讀寫結合教學於高中寫作英文教學之研究

Teaching Reading-writing Connection to High School EFL Writers



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To Dr. Liu, Yi Chun

獻給我的恩師劉怡君教授



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國立政治大學英國語文學系英語教學碩士在職專班

碩士論文提要

論文名稱:讀寫結合教學於高中英文寫作教學之研究

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論文提要內容:

由於讀寫結合教學於高中英文寫作教學的相關研究較少,本研究試圖探討讀寫結合 教學對高中生英文寫作表現和修辭策略策略的影響,以及學生對讀寫結合教學的看 法。兩個高三班級分為實驗組和對照組,參與十五週的寫作教學。第一週進行看圖 作文初試,之後實驗組接受額外的「範文寫作」,「寫作式閱讀」,以及注意用字、指 涉語等的「挖礦」練習。實驗組除了理解寫作基本架構,「如何」運用文法句型、用 字遣詞外,他們也須站在作者的角度去思考讀者與寫作目的,思考作者「為何」運 用這些策略並達到什麼效果。而對照組仍舊進行傳統的文法翻譯教學,並無了解寫 作策略背後的原因。第八週時進行第一次複試,題型亦為看圖作文,背後假設為實 驗組由於有考慮到讀者為大考評審老師,因此會使用許多較複雜的字彙和句型。最 後一週則進行第二次複試,題型為寫一封信給自己身邊親近的人去澄清誤會,取得 諒解。背後假設為實驗組考慮到讀者為親近的人,將使用更多口語用法,句型也較 簡單。研究結果符合預期假設:實驗組在兩次複試寫作表現上皆顯著優於對照組, 顯示讀寫結合的教學更能增進學生寫作能力。修辭策略分析發現實驗組出起對照組 有更佳的讀者覺察,能針對不同對象使用不同修辭策略,並且能使用更多修辭策略 來達到溝通目的。問卷調查則發現學生多半肯定讀寫結合教學,但也反映需要更多 練習及更有趣的閱讀題材。本研究亦提供英文寫作教學上的建議。

關鍵字:讀寫結合、範文寫作、寫作式閱讀、挖礦、寫作表現、讀者覺察、修辭策 略

Abstract

Due to the paucity of related research in teaching reading-writing connection (RWC) to EFL high school writers, this research investigates how RWC pedagogy affected Taiwanese novice writers' rhetorical strategies and writing outcomes. Two classes of twelfth-graders were divided into experimental group and control group. The pedagogy lasted for 15 weeks. Pretest, in the form of picture-based narrative, was administered in the first week. After that, experimental group received extra RWC activities including modeling, writerly reading, and mining. Students in the experimental group not only learned basic writing principles, knowing "how" to manage pattern and word usage, but also read in writers' shoes, considered their readers and the writing purpose, thinking "why" writers used certain rhetorical strategies and what effects they had achieved. On the other hand, students in the control group received the traditional grammar translation teaching, without thinking the reasons behind the rhetorical strategies. The first writing posttest, also in the form of picture-based narrative, was administered in the eighth week. The hypothesis was that students of experimental group considered their readers to be professional graders, and they used more sophisticated patterns and words. The second writing posttest was administered in the last week; students were asked to write a letter to people close to them to explain and clarify a misunderstanding to earn their forgiveness. The hypothesis was that students of experimental group considered their reader and used more colloquial phrases and simpler patterns. The results corresponded to the hypotheses: Analysis of writing outcomes revealed that students of experimental group were significantly better than those of control group, suggesting that RWC could better benefit students' writing. Analysis of rhetorical strategy suggested that students of the experimental group had better sense of audience awareness. They could adjust their rhetorical strategies based on different readers. They also applied more rhetorical

strategies to reach effective communication. Students' questionnaires revealed that most of them agreed that RWC pedagogy enhanced their writing and that reading and writing should be taught together. However, they also reported that more practice and more interesting topic for reading were needed. This research also provides pedagogical implication and suggestion for English writing.

Keywords: Reading-writing connection, modeling, writerly reading, mining, writing outcomes, audience awareness, rhetorical strategy





CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In earlier years, reading and writing were taught separately and were seen differently, with reading seen as a receptive skill and writing seen as a productive skill (Ahmed, Wagner, & Lopez, 2014; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; J. Lee & Schallert, 2016). Since the 1980s, many L1 scholars have focused on the integration of reading and writing and have conducted research that support reading-writing connection (RWC) (Carson, 1990; Grabe, 2001, 2003; Hirvela, 2004; Shanahan & Tierney, 1990; Stotsky, 1983). Thus, RWC has been a prominent teaching approach in L1 context. It is based on the notion that both reading and writing are acts of composing meaning, since readers also go through the process of planning, drafting, aligning, revising, and monitoring as the writers do (Tierney & Pearson, 1983). Having summarized earlier studies, Stotsky (1983) found that reading and writing were co-related, and that instruction in one domain can influence the performance in the other domain. Carson (1990) claimed that reading and writing shared similar cognitive processes and mechanisms. Based on different ways of reading-writing interaction, there could be three models describing the reading-writing relationship: directional, non-directional, and bi-directional (see chapter 2 for more details). All in all, lots of researchers (Carson, 1990; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hirvela, 2004; Kroll, 1993; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991) in L1 RWC agree that reading and writing should be taught together.

There has been increasing literature on teaching RWC in L1 context. However, few teachers conduct RWC pedagogy in EFL classrooms, especially in high schools. The reason that relatively fewer teachers embrace RWC pedagogy in EFL classrooms may be attributed to its unique sociocultural factors. In the Taiwanese high school context, teaching reading and writing together can be challenging because of (1) students'

language insufficiency, (2) the textbook design, and (3) the test-driven teaching/learning culture.

First, students' language insufficiency influences teacher's instructions. Teachers tend to be more conservative and therefore don't practice RWC for students with lower levels of English proficiency. For example, a teacher who assigns extensive reading to a class of higher proficiency may skip it when teaching a class with lower proficiency (Chen, 2012).

Second, the high school English textbooks in Taiwan usually are designed in the way that divides readings from writing sections. For example, in a given lesson of a textbook, the reading can be a poem, but the followed up writing lesson can be conventions of argumentation. Most of the reading sections and writing sections are isolated as if they were two separate books "integrated" into one.

Last and the most importantly, under the test-driven curricula and limited class hours, in traditional EFL classrooms of Taiwan, reading is usually instructed through grammar-translation approach, which underscores rules and vocabulary memorization as well as drill practices (F.-R. Chen, 2003; Fang, 2016; Hsu, 2007; Yao, 2003). Likewise, writing is also taught through grammar-translation method. These traditional methods in teaching writing are rule-governed and form-based which assume languages are static divisions bounded independently. For example, grading composition focuses on correcting grammatical errors, reading comprehension usually tests learners' vocabulary or translation skills. Inculcating the instruction that divides reading from writing, EFL novice writers tend to focus more on sentence level rather than making meaning through interaction with texts and contexts to achieve effective communication (Lin, 2007; Shih, 1999). Thus, this reading-writing-separation instruction hinders EFL novice writers from acquiring the target genre knowledge and making discursive negotiation.

Within the current studies, most of them tend to advocate the effectiveness of a

specific reading-writing activity in L1 contexts. Given the sociocultural factors, whether the RWC pedagogy can be effective in improving students' test performance and their rhetorical strategies remains opaque. Therefore, this study aims to explore the issue by answering the following three research questions:

- 1. How does RWC pedagogy affect Taiwanese novice writers' writing outcomes and rhetorical strategies?
- 2. What are students' perceptions of RWC pedagogy?





CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section aims to review literature relevant to the present study. Three parts of research are to be discussed: (1) Theory of RWC, (2) Teaching RWC, and (3) Research of teaching RWC to Taiwan high school EFL writers.

Theory of Reading-writing Connections

Most of the studies of RWC are based on research conducted in the first language (L1) context. Stotsky (1983) is one of the first to have a comprehensive synthesis on reading-writing relationships. Synthesizing studies from 1930s to early 1980s, Stotsky (ibid.) found that better writers tended to be better readers, that writing significantly improved students' reading comprehension and learning retention, and that extensive reading improved students' writing. Although reading instructions didn't significantly improve students' writing skills, Stotsky suggested that reading experience is related to writing ability, and reading experience could be an important factor in developing writing ability.

