose an effective path of information through a paragraph:

1. Climatologists have predicted that the continual warming of the earth's surface, known as the 'greenhouse effect', could have dramatic consequences.
2a. The melting of the polar ice caps could be one result.
2b. One result could be the melting of the polar ice caps.
3a. This melting would, in turn, cause a rise of the sea level.
3b. A rise of the sea level would, in turn, be caused by this melting.
4a. Coastal flooding would occur as the sea level rises.
4b. As the sea level rises, coastal flooding would occur.
5a. Such disastrous effects might be lessened to some degree by cloud reactions.
5b. Cloud reactions might lessen to some degree such disastrous effects.

Revise the paragraph for more effective flow of information:

Research Writing is probably the most valuable course for college students. The assignments for this course are three expository essays and two long research papers. Thus the course requires a great deal of students' time, often too much in their view. But future success in college is almost synonymous with passing Research Writing. Some of the benefits of the course are gaining greater familiarity with the library and developing organizational skills, analytic ability, and smooth writing style. Some of its disadvantages are cramped fingers, bloodshot eyes, and irritability before deadlines. Only first-year students may take Research Writing.

(Adapted from Vande Kopple 1997)

TASK 4. Parallelism

Rewrite the following sentences in parallel form:

1. You can charge both at restaurants and when you stay at hotels.
2. Many people carry not only credit cards but they also carry cash.
3. With credit cards, you can either pay your bill with one check, or you can stretch out your payments.
4. The disadvantages of using a credit card are overspending and you pay high interest rates.

Rewrite the following paragraph in parallel form:

This text talks about KVM switching technology which enables you to put two PC's after one monitor, mouse and keyboard. In the article there are several KVM switches compared and there are brought out the main advantages and disadvantages of those switches. Detailed functions and hardware support has been also brought out in the end of the article.

TASK 5. Unclear or faulty references

Make references in the following sentences clear:

1. Mary saw her mother as <u>she</u> was walking across campus.
2. Take the radio out of the car and fix <u>it</u>.
3. The supervisor told the workers that <u>they</u> would receive bonus.
4. If the fans do not eat all the peanuts, pack <u>them</u> away until the next game.

Make references in the following extract clear:

If you have a Pentium 200 on a motherboard, you change the settings to make the board think you are running the next extra fastest Pentium, you could try 233 MHz if you're brave. <u>This</u> works because the chip does not have an inherent speed. <u>It</u> accepts the speed given to <u>it</u> by the motherboard. If you are lucky <u>this</u> will work. If <u>it</u> doesn't work, you may have periodic errors and crashes.

TASK 6. Arranging sentences into a logical whole

Arrange the sentences into a logical whole and supply appropriate cohesive devices:

1. The number of young smokers has increased recently.
2. They enjoy smoking.
3. It helps them relax and they enjoy the taste.

4. They think smoking is a fashion.
5. They think if they don't smoke, they will not be accepted by their peers.
6. Smoking is bad for their health.
7. There is a need to help them give up the habit.
8. The government should put more emphasis on health education.
9. Youngsters should be told the risks of smoking to discourage them from starting and encourage them to quit.
10. Such a measure is more effective than using posters.

(Adapted from White 1995b)

PART B: STYLE

TASK 1. Nominalisation
Revise the sentences for better readability:
1. Measurement of the internal diameter was performed by the probe.
2. The test substance is easily absorbed; therefore, spillage of the material with the skin must be avoided.
3. While using this thin wall material a reduction in costs would be obtained.
4. The discovery of the aliens was made by the government, etc.

TASK 2. Verbosity: Unnecessary words
Find the unnecessary words:
1. … potential hazards must be identified and examined.
2. …they are not normally of critical nature.
3. … ribbon showed surface roughness to a bad degree.
4. … the control room should be located adjacent to the scanner room.
5. … especially when the farmer can visibly see the tapeworm segments.
6. … the error signal is suitably processed.

TASK 3. Verbosity: Redundant words
Find the redundant words. Use one word for several ones:
1. The reason for this increase in tissue levels was probably due to de-novo bio-synthesis.
2. If problems arise in your office with regards to the completion of the CNF …
3. We are at present time in communication with the Board regarding the scheme to ….
4. Within a comparatively short period they will need 15 tonnes per month ….
5. No concentration of leaking oil was detected in the immediate vicinity of the machine.

TASK 4. Formal and informal words

Provide as many formal equivalents for the following words as you can:

Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal
to get		to want	
to help		to ask	
to stop		to tell	
to begin		to need	
to use		to live	
to get bigger		to make	
to get smaller		useful	
to give		people	
to show		good	
to leave		bad	

TASK 5. Informal versus formal style

Try to improve the style of the sentences:

1. With women especially, there is a lot of social pressure to conform to a certain physical shape.
2. Significantly, even at this late date, Lautrec was considered a bit conservative by his peers.
3. It focused on a subject that a lot of the bourgeois and upper-class exhibition-going public regarded as anti-social and anti-establishment.
4. Later Florey got together with Paul Hines in an experimental study of the use of curare to relieve the intractable muscular spasms which occur in fully developed infection with tetanus or lockjaw.
5. When a patient is admitted to a psychiatric inpatient unit, the clinical team should avoid the temptation to start specific treatments immediately.
6. Therefore after six months the dieter is behaving according to all twenty-six goals and she has achieved a big reduction in sugar intake.
7. Modern houses have so many labour-saving things that it is difficult for the person at home to have adequate exercise by doing chores, cooking, and looking after a family.
8. Simply making the effort to reclaim this wasted stuff for fertilizer would have a positive effect on greenhouse releases.
9. It is difficult to imagine exactly what is meant by saying that such a classification is natural as any collection of things could be classified in this way.
10. Unfortunately, since there are so many possible explanations, the correct one is most difficult to find out.
11. These exercises can easily be incorporated into an exercise routine, with each exercise done again a number of times.
12. Fleming did well in isolating a streptococcus from the cerebrospinal fluid of the patient.

