

**Perceptions and Practices in Learning and Teaching Second Language
Writing in English: Influences of Backgrounds and Language Skills**

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DISCLAIMER

The material presented in this thesis is the original work of the candidate except as acknowledged in the text, and has not been previously submitted, either in part or in whole, for a degree at this or any other University.

ABSTRACT

This thesis reports the findings of three studies designed to investigate the influences of backgrounds on learners and instructors in learning and teaching second language (L2) writing in English. The participants, thus, were learners and instructors of L2 writing in English. The studies took place in the ESL context of New Zealand and in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The first two studies focused on how learners from various linguistic, academic, and cultural backgrounds learned to write in English. The third study demonstrated how instructors' academic training and the context of teaching influenced their modes of teaching L2 writing in English in Bangladesh.

In the first study, 30 participants were recruited from an English Language College in New Zealand. All participants were honing their English language skills in order to embark on undergraduate or graduate studies in New Zealand. Their proficiency in the English language was similar given the results of a placement test. The age of participants ranged from 16-40 years, and they came from such countries as China, Thailand, Indonesia, Japan, and Colombia. Participants were divided based on Chinese (N=20) and non-Chinese (N=10) backgrounds. All participants completed background questionnaires, grammaticality judgement tests, vocabulary tests, and writing tasks. A critical finding of this study was that for the non-Chinese participants both vocabulary and grammar tests' scores correlated with the scores of the writing test; however, for the Chinese learners, scores in the vocabulary test did not correlate with those of the writing and grammar tests. This suggested that the L2 writers across cultures and languages did not learn to write in English exactly alike, though participants of this study also demonstrated some similar areas of L2 writing development. The study reinforced the caution about generalizing L2 writers across languages, cultures, and academic backgrounds.

The second study included 70 undergraduate students from a private university in the capital city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. The age of the participants ranged from 17-24 years, and their native language was Bangla. English language development was similar across participants given the results of an admission test and the mandatory pre-requisite English courses taken. Participants completed background questionnaires, vocabulary tests, grammaticality judgement tests, and writing tasks in English and Bangla. Participants also completed a questionnaire that gleaned information about their perceptions of writing in English and Bangla. One of the critical findings of the study was the cross-language

correlations between essays, implying that a strong or a weak writer in a first language would show similar ability levels in an L2. This study suggested that the teaching of L2 writing in English should be based on an appreciation of how the development of writing in an L1 can help or hinder the development of writing in an L2.

The third study focused on L2 writing instructors at different public and private universities in Bangladesh. This study included 46 participants who completed background questionnaires, provided feedback on a piece of writing and completed questionnaires that gleaned information regarding their styles and strategies of providing feedback. The study revealed that the areas of specialization in English studies between the junior and senior instructors significantly varied--senior instructors specialized mostly in literature, whereas the junior instructors mostly specialized in language-related areas. Despite this, their practice and perceptions of teaching L2 writing across the universities in Bangladesh did not vary significantly. This may change over time as instructors with language -area specializations become the majority in the future.

The three studies of this thesis shifted the focus from learning to teaching L2 writing across contexts and languages. The findings should inform explanation of why learners from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and with differing language abilities, learned or failed to learn to write in English. Furthermore, empirical data were presented to appreciate influences on instruction which in turn would influence the ways learners learn L2 writing in English. Such findings should support the development of theories and practices in the teaching and learning of L2 writing.

DEDICATION

Had some people not co-operated, perhaps suffered, my academic pursuit would not have succeeded. I wish I could live up to their expectations. Things turned difficult and different as I encountered pot-holes enroute to earning my Ph.D. While I stayed focused, I knew that it was taking a little longer to reach the finish-line of this Ph.D. journey. I may have annoyed and frustrated them all. I may have fractured their fortitude. I, nonetheless, know that their love for me endures all along. I'm talking about my parents. I'm talking about my wife, Israt Mannan. And, I'm talking about neurosurgeon Dr. Rashiduddin Ahmad. I owe them both apologies and gratitude. But how do I let my father know, who already passed away? I know, *Abba*, that you know, wherever you are. Love transcends spatial and temporal barriers to connect souls. Nothing severs a true bond of love. We are connected despite your disappearance. I know my dedication reaches you, *Abba*.

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They say in the U.S. that tough times do not stay, but tough people do. I am not coaxed into believing that I am one of those tough people. I, nonetheless, stayed on the right track when my academic goal looked indeed afar and unattainable. Pitfalls stalked. Hassle, hardship, and humiliation beset me. I felt panicked and perplexed. When I discovered that my academic dream turned into a nightmare, my optimism, resilience, and intellectual romanticism already dwindled. I needed a break, perhaps an escape hatch, to begin everything anew. In order for that to happen, I had to sever my connection with some people and places. I traversed continents, from North American to Oceania. Meanwhile, times went by apace as usual. I came across people who witnessed my academic journey with interest and optimism; who encouraged me to pursue my academic journey; and who co-operated me in many ways to reach my academic goal. I owe them all a debt of gratitude. While all of them merit acknowledgment as my Ph.D. journey comes to an end, I leave some names out because of space constraint, privacy, and amnesia.

The North American phase of my Ph.D. journey started at California State University, San Bernardino, where I had been pursuing an M.A. in TESOL back in 2005. I had the privilege to have Dr. Lynne T. Diaz-Rico there as my teacher. She embodies all the qualities of a perfect teacher: hardworking, knowledgeable, and curious and caring about students. I learned writing from Dr. Diaz-Rico, who is a prolific and a compelling writer herself. A teacher as well as a personality of her stature is rare. She would continue to influence me as I move ahead in my academic journey. I also have fond memories with Drs. Bonnie C. Piller and Enrique G. Murillo Jr. there. They helped me the best way possible to advance my academic goal. I sincerely thank both of them. I never signed up for a class with another teacher at California State- -Dr. Diane Brantley. We, nonetheless, developed a teacher-student rapport at California State. We exchanged pleasantries. I always believe that her personality befits an inspirational teacher. In sum, my engagement with California State was intellectually enlightening and personally fulfilling. I treasure the fact that I attended California State University, San Bernardino.

However, no fact would I ever treasure more than the fact that I attended the Ph.D. program in English/Composition and TESOL, at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP). I studied there with some of the best and the brightest minds that I have ever come across thus far in my life. They loved and cared about me. Yet, I shocked and surprized them as I

sneaked out of the program. I do not regret such an extremely unlucky decision. A Ph.D. must not appear larger-than-life, but mine did. No one should pawn his life for a Ph.D., but I seemed to have been doing that. Extenuating circumstances were bogging me down, when I felt that my academic as well as personal life was inevitably endangered. I declined to give up, but my hunch was that I could not move ahead had I stayed there. I severed such a strong bond of love, as such. Only a creep and a crackpot would decide that way. I know I am none. But how do I prove to my teachers at IUP that I have ethical and rational spine, when my decision sabotaged both? Does my mourning of remorse reach you Drs. Rafoth, Hurlbert, Bizzaro, Resa, Nienkemp, Hanuer, Pagnucci, Park, and Fontaine? Would you forgive me, please? I know these questions hover around and dissolve. But love and respect endure despite distance and detachment. I would like the world to know that I love and respect them all. All of them exist in my life the way they did when I was in Indiana.

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Table of Contents

Disclaimer	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
Dedication	v
Acknowledgements	vi
Chapter 1	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Overview	1
1.2 Introduction to Literature.....	1
1.3 The Context of L2 Writing in Bangladesh	10
1.4 Significance of the Project.....	15
1.5 THE THREE EMPIRICAL STUDIES	17
1.5.1 Study One	20
1.5.2 Study Two.....	21
1.5.3 Study three	22
Chapter 2.....	22
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	23
2.1 Overview	23
2.2 L2 writing: A Brief Overview	23
2.3 L2 Writing and Learners' Backgrounds	25
2.4 Grammar and L2 Writing	28
2.5 Vocabulary and L2 Writing.....	33
2.6 Instructors' Backgrounds and L2 Writing.....	36
2.7 Errors and Feedback in L2 Writing	38
2.8 L2 Writing and Process Pedagogy.....	42
2.9 Conclusion.....	45
Chapter 3.....	45
Effects of Vocabulary and Grammar on English L2 Writing by Learners from Chinese and Non-Chinese Backgrounds.....	46
3.1 Overview	46

3.2 Introduction	46
3.3 Literature Review	Error! Bookmark not defined.
3.4 Research Questions.....	52
3.5 Method	52
3.5.1 Participants	53
3.5.2 Instruments	54
3.7 Discussion	62
3.8 Conclusion	66
Chapter 4.....	67
Similarities and Differences between Writing in a First and a Second Language: The Case of Bangladesh.....	67
4.1 Overview	67
4.2 Introduction	68
4.3 Literature Review	69
4.4 Research Questions.....	74
4.5 METHOD.....	74
4.5.1 Participants	74
4.6 Results	76
4.7 Discussion	98
4.8 Conclusion.....	106
Chapter 5.....	107
An Investigation of the Relationship between Instructors' Background and the Teaching of Second Language Writing in Bangladesh	107
5.1 Overview	107
5.2 Introduction	108
5.3 Literature Review	110
5.4 Research Questions.....	115
5.5 Method	116
5.5.1 Participants	116
5.5.2 Data Collection Method.....	116
5.5.3 Data Analysis.....	117
5.6 Result.....	117
5.7 Discussion	121
5.8 Conclusion.....	126

Chapter 6.....	128
General Discussion.....	128
6.1 Overview	128
6.2 Summary of Findings	128
6.3 Comparison between Study One and Study Two.....	133
6.4 Contrasting the First Two Studies	140
6.5 An Exploration of the Third Study.....	142
6.6 Implications.....	145
6.6.1 Implications for Teaching.....	145
6.6.2 Implications of L2 Theory Formulation	149
6.7 A Critique of the Proposals and a Final Model of L2 Writing.....	154
6.8 Directions for Future Studies	159
6.9 Limitations of the study.....	162
6.10 Conclusion.....	163
References	166
Appendix A.....	183
Appendix B	186
Appendix C	189
Appendix D.....	194
Appendix E.....	197
Appendix F.....	199
Appendix G.....	201
Appendix H.....	204
Appendix I.....	207
Appendix J.....	208
Appendix K.....	209
Appendix L.....	211
Appendix M.....	213
Appendix N.....	214
Appendix O.....	216

List of Figures

Figure 1: Frequencies of errors based on the SALT analyses of essays of Chinese and non-Chinese learners.....	61
Figure 2: The frequencies of errors in the Grammaticality Judgment Test across Chinese and non-Chinese learners	61
Figure 3: Number of Participants by Age and Background in Areas of Specialization.	118
Figure 4: Number of Participants by Type of Feedback Provided.	120
Figure 5: Writing Model	139
Figure 6: Writing process diagram, Rohman (1965)	150
Figure 7: L2 writing process	151
Figure 8: L2 Writing Model and Process.....	155

List of Tables

Table 1: Summary of the Three Studies	20
Table 2 Background Information about the Two Groups of Students.....	53
Table 3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Minimum-Maximum Scores:.....	57
Table 4: First-order and Partial Correlations (controlling for years of English exposure): Chinese.....	58
Table 5: First-order and Partial Correlations (controlling for years of English exposure):Non-Chinese.....	59
Table 6: Participants' Age, exposure to and Duration of Learning English.....	76
Table 7: Scores in Grammar, Vocabulary, and Essay Tests in English and Bangla.....	76
Table 8: Most Difficult Areas in Writing in English.....	77
Table 9: Reasons for Learning English.....	77
Table 10: Engagement with English besides Academic Training	78
Table 11: Engagement with Writing in English besides Academic Activities.....	78
Table 12 : Areas of English Needed to Practice more to Support the Current Studies	78
Table 13: Writer in Bangla	79
Table 14: Writer in English.....	79
Table 15: Planning before Writing in English	80
Table 16 : Planning before Writing in Bangla	80
Table 17: Time of Revising the Essay in English.....	80
Table 18 : Time of Revising the Essay in Bangla.....	81
Table 19 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essay: Grammar	81
Table 20 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essay: Grammar.....	81
Table 21: Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essay: Spelling.....	82
Table 22: Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essay: Spelling.....	82
Table 23 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Punctuation.....	82
Table 24 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Punctuation.....	83
Table 25: Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Vocabulary	83
Table 26 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Vocabulary	83
Table 27 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Organization.....	84
Table 28: Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Organization.....	84
Table 29 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Clarity.....	84
Table 30 : Different aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Clarity	85
Table 31: Focus of Thinking during Writing in English: Audience	85
Table 32 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in the Bangla: Audience	85
Table 33 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in English: Clarifying Ideas.....	86
Table 34 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in Bangla: Clarifying Ideas	86
Table 35 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in English: Discovering New Ideas.....	86
Table 36 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in Bangla: Discovering New Ideas.....	87
Table 37: Few Drafts to Improve Writing in English.....	87
Table 38 : Few Drafts to Improve Writing in Bangla.....	87

Table 39 : Correlation between variables controlling for years of learning English – significant correlations in bold.....	89
Table 40 : Differences between Those Learning in Urban versus Non-urban Environment.....	90
Table 41: T-test of Languages Spoken by the Participants (bold indicates significant t-test).....	91
Table 42: Cross-tabulation: Planning before writing –English and Bangla	92
Table 43: Relationship between variables controlling for years of learning English – significant correlations in bold.....	93
Table 44: Relationship between Writing in English and Planning Strategy-Significant Correlation is Bold.	95
Table 45: Scores and Planning Strategy in English: T-test.....	96
Table 46 : Scores and planning strategy in Bangla: T-test	96
Table 47: Correlation between Writing Scores and Revision Strategy in English	97
Table 48: Correlation between Writing Scores and Revision Strategy in Bangla.....	97
Table 49 : Literature versus Language: Views/Strategies for Feedback Practices	119

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

This thesis reports three studies, each study constituting an independent chapter. Two of the studies were conducted in Bangladesh, and one in New Zealand. In this chapter, the three studies will be introduced together with a brief background to the research conducted. The research is situated in the field of second language (L2) writing in English, which is a subfield of both composition studies and applied linguistics. The literature that this chapter introduces draws upon such intellectual formations as L2 writing, composition studies, and applied linguistics. The studies aimed at discovering the characteristics and constraints of learning as well as teaching L2 writing both in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) contexts. In order to glean the information germane to the foci of the thesis, the measures of investigation of the studies included questionnaires detailing learners' and instructors' backgrounds and attitudes, as well as vocabulary, grammar, feedback, and writing tasks. The introduction to literature, then, touches upon all these areas of writing pedagogy. Because much of the research was performed in Bangladesh, the context of teaching and learning L2 writing in English in Bangladesh merited discussion. Therefore, a section of this chapter abridges the history of English studies in the EFL context of Bangladesh, which embodies the origin story of L2 writing in English in the landscape of English studies in Bangladesh. On top of all these sections, this chapter also explains the rationale of this thesis.

1.2 Introduction to Literature

The origin stories of an intellectual formation as hybrid as composition studies, which includes L2 writing, abound (Ritter & Matsuda, 2012). As such, it is unlikely for anyone to present an objective, unbiased, and complete history of the field of L2 writing. However, the history of the field of L2 writing emerges from, and is implicated with, the histories of its feeder disciplines of composition studies and applied linguistics (Silva & Leki, 2004). The history of L2 writing also needs to be appreciated with reference to the development of these feeder disciplines in North America, given that L2 writing is a North American phenomenon (Bazerman, 2013; Silva & Leki, 2004). Matsuda (2011) contends that the history of North

America-based applied linguistics commenced with the establishment of the English Language Institute (ELI) in 1941 at the University of Michigan. Composition studies most likely commenced at Harvard in the 1890s with the introduction of first-year writing courses (Ritter & Matsuda, 2012). The field of L2 writing emerged, through the development of symbiotic relationships with its feeder disciplines, as an independent field in the 1990s (Matsuda, 2013) to cater to the peculiar needs of L2 writers. Silva (2006) claims that the field is already so developed that it does not have to borrow uncritically from its feeder disciplines to ascertain its independent existence.

Matsuda (2012a), however, claims that the field of L2 writing does not have its own site of praxis, which accounts for why the field is open to the influences of other disciplines, such as foreign language education and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), in addition to the feeder disciplines, for instruction, assessment, research, and program administration. Indeed, because all writing teachers are already L2 writing teachers (Matsuda, 2012a) in the Anglophone countries because of the presence of L2 writers, as an intellectual formation, the field of L2 writing is already ubiquitous. It continues to evolve because of the diversity of the student populations it serves as well as the globalization of education. As such, the field of L2 writing operates with some protean pragmatics, rather than informed pedagogical options. The field of L2 writing apparently has been going through theoretical mood swings (Silva, 1992), making the teaching of L2 writing arbitrary and site-driven. An intellectual formation so complex, multimodal, and evolving as L2 writing is unlikely to be integrated “into the consciousness of every writing instructor who comes into contact with second language writers in the classroom” (Matsuda, 2012a, p. 43). The nature of the field of L2 writing implies that at least an academic account of how L2 writing emerged is apparently possible. But how it will evolve in future is more of a matter of observation than prediction, for it is susceptible to the influences of many factors.

One of the most critical factors is, of course, instructors’ background training. Teacher professional development (TPD) is fundamental, since effective teaching comes from a teacher who actively constructs his or her knowledge and skills through different means and is reflectively engaged in exploring his or her own teaching development (Richards, 2002). However, the professional development of a writing instructor is a complex, ongoing, and evolving process in that writing pedagogy education is still a diffuse, emerging area of inquiry (Estrem & Reid, 2012). This accounts for why the educators and experts in the field of writing cannot develop the intellectual infrastructure and an *esprit de*

corps to teach writing with optimum output. Writing instructors apparently cannot draw on an established knowledge base, which most of its contributing fields such as psychology and literacy studies can. As such, the teaching of writing is more intuitive than informed. While this phenomenon characterizes the teaching of L1 writing in English, the instructors of L2 writing are not immune to it. The potential pitfalls for L2 writing instructors are more daunting.

Matsuda (2012a), for example, contends that the binary opposition between a first and a second language, and between native-born and foreign-born populations, created a disciplinary division of labour in the 1990s, which severed the field of composition from the field of L2 writing. This division of labour is problematic, even counterproductive, for the field of L2 writing as far as the background training of the L2 writing instructors is concerned. Estrem and Reid (2012) claim that writing pedagogy education scholarship is unusually positioned in relationship to composition studies. Composition studies, essentially, leans more toward the teaching of a first language (in this case, English) than that of a second language. The characteristics of first language writers are not the same as those of the second language writers, for the ESL composition process seems generally more laborious than that of the first language (Silva, 1992). Because the matrix of the field of L2 writing is composition studies, and the field of L2 writing caters to the peculiar writing needs of a different breed of learners, the pedagogical situation of the field is hardly suitable to provide the potential instructors with sound background training. L2 writing teacher education has not been adequately addressed in the field of English language teaching (Yi, 2013) to provide instructors with insights, information, and empirical evidence for effective pedagogical approaches to optimizing learning outcome.

Certainly, effective teaching is contingent upon, among other things, an appreciation of diversities and differences of the student populations that the L2 writing instructors teach. Generally, L2 writing instructors consider an L2 writer as “a perpetual English language learner” (Ortmeier-Hooper, 2013, p. 23) despite diverse linguistic, cognitive, affective, and cultural orientations and experiences. These attributes significantly determine the styles and strategies that L2 writers employ to foster their writing skills. The objectives of academic writing are hardly responsive to these attributes of L2 writers. Academic writing is perceived to be remote, distant, and imponderable (Sommers, 1993). However, Murray (1991) claims that every piece of writing is essentially autobiographical. By ‘autobiographical’ he does not mean personal; he means that a writer must have familiarity with and fondness for the subject

written about. Perl (1980) also believes that a writer must have a “felt-sense” (p.365) with the topic that he would write about. Unfortunately, this is rarely the case for L2 writers. L2 writing pedagogy is more responsive to the culture of North American academic writing, and is not responsive to L2 writers’ culture-specific modes of writing.

This dimension of the pedagogy of L2 writing may have prompted Athanases, Bennett and Wahleithner (2013) to urge writing instructors to “learn to uncover the nuances of students’ individual writing processes as well as trends across students and classes” (p. 162). Because the processes as well as the trends of L2 writing vary across students and classes, L2 writing instructors should determine what and how they teach on the basis of who they teach. For example, Kaplan (1966) demonstrated that an L2 learner’s rhetorical style of argument development in writing varies because of cultural perceptions about, and practices in, writing. Leki (1991a) similarly contends that ESL students come to the U.S. having learned to learn in certain ways. Zamel (1997) argues that the Japanese style of writing is subtle and indirect, in contrast to writing styles in North America. All these examples propose the deduction that a generic curriculum or “one-size-fits-all” (Ortmeier-Hooper, 2013, p. 24) approach to teaching L2 writing is unlikely to succeed. Ortmeier-Hooper (2013) claims that L2 writing instructors must understand the range of experiences, histories, and literacies that L2 writers bring into the writing classrooms to teach L2 writing effectively. While teaching L2 writing, it is critical to be cognizant that instructors’ ignorance of learners’ backgrounds might get the learners caught between their pasts and futures so as not to realize their potential of learning to write.

As well as learners’ backgrounds, the identification and the classification of errors in L2 writers’ writings by instructors may also influence the outcome of writing instruction, potentially negatively. Errors demonstrate incomplete knowledge about the structure, mechanics, and rhetoric of a language. Ideally, the identification and the classification of errors should be uniform across times and contexts to facilitate the teaching of writing. However, Connors and Lunsford (1988) contend that error-marking is value-driven, and that teachers’ idea of error-definition and classification have always been the absolute product of their times and cultures. However relative and subjective the identification and classification of errors is in general, when it comes to the teaching of L2 writing, the identification and the classification of errors are almost alike, in that ESL teachers are more concerned with language-specific errors (Zamel, 1985). ESL errors, then, are more linguistic and mechanical in nature than rhetorical and conceptual. This conceptualization of error identification and

classification perpetuates the impression that all students need to do is patch and polish their writing (Sommers, 1982). Therefore, ESL errors are not as complex and multidimensional as errors in general are.

Williams (1981) has problematized the concept of errors in general, which has implications for the teaching of L2 writing as well. He claims that instructors find errors in students' writing because they look for errors. If they had not looked for errors, they would not have discovered them. He proved this hypothesis with an illustration in the same essay. He inserted a hundred errors in the essay, but made the essay linguistically refined and conceptually sophisticated so that the readers would not look for errors until they were dramatically declared in the last paragraph. Writing is thinking (Murray, 1978), and profound thinking itself is a powerful tool to devolving into a different kind of language that is hardly affected by errors. As is, the identification and the classification of errors should not be the main foci of writing instruction. A few errors will not spoil a fine piece of writing (Briedenback, 2006). Given that writing in an L2 is not completely different from writing in the first language, since they face the similar categories of challenges in developing rhetorical expertise and discursive repertoire in particular rhetorical situations (Matsuda, 2012a). Thus, with regard to error identification and classification, the field of L2 writing must stop looking at "students through a deficit lens" (Athanases, Bennett, & Wahleithner, 2013, p.162).

The identification and the classification of errors inevitably lead to the attempts to eliminate them by means of feedback. Responding to students writing by means of providing feedback is a thorny issue (Raimes, 1991). The provision of feedback is still arbitrary and value-driven than consistent and empirical. Empirical evidence, for example, is not conclusive enough yet as to whether feedback should be provided comprehensively or selectively, whether feedback should be given on form or content, whether feedback should be given at the beginning or at the end of a draft. Perhaps given all these unresolved complexities implicit in feedback, Truscott (1996) claims that feedback is essentially harmful, and it should be abandoned altogether. While Krashen (1984), Zamel (1976) Brannon and Knoblauch (1981), Arapoff (1969), and Greenberg (1985) are not as cynical as Truscott (1996) regarding the usefulness of feedback, they have yielded compelling empirical evidence to contend that the potential of feedback to teach students writing is qualified. However controversial the area of feedback is, it is at once ubiquitous and inevitable, especially for the teaching of L2 writing. L2 writers expect feedback from their instructors; therefore, not providing feedback might work against students' motivation (Leki, 1991a).

Leki (1991a), nonetheless, cautions that students' expectation regarding feedback need to be modified if they want to profit from instructors' feedback on their composition. Feedback on writing generally focuses on or discovers the shortcomings of a product. It generally does not critique or intervene in the process of accomplishing that product. Writing, essentially, is such a personal and complex process that a teacher cannot assume all the responsibilities of teaching writing (Draper, 1969). The responsibility of learning to write significantly rests on students themselves. In order for that to happen, students must explore and exploit other options of feedback. Elbow's (1981) classification of feedback such as criterion-based feedback and reader-based feedback is germane in this context. A teacher apparently provides criterion-based feedback, which measures a piece of writing up to certain criteria. This kind of feedback does not tell what a piece of writing does to particular readers, but reader-based feedback does. Feedback, then, needs to come from genuine and interested readers, not from "a slave reader" (Elbow, 1981, p.224), that is, a teacher. As such, an uncritical submission to and dependence on feedback is problematic.

While feedback is integral to teaching writing, the provision of feedback changes given the approach to teaching writing. The product approach to teaching writing revolves mainly around mechanical feedback. Mechanical feedback does not address the rhetorical aspects of writing. The influential works both by Peter Elbow and Janet Emig in the early 1970s shifted the paradigm of L1 composition from product to process. The basic difference between these two approaches to teaching writing is that while the product approach aims at producing correct writing by means of mechanical precision at the end, the process approach emphasizes revision all along to create good writers through reflection (Silva & Leki, 2004). Process approach shifts the focus from writing to writer. Although there are three different categories of process approaches to teaching writing such as expressivist, cognitivist, and social constructionist (Faigley, 1986; Santos, 1992), the proponent of all these schools concur that writing is recursive and that writing process is a series of overlapping and interacting processes (Emig, 1971). Silva (2006) contends that in the 1980s the process approach to teaching L2 writing gained substantial ground, for process approach more than any other seems to be providing unifying theoretical and methodological principles to teaching writing (Raimes, 1991).

Among the second language educators, Zamel (1982, 1983) was the first researcher to yield empirical evidence to claim that the process of writing in a first and a second language is essentially similar. Subsequently, L2 writing scholars such as Silva (1992), Cumming

(1989), and Matsuda (2013) endorsed the conclusion proposed by Zamel (1982, 1983). Matsuda (2013), nonetheless, mentions that the features of texts written by basic L1 and L2 writers are not always distinguishable. Literature in composition studies informs that “basic” and “remedial” writers are the terms restricted to those native writers of English, who are apparently underprepared to undertake works in English for academic purposes. The problem with the basic writers is more linguistic and mechanical than conceptual and stylistic. As much as Raimes (1991) claims that ESL students are not one or at the most two groups of students, initially perhaps all L2 writers are almost alike, as Matsuda (2013) implies. The process of writing, then, may have been identical both for L1 and L2 writers, but, because L2 writers are initially linguistically underprepared, they lack the ability to enact the process. This may account for why the L2 instructors, both in ESL and EFL contexts, are finicky about the linguistic aspects or “cosmetic process” (Perl, 1979, p.22) of writing, despite their endorsement of and knowledge about the process approach to teaching writing.

Grammar as such occupies a peculiar position in the landscape of L2 writing pedagogy and scholarship. Scholars are polarized as to the potential of grammar to help L2 writers learn writing. Williams (2003) might sound blunt to the proponents of grammar – based instruction, when he claims, “despite all the concern and attention devoted to it, grammar has not had any positive effect on writing performance” (p.314). Consistent and uniform empirical evidence gleaned both from cross-sectional and longitudinal studies spanning over a few decades prove that there exists no positive relation between grammar instruction and the acquisition of writing skills. For example, White (1965), Bateman and Zidonis (1966), Crowley (1989), and Noguchi (1991) yield compelling evidence to contend that grammar instruction essentially does not raise writing performance. Summarizing the contemporary research on the relation between grammar and writing, Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (1963) contend that grammar instruction even has harmful effect on the improvement of writing, echoing Truscott (1996). The reasons are aptly identified by the participants of Elley, Barham, Lamb, and Wyllie’s (1976) study who stated that grammar is repetitive, difficult, boring, and useless. The case would not be different in any way for L2 writers.

Nonetheless, L2 writers are generally considered a monolithic group of learners, whose texts are characterized by “accidents of discourse” (Sommers, 1982, p.150). As much as instructors endeavor to eliminate those accidents of discourse by means of grammar instruction, it might not help learners write, in that “grammar instruction is not transferable to

writing” (Williams, 2003, p. 327). Williams (2003) contends further that, although grammar is the building block of sentences, grammar provides a limited number of sentence patterns. Writing, however, is not as constrictive or formulaic as grammar is. Writing is essentially generative, recursive, and habitual. Ideally, writing instruction directs students toward the “extraordinary generative power of language” (Raimes, 1985, p.248) by engaging them with the “complexity of composing” (Raimes, 1991, p.422). Being knowledgeable about grammar is not akin to being good at writing. Williams (2003), for example, mentions that Japanese students come to the U.S. with a solid knowledge of English grammar, but they are poor writers. “Grammar is writing’s surface” (Elbow, 1981, p. 168). It is not the substance of writing. Because the process of writing for both L1 and L2 writers does not apparently vary, the approach toward teaching and learning to write should not vary. Grammar occupies an insignificant position in the landscape of L1 writing; it, then, should do the same in the landscape of L2 writing.

Despite all these anecdotal and empirical evidences against grammar, the centrality of grammar is undeniable for both L1 and L2 writing in English. Pinker (2014), for example, claims that grammar is our spices’ solution to the problems of getting complicated thoughts from one head into another. He further claims that an awareness of syntax can help writers avoid ambiguous, confusing, and convoluted sentences to make writing transparent, elegant, and graceful. Because grammar appears critical for L1 writing in English, its importance for teaching L2 writing in English is acknowledged uncontested by L2 writing scholars, especially after the 1990s. This may have been the reason that prompted Ferris (1999) to claim that Truscott (1996) is “premature and overly strong” (p. 1) as he claims that instruction in grammar is harmful, and it should be abandoned altogether. However, the controversy that Truscott’s (1996) observation involving grammar sparked spawned a substantial body of scholarship for the field of L2 writing in English. While instruction in grammar is not anathema for teaching L2 writing in English, L2 writing scholars (e.g., Ferris, 1999; Matsuda, 2013; Zhang, 2013) claim that the long-term effect of ‘written corrective feedback’ (WCF) to help L2 writers learn write is unknown and contested. Ferris (1999), nonetheless, claims that instruction in grammar definitely brings off short-term improvement, which is a prerequisite for long-term improvement. Long-term improvement in grammar is non-linear and recursive, which may take even months or years for writers to master a target grammatical feature (Liu & Brown, 2015). Because most studies in L2 writing in English are

not longitudinal to discover the long-term effect of grammar instruction (Liu & Brown, 2015), the debate that Truscott (1996) started remains unresolved.

Surprisingly, for more than 2000 years the study of a foreign language primarily entailed grammatical analysis (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Wilkins (1972) contends “While without grammar very little can be accomplished, without vocabulary nothing can be accomplished” (p. 111). This considered, vocabulary may be considered the most critical component for learning a foreign language. Vocabulary both creates and conveys meanings and messages, which are the core objectives of learning a foreign language. The problem posed by an inadequate acquisition of vocabulary cannot be overcome by an advanced knowledge in grammar and mechanics. L2 learners see the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest source of problems (Green & Meara, 1995; Meara, 1980). However, despite the obvious importance of vocabulary, most courses and curricula tend to be based on grammar or combination of grammar and communication strategies rather than vocabulary (Folse, 2004, 2008). The ease and elegance of a sentence is contingent upon how the lexical options and restrictions are managed and maneuvered in that sentence, not how grammar and mechanics underpin that sentence. For L2 writers, unfortunately, a sentence is primarily syntactic, not semantic.

However unacceptable this dimension of L2 writing appears, this is understandable. Folse (2004) contends that learning vocabulary in a foreign language is not akin to learning the meaning of a word. It is, in fact, “a multiple task” (Folse, 2004, p. 18). Learning vocabulary in a foreign language is contingent upon the awareness of the polysemic aspect of words, their collocation, connotation, idiomatic expression, part of speech, frequency, spelling and pronunciation, as well as usage (Folse, 2004). These aspects of vocabulary learning are not amenable to instant instruction the way grammar and mechanics are. Neither can the L2 learners come up with strategies themselves to deal with these essential difficulties or dimensions of vocabulary learning. This may explain why L2 learners are not generally word-wise compared to their native counterparts. L2 texts generally are less sophisticated and less expressive of the writers’ thoughts and intentions, in that L2 writers lack the ability to manipulate lexical nuances and connotations (Silva, 1992). Their application of words is both bland and basic. Basic or remedial L2 writers, therefore, may depend on a “thesaurus philosophy of writing”, when they make only lexical changes, not semantic changes (Sommers, 1980, p.381). Certainly, then, L2 writers are vulnerable to the dimensions and difficulties of L2 vocabulary.

1.3 The Context of L2 Writing in Bangladesh

Hardly can anyone contextualize the teaching of L2 writing in the landscape of English studies in Bangladesh, in that the history of English studies has emerged independent of instruction on writing up to the point when the first private university was launched in 1993 (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). The institutionalization of composition in English studies in Bangladesh, then, is a very recent development. Contrary to that, the English language in the Indian subcontinent has been an inseparable component of academic and intellectual activities for about two centuries. Initially, English had been a colonial imposition on the Indian subcontinent by the British. Post- colonially, it had to be adopted in the nation building project given its intellectual, economic, and cross-cultural potential. As such, the origin story of English studies in the Indian subcontinent pits the language against its colonial heritage vis-à-vis its contemporary status as a lingua franca. This considered, “English holds a paradoxical position” (Shamsuzzaman, 2014, p. 220) in the Indian subcontinent, including Bangladesh, in that the language is essentially controversial but immediately convenient. Situating composition in these conflicting undercurrents of English studies in Bangladesh warrants some information regarding the historical development of the field in the Indian subcontinent.

The British officially colonized the Indian subcontinent in 1757 A.D. They had to leave the Indian subcontinent in 1947. During most of these two centuries of occupation, they changed the geographic, economic, political, cultural, and linguistic landscape of the Indian subcontinent so irreducibly that following their departure, it had never been the same. However apparent and acute the fallout of the British occupation was, it complied with Said’s (1976) observation of colonization. Referring to the occupation of Egypt by Napoleon in 1798, Said (1976) contends that in the colonial dispensation, political subjugation is innocuous, in that it is a precondition to producing knowledge and civilizing the natives. It is not clear whether the British occupation of the Indian subcontinent was provoked by this grotesque excuse of knowledge production. But the most pronounced *raison d’être* of British occupation of the Indian subcontinent was, of course, civilizing the natives. The way the British wanted to civilize the natives had been responsible for setting up the paradigm of education in general, and English studies in particular, in the Indian subcontinent. Macaulay’s “Minute on Indian Education” was critically instrumental toward that direction.

Thomas Babington Macaulay joined the British *raj* in India in 1834 as the first law commissioner and member of the supreme council in Bengal (Cutts, 1953). He proposed the “Minute” in 1835, which “was the decisive and final piece in a long series of propaganda articles written over a period of more than half a century in the formation of British educational policy in India” (Cutts, 1953, p. 824). Having collapsed some of the finer details of this document into a summary statement, one can claim that Macaulay proposed to supplant vernaculars such as Sanskrit and Arabic with English “to educate a people who cannot at present be educated by means of their mother-tongue” (Macaulay & Young, 1979, p. 349). He overtly touted the intrinsic superiority of the English language to the indigenous languages of the Indian subcontinent. However, his concept of the English language education was discursive in nature, not linguistic or disembodied, in that he wanted British literature to be the portal of the English language. He claims, “The literature of England is now more valuable than that of classical antiquity” (Macaulay & Young, 1979, p. 351). Even though he claimed that he had no knowledge either about Arabic or Sanskrit, he was politically so influential and intellectually so persuasive that British literature gained a strong foothold in the Indian subcontinent because of his activism or advocacy. This may have accounted for why English studies in the Indian subcontinent leaned toward literature, not language.

Post-colonially, English studies have evolved in the Indian subcontinent, including Bangladesh. It is worth mentioning in this context that Bangladesh is a post, post-colonial country because of British and Pakistani subjugations. Since the British left in 1947, Bangladesh was a part of Pakistan until 1971. Pakistan had two parts, east and west. Erstwhile East Pakistan, which is now Bangladesh, was virtually a monolingual region, since around 98% of the population used to speak Bangla (Chowdhury & Ha, 2008). Bangla, the native language of the Bangladeshi, pitted the West Pakistan against East Pakistan, when the latter had to sacrifice lives in 1952 to defend its native language, since the former threatened to proscribe and replace it with Urdu, the dominant language of West Pakistan. 1952, known as the year of language movement, was believed to be the nucleus to spur the war of independence in 1971 against Pakistan. Bangla, then, already emerged as a critical factor in defining and determining identity of a potential nation. Following its independence in 1971, linguistic nationalism set in. Consequently, “English thus lost its status as a medium of educational instruction, which it had had until 1971, and was now replaced by Bangla at all levels of education” (Hamid & Baldauf, 2008, p.20). But the events that unfolded

subsequently were not monolithic and conclusive. They were, instead, tentative, even regressive.

The influence and importance of the English language waned simultaneously from the academic and administrative undertakings of the government of Bangladesh. In 1980, English was withdrawn as a compulsory subject of study for tertiary level students (Rahman, 1999). In 1987, the government passed the ‘Bengali Introduction Law’, which mandated that “Bengali was to be used in all spheres and at all levels of government purposes” (Banu & Sussex, 2001, p. 126). Notwithstanding these policies, the possession of English was critical for academic success and economic mobility in Bangladesh. The deterioration of the teaching and learning of English was already conspicuous, and its attendant consequences were already felt. A survey conducted by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board, Bangladesh, (NCTB), in 1990 discovered the dismal state of English proficiency of school learners (as cited in Hamid & Baldauf, 2008). This swung the government into action. It re-introduced English from the first grade to tertiary level in 1991 (Rahman, 2007). While these shifts in policy regarding English studies in Bangladesh have bearings for L2 writing, they do not explicitly inform much about it. The scopes of these changes are confined mainly to secondary and higher secondary levels of English studies in Bangladesh.

Alam (2011) has situated these transformations of English studies in the context of tertiary education in Bangladesh, when he also renews the ontological tensions between composition studies and literature. He considers these transformations poised toward the “commodification of English studies in Bangladesh” which contributes to declining of interest “in the study of English literature” (p. 251). The shift toward Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) at both secondary and higher secondary levels in Bangladesh since the 1990s has been responsible for effecting and establishing English Language Teaching (ELT) at the tertiary level in Bangladesh, he implies. He contends that these changes in English studies in Bangladesh are more political, because of the influence or involvement of some foreign forces (the British Council, for example), than informed and principled. He claims as such that ELT pedagogy in the context of Bangladesh has been “on the whole, a waste of money and resources” (p. 268,), so its potential to facilitate the teaching and learning of English is severely qualified. Sceptics might find Alam (2011) too assertive and can accuse him of “trained incapacity” (Burke, 1984, p. 8) for critiquing the developments of English studies through a subjective lens because of his training in literature.

He, of course, deplors that “less and less literature courses are being taught, and that “ELT is all the rage” (p. 266).

However, Alam (2011), in the same token, has criticised the ubiquity of literature in English studies in Bangladesh, in that it has been responsible for unexamined, even ineffective, teaching when instructors have “preferred to lecture to them as if from a pulpit” (p. 270.). In this dispensation, he claims, teaching of literature appears to be a civilizing mission, when the instructors “do nothing about the teaching of reading and writing of the English language” (p. 270). English studies at the tertiary level in Bangladesh, he claims, has so irreversibly immersed “in a seemingly perpetual embrace” (p.252) with literature, that the disjuncture between composition and literature appeared congruous with the culture of English studies. Alam (2014) continues,

Even now I marvel at the obtuseness with which I was taught English literature at the University of Dhaka; nobody has bothered to teach us how to read intensively or write purposefully then; my teachers and their teachers must have assumed that one could write since one can read; what was there to teach here? (p.252)

Alam’s (2011) observation in this context proposes the deduction that composition studies in Bangladesh is stuck in the rut of a chronic crisis, since it is intergenerational. Instruction in writing in such a context is redundant. Exposure to literature is the only and absolute prerequisite to learning to write.

Bangladesh, nonetheless, presents no unique context of composition instruction as far as the history of composition studies is concerned. Traditionally, hardly was there any symbiotic relation between composition studies and literature, in that the former has been “the weak spouse, the new kid” (Elbow, 2002, p.533) of the latter. Elbow (2002) claims that writing programs were originally housed in the English departments, and writing teachers were usually less paid to work under poorer conditions in order to help literature professors, who were teaching less under better working conditions to get paid more. Composition did not have any disciplinary identity and an intellectual agenda the way literature did, for composition started out “nothing but a motley collection of people historically thrown together” (Elbow, 2002, p.543). As such, writing pedagogy educators were working in primarily reactive modes and were frequently under pressure to follow others’ lead (Estrem & Reid, 2012). The ‘others’ in this context are instructors of literature. As far as the mode and focus of instruction are concerned, these two streams of intellectual formations

significantly vary. Elbow (2002) claims that while lecturing in literature classes is extremely common, it is rare or absent from writing classes. As well, while the focus of literature classes is the analysis and appreciation of an existent text, the focus of composition classes is the conception and creation a new text. When these differences between literature and composition are considered, Bangladesh presents no unique or exceptional context of composition instruction.

As far as the local nomenclature is concerned, the essential differences between composition and L2 writing blur, in that as a denomination, L2 writing has not gained currency in English studies in Bangladesh yet. Instruction in writing in English is called composition. While English studies in the Indian subcontinent, Bangladesh included, has a history of about two centuries, the term composition did not permeate the terrain of English studies until 1993, when the first private university was launched in Bangladesh (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). Since then, different universities have been using the term in different English courses they offer, which are compulsory for all students enroute to earning a Bachelor's. Matsuda (2012a) contends that L2 writing is writing in any language that the writer did not grow up with. Composition, then, is a misnomer in the context of Bangladesh, It is, in fact, L2 writing. Alam (2011) repeatedly used the term composition. It could be a deliberate option, as Matsuda (2012a) claims that composition is a non-stigmatizing or stigma-resistant term compared to L2 writing. Or, L2 writing apparently smacks of applied linguistics/TESOL, which a literature-steeped culture like Bangladesh hardly acknowledges. Whatever the case, no university in Bangladesh offers any programs- B.A. or M.A. or Ph.D. - in composition yet, though they offer all these programs in literature and language-related areas.