After Stotsky, Carson (1990) surveyed literatures on reading-writing relationship and suggested three hypotheses to describe reading-writing relationship: the directional hypothesis, the nondirectional hypothesis, and the bidirectional hypothesis. The directional hypothesis stresses that reading and writing share common structure and mechanism. Therefore, gain in reading can be transferred to writing and vice versa. For example, after analyzing the text structure of a reading passage, learners can apply the structure in their writing. What is noted is that in this directional hypothesis, transfer proceeds in only one direction, either from reading to writing or from writing to reading. In the reading-to-writing model, reading instruction can improve writing but writing instruction cannot improve reading; and the case is vice-versa in writing-to-reading model.

More research in Carson's survey supported reading-to-writing model. Eckhoff (1983) found that children applied structures of reading into their writing. Taylor and Beach (1984) found that reading instruction in text structures enhanced students' production and comprehension of expository text. As for writing-to-reading model, Belanger's (1987) survey found that direct writing instruction led to better reading comprehension.

Synthesizing these studies, Carson concludes that the transfer from reading to writing or vice versa may not be automatic, and instruction is required to facilitate the transfer.

The nondirectional hypothesis regarded reading and writing as interactive. In this hypothesis, reading and writing shared common cognitive process of constructing meaning. Therefore, skills gained in either reading or writing could be transferred to the other. Gordon and Braun (1982) found that fifth graders who received story schema training were better in recalling the text structure, finding similar structure in other readings, and applying the structure in their writing. That is, reading instruction improved both reading and writing performance.

The bidirectional hypothesis considered reading and writing not only interactive but also interdependent. This means the nature of reading-writing relationship changes at different stages of cognitive development. For example, Shanahan (1984) found a significant relation between reading and writing for both second and fifth graders. Specifically, for second graders, the reading-writing relationship was based on word recognition and spelling, but for fifth graders, that was based on text structure, word diversity, and reading comprehension. Shanahan and Lomax (1986) further examined three theoretical models of reading-writing relationship (interactive, reading-to-writing, and writing-to-reading) based on reading and writing measures. They found that interactive model best described the data and that all of the models better described the data of fifth graders than that of second graders. All in all, the bidirectional hypothesis is "the most complex as well as the most comprehensive of the three, and allows for

separate subsystems as well as some common underlying proficiencies." (Carson, 1990, p. 93)

According to Carson, these three hypotheses focus on different aspect of reading-writing relationship and each aspect offers language teachers valuable suggestions when designing teaching activities. The directional hypothesis focuses on input. Reading serves as an important source for teaching writing. The nondirectional hypothesis focuses on the common underlying proficiency of reading and writing.

Teaching activities, no matter reading or writing, can enhance students' writing ability as long as they focus on constructing meaning. The bidirectional hypothesis focuses on the interdependent nature of reading and writing. It suggests that teachers design various activities that "take advantage of the structural and cognitive similarities in reading and writing" (p. 93). Although these models were within the L1 context, Carson asserted that these models could also offer L2 writing teachers "a valuable perspective on reading writing interactions in the writing classroom" (p. 93).

Teaching RWC

According to Hirvela (2004), RWC can be taught in two ways: (1) writing to read, and (2) reading to write. Both ways of teaching RWC belong to Carson's (1990) directional model, as according to Carson (1990), "this directional perspective is the relevant one for pedagogical concerns, since it helps teachers decide whether reading should precede writing in the classroom or whether writing should precede reading." In other words, writing teachers must decide in which direction they would like to focus to enhance students' literacy development: from writing to read, or from reading to write. Writing to read means using writing to support reading. Through writing about reading, readers can actually make sense of what they are reading. Writing to read teaching methods include writing summaries, synthesizing source texts, pre-reading writing, response essays, and dialogue journal. On the other hand, reading to write means using

reading to support writing. Reading serves as a valuable source of target language input and therefore can support writing. Reading to write can be taught either implicitly or explicitly. Implicit teaching methods include extensive reading and free/voluntary reading. Explicit teaching methods include mining, writerly reading, modeling, and rhetorical reading. Among these teaching methods, mining, writerly reading, and modeling are the three reading-for-writing RWC methods for detailed discussion.

Mining, advocated by Greene (1993), is a way of guided reading that draws students' attention toward useful inputs for their writing. The useful input may include lexical, linguistic and rhetorical conventions. For example, students may be given a text with some target words missing and then were asked to come up with the answers to fill in the blanks.

A related study by Yoshimura (2009) investigated the effects of Mining reading on writing by using a guided reading checklist. The checklist was designed for mining reading providing not only guidance on reading the text for overall structure, details, and rhetorical context but also on the language form, word choice, and collocation. Forty-two English major students in a Japanese university were recruited and divided into two groups, the experimental group (EG) and the control group (CG). After the pre-test in writing, Students in the EG group were assigned a reading task with the mining-reading checklist. Students in the CG group were assigned the same task without the checklist. After different treatments, both group had a writing post-test. As the results indicated, students in the EG group reported that reading with a checklist helped their reading comprehension. However, the checklist didn't significantly affect students' writing behaviors as few students used the directions in the checklist for their writing. As for the writing performance, compared to students in the CG group, students in EG group performed significantly better in genre consideration, but not significantly better in content, macro-structure, micro-structure, language complexity and language error.

Writerly reading, according to Hirvela (2004), is a RWC practice of "thinking like a writer while reading" (p. 121). That is, the reader takes the writers' position to go through the decision-making process that the writers did. To reposition themselves as a writer, they may keep asking questions like "What sentence would come next if I were the writer?" or "What transitional phrases should I put to link the previous passage and the next?" Through answering these questions, readers become more aware to the rhetorical and linguistic knowledge of writing. Writerly reading manifests the notion that reading is active composing instead of passive decoding.

When it comes to implementing writerly reading, Hirvela suggests the teaching strategy of jigsaw puzzle: a teacher takes a text and cuts it into pieces. Then, students are given the pieces and asked to reassemble them to make a coherent text. The jigsaw puzzle can also be done differently and more challenging. Students can be asked to compose their own pieces, sentence or paragraph, to link the different pieces into a passage.

What is noted is that, according to Hirvela (2004), when implementing mining and writerly reading, students were actually taught to read rhetorically. They have to analyze the rhetorical situation, consider the reader audience and writing purpose, and finally decided what rhetorical strategies to adopt. By doing so, students go through "the writerly designs the author made in producing the text being read" (p. 124), and the process of decision-making further integrates reading and writing.

Modeling may be the most familiar method to teachers teaching RWC. The basic idea of modeling is that students read the source text closely, analyze the source text, and try to apply what they learn from the source text into their writing. Modeling has been widely used in both L1 and L2 context, and many studies (Abbuhl, 2011; Charney & Carlson, 1995; Hillocks, 1986; Macbeth, 2010; Stolarek, 1994; Watson, 1982) support using models to enhance students' writing. For example, Watson (1982) suggested three reasons for using reading models for writing. First of all, through reading a model writing,

students get familiar with the convention of the target language, including words and patterns. Second, through modeling, students gain awareness of the various modes of rhetorical structure of writing, the purpose of using writing as a means of communication, and the anticipated audience. Third, through modeling, students learn the custom, culture, and value of the target language. In short, by analyzing the models, students can acquire the linguistic, rhetorical, and cultural conventions in the target language and apply them into writing in that target language.

When implementing writerly reading, mining, and modeling, audience awareness is of a particular significance. Audience awareness is a RWC competence that a writer considers readers' perspectives during the writing process, and applies different rhetorical strategies to different readers, and finally reach the goal of effective communication (Berkenkotter, 1981; Berrill, 1992; Ede & Lunsford, 1984). When linking writers with readers, audience awareness is positively correlated to effectiveness of rhetorical strategies. For example, Crowhurst and Piche (1979) found that, in order to achieve effective communication, students adjusted their syntactic complexity according to their readers. Students demonstrated greater syntactic complexity when writing to their teachers and weaker syntactical complexity when writing to their best friend. Similarly, Cohen and Riel (1989) found that students' audience awareness affected their writing choices. Students tended to write briefly to their teachers, assuming elaboration was tedious. On the other hand, students tended to use more slangs and colloquial expressions when writing to their peers. All in all, better writers tend to have better sense of their readers (F.-R. Chen, 2003, 2007; Crowhurst & Piche, 1979; Oswald, 2002; Skibniewski & Skibniewska, 1986). Incorporating audience awareness into teaching RWC can not only improve students' writing quality but also facilitate effective communication.