13. Effective vaccines prevent such hazards, but only if a social organization makes sure that all potential mothers are vaccinated in good time.

TASK 6. Hedging

Identify the expressions of showing or avoiding commitment in the following sentences:

1. For our present purpose, it is useful to distinguish two kinds of chemical reaction, according to whether the reaction releases energy or requires it.
2. It appears to establish three categories: the first contains wordings generally agreed to be acceptable, the second wordings which appear to have been at some time problematic but are now acceptable, and the third wordings which remain in admissible.
3. For example, it may be necessary for the spider to leave the branch on which it is standing, climb up the stem, and walk up another path.
4. There is experimental work to show that a week or ten days may not be long enough and a fortnight to three weeks is probably the best theoretical period.
5. For example, it is possible to see that in January this person weighed 60.8 kg for eight days.
6. There is no difficulty in explaining how a structure such as an eye or a feather contributes to survival and reproduction; the difficulty is in thinking of a series of steps by which it could have arisen.

Write more tentative versions of the given sentences.

1. The commitment to some of the social and economic concepts was less strong than it is now.
2. The lives they chose seem overly ascetic and self-denying to most women today.
3. Weismann proved that animals become old because, if they did not, there could be no successive replacement of individuals and hence no evolution.
4. By analogy, one can walk from one point in hilly country to another by a path which is always level or uphill, and yet a straight line between the points would cross a valley.
5. There are cases where this would have been the only possible method of transmission.
6. Weismann proved that animals become old because, if they did not, there could be no successive replacement of individuals and hence no evolution.
7. Nowadays these symptoms are of a lesser importance.

APPENDIX 32

Sample task: Common problems in student English writing

Samples collected in the experimental EAP writing module

TASK: (an extract)

Revise these sentences for better flow and logic. Consider the issues such as lack of parallelism, verbosity, unnecessary repetition, faulty reference, broad pronoun reference, lack of reference, over-nominalisation, overloaded sentences, improper placement of given-new information, lack of use or misuse of transitional phrases, etc.

1. Every system has its problems and none of them are as intelligent as human brain can be.
2. Artificial intelligence refers to computer or another machine which solves problems that needs intelligence, but they can resolve certain and specific functions.
3. Therefore, parents need to think and control what their children watch because nowadays we have more and more violence TV today shows more and more films in which we often can see fights, murders and may be because of this children become aggressive.
4. Article 1 talks about KVM switching technology which enables you to put two PC's after one monitor, mouse and keyboard. In the article there are several KVM switches compared and there are brought out the main advantages and disadvantages of those switches. Detailed functions and hardware support has been also brought out in the end of the article.
5. This article talks about a company that is basically trying to fraud people into buying their computers by spreading false information about computers. The author of the article goes investigating those claims that the company has made and finally exposes the scheme by which the company operates.
6. Article 3 is a debate over open source and whether it can save hardware. The author thinks that software is limiting new hardware from going out because there has not been any new innovations in the software market because large corporate companies are ruling the industry. He brings out several examples and finally concludes that the open source community doesn't have the necessary motivation needed to really shock the software industry.
7. To begin with, a process of the system work is a sophisticated and complex path. Firstly, raw materials must be delivered by a wan to start the work cycle. Secondly, when the raw materials are packed then they will be loaded onto a conveyor belt. After that materials could be carried to the factory floor. Lastly the goods are manufactured, then a man with a white overall and wearing big glasses will inspect the product. Finally, the delivery service is used in order to dispatch the goods.
8. Firstly, the components arrive to the factory. Then the base is dropped on the assembly line and it is carried to the first stop. At this point workers are attaching the interior and seats are secured to the base. At the next stop on assembly line the motor is lowered into the front of the car and it is connected to the gearbox and attached to the main body. After that the car is

carried to painting were it is painted according to the customer requests. Lastly, the car is checked by quality control and transported by rail to the customer.

9. At first, this text describes the characteristics of Augmented Reality systems, including a detailed discussion of trade-offs between optical and video blending approaches. Secondly, registration and sensing errors are two of the biggest problems in building effective Augmented Reality systems. Lastly, the future directions and areas requiring further research were examined

10. Firstly, X provides services like software usability and interface design, testing, project-management, business process design and they specialize in Microsoft.NET based software development.

11. Thirdly, the organization is very well balanced and a stable partner. In conclusion, X is a successful firm and quite reliable.

12. The author brings out some guidelines to follow and is writing out of experience.

13. Strengths of the corporate are big market share, long term existence in the market and product range covers all sizes of businesses.

14. For example, if you have a Pentium 200 on a motherboard, you change the settings to make the board think you are running the next extra fastest Pentium, you could try 233 MHz if you're brave. This works because the chip does not have an inherent speed. It accepts the speed given to it by the motherboard. If you are lucky this will work. If it doesn't work, you may have periodic errors and crashes.

APPENDIX 33

Student sample texts: What makes a good paragraph?

Sample 1: Level B2

When it comes to a good paragraph, first of all, the sentences must be arranged in a logical order. What is more, sentences should be in sufficient length, so that they are easily followed. A paragraph must have a topic sentence and all the other sentences (are) related to the main idea. Every idea mentioned in the paragraph should be adequately explained and supported with evidence and details. A good paragraph definitely has linking words that help to follow the writers thoughts.

Sample 2: Level B2

People write every day, but I reckon that they do not always think about paragraphs. A good paragraph should include many different things.

First of all, the length of the paragraph is very important. In my opinion, a good paragraph has about 4 to 6 sentences. However, the sentences should not be too long so that the reader could follow the point easily.