The context of composition studies, then, in Bangladesh is a complex one. The landscape of English studies has been changing apace (Alam 2011; Chowdhury & Ha, 2008; Hamid & Baldauf, 2008) in Bangladesh, but how that swings toward the direction of composition studies is yet uncertain because of two potential pitfalls. For one, the Bengali culture as a whole believes that the process of writing is so inductive and idiosyncratic that it is not open to external intervention or exploration (Shamsuzzaman, 2014). Instruction in writing is not culturally compatible as such. Secondly, effective instruction on L2 writing is contingent upon undergoing training in North America since composition studies has emerged from and revolved around North America (Silva, 2006). Besides North America, opportunities for training in composition studies are hardly available and authentic. North

America is a tough option to avail for the potential composition instructors from Bangladesh for various reasons. As far as the cultural disposition and the development of the intellectual infrastructure are concerned, the field of composition, including L2 writing, in Bangladesh is apparently in an inconvenient position at the moment to pass into professional common sense like literature and language-related fields.

1.4 Significance of the Project

This project is situated in the field of L2 writing, but L2 writing is an interdisciplinary and catch-all term (Matsuda, 2013). This project as such is not specifically pegged to a particular topic or aspect of L2 writing. It transcends contexts, and it incorporates several aspects of the teaching and learning of L2 writing across contexts. The teaching and learning of English is a global phenomenon, but because the field of L2 writing originated in and evolved around North American (Bazerman, 2013; Silva, 1996), the field critically lacks information as to how L2 writing is taught and learned in the periphery. This may have prompted Silva (2006) to urge to look at L2 writing contexts other than North American. This project is a modest attempt to fill this lacuna in that it looks at L2 writing in a relatively sparsely researched EFL context like Bangladesh. This project intends to discover the practices and perceptions of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh, where English studies is synonymous to the study of British literature (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). Hence, Bangladesh is a somewhat unique context for L2 writing instruction and, as such, merits investigation to determine how it may differ from or conforms to the core principles of L2 writing pedagogy. The work, therefore, aims to inform and expand the scope of L2 research as well as to help the professionals in the field to appreciate it in a more nuanced way.

Along with the aspects of teaching L2 writing in an unfamiliar context like Bangladesh, it also intends to discover factors influencing the learning of L2 writing in Bangladesh. This project did not essentialize the perspectives of instructors as to how L2 learners learn to write. It, instead, employed multiple measures, as such background questionnaires, grammaticality judgement tests, vocabulary and writing tests, to discover how these variables correlate with each other, or function independently, and identify the possible developmental trajectories of L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The acquisition of writing skill is not contingent upon the demonstration of a single attribute. Writing skill is indicated by syntactic and mechanical precision, linguistic sophistication, and conceptual clarity. Ideally, a project that explores the development of writing skill includes component in

all these areas of subskills. Surprisingly, research in writing is not holistic. It is, instead, specific to such areas as grammar, vocabulary, and styles of argumentation in written discourse as an influence of learners' native cultures or languages. This project is set against this backdrop of writing research, in that it is based on the "collection and analysis of a wide range of data about students' writing development" (Athanases, Bennett, & Wahleithner, 2013, p.162). This considered, this project is original in its design to add new information to the knowledge-base of L2 writing research.

Learning a language where it is spoken is unlike where it is not spoken. Folse (2004) implies that an ESL context provides learners with the opportunity of "incidental learning", while in an EFL context; learners only have the opportunity for "intentional learning." It is claimed that incidental learning is more conducive to learning a language than intentional learning (Krashen, 1985), though research findings are inconclusive with this regard. This implies that the qualitative difference between ESL and EFL contexts to influence learning is irreducible. However rich the data from the L2 writing learners from Bangladesh are, their potential to propose a credible conclusion is qualified given that they are collected from an EFL context. To offset the methodological limitation of this project, data have been collected from the ESL context of New Zealand, too. They are also the L2 writers of English, but they come to study in New Zealand from different parts of the world. They are approximately of the same age group like their EFL counterparts from Bangladesh, and they have completed the same tests. The data from these participants allow the researchers of this project to propose more authentic conclusions regarding the trajectories of L2 writing development of learners from different linguistic and rhetorical orientations. These data themselves provide an appreciation of the field of L2 writing, but when they are compared and contrasted with those from Bangladesh, they allow an even more critical consideration of the development of L2 writing.

Most importantly, it is a project that investigates issues within the field of L2 writing through contexts, texts, learners, and instructors. These factors are integral to the teaching and learning of L2 writing. However, these factors are not constant across contexts. Texts vary because of learners' cultural and linguistic orientations (Kaplan, 1966); no two contexts are identical and no context is static (Zhu, 2010), and no two L2 instructors teach alike in that teachers' theories are personal in nature, are not always articulated but reflected in practice. L2 writing instruction, then, is multi-dimensional and multifaceted (Zhu, 2010). This project embodies this essential multiplicity in the field of L2 writing in terms of texts, contexts, and

learners. Therefore, the findings of this project merit critical consideration of all stakeholders to appreciate as well as to advance the field of L2 writing.

1.5 THE THREE EMPIRICAL STUDIES

The research performed as part of this thesis included three empirical studies. The studies were conducted both in ESL (New Zealand) and EFL (Bangladesh) contexts. The first two studies aimed to understand how the pre-university or first year university students learned writing in English both in ESL and EFL contexts. The third study endeavored to understand how writing in English was taught in the EFL context of Bangladesh. Summaries of the three studies are provided below.

Each of the studies considered the context of learning and how this might influence L2 writing in English. As discussed above (and something that will be covered further in the rest of the thesis), the background of the learners may lead to differences in the way they learned to write in English. In study one, this was considered in the ESL context of New Zealand. The focus of the study mostly revolved around the Chinese learners, for, incidentally, most of the participants of this study were of Chinese origin. The first study chapter (i.e., chapter three) demonstrated that individuals from Chinese educational background will have experienced a somewhat different way of learning from their counterparts from other Oriental and Western backgrounds. ‘Oriental’ in this context means most Asian countries, where English is taught and learned as a foreign language. ‘Western’ is used in this context to refer to English dominant educational contexts mostly associated with Europe and North America.

The focus of the first empirical study, therefore, was to determine whether or not different learning contexts influenced the learning of L2 writing in English. The findings of this study determined that learners’ backgrounds influenced learning, which provided the basis to investigate the potential influence of background on learners in the EFL context of Bangladesh. This context was the subject of study two and three, which, respectively, constituted chapter four and five of the thesis. However, these two studies were not identical in scope and design-- study two (2) focused on the learners, whereas study three (3) considered the instructors. Hence, the first main factor considered in the thesis was the L2 writers’ contexts of learning, and how contexts may have interacted with their styles and strategies of learning to write in English. If the behavior of L2 writers were altogether

consistent across contexts and backgrounds, the findings of these studies would not add any new insight and information to the field of L2 writing. Because L2 writers seemed not to write in English exactly the same way across contexts and backgrounds, the strategies of learning discovered and models of learning proposed in the studies were critical contributions to the field of L2 writing for Bangladesh and beyond.

In both studies one and two, the learners were considered in terms of their English written output. Therefore, in both studies, learners were assessed on their written output. In study one, only English written output was considered given the range of first languages spoken by participants. However, the focus of study two, situated in Bangladesh, provided the opportunity to study first language writing (i.e., Bangla) as well. As far as the designs of study one and two were concerned, the inclusion of Bangla written output critically distinguished study two from study one. The first two studies, given written outputs, were designed to contrast L1 and L2 in order to discover commonalities and differences in writing behaviour. L1 is assumed to influence the ways L2 writers in English perceive and produce writing (Zamel, 1982). This thesis attempted to investigate this dimension of L2 writing to glean empirical evidence in order to facilitate the teaching and learning of L2 writing in English.

Also as discussed above in the introduction to literature section of this chapter, the teaching of grammar has often been a focus of teaching English as a second language. Grammar is critical to the teaching of L2 writing in English as well. However, this surface feature of language may not be as influential on writing behaviour as more meaning aspects of language, such as vocabulary. The contrast between grammar as a surface feature and vocabulary as a basis for understanding will be covered in further detail in the thesis. Given the potential importance of contrasting these two areas of learners' abilities in terms of models of second language learning and their influence on teaching practice, both study one and two would assess these skills of the learners and contrast these with writing output. The third general factor considered in the research, then, was the potential differential importance of grammar versus vocabulary on L2 writing output.

The contrast between more surface features of writing versus deeper aspects of meaning and understanding in written output was the main focus of the third study in the thesis. The third study considered L2 writing from the perspective of the instructors, in particular their views about teaching L2 writing as they marked errors in the EFL context of

Bangladesh. Instructors' performance as implicated in the teaching of L2 writing was discussed briefly in the introduction to literature section of this chapter, but this aspect of L2 writing would be considered in more detail in chapter five, devoted to study three.

Perceptions of errors and error marking behavior were considered to gain insights into how L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh approached and appreciated more surface features of writing versus the potentially deeper meaning of what was written. The third study gleaned data to discover whether or not instructors' perceptions about teaching L2 writing corresponded with their practices of teaching L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh. Instructors seemed not to have practiced the teaching of L2 writing the way they perceived the teaching of L2 writing. Their perceptions and the marking of mechanical versus conceptual errors also differed with one another.

The first two studies examined the backgrounds of the learners to discover how they learned to write in English. Likewise, in the third study instructors' backgrounds were considered to determine whether and how instructors' backgrounds influenced their teaching practice or ethos of teaching L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The context of Bangladesh provided an interesting focus itself with reference to L2 writing. As discussed above, the unique history of the teaching and learning of English, together with current efforts to revamp English studies in Bangladesh, makes this an interesting context to study. L2 writing is implicated in the landscape of English studies in Bangladesh. Measuring instructors' performance as well as discovering their perceptions of teaching L2 writing critically predicts the current situations and the future directions of L2 writing in Bangladesh. While the third study was specific to Bangladesh, the findings of this might add new information and insights to appreciate the field of L2 writing more critically and comprehensively.

The following table summarizes the three studies of the thesis. The section that follows that table describes briefly such variables of the studies as locations, number of participants, participants' countries of origin, and instruments along with highlighting some of the key findings of the studies.

Table 1: Summary of the Three Studies

Variables	Study One	Study Two	Study Three
<i>Location</i>	New Zealand	Bangladesh	Bangladesh
<i>Number of Participants</i>	30	70	46
<i>Participants' countries of origin</i>	China, Japan, Indonesia, Thailand, Colombia	Bangladesh	Bangladesh
<i>Instruments</i>	1. Background questionnaire 2. Grammar test, 3. Vocabulary test 4. Writing task	1. Background questionnaire 2. Grammar test 3. Vocabulary test 4. Writing task in English and Bangla with questionnaires	1. Background questionnaire 2. Feedback style and strategy questionnaire 3. Providing feedback on a writing sample

1.5.1 Study One

The first study was situated in New Zealand. The study recruited 30 participants, who hailed from such countries as China, Thailand, Indonesia, Japan, and Colombia. Twenty participants were of Chinese origin; the remaining ten participants were from the countries mentioned above. They spoke such mother tongues as Mandarin Chinese, Thai, Bahasa Indonesia, Japanese, and Spanish. During the study, all the participants were studying English at a College of English Language to meet the language requirement enabling them to embark on undergraduate and graduate studies in New Zealand. Although the participants were of different ages and levels of academic standing, their proficiency in English was similar given their performance in a placement test. The participants completed background questionnaire, a grammaticality judgement test, a vocabulary test, and a writing task. The data collection process lasted for about six months.

The findings suggested that L2 writers shared some common characteristics across languages and cultures. The Chinese and the non-Chinese learners of English of this study demonstrated similarities in recognizing and avoiding some grammatical items. With the non-Chinese participants, vocabulary and grammar tests' scores correlated with the scores of the

writing test. However, with the Chinese learners, scores in the vocabulary test did not correlate with those of the writing and grammar tests. The texts of the Chinese learners were qualitatively and quantitatively different from those of their non-Chinese counterparts. Across language and cultures, then, L2 writers did not seem to strategize writing in the same way, and their writing performance was not exactly alike. To some extent, L2 writers and learners were alike despite differing native languages and cultures, and L2 writers and learners were also different because of differing native languages and cultures.

1.5.2 Study Two

Study two was conducted in Bangladesh. It included 70 undergraduate students aged 17-24 years from a private university in the capital city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. Their proficiency in English was identical, based on performance in an admission test, which was similar to a placement test. Also, because they signed up for one of the sequential prerequisite courses in English, all students in that course may have completed other mandatory prerequisite courses in English. The native language of the participants was Bangla. The participants completed background questionnaires, vocabulary tests, grammaticality judgement tests, and writing tasks in English and Bangla. The study intended to understand how learners' background in the EFL context of Bangladesh influenced the learning of English as far as vocabulary and grammar were concerned. The study also intended to discover whether or how writing in an L1 and an L2 was similar or different as far as the procedure and the quality of writing were concerned.

The study discovered that writing in an L1 and an L2 was critically similar to and different from one another. Scores in the Bangla essay tests correlated with scores in English essay tests, which implied that a strong or a weak writer in an L1 was also the same in an L2. The way the participants of the study perceived and approached writing indicated that writing across languages was not significantly different. For both Bangla and English essays, the participants claimed to have planned before writing; they indicated identical revision habits; and their focus of writing hardly varied for both Bangla and English essays. At the same time, the study discovered that, despite these similarities between L1 and L2 writing, writing in an L1 was somewhat different from writing in an L2. While a significant percentage of participants claimed that they were excellent writers in their L1, there was little evidence of similar self-perceptions about their writing skills in L2. Furthermore, for the English essays the participants claimed that the main area of revision was grammar, whereas for the Bangla

essays the participants claimed that the main area of revision was content. The findings of this study did not propose any universal profile of a writer across languages. The perceptions, practices, and the quality of writing vary across languages, when some aspects of writing across languages overlap. This study proposes that learners' cultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds are critical areas to explore to discover how variations and similarities in writing across languages influence the development of writing skills.

1.5.3 Study three

The third study took place in Bangladesh. Its objective was to discover how the instructors in the EFL context of Bangladesh taught writing in English despite and because of their background training in different areas of specialization in English studies. It included 46 instructors from different public and private universities in Bangladesh. These instructors taught introductory, intermediate, and /or advanced courses in composition at those public and private universities. The participants completed background questionnaires, provided feedback on a piece of writing, and completed questionnaires that gleaned information regarding their styles and strategies of providing feedback. The data collection process lasted for four months.

The findings of the study revealed that younger instructors specialized in language-related areas, but the senior instructors specialized in literature. However, despite differences in their background training, they were teaching writing almost alike given their styles and strategies of providing feedback on students' writings. The findings demonstrated that the prevailing mode of teaching writing was grammar-based. Also, their perceptions about feedback provision did not align with their practices of providing feedback. The study hypothesized that because senior instructors, who had training in literature were in the influential position in the English departments across the country, they instructed the young instructors as to how to teach writing. As such, younger instructors having training in language –related areas may not have enacted the theories of teaching writing, which they knew because of their background training. Analysing the data, the study predicted that within the next two decades, the landscape of English studies would change, when the influence of literature would wane.as instructors having training on language-based areas would be in influential positions in the English departments across the country.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

The key concept that underpins the whole thesis is L2 writing. Silva (2005) claims that the field of L2 writing values contingent knowledge. It implies that the areas of teaching as well as learning L2 writing are multiple and diverse. In order to learn writing in English, L2 writers must demonstrate skills in such areas of writing as grammar and vocabulary. Indeed, because humans cannot transcend cultural biases even in their written discourses (Canagarajah, 2002a), the cultural backgrounds of L2 writers must be a component to understand why they write the way they do. Presumably, the only audience of academic writing are the instructors, who are also trapped by their own cultural tendency (Zamel, 1997) as far as their styles and strategies of feedback provision and error management are concerned. This thesis thus employs tools to discovering how instructors' academic backgrounds inform their pedagogical approaches to teaching L2 writing. The chapter, therefore, reviews pertinent literature in the areas of students' and instructors' backgrounds, grammar, vocabulary, feedback and error as well as the process approach to teaching L2 writing to collate empirical evidence and scholarly perspectives critical to the scope of the thesis. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the field of L2 writing.

2.2 L2 Writing: A Brief Overview

Matsuda (2013) contends that L2 writing is “a catchall term” (p.450). This implies that as an intellectual formation, the field is simultaneously fluid and formative. It embodies multiplicity. The field of L2 writing, then, is open to and incorporates various strands of information, ideas, and ideologies from disparate intellectual formations for its categorical and terminological as well as strategic and structural development. Because the history of the field of L2 writing is implicated with the histories of some other fields such as psychology, sociology and education (Silva, 2006), to chronicle its history is, at best difficult, at worst, partial. Over the last 50 years, the task of defining an intellectual formation has become even more difficult given a resistance to limited and limiting modernist perspective, which assumes that reality can be divided into discrete branches of knowledge for the narrowly trained specialists to conquer it (Matsuda, 2013). Matsuda (2013) further contends that

because of this resistance to modernist view of knowledge enterprise, an intellectual formation shifts from disciplinary to interdisciplinary to transdisciplinary. This considered, the field of L2 is transdisciplinary.

The transdisciplinary field of L2 writing, however, was essentially interdisciplinary in that it emerged as a result of a symbiotic relationship between its feeder disciplines such as composition studies and applied linguistics (Silva & Leki, 2004; Silva, 2006). However, the immediate ancestor of L2 writing is composition, which is a North American development (Bazerman, 2013; Silva, 2006). The scope and objective of composition studies-which is defined as the study and teaching of L1 writing in English- were qualified. It was meant for the so called native speakers of English. Its origin can be traced back to the beginning of the 19th century, but by the 1930, there were around 10,000 international students in the U.S., mostly from Asia and Europe, who brought unique problems with them in the classrooms (Matsuda, 2011). Mainstream composition instructors were either underprepared or unprepared to address their unique problems. Reid (1993) contends that their needs, backgrounds, learning styles, and writings strategies were diametrically different from those of the mainstream students. Indeed, because ESL writing has not been part of composition studies, when composition studies was undergoing revision from 1941 to 1966 for its own disciplinary identity, it “inadvertently contributed to the creation of the disciplinary division of labor that continues to influence the institutional practices in composition programs across the nation” (Matsuda, 2011, p. 675). Matsuda (2011) further contends that that was how TESL as a professional entity came into being, which accommodated L2 writing in English.

TESL, however, is an overgrowth or an offshoot of Applied Linguistics, which is also one of the feeder disciplines (Silva & Leki, 2004) of L2 writing. As Matsuda (2011) contends, the history of North America-based applied linguistics is implicated with the establishment of the English Language Institute (ELI) in 1941 at the University of Michigan. This does not mean that prior to the establishment of ELI, the teaching of English to non-native or international students did not take place in the U.S. Matsuda (2011) claims that the first English class for international students in the U.S. was taught in 1911 by J. Raleigh Nelson at the University of Michigan. A few more universities such as Harvard University and George Washington University followed Michigan University’s lead, though most of the universities failed to recognize the peculiar needs of the international students. ELI provided specialized intensive language instruction to ESL students along with providing professional preparation program for ESL teachers. Before the 1940s and until the establishment of ELI,

ESL was not recognized as a profession in the U.S. (Matsuda, 2011). ELI professionalized ESL or TESOL in the U.S., which ultimately contributed to the formation of L2 writing as a discipline.

However, until the 1990s or so, L2 writing as a disciplinary formation was pedagogical in nature to borrow uncritically from its feeder disciplines (Silva, 2006). After the 1990s, L2 established its disciplinary identity as far as its theories, philosophies, pedagogies, and modes of inquiry are concerned as Silva (2006) contends. Matsuda (2013) has problematized this straightforward view regarding L2 writing offered by Silva (2006). Matsuda (2013) claims that L2 writing is an issue-driven rather than a theory or method driven field. Because L2 writers hail from diverse linguistic, academic, and cultural backgrounds, they bring unique and unmet issues with them. Their facility in writing is contingent upon addressing those issues. No single theory or group of theories can address these issues. Theory building, as such, is an on-going process for the field of L2 writing. Since there is no straightforward, agreed upon, conclusive definition and theory of L2 writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005), it operated and operates under a series of context-specific and provisional theories. This doubtless makes the teaching and learning to write in an L2 difficult. Its feeder disciplines such as composition studies and applied linguistics have taken decades to establish their disciplinary identities. But the field of L2 writing gains its momentum in the 1990s to evolve and emerge as an independent intellectual formation given the presence and needs of resident second language writers and international students in North American higher education institutions. Therefore, L2 writing is relatively a new field susceptible to various influences en-route to becoming an independent discipline.

2.3 L2 Writing and Learners' Backgrounds

Yablo (2008) claims that every word that flows from mind to paper reveals something about a writer. Writing portrays a writer culturally, intellectually, and emotionally. However linguistically empowered or impoverished, an L2 writer is not immune to self-portrayal, in that human agency cannot transcend cultural biases (Canagarajah, 2002a). Consequently, when an L2 writer writes, his cultural biases or his unique culture-dependent styles of writing surface, which always do not conform to the styles and expectations of academic writing in North America. In L2 writing literature, academic writing is generally appreciated with reference to the North American style of writing, for the field has evolved and emerged there. North American academic writing is more conventional than creative, and it is more

institutional than individualistic. It may have accommodated the western expectations of writing, but it is not responsive to the fact that writing is cultural, and that writing is too creative and individualistic a process to conform to conventions. Having discovered the qualifications of academic writing in the west, Fox (1994) contends that it is cool and objective as well as it is unrealistically uniform and monolithic. Conforming to the North American style of academic writing for L2 writers, who hail from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, is consequential.

Under such circumstances, natives of different languages are converted (Shaughnessy, 1977) to learn the crafts of academic writing. Western academic writing is generally impersonal, objective, and arid that follows lock-step sequences: claim, defend, and conclude. It is a top-down or what Canagarajah (2006a) calls front-weighted writing. In this dispensation, a writer proposes something at the beginning of a paragraph; defends it with adequate information, illustration, and explanations, which form the body of a paragraph; and finally re-states the theme of the whole paragraph in a single sentence to conclude it. An L2 writer from a specific culture might find this style of writing unwieldy because of his perception of writing perpetuated by his culture. For example, Zamel (1997) contends that Japanese writing values subtlety and indirect expression. Japanese culture expects that a writer does not explain everything to the readers. Readers must apply his judgement and intelligence to appreciate a text. In Japanese culture, explaining everything to the readers is insulting. But the North American academic writing values directness and elaboration. Good academic writing is reader-based, where a writer explains everything to the readers. Writer-based prose that fails to transform private thought into public (Flower, 1979) is considered non-academic and unacceptable. For an L2 writer, then, learning to write academic prose means un-learning his culture-specific style of writing.

This process of acculturation into the L2 writing culture is neither instantaneous nor spontaneous for some L2 writers because of affective reasons. It requires them to assume a new identity, which may have derogatory connotation to some of them. For example, one of the participants of Ortmeier-Hooper's (2008) case study claims that though English is not his native language, he is not an ESL. The resistance of this student to an ESL denomination merits a critique, which has ramifications for L2 writing. An ESL or an L2 writer is a generic term, which disregards diverse cultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds of L2 writers. They are, instead, lumped together as a monolithic group of students, who need to learn the same thing and in the same way. Instruction is not tailored to the needs of a particular learner;

neither is it responsive to his unique style of learning. But ESL students come to study in the U.S. institutions having learned to learn in certain ways (Leki, 1991). Raimes (1991) cautions about “a generalized ESL student” (p.420). These two dimensions of L2 writing are incongruous with the essential principles L2 writing as an intellectual formation. As Silva (2006) contends that the development of the field of L2 writing has been contributed by many intellectual formations, which implies that it is essentially a hybrid field. But when it comes to teaching L2 writing, it is blandly unipolar. It demonstrates no hybridity and diversity. It avowedly conforms to North American principles and perceptions of academic writing.

The North American principles and perceptions of academic writing are not so reified as the writing instructors would claim. Professional native speakers of English do not necessarily write in a straight line beginning with a topic sentence and moving directly to support it (Leki, 1991b). Different writers approach writing differently because of the disciplines or the discourse communities they belong. Every discourse community has its own principles of academic writing, which are, of course, dynamic and protean. Academic writing, then, is fluid and contingent even in North America. For L2 writers, however, it is always constant. They must master the crafts of academic writing, which is critical in nature. In academic writing, being critical means being “remote, distant, and imponderable” (Sommers, 1993, p. 425). It discourages, even forbids, an L2 writer to be personally involved with a piece of writing. He cannot write with his soul, in that he has to produce pretentious and inflated prose that seems like written by machines (Toor, 2013). But personally involved writing generates more writing and satisfaction (Perl, 1980). As such, an L2 writer is denied access to “extraordinary generative power of language” (Raimies, 1985, p. 248) as well as the satisfaction of writing.

An L2 writer is culturally, linguistically, and academically already deeply situated. Transplanting him anew into another academic and linguistic culture renews a deficit model of learning. This may have contributed to confounding the crises of an L2 writer. Because “teaching is learning” (Reid, 2008, p.198), L2 instructors must learn to challenge and change their “time-bound preferences of North American academy” (Tucker, 1995, p.8) to help L2 learners learn to write. Provisions must be made so that L2 learners can draw on their rich repertoires of knowledge and experiences that they bring with them. Learning to write in an L2 is not synonymous in any way with un-learning one’s history of being and knowing. Canagarajah (2002) contends that by bringing their own histories into their writing projects, L2 writers are empowered, not paralyzed or confused. Empowering L2 writers is not

contingent upon an absolute rejection or acceptance of learners' culture, but it is presumably contingent upon a pedagogical approach that combines learners' cultures with the culture of the contexts of L2 instruction. The field of L2 writing values contingent knowledge (Silva, 2006). Therefore, for learning and teaching L2 writing, neither students nor instructors can afford to cower to a constant culture.

2.4 Grammar and L2 Writing

Grammar is apparently considered marginal, when it comes to the teaching of writing. However, no writing theorist or teacher has been able to sidestep grammar. Grammar aims at identification and elimination of errors. Burt and Kiparksy (1972) classified errors in two categories: local and global. Local errors are errors with form, which are grammatical and mechanical in nature. Ferris (2002) classified errors in two categories such as treatable and untreatable. Treatable errors in this context are errors with grammar and mechanics, for which learners can be referred to manuals to understand the cause of errors to eliminate those errors. Perhaps the reason grammar looms so large in the landscape of L2 writing is that egregious failures in grammatical appropriateness can undermine and destroy the effectiveness of other elements (Mills, 1953). Grammar is not discursive, but no discourse emerges unless it is undergirded by grammar. Flouting grammar is at once audacity and ignorance, which warrants consequences. Grammar disciplines the structural patterns of a language, which are critically important, in that they carry the physical signs that are associated with meanings (Mahboob, 2010). Meanings, then, in a language are structure-dependent. This is more so for an L2 writer than an L1 writer, in that an L2 writer has to learn the structure of a language in order to learn that language.

As such, Matsuda (2012b) contends that grammar should be taught with metalinguistic input. Metalinguistic input means contextualizing grammar with examples. This proposal warrants critical analysis. Teaching grammar with metalinguistic input is a discursive approach to addressing the issues with grammar. Thus, grammar leans more toward the production of language than the prescription about how to produce it. Grammar does not precede or supersede language; grammar, instead, is language. Language is rule governed, but the rules do not exist independent of a language. Teaching grammar, then, presupposes the creation of language through examples, illustrations, and explanations. Grammatical rules are not taught disembodied. These are contextualized. Grammar is, then, taught and absorbed in a naturalistic setting. Implementation of this proposal potentially

ensures that an L2 learner does not grapple with written and linguistic code (Raimes, 1985), but he subconsciously and simultaneously internalizes these.

While Matsuda (2012b) recommends that grammar be contextualized, the contexts of L2 writing are too diverse to have an identical pedagogical method. How English should be taught in the EFL contexts is often not determined by instructors, who may have been in the loop about the latest developments in L2 writing pedagogy. The socio-economic necessity and political considerations of an EFL context influence the policies and principles of teaching English, given “the role English plays in the country or region where it is being taught” (Ruecker, Shapiro, Johnson, & Tardy, 2014, p.401). Certainly, no two EFL contexts are socio-economically and politically alike. Despite these essential differences in EFL contexts, these are somehow homogeneous, and are irreducibly different from the ESL contexts. Williams (2003) contends that while an ESL context maintains “lingering reluctance to deal with grammar in any formal way”, and “many ESL writing textbooks include little, if any, attention to grammar” (p. 152), this trend is less apparent in an EFL context. This echoes the conclusion that writing, not grammar, is assigned more importance in ESL contexts than EFL contexts (Ruecker, Shapiro, Johnson, & Tardy, 2014).

Admittedly, then, L2 writers come from a grammar-dependent L2 learning environment. This may have prompted Leki (1992) to suggest that L2 learners should be taught grammar, for they are already used to learning English through grammar. Teaching through grammar is tantamount to teaching through their strength. But their strength in grammar, as implied by (Goldstein, 2004), may have helped them succeed in entrance or exit exams. A valid extrapolation as such is that they are incapable of transforming their skill in grammar into skill in composing, which is a complex process of drawing ideas and feelings together around a controlling mood or tone (Draper, 1969). While grammar requires recognizing and memorizing, composing requires creativity and thinking. This considered, teaching and learning grammar is prophylactic against composing. Despite this negative correlation between grammar and composing, L2 writers demonstrate strong inclination toward organizing their knowledge of English by rules (Harris & Silva, 1993). This is hardly surprising, for L2 writers are biased toward grammar.

Some teachers are biased toward grammar, too. Consequently, grammar is a complicated and controversial issue, which divides the world in two groups-“the grammarians and the anti-grammarians” (Hartwell, 1985, p.106) - who articulate the issue in

the same positivistic terms. Experimental research in the area has not resolved but perpetuated the issue, which may have prompted Hartwell (1985) to claim that “seventy –five years of experimental research has for all practical purposes told us nothing” (p.106). But when it comes to writing, the anti-grammarians seem to have compelling evidence and argument. For example, Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (1963) claim:

In view of the widespread agreement of research studies based upon many types of students and teachers, the conclusion could be stated in strong and unqualified terms: the teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction and practice in composition, even a harmful effect on improvement in writing. (P.37-38)

This endorses the conclusion of Truscott (1996) that grammar instruction is harmful for L2 writing. Grammar instruction may have had its own significance to foster language learning, but to foster one’s composing skills, it is marginally useful. Grammar is linguistic, but composing is metalinguistic. Grammar is formulaic and universal, but composing is habitual and individual. As such, learning to write qua learning grammar is apparently unlikely. Grammar and composing are two propositions apart.

The conclusion that grammar instruction is ineffective or counterproductive to teaching writing is further corroborated by a three-year experiment in New Zealand by Elley, Barham, Lamb, and Wyllie (1979). They endeavored to discover the relative effectiveness of instruction in transformational grammar, traditional grammar, and no grammar with the high school students. They concluded that the formal study of grammar, whether transformational or traditional, improved neither writing quality nor control over surface correctness. The quality of composing is affected by surface correctness, but it is not contingent upon surface correctness. It is, instead, contingent upon joining bits of information into relationship, many of which have never existed until the composer transcribes them (Norstrand, 1979). The composer cannot transcribe them effectively and emphatically until he exploits what Elbow (1983) calls “first order” thinking, which is creativity and intuition. But grammar short-circuits that creative and intuitive aspect of language, in that it is prescriptive in nature. Crystal (2004) contends that while grammar study fascinated people for over 2000 years, since the time of the Ancient Greeks, it started to fall out of favor in the 1960s because of its qualified potential to generate language. This characteristic of grammar is critical both for L1 and L2 writing.

Despite that, grammar is popularly considered to precede L2 writing proficiency. What accounts for perpetuating this perception is that L2 composing process generally seems more laborious compared to that of an L1, and that L2 writers make more errors overall (Silva, 1992). Because this laborious process of composing in an L2 results in products spattered with errors, which are mechanical in nature, grammar appears to offer the solution. Resorting to grammar under such circumstances can result in two opposite directions: Grammar is one aspect of writing that can be straightforwardly taught (Elbow, 1973), or there is no magic formula for teaching mechanics (Mills, 1953). Grammar, then, can be taught or cannot be taught. Writing, however, cannot be taught altogether. Writing, instead, is a learned skill, so writing instruction is nondirective and personal (Hyland, 2003). As well, it is developmental. Grammar instruction is not attuned to these critical dimensions in the development of writing skill. Writing instruction is not potentially effective when these critical dimensions of writing are not addressed. L2 writers should be taught writing not beyond grammar as Ferris (2002) claims, but grammar must not be rendered central to teaching writing, for “grammar is writing’s surface” (Elbow, 1981, p.168).

Grammar, as well, is a unidirectional approach to teaching writing, but L2 writing instructional practices are multi-directional and multifaceted, which address social, affective, cognitive issues involving the writer, the writing process, the written text, and the context for writing (Zhu, 2010). Teaching L2 writers mandates that instructors make learners aware of all these issues that writing embodies, along with providing the learners with the appropriate schemata so that they can address those issues in their writing. Learning to write in an L2 requires both strategic and mechanical skills. They participate in a reciprocal process, which simultaneously asks for creativity and convention. But composing emerges from and revolves around creativity, in that skilled writers take care of the mechanics at the end (Zamel, 1983). For L2 writers, when grammar precedes creativity, it can imply that L2 writers are not skilled, or are incapable of being skilled. This is a deficit model of teaching writing. For L2 writers, grammar is marginally important for learning to write. It is the responsibility for L2 instructors to remind the learners that “for most people, nothing helps their writing so much as learning to ignore grammar as they write” (Elbow, 1981, p.169).

However persuasive the argument against grammar in teaching L1 writing in English is, for teaching L2 writing in English this stance is problematic. Frodesen and Holten (2003) claim that L2 writers do not have the same “felt-sense” of correctness nor intuitive grasp of the rules of grammar of English that their native counterparts do, which warrants instruction

in grammar for L2 writers in English. Ellis (2002) argues that focus on form is not only beneficial but also necessary for adult ESL learners. For L2 writers in English, writing does not emerge or exist independent of grammar. It is, then, hardly controversial that “overt and systematic instruction” (Frodesen & Holten, 2003, p. 144) in grammar can help ESL learners use their intuitions about language judiciously. Apparently, Truscott (1996) is controversial, who claims that instruction in grammar is harmful and that it should be abandoned altogether. Controversial as Truscott (1996) is, he is not altogether insular. L2 writing scholars agree that “traditional and disembodied grammar instruction” (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 272) is not effective. What makes the centrality of grammar in teaching writing further problematic in ‘Written Correct Feedback’ (WCF) is the lack of consistency in research on this issue as well as the lack of consensus among writing instructors as to the modes WCF in grammar.

For example, Liu and Brown (2015) claim that the ongoing debate about the effectiveness of WCF has produced 300 published papers, but not much consensus has been reached even on the most fundamental issues such as whether feedback is a good practice or not, or how feedback can be most productively applied to help students improve their writing. These papers are so inconsistent with each other in terms of data collection instruments, recruitment of participants, interpretation of data, target grammatical features, and the consideration of learning and teaching contexts that despite several decades of research activity in this area, “we are virtually at Squire One” (Ferris, 2004, p. 49). This may account for why ESL instructors, who were accused by Zamel (1985) of being inconsistent in their reactions to students’ writings, have not streamlined their practices in WCF involving grammar till date. Yet “we cannot dismiss error correction’s potential out-of-hand” (Ferris, 2004, p. 60) because various lines of research yield positive evidences of the potential of error correction in helping students improve writing. Nonetheless, given all these inconsistencies the ways WCF is perceived, practiced, and researched, Ferris (2004) agrees with Truscott (1996) that these evidences of improvement because of error correction or WCF are only suggestive, not conclusive. Regarding error correction or grammar instruction in L2 writing, the field of L2 writing is polarized by two strands of ideas, information, arguments, and evidences. This implies that the debate or discussion that Truscott (1996) sparked involving grammar instruction or error correction is unresolved and ongoing.

2.5 Vocabulary and L2 Writing

Words manifest writing physically. Writing, then, is word. This definition of writing applies to both L1 and L2 writing. Ironically, despite being so central to writing, vocabulary is the least cultivated field in all of composition research (Shaughnessy, 1977). Composition studies has not researched vocabulary so critically and rigorously as styles, strategies, politics, and ideologies of writing. But “verbal fitness levels” (Sword, 2007, p.1) determines the quality of a piece of writing more than any other constituent component of writing. Vocabulary potentially makes a piece of writing either vibrant or vapid. Even syntactic and mechanical accuracy of a piece of writing fails partially or completely to convey an intended message until it is appropriately worded. This may have prompted Lunsford (1980) to claim that vocabulary choice and linguistic virtuosity are closely tied to the levels of writing skills. Therefore, vocabulary indicates facility in writing and influences the evaluation of writing skills both in L1 and L2 contexts.

For the L2 writers, however, the problem with vocabulary is more apparent relative to L1 writers given that L2 writers learn vocabulary consciously at a later phase of their lives instead of acquiring it subconsciously since they were born. In the academic context, the problem gets further confounded in that they grapple with the distinctive burden to write, while they continue to learn the language (Leki, 1992). They possess inadequate vocabulary, and they have limited control over that vocabulary. Consequently, their writing lacks variety, complexity, and elegance. Restricted vocabulary makes writing tasks difficult for L2 writers (Williams, 2005). Writing embodies thinking, but for L2 writers, their writings may not be an appropriate reflection of their thinking. Bizzell (2011) claims that the development of thought and the acquisition of a language are the concurrent events, so one does not have an idea unless one has a word for it. Since L2 writers are generally impoverished as far as their vocabulary is concerned, their thoughts are often not captured in their writings. For L2 writers, then, writing is not synonymous with thinking. Their writings misrepresent them.

Vocabulary accounts for this misrepresentation. Silva (1997) claims that L2 writers use shorter words, less specific words, and they manifest less lexical variety and sophistication. Academic writing, as Sword (2012) contends, is higher order thinking, which often cannot be captured by short, simple Anglo-Saxon words. As such, for academic writing, complex Latinate words are sometimes a necessity. But manoeuvring complex words precisely presupposes keen knowledge about and frequent application of those words. This

may explain why L2 writers use simple words and avoid complex words. When knowledge about vocabulary is inadequate, words are often less specific. Lexical variety and sophistication is contingent upon knowing the “shades of meaning” (Zinsser, 1998, p.34), of “strong and supple words” (p.34) of the rich English language. Because English words are not tied to the experience of L2 students (Spack, 1984), they are not subliminally attuned to their various semantic properties and sophistication. Learning vocabulary words does not seem to solve the problem for the L2 writers unless they are internalized. Internalizing vocabulary words is a time-consuming process.

So, too, is learning to write in an L2 given that L2 learning is a long and slow process, which takes many years of training (Bazerman, 2013; Harris & Silva, 1993; Silva, 1997). Developing an appreciation for the nuances of meaning is being the main reason why it takes so long to learn a language. Words are not agentive by themselves, but the writers are. Words are essentially inanimate, but a writer makes them animate by making them symbols of meaning. For L2 writers, this is a daunting task. Words are animate only when a writer “breathes experience into words” (Elbow, 1981, p.322). An L2 writer experiences the world through his L1. His experience is inseparable from his language, which is too idiosyncratic to be similar to another language. The lexical resources of another language cannot capture that unique experience of L2 writers. It is, then, not the inadequate vocabulary of an L2 writer, which accounts for infelicity in writing of L2 writers. An L2 itself confounds the crisis of an L2 writer.

Pertinent in this context is Flower’s (1979) classification of memory in two categories such as episodic and semantic. Episodic memory is the ability to remember an event as it occurs or occurred. Semantic memory is the linguistic ability to transcribe that memory. Writing manifests semantic memory. However, for an L2 writer, unlike an L1 writer, the process of transforming an episodic memory into a semantic one is different, perhaps even difficult. Under normal circumstances, episodic memory is a given, and because there is something natural in one’s becoming a writer in his native language (Bradatan, 2013), he can transform an episodic memory into a semantic one with some grace and elegance. An L2 writer’s episodic memory, on the other hand, is etched to his L1. Therefore, the natural process of writing, when an episodic memory is transformed into a semantic one, differs for an L2 writer, who is constrained by the semantic and syntactic restrictions (Zamel, 1983) of an L2. Given this intricate interplay between episodic and semantic memory, writing in an L2 is challenging and constricting for an L2 writer, particularly because of vocabulary.

Pinker (1996) claims that the English language has approximately one hundred thousand (100,000) basic words. By basic word, he means an original word (e.g., teach), not its derivative (e.g., teaching). Apparently, it does not look to be a daunting task to learn those words, but it indeed is. Tucker (2003) contends that humans are capable of learning eight words a day. This considered, it takes a lifetime of training to learn those words. Learning all these words, however, is not a fundamental prerequisite to learning to write in English, in that Raimes (1985) contends that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary does not necessarily have to precede writing. However, to undertake works in English at undergraduate level, a student needs at least 17,000 words (Williams, 2005). Apparently, an L2 writer, who starts to learn English at a later phase of his life, does not possess a repertoire of vocabulary of that ballpark. An L2 writer is not essentially intellectually deficient, but because of an inadequate vocabulary, his writing lacks linguistic refinement and conceptual sophistication. As is, “one frequent impediment to academic success for L2 writers is their limited vocabulary” (Williams, 2005, p.29).

Because, for an L2 writer, learning vocabulary is motivated by academic purpose, it is not completely aligned with the actual purpose of writing, which is communication. The scope and application of academic writing is qualified as such. Writing is a creative endeavor for constructing meaning, but Sword (2011) claims that academic writing crushes creativity, because it is too reified. Likewise, given the constraints of academic writing, Elbow (1991) contends that there is no such thing as academic discourse. Academic discourse is essentially syntax driven, not semantics driven, at least initially for L2 writers. Consequently, L2 writers are not aware of the semantic possibilities of words. Sommers (1980) contends that inadequate vocabulary compels basic writers to adopt a “thesaurus philosophy of writing” (p. 381) when they concentrate on lexical changes, not semantic changes. They tend to consider a single word as the most critical unit of discourse, when they are unaware of “the semantic relationship between words” (Webb & Sasao, 2013, p. 269). L2 learners learn words disembodied, that is, form-meaning connection, and independent of other words. For this reason, the limited vocabulary of an L2 writer gets further anemic. To some extent, the focus and purpose of academic writing may have confounded the crisis with words for L2 writers.