Research on Teaching RWC to Taiwan High School EFL Writers

Related research on how teaching reading-to-write RWC to Taiwan high school

writers affect their writing outcomes and rhetorical strategies is limited. Most of the following related research investigated the effects of teaching RWC through modeling approach on students' writing outcomes.

S.-j. Chen (2003) investigated the effects of reading-writing connection program (RWCP) on students' writing performance. 69 twelfth-graders of two classes had a writing pre-test and were exposed to the 12-week RWCP, in which students went through the process of modeling approach: students had to read a related essay, join in a group discussion about the essay and their writing topic, and finally proceed to their individual writing. After the instruction, students had a writing post-test, whose topic was identical to that of the pre-test. Pre-test and post-test were graded based on the CEEC scoring criterion, including content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. The results demonstrated that after receiving RWCP, students significantly improved content, organization, organization, vocabulary, and mechanics in their writing. but not significantly in language use.

Lin (2007) examined the effects of teaching RWC through model-based instruction on rhetorical organization and overall writing proficiency of students' writing. 39 twelfth-graders had pre-tests on description and cause-effect respectively. Then, they were divided into two groups according to their writing proficiency: the middle proficiency group (MPG) and the low proficiency group (LPG). After the pre-test, students were exposed to 10-week RWC pedagogy through model-based writing instruction, in which students had to read a model text and learned the rhetorical structure of the model text. Later, students had to write a paragraph with a similar topic. In the next week, students brought their first draft and did peer-editing. After receiving comments from their peers and teacher's comments on organization, content, and grammar, students wrote their second draft. Students had their final draft by correcting grammatical errors indicated by the teacher and got their final grade and comments. After the instruction, they had

post-tests on description and cause-effect respectively. The results showed that after receiving RWC, students of both middle proficiency and low proficiency made significant progress in organization and overall writing proficiency in both genre. Moreover, students of low proficiency made more progress than the those of middle proficiency.

Hsu (2007) compared two ways of teaching RWC (modeling approach and dialogic journal writing) on students' writing proficiency. 70 tenth-graders of two classes had a writing pre-test and were divided into guided writing group (modeling approach) and dialogic journal group (DJ). During the 16-week instruction, students who received modeling approach received explicit instruction on the text organization of a model text. After analyzing the model text, students were asked to write a composition whose topic was related to the model text. Students needed to imitate the organization of the model text and was encouraged to apply the phrases and patterns they learned from the model text into their writing. On the other hand, students in the dialogic journal group didn't receive explicit instruction on writing. They were required to hand in one dialogic journal entry every week. The topic could be either students' own choices or topics provided by the teacher. Teacher didn't correct or grade their journal entries but provided comments and responses to the entries. Students didn't need to revise their journal entries because what was focused was content. After the instruction, students had a writing post-test. Pre-test and post-test were evaluated based on CEEC scoring criteria and writing fluency (the number of words of the composition). The results indicated that both ways of teaching RWC significantly improved students writing in their overall writing performance and writing fluency, and there were no significant difference in writing performance between students undergoing two different RWC teaching.

Hung (2008) investigated and compared the effects of teaching RWC through model writing and teaching writing through creative writing on students' writing performance.

78 twelfth-graders at lower-intermediate level were divided into two groups, the model

writing group (MWG) and the creative writing group (CWG). Both groups have pre-test in the beginning. Then, during the 14-week instruction, students in MWG had to read a model text and analyzed the model text under teacher's guidance before they wrote a composition. Students received teacher's comment on their writing in the following week. On the other hand, students in CWG read the topic, had a prewriting discussion in which they collected ideas, and finally wrote a composition. They also received teacher's comment on their writing in the next week. After teaching, both groups had a post-test whose topic was the same as the pre-test, and finished a questionnaire. Pre-test and post-test were evaluated based on CEEC scoring criteria. The results indicated that both students who received RWC and students who received creative writing improved their writing significantly and there was no significant difference in their writing between RWC and creative writing..

Li (2011) researched on the effects of teaching RWC through modeling approach on language use and organization of students' writing. 39 twelfth-graders had a pre-test first and then received model writing instruction for three months. During the instruction students were required to read a relevant model text with teacher's explicit explanation before writing. Having finished three writing exercises during the instruction, students had post-test. Pre-test and posttest were graded in terms of language use and organization based on CEEC scoring criteria. The results showed that students who received RWC significantly improved their organization and language use in their writing.

Fang (2016) compared the effects of teaching RWC through modeling approach and process-oriented writing instruction on students' writing performance. 54 tenth-graders of two classes had a writing pre-test and then were exposed to two different writing instruction for 10 weeks. One class of 27 students received model-based writing instruction (MB) and the other 27 received process-oriented writing instruction (PO). Students in MB group were required to preview a guided writing picture first and read a

model essay through which they became familiar with paragraph structure, grammar patterns, cohesive device, and vocabulary. Then, they started drafting and received teacher's correction. Next, students had a discussion in pair and finally wrote their own paragraph. Students in PO group were required to preview a guided writing picture and then engaged in brainstorming activities to generate ideas and organize them logically. After that, they started drafting and received teacher's correction. Next, students had a discussion in pair and finally wrote their own paragraph. After the 10-week instruction, students had a writing post-test. Pre-test and post-test were evaluated based on CEEC scoring criteria. The result suggested that students of both MB group and PO group significantly improved their total writing scores and the scores of five criteria. However, there was no significant difference between students who received RWC and those who received process-oriented writing.

None of the aforementioned studies investigated students' audience awareness. The review of teaching RWC indicates that teaching RWC has positive effects on students' writing, especially in helping them get better grades in English composition of General Scholastic Ability Test (GSAT). However, these modeling research didn't investigate students' audience awareness as audience awareness was not incorporated.

Very scarce RWC studies focus on audience awareness except a few. For example, Yang (2009) investigated how writing problem-posing dialogue journal writing (PPDJW) affected students' audience awareness in their writing. 70 tenth-graders in Kaohsiung joined the 14-week PPDJW project. During instruction, teacher gave students advice columns as problem-posing prompts for in-class writing, with four themes senior high school students were likely to encounter. Then, after writing their solutions to the prompts, students exchanged their prompts and gave response to their peers. Each them lasted for two weeks and students also had to finish their take-home PPDJW when a theme ended. In total, they wrote eight in-class PPDJW and four take-home PPDJW. Before and after

the instruction, pre-questionnaire, post-questionnaire, pretest, and posttest were administered. The results from the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire indicated there was significant difference in their self-perception of audience awareness after the PPDJW project. Students believed they considered their audience more and made more modification based on audience response in their writing. Applying a scoring rubric of salutation & closing, focus on assigned topic, and vocabulary & language patterns, the results from the pretest and posttest indicated that students made significant improvement in salutation and closing, realizing they were writing a letter to their readers. Besides, they also made significant improvement in their vocabulary & language patterns, which implied that students learned appropriate words and patterns and apply them into their writing. However, students didn't make significant improvement in thematic unity, since some of them may stick to their own experience instead of providing solutions to the topic.

Although Yang (2009) investigated students' audience awareness, it didn't answer whether incorporating audience awareness into teaching RWC helped students in coping with their GSAT composition. The present research attempts to fill the gap by exploring if incorporating audience awareness into RWC practices of mining, writerly reading, and modeling improves students' writing GSAT outcomes and rhetorical strategies.



CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This study aims to investigate how teaching RWC affects EFL high school students' writing performance and how students' language proficiency relates to RWC pedagogy. This chapter describes the research method used in the study. First, the research design is described. Second, participants of the study are introduced. Followed by participants is an introduction to RWC pedagogy. Instrument and data collection procedures are also explained. Finally, data analysis is presented in the last part of this chapter.

Research Design

This study is a quasi-experimental research to investigate how RWC pedagogy affected Taiwanese novice writers' rhetorical strategies and writing outcomes. Two groups of students, experimental and control groups were given RWC pedagogy and traditional pedagogy respectively.