Secondly the paragraph should start with a sentence that carries the main idea. Other sentences support the main idea.

Thirdly, the last sentence of the paragraph should conclude all the previous. Then it is easy for the reader to remember the main arguments.

To conclude, if a writer wants the paragraph to be good then he has to remember all the things stated previously.

Sample 3: Level B2

Of course the first impression comes from the first look at the text. The first sentence should bring out the main idea of a paragraph. The first sentence should also generate interest. Probably a paragraph should be comprehensive, but still concise, because no-one likes to read long and pointless sentences. A very important aspect is logic. Jumping from one thought to another is not acceptable. The text should be nice and readable and it must reflect the main idea of the headline. So, during the process of writing it would be advisable to follow the headline, otherwise it is easy to miss the main idea.

Sample 4: Level C1

A paragraph is one of the central components of a text. It has three important structural parts: a topic sentence, several supporting sentences and a concluding sentence. A topic sentence is a sentence that expresses the main idea of the paragraph. It tells the reader what to expect of the information that will follow. A supporting sentence develops the topic sentence by explaining, giving reasons, examples, facts or quotations. A concluding sentence restates the main idea of the paragraph using different words and adding the solution.

A good paragraph should be unified, coherent and developed. 'Unified' means that a paragraph discusses only one main idea. 'Coherent' means that the sentences in a paragraph flow in a logical order from one point to another. The

most important aspect is that the paragraph should be well-developed. This means providing explanations, examples, clarifications and different kind of evidence to support the ideas. Strong paragraphs contain a sentence or sentences unified around one central, controlling idea.

Sample 5: Level C1

A good paragraph is a part of a text that begins with a new idea (and line). A good paragraph should always begin with an argument or statement. Then follows an explanation that expounds the argument or statement more clearly and proves it. In order to make the statement more realistic an example is required. All in all, the main three components of a good paragraph are statement, explanation and example. At the end of the paragraph, there is a sentence that summarizes the whole paragraph. When the paragraph has a clear structure then it is much easier to read and understand it.

APPENDIX 34

Student sample texts: Written peer reviews on paragraphs

See Appendix 20 for the task

Sample 1: Level B2

The right structured paragraph is an important part of an essay. A good paragraph should contain several specific elements like topic sentence, supporting sentence, concluding sentence, examples and surely main idea. Have all the particular paragraphs these required components?

Every presented paragraph has a topic sentence. However, the poorest one is in the second paragraph where the topic sentence and an example argument are joined together. This mistake should be prevented because a well done paragraph has a clear structure.

The next relevant element is the main idea. Often the topic sentence and the main idea can be found in one sentence. A good example is the first proposition of the third paragraph. No one had written so mixed paragraph where is no main idea.

It goes without saying that paragraphs should contain transition signals. In my opinion, the fourth paragraph is a great example. There can be found at least four different coherence markers. On the other hand, the worst paragraph is the last with one signal.

In general, I liked most the third paragraph where all the elements are in their right place. It is an excellent lead to everyone how wants to see a well structured paragraph.

Sample 2: Level B2

The first paragraph starts with „nowadays", my literature teacher in secondary school would have said that this would not be the best word to start an article with, because there are hundreds of people who do so and nobody wants to be ordinary. On the other hand, the whole sentence as a topic sentence suits there perfectly. It describes shortly what the whole sentence is going to talk about.

The second paragraph is about channels. As we look on the whole text, this paragraph should be a little longer, because visually it doesn't impress the reader. It seems like writer had nothing to say about it and he/she just wanted to occupy the paper with almost meaningless words. Meaningless because this paragraph seems like it doesn't belong to the text and doesn't support the unity of the article.

The third paragraph comes like out of the blue. Actually it is one of the good ones. Starts like a perfect paragraph should and fluently leads us through simple explanations to the end.

The fourth paragraph is the best one. Thanks to the opening and closing sentences and the variety of discourse markers, it is quite enjoyable. The writer even sets up a question and answers to it, therefore he/she explains why he/she thinks so.

The last one does not impress me. The topic sentence is a good one and explains the idea, however the conclusion is out of course because writer should

give solutions, what should we do, not to be hysterical while thinking about the future.

Sample 3: Level B2

This article is based on the given paragraphs. Paragraphs were written about television or sport and had quite many mistakes.

The first paragraph had a good start, but somewhere in the middle the writer changed the main idea. Since the paragraph is about one topic then an author should have stayed on it till the end.Yet he or she used some transition signals like in conclusion and for example.To sum up if the writer had stayed on the main idea the paragraph would have been without mistakes.

The second paragaraph had a main idea. However the paragraph was too short and did not have a concluding sentence. Therefore the paragraph made me feel like something has been cut off.

The third paragraph was very well written in a sense of organisation and structure. Still to my mind the writer had misunderstood the given subject: the topic movies is a whole new subject and it was not connected with the televison at all. Thus an author wrote a very good paragraph but about the wrong subject.

The forth paragraph had transition signals and a clear main idea, yet it was very long and closer to the essay than to the paragraph. Another mistake was that author used a word finally in the wrong place. In summary if an author had choosed one narrowed topic it would have been a good paragraph.

The fifth paragraph had a main idea and all the sentences supported the topic. Still in my opinion the sentences were unclear, allmost no transition signals were used and the word children was repeated too often. In conclusion a paragraph would have been better if the writer had expressed himself better. To sum up the paragraphs had many mistakes but some good points also. Many writers can emprove themself very easily, for example start using transition signals. Thus in the future the paragraphs would be much better.

Sample 4: Level C1

The five paragraphs have all some positive and negative sides. In this article I am trying to find out the main problems in them.