Folse (2008) contends that vocabulary significantly influences grading and evaluation, but vocabulary is hardly taught to native as well as to non-native students. He presented the grading criteria of some of the language proficiency tests such as TOEFL and IELTS and demonstrated that in those tests, vocabulary is considered critical to assigning a grade. Folse

(2008) further contends that the problem with vocabulary of L2 students can cripple learners so badly that it might lead them to plagiarism. It is arguable whether or not inadequate vocabulary leads to ethical infraction, but an impoverished vocabulary is consequential especially for L2 writers. Silva (1992) contends that L2 texts are less sophisticated and less expressive of writer's thoughts and intentions because of less figurative language. L2 composing is strategically, rhetorically, and linguistically different in important ways from L1 writing (Silva, 1993), but unusual word combinations in speech and writing tend to distinguish non-native speakers from native speakers (Webb & Sasao, 2013). Because the fluid, effective, and evocative style of composing of native speakers is the ultimate objective of instruction in L2 writing, teaching vocabulary is perhaps the most critical candidate for the instructors to achieve that objective.

2.6 Instructors' Backgrounds and L2 Writing

It is popularly believed that instructors teach the way they were taught what Lortie (1975, p.61) "apprenticeship of observation." If, however, an L2 writing instructor teaches the way he was taught, he will end up teaching either applied linguistic or composition, not L2 writing. This is because as an intellectual formation, L2 emerges fairly recently and has not established its independent principles and procedures of teaching. It, then, has to depend on its feeder disciplines such as composition studies and applied linguistics (Silva, 2006) as it strives to become an independent intellectual formation. Paradoxically, the field of L2 writing as an intellectual formation is essentially never independent, in that it is an extension or outgrowth of both applied linguistic and composition studies. Consequently, the background training of instructors in such a field is complex and time-consuming as well as evolving. While the background training of L2 instructors entails hybridity, the mode of instruction is monolithic, for L2 instruction is not site-specific (Matsuda & Hamill, 2014). Both in ESL and EFL contexts, the mode of teaching is ideally identical. Indeed, because the training base of L2 writing revolves around North American, where it originates from, (Bazerman, 2013; Silva, 2006), and the teaching and learning of English is a global phenomenon, instructors' background training has become a critical issue for L2 instruction.

This is no accident that the promotion of the teaching of L2 writing is somewhat scuppered by a lack of adequately prepared instructors. Even an adequately prepared instructor may not teach effectively given the influences of the contributing fields – composition studies and applied linguistics- that are implicated in the training of an L2

instructor. As an intellectual formation, while composition studies is overtly radical and political, ESL is conservative (Santos, 1992). Besides, even though ESL is a non-scientific field (Raimes, 1983), it is based on an objective epistemology (Silva, 2005). Essentially, the field of L2 writing is neither political, nor is it based on an objective epistemology. It is based on an interactionist epistemology (Silva, 2005), when it has to devolve into something different despite being dependent on its feeder disciplines. In a situation such as this, the background training of an L2 instructor breeds some potential pitfalls both for ESL and EFL contexts to optimize learning outcome. In an ESL context, the dominant tendency of teaching L2 writing as Reid (1987) contends is often to use materials that have been developed with the learning needs of native speakers in mind. Since L1 writing is irreducibly different from L2 writing, an instructional approach that conflates ESL and EFL contexts is essentially flawed. Therefore, the background training of an L2 instructor must address context-specific insidious issues.

For an EFL context, the teaching of writing is even more neglected because of instructors' background in and inclination toward literature in that composition is the step child of literature (Harris, 1990). In Bangladesh, for example, until 1993 when the private university was launched, systemic instruction in composition was never a component of English studies (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). English studies used to revolve around literature, which presupposed mastery of grammar. Grammar study is marginally necessary for composing (Zamel, 1976), and the teaching of literature is based on philosophy, which does not align with that of composition. For example, Elbow (2002) contends that a literature classroom is lecture-based, while composition classroom is workshop-based. In composition studies, Elbow (2002) continues, work means teaching, whereas in literature, work means research, which has nothing to do with the genuine needs of students. This patently means that with a literature background, no teacher perhaps qualifies to teach composition. Certainly, then, no one qualifies to teach L2 writing without undergoing proper background training. As such, Silva (1993) contends that ESL students should be taught by teachers who are cognizant of, sensitive to, and able to deal positively and effectively with socio-cultural, rhetorical, and linguistic differences of their students.

Likewise, Williams (2005) claims that an L2 instructor has to wear many hats in any classroom, in that effective teaching is contingent upon informed decisions about students and the contexts of teaching. Perhaps the most critical component that the training of an L2 instructor should include is knowledge about the diverse backgrounds of L2 writers.

Instruction in L2 writing may have taken place in a specific-site or a classroom, but all L2 writers will not learn to write in a similar fashion. Because of the diversities in their backgrounds, their styles and strategies of learning will vary, and they will need more time and individual attention than their native counterparts to learn to write (Kietlinska, 2006). For teaching L2 writers, it is not inevitable that an instructor has to be a multilingual, but it is a fundamental prerequisite that an L2 instructor is multicultural. Zamel (1997) contends that an L2 instructor must not be trapped by his own cultural tendency. For any L2 instructor, intercultural capital predicts effective teaching especially in an ESL context. Nonetheless, Raimes (1983) has been always germane when it comes to teaching L2 writing and instructors' background:

There is no answer to the question of how to teach in ESL classes. There are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles. (p.5)

What this implies is that L2 instructors, regardless of contexts, hardly teach alike. Similarly, L2 writers, regardless of contexts, do not learn to write alike. Because the process of writing follows some predictable steps and stages, so does the process of teaching. It is completely unlikely that the diversity of L2 learners' backgrounds can ever be eliminated. Therefore, how the diversities among the L2 writing students are addressed in the process of teaching writing should be critically considered in the training of L2 writing instructors.

2.7 Errors and Feedback in L2 Writing

Simply put, errors are the violation of standard codes of language. This statement oversimplifies and underconceptualizes the definition of error. Connors and Lunsford (1988) claim that teachers' ideas about error definition and classification have always been an absolute product of their times and cultures, for teachers have always marked different phenomena as errors, called them different things, and gave them different weights. Despite these differences in definition and classification of errors among writing teachers and theorists, errors constitute a peculiar position in the teaching of writing. Pointing out errors seems to most writing teachers part of what they do (Connors & Lunsford, 1988). However, Brannon and Knoblauch (1982) reviewed a large body of literature on native speakers, nearly all of which concluded that marking errors on students' papers did not help them improve their writing, nor even eliminate their errors. Moreover, a few errors does not spoil a fine

piece of writing (Briedenback, 2006). Writing is thinking, which is too important to be corrected by the book (Murray, 1981).

But writing instructors are so attuned to errors and so involved in ferreting them out that they tend to neglect to praise their students when they take a risk and try and get it wrong (Raimes, 1991). When writing instructors emphasize an error-focused pedagogy, learners conceive of writing as something mechanical, not rhetorical. Learners become concerned with the look of their writing, when they do not experience the internal flow of composing (Perl, 1979). Essentially, composing renews a synergy between flow and restriction or an expressive abandon and rational control (Calonne, 2006). As such, the strategy of writing cannot be reified the way an error-focused pedagogy proposes. Errors are unintended but unavoidable by-products of writing. Purging writing of errors is an unnatural and reductive approach to teaching writing. It does not help learners avoid errors; it, instead, may have compounded the crisis by causing more teacher induced errors (Raimes, 1991). Therefore, an error-dependent pedagogy to teaching writing is counter-productive.

It also entails critical psychological consequences. Murray (1982) contends that writing is an intellectual activity carried on in an emotional environment. Writing, then, is not altogether cognitive. It is affective, too. But an error-dependent pedagogy is apparently not responsive to the affective aspect of writing, in that it points to the shortcomings of students by writing instructors, who are accused of hostility and mean-spirited comments (Sommers, 1982). Students feel stupid, wrong, trivial, and misunderstood (Connors & Lunsford, 1988), for these interventions amount to spilling blood across the page. As Horning (2002) contends that in order to write, one must have metaphorical skill, which is considering oneself as a writer. Writing, then, precedes confidence. L2 writers have fragile confidence because of their inadequate facility in writing, but when instructors magnify their errors, their confidence as writers plunges further.

Bradatan (2013) claims that any L2 writer undergoes a death and re-birth experience as he attempts to write in an L2. As a consequence, as he claims, every L2 writer becomes a linguistic maniac and a compulsive grammarian. What this implies is that an L2 writer is so deeply colonized by the language that he considers language to be more constrictive than creative. This goes against the grain of what writing essentially is. Writing is a creative process of discovering meaning from the confusion of information (Murray, 1996). Every writer is inevitably confused before and during writing, because meaning in writing is not

what one starts up with, but what one ends up with (Elbow, 1973). Errors are the linguistic manifestations of this confusion, but writing embodies affective, cognitive, and social dimensions, which are not addressed even when the linguistic errors are identified and fixed. Eliminating errors should not be the main objective of writing instruction. Errors should be studied critically, for errors are clues to the inner windows into the minds of the writers (Kroll & Schafer, 1978), who are making complex hypotheses en-route to learning the language. Errors thus are fraught with significant pedagogical information.

Nonetheless, the evaluation of a text written by an L2 writer is critically contingent upon the surface linguistic features, that is, error. For example, Vann, Lorenz, and Meyer (1991) surveyed 490 faculty members in a large State University in the U.S. of such disciplines as education, humanities, social sciences, engineering, physics, mathematics, biology, agriculture, and medicine. They discovered that faculty members across these disciplines considered appropriate and accurate use of English syntax with reference to verb forms, tenses, and passive voices. Santos (1988), Horowitz (1986), and Johns (1981) proposed the same conclusions regarding the expectations of faculty members from various disciplines of L2 writers. This preference of the instructors across disciplines accounts for why L2 writers are more preoccupied with the linguistic features of their writings than considering writing as a tool to generating ideas and making meanings. Linguistic features, certainly, merit instruction. If, however, it becomes the only focus of writing instruction, then writing is partially taught. Consequently, writing is partially experienced and learned by L2 writers, which is responsible for making them vulnerable to errors to warrant feedback.

Error management is contingent upon the provision of feedback, which polarizes writing theorists. This is an area where writing instructors demonstrate “multiple personality disorder” (Conners & Lunsford, 1988, p.395). For example, Truscott (1996) contends that feedback is ineffective and it should be abandoned, for it is not attuned to the developmental and sequential process of learning, and it effects only pseudo learning. Both Krashen (1984) and Zamel (1976) endorsed Truscott’s views about feedback. However, Bitchener and Ferris (2012) contend that feedback is essentially helpful. They aver that why feedback should be given is not the question; instead, how feedback should be provided merits critical considerations and modifications. Besides, both Reid (1994) and Emig (1967), two influential writing scholars, define teaching of writing as intervention. Reid (1994) contends that since a teacher knows more about the parameters and constraints of academic writing, it is his responsibility to intervene in students’ writings. The objective of this intervention is benign,

in that it aims at informing students how others read their writing, and what revisions might strengthen their writing (Goldstein, 2004). Because errors are considered to be flawed verbal transaction between readers and writers (Williams, 1981), feedback has the potential to eliminate the “flaws” to ease the verbal transaction between writers and readers.

However promising feedback appears, one of the potential pitfalls regarding feedback is that it is primarily instructor generated, which is “idiosyncratic and arbitrary” (Sommers, 1982, p. 149). Feedback is not always tailored to the needs of students. For example, students are more interested in comments on content and organization than accuracy and form (Barnett, 1989); even, some students responded with hostility when teachers commented primarily on error (Semke, 1984). But L2 writing instructors are trapped by their own cultural tendency to reduce, categorize, and generalize writing as a demonstration of mechanical skills (Zamel, 1997). A pedagogical approach to teaching writing this way persuades an instructor to be an error hunter (Hairston, 1984), and his responsibility seems to have been well-accomplished only when he provides students with large doses of language instruction to improve their writing (Raimes, 1985). There hardly exists a positive correlation between language instruction and improvement in writing. Writing is a non-linear process, which responds little to grammatical corrections (Leki, 1991a).

This may have prompted Leki (1991a) to contend that error correction in their present form do not typically help students avoid mistakes. Students may be unwilling and unable to avoid mistakes in their writing, but incriminating students may confound the crisis further. The principles of teaching writing should be streamlined to help students learn writing. Teachers must stop providing vague and abstract comments (Zamel, 1985) on students’ writings. They must provide text-specific as well as student-specific comments, which cannot be interchanged and rubber-stumped from text to text (Sommers, 1982). Learning to write in an L2 is never easy, but it can always be enlightening. When students strive and succeed to breathe life into words (Elbow, 1981), they feel a sense of achievement. They, then, discover that they “have the autonomy to make decisions in spite of the circumstance” (Matsuda, 1997, p.49) as they write in a second language. Writing is about decision making with regard to semantic, syntactic, mechanical, and ideological options. Students can make these decisions as L2 writers despite their linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds. Pointing out errors and the provision of feedback may not help students make these decisions until teachers’ comments point to breaks in logic, disruptions in meaning, or missing

information (Sommers, 1982). Feedback, then, ideally addresses both mechanical as well as rhetorical dimensions of writing.

Practically, though, L2 instructors in general provide feedback that addresses only mechanical issues of writing. This might be at once an informed and conservative pedagogical approach to teaching L2 learners. L2 instructors across the ESL contexts are generally informed that L2 writers are socialized into rhetorical constructs and discourse genre different from those in the Anglo-American academy (Hinkel, 2002). When feedback is provided to modify or change the rhetorical structure of discourse, it might potentially disadvantage L2 writers, in that they may have lacked prior orientation to that particular rhetorical pattern of discourse generation. It is apparently a deficit model of teaching L2 writing. This is also a conservative model of teaching writing as rhetorical errors are not so apparent and amenable to intervention as mechanical errors are. Zamel (1985) contends that errors most easily dealt with are the ones identified. Identifying mechanical errors to help learners correct writing provide both instructors and learners with a sense of instant gratification. This accounts for why the landscape of L2 writing is dominated more by feedback on mechanics than rhetorics.

2.8 L2 Writing and Process Pedagogy

While composition is a North American phenomenon, teaching composition as a process is not. The approach to teaching writing as a process has been a British idea, which was incorporated in composition studies in North America following a conference, the Dartmouth Conference, in 1966 (Villanueva & Arola, 2011). Fifty teachers of English from the U.K, and the U.S.A. participated in that conference, when the American teachers discovered that the British did not teach writing as discipline-specific. The British, instead, taught writing as a means of individual development and self-discovery. The American teachers were convinced of the potential of this approach to teaching writing, which ushered in a new era in composition studies in North America. Thus, the 1960s marked the emergence of process pedagogy in North America, though Barriss Mills in an academic article in 1953 attributed North America's failure to teaching writing in its incapacity to teach it as a process. But that sporadic thought did not initiate any activism, let alone initiate a movement to teaching writing. Janet Emig's seminal work, *The Composing Process of Twelfth Graders*, in 1971 provided compelling ideas, information, and arguments in favor of process pedagogy. Emig (1971) has been singularly responsible for providing with intellectual, philosophical,

and ideological underpins of process pedagogy for L1 writing in North America. Because L2 writing originated from and was influenced by the principles of teaching L1 writing, it imported the process pedagogy (Silva, 2006) almost uncritically from the field of composition studies.

Zamel (1983) claims that writing processes are realized in people's first and second language in fundamentally the same ways, which is echoed by Raimes (1985) and Jones and Tetroe (1987). It is, nonetheless, an unlikely proposition to claim that the L1 and L2 writers are identical when it comes to the process of writing, in that an identical process cannot yield products, which are hardly alike. In general, the text of an L2 writer is linguistically and conceptually impoverished relative to that of an L1 writer. Consequently, the text of an L2 writer warrants immediate intervention by instructors to purge it of linguistic litters and conceptual incongruities. This is where the principles of process pedagogy conflict with the personal needs of an L2 writer. Fulkerson (2005) claims that writing is a hermeneutic guesswork; it is not formulaic. Emig (1971) claims that writing is individualistic, and that the focus is often on personal. Given these two characteristics of process pedagogy-writing is not formulaic, and that writing is a process of individual development-intervention by teachers on students' writing is not a fundamental prerequisite to writing as far as process is concerned. It allows a writer both autonomy and agency to engage in a purposeful act of discovering, analysing, and synthesizing linguistic and conceptual options to transcribe one's thoughts (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Indeed, because an L2 writer is less intimidated and stigmatized by errors (Raimes, 1985), he wants an instructor to intervene at every step in the process of writing. The process pedagogy, then, cannot completely accommodate the expectations of an L2 student as to how writing should be learned with that of a teacher as to how writing should be taught.

Essentially, process pedagogy is student-centered. But it is challenging for an instructor to implement the principles of process pedagogy for L2 students unless he reverses their perception of good writing, which is error-free writing (Leki, 1991a). One of the proponents of process pedagogy, Murray (1982), claims that too much instruction regarding the elimination of errors is failure-centered, and it reinforces errors unintentionally. The advocates of process pedagogy recommend maintaining a benign neglect of error, and this is exactly how process pedagogy distinguishes itself from the previous methods of teaching writing: controlled composition and current traditional rhetoric. Silva (2006) contends that process pedagogy grew out of dissatisfaction with the controlled and current traditional

methods of teaching writing, which were inadequate to engender enough thoughts and expressions to facilitate composing, in that they subscribed to a linear and proscriptive view of writing. In a control composition classroom, the primary focus is accuracy. In this dispensation, an error is an anathema. The primary focus of current traditional method is contrastive rhetoric, which intends to analyse the written discourse of an L2 writer so as to discover how the L1 may have influenced the writing (Silva, 2006) of a particular learner. Also, the analysis of written discourse used to revolve around a paragraph to assess its logical organization in terms of topic sentence, usage, and style. Both of these methods consider writing as prescriptive and procedural. But composing essentially is a recursive, generative, and exploratory process. Because the composing process is identical for both L1 and L2 writers (Zamel, 1982), L2 writers should be taught writing according to the principles of this method.

However, the principles of process pedagogy are hardly reified, for there is not one writing process but many and can change as a writer evolves (Murray, 1996). Nonetheless, the process exists. Apparently, the process of writing is considered to have three steps: pre-writing, writing, re-writing. These are not invariant order of steps involving in the process of writing. They overlap. As a writer embarks on writing, he moves back and forth, a process what Perl (1980) called projective and retrospective structuring, to explore his linguistic options for transcribing his thoughts. Thoughts are not constant and instant. They must evolve to emerge. Since writing is thinking (Murray, 1981), ideally, a piece of writing captures and reflects evolving thoughts. Therefore, revision is key to writing (Zinsser, 1996). Revision should not be confused with editing, which is a crucial but last step (Elbow, 1973) toward revision in order to purge a piece of writing of linguistic litters. Revision is a complex, creative process, which is based on the stipulations that a piece of writing is never final (Murray, 1969), and that all texts can be improved (Murray, 1982). But revision is not the greatest strength of an L2 writer given his linguistic and conceptual shortcomings. Sommers (1982) and Krashen (1984) contend that generally an L2 writer revises by editing, fixing up forms and mechanics. Therefore, the application of process pedagogy for L2 classroom warrants some consideration, even caution.

That must not imply that for L2 writing, process pedagogy is potentially ineffective or counterproductive. Like any writer, an L2 writer is also a writer in process (Hairston, 1984). But the process is fluid and idiosyncratic. As such, the steps and stages that the process of writing entail cannot be regimented as sequential. However, process research and theory were

essentially mistaken from the beginning (Fulkerson, 2005). Every teacher can be teaching writing as a process, but everyone can be teaching a different process, since Faigley (1986) contends there are three schools of process pedagogy. The first one is called ‘expressive’, which is represented by Peter Elbow, Donald Murray, and Ken Macrorie. The second one is called ‘cognitivist’, which is represented by Linda Flower, Barry Kroll, and John Hayes. The third one is ‘social constructivist’, which is represented by Patricia Bizzell, Kenneth Bruffee, and John Trimbur. Surprisingly, process pedagogy is typically equated with an expressive axiology, which intends to bring out the internal voice of an individual writer. Fulkerson (2005) contends that this is a wrong appreciation and interpretation of process pedagogy, in that most process teaching is derived from the cognitive and problem-solving works of Linda Flowers and John Hayes. In this context, process simply means what goes on in the head of a writer as writing is being undertaken. This aspect of composing is not culture, classroom, or context-specific. This is, instead, a universal attribute or skill participating in the process of composing. It is identical for both L1 and L2 writers. Therefore, the process approach to teaching L1 writing is potentially promising for L2 writing, too.

2.9 Conclusion

However exhaustively one endeavors to review literature on L2 writing, it is essentially partial and tentative for two reasons. For one, while the feeder disciplines of L2 writing such as composition studies and applied linguistics (Silva, 2002) emerged at the beginning of the 20th century, as an intellectual formation, L2 writing flourished after the 90s of the 20th century (Matsuda, 2013). The field of L2 writing has not yet amassed a considerable pool of literature as such. Secondly, the field of L2 writing is a North American development (Silva, 2001), and the knowledge-base of the field is still restricted in North America. However, the teaching and learning L2 writing has been a global phenomenon, in that 80% of the world’s English language teachers are members of periphery communities (Canagarajah, 2002b). Because in the periphery communities, writing is not taught the way it is taught in North America (Canagarajah, 2002b), research on writing in the periphery communities is seldom undertaken. As a result, an appreciation of L2 writing by means of available literature is qualified. Within this constraint of L2 writing, the literature review in this context is pertinent, current, and exhaustive to critique the aspect of L2 writing, which this thesis revolves around.

Chapter 3

EFFECTS OF VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR ON ENGLISH L2 WRITING BY LEARNERS FROM CHINESE AND NON-CHINESE BACKGROUNDS

3.1 Overview

This chapter reports the findings of a study examining the L2 writing performance in English by learners from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Participants (n=30) hailed from such countries as China, Thailand, Indonesia, Japan, and Colombia. Their age ranged from 16 to 40 years. Their level of formal education varied from high school to master's degree. During the study, the participants were honing their English language skills at an English Language College in Christchurch to undertake higher studies at a university in New Zealand. Their proficiency in English was apparently similar given the results of a placement test. Participants completed background questionnaires, grammaticality judgement tests, vocabulary tests, and writing tasks. Incidentally, 20 participants of this study were of Chinese origin, so they were conveniently classified as Chinese and non-Chinese. Findings indicated that for the non-Chinese participants, both vocabulary and grammar test scores correlated with the scores of the writing test. However, for the Chinese learners, scores in the vocabulary test did not correlate with those of grammar and writing. The differences in performance between these two groups suggest that L2 writers of this study are influenced by their native culture and/or language to learn writing in English in a specific way. The finding of this study proposes that effective strategies to teaching L2 across various cultural and linguistic contexts are contingent upon an understanding of learners' cultural and linguistic orientation and development.

3.2 Introduction

Writing in an L2 is unlike writing in a native language in that L2 writers are generally more constrained than their native counterparts by the linguistic and written codes of the language. The mutual relationship among various components of writing and how these components are influenced by the learners' culture and specific writing styles and strategies is an under-researched area in the field of L2 writing. The purpose of the current study is to understand the constituent components that underlie performance of L2 writing in English of pre-university

learners. This is so that when such learners embark on higher studies, instructors can address their issues with writing in an informed fashion. The focus of the current work is on the components of grammar and vocabulary and on how to determine their possible relationships with writing in English. Instruction in grammar has not been unanimously recognized by ESL writing scholars and instructors as integral to teaching writing (Krashen, 1984). On the other hand, vocabulary has received less attention in L2 pedagogy compared to the other aspects of language (Folse, 2004). Nonetheless, writing is more than words strung together grammatically. Canagarajah (2002) contends that human agency cannot transcend cultural biases; hence, learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds undoubtedly permeate their texts. As such, a second objective of this study is to investigate whether the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of learners influence the styles and strategies of writing. In the present study, the focus is on L2 writers in English of Chinese and non-Chinese origins. Chinese learners were selected with specific consideration because of their unique educational and cultural experiences compared to other English L2 learners, who are steeped in more Western orthodox traditions (Gu, 2005). Therefore, a comparison between Chinese and non-Chinese learners can potentially yield critical information to facilitate the teaching and learning of English L2 writing across contexts.

3.3 Literature Review

A natural writer is an oxymoron in that writing is essentially a struggle for everyone (Breidenbach, 2006). However, it is easier to become a writer in one's native language (Bradatan, 2013). It is as if at least one language is innately available to human beings under normal cognitive and social circumstances. When one transcribes or translates one's thoughts in that language, he is familiar with the lexical, syntactic, and mechanical options and restrictions without having to struggle through the process of writing in an informed and advantageous fashion. However manufactured, inhuman, and artificial writing is (Ong, 1983), one's "interior language" (Hoffman, 1991, p. 108) undoubtedly eases the process of writing. When one decides or needs to learn to write in an L2, the scenario reverses, for he descends to a zero-point of existence (Bradatan, 2013) by changing language. L2 writers, therefore, are ontologically different from their L1 counterparts, though some writing scholars (Zamel, 1983; Raimes, 1985; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Silva & Leki, 2004) contend that writing processes in people's first and second languages are fundamentally realized in the same way.

While writing scholars are polarized as to whether or not the processes of writing in L1 or L2 are identical or different, the pedagogical approaches to teaching writing in L1 and L2 have been fundamentally different. Historically, in teaching L1 writing, style and structure are emphasized (Silva, 1992), while in teaching second language writing, language-specific errors are emphasized (Zamel, 1985). For L2 writers, then, writing is not composing, which is a sustained activity of discovering meaning (Norstrand, 1979). L2 writers instead engage in a process of demonstrating mastery in mechanics when they equate good writing with error-free writing (Leki, 1991). Apparently, the most effective way to help students produce error-free writing is to teach them grammar. Consequently, the focus of teaching writing to L2 writers shifts from the strategy of writing to the mechanics of writing. This in turn makes students compulsive grammarians (Bradatan, 2013), and teachers the privileged intruders (Draper, 1969) to hunt errors. For less proficient L2 writers, writing is not a cognitive or a problem-solving process but is instead a process of generating formulaic texts.

In these formulaic texts, less proficient L2 writers make more errors compared to their L1 counterparts (Silva, 1992)—which is understandable in that L2 writing is strategically, rhetorically, and linguistically different in important ways from L1 writing (Silva, 1993; Gustilo, 2015). A lack of appreciation of these critical differences between the L1 and L2 writing is reflected in various errors in the texts of L2 writers. Because the world judges writers by their mastery of conventions (Connors & Lunsford, 1988), ESL teachers view themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers (Zamel, 1985) to help students eliminate those errors. But ESL errors are apparently intractable. Despite interventions by the teachers, errors are pervasive in the texts of L2 writers, who are not essentially intellectually deficient or impervious to instruction but are perhaps lacking of informed guidance regarding the frequency and weight of these errors. What accounts for this is that the field of composition demonstrates multiple personality disorder when it comes to dealing with errors (Connors & Lunsford, 1988). While errors are far from random (Zamel, 1983), the management of errors is “idiosyncratic and arbitrary” (Sommers, 1982, p. 149) because of a lack of consensus among writing experts and instructors. This polarization among the experts may not be surprising in that the field of L2 writing has to serve too many contradictory purposes, situations, and conceptual issues to have a single, comprehensive theory (Cumming, 2013).

While the field of L1 composition shows signs of evolution by shifting from product to process to post-post-process, ESL composition has historically emphasized texts (Blanton, 1995). Despite the fact that L1 composition is one of the feeder disciplines of L2 writing (Silva

& Leki, 2004), L2 writing has never been as radical as L1 writing. Conservatively, L2 writing privileges mechanics over messages, considers communication to be liable or subordinate to conventions, and prefers accuracy over fluency. In a situation such as this, error occupies a peculiar position in the landscape of L2 pedagogy. Error is an elusive entity, for error marking is value-driven, and teachers have always marked different phenomena as errors, called them different names, and given them different weights (Connors & Lunsford, 1988). When such a fluid phenomenon like error consumes so much energy from L2 writing instructors, the latter can hardly afford to experiment with and implement new pedagogical approaches. L2 writing instructors are too conditioned by the power and pervasiveness of errors to think that errors are not enemies but clear evidence of language learning (Raimes, 1991).

A condition such as this is not conducive to learning a second language, let alone learning to write in that language. L2 learning is typically a slow long process (Harris & Silva, 1993), and a lifetime of development goes into becoming a mature, effective writer (Bazerman, 2013). Learning to write presupposes making errors to navigate that lifelong process because errors are, at least initially, integral to writing. Errors however defy a straightforward classification since they are not only mechanical but also rhetorical (Connors & Lunsford, 1988). Mechanical errors can be readily identified and fixed, but error-free writing is not essentially an example of good writing. Even few errors will not spoil a fine piece of writing (Breidenbach, 2006), but a piece of writing that demonstrates rhetorical (i.e., audience, purpose, tone) as well as organizational (i.e., logic, structure, cohesion, clarity) shortcomings might distort and even destroy the messages encoded in writing. When L2 writers learn to emphasize mechanics more than rhetoric and organization, they are merely language learners. They are not even writers in process (Hairston, 1984).

Mechanics are not thoughts but are tools to translating or transcribing thoughts. On the other hand, writing is thinking (Murray, 1981). Ideally, the main objective of writing instruction revolves around honing learners' critical thinking potential. A writer embarks on a journey of discovering meaning—from a skein of conflicting ideas and information to thinking. Since teaching is a form of intervention for some writing scholars (Emig, 1967; Reid, 1994; Zamel, 1982), it is their responsibility to intervene at each step and stage of the thinking process so that the meaning that the learners intend to discover through writing can be realized (Murray, 1982). When a piece of writing is based on a strong narrative arc and when it reflects clarity, brevity, and cohesion, mechanics will automatically fall on the right slot. The development of writing skill does not necessarily precede the development of mechanical skills. They develop

simultaneously through a process of osmosis. However, for second language writers, the development of writing skill precedes the development of mechanical skills. However, competence in mechanics or grammar and competence in writing are not the same things (Arapoff, 1967).

There is no apparent reason to assume that special approaches to writing instruction such as control composition or error correction have validity for the development of L2 writing when they do not have validity for mother-tongue speakers of a language (Cumming, 1989). Certainly, L2 writers have unique needs (Kietlinska, 2006). Their shortcomings in thinking, however, are apparently reflected in their lack of mechanical skills. Consequently, grammar appears to be the most promising intervention tool in helping L2 writers learn to write. Since composing is essentially a creative skill and not a demonstration of mechanical skills, grammar study has little or nothing to do with the composing process (Perl, 1979; Zamel, 1976; Greenberg, 1985). Grammar, in fact, goes against the grain of composing in that composing aims at taking advantage of the extraordinary generative power of language (Raimes, 1985). Since grammar is mechanical, it constricts the generation of language by inhibiting “the internal flow of composing” (Perl, 1979, p.18).

Nonetheless, some L2 writing experts such as Paul Kei Matsuda, Dana Ferris, and Ilona Leki advocate for teaching grammar to help students learn to write. Besides Leki, both Matsuda and Ferris have discouraged disembodied grammar teaching. Matsuda (2012a) contends that grammar should be taught with metalinguistic input. Matsuda, as such, urges that grammar be contextualized with adequate examples and explanations so that it is not divorced from the discursive potential of language. Ferris (2003) recommends a carefully planned mini lesson on grammar and thus discourages comprehensive and indiscriminate grammar teaching. Leki (1992), however, is non-directive as she advocates for teaching grammar, for she claims that ESL students come from a grammar-dependent learning environment. Teaching through grammar, therefore, is aligned with their learning style, which also capitalizes on their previous knowledge-base of English. Leki’s stipulation about grammar has not found much favor with writing theorists in that they are convinced that teaching grammar and punctuation usages for their own sake, independent of the writing process as a whole, is useless (Mills, 1953).

L2 writers come from diverse cultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds. Their proficiency in second language varies, and so does their learning style. Because the ESL/EFL students are not one or two groups (Raimes, 1991), teaching them writing that is independent

of grammar or through grammar is constrictive to serve their extraordinary L2 writing needs. Canagarajah (2006a) argues that not every instance of nonstandard usage by a L2 writer is an unwitting error; sometimes, it is an active choice motivated by important cultural and ideological considerations. He, as such, discourages blind conformism to the dominant grammatical conventions. Canagarajah (2006b) claims that texts are representatives that display identities, values, and interests of writers. This considered, interventions on the writing of L2 writers should be text-specific (Sommers, 1982), since every text by a second language writer is individualistic. It embodies and exposes the unique traits of an individual learner. Unless L2 instructors are informed about their learners' backgrounds, they apparently do not qualify for text-specific interventions. What L2 writers bring from "prior schooling, families, and orientations to literacy in their lives" (Bazerman, 2013, p.422) is fraught with information for L2 writing instructors to tailor their styles and strategies of interventions.

While instructors intervene on different aspects of composition, vocabulary is the most neglected aspect of composition studies (Shaughnessy, 1977). Writing scholars claim unanimously that writing is thinking, so writers write not with words but with thoughts symbolized in words. Bizzell (1982) however claims that thought and language merge when the native tongue is learned, so one learns to think only by learning a language. She further claims that one cannot have an idea if one does not have a word for it. What this implies is that words are the matrix of thoughts. Thoughts are both contingent upon and emanate from words. This symbiotic relationship between words and thoughts is often downplayed, especially for L2 writers, because of the assumption that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary does not necessarily have to precede writing (Raimes, 1985). But compared to their native counterparts, L2 writers are often deemed poor in that they use shorter and less specific words, and they manifest less lexical variety and sophistication (Silva, 1997). Surprisingly, L2 writing instructors hardly teach vocabulary. Folse (2004) claims that since vocabulary weighs so critically in the texts of L2 writers, L2 instructors must teach vocabulary. This assertion with regard to vocabulary teaching merits consideration and application.

The reciprocal relationship among various components of writing- and how these components of writing are influenced by learners' culture specific strategies of writing- is an under-researched area in the field of L2 writing. The purpose of the current study was to understand the constituent components that underlie the development and performance of L2 writing in English of pre-university learners, so that when such learners embarked on higher studies, instructors could address their issues with writing in an informed fashion. The focus

of the current work was on the components of grammar and vocabulary in order to determine their possible relationships with writing in English. Instruction in grammar has not been unanimously recognized by ESL writing scholars and instructors as integral to teaching writing (e.g., Krashen, 1984). On the other hand, vocabulary has received less attention in second language pedagogy compared to other aspects of language (Folse, 2004). Nonetheless, writing is more than words strung together grammatically. Canagarajah (2002a) contends that human agency cannot transcend cultural biases; hence, learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds undoubtedly permeate their texts. As such, a second objective of this study was to investigate whether the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of learners influenced the styles and strategies of writing. In the case of the present study, the focus was on L2 writers in English of Chinese and non-Chinese origins. Chinese background learners were selected for specific consideration because of their unique educational and cultural experiences compared to other English L2 learners steeped in more Western orthodox traditions (Gu, 2005). Therefore, a comparison between Chinese and non-Chinese learners can potentially yield critical information to facilitate the teaching and learning of L2 writing in English across contexts.

3.4 Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to understand how pre-university learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds influenced their development as L2 writers in English so that their performances could be predicted as they learned to write. To facilitate the teaching and learning of writing in English, this study endeavored to find the answers of the following questions:

1. Do such components of an L2 (i.e., English) as grammar and vocabulary correlate with the performance of writing in that language?
2. Do L2 writers in English learn to write alike or differently across languages and cultures?
3. Do writers perceive writing alike or differently across languages?

3.5 METHOD

3.5.1 Participants

This study recruited 30 participants, who came from a range of countries (i.e., China, Thailand, Indonesia, Japan, and Colombia) to New Zealand to study English at an English Language College. Most of the participants intended to pursue undergraduate studies in New Zealand, though a few intended to pursue graduate or post-graduate studies. Despite the participants' variation in age (i.e., from 16-40, see table 1 for demographic information about the two groups of students tested), the results of the college English placement test suggested that their English proficiency was overall about the same level. Participation in the study was voluntary, with the researcher meeting groups of 6 to 7 participants four times each to collect the data, and these four meetings corresponded to the administering of each of the four measures discussed in the instruments section of the methods. Groups were comprised of students from varying backgrounds, based on their availability and willingness to attend a session. No attempt was made to exclude students from participating in order to ensure that the sample represented those students within the college as closely as possible. Because of the nature of the ESL students attending courses in New Zealand, there were approximately twice as many Chinese background students as those from other country backgrounds.

Table 2: Background Information about the Two Groups of Students

Chinese background students N = 20	Non-Chinese background students N = 10
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Gender (Male / Female)	9 / 11	3 / 7
Average age (with range in brackets)	22.75 (16 to 31)	25.60 (18 to 40)
Average years studying English (standard deviation)	8.60 (3.10)	10.00 (4.14)
Average months learning English in NZ (standard deviation)	2.40 (2.04)	4.50 (3.81)
Self-rated English L2 writing	3.45 (0.61)	3.10 (0.74)

3.5.2 Instruments

Background Questionnaire

Every participant filled out a background questionnaire (Appendix, A), which asked for such biographical information as the learners age, country of origin, first language, number of years spent in learning English, the age of first exposure to English, last academic qualification earned, the purposes of learning English, and difficulties encountered in learning English. The background questionnaire was completed in the first 30- minute session with the participants, during which ‘Information Sheet’ (Appendix, L) and ‘Consent Form’ (Appendix, M) were also discussed and completed. Information from the questionnaire provided background details about the L2 writers on which to contrast the performance in the rest of the study measures.

Grammaticality Judgment Test

This task (Appendix, B) comprised 30 items covering 15 areas of English grammar: article, tense-verb, singular vs plural, interrogative, word order, third person singular, parallel

structure, apostrophe, continuous, redundant, incomplete/fragment, sequence of tense, verb tense, double negative, wrong pronoun, perfect modal. Each item was a three-sentence paragraph in which a single grammatical error was embedded. Each grammar area appeared twice in the test, with the exception of errors of apostrophe and perfect modal, which appeared only once, and problems with interrogative appeared four times in order to represent the multidimensional aspects of this area in the English language. The test was developed based on the work of Johnson and Newport (1989), though the current measure was qualitatively and quantitatively different from that used by Johnson and Newport (1989), which comprised more items and errors contained within one-liners. The rationale for providing a short paragraph was to minimize the chance of fortuitous error identification and to provide a more realistic written context to the detection of errors. The participants were asked to underline errors found in each short paragraph. They were informed that there was a grammatical error in each passage. The participants had half an hour to complete the test.

Vocabulary Task

The participants were given a vocabulary size test (Appendix, C) based on that developed by Nation and Beglar (2007). The original version of the test comprised 10 vocabulary items from each of 14 sections, from the first to the fourteenth 1000 word families in the English language, and was designed to provide a “reliable, accurate, and comprehensive measure” (Nation & Beglar, 2007, p.9) of a non-native speaker’s vocabulary size. Nation and Beglar (2007) claim that initial studies using the test indicate that non-native undergraduate students studying at an English speaking university have a vocabulary size of 5000-6000 word families. Given the proficiency level of the participants of this study, who were about to undertake studies in New Zealand, vocabulary items were selected from the first six 1000 word families. Half of the 10 items from each of these six word families were selected, making a total of 30 vocabulary words. For each item in the test, a sentence context was provided in which a single word was italicized. For each italicized word, the participants were asked to underline the approximate synonym from four options underneath the sentence. The participants had 30 minutes to complete the test.

Writing Task

On the day of the final meeting, the participants were given a writing task (Appendix, E). They were asked to write an expository essay on a topic selected by the researchers. Of the various modes of discourses, expository prose is apparently the kind of prose that students typically need to use in their academic work (Arapoff, 1967); hence, this was selected for the essay task. Students were given half an hour to write the essay, and were told to use their normal style of composing and writing essays. There was no instruction about amount to be written, though students were informed about the 30 minute time limit. Once the essay was completed, these were collected and considered in two ways. The first tool evaluated each student's written output using the rubric (Appendix, G) used by the Educational Testing Services (ETS) on a 0-6 scale (Educational Testing Services, n.d.). The writing task was evaluated by two independent raters, both of whom had been ESL writing instructors for several years. When the scores of the two independent raters were within one score, the average was used to determine the final score of an individual essay. If the markers differed by two or more marks, a third rater was enlisted and the average between the two closest was used.

A second tool to analysing the essays of the participants was the Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (SALT) software (Klee, 1985). This software was designed for clinicians and speech therapist to analyze oral production of language, but language teachers and researchers use this software to analyze lexical and grammatical issues and other indices of language to appreciate language development for pedagogical reasons. For the writing task, SALT was used to determine the number of grammatical errors made in the writing task by each participant. These errors were related to those in the Grammaticality Judgment Test. In addition, the SALT analyses provided a measure of the number of simple and complex/compound sentences produced by the participants, as well as the number of different words and morphemes.

The transcripts were coded for the following features

1. Article error: The number of article errors in each essay was calculated. For example, one student wrote, "Therefore, in my opinion, studying abroad is simple way to learn English."
2. Singular or plural error: The number of errors with singular or plural number was calculated in each essay. For example, one student wrote, "Every students have a different reasons about why they want to study in other country."

3. Preposition error: Learners both omitted necessary preposition and used unnecessary preposition in their writing. Number of errors with preposition was calculated for each essay. For example, one student wrote, “I have three reasons for answer why students study aboard.”
4. Fragments or incomplete sentence: The number of fragments in each essay was calculated. For example, one student wrote, “After 1 year in China.”
5. Number of simple sentences from each essay was calculated. A simple sentence has one subject and one finite verb. For example, one student wrote “I enjoyed my school life.”
6. Number of complex and compound sentences were calculated from each essay. A complex sentence generally has two dependent clauses, and a compound sentence generally has two independent clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions: and, or, but. An example of a complex sentence from a student essay is: “When I started writing, I didn’t see the question.” And an example of a compound sentence from a student essay is: “The Internet caused a revolution and also this phenomenon has lead to an inter-connected world.”
7. Average number of words in a sentence in each essay was calculated by dividing the total number of words by the total number of sentences.

3.6 Results

Table 2 presents the results obtained from these students on the different measures in the tasks, separated across Chinese background and non-Chinese background students. Tables 3 and 4 present the first order correlations and partial correlations. The partial correlations were included to control for the possible impact of the differences in years of exposure to English between the two groups of learners: Table 3 for Chinese background participants and Table 4 for the non-Chinese students.