This study lasted for 15 weeks, starting from September, 2015. At the beginning of the study, students of both groups had a pre-writing test of pictured-based narrative (see appendix A). Next, students of both groups received reading instruction and had same writing tasks. However, when teaching reading and writing, students in the experimental group received RWC pedagogies, in which they learned how to link reading and writing together by focusing on audience awareness, they practiced various rhetorical strategies in relation to audience concern through mining, writerly reading, and modeling, and they were encouraged to apply them into their writing. Students in the experimental group not only learned what strategies to apply but also learned when and why to apply these strategies based on different task genres and different concern of readership. That is, they considered their audience before adding mechanical grammatical features into their writing. By contrast, students in the control group learned reading and writing in a more

traditional way. Reading was taught in grammar-translation method. As for writing, although they had the same writing assignment as the experimental group, instead of writerly reading exercise, they had vocabulary-translation exercises. When it comes to mining and modeling, although they had the same worksheets as the experimental group did, the foci of the exercises were on adding certain grammatical features into their writing and imitate the model in terms of organization, vocabulary, and sentence structures, rather than considering readers, contexts, rhetorical strategies. In week 8, the first post-writing test (see appendix B) was administered. The first post-writing test was also a picture-based narrative. The purpose of using the same genre was based on the hypotheses that students of experimental group would better aware that their readers were professional teacher graders. In response to the target readership, therefore, they would demonstrate their knowledge and proficiency of narrative writing, such as adding more descriptive details, using more sophisticated words, phrases, and clauses to create dominant impressions that show rather than tell a story. Then, different treatments continued. In the last week, the second post-writing test (see appendix C) of writing a letter was administered. This task asked students to write a letter to either their parents, siblings, or lovers to clarify a misunderstanding as they felt angry and disappointed because of a misunderstanding. Students were asked to describe how and why the misunderstanding arose and to clarify the misunderstanding to earn forgiveness from the offended party. The reason to use a different genre is based on the hypothesis that students in the experimental group would consider their audience more than those in the control group. It is expected that students in the experimental group would use more rhetorical strategies to express their remorse, empathy, willingness to change or to take responsibility by taking the offended party's feeling into consideration. Finally, students in the experimental group completed a questionnaire on their perception of RWC pedagogy (see appendix D). The research design is briefly shown in

Table 1.

Table 1

Research Design

Ψ			
Treatment (week 2 to week 7)			
Control group			
nal reading/writing instruction			
T/1 V 1/2			
Post-test 1 – picture-based narrative (week 8)			
•			
Treatment (week 9 to week 14)			
Control group			
nal reading/writing instruction			
Post-test 2- writing a letter			
RWC Perception Questionnaire (experimental group only)			
(week 15)			

Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 87 twelfth-grade Taiwanese students from two classes (henceforth A and B) of a local senior high school in Taoyuan City. Class A, with 44 students, was assigned to experimental group and class B, with 43 students, was assigned to the control group. Overall English proficiency of students in this high school is considered intermediate in Taoyuan City. As for their writing proficiency, senior high school students do not have an English writing course until they are in twelfth grade,

according to the curriculum guidelines of the Ministry of Education. That is, these twelfth-grade participants did not receive any formal writing instruction before this research.

RWC Pedagogy

This section illustrates the RWC pedagogy designed and implemented in the experimental group. Teaching materials included the Sanmin Reader Book 5 (2012 version), teacher-designed worksheets, and worksheets selected and adapted from *Daily 6-Trait Writing, Grade 6*, *Houghton Mifflin English: Workbook Plus Grade 6*, and *Houghton Mifflin Reading: Practice Book, Volume 2 Grade 6*. After the writing pretest, in week 2, students learned to use dialogue to develop characters in a narrative (see appendix E). In this activity, students read two versions of narratives, one with dialogues and the other without dialogues. Through comparing the two narratives, students learned that with dialogues, the characters seemed to be developed more clearly. After that, their attention was drawn to the fact that there was no dialogue in version 1 and there were full of dialogues in version 2. Then they were questioned and discussed if the two versions were written appropriately, what the advantages and disadvantages of each version were, and when to or not to use dialogue if they were to write their own piece.

After the dialogue-adding activity, they read two versions of a story written in different point of views (see appendix F). They realized that writing in a different point of view can affect the voice. Later, they referred to their pretest paper of picture-based narrative and were asked to consider what their potential readers would be. Considering their potential readers to be the grading teachers, they discussed which point of view and what kind of voice to adopt so that their writing could better stand out. Finally, they rewrite their pretest papers, adding dialogues and shifting point of views if they found it necessary.

In week 3, students read a paragraph selected from the unit 1 of Sanmin reader with

the first and the last sentence intact and the rest in blank (see appendix G). Then, they had a group discussion to fill in the blank, thinking what the "specific details of these programs" might be. Later, they compared their paragraph with the paragraph written in the textbook. They were questioned why the writer began the paragraph with "It goes without saying...", and what writing purpose of this paragraph might be. Besides, they discussed why the writer ended the paragraph by "This is what Eric discovered" instead of "This is what Eric and Pamela discovered." After the discussion, they read the whole article (see appendix H) and discussed how the writer link paragraphs. Finally, they were asked to read one paragraph closely to identify the phrase that also referred to "Eric Chen" (see appendix I). After that, they would learn the lexical cohesion principle when introducing a new character. Full name usually came first, followed by first name or last name, and then the pronoun.

In week 4, after learning unit 4 of Sanmin reader (see appendix J), students had a mining activity (see appendix K) to find out phrases and sentences that describe the main character's anxiety and calming down. After that, students were taught the structure of narrative, including orientation, complication, sequence of events, resolution, and evaluation. Next, they had to identify paragraphs in unit 4 that corresponded to the structure. After they finished these two activities, they were asked to write a narrative to describe their own experience of feeling anxious and mark down the sentence or paragraphs that correspond to the structure of narratives.

In week 5, students' writings were corrected and turned back. Then, they engaged in discussion about whether they applied sentences they learned in the textbook into their writing and what writing decisions they had made. After this, they were assigned the worksheet of "writing good sentences" (see appendix L), in which they read two types of short passages, one filled with declarative sentences only, and the other with interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences. Through the comparison from the readers'

perspectives, students understood that variation in sentences could make the whole paragraph more vivid. Later, students complete the task of the worksheet, turning the underlined declarative sentences into interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences according to contextual and readers' concerns. After completing the worksheet, they were encouraged to share their rhetorical considerations of choosing three types of sentences and who were their imagined audience of the passage. After sharing and peer critiques, students were asked to revise their own writing, focusing on audience expectations and rhetorical variations.

In week 6, students read a paragraph selected from the unit 5 of Sanmin reader with the first and the last sentence intact and the rest in blank (see appendix M). In this activity, students had to anticipate what kind of extreme people might have gone to make themselves more beautiful, filling the blanks. Next, they compared their writing with the paragraph in the reader (see appendix N). They were questioned why the author seemed not to add sentence variation as they learned in the previous week, what might be the author's purpose of doing so. They also considered what they would write if they were to change the purpose from making a point to persuading others.

After discussion, students engaged in modeling exercise (see appendix O) and learned the concept of topic sentence, supporting ideas, and concluding sentence.

Moreover, they were also asked to mark down transitional words and useful expressions in the model writing. Drawing on RWC pedagogy, the teacher explicitly explained how writing conventions, topic sentences, and usage of transitional words could reflect the writer's audience awareness. Moreover, helping students to read the model article the other way around, the teacher guided the students to take the writer's perspective to analyze the organization and usage of transitions. Finally, students had a writing assignment with the same title "Is Cosmetic Surgery Worth It?"

In week 7, students' works were corrected and turned back. Students read the model

text again to look for traits of word and pattern usage and discuss them from both the writer and reader's views. Then, they discussed what effects and necessities of using sophisticated words and pattern had on the writing. Finally, they rewrite their own works if they found it necessary.

In week 9, the first writing posttest paper administered in week 8 was corrected and returned back to students. Students were given the worksheet "adding exact verbs" (see appendix P). They read the story and replaced underlined verbs with "more specific" verbs by taking reader and writing purposes into consideration since different readers for different purposes would demand different lexical choices. Then, they discussed what the motion effects of using different verbs. They were also encouraged to share what changes they would make if their audience were different. Then, students were also taught to consult a collocation dictionary to find other options. After the activity, students had to revise their writing by focusing on changing verbs and its lexicogrammatical structures if necessary. The teaching cycle from week 10 to 13 repeated as students shifted their focus to nouns, adjectives and adverbs, prepositional phrases, and transitional phrases. That is, lexical choices and grammars were discussed under consideration of RWC in realtion to texts, contexts, and audience.

In week 14, students were asked to write an advice letter to their best friend, who was so addicted to video games that he/she fell behind in schoolwork and was scolded by his/her parents. The writing prompt is actually the 2012 GSAT papers. Next, they read different excellent works and discussed what positions different writers took, what strategies different writers applied to give advice to their best friends, what forms of language they would use when giving advice. Finally, they created their own piece. The total RWC pedagogy weekly schedule is shown briefly in Table 2.