The first paragraph lacks the clear main idea and structure. Although it has a topic and fitting conclusive sentence, it does not have any supportive sentences. For example, the commercials as the main income for television do not seem to be supporting the idea of the topic sentence - the risen proportion of television. This paragraph should be built up more logically by stronger supportive sentences and discourse markers.

The second paragraph is definitely far too short. On top of this it does not have a topic idea nor discourse markers. It could still well be represented as a supportive sentence with an example.

The third paragraph, the best of the five, has a really good organization. It has a topic sentence, supportive sentences and a conclusive sentence. It also uses transition signals. However, the third sentence, about how people may not like complexity in movies, does not seem to be helping to clarify the main sentence. Instead, some examples could be used later for other sentences. As a whole, this paragraph still leaves the best impression.

The fourth paragraph is too long and incoherent. First of all, it is definitely out of correct format as the format is close to a whole essay. The topic should be narrowed to make it suitable for a paragraph. Also the topic sentence has nothing to do with the paragraph. A lot should be changed in this.

The fifth paragraph should have more supportive sentences, but it just has one. Furthermore, discourse markers must be added and the example sentence should be shorter and clearer too.

Conclusively, it seems that the main problems in those paragraphs are missing discourse markers and weak supportive sentences. The topic should also be narrowed. In worst cases the correct structure is completely missing.

Sample 5: Level C1

In this article I am going to review and analyse five different paragraphs on television.

The first paragraph is interesting and gives us the main problem with television — people watch it too much. The first paragraph's topic sentence and main idea are clear. However, the author goes off topic with the sentences about advertisements, these sentences do not support the topic sentence. There is a concluding sentence and it begins with an appropriate end-of-paragraph signal.

The second paragraph makes a good point about there being hundreds of channels, but it is lacking in structure. Because the paragraph is so short, there are no cohesive markers and the concluding sentence does not end with an end-of-paragraph signal. In addition, the last sentence is grammatically invalid.

I agree with the third paragraph's author about Asian action movies being different than American ones. The paragraph has a clear topic sentence and a concluding sentence. What is more, cohesive markers have been used very well as they are in every sentence.

The fourth paragraph brings out several advantages and disadvantages of television. I believe it is the most well written paragraph of the five. Obviously, there is a clear main idea and the author brings out several examples to prove his points. Cohesive markers are used well.

In my opinion, the fifth paragraph is not very well written and I do not agree with the author's idea. The word 'children' is repeated over and over. Furthermore, there are no cohesive markers, besides the last sentence. On top of that, there are several grammar errors.

In conclusion, all the paragraphs had a clear main idea and were interesting to read.

Sample 6: Level C1

The paragraphs presented were all quite different. Some of those focused on giving new ideas, others simply followed certain rules. After reading all paragraphs, the general problem seemed to be having a clear main idea. Although in most cases the idea was stated in the end, the paragraphs did not always begin with a topic sentence. Which, I assume is the matter of cultural differences. For Estonians it is not intrinsic to keep repeating things already said once.

The first paragraph fails to fulfil the requirement of unity, although it follows the classic model at some points. It begins with a rather unclear sentence, which has a great effect on the following ones. It is not clear what the writer has exactly meant by word 'proportion'. Therefore the paragraph evolves with sentences,

each one describing very different aspects of television. The conclusion of the paragraph, however, gives a better summary than the topic sentence and in general the paragraph is quite informative.

Paragraph number two has several problems. First, it lacks the topic sentence. The paragraph begins with an example followed by a statement that the example should actually be supporting. Finally, despite of grammatical incorrectness, the last sentence includes an idea that might be considered as the main idea of the paragraph. In general, the piece does not really follow any rules of writing paragraphs.

The third paragraph is well structured, with arguable examples being the only thing to complain about. The topic sentence is understandable, a little too general but supported by a number of following examples that make the main idea very clear. The statements made in this paragraph are formulated in very confident way, which usually leads to interesting discussions. In the end, as the concluding sentence clarifies the contents, it makes an excellent paragraph.

Paragraph number four includes ideas to fill more than one paragraph and therefore it does not really follow the template. The first two sentences try to define the concept of television while the following discusses the pros and cons of modern media. In the end, the author gives a warning of conspiracy that seems to be the whole meaning of the paragraph. Although the ideas are in good order, the paragraph is too long containing too many ideas at a time.

The last paragraph, despite being very laconic (or because of this), has the satisfactory structure when considering the given model. The first sentence makes a strong statement, the following two support it directly. The concluding sentence is again a very exact formulation of what this paragraph is all about. In conclusion, a well-formed paragraph is not always a very good one.

Sample 7: Level C1

After reading through all the 5 paragraphs I am ready to analyse them. I will try to detect what is wrong with the paragraphs and what I like best about the paragraphs.

Starting with the first paragraph, I like that it has a lot of sentences in there. Also, the topic sentence is very clear, so is the concluding sentence. They give the main idea in a good simple way. In fact, these two sentences are most likely the best ones in the entire paragraph. In contrast, in my opinion the supporting sentences are not that good. They are too specific and need a better topic sentence. Furthermore, different sentences in the paragraph are not really connected with each other, thus, the author should have used more transition signals. In general it is a mediocre paragraph with some problems.

Moving on to the second paragraph, the only thing that is good with it, is the way the author gives us proof after claiming something. Everything else in that particular paragraph is not alright. Firstly, the paragraph is too short — only 3 sentences. Secondly, it has neither a clear topic sentence nor a concluding sentence. Thirdly, the author does not use transition signals at all. Broadly speaking, this is a very poor paragraph.

Looking at paragraph number three, everything seems to be correct. The paragraph is neither short, nor long. It has a clear topic sentence and an ending sentence. Additionally, all the supporting sentences support the main sentence. In summary, this seems like a very good paragraph.