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Minimum-Maximum Scores:

Variables	Chinese background students	Non-Chinese background students
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Essay marker score	3.10 (0.85) [2-5]	2.60 (0.84) [2-4]
Vocabulary test score	24.20 (2.57) [20-29]	22.70 (2.41) [19-26]
Grammatical judgement test scores	16.70 (6.50) [3-25]	15.00 (5.44) [5-22]
Number of words in essay	177.70 (66.17) [77-334]	192.30 (49.44) [112-269]
Average number of words per sentence	15.97 (3.74) [9.63-23.14]	15.08 (3.21) [10.35-19.73]
Number of simple sentences	4.55 (2.87) [1-12]	5.70 (4.92) [1-17]
Number of complex sentences	6.45 (3.02) [1-14]	6.90 (2.33) [4-11]

Table 4: First-order and Partial Correlations (controlling for years of English exposure): Chinese

	Number different words	Number of words per sentence	Number of simple sentences	Number of complex sentences	Essay marker score	Grammatical judgment score	Vocabulary score
Number of different words		.04	.67	.91	.60	.15	.26

Average words per sentence	.01		-.58	-.08	.27	-.15	-.15
Number of simple sentences	.69	-.61		.70	.28	.36	.16
Number of complex sentences	.88	-.11	.68		.45	.14	.21
Essay marker score	.63	.27	.25	.44		.15	-.32
Grammatical judgment score	.13	-.15	.36	.12	.14		.05
Vocabulary score	.12	-.18	.09	.08	-.39	.03	

Note: bold = correlation of 0.3 or greater; italics = correlation significant at .05 level

Table 5: First-order and Partial Correlations (controlling for years of English exposure): Non-Chinese

	Number of different words	Number of words per sentence	Number of simple sentences	Number of complex sentences	Essay marker score	Grammatical judgment score	Vocabulary score
Number of different words		.11	.13	.23	.52	.08	-.33
Average words per sentence	.08		-.73	.10	.01	.34	.08

Number of simple sentences	.15	-.73		-.40	-.09	-.42	-.12
Number of complex sentences	.25	.12	-.41		.43	.84	.07
Essay marker score	.52	-.01	-.08	.44		.39	.54
Grammatical judgment score	.07	.33	-.41	.86	.38		.31
Vocabulary score	-.36	.06	-.11	.08	.53	.30	

Note: bold = correlation of 0.3 or greater; italics = correlation significant at .05 level

In addition, Figures 1 and 2 show the types of grammatical errors made in the essays written, or detected in the grammaticality judgment test across the Chinese and non-Chinese learners.

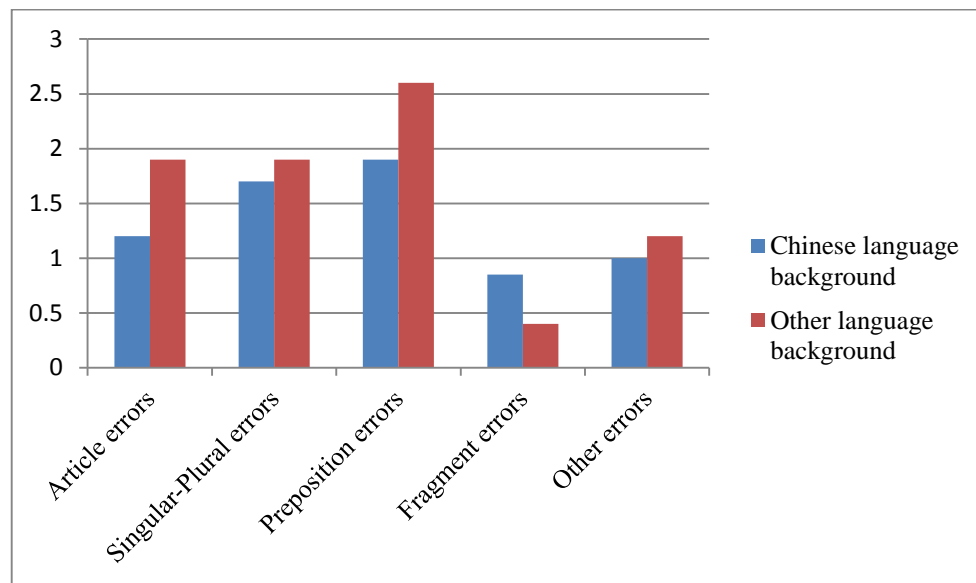


Figure 1: Frequencies of errors based on the SALT analyses of essays of Chinese and non-Chinese learners

Figure 1 shows the data from the SALT analyses and indicates that non-Chinese background students made more article errors, slightly more singular vs plural errors, and more preposition errors. In contrast, the Chinese background participants made more fragment or incomplete sentence errors. Other types of errors were about the same across the two groups.

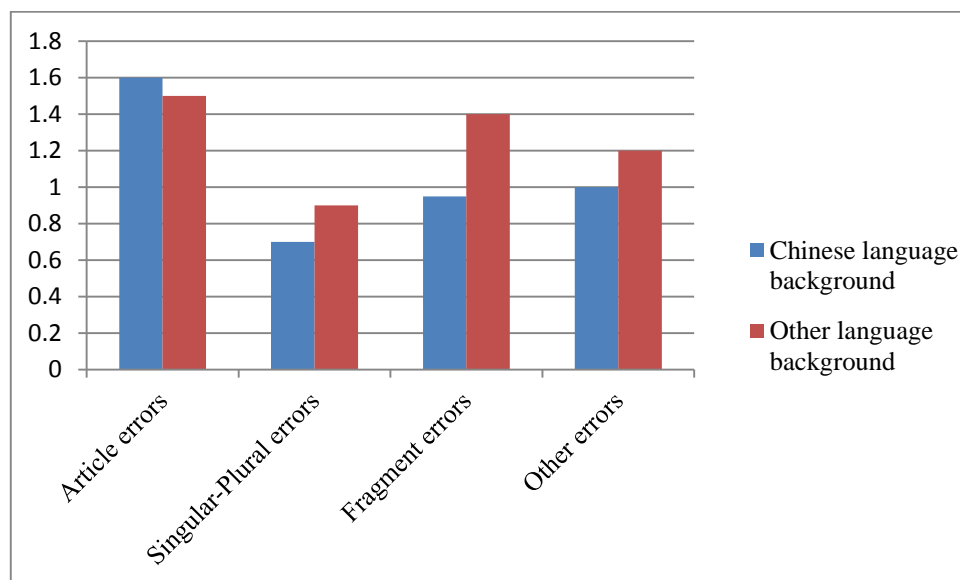


Figure 2: The frequencies of errors in the Grammaticality Judgment Test across Chinese and non-Chinese learners

Figure 2 demonstrates that in the Grammaticality Judgement Test, non-Chinese learners made more errors in all the four areas that were the focus of the present work. (Note that the Grammaticality Judgment Test did not include an item on preposition.)

3.7 DISCUSSION

A critical finding of this survey was that while for the non-Chinese learners, grammar, vocabulary and writing scores correlated, with the Chinese learners, vocabulary score did not correlate with writing and grammar score. They appeared to have a good vocabulary. Their superior vocabulary knowledge, however, was not reflected in their writing task. A logical deduction was that the Chinese learners memorized words disembodied. This conclusion was not surprising given the Chinese tradition of learning. Repetition and memorization -that were usually part of rote learning-were very much part and parcel of meaningful learning in China (On, 1996). Their cultural inclination to memorization was reinforced by the contemporary imperative of learning English in China, in that vocabulary was often regarded in China as the most important aspect of EFL learning and teaching (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Pennycook (1996) also indicated the propensity of Chinese EFL learners of attempting to excel in English by memorizing. Different approaches to vocabulary learning, specially semantic and thematic as well as different dimensions of vocabulary learning such as polysemy, connotation, spelling, pronunciation, part of speech, frequency, usage, collocation (Folse, 2004) were perhaps not exploited or were differently exploited by Chinese learners to learn vocabulary.

Apparently, the Chinese approach to vocabulary learning by memorizing was not altogether inconsistent with the standard approach to vocabulary learning. Gu (2005) claims that one of the first problems a foreign language learner encounters is how to commit a massive amount of foreign words to memory, and the easiest strategy to address this problem is repeating words from the list. Nation (1993) advocates a “vocabulary flood”, which would entail memorizing many vocabulary items from lists. Folse (2004) advises instructors not to hesitate to use vocabulary list, so do Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidamus (1996). With the Chinese writers, though, this accompanies a potential pitfall. The SALT analyses of the texts of the participants demonstrated that the Chinese learners tended to make significantly more errors in incomplete/fragment items in the grammar index. They intended to consider unprocessed or unstructured chunks of words as equivalent to complete and correct sentences. This corroborated the finding of Gu (2005) that for Chinese learners, strategies

good for vocabulary retention were not necessarily good for the development of overall language proficiency.

All 20 participants of Chinese origin were the native speakers of Mandarin Chinese. Matsuda (2012a) claims that Mandarin Chinese does not have English-specific features such as articles, prepositions, and plural noun inflections. He claims as such that it may take many years for Mandarin Chinese speakers to fully acquire these English-specific features. The SALT analyses of the texts of the participants as well as the grammar test of the survey demonstrated that the Chinese participants were not different from the other participants as far as those English-specific aspects were concerned. In fact, in all these areas, the Chinese participants were slightly better than their non-Chinese counterparts. This finding can lead to the following two conclusions: The Chinese participants may have already spent many years to learn these three English-specific features as Matsuda (2012a) claims, or these English-specific features were as easy or difficult as other features of the English language so as not help or hinder their ability to learn a foreign language. The existence of similarities between an L1 and a target language perhaps does not determine how learners approach and learn a target language.

Given the mean score of the writing test, the Chinese participants (i.e., 3.10/6) were better than their non-Chinese counterparts (i.e., 2.60/6). They were also better than their non-Chinese counterparts in grammar and vocabulary tests. However, the SALT analyses of the texts demonstrated that the Chinese were conservative, perhaps careful, writers than their non-Chinese counterparts. Their texts were quantitatively less weighty than their non-Chinese counterparts. For example, the mean length of a Chinese participant's text was 177.70 words, whereas the mean length of a non-Chinese participant's text was 192.30. They did not use more different words than their non-Chinese counterparts, either. Even at the sentence level, the Chinese participants looked more conservative and careful than their non-Chinese counterparts, in that they opted for more simple sentences and less complex/compound sentences than their non-Chinese counterparts. Like basic ESL writers, Chinese participants were averse to risk-taking while they wrote, but that was not negatively correlated with their writing score, especially in this context. The research design of this survey did not allow to tease apart the co-ordination from the subordination. Silva (1997) is, nonetheless, partially relevant in this context that ESL texts exhibit less subordination. But this might not be a permanent characteristic of ESL writers given their diverse cultural backgrounds, and it might be a strategy to avoid errors.

Given the frequency of writing activity besides academic assignment, Chinese participants did not generally write as much as their non-Chinese counterparts did. Nonetheless, the score of the writing task suggested that they were apparently better writers than their non-Chinese counterparts. It is indeed difficult to determine from the data the amount of writing they did before as well as the quality of engagement they had with writing activity besides academic assignment. It might yet be a logical conclusion in this context that the Chinese may have perceived and practiced writing in a different way. They may have flouted some of the common theories of writing in the Western world, especially the one that writing emerges from writing (Sommers, 1993). They claimed not to have written frequently, and they did not produce quantitatively bigger text. Nonetheless, they produced qualitatively better texts as demonstrated by their scores in the writing task in this survey. Thus, the Chinese were not apparently typical L2 writers.

The study also revealed another conflicting aspect of vocabulary learning of Chinese students. Given the results of the tests of this study, vocabulary was apparently their strength compared to grammar and writing. However, out of the 20 Chinese participants, 14 claimed that vocabulary was the most difficult aspect of writing. The non-Chinese participants, who were not as good as the Chinese in vocabulary given the test score, claimed that grammar was the most difficult component for them to deal with while they wrote. Even though Chinese learners were more proficient in vocabulary, they were more vulnerable to the difficulties of vocabulary. Gu (2005) claims that the real problem Chinese learners face is not an inadequate stock of vocabulary, but not being able to use the words they know both receptively and productively. The findings as well as the confession of the Chinese participants of this study did not contradict the conclusion proposed by Gu (2005).

This study renewed the differences of writing performances between L1 and L2 as far as the perceptions of writers were concerned. None of the participants both from Chinese and non-Chinese groups claimed that they were 'excellent' writers in English, but 30% of the participants claimed that they were excellent writers in their L1s. Likewise, none of the participants of this survey claimed that they were 'poor' writers in their L1s, but 43.3% participants claimed that they were poor writers in English. This apparently challenges the view that writing in an L2 is not completely different from writing in a first language (Matsuda, 2013). However moderate the differences between L1 and L2 is, the difference is yet significant as Silva (1992) claims. Although Zamel (1982) claims that ESL writers who are ready to compose and express their ideas use strategies similar to those used by native

speakers of English, it was apparently not corroborated by the confessions of the writers of this study. The confession of the participants regarding their writing skills aligned with the observation of Zhang (2013). He argues that ideas are apparently not transferable from one language to another given essentially different structures of languages. Zhang (2013) observes that essays, which are clear and cogent in Chinese become “elusive, lacking cohesion and coherence” (p.447), once rendered into English. ESL composing processes, then, seems generally more laborious than those in the L1 (Silva, 1992).

The findings of this survey also indicated some common language learning tendencies across languages. The SALT analyses demonstrated that none of the participants made any mistake in two of the indexes of grammar items: double negative and perfect modal (i.e., could have, should have, must have, etc.) Two explanations may have accounted for it. While double negative is a problem or feature of oral communication, it does not appear to be a difficult challenge for second language learners to recognize as well as to avoid while they write. Perfect modal, on the other hand, is a relatively difficult grammatical construct. Its application is contingent upon being very competent and creative in the target language to construct sophisticated and complex structure. But ESL texts generally tend to be shorter, less developed, and less sophisticated compared to their native counterparts (Silva, 1992). Their texts may not have required, or they may have deliberately opted out a relatively difficult grammatical construct such as ‘perfect modal.’ Zhang (2013) claims that EFL learners in many contexts are able to acquire systemic declarative linguistic knowledge, but the proceduralization (i.e., the application of declarative knowledge) is challenging. This may explain why the participants of this survey did not fail to identify errors with ‘perfect modal’ but did not use that knowledge base in their writing.

However, the results of the grammaticality judgement test revealed that both the Chinese and the non-Chinese learners were not immune to these errors. They failed to recognize errors in these two areas, but the differences between these two groups were not statistically significant. While the SALT discovered errors in production, the grammaticality judgement test discovered errors in recognition. The existence or the non-existence of a production error might not predict the existence or the non-existence of a recognition error and vice versa. Despite the fact that there exists hardly any relationship between grammar study and writing ability (Greenberg, 1985), historically, text is privileged in ESL composition (Blanton, 1995), when instructors try to ferret out every grammatical error. But the findings of the SALT and grammaticality judgement test suggested that ESL errors were

more insidious and widespread than these were popularly perceived. As such, an effective error elimination approach to teaching L2 writing in English combine instruction in errors manifested in production as well as recognition.

3.8 Conclusion

The findings of this study indicate that grammar and vocabulary are correlated with essay writing output but that these relationships vary across learners. While non-Chinese background learners showed evidence that vocabulary and grammar are positively correlated with writing, the Chinese background learners did not; indeed, in the latter case, vocabulary was negatively correlated with grammar and writing. In contrast, both the SALT analyses and the results of grammar test demonstrated commonalities across the two groups in terms of the type of grammatical errors produced and recognized, with the possible exception of the number of fragments produced by the Chinese background students. The Chinese background learners may have perceived and strategized writing differently than their non-Chinese counterparts potentially because of influences from their native language, education, and/or culture. The answer to the first research question is, therefore, non-directive. Development in L2 writing in English was indicated, and not indicated, by such components of language as grammar and vocabulary. Likewise, the answers to second and third research questions were not conclusive. This study indicates some similarities and differences across cultures and languages when it comes to learners' ways of learning and perceiving writing in English. As an intellectual formation, the field of L2 writing essentially embodies "diversity and multiplicity" (Kubota, 2013, p. 430), and this study has demonstrated that essential diversity and multicity among L2 writers across languages and cultures.

Chapter 4

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN WRITING IN A FIRST AND A SECOND LANGUAGE: THE CASE OF BANGLADESH

4.1 Overview

This chapter reports the findings of a study that intended to understand the development of L2 writing performances in English in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The 70 participants (male=42, female=28) of the study were freshmen at a private university in Dhaka, the capital city of Bangladesh. The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 24 years. The participants completed a background questionnaire, a grammaticality judgement, and a vocabulary test in English. The participants also completed writing tasks in their L1 (i.e., Bangla) and their L2 (i.e., English). At the end of the writing tasks both in L1 and L2, the participants completed the same questionnaires that gleaned information about their usual practices and perceptions of writing across two languages. One of the critical findings of the study was that scores in the essays in both languages correlated, which implied that a good or a poor writer in his first language is apparently the same in his L2. The study also discovered that L2 writing was significantly similar to and different from writing in an L1 as far as the foci, purposes, and the time and areas of revision of essays of the participants were concerned. The results implied that the teaching of L2 writing in English should be informed by characteristics common across languages, as well as the essential differences between an L1 and an L2.

4.2 Introduction

L2 writers make more errors overall; use simple and less sophisticated words; and focus more on grammar and lexical concerns (Silva, 1992; 1997). The text of an L2 writer, then, demonstrates distinctive multiple earmarks compared to the text of a first language writer. While these features of the text of an L2 writer apparently propose the profile of a universal L2 writer, no two L2 writers are analogous. Every L2 writer emerges from a unique cultural, linguistic, and educational background, which accounts for the fact that every L2 writer has a varying degree of exposure and attachment to an L2. The styles and strategies of learning and writing in an L2 across backgrounds vary inevitably as such. Certainly, then, competence or vulnerability of an L2 writer is contingent. These characteristics of L2 writing and writer yield two implications about the teaching of L2 writing. For one, instruction in L2 writing precedes sound knowledge about learners' proficiency in such components of an L2 as vocabulary and grammar. Secondly, because every L2 writer is presumably an L1 writer, a learner's culture-specific style of writing (or a learner's background as a writer) is reflected more in a first language writing than in an L2 writing. Therefore, potentially, effective instruction in an L2 is contingent upon knowing about a learner's styles and strategies in a first language, for L2 writers apply literate strategy from their native language along with applying translation as a writing strategy (Matsuda, 2012a).

The first language of the participants of this study was Bangla. While both Bangla and English are the languages of the Indo-European family, these are not cognate languages. The ontological differences between these two languages in alphabet, syntax, and lexis prohibit transfer between them. As for writing in English, the context of this study warranted further clarifications. Shamsuzzaman and Everatt (2013) contend that in the EFL context of Bangladesh, students are hardly required to undertake cognitively challenging and personally engaging writing until they embark on tertiary education. What explains this is that the dominant form of teaching English, including writing, in secondary and higher level in Bangladesh is mechanical, which is enacted through instruction in grammar. Although at tertiary level the focus and purpose of writing changes, the mode of instruction hardly does. Shamsuzzaman (2014) claimed that Bangladesh is traditionally more inured to an expressive or aesthetic mode of writing (i.e., literature) than an academic or pragmatic mode of writing (i.e., analytical writing). The L2 writers of this study wrote amid these traditional and institutional characteristics or constraints pertinent to L2 writing in English. Thus, a writing task in the first language of the participants was included in the study to compare and contrast

their skills in their L1 and L2. An underlying focus of the questionnaire in the writing task was to discover how they navigated the process of writing or whether they perceived writing as a process in both the languages. In order to better understand their writing process, the background information of the participants as well as their knowledge about grammar and vocabulary were investigated in this study.

4.3 Literature Review

Language apparently is the matrix of thought, in that one cannot have an idea one does not have a word for it (Bizzell, 1982). As such, the structure of a language affects the perceptions of reality of its users and thus influences their thought patterns and worldviews. However controversial this hypothesis appears, when it comes to L2 writing, it is buttressed both by anecdotal and empirical evidence. Kaplan (1966), for example, was being the first one to mention that the speakers of English, Semitic, Oriental, and Romance languages write essentially differently. Through some doodles, he demonstrated that while the native English speakers write in a straight line, the native speakers of all three languages write circuitously in various ways. Canagarajah (2006a) is critical of Kaplan's views for equating one language with one discourse, as is Matsuda (1997) for not considering the heterogeneity and hybridity implicit in an individual culture. Despite this compelling criticism, Kaplan's view endorses that one learns to think only by learning a language (Bizzell, 1982), and because writing is thinking, the influence of one's native language in one's writing is hardly contentious.

However, "the relationship between linguistic knowledge and L1/L2 writing proficiency is a complex one" (Williams, 2005, p.25). How and why one's L1 influences one's acquisition of an L2 is yet incomprehensible in that no two L2 writers are socially, cognitively, and affectively alike; nor do they go through an identical learning curve. These factors aside, L2 writers of English hail from diverse L1 backgrounds. Empirical evidence is as yet inadequate to compare and contrast L1 writing with L2 writing to discover how they are similar to and different from each other. What makes research in L2 writing more problematic and partial is that it originates in and revolves around North America (Bazerman, 2013), and Silva (2006) contends that it has not embarked yet to critique L2 writing in English outside of North America. Because of "the complex contexts of L2 writing" (Silva, 2006, p. 117), researchers have endeavored to investigate "intergroup homogeneity" (Crossley & McNamara, 2011, p. 272) to predict a generic model of L2 writing development despite differences in L1 backgrounds of writers. Research along this line, however partial,

has already yielded information and insights, which are critical to informing theories and pedagogical practices in L2 writing.

For example, Reid (1992) studied the essays written in English by speakers of Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and English to determine whether or not there existed differences in the production of cohesive devices among the language backgrounds of such L2 writers. She investigated the use of four features of cohesion: pronouns, conjunctions, subordinate conjunction openers, and prepositions. Reid (1992) found that L2 writers, regardless of their L1s, produced a significantly greater number of pronouns and conjunctions, as well as fewer prepositions, when compared to L1 writers. She, however, found no similarities among the L2 writers in the productions of subordinate conjunction openers. These findings suggest that L2 writers, regardless of their L1s, share more similarities than differences. While these findings imply that L2 writers are somewhat alike given their L2 writing development, they are open to further interpretation. Basic writers across languages may have been alike. For example, Lunsford (1980) claims that basic writers' texts are generally egocentric, which are characterized by a high percentage of personal pronouns. Silva (1997) claims that ESL texts in general exhibit more co-ordination than subordination. It can be argued that Reid's (1992) participants were basic writers, who exhibited the typical characteristics of ESL writers.

Hinkel (2002) carried out a similar investigation to Reid's (1992), though her research slanted more toward intergroup heterogeneity than homogeneity. However, her study yielded critical evidence, which indicated a common pattern of development among L2 learners of different L1 backgrounds. Hinkel (2002) examined 1400 academic essays written by native speakers of English and L2 learners of English whose L1s were Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Indonesian, and Arabic. For each text, she computed incidence scores for linguistic patterns, subordinate clauses, and rhetorical features. While her analysis of the data reported numerous features, which distinguished L1 essays from specific groupings of L2 essays, she discovered a predictable pattern of L2 writing, when the L1 essays were compared to L2 essays without considering the specific L1 backgrounds of the L2 writers. Hinkel (2002) defined L2 writing as generally being similar to personal narratives, because they contain restricted syntactic variety and complexity as well as limited lexical sophistication. These are, indeed, some of the common characteristics of L2 writers, regardless of L1s. These are, however, characteristics stemming less from their infelicity with an L2 than from their specific L1. Novice writers generally produce what Flower (1979) calls writer-based prose, which is personal narrative. However, expository prose is the only prose

that students need to do in their school work (Arapoff, 1967), and because most basic L2 writers struggle because of incomplete control of the language, they cannot demonstrate lexical and syntactic sophistication and complexity in their writing needed for expository writing.

Along this line, another influential study was conducted by Crossley and McNamara (2011). It investigated whether the features of cohesion, lexical sophistication, and syntactic complexity could discriminate between texts written by L1 and L2 writers. They analysed a huge pool of L2 texts from the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) written by L1 speakers of Czech (Slavic), Finnish, (Finno-Ugric) German (Germanic) and Spanish (Italic), which are languages of four different families. To compare and contrast the L2 texts with the L1 ones, they collected 211 essays written by undergraduate students at a large university in the U.S. All of the L1 essays were argumentative and ranged between 500 and 1000 words. Most of the essays from the ICLE corpus were argumentative and ranged between 500 and 1000 words, too. Essays from both the corpuses, then, enabled the researchers discourse-oriented as well as grammatical and lexical investigations. The study provided evidence that in such linguistic features as hypernymy, polysemy, stem overlap, and lexical diversity intergroup homogeneity existed across the L2 writers, regardless of the writers' L1s. As well, using these four features, L2 writers could be distinguished from L1 writers with an accuracy of over 70%. The data revealed intergroup homogeneity between four groups of L2 writers from different and disparate language backgrounds in those four linguistic features. While Crossley and McNamara (2011) cautioned not to interpret their results as a demonstration of universal characteristics of L2 writers, regardless of L1, the findings of their study were not significantly different from those of Reid's (1992) and Hinkel's (2002).

A study that distinguishes the writings of participants of a particular language, which is an L1 for some participants and an L2 for others, falls under the theoretical framework of cross-linguistic influence (CLI) (Crossley and McNamara, 2011). Research has already demonstrated that CLI affects almost all areas of linguistic and communicative competence in L2 learners (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). This has been especially true for L2 writers, for some writing theorists argue that people learn to write only once (Williams, 2005). Influence of the ur-language, therefore, will be pervasive in the texts of L2 writers, who may have learned to write in their L1, however incomplete and partial their learning was. While CLI is more common with novice writers (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009) people cannot avoid displaying their identities, values, and interests in the texts they compose (Canagarajah, 2006a). L2

writers are not novice always; they are, in fact, writers, who write with a varying degree of accent. Admittedly, beginning L2 writers are more susceptible to this accent than the advanced ones because of their lack of exposure and experience with the language. No feature of a foreign language exposes this accent of beginning writers than errors with grammar.

The degree and dimension of a causal relationship between an L1 and English as an L2 have not been discovered yet, but Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) contend that less than 25% of grammatical errors in adults' speech is due to transfer from an L1. The implication here is that an L1 is one of the sources of errors in writing in an L2. Errors in an L2 may also stem from the cognitive, affective, and social development of an L2 learner. While one's L1 does not predict the numbers and types of errors one makes in an L2, all errors are not essentially grammatical. Briedenback (2006) claims that generally a piece of writing has four constitutive features: content, rhetoric, style, and mechanics. She considers grammar and punctuation as mechanics, and she claims that most written papers focus on mechanics far more than all other considerations. But mechanics is theoretically the least important aspect of the process of communication (Mills, 1953; Pinker 2014). Unfortunately, this least important aspect of the process of communication has been the most critical aspect for L2 writers to learn writing.

Fulkerson (1979) claims this as the formalist approach to teaching writing, which posits "good writing is correct writing at the sentence level" (p. 344), in that it conforms to "certain internal forms" (p.344) of grammar. This approach to teaching writing is at best reductive, and at worst, ineffective, for two reasons. In general, writing comes along through some predictable steps and stages such as prewriting, writing, and re-writing. Ideally, writing instruction intervenes in all these steps and stages of writing. The physical act of writing, however, takes only 1% of a writer's time and energy, while 85% of a writer's time and energy is consumed in the prewriting stage (Murray, 2011). A grammar-dependent approach ignores the pre-writing and re-writing phases of writing, and is keyed to writing only. What happens is that writing, accuracy, and editing become more important than a writer, fluency, and revision. In a situation such as this, a writer does not have to experience, what Perl (1980) calls "felt-sense", which evokes images, words, ideas, and vague fuzzy feelings anchored in the writer's body to engage in a creative process of discovery for crafting meaning through writing. Writing essentially explores and exploits the generative

possibilities of language, but a grammar-dependent approach to teaching reduces writing to a test of students' ability to utilize mechanical skills (Spack, 1984).

Secondly, theorists in the field of writing claim that grammar has little or nothing to do with the process of writing (Arapoff, 1967; Greenberg, 1985; Krashen, 1984; Pinker, 2014; Zamel, 1985). Writing is thinking, and grammar is a tool to transcribing thoughts. Thinking is not reflected through an application of grammar or a lack thereof, as much as it is reflected by a writer's semantic, syntactic, and rhetorical options of writing. Ferris's (2002) classification of error as treatable and untreatable is germane in this context. She claims that mechanical or grammatical errors are treatable, in that students can be referred to manuals to find out the solutions of those errors. However, for discursive problems with writing, which is reflected through semantic and rhetorical features of writing, a writer cannot be referred to manuals to locate the solutions. Discursive errors of writing are not as apparent or identifiable as those of mechanical ones. So ESL instructors apparently deal only with those errors, which are easily identified (Zamel, 1985). Teaching writing through a grammar-dependent approach is convenient for writing instructors, but it marginally helps students learn writing. Besides, because writing teachers are chronically overworked (Connors & Lunsford, 1988), they do not mark as many mechanical errors as popular stereotype might have people believe (Lunsford & Lunsford, 2008). This explains why Mills's (1953) complaint -that students cannot write- has been true even after seven decades.

Certainly, writing in second versus foreign language contexts may not be essentially different (Matsuda, 2013), but writing in L1 and L2 are not alike in any way. It is not only the basic L2 writers who demonstrate their incomplete command of the language in their writings, but expert L2 writers also seem to have been haunted by the specter of a second language. Edward Said, a literary critic, for example, has been one of the most elegant and eloquent L2 writers in English. Said (1999) claims that he wrote in English almost but never native-like fluency. Writing in an L2 is an enriching experience, but the language also colonizes writers too much to turn them into ghost-writers (Bradatan, 2013). This considered, every L2 writer is a ghost-writer, who has no subliminal link to the language but is overcome too much to be swayed by its essential idiosyncrasies. This breeds uncertainty about the mechanical, syntactic, and semantic options and opportunities for an L2 writer. Apparently, then, an L2 writer writes with actual or perceived accents. The speakers of Bangla, a language of Indo-European family, who are the participants of this study, might yield information that can conform to or challenge these views and beliefs about L2 writing.

4.4 Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to understand how learners' cultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds influenced their development as L2 learners and writers. Besides, this study also intended to discover whether the process of writing across L1 and L2 was identical or different. This study, as such, endeavored to find the answers of the following questions:

1. Do such components of an L2 (i.e., English) as grammar and vocabulary correlate with the development of writing in that language?
2. Do L2 writers in English of the apparently same age range in an identical academic, cultural, and linguistic setting demonstrate significantly similar or different L2 development?
3. Do writers perceive writing alike or differently across languages?
4. Is the process of writing similar or different across L1 and L2?

4.5 METHOD

4.5.1 Participants

This study recruited 70 participants, who were the first year undergraduate students at a private university in Dhaka, Bangladesh. When the data were collected, they were taking one of the three core English courses, mandatory for all students to earn a Bachelor's, regardless of majors. Participants were 19-22 years old and their English proficiency level was uniform as predicted by the results of a placement test. This study intended to understand the developmental difficulties of the participants as L2 writers in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The data collection process lasted five weeks. Data were collected from three classes, each having around 40 students. Initially 95 students participated in the experiment, with 70 participants completing all the components of the experiment. Data from the 70 participants, who completed all the components of the experiment, were analysed for this study.

4.5.2 Instruments

Background Questionnaire

The background questionnaire described in chapter three (page, 51) was completed by all the participants with minor modification (Appendix, D).

Grammaticality Judgment Test

The grammaticality judgement test described in chapter three (page, 52) was completed by all the participants.

Vocabulary Task

The vocabulary judgement test described in chapter three (page, 52) was completed by all the participants.

Writing Task

The writing task (Appendix, F) was conducted in two different sessions. On the day of the first meeting, participants were given a writing task in English. They were asked to write an expository essay on a topic (i.e., *Many students choose to attend schools outside their home countries. Why do some students study abroad*) selected by the researchers. Of the various modes of discourses, expository prose is the prose that students typically need to use in their academic work (Arapoff, 1967); hence, this was selected for the essay task. Students were given 25 minutes to write the essay, and were told to use their normal style of composing. There were no instructions about amount to be written, though students were informed about the 25- minute time limit. Having written the essay, the participant spent another five minutes to fill out the questionnaire attached at the end of the writing task. Once the essay was completed, these were collected and evaluated. Each student's essay was evaluated using the rubric used by the Educational Testing Services (ETS) (Appendix, H) on a 0-6 scale (Educational Testing Services, n.d). The writing task was evaluated by two independent raters, both of whom had been ESL writing instructors for several years. When the scores of the two independent raters were within one score, the average was used to determine the final score of an individual essay. If the markers differed by two or more marks, a third rater was enlisted and the average between the two closest was used.

On the final day of the meeting, the participants were given a writing task in Bangla (Appendix, G)-the first language of the participants- on the same topic, translated in Bangla. The rationale was that a rhetorically and cognitively similar topic would glean apparently authentic data across these two languages. This task also lasted for 30-minute altogether, when they wrote for the 25-minute and filled out the questionnaire attached at the end of the

writing task for the remaining five minutes. The same evaluation tool (i.e., Education Testing Services, n.d) was used to assess the essays written by the participants. The raters were ESL writing instructors, whose first language was Bengali. When the scores of the two independent raters were within one score, the average was used to determine the final score of an individual essay. If the markers differed by two or more marks, a third rater was enlisted and the average between the two closest was used.

4.6 Results

The results of the study are presented in this section with the following tables.

Table 6: Participants' Age, Exposure to and Duration of Learning English

Learners' variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Years of learning English	70	0	19	13.53	4.326
Age of the learners	70	17	24	19.56	1.304
First exposure to English	70	0	7	4.29	1.229
Valid N	70				

Table 6 shows that of the 70 participants, the youngest was 17 years old and the oldest was 24 years, and the mean age of the participants was approximately 20 years. The mean years of learning English for the participants was approximately 14, and mean years of the first exposure to English was about 4 years.

Table 7: Scores in Grammar, Vocabulary, and Essay Tests in English and Bangla

Scores	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vocabulary Test Score	70	13	30	24.11	3.437
Grammatical Judgment Test Score	70	3	28	15.39	6.330
English Essay score	70	2.0	5.5	3.236	.8835
Bangla Essay score	70	2.0	5.5	4.093	.8044
Valid N	70				

Table 7 shows that all the participants of this study completed four tests such as grammar, vocabulary, English essay, and Bangla essay tasks. The minimum score in the vocabulary test was 13 out of 30, and the maximum was 30. The mean of the vocabulary test was 24.11, and

the standard deviation was 3.437. For the grammar test, the minimum score was 3 and the maximum was 28 out of 30. The mean score of the grammar test was 15.39, and the standard deviation was 6.330. The minimum score in the English essay test was 2 and the maximum was 5.5 out of 6. The minimum score in the English essay test was 2 and the maximum was 5.5.

Table 8: Most Difficult Areas in Writing in English

Difficult Areas in Writing: English	N	Percent
Grammar	28	40
Vocabulary	52	74.3
Punctuation	11	15.7
Critical Thinking	28	40
Topic knowledge	11	15.7

Table 8 shows that the most difficult areas in the English essays were respectively vocabulary and grammar. The participants of this study did not seem to consider punctuation, critical thinking, and topic knowledge as difficult as vocabulary and grammar.

Table 9: Reasons for Learning English

Reasons	N	Percent
Job	54	77
Higher studies	56	80
Intellectual development	46	65.7

The three main reasons, as the table above shows, for the participants of this study to learn English were job, higher studies, and intellectual development. The other reasons for learning English such as peer pressure, parental persuasion, and emigration were not strong motivation for these learners to learn English.

Table 10: Engagement with English besides Academic Training

Activities	N	Percent
Watching movies	63	93
Reading texts in English	47	61
Speaking in English	43	61
Listening to English music	42	60

The participants of this study claimed that besides academic engagement with English, they watched English movies the most compared to some other activities such as reading texts in English, speaking in English, and listening to English music.

Table 11: Engagement with Writing in English besides Academic Activities

Indicators of Engagement		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	often	28	40.0	40.6	40.6
	sometimes	39	55.7	56.5	97.1
	never	2	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	69	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.4		
Total		70	100.0		

The participants of this study seemed to avoid writing besides academic activities in writing. They claimed to practice writing sometimes in English, even not often did they practice writing in English.

Table 12 : Areas of English Needed to Practice more to Support the Current Studies

Areas Need More Practice in English	N	Percent
Speaking	44	62.9
Reading	14	20
Writing	5	7
Listening	6	8

The participants of this study indicated that they needed to practice more speaking to support their current studies, while they indicated that they needed to practice writing the least to support their current studies.

Table 13: Writer in Bangla

Self-Rating: Bangla	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid excellent	26	37.1	37.1	37.1
good	32	45.7	45.7	82.9
fair	11	15.7	15.7	98.6
poor	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

Out of the 70 participants, only one participant claimed to be a 'poor' writer in Bangla. Twenty six (37.1%) participants claimed that they were 'excellent' writers in Bangla; 32 participants (45.7%) claimed that were 'good' writers in Bangla; and eleven participants (15.7%) claimed they were 'fair' writers in Bangla.

Table 14: Writer in English

Self-rating: English	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid excellent	1	1.4	1.4	1.4
good	29	41.4	41.4	42.9
fair	34	48.6	48.6	91.4
poor	6	8.6	8.6	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

Out of the 70 participants, only six participants (8.6%) claimed that they were 'poor' writers in English. Only one participant claimed to be an 'excellent' writer in English; 29 participants (41.4%) claimed that they were 'good' writers in English; and thirty four participants (48.6%) claimed that they were 'fair' writers in English.

Table 15: Planning before Writing in English

Planning before Writing: English	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	56	80.0	80.0	80.0
no	14	20.0	20.0	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

For the essays in English, 56 participants (80%) claimed that they planned before writing, though 14 participants (20%) claimed that they did not plan before writing.

Table 16 : Planning before Writing in Bangla

Planning before Writing: Bangla	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	51	72.9	72.9	72.9
no	19	27.1	27.1	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

Out of the 70 participants of this study, 51 participants (72.9%) claimed that they planned before they started to write in Bangla, though 19 participants (27.1%) claimed that they did not plan before they started writing.

Table 17: Time of Revising the Essay in English

Time of Revision: English	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid during writing	16	22.9	22.9	22.9
after writing	33	47.1	47.1	70.0
during and after writing	18	25.7	25.7	95.7
do not revise	3	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

For the English essays, most of the participants seemed to have been revising all along. They were revising as they wrote; after they wrote, and during as well as after they wrote. Only three students claimed that they did not revise at all, but 67 participants (95.7%) claimed that they revised all along.

Table 18 : Time of Revising the Essay in Bangla

Time of Revision: Bangla		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	during writing	19	27.1	27.1	27.1
	after writing	29	41.4	41.4	68.6
	during and after writing	14	20.0	20.0	88.6
	do not revise	8	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	70	100.0	100.0	

For the Bangla essays, most of the participants seemed to have been revising all along. They were revising as they wrote; after they wrote, and during as well as after they wrote. Only eight participants (11.4%) claimed that they did not revise at all, but 62 participants (89.4%) claimed that they revised all along.

Table 19 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essay: Grammar

Grammar		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	49	70.0	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	21	30.0		
	Total	70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants, 49 participants (70%) claimed that they revised grammar in the English essays they wrote, but 21 participants (30%) did not revise grammar of their English essays.

Table 20 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essay: Grammar

Grammar		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	34.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	46	65.7		
	Total	70	100.0		

Majority of the participants, 46 (65.7%), claimed that they would not revise grammar at all had they revised their Bangla essays, though 24 participants (34.3%) claimed that they would revise grammar had they revised at all.

Table 21: Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essay: Spelling.

Spelling	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	50	71.4	100.0	100.0
Missing System	20	28.6		
Total	70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants, 50 participants (71.4%) claimed that they revised spelling in the English essays that they wrote, but 20 participants (28.6%) did not revise spelling of their English essays.

Table 22: Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essay: Spelling

Spelling	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	37	52.9	100.0	100.0
Missing System	33	47.1		
Total	70	100.0		

Regarding revising spelling in the Bangla essays, the participants were ambivalent. Thirty seven participants (52.9%) indicated that would revise spelling if they had revised at all, but 33 participants (47.1%) indicated that they would not revise spelling had they revised at all.

Table 23 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Punctuation

Valid 1	18	25.7	100.0	100.0
Missing System	52	74.3		
Total	70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants, 18 participants (25.7%) claimed that they revised punctuations in the English essays that they wrote, but 52 participants (74.3%) did not revise punctuations of their English essays.

Table 24 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Punctuation

Punctuation		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	27.1	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	51	72.9		
Total		70	100.0		

For the Bangla essays, the participants did not care much about punctuations as 51 participants (72.9%) out of 70 indicated that they would not revise punctuations had they revised at all. However, 19 participants (27.1%) indicated that they would revise punctuations if they revised at all.

Table 25: Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Vocabulary

Vocabulary		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	29	41.4	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	41	58.6		
Total		70	100.0		

Twenty nine participants (41.4%) out of 70 claimed that they revised vocabulary in the English essays, but 41 participants (58.6%) claimed that they did not revise vocabulary.

Table 26 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Vocabulary

Vocabulary		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	22	31.4	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	48	68.6		
Total		70	100.0		

A significant number of participants, 48 (68.6%) indicated that they would not revise vocabulary had they revised at all, but 22 participants (31.4%) indicated that they would revise had they revised at all.

Table 27 : Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Organization

Organization		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	36	51.4	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	34	48.6		
Total		70	100.0		

Thirty six participants (51.4%) of 70 claimed that they revised organization in the English essays, but 34 participants (48.6%) claimed that they did not revise organization.

Table 28: Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Organization

Organization		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	39	55.7	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	31	44.3		
Total		70	100.0		

Regarding revising organization in the Bangla essays, the participants were ambivalent. Thirty nine participants (55.7%) indicated that they would revise organization if they had revised at all, but 31 participants (44.3%) indicated that they would not revise organization had they revised at all.

Table 29: Aspects of Writing Revised in the English Essays: Clarity

Clarity		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	25	35.7	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	45	64.3		
Total		70	100.0		

Twenty five participants (35.7%) of 70 claimed that they revised clarity in the English essays, but 45 participants (64.3%) claimed that they did not revise clarity.

Table 30 : Different Aspects of Writing Revised in the Bangla Essays: Clarity

Clarity		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	31	44.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	39	55.7		
Total		70	100.0		

Regarding revising clarity in the Bangla essays, the participants were ambivalent. Thirty one participants (44.3%) indicated that would revise clarity if they had revised at all, but 39 participants (55.7%) indicated that they would not revise organization had they revised at all.

Table 31: Focus of Thinking during Writing in English: Audience

Audience/English		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	34.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	46	65.7		
Total		70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants of the study, 24 participants (34.3%) claimed that they thought about communicating with readers as they wrote, but 46 participants (65.7%) claimed that they did not think about readers as they wrote.

Table 32 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in the Bangla: Audience

Audience/Bangla		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	27	38.6	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	43	61.4		
Total		70	100.0		

Forty three participants (61.4%) claimed that the focus of thinking while they were composing the Bangla essays was not communication with the readers, though 27 participants (38.6%) claimed that communicating with readers was their focus of thinking during writing the Bangla essays.

Table 33 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in English: Clarifying Ideas

Clarifying Ideas/English		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	50	71.4	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	20	28.6		
Total		70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants of the study, 50 participants (71.4%) claimed that they thought about clarifying their own ideas as they wrote, but 20 participants (28.6%) claimed that they did not think about that as they wrote.