Table 2

RWC Pedagogy Weekly Schedule

10,701	caagogy reckly schedule	
Week	Teaching Contents	Writing Assignments
2	Mining: dialogues, point of view	Revision of the writing pre-test in
		week 1
3	Writerly reading	Grammars; Translation
	Mining: lexical cohesion.	
4	Mining: marking down useful phrases	Describe an experience of feeling
	Modeling: rhetorical structure of narrative	anxious
5	Mining: sentence Variation	Revision of week 4
6	Writerly reading	"Is Cosmetic Surgery Worth It?"
	Modeling: structure of paragraph	
7	Modeling: sentence pattern	Revision of week 6
9	Mining: Verbs	Revision of the first writing post-test
		paper in week 8
10	Mining: Nouns	Revision of week 9
11	Mining: Adjectives / Adverbs	Revision of week 10
12	Mining: Prepositional phrases	Revision of week 11
13	Mining: Transitional words	Revision of week 12
14	Modeling: letter writing	Revision of week 13

Instruments

The research instruments in this study include one writing pretest and two writing and a feedback questionnaire.

Writing pretest/posttests

The writing pretest (see appendix A) was administered in the first week of the semester to make sure students' proficiency of class A and B were similar. The two posttests in two different genres (see appendix B and C) were administered in week 8 and week 15 respectively. The reason to have two posttests in different genres was to see if students applied different rhetorical strategies when encountering different genres. Writing pretest and posttests were designed based on the composition questions of General Scholastic Ability Test (GSAT). The reasons to choose GSAT composition questions are two. First, GSAT is a standardize test and has explicit grading criteria; its reliability and validity are guarded. Second, the twelfth-grade students have to take GSAT writing test after the semester; teaching them to cope with entrance exam composition is also one of the main objectives of the English writing course.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is administered to the students in experimental group during the last week to investigate their perception of RWC pedagogy. The questionnaire consisted of 31 questions in the form of 4 point Likert scale to investigate the extents to which students like RWC pedagogy, to which students find RWC pedagogy beneficial to their writing, to which students apply what they learned to their writing, and to which students think reading and writing should be taught together. Besides, two open-ended questions were offered to see students' feedback and suggestions of RWC pedagogy.

Data Analysis

To answer RQ1 if students benefited more in their writing outcomes through RWC pedagogy, data collected from the writing pretest and posttests were graded by the researcher and an experienced English teacher to guard inter-rater reliability. Pearson's r showed that r=.822, p<.05, which indicated there was correlation and agreement between two raters and thus inter-rater reliability was guarded. The grading scheme of writing

pre-test was the CEEC English Composition Grading Criteria and is shown in Table 3. Students' scores of writing outcomes in writing pre-test, the first writing posttest, and the second writing posttest were collected and analyzed. An independent t-test was conducted to see if there were significant differences between experimental group and control group in the above indexes.



Table 3

The CEEC English Composition Grading Criteria

	Excellent	Fair	Weak	Poor
Content	✓ Entirely relevant. ✓ Supported by concrete, complete details. (5-4 points)	✓ Mostly relevant. ✓ Lack supporting details. (3 points)	✓ Topic not well addressed. (2-1 points)	✓ Topic not addressed (0 point)
Organization	 ✓ Ideas logically organized and well developed. ✓ Wide and appropriate use of linking devices. ✓ Appropriate paragraphing. (5-4 points) 	 ✓ Ideas not fully developed. ✓ Inappropriate use of linking devices. ✓ Disproportional paragraphing. (3 points) 	✓ Ideas confused or disconnected. ✓ Lacks logical sequencing and developing. (2-1 points)	✓ Does not communicate.✓ No organization. (0 point)
Grammar	 ✓ Wide range of structure is used. ✓ Structures are sophisticated and effective. ✓ Very few grammatical errors. (4 points) 	✓ Structures are accurate but simple. ✓ Errors do not hinder expression of ideas. (3 points)	 ✓ Wrong sentence structures hinder comprehension. ✓ Incomplete sentences. ✓ Inappropriate use of conjunctions. (2-1 points) 	✓ Does not communicate. ✓ No mastery of sentence construction rules. (0 point)
Diction & Spelling	✓ Accurate and appropriate use of vocabulary. ✓ Very few spelling errors. (4 points)	 ✓ Repetitive or limited use of vocabulary. ✓ Errors are rare. (3 points) 	✓ Inappropriate use of vocabulary. ✓ Meanings are obscure or incomprehensib le. (2-1 points)	Does not convey complete ideas. (0 point)
Mechanics	✓ Demonstrate mas ✓ No error in punct capitalization. (2 points)	tery of conventions. uation,	✓ Errors are rare and do not hinder comprehension (1 point)	✓ Ignorance of conventions. ✓ Numerous errors. (0 point)

Note: This grading criteria is the old version; mechanics has been deleted in the new version

To answer RQ1 if students considered their readers and adjusted their rhetorical strategies that improved their CEEC test outcomes, syntactic complexity in students' pretest, the first writing posttest, and the second writing posttest were analyzed. Syntactic complexity was measured by counting the number of clauses per T-unit (C/T ratio). According to Lu (2011), C/T ratio is related to the amount of subordination in writing. Syntactic complexity was evaluated using the Web-based L2 Syntactical Complexity Analyzer developed by Lu (2011). The hypothesis was that students in the experimental group considered their readers to be professional teacher graders in the first writing posttest (picture-based narrative), their use of rhetorical strategies would focus on using descriptive or specific words, dialogical strategies, and metaphorical usages in order to create dominant impressions to show a story rather than to tell a story or to demonstrate his/her writing knowledge and proficiency. Therefore, it was expected that students' writing of the experimental group would be syntactically more complex than those of the control group. On the other hand, as students in the experimental group considered their audience to be people who are close to them in the second writing posttest (writing a letter to either friends, lovers, or parents to explain and clarify a misunderstanding to earn their forgiveness), their use of rhetorical strategies shifted to explaining the misunderstanding and applying apology strategies to earn forgiveness. They would adopt more rhetorical strategies to express their excuses, remorse and empathy of the offended party.

To further investigate the difference of rhetorical strategy use between the experimental and the control group in the second writing posttest, discourse analysis was conducted on students' writing of both groups. The scheme for discourse analysis was adapted from the description of apology speech act provided by Jung (2004) and Scher and Darley (1997). According to Scher and Darley (1997), "illocutionary force indicating device" (expression of apology), "expression of responsibility," "promise of forbearance"

(promise of non-recurrence), and "offer of repair" were the four apology strategies considered appropriate and effective. In addition, "empathy with how the offended felt" was added since writers should empathize with the readers to satisfy readers' needs and achieve the writers' goal (Blumenfeld, 2012). Finally, "explanation of misunderstanding" was added since this was the stated requirement of the second writing posttest. Therefore, the scheme for discourse analysis consisted of six categories, representing different rhetorical strategy to reflect the offended party's needs. The data analysis based on the scheme for discourse analysis is illustrated in Table 4. Based on the scheme, students' writing of both groups was marked if certain rhetorical strategy was used. Finally, the frequency of using each rhetorical strategy was counted and two sample difference between proportions Z-test was conducted to see if there was a significant difference of rhetorical strategy use between the experimental group and the control group.

Table 4
Scheme for Discourse Analysis

Rhetorical Strategy	Explanation/Examples
Expression of apology	"I'm sorry." "Please forgive me."
Expression of responsibility	"I didn't mean to." "It was my fault."
	"I completely forgot it."
Promise of non-recurrence	"It won't happen again."
	"I promise I will never do that again."
Offer of repair	"I will do everything to fix it."
Empathy with how the offended felt	"I know you are sad and angry about my
	behavior." "(What I did) made you feel
	(negative emotion)."
Explanation of misunderstanding	Explain how the misunderstanding was caused

To answer research question 2, questionnaires for students in RWC group were collected and analyzed. The indexes for writing analysis, how to measure the indexes, and tools for statistical analysis are shown in table 5.

Table 5 *Indexes for writing analysis, measurement of indexes, and statistical analysis of indexes*

Indexes	Measurement of Indexes	Statistical analysis of Indexes
Writing outcomes	Two rater's grading using CEEC Grading Criteria	
Syntactic complexity	The number of clauses per T-unit (C/T) using Web-based L2 Syntactical Complexity Analyzer	Independent t-test
Rhetorical strategies	Discourse analysis	Two sample difference between proportions Z-test

CHAPTER 4

RESULT

This chapter presents the result of data analysis, which is displayed in accordance with the research questions.