When it comes to paragraph four, it is very lengthy. The author should have just written two or more paragraphs instead of 1 because he or she is discussing a great deal of different ideas. The paragraph has all the necessary sentences, the concluding sentence for example. Furthermore, it has a lot of transition signals. In conclusion, this paragraph would be great if split into 2 or some smaller paragraphs.

Lastly, the fifth paragraph is a bit difficult for me to criticize, because I have written it. Nonetheless, I will still do my best. This paragraph has a clear topic sentence and controlling idea, which is used in the supporting sentences. However, the supporting sentences need more details and examples. Besides that, there are no transition signals used at all. On the whole, this paragraph is not good.

In general there were good paragraphs and those, which had some problems.

APPENDIX 35

Student sample texts: Written opinions

Sample 1: Level B2

Computer illiteracy

<u>In my view</u>, computer illiteracy is the result of fast technological development. <u>On the one hand</u>, it is good when new devices are produced. <u>On the other hand</u>, we can get to such a point when no-one knows how to use new devices. <u>At first sight</u>, computer illiteracy can be eliminated by simple computer courses. <u>In reality</u>, it is not so. First, we have to eliminate the fear of using computers. <u>In some respect</u>, this is the main problem because people are really scared of using the computer. <u>In particular</u> the elderly people are against new technology. <u>At the same time</u>, there is practically no computer illiteracy among young people. <u>In the end</u>, only a very short time is needed to improve the situation.

Sample 2: Level B2

The equality of sexes

<u>In theory</u>, the equality of sexes means men and women having the same rights and obligations, and everyone having the same opportunities in society. <u>In reality</u> it is not always so, because for example, some employers prefer men and not women to become employment. <u>On the one hand</u> I understand that women can not do every kind of work, for example, jobs in heavy industry or mines. <u>On the other hand</u> I don't agree with opinion that women must work only in feminine work places, <u>in my view</u> women should also have an opportunity to be on the make alongside of men. <u>At times</u> men are also getting higher bids and greater salaries than women, even when they work on the same position. Employers don't care that <u>in some respects</u> women can maybe work better or have some better ideas than men. For example, in beauty industry, men can be good leaders, but women usually have better ideas. <u>In short</u>, I hope that in the long run society will acknowledge women as equal with men and both will have same opportunities and obligations in the future.

Sample 3: Level C1

Computer illiteracy

<u>In my view</u>, computer illiteracy is a fairly new problem in today's society. <u>In theory</u>, everybody who uses a computer should know what they are doing, but <u>in reality</u>, most people do not. <u>On the one hand</u>, using computer services is much more efficient, but <u>on the other hand</u>, it's a bit less secure for regular people who don't understand online security. <u>In my opinion</u>, there should be two versions of online services available: one for advanced users and another one for regular users. <u>In the beginning</u> it might take some time to getting used to, but <u>in the long run</u> it would be beneficial for everybody.

<u>In the end</u>, everybody should learn more about ways to make the online experience more secure for themselves.

APPENDIX 36

Student sample texts: Written arguments

Sample 1: Level B2

Linux is a better operating system than Windows

First of all Linux is better operating system than Windows because it's legally free for users to use it and I think that is a big advantage. And what's more, when you want to update the latest and greatest version with all the features, you don't need to buy a new version. And that's not all, if you want to keep the old version, you can, because there is no obligation to buy or download new version. And don't forget, either, that Linux doesn't have any virus problems, because it's more secure than Windows. Of course, another consideration must be that Linux has more wider support from online forums, articles and most importantly the community, because there are Linux Users groups in almost every country, city and even small town. And finally you've got to bear in mind that Linux follows Free Software philosophy and hence gives its users a possibility to modify, copy and share it. And if you are a programmer you have the right to modify or fix things, because you have a source code.

Sample 2: Level C1

Computer viruses

First of all, computer viruses are programs that are usually written by 'mean' people.

And what's more, some viruses are deliberately designed to damage computers.

And that's not all! Many viruses are programmed specifically to damage the data on computers by corrupting programs, deleting files, or even erasing the entire hard drive. And don't forget, either, that some other viruses can make the computer's system crash frequently. Of course, another consideration must be that they have many other effects in that they can limit the use of certain programs, send out copies of themselves, and run resource intensive software, which will slow the computer down to a crawl. And finally, you've got to bear in mind that viruses can have a devastating effect as they disrupt productivity and cause considerable financial problems.

Sample 3: Level C1

Arguments against euthanasia

For a start, from the ethical perspective, euthanasia weakens the society' respect for the sanctity of every human-being's life, because accepting euthanasia means accepting that some lives (e.g. those of disabled, terminally ill, sick or elderly) are worth less than others.

And what's more, the most emphasized argument against euthanasia seems to be the religious one. According to Christian doctrine, any form of suicide is wrong, because god is the only one who has the right to give a life and take it away.

And that's not all! Today, there are no proper ways of regulating euthanasia nor are there any kind of strict control mechanisms, therefore, the 'slippery

slope' of voluntary euthanasia might lead to the killing of people who are thought as undesirable. This includes people who cannot take care of themselves or who are under pressure to end their lives, because they are considered as an emotional and a financial burden to their relatives or families.

And don't forget, either, that euthanasia may be a mistake if there is a chance, even the slightest, that then person might recover.

Of course, another consideration must be that there might be a failure to bring an easy death.An acceptable method may fail to kill the person within a reasonable time and so cause more suffering.

And finally you have got to bear in mind the Oath of Hippocrates, which is traditionally taken by the practitioners of medicine and it prohibits practicing euthanasia. Doctors are meant to help and save their patients not kill them.

APPENDIX 37

Samples of student pre-course and post-course experimental essays

'How can we make the Internet more effective?'