Table 34 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in Bangla: Clarifying Ideas

Clarifying Ideas/Bangla		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	52	74.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	18	25.7		
Total		70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants, 52 participants (74.3%) claimed that the focus of their thinking while writing the Bangla essays was clarifying their own ideas, though 18 participants (25.7%) claimed that that was not the focus of their writing.

Table 35 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in English: Discovering New Ideas

Discovering new ideas/English		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	27	38.6	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	43	61.4		
Total		70	100.0		

Out of the 70 participants of the study, 27 participants (38.6%) claimed that they thought about discovering new ideas as they wrote, but 43 participants (61.4%) claimed that they did not think about that as they wrote.

Table 36 : Focus of Thinking during Writing in Bangla: Discovering New Ideas

Discovering New Ideas/Bangla		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	23	32.9	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	47	67.1		
Total		70	100.0		

Twenty three participants (32.9%) out of 70 claimed that the focus of their thinking during writing was to discover new ideas through writing, but 47 participants (67.1%) claimed that that was not the focus of their writing.

Table 37: Few Drafts to Improve Writing in English

Few Drafts/English		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	61	87.1	87.1	87.1
	no	2	2.9	2.9	90.0
	do not know	7	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total		70	100.0	100.0	

Sixty one participants (87.1) out of 70 claimed that they would like to have taken the opportunity to compose a few drafts if they had had the opportunity, though only two participants (2.9%) indicated that they would not have taken the opportunity to compose a few drafts to improve their writing. Seven participants (10%) indicated that they did not know whether they would like to have taken the opportunity to compose a few drafts to improve their writing in English.

Table 38 : Few Drafts to Improve Writing in Bangla

Few Drafts/Bangla		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	61	87.1	87.1	87.1
	no	6	8.6	8.6	95.7
	do not know	3	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total		70	100.0	100.0	

Out of the 70 participants of this study, 61 (87.1) claimed that they would have availed the opportunity of composing a few drafts to improve their writing, though only 6 participants (8.6%) indicated that they would not have availed the opportunity of composing a few drafts to improve their writing in Bangla. Three participants (4.3%) indicated that they did not know whether they would take the opportunity of composing a few drafts to improve their writing in Bangla.

Table 39 : Correlation between variables controlling for years of learning English – significant correlations in bold

Control Variables			English Essay score	Bangla Essay score	Vocabulary Test Score	Grammatical Judgment Test Score	age when exposed to English
years of learning English	English Essay score	Correlation	1.000	.779	.292	.153	-.012
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	.017	.217	.921
		df	0	65	65	65	65
Bangla Essay score	Bangla Essay score	Correlation	.779	1.000	.299	.098	.035
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	.014	.430	.781
		df	65	0	65	65	65
Vocabulary Test Score	Vocabulary Test Score	Correlation	.292	.299	1.000	.284	-.008
		Significance (2-tailed)	.017	.014	.	.020	.951
		df	65	65	0	65	65
Grammatical Judgment Test Score	Grammatical Judgment Test Score	Correlation	.153	.098	.284	1.000	-.135
		Significance (2-tailed)	.217	.430	.020	.	.276
		df	65	65	65	0	65
age when exposed to English	age when exposed to English	Correlation	-.012	.035	-.008	-.135	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.921	.781	.951	.276	.
		df	65	65	65	65	0

All the 70 participants of this study wrote English and a Bangla essays besides completing grammar and vocabulary tests. When the years of learning was controlled, it showed that English essay score was highly positively correlated ($r=.779$, $p<.001$) with Bangla essay score. It also showed that English essay score was moderately positively correlated ($r=.292$, $p=.017$) with vocabulary score. Bangla essay score was also moderately positively correlated with vocabulary score when $r=.299$, $p=.014$, and $n=65$. Vocabulary score was also moderately positively correlated with the score in grammar test when $r=.285$, $p=.020$, and $n=65$.

Table 40 : Differences between Those Learning in Urban versus Non-urban Environment

	where took primary & secondary education urban or not	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test
age when exposed to English	urban	53	4.26	1.195	t(df=66)=.57, p=.57
	Suburban & rural	15	4.07	1.163	
years of learning English	urban	52	14.00	3.302	t(df=64)=.13, p=.90
	Suburban & rural	14	13.86	5.187	
writer in L1 (Bangla)	urban	53	1.75	.757	t(df=66)=.82, p=.42
	Suburban & rural	15	1.93	.704	
writer in L2 (English)	urban	53	2.60	.631	t(df=66)=.69, p=.50
	Suburban & rural	15	2.73	.704	
Vocabulary Test Score	urban	53	24.79	2.720	t(df=66)=3.12, p=.003
	Suburban & rural	15	22.00	4.071	
Grammatical Judgment Test Score	urban	53	15.55	6.687	t(df=66)=.65, p=.52
	Suburban & rural	15	14.33	5.192	
English Essay score	urban	53	3.208	.8573	t(df=66)=.23, p=.82
	Suburban & rural	15	3.267	.9976	
Bangla Essay score	urban	53	4.057	.7824	t(df=66)=.47, p=.64
	Suburban & rural	15	4.167	.8591	

The results of an independent t-test established the hypothesis that in terms of vocabulary acquisition, the participants who took their primary and secondary education in the urban areas of Bangladesh are different from those who took their education in the rural and suburban areas of Bangladesh.

Table 41: T-test of Languages Spoken by the Participants (bold indicates significant t-test)

	languages Bangla & English versus Bangla & English Plus	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test
age when exposed to English	Bangla & English	43	4.51	1.222	t(df=68)=1.98, p=.05
	Bangla & English ,plus Others	27	3.93	1.174	
years of learning English	Bangla & English	42	13.55	3.730	t(df=66)=1.08, p=.29
	Bangla & English plus Others	26	14.54	3.625	
writer in L1 (Bangla)	Bangla & English	43	1.74	.727	t(df=68)=.99, p=.33
	Bangla & English plus Others	27	1.93	.781	
writer in L2 (English)	Bangla & English	43	2.60	.583	t(df=68)=.61, p=.55
	Bangla & English plus Others	27	2.70	.775	
Vocabulary Test Score	Bangla & English	43	24.28	3.494	t(df=68)=.50, p=.61
	Bangla & English plus Others	27	23.85	3.393	
Grammatical Judgment Test Score	Bangla & English	43	15.23	5.883	t(df=68)=.25, p=.80
	Bangla & English plus Others	27	15.63	7.094	
English Essay score	Bangla & English	43	3.267	.8406	t(df=68)=.38, p=.71
	Bangla & English plus Others	27	3.185	.9623	
Bangla Essay score	Bangla & English	43	4.081	.7710	t(df=68)=.15, p=.88
	Bangla & English plus Others	27	4.111	.8697	

The results of an independent t-test showed that the age of exposure to English was significantly higher for participants who spoke Bangla and English compared to those who spoke Bangla, English, and other languages in Bangladesh.

Table 42: Cross-tabulation: Planning before writing –English and Bangla

		planning before writing Bangla		Total
		yes	no	
planning before writing	yes	48	8	56
English	no	3	11	14
Total		51	19	70

The cross-tabulation demonstrated that for the English essays, more participants planned than for the Bangla essays. While for the Bangla essays a total of 19 participants claimed that they did not plan, for the English essays, only 14 claimed that they did not plan before started writing the essays.

Table 43: Relationship between variables controlling for years of learning English – significant correlations in bold

		Number of English use	Number of English area needs more practice	Number of English activities	Regularity of English activities	Regularity of English writing	Number of areas of difficult in English writing
Number of English use	Pearson Correlation	1	-.036	.086	-.166	-.179	.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.771	.480	.169	.141	.966
	N	70	69	70	70	69	70
Number of English area needs more practice	Pearson Correlation	-.036	1	.040	-.162	.002	-.235
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.771		.743	.185	.989	.052
	N	69	69	69	69	68	69
Number of English activities besides academic training	Pearson Correlation	.086	.040	1	-.027	-.285	.249
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.480	.743		.827	.018	.038
	N	70	69	70	70	69	70
Regularity of English activities	Pearson Correlation	-.166	-.162	-.027	1	.116	.082
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.169	.185	.827		.343	.500
	N	70	69	70	70	69	70
Regularity of English writing besides academic	Pearson Correlation	-.179	.002	-.285	.116	1	.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.141	.989	.018	.343		.778
	N	69	68	69	69	69	69
Number of areas of difficult in English writing	Pearson Correlation	.005	-.235	.249	.082	.035	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.966	.052	.038	.500	.778	
	N	70	69	70	70	69	70

The relationship between variables, when controlling for years of learning English, was measured by partial Pearson correlation coefficients. It showed that number of areas of difficulty in writing was negatively correlated with the number of areas needed more practice when the $r = -.235$, $p = .052$, which is very close to statistical significance at $p = 0.05$. Besides, it showed that number of English activities besides academic training was negatively correlated with the regularity of writing in English when $r = -.285$, $p = 0.18$. It also showed that number of English activities besides academic activities was positively correlated with the number areas of difficulty in English writing when $r = .249$, $p = .038$.

Table 44: Relationship between Writing in English and Planning Strategy-Significant Correlation is Bold.

		planning before writing English	planning before writing Bangla
Number of English use	Pearson	-.143	-.196
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.238	.105
	N	70	70
Number of English area needs more practice	Pearson	.018	-.087
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.883	.475
	N	69	69
Number of English activities besides academic training	Pearson	.069	.095
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.572	.435
	N	70	70
Regularity of English activities	Pearson	-.014	.072
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.906	.552
	N	70	70
Regularity of English writing besides academic	Pearson	-.007	.109
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.955	.374
	N	69	69
Number of areas of difficult in English writing	Pearson	.184	.184
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.127	.128
	N	70	70
planning before writing English	Pearson		.578
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		70

The relationship between English writing and planning strategy was measured by Pearson correlation coefficient. It showed that planning before writing in English was positively correlated with planning before writing in Bangla when $r=.578$, $p<.001$.

Table 45: Scores and Planning Strategy in English: T-test

		planning before writing English	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test
English Essay score	yes		56	3.304	.9471	t(df=68)=1 .29, p=.20
	no		14	2.964	.4986	
Bangla Essay score	yes		56	4.161	.8263	t(df=68)=1 .42, p=.16
	no		14	3.821	.6682	

The t-test result demonstrated that, although the mean score for planning before writing was higher than other planning strategies, there was no significant relationship between planning strategy and writing scores in the English essays that the participants of this study wrote.

Table 46 : Scores and planning strategy in Bangla: T-test

		planning before writing Bangla	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test
English Essay score	yes		51	3.333	.9309	t(df=68)=1. 53, p=.13
	no		19	2.974	.6967	
Bangla Essay score	yes		51	4.196	.7942	t(df=68)=1. 79, p=.08
	no		19	3.816	.7855	

The t-test result demonstrated that, although the mean score for planning before writing was higher than other planning strategies, there was no significant relationship between planning strategy and writing scores in the Bangla essays that the participants of this study wrote.

Table 47: Correlation between Writing Scores and Revision Strategy in English

revising writing English		English Essay score	Bangla Essay score
during writing	Mean	2.969	4.031
	N	16	16
	Std. Deviation	.8056	.7181
after writing	Mean	3.152	4.061
	N	33	33
	Std. Deviation	.7653	.7263
during and after writing	Mean	3.722	4.333
	N	18	18
	Std. Deviation	1.0322	.9235
do not revise	Mean	2.667	3.333
	N	3	3
	Std. Deviation	.5774	1.1547

Table 47 demonstrated that there was no significant correlation between revision strategies and scores in writing in the English essays that the participants of this study wrote.

Table 48: Correlation between Writing Scores and Revision Strategy in Bangla

revising writing Bangla		English Essay score	Bangla Essay score
during writing	Mean	3.342	4.263
	N	19	19
	Std. Deviation	1.0415	.7522
after writing	Mean	3.034	3.948
	N	29	29
	Std. Deviation	.6537	.6988
during and after writing	Mean	3.571	4.286
	N	14	14
	Std. Deviation	.8516	.7774
do not revise	Mean	3.125	3.875
	N	8	8
	Std. Deviation	1.1877	1.2464

Table 48 demonstrated that there was no significant correlation between revision strategies and scores in writing in the Bangla essays that the participants of this study wrote.

4.7 DISCUSSION

This study was conducted in the EFL context of Bangladesh, and it recruited 70 participants from a private university in the capital city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. The participants filled out such tools of investigation as background questionnaires, grammaticality judgement tests, vocabulary tests, writing tasks in English and native language, Bangla. The writing tasks followed by an identical set of questions. The purpose of the study was to discover how learners' linguistic and academic backgrounds influenced their development in such components of writing as grammar and vocabulary as pertinent to L2 writing in English. Additionally, the study also intended to discover whether or not the participants appreciated and enacted a process of writing as they composed their essays both in English and Bangla.

Except for one participant, who did not respond to this question, all the participants, 69, (98.6%) of the study were exposed to English before the age of seven. The mean age of the participants of this study was about 19 years, and the mean age of learning English was about 14 years. Numerous experiments have established that to achieve academic competence in a language, one needs five to seven years of exposure or more (Ernst-Slavit, Moore, and Maloney, 2002). This considered, the participants of this study may have achieved academic competence in English. However, their grammar, vocabulary, and writing task performances indicated that they were not as competent in English as their years of learning ideally predicted. This apparently proposed two conclusions about the learners of this study. For one, years of exposure as well as years of learning a foreign language necessarily do not predict competence in that language. Secondly, the achievement of competence predicted by the years of exposure and years of learning is contingent upon other academic, environmental, and personal factors. As for the participants of this study in the EFL context of Bangladesh, the age of exposure and years of learning were not apparently buttressed by other factors to enhance learning.

In the context of Bangladesh, while writing is the most critical skill to predict academic success, the majority of the participants, 44, (62.9%), indicated that they needed to practice speaking more to support their current studies. Only seven participants (7.1%) indicated that they needed to practice writing more to support their current studies. This pits the academic culture against the culture in general. Generally, as Canagarajah (2002b) claims regarding South Asia, that speaking is superior to writing. As such, competence in a

foreign language is demonstrated through fluency in speaking, instead of fluency in writing. Another perception about writing may have prompted the participants of this study to lean more toward speaking than writing. A culturally-held belief regarding writing, particularly in Bangladesh, was that writing is not amenable to instruction or practice, for it is absorbed (Shamsuzzaman, 2014). Because in the academic settings in Bangladesh, writing is valued more than speaking, one of the objectives of writing instruction is to acculturate learners into the culture of academic writing, which is amenable to instruction and practice. But in order for that to happen, the learners in Bangladesh must undergo a cultural transformation first, which is apparently unlikely to happen, in that human agency cannot transcend culture (Canagarajah, 2002a). Therefore, the success of instruction in writing presupposes changing the perceptions about writing in Bangladesh.

Motivation is an important predictor for learning a second language. Of the two kinds of motivation such as intrinsic and extrinsic, the former fosters language learning more than the latter (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). Intrinsic motivation engages an individual with an activity because it is personally rewarding and fulfilling, whereas extrinsic motivation engages an individual with an activity for material gains or even to avoid punishment. The majority of the participants indicated that their motivation for learning English was extrinsic, in that the two main reasons for learning English were securing jobs, 54, (77.1%) and pursuing higher studies, 56, (80%). The reasons for learning the English language were not emerging from within; they, were, artificially imposed as the participants indicated. While extrinsic motivation potentially impacts the outcome of learning English negatively, its negative impact can be offset, especially in the context of Bangladesh. Intrinsic motivation is the characteristic of young learners. The participants of this study indicated that they were exposed to English before the age of seven. The participants of this study were very young when they were exposed to English. Before extrinsic motivation overcomes the learners in Bangladesh, instructors can devise and apply pedagogical strategies to utilize the early exposure to English, so that learners are intrinsically motivated to learn English.

A significant number of participants, 52, (74.3%), out of 70 indicated that vocabulary is the most difficult area for them in writing. This is understandable in that L2 learners see the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest source of problems (Green & Meara, 1995; Meara, 1980). However the mean score of grammar test of the participants of

this study was 15.39 out of 30, and the mean score in the vocabulary test was 24.11 out of 30. This apparently implied that the participants of this study were better in vocabulary than grammar. Nonetheless, the participants of this study may have pointed out the right area of difficulty in writing. Grammar is mechanical, and it could be taught (Elbow, 1973). On the other hand, vocabulary is semantic. While words come loaded with meaning, it is the writer who has to manoeuvre and manipulate the lexical resources to go through the phase what Murray (1982) calls from meaning identified to meaning clarified. In a situation such as this, a writer is left with no universally acknowledged conventions of composition. A writer, instead, embarks on an inductive and idiosyncratic process of composing, which is daunting mainly because of inadequate vocabulary of L2 writers. Despite that, Folse (2004) claims that vocabulary is hardly taught compared to grammar. This may have been the case with the participants of this study in the EFL context of Bangladesh. What they implied by identifying vocabulary as their most difficult area of writing was that they needed more instruction in vocabulary to hone their skills in writing in English.

This study re-confirms that L2 writing is strategically, rhetorically, and linguistically different in important ways from L1 writing (Silva, 1993), and that L2 writing processes are more laborious than those in L1 (Silva, 1992). Out of the 70 participants of this study, 26 (37.1%) participants claimed that they were excellent writers in their L1, that is, Bangla. However, only one participant (1.4%) out of the 70 participants claimed that he was an excellent writer in English. Although Zamel (1982) claims that ESL writers who are ready to compose and express their ideas use strategies similar to those used by native speakers of English, the perceptions of the participants of this study about their performance in writing in English vis-à-vis their performance in writing in Bangla did not ascertain that. Bradatan (2013) is revealing in this context as he claims that there is something natural in one's becoming a writer in one's native language, but becoming a writer in another language goes against nature. Essentially, every L2 writer is a ghost writer, who is colonized by the language he writes (Bradatan, 2013). The implication in this context is that the ontological differences in composing between L1 and L2 will never be eliminated, especially for adult L2 writers. However, the differences can be minimized, as far as academic writing is concerned. Academic writing is convention-ridden, and the conventions of academic writing are amenable to instruction. Therefore, to

ease the process of writing in English as an L2, instruction in writing should explicitly focus on teaching the process of writing.

For instructors to teach writing in English in Bangladesh, instruction in grammar is apparently a strong candidate. For the English essays, 49 participants (70%) indicated that they generally revised grammar, whereas for the Bangla essay 24 participants (34.3 %) indicated that they generally revised grammar. Likewise, for the English essays, 50 participants (71.4%) indicated that generally revised spelling, though, for the Bangla essays, only 37 (52.9%) indicated that they generally revised spelling. The priorities in the areas of revision between the English and the Bangla essays varied significantly, which implied that writing in an L1 and an L2 was different. The priorities of revision between the essays revealed a critical aspect of writing across languages. Whereas for the English essays, the main area of revision was mechanics (e.g., grammar, spelling), for the Bangla essays, the main area of revision was content (e.g., organization). While teaching grammar leads to a formulaic approach to teaching writing, which cut off the possibility of discovering something new through writing (Perl, 1980), the benign neglect of grammar for teaching L2 writing appears consequential. Writing essentially is not mechanical but is discursive. This study indicated that for writing in an L2, discourse cannot emerge independent of mechanics. While writing scholars (Greenberg, 1985, for example) claim that there is little or no relationship between grammar study and writing ability, the data of this study proved just the opposite.

While the participants of this study perceived that there were differences between writing in L1 and L2, as far as their habits or practices of writing were concerned, they demonstrated that the stages of writing were transactional and overlapping across languages (Zamel, 1982). For example, regarding the English essays, 56 participants (80%) out of 70 indicated that they planned for some time before they started to write the essays. Likewise, regarding the Bangla essays, 52 participants (74.3%) out of 70 indicated that they planned for some time before they started to write the Bangla essays. During the pre-writing stage, writers seemed to have approached writing alike across languages. The implication here is that-because the pre-writing stages of writing are identical across language-writing transpires independent of language at least before the physical act of writing occurs. Writing is not linguistic; it is, instead, cognitive. As such, potentially, the influences of an L1 or an L2 on writing are marginal. Writing, in this dispensation, is

thinking, which is a search for meaning (Murray, 1981). This mandates that writing should be taught as a tool to generating and discovering thoughts across contexts. The teaching of writing should not be approached as a tool to overcoming errors in learning a language both in an L1 and L2.

Because a piece of writing is never final (Murray, 1969), revision is key to writing. The participants of this study demonstrated this truism about writing across languages. About 95% participants of the English essays and about 88% participants of the Bangla essays indicated that they revised essays at different times in the composing process. What was more critical in this regard was that the times of revision of the participants across languages were uniform. Regarding the English essays, about 47 % participants of the study indicated that they generally revised after writing. Likewise, 41% participants of the study, regarding the Bangla essays, indicated that they revised after writing. The writing behavior of the participants, while shifting from one language to another language, did not significantly vary. While revision is anathema for student writers as well as for expert writers (Emig, 1967), sophistication in writing presupposes adequate and informed revision. Zamel (1982) is relevant in this context, who claims that revision should become the main component of writing instruction. Because the participants of this study indicated that they extensively revised, writing instructors must provide learners with appropriate schemata to revise effectively. Teaching writing across languages and across contexts does not change the fact that revision is integral to writing, and that writing instructors cannot abdicate the responsibility of teaching techniques of revision.

Both for English and Bangla essays, exactly the same percentage of participants (87.1%) indicated that they would like to take the opportunity to compose a few drafts to improve their writing had they had a chance. Writing essentially is a recursive process, regardless of the language writing is undertaken. Hairston (1986) claims that writing is an evolutionary process, and that it takes three to four unsatisfactory versions before the final form emerges. Zamel (1982) also claims that several drafts may be needed before invention and intension of a writer become one for the emergence of a final version. Writing requires that writers disabuse themselves of the assumption that the first draft is the final draft. The first draft in writing is almost always the “shitty first draft” (Lamott, 1995). The majority of the participants of this study seemed to have acknowledged this aspect of writing, when they wrote both in L1 and L2. However, though they

acknowledged the shortcomings of their initial drafts, they might resist revising them further.

Breidenbach (2006), for example, contends that when papers are new born, they become the writers and have no independent lives of their own. Shortcomings of a piece of writing become synonymous with the shortcomings of writers. A situation such as this denigrates the writers both emotionally and cognitively, and unless the writers resist the suggestion to compose several drafts, they cannot salvage their emotional and cognitive dignity. This is not being the case with the participants of this study. They were not apprehensive of the thought of revision and were less stigmatized and intimidated by shortcomings of their writings. This potentially makes the teaching of L2 writing easy in Bangladesh.

On another front, the participants indicated that despite the difference in languages, the focus of writing did not vary. Out of the 70 participants of this study, 50 participants (71.4%) indicated that they thought of clarifying their ideas about the topic while they wrote the English essays. On the other hand, 52 participants (74.3%) out of 70 indicated that they thought of clarifying their ideas about the topic as they wrote the Bangla essays. Murray (1969) claims that people do not write to be understood, but they write to understand. Writing is a lyrical approximation of ideas, information, and ideologies. A writer has to invent and combine these attributes of writing uniquely and alone. While every writer has “a mental blue print” (Zamel, 1983, p. 181) as to what he will write, no writer knows what he will write until he writes. Writing as such is problem-solving (Bizzell, 1982), when a writer constructs meaning from the confusion of information (Murray, 1978). This aspect of writing is impervious to the influences of languages. Because most of the participants of this study knew about this universal aspect of writing, writing instructors in Bangladesh should be cognizant of and sensitive to a learner’s unique way of clarifying ideas to himself. This requires a personalized approach to writing pedagogy.

In addition to these corresponding characteristics between L1 and L2 writing, another finding of the study claims that writing in an L2 is not completely different from writing in a first language (Matsuda, 2012a). While the mean score in the English essays was 3.236, and in the Bangla essays was 4.093, the scores of these two essays correlated. Zamel (1983) contends that certain composing problems transcend language factors and

are shared by both native and non-native speakers of English. A logical deduction here is that if the composing problems persist across languages, so do the facilities of composing. Therefore, if someone is an inept or an expert writer in his L1, he is presumably so in his L2. Skills in writing are not language specific or mono lingual. Skills in writing, instead, are generic or translingual. This specific finding of this study aligned with Arapoff's (1969) assertion that native speakers are not always native writers, given the essential differences between speaking and writing.

While a compelling conclusion in this context is that teaching writing in an L1 complements the teaching of writing in an L2 since nativity in writing is cross-linguistic, it warrants some clarifications in that no one is born with English composition skills per se (Pinker, 2014). Writing in English should be taught regardless of L1s, though L2 writers in English require instruction in writing more than their native counterparts. The conventions of North American academic writing are linguistically, strategically, and rhetorically so distinct from the conventions of writing in other parts of the world (Kaplan, 1966, demonstrated that, for example) that prior ability (or a lack thereof) in writing in one's L1 hardly predicts one's ability (or a lack thereof) in English. Someone from a different cultural and linguistic orientation in North American academic setting has to learn "written code" and "language code" (Raimes, 1985) apparently from scratch to learn writing in English. However strongly the data of this study implied that L1 writers were akin to L2 writers, this conclusion was partial and contested.

In the EFL context of Bangladesh, these similarities between writing in an L1 and an L2 suggested that writing was perceived and undertaken as a process, regardless of the approaches to teaching writing. Most of the participants of this study indicated that they conceded the concept of 'unfinished writing' (Murray, 2011, p.4). They emphasized the centrality of revision throughout the process of writing, and they would like to have taken the opportunity of composing a few drafts en-route to the final version of a piece of writing. The possibility of revision (Sommers, 1980) and the acknowledgement that three drafts are common (Murray, 1996) are two of the basics of a process approach to teaching writing. The process approach to teaching writing proposes that all writing is experimental (Murray, 2011). Revisions and multiple drafts foreground that experimental aspect of writing. Intentionally or inadvertently, the participants of this study acknowledged and enacted a process of writing across languages. In addition to that, the participants of this

study indicated that they perceived writing as a tool to clarifying their ideas to themselves. Essentially, process pedagogy was resolutely asocial, abstract, and internal in any theoretical sense over the last part of the 20th century, when it emphasized the development of the inner self (Atkinson, 2003). Because clarifying their ideas to themselves was one of their main foci as they were writing, they leaned toward the process approach to accomplishing writing.

An implication that emerged from analysing the perceptions and practices of writing of the participants of this study in the academic setting in Bangladesh was that writing should be taught as a process. Shamsuzzaman, Everatt, and McNeill (2014) urged writing instructors in Bangladesh to teach writing as a process. In doing so, writing instructors in Bangladesh must be cognizant of some potential pitfalls or qualifications. Santos (1992) and Faigley (1986) contend that the concept of process pedagogy in writing revolves around such three schools as cognitivist, expressivist, and social constructionist. The expressivist school of process pedagogy emphasizes the personal voice in writing, while social constructionist school of process pedagogy emphasizes social and political aspects of writing (Santos, 1992). The participants of this study indicated that they were not slanted toward the expressivist and social schools of process pedagogy.

They were responsive, instead, to the cognitivist school of process pedagogy, which emphasizes the intellectual, analytical approach to teaching writing. Simply put, the cognitivist school of process pedagogy explores and exploits what goes on inside the brains of writers as they write. Fulkerson (2005) contends that today's process approach to teaching writing is deeply influenced by the cognitivist approach, which considerably draws upon the works of Linda Flower and John Hayes. Flower and Hayes (1981) contend that writing process is not a creative accident; it is, instead, plain thinking. The participants of this study appeared inured to thinking, for they focused on clarifying their ideas to themselves as they wrote. However, as the participants of this study indicated, the cognitivist process approach that Flower and Hayes (1981) proposed needs to be adapted to the needs and linguistic development of these L2 writers. The correlation between vocabulary, grammar, and writing of scores of this study implied that vocabulary and grammar were deeply implicated in the process of writing that these participants perceived and enacted. Unlike the process proposed by Flower and Hayes (1981) that emphasizes the discovery and generation of thoughts, this process is contingent upon adequate knowledge

in grammar and vocabulary. The participants of this study indicated to discover and generate thoughts through a process of syntactic and lexical exploration. Writing instructors in Bangladesh must come up with strategies that accommodate this aspect of process in L2 writing in English. .

4.8 Conclusion

This study yielded some specific as well as ambivalent information regarding writing in general and L2 writing in particular. It demonstrated that writing in an L1 and an L2 was significantly similar as far as the process of writing was concerned. However, it also demonstrated that the process was enacted differently in L1 and L2. While the study demonstrated that scores in grammar and vocabulary tests as well as scores in L1 and L2 essays correlated, it demonstrated that scores in all those tests significantly varied across individual participants. This implied that even in the same academic, cultural, and linguistic setting L2 writers as well as learners did not learn an L2 alike even when they were in the same age range. The difference between L1 and L2 writing was further re-enforced when the data demonstrated that the participants of this study did not perceive writing to be similar in L1 and L2. They indicated that writing in an L1 was easier and more natural than writing in an L2. These information contribute to the knowledge base of L2 writing by critiquing learners and learning in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The findings of this study merit critical consideration to promote the teaching of L2 writing in English in the EFL context of Bangladesh and beyond.

Chapter 5

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTRUCTORS' BACKGROUND AND THE TEACHING OF SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING IN BANGLADESH

5.1 Overview

This chapter examined potential relationships between instructors' backgrounds and giving feedback on students' writings in the Bangladeshi EFL context. Forty-six second language (L2) writing instructors from different universities participated in this study. Participants completed questionnaires detailing their education, experience, and views about styles and strategies to give feedback on students' writings. The findings indicated that older instructors were more likely to have a background in literature studies, whereas younger instructors have qualifications in language-based areas. However, despite the difference in instructors' backgrounds, the data suggested little difference the ways they went about feedback practices. A potential reason for this is that those in leadership positions in the English departments may still retain the literature perspective of teaching L2 writing, including feedback practices, so younger instructors think that they needed to follow their leaders' focus. This implies that as younger instructors take on leadership roles in their institutions, modifications in principles of such practices would emerge. The data, nonetheless, demonstrated some discrepancies in instructors' perceptions and principles of giving feedback.

5.2 Introduction

The Indian subcontinent occupies a peculiar position with regard to its relationship with English. The language is hardly considered or consumed for its apparent intellectual and socio-economic benefits, in that it evokes a history of colonization by the British that lasted for almost two hundred years, 1757-1947. English appeared politically more critical and controversial when Lord Macaulay proposed his “Minute on Indian Education” in 1835 to valorize English over Sanskrit, Arabic, and other vernaculars to educate a “comparatively ignorant” (Macaulay and Young, 1979, p. 353) nation so as to “form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern” (Macaulay and Young, 1979, p. 359). Although Macaulay proposed to challenge and change the whole paradigm of education of the Indian subcontinent, his proposal presupposed an uninterrupted circulation of British literature because of its intrinsic superiority compared to Sanskrit and Arabic. These two traditional lineaments of English studies—that English is politically encumbered, and that English studies means the study of British literature—prevail across the Indian subcontinent. Bangladesh is no exception with this regard.

One of the oldest universities in the Indian subcontinent, for example, is the University of Dhaka, Bangladesh, which was launched in 1921 with 12 academic departments (Rahman, 1981). The Department of English was one of those 12 departments. Until 1985 when the department started to offer an M.A. in Applied Linguistics and ELT (Alam, 2011), the intellectual endeavor of the department used to revolve around teaching canonical pieces of British literature for both B.A. (Hon’s) and M.A., though the M.A. stream in literature included some works in translation from other European and Asian countries as well as from the English speaking diaspora. Because all other public universities in Bangladesh were established much later than the University of Dhaka, their missions and visions were somehow informed by it to restrict the undertaking of the English departments essentially to studying British literature. The apparent inclination of the Bangladeshi universities toward literature should not appear unusual, for English is often associated either with grammar or with high literature (Elbow as cited in Connors and Lunsford, 1988). What appears unusual is that the appreciation of literature is contingent upon producing a significant amount of written artifact by students (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). The instructors evaluate students’ written artifact to determine final grades. Only writing convinces instructors whether students develop

sensitivity toward the nuances of literature. They, ironically, hardly teach writing-specific courses. Composition has been the stepchild of literature (Harris as cited in Elbow, 1991) in the annals of English studies in Bangladesh. The culturally held assumption is that writing is a self-learned skill, and an exposure to high literature presupposes the acquisition of that skill. An insider would immediately recognize that this information with regard to English studies in Bangladesh is indeed unerring, but because knowledge is predominantly orally constructed in the periphery (Canagarajah, 2002b), the validation of this information from recognized sources is unlikely because of the dearth of written documents.

However, English instructors in Bangladesh came to realize that “writing is built, not born; it requires time, not only talent” (Burke, 2003, p. 22) since 1993 following the emergence of private universities based upon the North American model of tertiary education (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). Regardless of majors, all students at those private universities must pass a few foundation courses in English-most of which are called composition courses-in order to qualify for a Bachelor’s. From this perspective, the emergence of private universities has been responsible for veering the thrust of English studies in Bangladesh away from literature into composition to approach English studies. Remarkably, this transition in English studies in Bangladesh aligns with the development of the field of L2 writing internationally since Matsuda and De Pew (2002) and Matsuda (2013) claim that L2 writing emerges as an important instructional issue in mid-20th century and by the early 1990s. Nonetheless, the development of L2 writing is somehow unique in Bangladesh. The immediate two ancestors of L2 writing are composition and applied linguistics (Silva & Leki, 2004). This unique situation of the L2 writing at the intersection of L2 studies and composition (Silva, Leki, & Carson, 1997) evolves and emerges by developing a symbiotic relationship (Matsuda, 1998) with its “feeder disciplines” (Silva and Leki, 2004, p. 1). Because composition as a discipline does not exist per se in Bangladesh, and applied linguistics came along in the 1990s, the field of L2 writing was essentially informed by literature studies. It encompasses no hybridity; instead, it becomes an outgrowth of literature. Against this backdrop of L2 writing in Bangladesh, instructors’ backgrounds and the management of errors and feedback to facilitate the teaching of L2 writing emerge as critical issues, which are also explored critically in mainstream L2 writing literature.

5.3 Literature Review

Teachers exist because of their expertise (Reid, 1994). This truth is axiomatic across all disciplines. When it comes to the teaching of L2 writing, however, the statement warrants further justification. Perhaps, no area of specialization of English studies has evolved around so essentially its center of birth and breeding as composition studies for so long. Contemporary composition studies has been a North American phenomenon (Silva, 2006; Silva and Leki, 2004), and since its origin at the beginning of the 19th century, it has been expanding and flourishing only in North America as a disciplinary area of expertise. Because the immediate ancestor of L2 writing is composition studies, the professional base of the field had to form and flourish in North America. Professional development is contingent upon having training in North American institutions. North America is a tough option for economic, political, and admission-related reasons to avail for the aspiring professionals, and because many specialists in the field do not work in Ph.D.-offering units (Silva, 2006), the opportunity for professional development in the field is qualified. In both ESL and EFL contexts, however, tertiary education presupposes acquisition of good writing skill. The inability to write well is consequential for students. Because of the dearth of adequately prepared professionals, institutions make do with whoever they consider eligible. Despite the lack of expertise, then, L2 writing instructors can exist.

Even the highest qualification and years of experience in a related field might not compensate for the lack of professional preparation to teach the second language writers effectively. For example, Matsuda (2012b) talked about a well-prepared and experienced instructor in a related field, who struggled to deal with her ESL students. He implied that the problem may have stemmed from the instructors' unfamiliarity with some of the common issues with L2 writers, which were already professionally addressed. Kroll (1990) contends that becoming a writing teacher presupposes undergoing a complex process of professional development. She continues:

A teacher's journey toward understanding the complexity of both writing and teaching often begins with a look to the past, for scholarship originates from the ability to synthesize past insights and apply them in the pursuit of continued inquiry (p.1).

What this suggests is that the pedagogical practices of any field should be informed by the history of that field to gain insights and information from “the knowledge base of the discipline” (Ferris, 2005, p. 225). The history of L2 writing is implicated with the histories of its feeder disciplines: composition and applied linguistics; therefore, the “the instructional and professional development” (Matsuda, Saenkhum, & Accardi, 2013, p. 69) process for the field of L2 writing is more arduous, complex, and time-consuming. Despite this rigorous preparation, L2 writing instructors might not “have a set of methods for the teaching of writing” (Bartholomae, 1986, p. 5) because of the diversity of their student populations. They come from different L1 backgrounds; they come with varying degrees of exposure to L2; they have culture-specific learning styles and strategies; and they have different level of motivation for and attachment to the target language. These are critical variables to affect learning outcome, but the preparation in these areas is never complete but progressive. As well, the field of L2 writing is fraught with critical ethical considerations (Silva, 1997), also emphasizing the need for professional development. In a field such as this, only continuous and adequate professional preparation ensures that an instructor deals with all these issues informed to initiate and sustain a stimulating learning environment in classrooms and beyond.

In recent years, the field of L2 writing seems to have broken away from the shadows of its feeder disciplines since it has emerged as a fairly independent discipline in terms of mapping out its philosophical and theoretical bases along with its modes of inquiry, politics, and pedagogy (Silva, 2006). Incidental teaching by unprepared or underprepared professionals drags the field of L2 writing back to its days of parasitic existence on its feeder disciplines, which seems unlikely to happen given current developments in the field. For example, Vivian Zamel and Dana Ferris, two major influences in the field of L2 writing, have emphasized the need for professional preparation, but the tenor of their assertions distinguishes the past from the present with a note of optimism and advancement. Zamel (1985) admonishes L2 writing instructors for viewing themselves as language teachers, for they are so concerned with the “surface-level features of a piece of writing (p.86)” that they completely ignore “much larger meaning-related” (p. 86) issues. She is exasperated by the unprofessionalism of L2 writing instructors. Ferris (2003), on the other hand, does not resent the shortcomings of the instructors the way Zamel (1985) did; instead, she looks determined in directing instructors toward “what to look for” and “where to start (p.118).” She believes that the field has

already accrued adequate resources to address some of the issues specific to L2 writing. In her own works, she has been consistently exploring and explaining two critical issues - errors and feedback -in the teaching of L2 writing. In one such work, Ferris, Brown, Liu, and Stine (2011) have asked for comprehensive and detailed preparation of L2 writing instructors, echoed by Matsuda, Saenkhum, and Accardi (2013).

With regard to teaching writing, Emig (1971) contends that the “training and retraining of teachers (p.4)” is one of the basic needed to help students achieve facility in writing. If writing instructors come from the right background with rigorous professional training, they do not uncritically submit to some of the bandwagons so pervasive in the field of L2 writing. One such area is error correction. In this area, especially for L2 writing, the gap between research, theory, and practice is glaring (Ferris, 2009). Writing instructors are professionally obliged to help their students write correctly. Not providing feedback is not ethically a sound option for writing instructors. Writing instructors doubtlessly attempt to ferret out every single error in students’ writing, and suggest correction to purge their writings of “linguistic litter” (Sommers, 1979, p. 48). While the intention of the writing instructors is praiseworthy, the potential of such an attempt to effect substantial change is qualified. The aetiologies of errors are various. Errors can be caused by the essential rhetorical differences between the L1 and the L2 or contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966); errors can be caused by L2 itself as a self-serving system impervious to intervention or interlanguage (Selinker, 1969); and errors can be caused by the lack of motivation toward or detachment from the L2 or affective filter (Krashen, 1985). Errors are reflected by infelicities in the language, but linguistic infelicities often do not cause errors. Errors emanate from “many sources of influence” (Matsuda and Cox, 2011, p.12). Correcting errors without understanding and addressing the aetiologies of errors potentially defeats the whole purpose of error correction.

Krashen (1984) maintains that error correction is not effective in helping students learn writing. Likewise, Zamel (1982) has been unconvinced of the potential of error correction to facilitate writing skills. Perhaps the most vocal skeptic of error correction is Truscott (1996), who contends that error correction is ineffective and harmful, so it should be abandoned. Some studies (Kepner, 1991; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992) corroborate what Truscott claims. One of the main complaints Truscott (1996) levelled against error correction is that learning maintains a developmental

sequence, but error correction is not informed by that principle of learning. Instructors who provide error correction tend to believe that different linguistic domains (e.g., lexical, syntactical, morphological) are equivalent, but these domains of language, though overlapping, are different from each other, so are acquired through different stages and processes. Linguistic development is not generic across learners; it is particularistic and gradient, instead. This assumption posits that learners are not capable of taking a few steps together to internalize learning. They can only take the immediate next step. Both Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis and Pieneman's (1989) Teachability Hypothesis propose that grammar instruction can only be effective when the input aligns with the developmental phase of a particular learner. Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974) found that adults as well as children develop accuracy in English as an L2 in a number of grammatical morphemes in a set order. Pieneman's theory was applied by Pieneman and Mackey (1993) with 13 children who learned English in an EFL context, and they found no evidence to contradict the theory. The implications of their works suggest that errors occur in a predictable pattern, and these should be identified and corrected selectively.

Some studies (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener, & Knoch, 2008; 2010a; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009) have already established that when errors are selectively, but not comprehensively corrected, learners learn better. Writing instructors have not been convinced by the potential of selective error correction, since they seem to believe that "error, like sin, is to be avoided, and its influence overcome" (Brooks, 1960, p. 58). It is popularly assumed that writing teachers blue-pencil every single error that students make in their writing; actually, however, most of the errors remain undetected. Connors and Lunsford (1988) discovered that 41% of errors are identified by the writing instructors. Lunsford and Lunsford (2008) replicated Connors and Lunsford (1988), and discovered that only 39% of errors are identified by writing instructors. These two studies might not represent an authentic scenario as far as L2 writing is concerned, in that the data were collected from the mainstream composition students in the U.S., who were most likely the native speakers of English. Referring to an M.A. thesis, Ferris (2006) claimed that even with the ESL students, only 83% of the errors are identified. Most errors are too insidious for writing instructors to discover and deal with as punctiliously as they want. The existence of errors in students' texts does not suggest in a way that students are intellectually deficient, and

that instructors are professional malingers. Students can learn to write, and instructors can continue to teach students writing despite errors.

This perspective on errors is informed by Ferris's (2002) classification of errors as treatable and untreatable. She contends that errors with form such as syntax, mechanics, and lexicon can be treated and informed since the students can be referred to manuals to know the right usage. However, for the errors with content such as organization, cohesion, and clarity, students cannot be referred to manuals. In fact, no explicit formulas exist with regard to those domains of writing. Writing instructors cannot teach those domains of writing informed. This argument apparently proposes to consider writing not as linguistic artifact, which is a "fixed piece, frozen in time that needs some editing" (Sommers, 1982, p. 151), but as a piece of thought, which signals creativity and active engagement with a language to grasp any phenomenon inductively so as to express it uniquely. When a language is considered beyond its form, the boundary between L1 and L2 blurs, for "second language composing is not a different animal from first language composing" (Jones & Tetroe, 1987, p. 55). Zamel (1982) also maintains that the composing process for both L1 and L2 writers are essentially identical. Across contexts, conditions, and languages, writers undergo the same process while writing. To appreciate as well as evaluate a piece of writing, this process merits critical consideration.