How does RWC pedagogy affect Taiwanese novice writers' writing outcomes and rhetorical strategies?

To answer how RWC pedagogy affected students' writing outcomes in the first research question, an independent t-test was applied. Comparison of experimental group and control group during pre-test is shown in Table 6. The results show that there was no significant difference on the scores of writing outcomes (p=.568), C/T (p=.545), between two groups. That means generally speaking, both groups seemed homogeneous in pretest.

Table 6

T-test Comparison between Experimental and Control Group in Pretest

	Mean (j,	//		
	Experimental	Control	df	/ t	p
	(N=44)	(N=43)	0'//	/	
Writing outcomes	10.40 (2.11)	10.20 (2.09)	85	.444	.658
C/T	1.61 (.31)	C 1.66 (.52)	68.65	609	.545

^{*}p<0.05

Comparison of experimental group and control group during the first post-test is shown in Table 7. It shows that there was a significant difference on the scores of writing outcomes (p=.021), and C/T (p=.049) between two groups.

Table 7

T-test Comparison between Experimental and Control Group in the First Posttest

	Mean (S				
	Experimental	Control	df	t	p
	(N=44)	(N=43)			
Writing outcomes	11.34 (2.71)	9.89 (3.04)	85	2.352	.021*
C/T	1.58 (.35)	1.42 (.40)	85	1.995	.049*

^{*}p<0.05

Comparison of experimental group and control group during the second posttest is shown in Table 8. It shows that there was a significant difference on the scores of writing outcomes (p<.001) between two groups. On the other hand, there was no significance on the scores of lexical complexity (p=0.218), C/T (p=0.558).

Table 8

T-test Comparison between Experimental and Control Group in the Second Posttest

	Mean (S	_		
\\	Experimental	Control	$df \rightarrow t$	p
\\	(N=44)	(N=43)		
Writing outcomes	11.71 (1.73)	9.41 (2.77)	85 4,652	.000*
C/T	1.91 (.53)	1.83 (.73)	85 .588	.558

^{*}p<0.05

To answer how RWC pedagogy affected students' rhetorical strategy in the first research question, discourse analysis was conducted to count students' frequency use of different rhetorical strategies and the result is shown in table 9. As it indicated, students in the experimental group seemed to use different rhetorical strategies more frequently than students of the control group (See Table 9, Experimental group= 140; Control group= 108). To further examine if the difference is statistically significant, two sample difference between proportions z-test was conducted and the result is shown in Table 10

Two Sample Difference between Proportions Z-test. P₁ means the proportion of using certain strategy in the experimental group, and P₂ means the proportion of using certain strategy in the control group. As the result indicated, there was no proportion difference of using "Expression of apology." According to Table 10, the proportion of using "Expression of responsibility," "Promise of non-recurrence," "Offer of repair," and "Empathy with how the offended felt" in the experimental group was higher than that in the control group, the difference was not statistically significant (p=0.36, p=0.11, p=0.09, p=0.34 respectively). However, the proportion of using "Explanation of misunderstanding" in the experimental group is higher than that in the control group, and the difference was statistically significant (p=0.02).

Table 9
Frequency use of Rhetorical Strategies

-	Experimental (N=44)	Control (N=43)
Expression of apology	44	43
Expression of responsibility	34	30
Promise of non-recurrence	13	5
Offer of repair	engchis //	11
Empathy with how the offended felt	11	8
Explanation of misunderstanding	20	11
Total	140	108

Table 10

Two Sample Difference between Proportions Z-test

	P_1	P_2	P_1 - P_2	SE	Z	p
Expression of apology	1	1	0			
Expression of responsibility	0.77	0.70	0.08	0.21	0.36	0.36
Promise of non-recurrence	0.30	0.12	0.18	0.14	1.24	0.11
Offer of repair	0.41	0.26	0.15	0.12	1.32	0.09
Empathy with how the offended felt	0.25 政	0.19	0.06	0.15	0.42	0.34
Explanation of	1		7			
misunderstanding	0.45	0.26	0.20	0.10	1.98	0.02

^{*}p<0.05

What are students' response to RWC pedagogy?

To answer the second research question, questionnaires (with 26 closed-ended questions in 4-point Likert scale and 1 open-ended question) were collected and calculated. The result was shown in Table 11, with the items translated into English. Responses to item 1 revealed that 59.4% of the students agreed that writerly reading enhanced their understanding of coherence.

Responses to item 2 revealed that 71.9% of them agreed that finding referred phrases in reading enhanced their understanding of lexical cohesion.

Responses to item 3 to 5 revealed that 71.9 of them agreed that modeling narrative enhanced their understanding of narratives. However, only about half of them agreed that narrative writing was not difficult. Besides, 56.2% of them claimed that didn't apply what

they learned to their narrative writing.

Responses to item 6 revealed that 70% of them agreed that mining text for useful phrases enhanced their word usage in their writing.

Responses to item 7 to 9 revealed that 68.7% of them agreed that modeling argumentation enhanced their understanding of argumentation but only 34.4% of them agree that argumentation writing was not difficult and only 31.3% of them applied what they learned into their writing.

Responses to item 10 and 11 revealed that 56.3% of them agreed that RWC activities were useful to their writing but only 34.4% of them liked these activities.

Responses to item 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 revealed that most of them agreed that rewriting activities of adding different kinds of words, phrases, and pattern were enhanced their writing (53.1% in verb, 65.7% in sentence variety, 71.9% in learned sentence structure, 56.3% in dialogues, 71.9% in adjectives and adverbs, and 71.9% in transitional words).

Responses to item 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23 revealed that most of them agreed that rewriting activities of adding different kinds of words, phrases, and pattern were not difficult (56.3% in verbs, 59.4% in sentence variety, 62.5% in learned sentence pattern, 75% in dialogues, 71.9% in adjectives and adverbs, and 71.9% in transitional words).

Responses to item 24 revealed that 75% of them agreed that rewriting activities enhanced their writing.

Responses to item 25 and 26 revealed that 87.5% of them agreed that reading and writing should be taught together and 34.4% of them agreed that reading and writing should be taught separately.

Table 11
Students' Response to RWC Pedagogy

Stud	ents' Response to RWC Pedagogy					
	Item	SD	D	A	SA	Total
1.	Paragraph fill-in-blank activity before					
	teaching reading enhances your					
	understanding of coherence.					
	f	1	12	15	4	32
	%	3.1	37.5	46.9	12.5	100
2.	Finding referred phrases in reading					
	enhances your understanding of lexical					
	cohesion.	1	8	18	5	32
	f	3.1	25	56.3	15.6	100
	9/ ₀	10.				
3.	Explaining the elements of narrative		1			
	(orientation, conflict, climax, resolution)			m //		
	when teaching reading enhances your			History 1	\\	
	understanding of narrative writing.	=//				
	f	0	9	16	7	32
	%	0	28.1	50	21.9	100
4.	Narrative writing is not difficult for you.			7		
	\mathcal{F}	5	11	.14	/2	32
	%	15.6	34.4	43.8	6.3	100
5.	You apply the elements of narrative when		1017			
	writing a narrative.	ichi ') .			
	f	5	13	14	0	32
	%	15.6	40.6	43.8	0	100
6.	Mining useful phrases from reading					
	enhances your word usage in your writing					
	f	1	7	17	7	32
	%	3.1	21.9	53.1	21.9	100
7.	Modeling enhances your understanding of					
	augmentation writing.					
	f	0	10	15	7	32
	%	0	31.3	46.9	21.9	100
8.	Argumentation writing is not difficult for					
	you.					

	f	8	13	11	0	32
	%	25	40.6	34.4	0	100
9.	You apply the concept of argumentation					
	writing when you are writing an					
	argumentation.					
	f	6	16	10	0	32
	%	18.8	50	31.3	0	100
10.	Generally speaking, these reading-writing					
	connection activities are useful to your					
	writing.					
	f	1	13	12	6	32
	%	3.1	40.6	37.5	18.8	100
	Generally speaking, you like these					
	reading-writing connection activities					
	<i>f</i>	4	17	6	5	32
	9/0	12.5	53.1	18.8	15.6	10
12.	Rewriting activity (adding exact verb)					
	enhances your writing.		1			
		5	10	13	4	32
	9%	15.6	31.3	40.6	12.5	10
13.	Rewriting activity (adding exact verb) is					
	not difficult for you.		*	, //		
		2	12	16	2	32
	9%	6.3	37.5	50	6.3	10
14.	Rewriting activity (adding sentence variety) enhances your writing.	i Uri				
	variety) enhances your writing.	`				
	f	2	9	15	6	32
	%	6.3	28.1	46.9	18.8	10
15.	Rewriting activity (adding sentence					
	variety) is not difficult for you.					
	f	4	9	15	4	32
	%	12.5	28.	46.9	12.5	10
16.	Rewriting activity (adding learned					
	sentence structure) enhances your writing.					
	f	0	9	16	7	32
	%	0	28.1	50	21.9	100
17.	Rewriting activity (adding learned					
	sentence structure) is not difficult for you.					