Sample 1: Level B2
Pre-course text:
The internet — the medium of today. Millions of persons are using it every day. The size of the internet is growing also from day to day, so we have to make a change to make the internet more effective.

First, stop the spammers! They are sending huge amount of bits and baits through the cables. It's useless advertising and it's just congestioning the traffic. So if we are sending an e-mail to a friend, it takes much time, because the e-mail filters must eliminate useless spam first. I hate spam and I don't want to buy any commercial training programs too.

The other big problem is viruses. Today's viruses are infecting computers through the internet. It's like spam — huge amount of network resources must deal with virus caused traffic jams. So we have to halt the bad programs. Sadly people are lazy, they just learn how to chat with a friend by MSN Messenger and they don't want to know anything about computer security.

If we want to make the net more useful, we have to learn first how to use the internet right. The young generation is smarter than the old one. But the dilemma is that technology makes us lazy. The internet itself doesn't have any limits and new ideas are developed every day.

The answer to our question is ~~to~~ eliminate the serious problems first. If the problems have gone away (which I don't believe will happen) then let's learn how to use the net.

Post-course text:
The internet is the medium of today. For sure, the number of computer users is growing from day to day and so is the size of the internet. To keep the information traffic flow properly, we have to make the net more effective. In other words, which are the steps we have to make to hold the internet in work.

First of all, spammers are sending a huge amount of useless bits and baits through the cables. This is slowing down the traffic speed, which is an important aspect of modern communication. For example, an e-mail sent to a business partner must first pass through spam filters and in reality, the queue time behind the filters 'door' can be quite long. In short, preventing the spam boosts the traffic speed.

Obviously, the other noticeable problem is clever viruses, which are fighting their way through the internet. Similarly to spam, viruses are spreading powerfully and a huge amount of network resources must deal with virus-caused traffic jams. Therefore, computer systems must be turned into more secure and foolproof systems.

In the long run, there will be a gigantic amount of information available in the internet and the problem is finding the right part of it. This is the reason why more intelligent search engines should be invented, which are separating the

required information from useless. Furthermore, some systems should eliminate the expired and valueless information. In other words, it is all about finding the right knowledge.

On the whole, the internet is growing and becoming more polluted. We have to pay more attention to common security problems, which is slowing the speed of the internet. Likewise, the unused information should be removed too. These steps can prevent the upcoming chaos.

Sample 2: Level B2

Pre-course text:

In the first sight it may be seen that it can't be made any better but it still has many weaknesses. The main reason for this is that internet is very young. For example a car is much more then 100 years old and it is quite hard to find big faults in car. So I think that in future internet has no such problems as now.

Internet has made a huge development. Such things like online banking and marketing are very competitive. All companies make efforts to have the best website because homepage is the most powerful marketing tool and it has to meet user need. Otherwise people wouldn't visit this page again and would rather find a better one. But there are still very many pages that are very hard to use and the construction isn't logical, so there is a chance to do it more effectively.

Internet makes communication very fast and cheap but there is always a risk that security isn't high enough and some third persons may get some information which isn't meant for them. These persons may also abuse the information. Security is a thing that always needs more attention.

E-mail is a very fast way to communicate and send info. But it also has its weaknesses. With e-mail you may get some viruses and there is also many mails which you don't need. Every time I look at my e-mail account there are about 5 or more junk mails. So, new filters should be developed to avoid it.

I don't think that everything should be done through the internet but it would be good if people would have an opportunity to buy, vote, communicate or do what ever they want through the internet if they want.

Post-course text:

When it comes to the internet, at first sight this new world may look perfect; in fact, it still has several weaknesses. It may be so because of its short history; for instance, the car's development has lasted more than a century and it is quite hard to find heavy demerits in the car. Therefore, the internet would also just need time to be improved.

The internet has developed a lot; such issues like online banking and marketing are today totally competitive. Most of the companies make huge efforts to create the best website because the home page is powerful marketing tool and it should meet users' needs. Otherwise, customers would find another site, which provides them with the same product. Unfortunately, some important pages are still very hard to use and their construction would require promotion.

On the one hand, the internet makes all communications very fast and cost-effective, but on the other, it brings along security risks. As far as important documents or official secrets are concerned, it has to be guaranteed that information is inaccessible for third persons who could abuse it somehow.

Security should be improved constantly as the internet can never become too secure.

As regards the users of the internet, their knowledge about internet should be developed too. A person who wants to find information from internet may spend hours in front of the computer without finding the right source in case he does not know how to search efficiently. A man who watches his Rate account every day does not need to be common user of the internet. In effect, the proficient use of the internet needs to be learned as well.

In sum, the everyday life has become more and more connected with the internet; consequently, computers and their users need to be developed to manage in this virtual environment. Although the internet is everywhere, and used by almost everybody, it still has several weaknesses that should be eliminated.

Sample 3: Level C1

Pre-course text:
I believe that everyone using the Internet have felt some great annoyance when trying to find what they need. It is quite definite that a lot should be improved.

For me, often most of the time is lost trying to work out the structure of some specific website. Every page has its own design and idea how things should be. I have a lot thought that if there were some standard for presenting data it would be a lot better. It would also be good if I could use my own design for each webpage.

The second destroying element of the internet is the overload of advertising and useless information. It is hard to stop this and is often the main way to get profit for some companies. It would be still nice if it were considered as a value to have no advertising in some page. If sponsors are needed then a it should be asked the visitor to watch an advertise before letting to see the materials.

Finally, I need to be sure wheather the information is correct in the webpages. It would therefore be perfect if the information presented is rated by some higher and trusted companies or special institutions. It is of course hard to achieve this as the information presented can be changed very quickly. Maybe some new programs for tracking could help here, but the better solution were if the people presenting their views would appreciate this as well.