Apparently, texts produced by ESL writers are less persuasive and more problematic. The shortcomings of ESL writers are so apparent and endemic that instructors are immediately led to the persuasion that unless they intervene, the ESL writers will never learn to write. This position is hardly controversial. The whole assumption, however, is based on the belief that learning is a single-shot event. Identification of errors and providing feedback doubtlessly ascertains learning as such. Truscott (1996) disagrees and strongly maintains that error correction triggers only pseudo learning, which hardly yields any long-term benefits for learners. Long-term learning, which is indeed learning, concerns the intellectual, aesthetic, and abstract aspects of a language, and learning those aspects of a foreign language is a long and complex undertaking (Brown, 2007). Learning to write in another language perhaps takes too long compared to other domains of language such as reading, listening, and speaking in that one needs "two decades of maturation, instruction, and training" (Kellogg, 2008, p. 2) to learn to write. This perspective with regard to writing does not undermine or downplay in any way the

potential of instruction to help students write effectively, but it, of course, asks for re-conceptualizing the role of feedback, error, and teacher preparation as far as L2 writers are concerned.

Because errors are a natural part of language learning (Harris & Silva, 1993), and they are windows into the minds of the learners (Raimes, 1991; Shaughnessy, 1977), they are potentially fraught with instructional implications. L2 writers are not intellectually impaired or linguistically fossilized. They are not basic (Lunsford, 1980) or remedial writers (Shaughnessy, 1977). They are already writers who are learning the craft of writing perhaps anew in a new culture, condition, context, and language. Instructors must ascertain that when students are exposed to such a new learning environment, they are not confused by any pedagogical practice or principle of the instructors. Certainly, however, the way instructors provide feedback on students writing is confusing because they usually “take the form of abstract and vague prescriptions and directives that students find difficult to interpret” (Zamel, 1985, p. 79). Bitchener and Ferris (2012) claim that feedback is essentially helpful; therefore, why feedback should be given is not the question, how feedback should be given is indeed the question. The deduction here is that if feedback fails to facilitate learning that does not imply that feedback is redundant. All it means is that the practice is not streamlined. The practice is so “idiosyncratic and arbitrary” (Sommers, 1982, p. 149) that instructors are perennially polarized about the usefulness of various modes of feedback. Their views on providing feedback vary from each other. Because L2 learners’ texts qualitatively hardly vary as claimed by Silva (1992), the intervention technique should not be so divergent across instructional contexts. This implies that many instructors are not adequately professionally prepared to cater to the “unique needs of L2 writers” (Matsuda, Saenkhum, and Accardi, 2013, p. 68).

5.4 Research Questions

Undoubtedly, teaching effectively requires adequate professional preparation. L2 writing instructors are no exceptions. Adequate preparation alone, however, does not warrant the application of informed pedagogical approaches. Instructors beliefs about teaching L2 writing can influence their styles and strategies of teaching, as can the contexts of teaching. To understand the unique context of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh, instructors’ academic background and their beliefs about teaching writing merit investigation. Therefore, the following two questions emerge:

1. To what extent do instructors' academic backgrounds and age inform their styles of providing feedback?
2. Do instructors' perceptions about teaching writing vary from or conform to their practice of providing feedback?

5.5 METHOD

5.5.1 Participants

Initially, 120 questionnaires were personally distributed to English faculty members at seven private and public universities in Dhaka, Bangladesh. These institutions were targeted as they were known to the researcher and because of support provided by the universities. In addition, these universities represented a range appropriate to allow conclusions to be drawn from the data. The period of data collection lasted for four months, and by the end of this period, 46 completed questionnaires were returned. Although this is a relatively small return rate, it was not unexpected given the workload of the staff, the lack of incentives to complete the questionnaires, and the relatively low level of experience with research studies. All the 46 participants who completed the questionnaire were teaching introductory, intermediate, or advanced compositions at one of the seven public or private universities targeted.

5.5.2 Data Collection Method

Data were garnered from questionnaires and a writing sample. The first questionnaire (Appendix, I) asked all L2 writing instructors to provide information with regard to the years of experience, area of specialization, highest qualification earned, country of the last qualification earned, and year of graduation along with some other demographic and professional information. When they filled out this questionnaire they were also given the 'Information Sheet' (Appendix, N) and the 'Consent Form' (Appendix, O) to read into and fill out.

In addition, the selected writing sample (Appendix, J) was taken from one of the introductory composition classes at a private university in Bangladesh, where this researcher had been teaching. It asked the students to write on a given prompt for half an hour. The participants of this study were asked to provide feedback on this writing sample.

The second type of the questionnaire asked instructors to provide information with regard to error identification and feedback provision (Appendix, K). All the questions in this questionnaire were quantitative in nature, but the last question was opened-ended. It solicited information with regard to their teaching practices and philosophies of writing, which were not covered by this questionnaire. This question added a qualitative edge to this study. These three instruments yielded critical data to investigate the issue in an exhaustive fashion. The background questionnaire allowed for some predictions about the pedagogical options of teaching L2 writing; the writing sample demonstrated what the instructors actually did as they provided feedback on students' texts; and the second questionnaire demonstrated what they ideally intended to do. Altogether, these questionnaires brought to the fore the perceptions vis-à-vis the practices of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh.

5.5.3 Data Analysis

First, the participants of the study were classified as literature and non-literature backgrounds. Then the data were analyzed by using Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Data of all the participants were manually put into the program to determine the percentage of the 10 critical variables of the investigation. Moreover, the two participating groups (i.e., the literature and language groups) are compared on each variable that is critical to yield any relevant information to facilitate conclusions about the findings. Having analyzed the feedback received on the writing sample, it was discovered that the various practices of providing feedback could be classified into four categories or levels. Some instructors provided feedback only on form, what was called lower level feedback; others provided feedback only on content, what was called higher level feedback; some provided feedback on both form and content; and some refrained from providing any feedback at all. Instructors from both language-based and literature backgrounds were also compared to determine the percentage of the different levels of feedback.

5.6 Result

This section focuses on answering two research questions: 1. To what extent do instructors' academic background and age inform their strategies of providing feedback? and 2. Do instructors' perceptions about teaching writing vary from or conform to their practice of teaching writing? As can be seen from the two figures, the background training

of instructors does not predict how they would approach teaching, but the younger instructors have been leaning more toward language-based areas than the older ones. This could imply that in the years to come, the L2 writing pedagogy would undergo significant change. Table 49 demonstrated that the responses of the language-background instructors did not differ significantly from those of the more literature-background instructors. Regardless of background, every instructor had been teaching L2 writing almost alike. However, the data at once demonstrated that there existed a significant gap in their perceptions and practice of teaching L2 writing. They did not believe in what they did and vice-versa.

Results from the analyses of the data from Figure 3 revealed that the younger participants specialized more in language than their predecessors, who specialized more in literature. Of the four age groups, the first group (aged 20-29 years) showed a clear dominance of specialization in language-based areas; however, there was a steady shift from a language-based background toward a literature-based background over the next two age groups (i.e., 30-39, 40-49). In the last age group (i.e., 50+), all the participants were from a literature-based background. The second part of the first research question that intended to discover the relationship between age and the area of specialization led to the conclusion for influences between age and instructors' area of specialization.

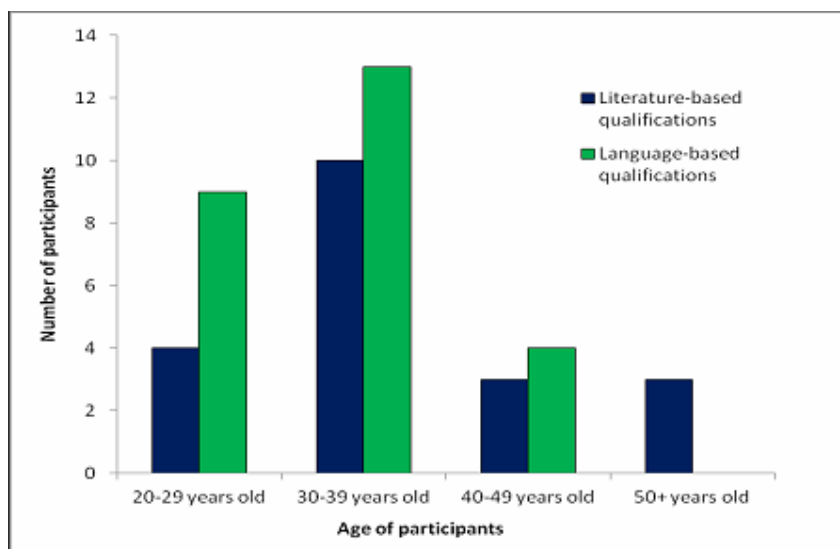


Figure 3: Number of Participants by Age and Background in Areas of Specialization.

Table 49 demonstrated that differences of background of instructors did not seem to influence their views about or strategies to provide feedback on students' writings. The majority of the participants believed that it was mandatory for writing instructors to

provide feedback (about 70% of both groups). Likewise, majorities from both groups (90% literature - based; 80 % language-based) also maintained that the context of the students (such as ESL or EFL) should determine the type of feedback provided. Also, the majority of participants from both groups indicated similar views about and strategies of feedback in terms of feeling overwhelmed by the amount of feedback needed (around 65%), the need to identify all errors (95%), providing different types of feedback (e.g., syntax/punctuation and organization, 85%), and use of codes to provide feedback (80%). Similar percentages from both groups also disagreed about feedback being potentially harmful (around 68%), but were less sure whether it improved writing (around 40%). The only difference between the two groups came from the requirements of institutions to use a rubric to provide feedback. About 40% participants from a literature-based background contended that they had to adhere to rubrics mandated by the institutions, and 60% argued that they did not have to adhere to rubrics. 15% from a language-based background contended that they had to follow rubrics mandated by the institutions, but 73% from the same group claimed that they did not have to follow rubrics. A rubric was one of the many components to facilitate the teaching of writing. It alone does not significantly influence the way writing is taught.

Table 49 : Literature versus Language: Views/Strategies for Feedback Practices

Feedback Views and Strategies	Literature		Language	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Feedback is mandatory?	70%	30%	69%	31%
2. Use of institution rubric?	40%	60%	15%	73%
3. Does context determine feedback?	90%	5%	80%	8%
4. Feedback harmful?	20%	65%	12%	69%
5. Feedback improves writing?	58%	42%	54%	39%
6. Amount of feedback needed overwhelms?	95%	5%	88%	12%
7. Do you identifying all errors?	95%	5%	85%	15%
8. Provide feedback on Syntax/Punctuation?	85%	15%	92%	8%
9. Provide feedback on Organization?	90%	10%	89%	11%
10. Use of cryptic code to provide feedback?	80%	20%	81%	19%

Note: when percentages do not add to 100%, this is due to non-responses or “no comment” responses.

Despite differences in background training, these two groups seemed remarkably similar in attitudes and practices. The answer to the first part of the research question was likely that instructors’ background training did not influence teaching practices.

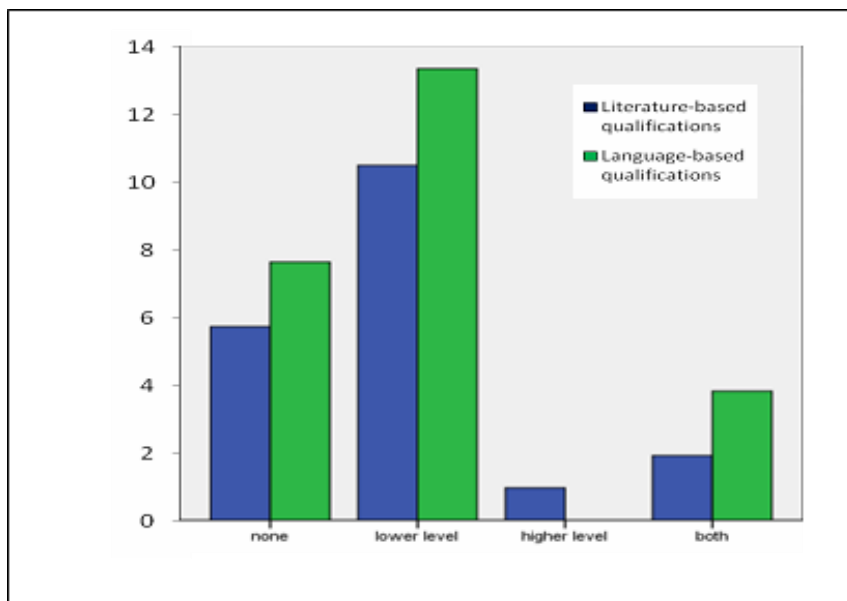


Figure 4: Number of Participants by Type of Feedback Provided.

The participants of this study provided different types of feedback on the writing sample with which they were provided. Some refrained from providing any feedback at all (none); some provided feedback only on form (lower level feedback); some provided feedback only on content (higher level feedback); and some provided feedback both on form and content (both lower and higher level). Figure 4 demonstrated that of the 46 participants (literature-based 20; language-based 26), 14 instructors (6 from literature-based qualifications, 30%; 8 language-based qualifications, 30.8%) did not provide any feedback whatsoever. 55% from a literature-based background provided feedback only on form, while 53.8% from a language-based background provided feedback only on form. Only 5% from a literature background provided feedback only on content; while none from a language-based background provided feedback only on content. 10% from a literature-based background provided feedback on both form and content; while 15% from a language-based background provided feedback both on form and content. The data from Figure 4 proposed the same conclusion that the difference in the background of the instructor did not have any significant impact on their practice and attitudes toward teaching L2 writing.

5.7 DISCUSSION

Discussions revolved around two research questions that this survey attempted to explore empirically. Findings were selectively presented to discover how they differed from or conform to the research questions. Most of the findings were straightforward, and they directly addressed two of the research questions. The first author, sometimes, drew upon his knowledge of the academic culture in Bangladesh to interpret some of the findings.

The findings of this questionnaire-based study suggested that the provision of feedback was almost identical across instructors from literature and language backgrounds. This finding was unexpected based on Silva and Leki's (2004) view that the field of L2 writing should now be informed by both composition and applied linguistics, not by literature. It was expected as such that instructors with a language background would go about giving feedback to students in a different way from those from the more traditional literature-based background. In contrast, it appeared that despite background training, feedback had become akin to error correction. Hence, the main pedagogical approach toward L2 writing appeared still to be product-based. While this research did not collect data to discover whether the participants of this study taught L2 writing as a process or a product, the researcher yet implied that the teaching of L2 writing in Bangladesh was product-based given the reason that he taught English in Bangladesh. The implication here was that the field of L2 writing in Bangladesh had not embraced process-oriented L2 writing pedagogy, which considered writing as a non-linear and recursive means of thinking and discovering meaning through writing (Perl, 1980). L2 writing is more in the domain of language-related areas than literature; therefore, language-based instructors should have shown some signs of teaching L2 differently that aligned with the principles of teaching L2 writing. However, it seemed that the instructors were not informed by background training, and that they were, perhaps, constrained by cultural and institutional norms/traditions in the ways they taught L2 writing.

A large number of the participants from both groups provided feedback on syntax and punctuation. This evidence was worthy of note. For teaching L2 writing, a focus on grammar might not be entirely helpful. Both Matsuda (2012) and Ferris (2002) contend that grammar has to be taught with metalinguistic input and carefully planned mini-lessons. They contend that grammar has to be contextualized within the teaching of

writing; grammar should not be taught disembodied. However, possibly due to the principles (e.g., multiple drafts, peer reviews, self-editing, delayed assessment) of process pedagogy not being in the teaching-repertoire of L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013), such instructors still firmly believed that their “expertise and energy are well-spent” (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013, p.73) only when they taught grammar. Based on his experience as a teacher in Bangladesh, the researcher argued that L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh were victims of a grammar-based tradition, which was too strong to permit more ambitious and experimental pedagogical approaches. Some instructors in Bangladesh perhaps had expertise in teaching L2 writing as this researcher anecdotally knew, but they lacked the environment to enact their expertise. Again, the data showed that the academic backgrounds of L2 writing instructors exerted no influence on their ways of teaching.

For example, one instructor of the first age group (20-29) from a language-based background claims: “In this system of product writing, if any single teacher (or two) tries to use process writing, colleagues will object.” This could apparently imply that young instructors with a language-based background may have had the preparation and the determination to teach writing as a process, when instructors are not primarily occupied with errors and editing (Raimes, 1985). Their views of teaching writing perhaps conflicted with that of their older colleagues, who, because of a literature-based background, considered writing as an orthographic repetition of speech. This attitude toward teaching writing proposes a pedagogical practice that emphasizes only correction. Therefore, the specter of grammar looms large in a writing classroom in Bangladesh, though grammar study may have little to do with composing (Zamel, 1976). Writers are instructed, even encouraged, to accomplish a piece of writing by enacting some familiar steps and stages. Perl (1980) contends that a formulaic approach produces formulaic writing, cutting off the possibility of discovering something new through the process of writing. A grammar-dependent pedagogical approach toward teaching writing does not allow writers options and opportunities to engage with the creative and critical aspects of a piece of writing. Because some of the young instructors seem to have been leaning toward that principle of teaching writing, the older instructors should co-operate and not object to the younger instructors teaching writing the way they consider appropriate and effective. Lack of collaboration and co-operation among colleagues at different universities in Bangladesh have been responsible for rendering L2 writing virtually ineffective. Given the perspective

of the young instructor, age and/or academic backgrounds seemed critical to perceive the strategies of teaching L2 writing.

Instructors' perceptions about teaching L2 writing varied from the practice of teaching in Bangladesh because of the unique academic culture. A significant percentage of participants both from language-based and literature-based backgrounds claimed that they feel overwhelmed as they provide feedback. This has been true about writing instructors, regardless of contexts. Sommers (1982) contends that responding to and commenting on students writing consumes the largest proportion of time of the writing instructors, around 20-40 minutes for each paper. Bangladesh, nonetheless, presents an extraordinary context, since one of the instructors mentioned that she had to check around 200 scripts per course, when she had been teaching three courses in a semester. However committed an instructor is, under such a circumstance, he/she is completely unable to streamline his/her teaching practice to the standard theories of the field of L2 writing. They are trapped in a unique culture of L2 writing to "reduce, categorize, and generalize" (Zamel, 1997, p. 342). While reducing the class size to an optimal level is determined by political and economic constraints and criteria in Bangladesh as anywhere else in the world, which instructors can hardly influence, they, of course, can reduce the number of assignments to an optimal level. Admittedly, "teaching writing in English is altogether a different phenomenon in Bangladesh" (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013, p.81), but this is not a valid excuse to neglecting their responsibilities or to feel helpless. When they invested their time, energy, and expertise carefully and more informed, they could enhance their teaching outcome. In order for that to happen, reducing the number of assignments merits critical consideration.

Regardless of the background, around 90% of instructors claimed that they identified all errors, and that around 70% instructors maintained that providing feedback was mandatory. Researchers such as Connors and Lunsford (1988) and Ferris (2006) had shown that no instructor either in an ESL or an EFL context was capable of reaching that ballpark of error identification. This shows a chasm between practice and perception focused by research question two, in that around 30% instructors surveyed refrained from providing any feedback at all. Therefore, instructors in Bangladesh must examine whether their perceptions of teaching writing align with their practices of teaching it. Furthermore, all their perceptions might not be valid or need critical modifications before they are

enacted to help student learn writing. Providing feedback or responding to students' writing is a thorny issue (Raimes, 1991); there is no universal and unanimous way of doing it. The time and type of feedback are contingent upon an individual student's idiosyncratic needs determined by his prior exposure to the target language, and his aptitude for and attitude to learn it. L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh must realize that providing feedback to help student learn writing is not mandatory in that Knoblauch and Brannon (1981) contended having examined a large body of literature on error correction on native speakers that marking errors on students' paper does not help them improve their writing or even eliminate the errors. To some extent, they must shift their attention away from error/feedback in teaching writing as one participant mentioned: "Students may feel inhibited by constant error correction and might be discouraged."

This uncritical submission to feedback to teach to help students write might imply that students' sensitivity toward the method of teaching writing was not considered critically. The power and the pervasiveness of the red pen might overwhelm or cripple students to perform up to their potential, as one of the participants believed, "Red pen might make first year students frightened." Breidenbach (2006) contends that most writers have an intense symbiotic relationship with a paper when it is new-born; it has no life independent of a writer, so it becomes the writer. The blobs of red ink on the paper bleed the writer to crush his/her ego and to damage his confidence. A situation such as this is responsible for initiating teacher-induced errors (Raimes, 1991). The provision of feedback, then, warrants caution and informed consideration so that the students are not hurt or humiliated by their teachers. Premature and rigid attempt to correct students' writing along with hostile and mean-spirited comments (Sommers, 1982) is potentially counterproductive in helping students learn to write. A grammar-dependent approach to teaching writing that L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh upheld was more teacher-centered than student-friendly. This system should undergo significant modifications to yield an environment conducive to teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh inasmuch as ESL students do not need large doses of language instruction to improve writing (Raimes, 1985). Because almost all participants believe in the potential of feedback in helping students learn writing, instructors' background training is not a significant predictor of approaching the teaching of L2 writing in Bangladesh.

Of the 46 participants of this survey, only 5 had Ph.D.'s. Around 89% of the participants had only M.A.'s. While a Ph.D. does not insure effective teaching by itself, the possession of a Ph.D. yet indicates maximum academic preparation and intellectual excellence to approach teaching in a more informed fashion. A lack of a Ph.D. suggested that the instructors of this study were not intellectually advanced enough to adopt a pedagogical option, which considers the unique local constraints to maximize learning outcome. Also, English is a staple of Anglo-American culture. However, a vast majority of the participants (63%) earned their qualifications from Asian countries. It is hardly controversial to claim that all the ideas and information as well as the theories of teaching L2 writing are generated in the Anglo-American culture. Teaching effectively presupposes earning qualifications from this culture. L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh, then, did not have proper training from the right place to teach effectively. Only 17% of the participants earned their qualifications from North America, where the field of composition and L2 writing originated and flourished (Silva, 2006; Silva & Leki, 2004), but none claimed specialty in composition or L2 writing. Not having a Ph.D. as well as discipline specific qualification perhaps adversely affecting the teaching of L2 writing in Bangladesh.

The vast majority of the participants claimed that they published for further professional development, which again showed the gap between perception and practice with regard to teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh. Because of his stint at a few universities in Bangladesh, the researcher could confirm that most of the English faculty members in Bangladesh continued teaching without publishing. A cursory view of the profiles of the instructors posted on the Internet would show that most of the instructors had hardly published even in the local or regional journals, let alone in prestigious international ones. English faculty members in Bangladesh are immune to 'publish or perish' culture. Hairstone (1986) contends that one of the pitfalls to teaching composition effectively is that composition instructors are not writers themselves. They teach composition without knowing what it takes and means to be writers. L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh, however committed they are in helping students learn writing, are essentially unprepared - even ineligible- to teach composition until they write themselves. They must remember that being writing instructors presupposes knowledge about the field of writing, and that the teaching of writing presupposes being writers themselves.

The data from this study suggested that younger instructors in Bangladesh prefer to focus on language streams for specialization, in contrast to their predecessors from more literature-based background. This trend will potentially change the landscape of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh. However, the current data suggest that this trend is not yet leading to any discernible change in L2 writing teaching practices. The younger instructors in Bangladesh were possibly still too young to hold important positions within their institutions, which would allow them to propose and enact pedagogical policies. They were not yet leaders; they were, instead, followers. They followed the senior instructors, whose expertise was literature. Given that the influence of literature background instructors was potentially on the decline because of the emergence of the language background instructors, the field of L2 writing in Bangladesh would show evidence of change and emerge reformed in the years to come, when it would become clear that “many of those who have been teaching English writing at the tertiary level in Bangladesh apparently do not seem to understand the principles involved in second language teaching” (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013, p.71). It is a simplistic conclusion that an increase in the number of language-based professionals as well as their ability to influence the dynamics of teaching would effect effective L2 writing teaching in Bangladesh. They must attend conferences and workshops led by both local and international presenters who can share approaches to teaching writing that respond to their contextual needs. Instructors’ background (i.e., language-based) and age (i.e., young), then, will lead to change L2 writing pedagogy in Bangladesh in the years to come.

5.8 Conclusion

Bangladesh presents an interesting case for the study of change within an educational context. The clash of expertise and the distribution of power between instructors inadvertently, but inevitably, disadvantages the promotion of the field of L2 writing. However, this scenario may be temporary, in that in Bangladesh, like many places around the world, “the student population, institutional mission and available pedagogical resources are constantly shifting” (Matsuda, 2008, p. 168). Such a shift may be forced through the changing background experience of L2 writing instructors – as those with specialism in more language-based areas become dominant within institutions, there should be a shift in practice, which should be open to investigation. This study provides a basis on which to observe some of these shifts transpiring in Bangladesh with regard to L2

writing. The findings indicate that, although there is a shift in background experience of instructors, this shift does not seem to be influencing changes in practice. Clearly, instructors in Bangladesh operate under a complexity of socio-economic culture of foreign language policies and politics. In such a situation, it may be expected that change will not be immediate. Indeed, because the field of L2 writing has been shifting from interdisciplinary to transdisciplinary (Matsuda, 2013), this may further compound the context of teaching making change a relatively complex and potentially slow process. Certainly, in the case of feedback, practices will be influenced by institutional contexts as much as instructors' background. However, further research is necessary; for example, the present data focused on how the instructors taught, it did not tell us why they taught the way they did. A more comprehensive study, perhaps using more qualitative data techniques, may be required to investigate further the present context of L2 writing teaching in Bangladesh in order to inform predictions about its future development. Nonetheless, it is a significant step to critique the latest developments and future directions of the teaching of L2 writing in Bangladesh.

Chapter 6

GENERAL DISCUSSION

6.1 Overview

This thesis reports the findings of three studies conducted both in ESL (i.e., New Zealand) and EFL (i.e., Bangladesh) contexts. There were 146 participants across the three studies. The participants of the first two studies were L2 writers in English. The participants of the third study were instructors of L2 writers in the EFL context of Bangladesh. Hence, the focus of this thesis shifted from learning to teaching L2 writing in English. The objectives of the work were to understand and facilitate the learning as well as the teaching of L2 writing in English both in ESL and EFL contexts. The research was based on the assumption that learners' academic and cultural backgrounds, as well as their varying level of proficiency in such components of language as grammar and vocabulary, critically influenced the ways learners perceived and practiced writing in English. As a result, the studies designed investigation tools, such as background questionnaires, grammaticality judgement tests, vocabulary tests and writing tasks, to determine the dimensions of interactions between students and instructors that might influence the learning and teaching of L2 writing in English. The empirical information this study gleaned and the explanations it offered would help inform and re-conceptualize the teaching and learning of L2 writing in English across contexts. The findings suggested that L2 writers and instructors in English were influenced by multiple variables across contexts, which presented unique and universal characteristics of teaching and learning L2 writing in English.

6.2 Summary of Findings

Study one explored how L2 learners from various backgrounds perceived and practiced L2 writing in English because of their native languages and cultures as well as their proficiency in such components of English as grammar and vocabulary. It was based on the data collected in New Zealand from participants who hailed from such countries as China, Indonesia, Thailand, Japan and Colombia. The age of the participants varied from 16-40 years, but their proficiency in English was at a comparable level based on their performance in a placement test used by the school to group the students. Because most of

the participants of this study were of Chinese origin, the participants were categorized as Chinese and non-Chinese to facilitate the data analysis process. When the data were collected, all the participants were honing their English language skills to begin tertiary studies in New Zealand. To analyze and understand how these participants learned to write in English, the following measures were employed: 1. background questionnaire, 2. grammaticality judgement test, 3. vocabulary test and 4. writing test. To perform a micro level analysis of the written texts of the participants, the software application SALT (Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts) was employed.

The findings of this study established that across languages and cultures, learners did not learn to write in English in a uniform way. This study suggested a la Raimes (1991) that there was no such thing as a generalized ESL student. The Chinese participants of this study seemed to have approached learning to write in English differently compared to their non-Chinese counterparts. Although the Chinese students achieved a higher mean essay score than their non-Chinese counterparts, they were conservative, even risk-averse, writers compared to their non-Chinese counterparts. In the written texts, the Chinese participants used fewer words and wrote more simple sentences compared to their non-Chinese counterparts. The Chinese participants of this study did not seem to be the ones who would “take risks to make errors and then to correct them” (Raimes, 1991, p. 55), but writing is “the ideal medium of getting it wrong” (Elbow, 1985, p.286). Furthermore, in the grammaticality judgement test, the Chinese participants made fewer errors compared to their non-Chinese counterparts. Perhaps the most interesting difference between these two groups was that, while for the non-Chinese participants vocabulary scores correlated with grammar and writing task scores, vocabulary score did not correlate with writing and grammar scores for the Chinese writers.

Despite such linguistic differences between these two groups, some common characteristics of L2 writing in English between the groups also emerged. None of the participants of this study, regardless of the country of origin, made any errors in double negative and perfect modal in their written texts, though participants from both the groups failed to identify errors in both categories in the grammaticality judgement test. This finding challenges the typical ways of defining and identifying errors, in that this study demonstrated that errors in production and errors in identification could be considered as two distinct categories. Another critical aspect of similarity between these two groups was

that no participant of this study claimed that he was an 'excellent' writer in English. Further, no participants claimed that he was a poor writer in his native language. Horning (2002) claims that one of the three attributes that a successful writer must possess is metaphorical ability (the other two being metalinguistic and metastrategic ability). Metaphorical ability is akin to considering oneself as a writer and, hence, based on this dispensation, perceptions about writing influence writing performance. Given the differing perceptions about L1 and L2 writing reported in this study, the findings could be said to partially challenge Matsuda's (2012) view that writing in an L2 is not completely different from writing in an L1. Writing in an L2 has its own unique nature (Silva, 1993), at least in terms of the perceptions of the writers.

Study two followed the main design aspects of study one but with some critical modifications. First, the study was conducted in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The 70 participants of this study (male=42, female=28) were from Bangladesh, and their native language was Bangla. They were undergraduate students at a private university in the capital city of Bangladesh, Dhaka, and their age ranged from 17-24 years. During the time of the study, the participants signed up for one of the prerequisite courses in English, which was open to the students of identical English language proficiency as far as the stipulation of the University was concerned. The purpose of the study was to discover how learners' backgrounds, as well as their competences in grammar and vocabulary, influenced their L2 writing in English. Additionally, this study also intended to discover how perceptions and procedures in writing in L1 and L2 varied. Hence, the second critical design change was that, in addition to a writing task in English, this study included a writing task in Bangla, with the writing tasks both in English and Bangla following completion of questionnaires that included questions about writing processes and perceptions. Therefore, the students completed two writing task (one in their L1 and one in English), filled out questionnaires on their background and writing processes as well as perceptions, and performed the grammaticality judgement and vocabulary tests developed in study one.

This study yielded ambivalent implications regarding L2 writing. On the one hand, this study dissolved the ontological differences between L1 and L2 writing. Given the process of writing, writing in an L2 is not completely different from writing in a first language (Matsuda, 2012; Silva & Leki, 2004; Zamel, 1983). The participants of this study

displayed and confirmed some common characteristics of composing while approaching writing both in L1 and L2. They claimed to have planned before writing both in L1 and L2. Their focus of writing was identical across languages. Their time of revision coincided across the essays. Most important, the scores in writing across the essays correlated, which implied that the strict binary opposition between L1 and L2 writers and between native and non-native writers was contested. Undoubtedly, L2 writers transplant themselves from one culture to another (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999) linguistically, but they apparently do not approach writing differently. A writer may have been impervious to the influences of languages. Changing a language apparently changes the medium of expression, which may not affect the content in any way in that the steps and stages of writing are cognitive, not linguistic. While Bradatan (2013) claims that an L2 writer is in a limbo or is colonized by the language that he is writing, writing is perhaps too complicated a phenomenon to yield to such generalizations.

For all these similarities in the processes and perceptions about writing both in L1 and L2, some critical differences existed. This study confirmed that ESL students equated good writing in English with error-free writing (Leki, 1991). A significant percentage of participants (70%) claimed that they revised grammar in the English essays, though for the Bangla essays, about half of this number claimed that they revised grammar. As the participant claimed, whereas for the English essays, the focus of revision was text and structure, the focus of revision for the Bangla essays was rhetoric and content. Writing in L1 and L2 may have emerged from two different streams of consciousness as such. Apparently, writing in an L2 is rule-governed and stilted, but writing in a first language is automatic and instinctive. Writing in an L1 may have emerged from first order thinking, which is intuitive, and creative, and writing in an L2 may have emerged from second order thinking, which is conscious, directed, and controlled (Elbow, 1983). This may have accounted for why grammar looms so large in teaching L2 writing despite the assertion that ESL students do not need extra doses of language instruction to improve their writing (Raimes, 1985).

Furthermore, and perhaps even more critical, the L2 writers of this study seemed psychologically vulnerable and were diffident about their skill in writing in English. Out of 70 participants of this study, only one participant claimed that he was an 'excellent' writer in English. In contrast, 26 participants claimed that they were 'excellent' writers in their

L1, which was Bangla. Generally, then, L2 writers are overcome by “fragile and wounded perceptions of themselves as writers” (Breidenbach, 2006, p. 205). These negative perceptions, and the focus of writing, may be the most critical differences that needed to be overcome, for, in many ways, these students demonstrated many common characteristics of development as L2 learners. As mentioned above, scores in the vocabulary and grammar tests correlated with writing, and scores in English and Bangla essays also correlated positively, meaning a good or a poor writer in his L1 was apparently so in his L2, and this ability seems to be related to similar underlying skill sets. Hence, this study established a positive correlation between writing and such components of writing as grammar and vocabulary, along with demonstrating a potential reciprocal relationship between an L1 and L2. However, it also identified differences in perceptions about writing in L1 and L2 within the same students, as well as differences in the students’ focus when writing and revising.

Unlike the first two studies, the participants of the third study were instructors of L2 writing in English from different public and private universities in the EFL context of Bangladesh. This study recruited 46 participants. When the data were collected, all the participants were teaching either introductory or intermediate or advanced composition courses at different universities in Bangladesh. One of the common features that characterized all the three studies of this thesis was that the participants filled out a background questionnaire, which asked for biographical and academic information from the participants. Besides filling out a background questionnaire, the participants of this study also provided feedback on a writing sample randomly selected from one of the introductory composition classes from a university in Bangladesh. Also, the participants filled out another questionnaire that focused on the styles and strategies of providing feedback on writing. This study intended to discover how instructors’ backgrounds influenced the practices and perceptions of teaching L2 writing in English in the EFL context of Bangladesh.

The findings of this study at once conformed to and deviated from the established principles and practices of teaching L2 writing in English as far as the North America-based scholarship of the field was concerned. Zamel (1985) contends that ESL writing teachers are inconsistent in their reactions to students’ texts. The styles of the participants of this study hardly demonstrated any conformity when they provided feedback on

students' texts. The majority of the participants believed that feedback was essential to teaching writing, but a significant percentage of participants refrained from providing any feedback at all. Some instructors provided feedback only on form; others provided feedback only on content; and several instructors provided feedback both on form and content. The inconsistent way of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh might not be translated as ineffective in that Elbow (1981) contends that there is no single or right way to providing feedback. However, refraining from providing feedback at all was unusual. The L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh, then, demonstrated site-specific influences of teaching L2 writing in English.

Given the academic backgrounds of the participants of this study, they were categorized into two groups: instructors from literature versus non-literature backgrounds. One of the critical findings was that despite differences in background training, all instructors seemed to have been teaching L2 writing in English fairly similarly in Bangladesh. Another intriguing finding of this study was that the landscape of English studies had been shifting from a literature dominant culture to a language dominant culture. Younger instructors preferred language stream as their area of specialization, whereas senior instructors preferred more to specialize in literature than language-related areas. As the data suggested, within the next two decades, instructors in language-related area would outnumber the instructors in literature. They would also hold leadership positions in the English departments across the country. Because the field of L2 writing is an offshoot of applied linguistics, instructors with applied linguistics backgrounds would approach the teaching of L2 writing differently, perhaps more effectively, than those of literature backgrounds. This undercurrent of English studies toward language-stream in Bangladesh would perhaps streamline the teaching and learning of L2 writing in English in the country in the decades ahead.

6.3 COMPARISON BETWEEN STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO

The first two studies of the thesis complemented each other to investigate the perceptions and practices of L2 writers in English across contexts and languages. These two studies, however, were significantly different given contexts, participants, and tools of investigation. The first study was conducted in the ESL context of New Zealand, whereas the second study was conducted in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The first study

recruited participants from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds, but the second study recruited participants from a monolingual and cultural background in Bangladesh. While the background questionnaires, grammaticality judgement tests, vocabulary tests, and the writing task were identical for both the studies, the second study included such new components as an L1 writing task and a questionnaire at the end of both writing tasks. These differences and similarities between these two studies were neither arbitrary, nor accidental. These studies were consciously designed that way to investigate the development of L2 writing proficiency in English across languages and contexts in a more nuanced fashion. A critical comparison of these two studies can potentially contribute to the development of the field of L2 writing in Bangladesh and beyond.

The first two studies were conducted in ESL and EFL contexts. Acquisition of a language is input dependent (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). In the ESL context in New Zealand, where English is the first language, learners experience a ‘input flood’ (Loewen & Reinders, 2011, p.92). On the other hand, in the EFL context of Bangladesh, where English is a foreign language for academic instruction, the learners apparently experienced a “poverty of the stimulus” (Loewen & Reinders, 2011, p. 136). While the participants of both the studies were second language learners of English, the contexts of learning the language may have been responsible for significant but moderate (Silva, 1992) differences between these two groups. The learners in the ESL context in New Zealand may have been in an advantageous position compared to their counterparts in the EFL context in Bangladesh. Despite this difference of context between the two groups, they could essentially be considered as a single group of L2 writers, in that ESL students simply do not have the intuition about language that native speakers do (Harris & Silva, 1993), regardless of contexts. L2 writers are presumably a homogeneous group of L2 learners across contexts and languages compared to their native counterparts. This study emphasized the differences between ESL and EFL contexts. However, when context-specific constraints were rendered redundant, the differences between the participants of both the studies diminished regarding some aspects of L2 writing given the underlying principles of second language learning across contexts and languages.

The main purpose of learning English of the participants across these two studies was hardly different. In the first study conducted in New Zealand, 70% of the participants indicated that the main purpose of learning English was to pursue higher studies, and in the

second study, 80% of the participants indicated the same. A deduction that this finding across these two studies proposed was that the participants of these studies were not personally engaged with English. For the development of L2 writing, this finding was critical. Essentially, writers are loners, in that writing enforces a kind of alienation from the immediate, interpersonal, and life-world (Ong, 1983). They mine and manoeuvre their inner cognitive, emotional, and linguistic resources to transcribe their subjective observation of the world in an idiosyncratic fashion. In order for that to happen, writers must establish a living connection between themselves and their topics (Perl, 1980). Writing happens in an autonomous world of spontaneous and intense engagement with the subjects of writing. Writers are not externally dictated about the process and product of writing. They are, instead, internally driven toward and informed about the process and product of writing.

Academic writing, however, is not pegged to these principles of writing. Academic writing is imposed or “school-sponsored” (Emig, 1971, p.91), which is accomplished according to some preconceived principles and procedures. A writer’s autonomy, subjectivity, and personal voice are subordinated by the conventions of academic writing, which is apparently corporate, objective, and impersonal. Academic writing is straightforward and linear, but “composing does not occur in a straightforward and linear fashion” (Perl, 1979, p.17). As is, academic writing is completely artificial (Ong, 1983), which may have prompted Elbow (1991) to claim that there is no such thing as academic discourse. Potentially, then, instruction in academic writing to help students learn to write “blue sky papers”, or “teacher’s papers” (Hairston, 1984, p.198) may have been counterproductive in learning to write. Because the main purpose of learning English of the participants of these two studies was academic, their purpose of writing was not different in any way. Amid these differences between actual, authentic writing and academic writing, instruction in writing in academic settings across contexts perhaps creates pseudo writers, not real writers. Because the purpose of academic writing across contexts is identical, an identical set of steps and strategies is in place to serve their purpose. Then, L2 writers do not learn to write; they, instead, need to learn some steps and strategies about writing.

Difficulty in vocabulary, not grammar, seemed to have constrained the participants of these two studies as they wrote in English, in that in the first study, 50% of the

participants mentioned that vocabulary was the most difficult area in writing in English for them, whereas about 37% participants mentioned grammar. Likewise, in the second study, 74% of the participants claimed that vocabulary was the most difficult part in writing in English, whereas 40% of the participants mentioned grammar. Across these two studies, the data corroborated what the participants claimed about the correlation between vocabulary and writing. Scores in vocabulary predicted significantly the scores in writing for 80% of the participants across these two studies; the exception being the Chinese background participants in the first study, for whom vocabulary did not seem to predict significantly their writing levels. This finding demonstrated that across contexts and L1s, the area of difficulty for L2 writers was often similar. Given that the non-Chinese participants across these studies were the majority (i.e., 80%), the relationship between vocabulary and writing in the majority of the participants argued for vocabulary to be a vital component for good, potentially creative and interesting, writing. As Pinker (2014) claims, a varied vocabulary and the use of uncommon words are the two of the features that distinguish sprightly prose from mush. Why the Chinese background students could produce relatively good essays in their L2 when they could not show the same relationship between writing scores and vocabulary levels, required further clarification. This chapter discusses this feature of the Chinese learners with some details subsequently.

However, instruction in L2 writing across contexts and L1s is apparently not aligned with the potential importance of vocabulary and related skills. Zamel (1985) claims that most ESL teachers view their students as language learners rather than developing writers, so instruction in second language writing revolves mainly around grammar. Grammar does not cultivate the complexity and internal flow of composing (Perl, 1979), in that grammar is formulaic and fixed, but writing is generative and exploratory. Lunsford (1978) even claims that the teachers, who teach grammar as divorced from student's own writing, will no doubt fail to help the student improve writing. Vocabulary is potentially a stronger candidate than grammar to facilitate writing skill, for vocabulary embodies the generative power of language to transcribe the depth and diversity of thinking through writing. But vocabulary is the least cultivated field in all of composition research (Shaughnessy, 1977), and it is hardly taught (Folse, 2004; 2008). With reference to vocabulary, these two studies demonstrated the gap between priority of learning and the priority of teaching.

Across these two studies, mean scores in grammar test, vocabulary test, and essay task were similar; that is, the general level of performance on the different tasks did not seem to differ significantly despite the difference of backgrounds of the participants across the two studies. For example, overall performance on the measures was similar – for grammar: study 1 = 16.13, study 2 = 15.39; for vocabulary: study 1 = 23.70, study 2 = 24.11; and for the English essay, study 1 = 2.90, study 2 = 3.20. These findings suggested that across contexts and L1s, L2 learning could show signs of equivalent acquisition across learners of similar age and academic standing. Apparently, academic system varies across countries, so do the policies and politics of teaching and learning English. Despite that, when learners from different cultural and linguistic orientations showed some signs of similarity, then language acquisition may be more responsive to cognitive attributes than social and academic influences. Language development, essentially, is age-specific as Lenneberg (1967) contends. Writing in an L2 is also influenced by experience and underlying cognitive attributes. But composition studies is not concerned with understanding the patterns of the development of language or cognitive processes (Bazerman, 2013). Writers cannot be pushed to write unless the cognitive attributes are in place; indeed, Kellogg (2008) contends that writers are not generally prepared to write until they have at least two decades of training. These two studies conducted across contexts and L1s urged L2 writing instructors to align their instructional practices and expectations of students' performances with these principles of language development.

Generally, writers have fragile perceptions of themselves as writers (Breidenbach, 2006). Writers apparently need to have a capital of confidence, or, according to Horning (2002), a metaphorical ability, to facilitate the act of writing. The findings of these two studies confirmed that L2 writers apparently did not have that attribute of writing in place. None of the participants in the first study claimed that he was an 'excellent' writer in English, though nine participants (30%) claimed that they were 'excellent' writers in their first languages. Likewise, in the second study, only one participant claimed that he was an 'excellent' writer in English, but 26 participants (37%) claimed that they were 'excellent' writers in their first language. Across these two studies, writers' perceptions about themselves as writers both in L1 and L2 were consistent. While these two studies did not objectively determine whether or not they were 'excellent' writers in their first languages, or why the participants thought the way they did, the findings, nonetheless, proposed that writers perceived L1 and L2 writing differently. L2 writers, across contexts and languages,

may work from a “deficit-motivation” (Hairston, 1984, p. 204), which is not the case with L1 writers. This finding is critical for the teaching and learning of L2 writing across contexts and languages.

In the first study, 24 participants (80%) indicated that, besides academic training, they personally engaged in watching movies to improve their English. Similarly, in the second study, 63 participants (90%) indicated that they personally engaged in watching movies, besides academic training, to improve their English. Reading, speaking, and listening to music seemed to have been sliding back significantly compared to watching movies. The participants of both the studies were considerably inured to a visual mode of literacy. Both Carr (2008) and Stoll (1995) claim that visual literacy does not hone critical thinking and concentration. For writing pedagogy, this warning has critical bearing. Bazerman (2013) claims that becoming a writer is contingent upon the development of power of focus and concentration. These attributes of writing are not absorbed, but cultivated. The participants of these two studies did not seem to have been cultivating these two attributes of writing because of being conditioned to visual literacy. As such, the participants of these two studies may be considered to be not even writers in process (Hairston, 1984), for they lack any prior orientation to and preparation for writing. They preferred to watch to think and write. This finding urged that writing instructors across contexts and L1s adjusted their perceptions and modes of teaching L2 writing to this atypical breed of L2 writers in English.

Thus far, these two studies were juxtaposed for comparison (i.e., similarity), not contrast (i.e., dissimilarity). Despite the fact that these two studies were conducted at different contexts and the participants of the studies spoke different mother tongues, they demonstrated some critical similarities as L2 writers. The comparison of these two studies might be reduced to the following generalization that the writing of second language writers across contexts and languages is highly similar. The following diagram graphically demonstrates the comparison between the two studies.

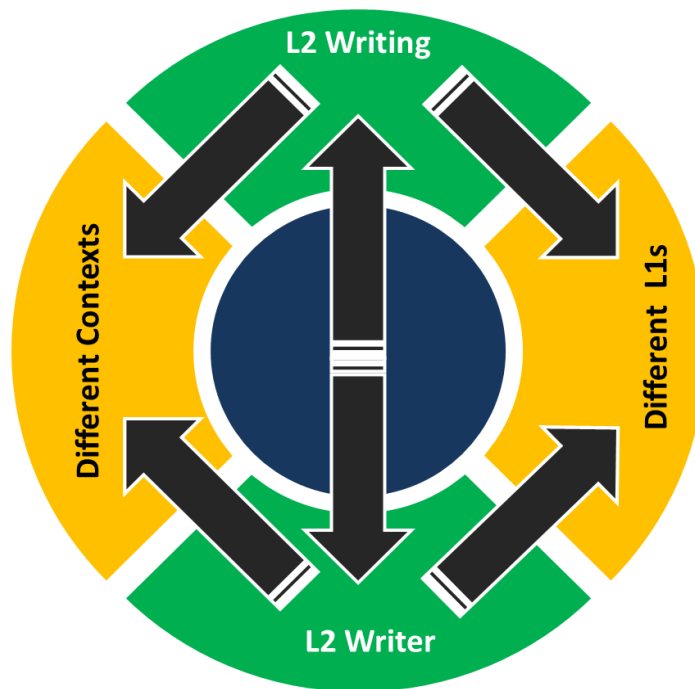


Figure 5: Writing Model

The diagram can be read from the bottom or from the top. From the bottom, it implies that an L2 writer does not generally vary across contexts and L1s. From the top it implies that L2 writing generally does not vary across contexts and L1s. This model of L2 writing, however, might not apply to learners with unique linguistic and cultural backgrounds. For example, the Chinese participants of the first study did not seem to learn to write in English the way their non-Chinese counterparts did. The differences across learning contexts, languages, and L2 writers were subtle and significant. This model of L2 is essentially problematic as such, but given the L2 writing performances of the majority of participants (i.e., 80%), this model appeared plausible.

Given the scholarship in the area of L2 writing, this proposal or finding is not entirely radical; for example, Silva (1992) identified some common characteristics of L2 writing and writers. Collectively, however, these two studies corroborate the established knowledge in the field of L2 writing in a more compelling fashion in that data from a large pool of participants both from ESL and EFL contexts were collected and compared. The consistency in the findings, despite the difference in contexts, potentially lent more reliability to the findings of these two studies. It supported the assumptions that some specific components of L2 writing such as grammar, vocabulary, and overall patterns of writing performance do not generally significantly vary across contexts and languages. However, the data also showed evidence of variance across contexts and languages that

needed to be taken into account in comprehensive models of L2 writing acquisition. The overview of the next sub-section addresses the issues of L2 writing models with further explanations and evidence.

6.4 CONTRASTING THE FIRST TWO STUDIES

The ways these two studies were conceived, constructed, and conducted, they were not meant to be contrasted. The components of dissimilarities, such as the locations and the participants of these two studies, were more apparent than essential. Some measures such as background questionnaires, grammar, vocabulary, and the writing tasks in English were identical across the contexts. However, the focus of the first study was, essentially, the product of writing as informed by learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds as well as second language development reflected in grammar and vocabulary. In order for that to happen, the texts of the writing task were linguistically parsed to a micro level by means of a software program, SALT (Systematic Analysis of Linguistic Transcripts). The focus of the second study did not vary significantly; though, it additionally aimed to discover the processes of writing both L1 and L2. Therefore, at the end of the writing tasks both in English and Bangla, the second study included the same set of questionnaires to glean information about participants' process of writing. Because of this difference in the research design as well as the difference of contexts between these two studies, contrasting them could potentially yield critical information about learning to write in English as an L2.

In the first study the SALT program investigated the frequency of 26 errors in grammar both in grammar test and writing task. The frequencies of the Chinese participants were slightly lower in 25 categories of these errors, which meant that the Chinese participants were moderately better in all these areas than their non-Chinese counterparts. However, in one category of error, that is, fragment or incomplete sentence, the Chinese participants showed an increased frequency, suggesting that the Chinese participants were moderately worse than their non-Chinese counterparts. While this difference between the Chinese and non-Chinese participants were not statistically significant, it yet stood out critical given the principle of second language learning. Apparently, the Chinese learners were more resistant to this component of grammar than their non-Chinese counterparts; though, they were as receptive to the other components of

grammar as their non-Chinese counterparts. This could imply that learners' linguistic, academic, and cultural backgrounds constrained the acquisition of some components of grammar. Some learners, for example, the Chinese L2 writers of the first study, may have fossilized to some components of grammar in a second language (Selinker, 1972). As such the Chinese learners of this study may not have been cognitively capable or as prepared as their non-Chinese counterparts to learn this component of grammar (i.e., fragment/incomplete sentence). Instruction in grammar, then, may be more effective if teaching is selective on some items of grammar. Comprehensive and generic instruction in grammar is ineffective, perhaps.

Likewise, in the second study, to some extent, the participants demonstrated that writing in an L1 is different from writing in an L2. For example, for the English writing task, the participants indicated that they were more occupied in mechanical revision, in that two of the main candidates for revision were grammar and spelling (both indicated by as many as 70% of the respondents). On the other hand, for the Bangla writing task, the main candidate for revision was organization. This implied that, while in an L1, revision is discursive and conceptual, in an L2, revision is more likely to be mechanical or focused on more basic linguistic features. Apparently, the participants of this study confused editing with revision. While editing is a mopping up process, revision is a complex, illusive, and intuitive process (Breidenbach, 2006). Key to good writing is the ability and willingness of a writer to revise a piece of writing comprehensively and continually. Writing ideally emerges through a process of trial and error when a writer designs and retains a mental blueprint of his composition till the end of a piece of writing (Zamel, 1983). As Perl (1979) claims, unskilled writers are concerned with the look of their writing. A similar claim can be made of the L2 writers of this study. The infelicity of these writers could be attributed to their inability to enact the principles of revision. Because the finding of this study aligned with the finding of Perl's (1979) study on unskilled writers, such unskilled writers may have demonstrated some common characteristics across languages and contexts. Revision, then, is a critical area for L2 writing instructors to help students learn the craft of writing in English. Thus, another area in which L2 instruction may benefit learners is the teaching of revision strategies to L2 writers.

6.5 AN EXPLORATION OF THE THIRD STUDY

As already stated, the thesis was designed to shift from studying learning to write in English to informing teaching to write in English as an L2. Measuring linguistic skills underlying the writings of L2 writers both in ESL and EFL contexts is important to discover what L2 writers do, do not do, and should do as they write. It follows on that it is also important to examine teaching practices to see if the feedback given is based on the areas that have been discovered to be most strongly associated with strong writing. As such, while the first two studies explored the dimensions and difficulties of learning to write in English both in ESL and EFL contexts, the third study explored the dimensions and constraints of teaching L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The study recruited 46 instructors of L2 writing at different public and private universities located in the capital city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. The study intended to discover how instructors' academic backgrounds informed their practices and perceptions of teaching L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh. As far as the findings of this study were concerned, they were simultaneously unique and universal.

This study discovered that the trends and traditions of English studies in Bangladesh had been undergoing critical modifications. It also revealed that the paradigm of English studies in Bangladesh had been shifting from literature to language. A significant number of young instructors who aged from 20-40 (78%) years specialized in language-related area compared to their senior counterparts who aged from 40-50+ (22%) years, specialized in literature. Alam (2011) has acknowledges this shift in English studies in Bangladesh, when he also details the causes and consequences of such a shift. English literature, which had been the dominant mode of English studies in the Indian subcontinent, including Bangladesh, seemed to have been sliding backward. Referring to Thomas Kuhn, Canagarajah (2013) claims that “behind the rise and fall of intellectual paradigms” (p.441) the logic was that certain concepts serve their usefulness, so they are abandoned as new concepts are constructed to reflect new realizations and pedagogies. Donohue (2008) is apprehensive of the existence of the humanities in general, when he portends existential crises for English studies on the horizon. He avers that most of the concepts in the humanities in general, and English studies in particular may already have served their usefulness, which warrants an immediate overhauling of the humanities, including English studies, all over the world. The shift in the focus of specialization of the

English instructors in Bangladesh may have been influenced by these undercurrents of English studies around the globe. Such a shift is apparently pushing literature on the edge in Bangladesh.

Regarding the relegation of literature to a lesser position in Bangladesh, this reflection of new realizations and pedagogies may have been the rationale, but Alam (2011) presents compelling argument, explanations, and information to discount such a rationale. Alam (2011) implies that this shift toward language studies in Bangladesh is at once an aberration and an imposition. However controversial or convenient this shift toward language studies is, it has already critically changed the landscape of English studies in Bangladesh. This merits a nuanced exploration to discover what it implies (or does not imply) about the field of L2 writing in Bangladesh, as well as for the field L2 writing in general. The data suggested that this shift from literature to language was apparently inevitable, but the data also cautioned against an uncritical submission to such a shift. Potentially, such a shift smacks of upending the knowledge base of English studies in Bangladesh, which revolves around literature for centuries. Adequate intellectual and infrastructural resources have not accrued independent of literature in Bangladesh. Therefore, supplanting literature with language, however promising it appears, might be pyrrhic for English studies in Bangladesh. This shift might not augur well for the promotion of L2 writing in Bangladesh.

Despite such a shift in English studies in Bangladesh, this study discovered that like language learners who “too often, get cast as a uniform group, writing pedagogy relies on formulaic, one-size-fits-all instruction” (Athanases, Bannett, & Wahleithner, 2013,p.162), as if L2 writing instructors are a monolithic group of professionals across contexts. Ideally, the perceptions and teaching practices of L2 writing instructors vary across contexts significantly because of multiple factors. For example, because of the disciplinary division of labor between literature and language streams, the expertise of a literature professional is undoubtedly different from that of a language professional. Presumably, this difference in expertise between these two groups of professionals is reflected in the ways they approach the teaching of writing. In contrast, this study’s findings suggested that instructors from different professional backgrounds were significantly identical and apparently idiosyncratic in the ways they provided feedback on

writing. They appeared to be an amorphous group of professionals, who were influenced by the same pedagogical and philosophical principles of teaching L2 writing.

For example, the feedback strategies of the vast majority of participants of this study were language-focused, not content focused. Only a minority of the participants provided feedback on both language and content. There did not seem to be a clear pattern across the participants in the ways they provided feedback, nor in the way did they believe feedback should be provided and they actually provided feedback. Indeed, because writing pedagogy is a complex, ongoing, and evolving process (Estrem & Reid, 2012), it apparently is not uniform across contexts and instructors. If, however, the writing instructors of this study had “disciplinary self-doubt” (Estrem & Reid, 2012, p.237), they would not have been teaching writing alike, in that their areas of expertise were different. This dimension of L2 writing pedagogy in Bangladesh, even though locally informed, is fraught with implications for the field of L2 writing globally. Considering all L2 writing instructors alike is a myth, but it is pervasive across contexts. Reid (2008) claims that there is a grain of truth in every myth. The finding of this study demonstrated that considering all L2 writing instructors alike across contexts might not be an essentially empty myth. The differences regarding perceptions and practices of feedback across the participants of this study were marginal, but the similarities were significant and critical. What accounts for that and whether it happens across contexts merit further research in Bangladesh and beyond to facilitate to the teaching of L2 writing.

This study demonstrated that the unique EFL context of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh was not at all peculiar when it came to providing feedback on students’ writing. Regardless of instructors’ backgrounds, the dominant mode of feedback was grammar and mechanics. Instructors hardly commented on issues with organization, cohesion, and logic. Study one and two demonstrated that across languages and contexts, L2 writers were mainly concerned with grammar and vocabulary. While grammar and vocabulary are the building blocks of writing, teaching them disembodied does foster facility in writing. Some writing scholars (e.g., Truscott, 1996) suggest that writing instructors must not teach writing the ways students want in that students are not always informed of the right strategies of learning to write. Sommers (1982) as such contends that writing instructors must “sabotage” (p.154) students’ convictions about the appropriate teaching strategies. Truscott (1996) claims that student’s preference about feedback on

form does not constitute a strong rationale for writing instructors to provide feedback on form. The L2 writing instructors of this study did not align their teaching practices to the principles recommended by these writing scholars. The L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh, instead, exposed a chasm between what teachers ideally should do and what they actually do. For the field of L2 writing, though, it is not altogether a peculiar scenario.

This study demonstrated nonetheless that teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh was student-centered, however controversial and ineffective it was. Leki (1991) claims that ignoring students' request for error correction works against students' motivation. Historically, ESL composition has privileged texts (Blanton, 1995). Zamel (1985) also claims that ESL teachers are more concerned with language specific errors as well as the superficial aspects of writing. This is a conservative, perhaps counter-productive, approach to teaching writing, which Zamel (1983) criticizes for reducing the complexity of composing as adopting preconceived rhetorical frameworks. Writing essentially is not mechanical and syntactic; it is, instead, generative and semantic. A formulaic approach to teaching writing such as this deprives L2 writers of exploring and exploiting generative and semantic potential of language. L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh approached to teaching L2 writing the way their colleagues did elsewhere in the world. However, the intellectual infrastructure as well as the policies and politics of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh were unique. Discovering the causes and consequences of enacting principles of L2 writing pedagogy, which are at once unique and universal, can definitely add new insights and information to the repertoire of L2 writing instructors to facilitate the teaching of L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh.

6.6 IMPLICATIONS

The three studies of this thesis complemented each other and allowed a shift of focus from learning to teaching L2 writing in English both in ESL and EFL contexts. Integrated, they yielded critical implications for teaching and learning L2 writing, as well as for formulating theories in the field of L2 writing. The implications are discussed below.

6.6.1 Implications for Teaching

Collectively, the three studies of this thesis suggested that teaching L2 writing in English was more of a pragmatic undertaking than of a theoretical endeavor. The field of L2 writing is not an intellectual monolith to yield straightforward pedagogical

implications. The field of L2 writing is issue-driven, and it has been transforming into a transdisciplinary field from an interdisciplinary one (Matsuda, 2013). Essentially, then, the field of L2 writing is complex and evolving. The studies of this thesis seemed to have corroborated that purported theoretical multiplicity implicit in the field of L2 writing. For example, the first two studies of this thesis suggested that L2 writers were simultaneously critically similar to and different from one another across contexts and L1s, while these studies also demonstrated that even in the same academic and L1 context, strategies to writing in an L1 and an L2 differed. The third study of this thesis demonstrated that teaching L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh was at once unique and universal. Given these characteristics of L2 writing and writers, L2 writing instructors across contexts and L1s should consider a '*situated approach*' to teaching L2 writing.

A '*situated approach*' to teaching L2 writing presupposes that every learning context is different, as is every learner. In this dispensation, teaching is more experimental than premeditated. It situates learners in a particular context in a particular point of time and determines their capacity to learn and priority of learning to advance their learning needs. Teachers necessarily do not jump on the bandwagon of pedagogical truisms; they, instead, weigh the pros and cons of the options of their idiosyncratic pedagogical interventions to optimize learning outcome. For example, the participants of the first two studies were beginning or remedial writers in English because of their academic standing and scores in the various tests, as well as their styles of writing. Initially, with such learners, the application of ideologically and intellectually fraught composition theories is ambitious. Because the participants of study one and study two demonstrated that their difficulties with writing in English were more linguistic and mechanical than conceptual, they should be taught composition linguistically and mechanically first to orient them toward the semantic and cognitive dimensions of composing. The subsequent paragraphs of this section clarify that point further.

A '*situated approach*' to teaching L2 writing accommodates the needs and priorities of learners. For example, the L2 writers of the first two studies of this thesis indicated that the two of the main areas of difficulties in writing in English were respectively vocabulary and grammar. The perceptions of the L2 writers of the two studies were consistent with the empirical evidence in that scores on the grammar and vocabulary measures suggested difficulties for many students in both areas. Problems with "the limited nature of L2

vocabularies” (Silva, 1992, p. 38), and “fractured syntax” (Lunsford & Lunsford, 2008, p. 798) loomed large in the minds of remedial or beginning L2 writers across contexts and L1s. This suggested that instruction in L2 writing must include instruction in vocabulary and grammar. However, what is true about writing in general, that writing cannot be taught in a single semester or year (Bazerman, 2013), is also true for vocabulary. Vocabulary development is not lexical, but semantic, and semantic development is inductive as well as on-going. Folse (2004) claims that successful vocabulary learners have more than one strategy of vocabulary learning in their repertoire. As such, effective vocabulary teaching presupposes the introduction and implementation of a set of vocabulary learning strategies, so that learners can pick out their strategies of vocabulary learning. As for grammar, experts claim (e.g., Lunsford, 1978) that teaching grammar disembodied or divorced from the context of writing fails to help learners improve writing. The metalinguistic approach to teaching grammar as proposed by Matsuda (2012b), and the ‘mini lesson plan’ on the selected items in grammar as proposed by Ferris (2002), are potentially effective options for teaching grammar to help learners learn L2 writing in English.

As the centrality of these two components (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) in teaching L2 writing is considered, the L2 writing instructors of the third study in Bangladesh seemed to have been on the right track in teaching L2 writing, apparently. Ideally, though, they seemed to have been teaching L2 writing reductively. They provided feedback mostly on grammar and mechanics. Occasionally, they identified issues with lexis and semantics. Hardly, however, did they provide feedback on organization, cohesion, and logic of writing. Because the participants of the first two studies were beginning or remedial writers, and they indicated their difficulties with vocabulary and grammar in writing in English, the preference of the Bangladesh instructors to teach L2 writing mechanically than rhetorically could be justified. Nonetheless, the pedagogical practice of the L2 instructors in Bangladesh might be more convenient, as well as conventional, than informed. Zamel (1985) claims that errors most easily dealt with are the ones identified. This may have accounted for why the instructors in Bangladesh preferred mostly linguistics errors to rhetorical errors to teach L2 writing. Rhetorical errors, which Ferris (2002) considers being untreatable errors, in writing are too insidious for writing instructors to deal with through straightforward feedback. It is likely as well that they followed the convention of teaching L2 writing across contexts and languages that historically revolved around texts (Blanton, 1995). While it is tempting to claim that the

L2 instructors in Bangladesh were student-centered and convention-ridden, the unique context of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh potentially belied such a generalization or simplification.

Silva (1995) claims that the field of L2 writing is an offshoot of both composition studies and applied linguistics. Ontologically, L2 writing is not connected with literature. Literature reigned so supreme in the Indian subcontinent, including Bangladesh, that English studies and literature were uncritically synonymous for centuries. Composition as a discipline never exists in Bangladesh. However, with the emergence of the private universities in the 1990s, the term composition permeated the landscape of English studies in Bangladesh, when also the focus of English studies began to shift from literature to applied linguistics and ELT (Shamsuzzaman & Everatt, 2013). Consequently, composition, which is L2 writing in the context of Bangladesh, operated under the information and insights as well as principles of teaching, pertinent mostly to literature. However unique this context of L2 writing in Bangladesh appeared, it was not altogether unusual for writing educators, for they primarily work in reactive modes and are under pressure to follow others' lead (Estrem & Reid, 2012). One of the critical findings of the third study was that senior instructors of that study had a background in literature and apparently held leadership positions across the English departments in Bangladesh. Therefore, the young instructors, despite their background training in language-related areas, had to follow the senior instructors' lead. Under this circumstance, the approaches to teaching L2 writing of the Bangladeshi instructors may have been an imposition than an informed decision.

A situated approach to teaching L2 writing examines the immediate context of learning and learners, but it is not exclusively driven to a material situation or site of teaching and learning L2 writing. It compares and contrasts the unique local context of learning and teaching of L2 writing with global context of L2 writing and writers. It assumes that while every context of teaching and learning L2 writing is unique, no context is isolated. As such, teaching L2 writing effectively considers the local constraints and criteria; it determines learners' shortcomings to intervene accordingly while drawing upon the knowledge base of the discipline of L2 writing. A situated approach to teaching L2 writing moves from unique to universal in this fashion. It hypothesizes that because L2 writers across contexts and L1s learn to write at once alike and differently, they should,

then, be taught alike and differently. In this dispensation, an L2 writer and an L2 instructor are materially situated in a particular place, but they are at once metaphorically situated in different space. Therefore, teaching and the learning of L2 writing occur in a situation, which is at once fixed and fluid.

6.6.2 Implications of L2 Theory Formulation

Tardy (2006) claims that the field of L2 writing does not have a cohesive theory for teaching writing. While this assertion is hardly contested, it is yet qualified. It perhaps does not mean that the field of L2 writing perennially lacks a cohesive theory. It most likely implies that the possibility of formulating a cohesive theory for the field of L2 writing has not been exhaustively explored yet. This assumption is based on the consensus that research in the field of L2 writing predominantly revolves around North America, and that the field of L2 writing critically depends of the theories of L1 writing for its disciplinary existence. This may have explained why Silva (2006) urges L2 writing instructors and researchers to look at L2 writing other than North America and to look beyond L1 writing theories to understand the unique nature of L2 writing. Because the studies of this thesis were conducted beyond North America, and one of the studies also included both L1 and L2 writings, this thesis is a critical site to explore for a cohesive theory for the field of L2 writing.

The second study, conducted in Bangladesh, indicated that writing both in L1 and L2 was significantly similar to and moderately different from one another. A critical characteristic that stood out was that the participants perceived writing as a process both in L1 and L2. Across languages, they indicated to plan before embarking on writing; they revised almost alike; their focus of thinking during writing was significantly identical; and they indicated to take the opportunity to compose a few drafts to improve their writing. A writing process perceived and executed by the participants of the second study was akin to the process of writing stipulated by Rohman (1965) presented in the following diagram.

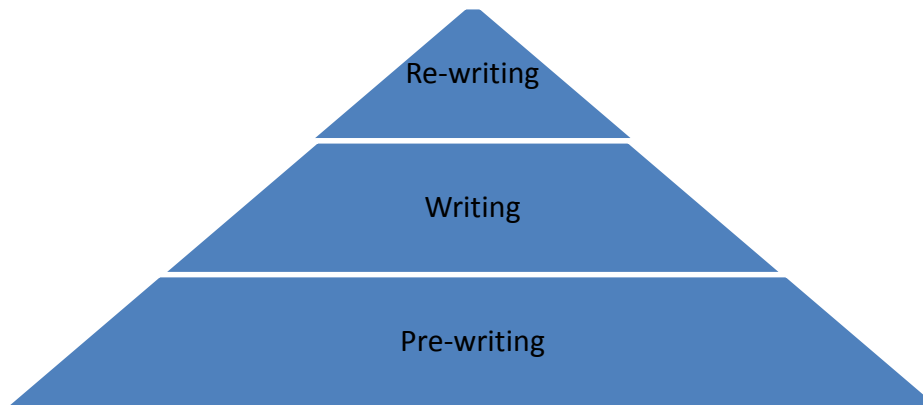


Figure 6: Writing process diagram, Rohman (1965)

Rohman (1965) contends that writing is a three-step process. Every writer plans before he embarks on writing, and every writer edits his writing after having written it down. These steps and stages of writing are not as invariant and sequential as they appear in the diagram, in that writing essentially is recursive. These steps and stages of writing overlap, and a writer moves back and forth between these sequences of writing. Writing is non-linear (Sommers, 1979). Rohman (1965), then, oversimplified and underconceptualized writing. Rohman (1965) identified the steps of writing, not a universal process of writing. It merits mentioning in this context that Rohman's (1965) model for writing is essentially meant for L1 writing.

The participants of the second study indicated the same writing process for L1 writing, which was Bangla in this context. However, when they identified their L2 writing process in English, the process moderately differed from first language writing. For L1 writing, pre-writing apparently leads straight to writing. For L2 writing in English, though, pre-writing seems to lead to an in-between place between writing and pre-writing, which is occupied by grammar and vocabulary. For writing in L1, the participants concentrated more on organization and the clarity of idea, whereas for L2 writing in English, they concentrated more on grammar and vocabulary. The writing process model emerged from the current study looks like the following one:

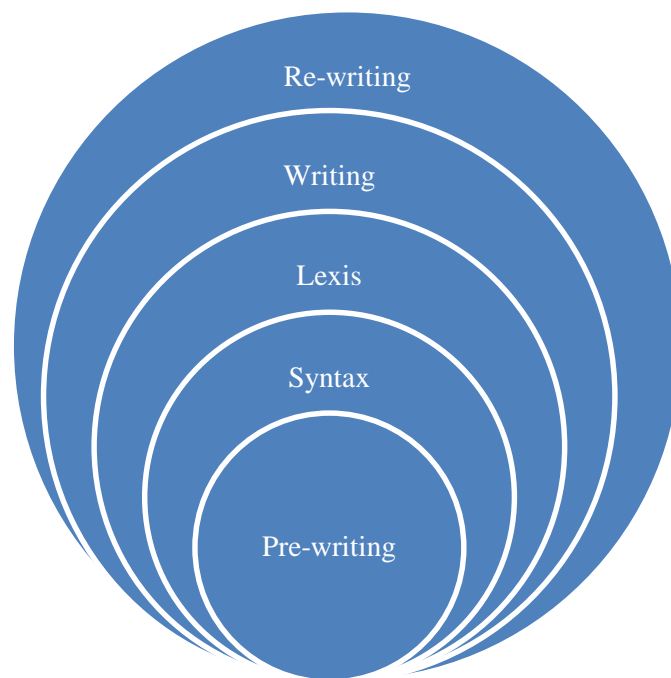


Figure 7: L2 writing process

This model of L2 writing process is not altogether surprising or unfamiliar. Widdowson (1983) claims that people writing in a foreign language are primarily constrained in their attention to choices about the textual features of the language. This implies that a process for L2 writing in English exists in spite of grammar, not besides grammar. The process advocates for L2 writing (Zamel, 1983, for example) perhaps should re-consider their proposal, while proposing an identical process both for L1 and L2 writing.

For L2 writing, a '*modified process theory*' appears applicable. An L2 writer is primarily a second language learner. Leki (1992) claims that an ESL learner bears a distinctive burden of learning to write and learning English at the same time, which sets him apart from a mainstream English speaking student. Presumably, then, ESL students are linguistically, at least initially, deficient compared to their native counterparts. As Silva (1997) claims, ESL students are not cognitively inferior to their native counterparts. As such, in the pre-writing stage along the process of writing, an ESL student will generate ideas, information, and argument pertinent to a topic of writing almost the same way his native counterpart will do. However, while for a native speaker pre-writing inevitably leads to writing, for an ESL writer the scenario is seldom the same. An L2 writer, who is in fact an L2 learner, apparently does not have the mechanical and linguistic capital as much as his L1 counterpart does. This concern with mechanics and language sometimes overwhelms an L2 writer so much that he cannot transcribe his ideas in writing in a

persuasive fashion. Because the process of an ESL writer is different from that of a native one, the product is hardly the same. Therefore, in the re-writing part, an ESL writer revises more, while his focus of revision is mostly grammatical and lexical (Silva, 1992).

Conversely, for a native writer, the focus of revision is style and organization. The whole process of writing for an L2 writer is skewed, not because the process of writing in an L1 is fundamentally different from in an L2, but because an L2 writer is constrained by language and mechanics in his efforts to enact the process.

A '*modified process theory*' of L2 writing reflects the scholarship in the field of L2 writing as Silva (1992) claims that the difference between L1 and L2 writing is significant but moderate. The 'significant but moderate' difference between L1 and L2 writing was demonstrated as the participants of the second study reflected on their process of writing. The testimonies of the participants of their writing established that there is a process in place for writing, but the process moderately varied across L1 and L2. The process theory to teaching writing is an import from the discipline of L1 composition into the field of L2 writing. Originally, it had no provision for the linguistic and mechanical needs of L2 writers. A modified process theory combines mechanics with rhetorics. It does not consider a process of writing independent of mechanics. But it considers mechanics as an added but integral component in the continuum of the process for L2 writing. It, however, does not essentialize mechanics in the process of writing, in that the process in writing is universal, but mechanics as well as language is unique and contextual.

6.6.3 Implications for Learning

Teaching L2 writing is potentially challenging and apparently frustrating given the apprehension that teaching necessarily does not lead to learning (Ellis, 2012). L2 writers are vulnerable to the influences of multiple factors such as learners' native language and culture, proficiency in L2, as well as prior instruction in and attitude toward writing both in an L1 and L2. Besides these apparent factors, learning to write presupposes higher level thinking, extensive reading, and nuanced comprehension, in that writing is the most holistic of all language skills (Kietlinska, 2006). These traits of writing propose two implications for learning writing in an L2.

For one, the principles of learning to write in an L2 are not essentially different from the principles of learning that language. L2 writing does not exist independent of L2

learning. Second language learning is a slow and gradual process (Ellis, 2012), so is learning to write in an L2. Besides, because we cannot teach writing in a single semester or year (Bazerman, 2013), learners cannot learn writing in a single semester or year, too. Learning to write in general, and L2 writing in particular, is a developmental process. And the developmental process is critically dependent on the acquisition of second language. Therefore, the symbiotic relationship between second language writing and second language acquisition must be appreciated as learners write in an L2.

Secondly, like Kietlinska (2006), several writing and language acquisition scholars (e.g., Krashen, 1984; Lunsford 1978; Murray 1982; Pinker, 2014) have also stressed the need for extensive reading to learn writing. Common knowledge holds that reading leads to improved writing, and what accounts for this assumption is that reading familiarizes a reader with the syntactic, semantic, mechanical, and discursive options to understand and adopt the techniques of writing. Zinsser (1998) puts this synergistic relationship between reading and writing more blandly as he claims that people learn writing through imitation, which is acquired by extensive reading. Pinker (2014) claims that writers acquire their techniques by spotting, savouring, and reverse-engineering examples of good prose. Although there is extensive research both in second language acquisition and second language writing, interest in linking the two second language literacy skills has increased since the 1990s only with the help of meaningful perspectives put forward by L2 researchers (e.g., Belcher, Hirvela, & Swales, 2001; Riley, 1994). Because both common knowledge and research recognize an essential relationship between reading and writing, learning to write in an L2 precedes and concurrently requires extensive reading in that language. Reading skills in a second language can be acquired independent of writing, but writing skills in a second language cannot be acquired without extensive reading in a specific second language.

The participants of the first two studies of this thesis indicated that the two areas of difficulties in writing for them were vocabulary and grammar. Apparently, both vocabulary and grammar are linguistic and formulaic in nature, whereas writing is rhetorical and discursive in nature. However, empirical evidence in this thesis demonstrated that L2 writers did not perceive or proceed to writing rhetorically and discursively. They, instead, perceived or proceeded to writing linguistically and in a formulaic fashion, at least initially. Admittedly, L2 learners learn language first to learn

writing. Extensive reading can definitely help L2 writers cope with difficulties with vocabulary. Because second language acquisition theories discover and deal with the dimensions and difficulties of second language learning, helping learners address linguistic issues (grammar in this context, for example) is more of a function of second language acquisition theories than L2 writing theories. This implies that L2 writing theories should be compatible with and be borrowing from second language acquisition theories.

This proposal is not antithetical in any way with the orientation and the objective of the field of L2 writing, in that one of the feeder disciplines of L2 writing is applied linguistics (Silva, 1996); hence, the field of L2 writing partially emerges from the field of second language acquisition. But the problem is, when it comes to grammar with reference to L2 writing, experts are deeply divided. Even Krashen (1984) contends that L2 writing has nothing to do with learning grammar, echoing Ellis (2012). Given the developmental route of the L2 writers as evidenced by this thesis, this stance is apparently more arbitrary than informed. Both Krashen (1984) and Ellis (2012) may have overlooked the learning needs and preferences of L2 writers; at least, the participants of the first and second study of this thesis fed this perception.

6.7 A CRITIQUE OF THE PROPOSALS AND A FINAL MODEL OF L2 WRITING

This thesis investigated the learning and teaching of L2 writing in English, in that it presupposed that the learning of L2 writing was inseparable from the act of teaching writing. It did not consider the teaching and learning of L2 writing in English as arbitrary and isolated. It, instead, considered the learning and teaching of L2 writing in English as systemic and institutional, which was open to objective analyses and appreciation. The research of this thesis proposes the following diagram that captures the undertaking of L2 writing in English in its entirety.

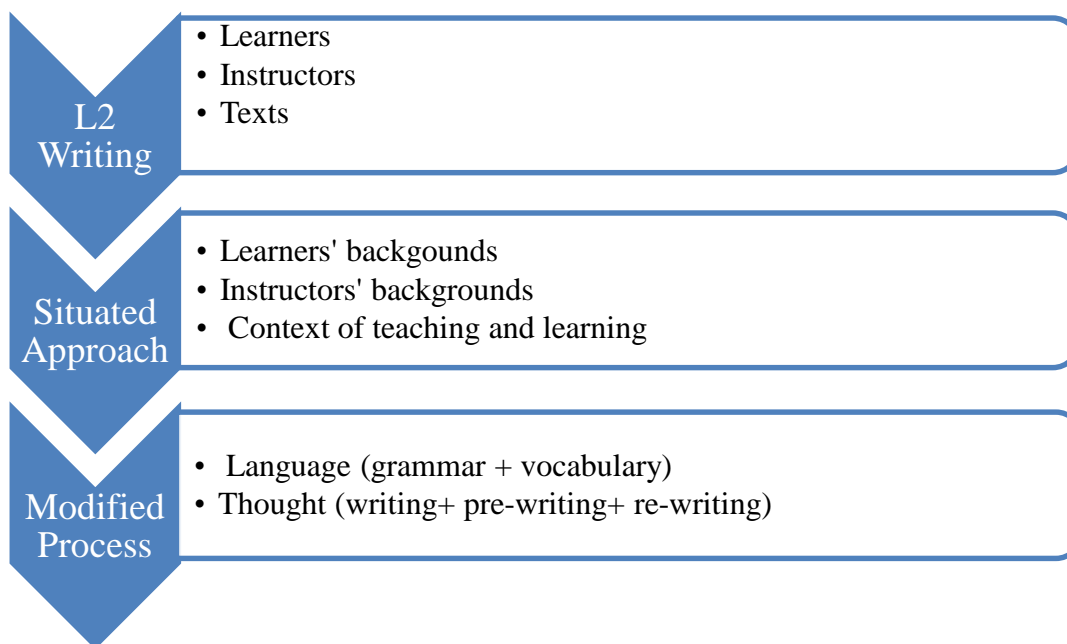


Figure 8: L2 Writing Model and Process

This model considers that L2 texts emerge because of an interaction between writers and instructors. L2 writers apparently do not write in an L2 voluntarily and independently in academic contexts. They must learn to write in some specific ways that serve some specific purposes. L2 writers apparently write to order. L2 writers are also constrained or conditioned by unique linguistic, academic, and cultural backgrounds to perceive and perform writing in some specific ways. Likewise, L2 writing instructors are constrained or conditioned by the background training or area of specialization to develop idiosyncratic biases and beliefs about the teaching of writing. Also, the teaching and learning of L2 writing across languages and cultures are situated in material and hypothetical contexts. For example, L2 writing in English has been a global phenomenon. Nonetheless, countries around the globe focus more on a specific genre of writing than another. Some countries might emphasize biography and reflective writings, while other may prefer research papers and memo writing. Similarly, some countries may adopt product approach to teaching L2 writing, while others may prefer a process approach to teaching. The genre to be taught and the method of teaching adopted are at once political and ideological decisions.

A situated approach to teaching L2 writing presupposes adequate knowledge about learners, instructors, and the context of L2 instruction. For example, study one and two of this thesis demonstrated that learners expected a product approach to teaching L2 writing, in that they were more concerned about grammar and vocabulary in writing than

organization and logic of writing. Also, the third study demonstrated that the L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh uncritically adopted a product approach to teaching, while L2 writing scholars (e.g., Zamel, 1985) advocate a process approach to teaching writing. A situated approach to teaching writing addresses these constraints or conflicts implicit in L2 writing pedagogy.

The participants of the second study strongly indicated that they enacted a process as they accomplished writing, especially in their mother language, Bangla. They acknowledged having revised both in their L1 and L2, but the areas of revision of English leaned more toward language. This implied that a process for writing was in still place, but for L1 and L2 it was not executed alike. As the data demonstrated, a process approach in L2 writing was conditional upon syntactic and lexical proficiency. L2 writers consciously think through grammar and vocabulary as they enact or embark on a process of writing. Unlike their L1 counterparts, they cannot think independent of grammar and vocabulary when their thoughts automatically find appropriate semantic and syntactic combinations of linguistic transcription. Thinking, however, is not unique to L1 writers. It is, instead, a common human attribute. L2 writers across contexts and languages are critical and creative thinkers like their native counterparts. If, however, their writings do not embody their thoughts, that is because of inadequate knowledge about grammar and vocabulary. This must not mean that a process for L1 and L2 writing is completely different, or a process for L2 writers does not exist. All it implies is that a process for L2 writing is at once linguistic and cognitive. The findings of this thesis proposed that while enacting a process approach to teaching L2 writing, instructors must customize their pedagogical options to the learning preferences and the cognitive capacity of L2 writers in a given context.

A situated approach to teaching writing has critical qualifications, so does a modified process theory. Why should a modified process theory be a pedagogical option, when the process approach is essentially an intellectual shibboleth? Raimes (2002) claims that “all writing involves a process” (p.308). To accomplish writing, process should not be an imposition. Process is inseparable from the conception and construction of writing. Besides, how do writing instructors pin down a process of writing when there is not one writing process but many and can change as a writer evolves (Murray, 1996)? An attempt to modify a process further, which is illusive and is susceptible to idiosyncratic

interpretation and intervention, is apparently a misstep. Even if writing scholars utilize their “best guess”, as Ferris (2002) recommends, to modify such a process of writing, who needs to undergo the most modification: instructors, writers, or the settings of writing instruction? Who qualifies to propose and enact the criteria of the purported modification? A modified process theory also presupposes that the stakeholders of writing (i.e., teachers, learners, and institutions) align their expectations and understanding about the various components of writing such as grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, and rhetorical organization. A modified process theory requires compromise, even consensus, among the stakeholders of writing about the components of writing. Because the field of L2 writing is “shaping the knowledge and discourse of the discipline” (Ferris, 2002, p.59), a modified process theory to facilitate L2 writing appears ambitious.

For example, Pinker (2014) claims that no language is a protocol legalized by an authority; every language, instead, is an organic product of human creativity. This perception of language aligns with the principles of process approach to teaching and learning writing in general, which emphasizes the generation and expression of thoughts. On the other hand, Celce-Murcia (1990) claims that a high frequency of grammatical errors in L2 students’ writing can make essays unacceptable to university faculty, because she found that, on average, professors consider 7.2 grammatical errors per 100 words in L2 academic prose “nonpassing.” Perception of language, then, is context-specific and is subject to prejudices. Swan (2002) contends that if students’ English needs to be accepted to the authorities, their prejudices must be taken into account. What the authorities consider errors in writing must be avoided. But what makes an error an error? Or, on what authority one is entitled to prejudices against a so called error? Pinker (2014) claims that the grammatical rules in English are frozen historical accidents, so these are not commandments. Thus, violating grammar does not risk eternal damnation. The identification of errors and the provision of feedback to exorcize those errors are integral to writing pedagogy, nonetheless. “Errors are natural, inevitable, and systematic” (Ellis, 2012, p.13) for language learning, but why are errors considered as anathema in language teaching? How does a modified approach to process theory deal with instructors, learners, and other stakeholders, who perceive good writing as error-free writing?