Post-course text:
The Internet should be a quick, reliable and convenient information channel. Instead, everyone using the Internet has probably felt great annoyance when trying to find what they need. Definitely, a lot should be improved. I have three main ideas that could be employed to significantly develop the everyday usage of the Internet.

Websites should have a clear structure and readability. Today every webpage has different outlook. Therefore, users spend additional time to find what is needed. If all websites had a similar build-up it would be a lot more convenient to exploit them. Furthermore, the best solution would be to have the ability to own design for each webpage. However, web creators should at least carefully plan their home sites for easier reading. Conclusively, web browsing can be easily streamlined with more logical web pages.

Advertising and the amount of useless information should be reduced. For example, blinking advertisements can unnecessarily take away attention and

loosen concentration. At the same time, this marketing is often the main profit source for many companies although advertising can also be done in a pleasant and less distractive manner in several ways. All together, eliminating or simplifying advertisements on websites improves the Internet considerably.

Internet security should be raised. As a matter of fact, computer attacks and frauds from the Internet are increasing. This problem is the hardest and thus not completely avoidable. Nevertheless, every effort in this field by website and program developers helps to improve the internet in general. In addition, if the users were more aware of the internet threats, deceiving them would be much harder. On the whole, Internet security can be raised by more aware users and stronger computer systems.

To sum it up, the Internet can be made more effective in three main methods: improving webpage structure, reducing advertisements and raising security. All the same time the internet has become an important part of our society, therefore improving our relationships most excellently improves the Internet.

Sample 4: Level C1

Pre-course text

The Internet — a worldwide and publicly accessible network linking together thousands of individual networks which all together carry various information, data and services out of which most well-known are electronic mail, online chat, file transfer and World Wide Web. Since the inventing of the Internet more than 40 years ago and its explosion in everyday use about 10 years ago "the network of networks" has changed a lot. No doubt the Internet has been a useful thing over the years but how to make it more effective?

In my point of view, the first thing in improving the Internet is to make it a more secure environment. It's important to find better security solutions against identity thefts, fraud, unauthorized access, rapidly spreading viruses, online privacy and personal data revealing. Of course we ourselves have to be cautious about what information we share in the Net but protection against the creativity of cyber-criminals and people with bad intentions is never unwanted.

Another concerning aspect is the amount of information found in the Internet. It's unbelievable how much data there is, but another thing is to find exactly what you're looking for. Lot's of differently funcioning seach engines have been developed but it is still hard for people to really understand from where and how to search the information needed. I believe order and user-friendly are head-words.

The increase in file and data sharing in the Internet has resulted in more slow connection speed. Fast Wi-Fi connections are easily found in many Estonian cafes but in coming years the connection speed is something specialist will need to work on.

In conclusion I would say that in the diverse world of the Internet there are lots of things to improve and making the Internet more effective is a challenge to everybody.

Student post-text commentary:
I.   *The first paragraph (and the first sentence) are too long. The length of the introduction should be in proportion to the rest of the essay. Should not have used short forms. More linking words.*

II. I think the paragraph is great. It has 3 sentences: the topic, supporting and concluding sentences.

III. I think it is good I have presented my point of solution.

IV. Supporting and the concluding sentences are missing.

V. Where are the other sentences?

Paragraphs are not in proportion to the rest of the essay. More linking words. No spoken forms ('I would like to say').

Post-course text

The Internet is a worldwide transport mechanism for carrying various information, data and services between groupings of computers. Since the invention of the internet more than 40 years ago and its explosion in everyday use about 10 years ago this network has changed considerably. Today, questions have arisen on how to make the internet more effective and user friendly for both regular and professional users.

The first thing in improving the internet is to make it a more secure environment. It is important to find better security solutions against identity thefts, fraud, unauthorized access, rapidly spreading viruses, spy ware, junk mail, online privacy and personal data revealing. In other words, protection against the creativity of cyber-criminals and people with poor intentions is never unwanted.

Another problematic aspect is the large amount of information found in the internet. Although lots of differently functioning search engines have been developed, it is still difficult to understand where and how to search for the information required. I believe user-friendly and organized search engines are the head-words today.

In addition, the increase in file and data sharing in the Internet has resulted in slower connection speeds. Theses speeds vary depending on many conditions such as the time of the day and the amount of congestion on the Internet in general. For example, despite the fact that fast Wi-Fi connections are easily found in many Estonian cafes, the connection speed is something specialists will need to work on in the coming years.

In conclusion, in the diverse world of the Internet there are many things to improve. Security, user-friendly search engines and fast connection speeds are the aspects that we all expect when surfing in the internet. Therefore, making the Internet more effective for everyone is a challenge computer professionals have to face.

APPENDIX 38

Student sample texts: Written peer reviews on essays

Sample 1: Level B2

Are mistakes necessary in discovery and progress?

It is good to point out that X has divided his story quite well. An introduction, two medium size paragraphs and a conclusion. It is interesting that in his introduction he gives the definition of mistakes and the definition of avoiding mistakes.

In the next two paragraphs he starts to discuss if it is possible to avoid mistakes, well at least most of them. He also points out the biggest mistakes made by humankind throughout the history, which shows his extensive reading and wide conception of the world.

All in all the use of English is quite good, although there are some slips, which ruin the perfection. For instance, he used the word 'so' maybe too often and of course the lack of commas in the last two paragraphs of his text.

Finally, this is a well accomplished mission, which clearly shows X's commitment and persistence to his opinion. It is certain that this text was not a copy from the internet.

Sample 2: Level C1

Are mistakes necessary in discovery and progress?

The central theme of X's article was the necessity of mistakes for discovery and progress. The author asserts that the faults are definitely necessary because the developing process is the time, when errors are searched for. Although the author's arguments are persuasive, I do not agree with him completely because in my opinion in order to do something right you don't have to do it wrong first.

In the writer's opinion, mistakes are a good way to learn. When I considered this argument, an old story came to mind. The man, who invented the first hydrogen bomb quickly realised that maybe the chain reaction in hydrogen, that was in the bomb, would go over to the hydrogen in the nature. He calculated for a week and found that it was impossible for something like that to happen. However, if he had made a mistake in his calculations, then there wouldn't have been anyone to learn from that fault. In some cases mistakes can be fatal.

In short, the author's arguments in this article are well founded. I began to see the topic in a whole new perspective, which I hadn't thought about before.

Sample 3: Level C1

How can we make the Internet more effective?

While X has written the text very well, there are still a couple of details that should be considered.

As regards the opening paragraph, it seems quite attractive and makes me want to read the text further. However, the last sentence of the introduction repeats the title of the essay and it should therefore be rephrased.

When it comes to the body of the text, it looks well organised: each paragraph has its topic sentence and controlling idea. The well-developed paragraphs are supporting the topic sentences and the sequence of ideas is clear;

therefore, it is easy to follow the ideas in the text. The conclusion is clear as it restates the thesis and the way the text comes to an end is logical.

Although a lot of interesting technical vocabulary is used, some words may not be appropriate in the text. For example, 'in my opinion' is non-academic style and some too regular words like 'bad' and 'good' should be replaced with the academic ones as well.

The text has some grammar mistakes, which are probably just typing errors. In case the essay is being written on the computer, automatic correction should be used to avoid mistakes.

Sample 4: Level C1

How can we make the Internet more effective?

I had a great opportunity to read X's thoughts on how the Internet could be made more effective.

The introduction paragraph definitely invites to read further and I'm satisfied with the clear ending that concludes the logically ordered and easily followed ideas discussed in the essay.

I believe that X's purpose with this essay is to inform the reader that the Internet has not yet been finally developed and would need further improvement. He emphasises that aspect throughout every paragraph.

The content of the essay is well covered with relevant and up-to-date information, and examples have been given.

At first glance, his essay's layout as well as the length of each paragraph is very good. In other words, paragraphs are in perfect proportion to the rest of the essay. Although I think the extra space before the new paragraph is not really necessary.

As for the introduction, both the general sentence and the clear thesis statement have been provided. The sequence of the ideas is clear and rearranging is not needed. Each paragraph is well developed together with supporting evidence and discussion. As I stated before, the conclusion with a summary of the main point is provided.

When it comes to paragraph organisation (unity), clear and logical divisions together with a variety of sentences have been included. In my opinion, each paragraph has a strong topic sentence with a controlling idea and smoothly flowing supporting sentences. Despite X's great concluding paragraph, an end-of-paragraph signal is missing. As regards the issues of coherence, the sentences are well connected. Quite a few of the cohesive devices have also been used.

In general, the vocabulary is accurately used. Unfortunately, I noticed some minor spelling mistakes and articles missing. I presume that the constant use of 'the Internet' is intentional. On the whole, X has done a fabulous job by writing an enjoyable essay.

CURRICULUM VITAE

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Education:

1979–1984	English philologist, teacher, interpreter, University of Tartu
2003–2005	Master's studies in English Language and Literature, University of Tartu
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2006–2008	Doctoral School of Linguistics and Technology, University of Tartu

Work experience:

1984–1986	Senior Laboratory Assistant, Department of Foreign Languages, Tallinn University of Technology (TUT)
1986–1988	Head of Language Laboratory, Department of Foreign Languages, TUT
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Research activities:

1991–1993	Project Manager, Syllabus Design and Testing, the British Council
1992–1994	Project Coordinator, Upgrading Staff at Tallinn Technical University in ESP, TEMPUS Project
1995–1999	Project Manager, Baltic Advanced Writing Project, the British Council and the University of Reading, UK

1998–2000	Pan Baltic ESPELL Project, the British Council
1999	University Teaching Improvement Project, the British Council
2001–2003	Language and Content Integrated Teaching, Research and Development Project of Tallinn University of Technology
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Scholarships and grants:

1991	The British Council grant for Summer School at The University of Wales, Swansea, UK
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Administrative positions:

1993–1995	EAP programmes development board, TUT (member)
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1997–1999	õppejõud, Avatud Ülikool, Tartu Ülikool
2001–2005	lektor, inglise keele lektoraat, keeltekeskus, TTÜ
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Teadus- ja arendusprojektid:

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1995–1999	Briti Nõukogu, Readingi Ülikooli ja Balti riikide koostööprojekt akadeemilise inglise keele kirjutamisprogrammide loomiseks
1998–2000	Briti Nõukogu ja Baltimaade koostööprojekt inglise erialakeele programmide loomiseks
1998	Briti Nõukogu ja Eesti kõrgkoolide koostööprojekt noorte õppejõudude kvalifikatsiooni tõstmiseks

2001–2003	TTÜ, Helsingi Ülikooli ja Jyväskyla Ülikooli teadus-arendustöö keele ja eriala integreeritud õpetamisest
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1991	Wales'i Ülikool, Suurbritannia.
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1996	CALS, Reading'i Ülikool, Suurbritannia
2000	Homertoni Kolledž, Cambridge'i Ülikool, Suurbritannia

Administratiivne tegevus:

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1996–	TTÜ keeltekeskuse nõukogu liige
1999–2002	TTÜ Humanitaarteaduskonna nõukogu liige
2003–2009	Eesti Infotehnoloogia Kolledži Eramus programmi juht
2004–2008	Soome ja Eesti ülikoolide ja rakenduskõrgkoolide keeleõppe-jõudude töögrupi *Communication Skills Workshop* esimees

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