In fact, a modified process theory combines learners’ autonomy and instructors’ as well as institutions’ authority. It downplays any stern and censorious prescriptions about

writing. It considers no principle of writing to be absolute and exceptionless. Principles of writing are provisional and partial, instead. It does not obligate a writer to accomplish writing in a specific way. Thus, a modified process theory of writing does not find much insight in Orwell (1953), who reduces the complexity of writing to five or six overarching generalizations. Orwell (1953) had intuitions about writing, for he was a writer. But because he was innocent of linguistics and composition theories, he did not have the tools to parsing and appreciating language. He short-changed himself when he turned his intuition about writing into instruction in writing, as such. Orwell (1953) undermines the autonomy of a writer the way a grammar grump does, because he dictates a writers to think in formulaic fashion. A modified process theory proposes that a writer does not take dictation from anybody but he engages in a highly responsive and reflective conversation with himself (Smith, 1981). A writer enjoys autonomy as he engages in writing, because, essentially, “there are no rules, no absolutes, but alternatives “(Murray, 2011, p. 6). Ideally, a writer discovers, explores, and extends his own world of syntax and semantics uninhabited.

However, the autonomy of a writer must acknowledge and accommodate the social aspirations and functions of writing. Writing, academic writing in particular, is a social act (Lindemann & Anderson, 2001). Writing creates, stores, and transmits information to ease communication as well as to promote the production and dissemination of knowledge in and between societies. The codes of social communication are apparently mutually agreed upon consensus. For example, written communication in an academic setting acknowledges that all writers have idiosyncrasies (Smith, 1981), but urges, even compels, writers to conform to some templates. A writer must “invent the university” (Bartholomae, 2011, p. 523) as such to be compatible with the expectations of a university. A modified process theory integrates the essential process of writing into the site-specific expectations of writing. A writer, then, has the “freedom to write provisionally” (Smith, 1981, p.796), but he is not immune to intervention and convention. Reid (1994) contends that a writing instructor qualifies to intervene, in that he knows more about the constraints and the parameters of writing. Thus, a modified process theory proposes that the autonomy of a writer is responsive to the authority of institution and instructor.

This thesis proposes two recommendations: 1. a situated approach to teaching L2 writing and 2. a modified process theory to approach the teaching of L2 writing. It

empirically demonstrated how the context of teaching and learning L2 writing in English influenced the process of writing, when the development of L2 writing indicated by vocabulary and grammar is not identical across contexts even with learners of the same age and academic standing. What accounts for that? The thesis gleaned some empirical evidence and offered some interpretations to appreciate that question. The findings of this thesis are suggestive, rather than conclusive. If, however, all those studies are replicated across different contexts and findings significantly align or vary across contexts, the field of L2 writing can approach the teaching and learning L2 writing in an informed fashion. Potentially, this study can be another intellectual exploration pertaining to the field L2 writing, which might not trickle down to authentic contexts of teaching and learning L2 writing. Ferris (2002) cautions that most studies in the field of L2 writing vary “on just every research parameter imaginable” (p.51), and “studies compare apples and oranges” (p.52). In any case, *a situated approach to teaching L2 writing*, and *a modified process approach* merit further exploration and are candidates for classroom application on an experimental basis, at least.

6.8 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

The first study of this thesis demonstrated that the Chinese L2 writers were apparently different from their non-Chinese counterparts given their strategies and perceptions of writing in English. Although possible explanations for the differences between the Chinese and non-Chinese background learners were offered, these needed to be investigated further. It would, therefore, be useful to study the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of different groups of Chinese learners to determine how learners' backgrounds influence the development of L2 writing in English. China is a large country. It is linguistically and culturally very diverse and varied, as are the Chinese L2 writers. They are susceptible to various linguistic and cultural influences across the country, so students apparently show varying levels of bilingualism in English across the country. Besides, specific academic context may contribute to variations in L2 proficiency among the Chinese learners across the country. Academic differences, therefore, may be studied by contrasting students from mainland China with those brought up, for example, in Hong Kong, where different educational policies have been fostered.

In terms of the models discussed in this chapter, there is also the possibility that the Chinese students in study 1 were impervious to the hypothesized constraint of lexis as discussed in the modified process model above. If this were the case, then their writing is predicted to be slightly better than that produced by their non-Chinese counterparts. In fact, they were marginally better writers than their non-Chinese counterparts. The relationship between vocabulary and L2 writing for the Chinese learners, then, is arguably insignificant, as the data in study 1 suggested. Therefore, it would be interesting to look for other predictors of skills in L2 writing among these Chinese background writers. Additional measures on content such as cohesion, organization, and logic would be the useful areas to investigate to discover how these Chinese learners learn to write in English.

Future work would be usefully focused on investigating exactly how difficulties in grammar and vocabulary constrain L2 writing. For example, what influences do these difficulties have on the organisation and cohesion of L2 texts? Can students be taught to maintain organisation and cohesion despite weak scores in a grammatical judgement task and/or a vocabulary test? Determining whether these are actual constraints to 'good' writing or whether they are aspects of the focus of current teaching practices (i.e., instructors' feedback focus on these aspects of writing; therefore, they must be important) would inform current models.

Furthermore, if there are constraints, determining what aspects of writing these writer factors constrain would further inform the current modified process model. For example, it might be that poor grammar constrains organisation, whereas weak vocabulary may constrain cohesion. Similarly, varying the type of an essay such as narrative or academic piece of writing would allow the work to determine if any constraints are specific to genre or general to writing. Measuring each of these factors and looking for relationships between them in a cohort of L2 writers would increase the appreciation of the factors that limit L2 writing and potentially will provide guidelines on how these limitations can be reduced.

The thesis apparently concludes empirically that there are both similarities and differences when writing in an L1 versus an L2. Further research on these similarities and differences would be useful to inform models of L2 writing more critically and comprehensively. If the similarities are large and the differences small, then models of L1

acquisition that have informed the development of L1 literacy should be highly informative about the development of L2 writing. In contrast, the more different the two are, the less useful L1 models will prove to be. Current models of L1 language and literacy acquisition have identified person-factors, such as an understanding of syntax and lexical capacity/efficiency, which may equate to size and depth of vocabulary, as areas that may constrain performance in language tasks such as writing. These same L1 models may suggest additional person-factors that constrain written output. Hence, these are further areas of investigation in L2 writing studies. The use of SALT in the current research is an avenue worthy of further consideration. Analyses, such as SALT, were developed from studies of children's verbal language development and have proved to be useful in identifying common features in the typical development of language. The same analyses should prove useful for studying the development of L2 writing.

It would be informative to determine whether variations in pedagogical approach, perhaps based on differing background training of L2, would influence English L2 writing performance in the EFL context of Bangladesh. The more traditional approach as practiced by current Bangladesh instructors might be contrasted with the modified process approach suggested in this chapter. Groups of students would be trained via the two approaches for a semester, when performance in L2 writing is compared at the start and end of the semester. If the modified approach proves to be superior to the traditional approach, then scores in L2 writing measures would show discernible improvement. To examine it further and to avoid ethical problems, instructors who are teaching with the less effective teaching method will be given the opportunity to teach with more effective method in the following semester. Such a study can inform an authentic model of teaching L2 writing, which in this context appears to be the modified process approach.

The third study of this thesis also indicated that the focus of English studies in the next two decades would most likely shift from literature to language in the EFL context of Bangladesh. Research investigating this shift would be useful in terms of studies of overall educational changes such a shift would effect as well as how it affects the behavior of the instructors who would undergo this shift. If the focus of English studies at all shifts in the decades to come (as predicted in this thesis), further work is warranted in identifying whether or not such a shift benefits the development of English studies in Bangladesh. This work may also be linked to the intervention study between modified process approach

and traditional approach described in the previous paragraph. Further studies should investigate whether targeting background training of L2 writing instructors in the EFL context of Bangladesh is as critical as targeting the outcomes of various pedagogical approaches to teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh. The answer will probably be a mixture of the two, but further research should be undertaken to empirically ascertain this assumption to facilitate the teaching of L2 writing in the EFL context of Bangladesh.

6.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The three studies of this thesis yielded critical information about the learning and teaching L2 writing across contexts. The findings, however, need to be considered alongside some qualifications about these studies. For example, the first study recruited only 30 participants. The 20 Chinese participants cannot represent as complex and comprehensive a culture as that found in China (hence, the recommendation for further work in this country-context). Neither can the remaining 10 participants represent other languages and cultures beyond Chinese. Therefore, larger groups of students, perhaps selected from specific linguistic backgrounds would be useful to compare with the Chinese-background students.

Although the second study recruited a reasonably large sample of 70 participants, it recruited all the participants from a private university located in the capital city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. Private and public universities are spread all around the country, and the quality of students varies significantly across the contexts. Hence, the performance of students and the potential relationships between measures identified may be subject to variation across different universities spread all around Bangladesh. Although there is no reason to assume that the current conclusions derived from these data are incorrect, further work may identify caveats to the conclusions.

Furthermore, both studies 1 and 2 were conducted within some methodological constraints. The Vocabulary Test designed by Nation and Beglar (2007) was partially applied to make it compatible with the other tools of investigation. For the same reason, the grammaticality judgement test included only 30 questions on 15 areas of English grammar. Basically, longer tests would have required more time than available with the participants given the need to administer the other measures vital for the designed studies. Hence, additional, possibly more comprehensive, measures of syntax and lexis may further

inform the influence of these skills in the development of L2 writing. And the same may be argued for the writing tasks used. Again, further research with a varying type of writing task would be useful, as discussed in the previous sub-section.

The third study demonstrated how the L2 writing instructors taught L2 writing in English in Bangladesh, but it did not tell in any way why they taught the way they did. This may have been accomplished by a more in-depth qualitative component to the study that may have complemented the findings discovered by a quantitative study. The third study recruited 46 participants -a sample size apparently inadequate for in-depth qualitative data collection. However, a smaller specifically selected sample of these participants could have been recruited for qualitative interviews. Although the current work did not undertake such a study because of time constraint, future studies should build on the current data collection procedures and findings to inform their design. Equally, 46 participants could be argued to be too small a sample to provide high external validity; that is, generalizability of the findings across Bangladesh. This study should have had more participants from all around the country to propose a more authentic conclusion about the present circumstances and the future directions of English studies in general, and L2 writing in particular, in Bangladesh. Despite this, the current research should provide a basis on which to conduct further, more widespread surveys of instructors' perceptions and practices of teaching L2 writing in Bangladesh.

6.10 Conclusion

The findings of the thesis suggested that the teachers and learners of L2 writing were not monolithic or unimodal across contexts and languages. L2 writers and instructors operated under the influence of multiple factors, which created peculiar learning and teaching contexts that were not adequately addressed and appreciated by the existent body of scholarship in the field of L2 writing. This study as such asked for a more complex, critical, and comprehensive theory of teaching and learning L2 writing which would define the context of teaching and learning L2 writing more inclusively. This study argued that defining the context of teaching as ESL or EFL did not capture the complexities of teaching and learning L2 writing in English. The moot distinction between ESL and EFL context blurs as learners and instructors bring in their unique backgrounds in the context of teaching and learning, which are compounded by the intellectual, political, and ideological leanings of a context. The models that this thesis proposed ask for identifying and

analysing all these dimensions of an L2 learning and teaching context. The findings of this thesis urged to situate the teaching and learning of L2 writing in a context, which is re-conceptualized as an evolving and multifaceted phenomenon.

Another critical finding suggested that theories in the field of L2 writing were not aligned with practices across languages and contexts. One of the theoretical truisms in the field L2 writing is that since all writing is a process, L2 writing should be taught as process. Process is a discursive approach to teaching, which is less concerned about the linguistic aspects of writing. But the L2 writing instructors in Bangladesh looked apparently concerned about the linguistic aspects of writing as they provided feedback on students' writing. While this renewed a conflict between theory and practice, it might not be altogether arbitrary and ineffective. Although the second study with the Bangladeshi participants demonstrated that a process was universal in writing, it suggested that the process was not identical across L1 and L2 writings. Students' writings as well as their areas of concern in L2 writing demonstrated that L2 writing in English was partially but critically linguistic. The process approach to teaching L2 writing has not yet stipulated effective strategies and amassed adequate resources to reduce the chasm between the theories and the practice of teaching and learning L2 writing. This implied that scholars and instructors in the field of L2 writing should invest more energy and effort to discover the dimensions of differences between L1 and L2 writing processes to streamline their pedagogical practices.

The findings of this thesis do not provide a conclusive answer to how effective teaching and learning can be achieved specific to L2 writing. Nonetheless, it critiqued some areas of L2 writing and gleaned some critical information about the learning and teaching of L2 writing in English, which would advance the field of L2 writing in formulating theories to facilitate the teaching and learning of L2 writing. A nuanced understanding of learners' and instructors' backgrounds and how they can influence the learning and teaching of L2 writing in English were examined in this thesis. Additionally, the thesis undertook to investigate why the teaching and learning of L2 writing revolved around such components of L2 writing as grammar and vocabulary. Furthermore, this thesis investigated and discovered how the process of writing was enacted across L1 and L2, and whether or not the process of writing between L1 and L2 was identical or different. This thesis traversed different areas of L2 writing, and investigated those areas

with unique investigation tools. As such, this thesis definitely suggested new measures of research in the field of L2 writing. As well as that, the empirical evidence this thesis gleaned and analyses and explanations it offered advanced the field of L2 writing in terms of research, teaching and learning of L2 writing across contexts and languages. The contribution of this thesis to the field of L2 writing is unique and invaluable as such.

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APPENDIX A

Background Questionnaire for ESL Participants

1. Age:
2. Sex:
3. Country of Origin:
4. Grade Level /Class You Are in at the Moment in Your Country:
5. Name of the Native Language/Languages:
6. Years of Academic Exposure to English:
7. Grade Level/Class You Were First Introduced to English:
8. Months/Years of Learning English in Foreign Institutions:

Please tick on the appropriate option/options below:

1. What is the economic group you belong to in your country?
 - Rich
 - Middle class
 - Poor
 - Others: Please specify---
2. What describes best your location of living in your country?
 - Urban
 - Suburban
 - Rural
3. What describes your parent's/parents' occupation:
 - Job
 - Business
 - Agriculture
 - Others: Please specify –
4. Are your parents educated?
 - Yes
 - No
 - No comment
5. What is the means of instruction for higher studies (i.e., university studies) in your country?
 - English

- Native Language
 - Both
 - Others: Please specify—
6. Do you practice English in any of the area below with the members of your family?
- speaking **Yes** **No**
 - reading **Yes** **No**
 - writing **Yes** **No**
 - listening **Yes** **No**
7. What is most important area for you to improve to learn English?
- Speaking
 - Reading
 - Writing
 - Listening
8. What is the area that appears most difficult for you to learn English?
- Speaking
 - Reading
 - Writing
 - Listening
9. What necessitates you to learn English?
- Job
 - Higher studies
 - Intellectual development
 - Peer pressure
 - Parental persuasion
 - Others: Please specify-
10. Besides academic training, what are the activities that you personally engage in to improve your English?
- Watching movies/documentaries in English
 - Reading texts in English
 - Speaking in English with friends and family members
 - Listening to English music
 - None
 - Others: Please specify-
11. If you at all engage in any of the above mentioned activities to improve your English, how often does it happen?
- Regularly
 - Irregularly
 - Seldom
12. Besides your academic assignments, do you have the habit of writing in English?
- Sometimes
 - Always
 - Hardly
 - Never
13. While writing, what is the area you find most difficult to deal with?
- Grammar
 - Vocabulary

- Punctuations
 - Critical thinking
 - Content
 - All
15. Are you comfortable in writing in your mother tongue?
- Yes
 - No
 - Fairly
 - Don't know
15. How would you rate yourself as a writer in English?
- Excellent
 - Good
 - Fair
 - Poor
16. I would much appreciate if you would share your experiences as an English language learner that is not cover by this questionnaire:

APPENDIX B

Grammaticality Judgement Test

Name:

Instruction: Each item of the grammaticality judgement test has ONE error. Please underline that error.

Example: I am going to an Indian restaurant for lunch. Will you go with me? It's not too far away. It serve the best food, I believe.

1. He played the cricket with few of his friends yesterday. He enjoyed the game, too. But he left the field a bit early. He forgot that he had to prepare for an exam the next day.
2. Sean always reaches his office in time. He is truly punctual and responsible. Yesterday, however, he is late by an hour to reach his office. That surprised everyone.
3. I prefer cricket to soccer. Although cricket is more time-consuming than soccer, it is more exciting than soccer. Sometimes, I go to the stadium with three of my cousin to watch cricket.
4. Who does believe it? He did not turn in his assignment once again today. He was sick. Strange that he was only sick before the due date of assignment.
5. I went to the mall for some groceries. As I was coming home from the mall, I saw my friend Delta. He there went for groceries, too. We exchanged pleasantries.
6. I take care of my teeth as well as possible. I see a dentist at least once a year. Yet, two of my tooths are developing cavities. I can't believe it.
7. Ronny know that his cousin is coming to visit him today. He is very excited. He plans to go to the movie with his cousin in the evening. He anticipates wonderful times ahead with his cousin.
8. John is an attentive student. But he also loves to play, to swim, and catching fish. He is knowledgeable. He is physically fit as well.
9. My neighbor sometimes complain about the loud music from my house in few mornings during a week. But I don't listen to music loudly. She should know that I only play the piano.
10. Perhaps no game requires the captain to be so responsible as cricket. He has to perform; he must motivate other players to perform. A captain responsibility is immense in cricket
11. Writing in English is very difficult for me at the moment. I don't know many English words. Grammar is not easy to learn, too. But my teacher is teach me the skills to improve my writing.
12. When I saw Susan, she was reading book in the cafeteria. I went close to her. She saw me. She said Hi to me, but she kept reading again.

13. Does she already know that she is a good student? She can think critically. She writes persuasively. She reads deeply as well.
14. I find New Zealand really scenic. The weather of this country is soothing as well. In my opinion, I think this is one of the best countries to live.
15. Eric visits his country last month after staying five months in New Zealand. He felt homesick in New Zealand. He learned English here. He missed his parents, friends, and the food of his country.
16. She is writing a letter to her friend. She will send it by post. She knows that it will take some time to reach. Why should it take so long to reach by post?
17. I could not find my car as I stepped out of the mall. I was edgy. I saw a police around. So I asked him a question about the car.
18. I am scared of writing in English. Because English is not my first language. I am trying to improve my writing skills in English to continue my studies in New Zealand.
19. I thought that he scores a century in that match. But he got out on 99. He played really well. That was unfortunate.
20. Bret invited his friend, Andre, for a dinner at his place. It was Bret's birthday. Andre was too late. Why did not Andre know that he had to come in time?
21. It is one of the best articles I have ever read on Sachin Tendulkar. It's detailed, and it is easy to follow. You must have to read it.
22. The day was rainy and windy. I stayed home and watch cricket on T.V. The day was enjoyable altogether, though it was not productive anyway.
23. Yesterday, I attended a lecture on Yoga. The speaker was inspiring and informed. I listened to him attentively, sincerely, and seriously. Yoga looked helpful for our physical and mental health.
24. I had a class at room no. 21 at 9:30 am. I reached there on time. But nobody was not present. Perhaps, I went to the wrong room.
25. He must have gone there before. The place looked confusing to me. I felt lost. But he helped me roam around.
26. The man drove fast to the station to catch the train. He was late. The train already left. It disappointed her.
27. They played well, and they almost won the match. Their supporters were cheer for them. But they lost too many wickets in the end. It was a very tight match, though.
28. Russell looked upset in the cafeteria. I went close to him. He left. Saying nothing.
29. My friend was cooking for both of us. I was trying to help him. But I severely burnt one of my fingers. My friend said, "Don't come to the kitchen never."

30. Rebecca came to New Zealand as a tourist from the U.K. She liked New Zealand. She could not decide instantly himself whether she would live in New Zealand, or go back to the U.K.

APPENDIX C

Vocabulary Test (Nation and Beglar, 2007)

Name:

Instruction: *Underline any of the option from a-d with the closest meaning to the key word in the question.*

Example: SEE: They saw it.

- cut
- waited
- looked at
- started

First 1000

1. ARRIVE: He **arrives** in time.

- leave
- reach
- walk
- return

2. ANSWER: **Answer** this question first.

- understand
- allow
- agree
- reply

3. FELLOW: He looks to be a gentle **fellow**.

- person
- student
- athlete
- father

4. DIFFICULT: Math is **difficult** for me.

- easy
- enjoyable
- hard
- boring

5. BESIDE: Can you see the book **beside** the chair?

- between
- on
- in front of
- close to

Second 1000

1. AVOID: **Avoid** alcohol.

- like
- stay away from
- sell
- drink

2. AIM: What is your **aim** in life?

- goal
- meaning
- passion
- demand

3. CHEAP: The pen is **cheap**.

- nice
- good
- big
- inexpensive

4. DEPEND: I **depend** on you for this matter.

- rely
- believe
- discuss
- talk

5. ACCUSE: He **accuses** me for his failure.

- criticize
- blame
- hate
- dislike

Third 1000

1. SOLDIER: He is a **soldier**

- person in a business
- student

- person in the army
- government employee

2. LONESOME: He felt **lonesome**.

- tired
- annoyed
- sick
- lonely

3. RESTORE: He tried to **restore** his house.

- sell
- destroy
- make like new again
- donate

4. JUG: He is holding a **jug**.

- a nice cap
- a container for pouring liquids
- a big bowl
- a bottle

5. SCRUB: **Scrub** it regularly.

- repair
- display
- rub hard to clean
- hold

Fourth 1000

1. CANDID: Please be **candid**.

- be doubtful
- show sympathy
- say what you really think
- be bold

2. TUMMY: Look at my **tummy**.

- fingers
- stomach
- hair
- legs

3. INPUT: I need more **input** to understand the matter.

- announcement
- lecture
- money
- information and explanation

4. VOCABULARY: **Vocabulary** is important to learn a foreign language.

- words
- skills
- motivation
- rules

5. REMEDY: This **remedy** is reliable.

- medicine industry
- place to eat in public
- way to fix a problem
- rules about numbers

Fifth 1000

1. WEEP: Diana **wept** yesterday.

- jumped
- cried
- died
- walked

2. FRACTURE: The X-ray shows a **fracture** in his leg.

- break
- surgery
- brick
- stick

3. NUN: We saw a **nun** on the street.

- terrible accident
- new car
- woman following a strict religious rule
- well-dressed man

4. PEEL: Please help me to **peel** the orange.

- find
- cut into thin pieces
- take the skin off it
- clean

5. DEFECIT: His business reported a large **deficit** again this year.

- difficulty
- mismanagement
- spent more money than it earned
- bank balance

Sixth 1000

1. THESIS: She submitted her **thesis** last month.

- application for leave of absence
- detailed medical report
- long written report of study carried out for a university degree
- job application

2. STRANGLE: He **strangled** her.

- killed her by pressing her throat
- managed her office
- criticized
- helped her live well

3. PREMIER: The **premier** of my country is a good speaker.

- head of the government
- the chief of the army
- the cricket captain
- the chief justice

4. MALIGN: His influence was **malign**.

- evil
- good
- secret
- religious

5. DEVIOUS: Your plans are **devious**.

- well-developed
- tricky
- dangerous
- detailed

APPENDIX D

Background Questionnaire for Bangladeshi Participants

Name:

1. Age:
2. Sex:
3. Indicate where you undertook your primary/secondary education:
 - a. Urban area in Bangladesh
 - b. Suburban area in Bangladesh
 - c. Rural area in Bangladesh
 - d. Outside of Bangladesh (specify the country):
4. Indicate where you undertook your higher secondary education:
 - a. Urban area in Bangladesh
 - b. Suburban area in Bangladesh
 - c. Rural area in Bangladesh
 - d. Outside of Bangladesh (specify the country):
5. The last qualification earned:
 - a. H.S. C.
 - b. A Level
 - c. Other
6. Name the language/languages you speak :

(Underline the primary language)
7. Approximately, how old were you when you were first exposed to English? -----
-
8. Mention the approximate number of years you have already spent to learn English:-----

Please tick on the appropriate option/options below:

1. What is the highest qualification of your parent/parents?
 - primary
 - secondary
 - tertiary
 - none
2. Do you practice English in any of the areas below at home and/or with the members of your family?

• speaking	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
• reading	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
• writing	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
• listening	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

3. Which one of the following do you think you need to practice more to support your current studies?

- speaking
- reading
- writing
- listening

4. What is your purpose for learning English? (Tick as many as apply)

- job
- higher studies
- intellectual development
- peer pressure
- parental persuasion
- emigration
- others: Please specify-

5. Besides academic training, what are the activities that you personally engage in to improve your English? (Tick as many as apply)

- watching movies/documentaries in English
- reading texts in English
- speaking in English with friends and family members
- listening to English music
- none
- others: Please specify-

6. If you at all engage in any of the above mentioned activities to improve your English, how often does it happen?

- daily
- once a week
- twice a week
- less than once a week

7. Besides your academic assignments, do you write in English?

- often
- sometimes
- never

8. While writing, what is the area you find most difficult to deal with? (Tick as many as apply)

- grammar
- vocabulary
- punctuations
- critical thinking
- knowledge of the topic
- all equally difficult

9. How would you rate yourself as a writer in your mother tongue?

- excellent
- good
- fair
- poor

10. How would you rate yourself as a writer in English?

- Excellent
- Good
- Fair
- Poor

11. I would much appreciate if you would share your experiences as an English language learner that is not cover by this questionnaire:

APPENDIX E

Name:

Writing Task

Instruction: Write for 30 minutes on the topic below.

Many students choose to attend schools outside their home countries. Why do some students study abroad?

APPENDIX F

Name:

Writing Task

Instruction: Write for 30 minutes on the topic below first, and then answer the following questions.

Many students choose to attend schools outside their home countries. Why do some students study abroad?

Writing Task Questionnaire (English)

1. Did you plan for some time before you started to write on the topic?
 - yes
 - no
2. When do you generally revise your writing?
 - during writing
 - after writing
 - both
 - never
3. What do you generally revise if you revise at all? Tick as many as apply.
 - grammar
 - spelling
 - punctuation
 - vocabulary
 - organization
 - clarity
4. Which of the following do you generally think about as you write? Tick as many as apply.
 - communication with a reader
 - clarifying our own ideas about the topic
 - discovering new meanings through thinking
 - correct sentence
 - finishing as easily as possible
5. Would you like to take the opportunity to compose a few drafts to improve your writing?
 - yes
 - no
 - do not know

APPENDIX G

Writing Task in Bangla

নির্দেশনা: লিখিত অংশের জন্য নির্ধারিত সর্বমোট ৩০ মিনিট। প্রথম ২৫ মিনিটে নিম্নোক্ত বিষয়ে লিখুন।

তারপর বাকি ৫ মিনিটে অন্য প্রশ্নগুলোর উত্তর দিন।

অনেক শিক্ষার্থী দেশের বাইরের স্কুল বা বিশ্ববিদ্যালয়ে পড়তে যায়। কেন তারা বিদেশে পড়ে?

Writing Task Questionnaire (Bangla)

1. *Did you plan for some time before you started to write on the topic?*
 - yes
 - no
2. *When did you revise your writing?*
 - during writing
 - after writing
 - both
 - never
3. *What did you revise if you revised at all? Tick as many as apply.*
 - grammar
 - spelling
 - punctuation
 - vocabulary
 - organization
 - clarity
4. *Which of the following did you think about as you wrote? Tick as many as apply.*
 - communication with a reader
 - Clarifying our own ideas about the topic
 - discovering new ways of thinking about the topic
 - pleasing the researcher
 - finishing as easily as possible
5. *Would you like to take the opportunity to compose a few drafts to improve your writing?*
 - yes
 - no
 - do not know

APPENDIX H

ETS Essay Scoring Rubric

Score 6 Outstanding

In addressing the specific task directions, a 6 response presents a cogent, well-articulated examination of the argument and conveys meaning skilfully.

A typical response in this category:

- clearly identifies aspects of the argument relevant to the assigned task and examines them insightfully
- develops ideas cogently, organizes them logically and connects them with clear transitions
- provides compelling and thorough support for its main points
- conveys ideas fluently and precisely, using effective vocabulary and sentence variety
- demonstrates superior facility with the conventions of standard written English (i.e., grammar, usage and mechanics), but may have minor errors

Score 5 Strong

In addressing the specific task directions, a 5 response presents a generally thoughtful, well-developed examination of the argument and conveys meaning clearly.

A typical response in this category:

- clearly identifies aspects of the argument relevant to the assigned task and examines them in a generally perceptive way
- develops ideas clearly, organizes them logically and connects them with appropriate transitions
- offers generally thoughtful and thorough support for its main points
- conveys ideas clearly and well, using appropriate vocabulary and sentence variety
- demonstrates facility with the conventions of standard written English, but may have minor errors

Score 4 Adequate

In addressing the specific task directions, a 4 response presents a competent examination of the argument and conveys meaning with acceptable clarity.

A typical response in this category:

- identifies and examines aspects of the argument relevant to the assigned task, but may also discuss some extraneous points
- develops and organizes ideas satisfactorily, but may not connect them with transitions
- supports its main points adequately, but may be uneven in its support

- demonstrates sufficient control of language to convey ideas with reasonable clarity
- generally demonstrates control of the conventions of standard written English, but may have some errors

Score 3 Limited

A 3 response demonstrates some competence in addressing the specific task directions, in examining the argument and in conveying meaning, but is obviously flawed.

A typical response in this category exhibits ONE OR MORE of the following characteristics:

- does not identify or examine most of the aspects of the argument relevant to the assigned task, although some relevant examination of the argument is present
- mainly discusses tangential or irrelevant matters, or reasons poorly
- is limited in the logical development and organization of ideas
- offers support of little relevance and value for its main points
- has problems in language and sentence structure that result in a lack of clarity
- contains occasional major errors or frequent minor errors in grammar, usage or mechanics that can interfere with meaning

Score 2 Seriously Flawed

A 2 response largely disregards the specific task directions and/or demonstrates serious weaknesses in analytical writing.

A typical response in this category exhibits ONE OR MORE of the following characteristics:

- does not present an examination based on logical analysis, but may instead present the writer's own views on the subject
- does not follow the directions for the assigned task
- does not develop ideas, or is poorly organized and illogical
- provides little, if any, relevant or reasonable support for its main points
- has serious problems in language and sentence structure that frequently interfere with meaning
- contains serious errors in grammar, usage or mechanics that frequently obscure meaning

Score 1 Fundamentally Deficient

A 1 response demonstrates fundamental deficiencies in analytical writing.

A typical response in this category exhibits ONE OR MORE of the following characteristics:

- provides little or no evidence of understanding the argument
- provides little evidence of the ability to develop an organized response (e.g., is disorganized and/or extremely brief)

- has severe problems in language and sentence structure that persistently interfere with meaning
- contains pervasive errors in grammar, usage or mechanics that result in incoherence

Score 0

Off topic (i.e., provides no evidence of an attempt to respond to the assigned topic), is in a foreign language, merely copies the topic, consists of only keystroke characters, or is illegible or nonverbal.

Score NS

The essay response is blank.

APPENDIX I

1. Age (approximate chronological age, or you can tick on one of the options below):
 - a. 20 – 29 b. 30 – 39 c. 40 – 49 d. 50 and over

2. Sex:
 - a. Male b. Female

3. Select the stream you had been through:
 - a. Mainstream
 - b. English medium
 - c. Others (please specify):

4. Indicate where you undertook primary education:
 - a. Urban area in Bangladesh
 - b. Suburban area in Bangladesh
 - c. Rural area in Bangladesh
 - d. Outside of Bangladesh (please state country):

5. Most recent qualification earned:

6. Name of the country where this qualification was earned:

7. Year of conferment/graduation of this qualification:

8. Area of specialization:
 - a. English Literature
 - b. Linguistics
 - c. TESOL/ELT/ESL
 - d. Others (please specify):

9. Number of years teaching at the tertiary level:

10. Designation/job title:

11. Tick on as many options as you consider indicating the mode/modes of your further professional development:
 - a. Conference attendance/ presentation
 - b. Publication
 - c. Attending workshop
 - d. Other (please specify):
 - e. None

APPENDIX J

INSTRUCTION: Please provide feedback on the following text. Feedback in this context means your ways of intervention in terms of suggestions, recommendations, and input on this student's text to improve it further.

I most prefer to it is always better to have a teacher. When we want to study. It's good to study with a teacher.

When we study with teacher we can get man knowledg that we never had. Teacher are like a book to us.

Teacher can teach us many kind of thing that we never have learned all this time. Teacher also can help us to solve our problem in study and we also can discus with teacher if we have problem in our study. Study with teacher also can help us to understand some of our subject that is hard to us to understand.

Teacher also can be our friend. Went we and teacher can be friend is a good to us because went we have a problem we can share it with our teacher and teacher can give some advice to us. Teacher are like our second parents but parents in the school. Whenever we have problem in school or study we can easily find teacher. For those who study by themselfe is a little bit hard to solve they problem that they facing at. The conclution here is a good to study with teacher more than study by themselfe because study with teacher we can get more knowledg and it is very fun to.

APPENDIX K

STRATEGIES AND STYLES OF FEEDBACK

1. Do you think that writing instructors must provide feedback on their students' writings?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. No comment
2. What kind of feedback do you normally provide on your students' writing?
 - a. Oral
 - b. Written
 - c. Others (please specify):.....
3. Do you follow-up on your feedback (for example, do you make sure that the student incorporates feedback in subsequent assignments)?
 - a. Sometimes
 - b. Always
 - c. Never
4. Have you ever tried to discover whether students want writing instructors to provide feedback on their writing or not?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. No comment
5. Do you think that the strategies and styles of feedback should vary depending on the contexts (i.e., ESL and EFL)?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. No comment
6. Do you have to adhere to a rubric mandated by your institution to provide feedback on students' writing?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. No comment
7. What kind of feedback do you normally provide on your students' writings?
 - a. Direct (identifying error, and providing the correct form)
 - b. Indirect (identifying the error only)
 - c. Others (please specify).
8. Do you use a cryptic code as part of feedback (i.e., verb tense = vt, word form = wf, spelling = sp, etc.) to identify errors in students' writing?
 - a. Sometimes
 - b. Always
 - c. Never
9. Which of the following do you usually provide feedback on (tick as many as appropriate)?
 - a. Syntax
 - b. Semantics

- c. Mechanics
 - d. Punctuations
 - e. Organization
 - f. Diction
 - g. Logic
 - h. Cohesion
10. Why do you normally provide feedback?
 - a. To help students write correctly
 - b. To help students think critically
 - c. Both
 11. Do you normally identify all the errors that you find in students' writing?
 - a. Sometimes
 - b. Always
 - c. Never
 12. Do you feel overwhelmed by the effort needed to identify the errors in students' writing?
 - a. Sometimes
 - b. Always
 - c. Never
 13. Do you believe that students improve their writing only when instructors provide feedback on their writing?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. No comment
 14. Do you encourage your students to take advantage of resources (e.g., peer feedback, on-line resources, extensive reading) to supplement your classroom instruction to improve writing?
 - a. Sometimes
 - b. Always
 - c. Never
 15. Do you subscribe to the suggestion that providing feedback on students' writing may create problems for them to learn to write?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. No comment

Please note your own experiences about feedback not considered above:

APPENDIX L

College of Education

School of Teacher Education

Tel: +64 3 343 9606, Fax: + 64 343 7790

E-mail: m.shamsuzzaman@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

May 29, 2013,



Project Title: Perceptions and Practices in Learning and Teaching Second Language Writing in English: Influences of Backgrounds and Language Skills

Information Sheet for Adult Participants in Bangladesh/New Zealand

I am a Ph.D. candidate at the College of Education, University of Canterbury, New Zealand. I have been doing a research project under Drs. John Everatt and Brigid McNeil. The research project aims at finding how age affects the acquisition of writing skills in English with adults as suggested by the Critical Period Hypothesis. The aims of this project are to find out information to advance the teaching and learning of writing in English at university level both in ESL and EFL contexts. I would like to invite you to participate in my present study. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to do the following:

- fill out a background questionnaire to provide biographical information about you as a learner
- sit for a grammaticality judgement test to demonstrate your knowledge about English grammar
- sit for a writing task to demonstrate your skills in writing in English (and Bangla)
- sit for a vocabulary text to demonstrate your knowledge about English words

These tests will be conducted over two sessions, and each will last about 30 minutes. Please note that your participation in this study is optional. If you participate, you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty and prior permission. If you withdraw, I promise to remove any information relating to you if this is practically possible.

I will take particular care to ensure the privacy of all the data collected for this study. I ensure that your identity is never disclosed in publications of the findings. All the data will be stored in password protected facilities and locked storages at the University of Canterbury following the study. It will then be destroyed altogether after five years.

The results of this study may be used to revise and improve second language writing courses at tertiary level both in ESL and EFL contexts. The results will also be reported internationally at conferences and in journals of English language teaching. You may receive a brief report on findings of the study upon request

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me at the details provided above. If you have a complaint about the study, you may contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz). You can also contact the project supervisor, Dr. John Everatt, at john.evearatt@canterbury.ac.nz concerning anything with regard to this project.

If you agree to participate in the study, please fill out the **Consent Form** and return it to me by July 15, 2013.

I look forward to working with you, and thank you for considering participating in this research.

Mohammad Shamsuzzaman

APPENDIX M

College of Education

School of Teacher Education

Tel: +64 3 343 9606, Fax: + 64 343 7790

E-mail: m.shamsuzzaman@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

January 14, 2013



Project Title: Perceptions and Practices in Learning and Teaching Second Language Writing in English: Influences of Backgrounds and Language Skills

Consent Form for Adult Participants in Bangladesh/New Zealand

I have been given a full explanation of this research project and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I know as such what is required of me should I agree to participate in this research project.

I understand that my participation in this research project is voluntary, and that I can withdraw at any time without any penalty and prior permission.

I understand that the data collected from me for this research project will be kept confidential to the researcher, and that any published and reported results will not identify me.

I understand that the data collected from me for this research project will be inaccessible to others, and that the data will be saved in password protected facilities at the University of Canterbury. I also understand that the data will be destroyed altogether five years after the completion of the research project.

I understand that I can receive a brief report on the findings of this research project upon request. I've provided my e- mail address below for this.

I understand that if I need further information with regard to this project, I can contact the researcher, Mohammad Shamsuzzaman. I understand as well that I am entitled to contacting the Chair of the University of Canterbury Educational Research Human Ethics Committee for any complaints at human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz. I can also contact the project supervisor, Dr. John Everatt, at john.evearatt@canterbury.ac.nz , concerning anything with regard to this project.

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Name:

Age:

Date:

E-mail address:

Signature:

Please return the completed Consent Form on your next meeting with the researcher.

APPENDIX N

College of Education

School of Teacher Education

Tel: +64 3 343 9606, Fax: + 64 343 7790

E-mail: m.shamsuzzaman@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

May 29, 2013,



Project Title: Perceptions and Practices in Learning and Teaching Second Language Writing in English: Influences of Backgrounds and Language Skills

Information Sheet for Instructor in Bangladesh

I am a Ph.D. candidate at the College of Education, University of Canterbury, New Zealand. I have been undertaking a research project under Drs. John Everatt and Brigid McNeil. The research project intends to discover how maturation (i.e., age) impacts the acquisition of writing skills in English with adults as speculated by the Critical Period Hypothesis. The objectives of this project are to find out information and insights to streamline the teaching and learning of writing in English at tertiary level both in ESL and EFL contexts. The project is particularly relevant to Bangladesh. Your input will contribute to investigating the phenomenon more critically to propose some potential changes in English studies in Bangladesh. I would like to invite you to participate in this study. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to do the following:

- fill out a background questionnaire to provide biographical information about you as an instructor
- participate in a follow-up study to compare your development and changes reflected in filling out the same background questionnaire in a year or so

It will take around 30 minutes to fill out the background questionnaire. Initially, you fill out only one questionnaire. After a year or so, you fill out the second questionnaire, which will take around the same time. Please note that your participation in this study is voluntary. Should you participate, you retain the right to withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty and prior permission. If you withdraw, I promise to remove any information relating to you provided this is practically achievable.

I will take particular care to ensure the confidentiality of all the data collected for this study. I will take care to ensure anonymity in publications of the findings. All the data will be stored in password protected facilities and locked storages at the University of Canterbury following the study. It will then be destroyed altogether after five years.

The results of this study may be used to revise and improve second language writing courses at tertiary level both in ESL and EFL contexts. The results will also be reported internationally at conferences and in journals of English language teaching. Upon request, you may receive a brief report on findings of the study.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me at the details provided above. If you have a complaint about the study, you may contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz). You can also contact the project supervisor, Dr. John

Everatt, at john.evearatt@canterbury.ac.nz, concerning anything with regard to this project. Dr. Fakrul Alam, Professor, Department of English, The University of Dhaka, Ramna, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh, can be contacted at falam1951@hotmail.com, when necessity arises in Bangladesh.

Should you agree to participate in the study, please fill out the **Consent Form** and return it to me by July 15, 2013.

I look forward to working with you, and thank you for considering participating in this research.

Mohammad Shamsuzzaman

APPENDIX O

College of Education

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E-mail: m.shamsuzzaman@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

May 29, 2013



Project Title: Perceptions and Practices in Learning and Teaching Second Language Writing in English: Influences of Backgrounds and Language Skills

Consent Form for Instructor in Bangladesh

I have been given a full explanation of this research project and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I know as such what is required of me should I agree to participate in this research project.

I understand that my participation in this research project is voluntary, and that I can withdraw at any time without any penalty and prior permission.

I understand that the data collected from me for this research project will be kept confidential to the researcher, and that any published and reported results will not identify me.

I understand that the data collected from me for this research project will be inaccessible to others, and that the data will be saved in password protected facilities at the University of Canterbury. I also understand that the data will be destroyed altogether five years after the completion of the research project.

I understand that I can receive a brief report on the findings of this research project upon request. I've provided my e-mail address below for this.

I understand that if I need further information with regard to this project, I can contact the researcher, Mohammad Shamsuzzaman, at the e-mail address provided above. I understand as well that I am entitled to contacting the Chair of the University of Canterbury Educational Research Human Ethics Committee for any complaints at human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz. I can also contact the project supervisor, Dr. John Everatt, at john.evearatt@canterbury.ac.nz, concerning anything with regard to this project. In Bangladesh, Dr. Fakrul Alam, Professor, Department of English, The University of Dhaka, Ramna, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh, can be contacted at falam1951@hotmail.com, when necessity arises.

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Name:

Sex:

Date:

E-mail address:

Signature:

Please return the completed Consent Form on your next meeting with the researcher.