	f	2	10	16	4	32
	%	6.3	31.3	50	12.5	100
18.	Rewriting activity (adding dialogues)					
	enhances your writing.					
	f	3	11	15	3	32
	%	9.4	34.4	46.9	9.4	100
19.	Rewriting activity (adding dialogues) is					
	not difficult for you.					
	f	2	6	23	1	32
	%	6.3	18.8	71.9	3.1	100
20.	Rewriting activities (adding adjectives and	d				
	adverb consulting a collocation dictionary					
	enhances your writing.					
	F	油	8	17	6	32
	0%	3.1	25	53.1	18.8	100
21.	Rewriting activities (adding adjectives and	1				
	adverb consulting a collocation dictionary					
	is not difficult for you.			Win	\\	
		3	6	16	7	32
	90	9.4	18.8	50	21.9	100
22.	Rewriting activities (adding transitional					
	words) enhances your writing.			1		
	f	1	8	95	8	32
	%	3.1	25 \@	46.9	25	100
23.	Rewriting activities (adding transitional	. \	70,1			
	words) is not difficult for you.	ichi '				
	f	3	6	20	3	32
	%	9.4	18.8	62.5	9.4	100
24.	Generally speaking, rewriting activities		1000	02.0		
	enhance your writing.					
	f	0	8	21	3	32
	<i>y</i> %	0	25	65.6	9.4	100
25.	You believe that reading and writing			05.0	<i></i>	100
23.	should be taught together—teach structure	<u>,</u>				
	of text and apply it to writing besides					
	pattern and grammar in reading.					
	pattern and grammar in reading. f	0	4	11	17	32
	<i>J</i> %	0	12.5	34.4	53.1	100
	/0	U	14.3	34.4	55.1	100

26. You believe reading and writing should be taught separately—teach pattern and grammar in reading and teach writing principles when writing.

5 16 15.6 50

8

25

13

9.4

32

100

27. What's your feedback to RWC pedagogy?

Note: N=32;f: frequency; %: percentage; SD: Strongly Disagree; D: Disagree; A: Agree; SA: Strongly Agree

As for the open-ended response, students' responses were translated into English.

Three students claimed they felt RWC exercise quite useful for their writing.

- S1: Finding the referred word is nice! It enhances my ability in narrative writing.
- S2: Combining reading and writing helps my writing a lot. Because the model is provided, I have deeper understanding of writing.
- S3: Explain the content of the article first to stimulate interest in reading before further discussion!

Drawing on RWC concept, two students suggested letting them choose topics of their interests. For example

S4:Let us get in groups and pick up topics or issues we are interested in writing.

That way, each group can share their story behind the composition and why choosing this topic, who they are speaking to. Sharing thoughts in English on stage can let us practice speaking and enhance understanding and expressions of main I deas

When taking readership into consideration, one student suggested practicing writing for English magazine would be a good idea.

S5: It would be more effective to teach reading and writing incorporating the magazine. The topics in the magazine are worth thinking.

However, two students reported their learners' views about audience awareness.

S6: The idea of considering the audience is obvious to me. The audience is the teacher.

S7: I think I grasp some ideas about audience. But is it really OK to write simple in letter writing in the entrance exam? I am worried that I will get low grades because of it.

When it comes to the concern of RWC, one student concerned that the English proficiency for some of them was so low that they had difficulty writing freely, which had nothing to do with the pedagogy.

S8:In fact, the English ability for some of us is not so good. No matter how easy the exercise may seem, it looks Greek to us. It's not the teacher's problem. Just find it hard when learning.

In summary, most students agreed that writerly reading enhanced their understanding of coherence. Most students thought modeling narrative and argumentation enhanced their understanding of writing in both genres; however, most of them didn't find it easy to write in both genres. Besides, most of them didn't apply what they learned into their writing. Most of them agreed that mining activities enhanced their writing and these activities were not difficult for them. Generally speaking, most of them agreed that these RWC activities were useful to writing, although they didn't necessarily liked these activities. More than 87.5% of them agreed that reading and writing should be taught together but still 34.4% of them agreed that reading and writing should be taught separately. Lastly, according to their feedback, there should be more writing practice and diverse writing topics.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

According to the results, students of experimental group, who received RWC pedagogy, performed significantly better in writing outcomes in both the first and the second posttests. These findings suggested that RWC pedagogy could better benefit Taiwanese high school students' GSAT writing proficiency.

Besides, the performance of experimental group in the C/T measure of syntactic complexity also corresponded to the research hypotheses that students who received RWC pedagogy may also be better at applying different rhetorical strategies according to their audience. As seen in the first writing pretest, students of experimental group, having considered their audience to be professional teacher graders, used more sophisticated words, phrases, and subordinate patterns to sharpen their picture-based narratives.

Therefore, the scores of C/T ratio of experimental group were significantly higher than those of control group. On the other hand, as seen in the second writing posttest, because the imagined readers were their parents, siblings, or lovers, students of the experimental group had scores of syntactical complexity no significant difference from those of control group. The findings are also consistent with the findings of Crowhurst and Piche (1979). Students' syntactic complexity was higher when writing to their teachers but lower when writing to their peers.

When it comes to the discourse analysis of students' rhetorical strategy, students of experimental group put themselves into their audience's shoes to write a letter for apology. They used more empathic discourse and more rhetorical strategies to explain their remorse, excuses, and to ask for forgiveness. All the six categories of rhetorical strategies

were used more by the students in the experimental group than those in the control group. The rhetorical strategy that was used the most by both of the groups is "Expression of apology." This revealed that students of both groups knew the purpose of the task in the second writing posttest was to ask for forgiveness. Besides, although the difference of using "Expression of Responsibility," "Promise of Non-occurrence," "Offer of repair," "Empathy with how the offended felt" was not statistically significant, the proportion of using these strategies in the experimental group was higher than that in the control group. This implied that students who received RWC pedagogy had better sense of audience awareness and applied more rhetorical strategies to achieve effective communication. If RWC could have been implemented for longer period of time, the differences could be more observable. Students of the experimental group used the rhetorical strategy of "Explanation of misunderstanding" statistically significant more than those in the control group. What is noted is that this strategy is what the second writing posttest asked students to do. Despite this, more students in the control group still didn't explain the misunderstanding. This implied that more students in the control group would stick to what they want to write instead of considering the audience, resulting in poorer writing quality. This confirmed the previous finding of Berkenkotter (1981) that students' audience awareness was linked to their writing quality.

According to their feedback in the questionnaire, most of them claimed that despite having modeling activities, they still didn't find it easy to master in narrative and argument and didn't apply what they learned into their writing. Short duration of RWC pedagogy may be able to explain this as students needed longer time and more exercise to internalize the links between reading and writing. In fact, their performance in the first writing posttest suggested they did apply what they learned into their narrative writing, although they claimed they didn't.

Finally, what is worth noted is that a few students expressed their concerns about

teaching audience awareness. One student found it not very helpful to learn audience awareness because the student thought the audience was always the teacher. The other student revealed his concern for adjusting rhetorical strategy in GSAT composition, worrying that using simple words, phrases or pattern could lead to poor grades in GSAT. Again, the worry came from the imagined audience to be the teachers who are prone to adopt standard conventions and vocabulary sophistication as grading norms. This phenomenon also appeared in the finding of Liang (2011) that most students tend to consider teachers to be their audience especially under the pressure of examination. Also, due to the EFL test-driven context, students lack real audience and this decontextualization could lead to their insensitivity of audience awareness (Nehal, 2004). Therefore, offering students real audience is more likely to enhance their audience awareness (Y.-H. Lee, 2013). Regardless of students' audience concern to be teachers, based on the present research, RWC pedagogy enhanced the experimental group students' audience concerns as well as writing outcomes. Writing outcomes and rhetorical strategies are not mutually exclusive but highly correlated. Good writers demonstrate better audience awareness (Berkenkotter, 1981). As evidenced by majority of students' recognition of RWC pedagogy, reading and writing should be taught together and audience awareness can be incorporated so that they could not only reach the goal of good writing outcomes in examinations but also be able to conduct effective communication in real life.



CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This section includes summary of the study, limitation of the study, and pedagogical implication.

Summary of the study

Due to the paucity of related research, the present research aimed to investigate how the 15-week RWC pedagogy affected Taiwanese novice writers' rhetorical strategies and writing outcomes. Two classes of twelfth-graders were assigned to experimental group and control group and had a pretest of picture-based narrative in the first week, second posttest of picture-based narrative in the eighth week, and second posttest of writing a letter to a close person. Experimental group received extra RWC exercises of writerly reading, modeling, and mining, in which they not only learned what elements to apply into their writing, but also learned why and how to apply rhetorical strategies by going through the diction-making process as the writers did, considering their audience and writing purpose. On the other hand, control group only learned to deliberately adding certain grammatical features without considering their audience and purpose. The results indicated that students of experimental group had better writing outcomes and demonstrated better rhetorical strategies as they adopted different rhetorical strategies when their audience were different.

Limitations of the study

First of all, this research is done in a small population size: only one class in a high school in Taoyuan. Therefore, the results could not be representative of all high school writers. More large-scale research is needed.

Second, the genres focused in the present study are narrative, letter, and argumentation only. The results cannot be generalized to other genres. More studies should be done to investigate if RWC pedagogy has effect on writing outcomes in other

writing genres.

Third, as with other research in high school context, the duration is only about one semester. One semester is actually quite short and it is difficult to see significant changes in writing in such a short time. According to Xu and Gao (2007), it takes two years to see significant improvement. Longitudinal study in teaching RWC is needed.

Pedagogical Implication and Suggestion

Based on the results, teaching RWC could better enhance students' writing outcomes and use of rhetorical strategies. Vast majority of them also agreed that reading and writing should be taught together. This implies that RWC pedagogy can be effective and should be implemented.

As students lack real audience in writing, teachers can ask them to write to a real person or do peer revision. Having real audience, students are more likely to get a better sense of audience awareness and therefore achieve effective communication.

For writing topics, teachers should offer more choices for students so that they had better motivation. For example, teacher can let students choose the reading of their own interest. This can definitely facilitate the implementation of RWC pedagogy.

Finally, modeling, writerly reading, and mining are all partial forms of linking reading and writing. Summary writing, dialogic journal, and extensive reading are also forms of linking reading and writing and worth consideration and implementation. This is especially true in the new 2019 Curriculum Guidelines. From 2022, there will no longer be required English class during the last semester of high school. Besides, for the entrance exam, students only have one exam, the GSAT in winter vacation. High school teachers must consider what writing competence students should be equipped with and how to motive students to cultivate the writing competence needed in the future instead of focusing on the exam alone.

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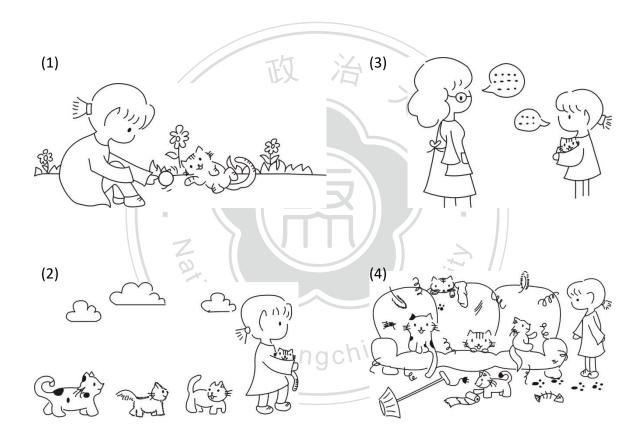
Appendix A

Task of Writing Pretest

說明:1. 依提示在「答案卷」上,寫一篇英文作文。

2. 文長至少 120 個單詞 (words)。

提示:請以下面編號 1 至 4 的四張圖畫內容為藍本,依序寫一篇文章,描述女孩與 貓之間的故事。你也可以發揮想像力,自己選定一個順序,編寫故事。請注 意,故事內容務必涵蓋四張圖意,力求情節完整、前後發展合理。



Appendix B

Task of the First Writing Posttest

說明:1. 依提示在「答案卷」上,寫一篇英文作文。

2. 文長至少 120 個單詞 (words)。

提示:請仔細觀察以下三幅連環圖片的內容,並想像第四幅圖片可能的發展,寫一篇涵蓋所有連環圖片內容且有完整結局的故事。



Appendix C

Task of the Second Writing Posttest

說明:1. 依提示在「答案卷」上,寫一篇英文作文。

2. 文長至少 120 個單詞 (words)。

提示:請寫一封信給一個人澄清誤會;對方因為這個誤會而對你感到生氣或失望, 對象可以是父母、兄弟姊妹、同學或(男)(女)朋友...等。信中請描述誤會發生的經過 及原因,將誤會解開,以獲取對方的諒解。信末署名限用 Andy 或 Alice。



Appendix D

Student Response Questionnaire

閱讀寫作活動意見問卷

同學們:這份問卷是想請問大家對這一學期寫作活動的意見,請大家給我一些回饋, 作為未來教學的參考。問卷匿名,不影響成績。請就真實感受作答即可,感謝你們!

	題目	很不 同意	不同意	同意	很 同意
1.	教課文前的段落挖空,有增加你對前後文連貫 的認知				
2.	在課文中找出指涉語,有讓你對詞語連貫更有概念				
3.	透過課文講解記敘文的要素有增加你對記敘文 寫作的概念	×			
4.	記敘文寫作的概念對你並不困難		柳		
5.	寫記敘文時,你有呈現出記敘文應有的寫作概念				
6.	從課文中整理有用的語句,有使你的寫作詞藻 更加豐富		7		
7.	透過範文分析,有讓你對議論文寫作更有概念		S		
8.	議論文寫作的概念對你並不困難	mive		/	
9.	寫議論文時,你有呈現議論文寫作的概念	5.			
10.	整體來說,這些透過閱讀連結寫作的活動,對你的寫作有幫助				
11.	整體來說,你喜歡閱讀結合寫作的活動				
12.	重寫活動(查搭配字典插入動詞)有增進你的寫作能力				
13.	重寫活動(查搭配字典插入動詞)對你並不困難				
14.	重寫活動(插入多樣化的句子)有增進你的寫作能力				

15.	重寫活動(插入多樣化的句子)對你並不困難			
16.	重寫活動(插入學過的句型)有增進你的寫作			
	能力			
17.	重寫活動(插入學過的句型)對你並不困難			
18.	重寫活動(插入對話)有增進你的寫作能力			
19.	重寫活動 (插入對話) 對你並不困難			
20	季 窗泛動 (木材配字曲柱) 形容勻 , 副勻) 左			
20.	重寫活動(查搭配字典插入形容詞、副詞)有增進你的寫作能力			
21.	重寫活動(查搭配字典插入形容詞、副詞)對			
21.	你並不困難			
22.	重寫活動(插入轉承語)有增進你的寫作能力	X		
23.	重寫活動(插入轉承語)對你並不困難	, LIK		
24.	整體來說,重寫活動有增進你的寫作內容			
25.	你覺得閱讀和寫作教學應該連結,教課文時,	7	5	
	除了句型文法外,還能講解架構,說明如何運	5		
26	用到寫作上	-,0		
26.	你覺得閱讀和寫作應該分開,教課文的時候專	17		
	心學句型文法,教寫作的時候再直接教寫作原則即可			
27.	你對閱讀寫作教學上的建議			
27.	[[]] [[] [[] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] []			

Appendix E

Mining-Dialogue

Use dialogue to develop your characters. Make them come alive through what they say and think

Read these two versions of a scene from a story. Which version gives you a clearer picture of the characters? Check the box.

Version 1

Veronica tugged at the hood of the little boy's sweatshirt. Veronica told him to show down. She called him by his nickname. Squeak. The boy, who was her stepbrother, didn't like that.

Veronica sighed. She wondered if her stepbrother would ever accept her as his big sister. She called him by his real name, Gerald, but reminded him that his mom calls him Squeak. Her stepbrother told her that she wasn't his mother. Veronica could see the tears in the boy's eyes, yet she felt herself getting angry anyway.

Version 2

Veronica tugged at the hood of the little boy's sweatshirt. "Please slow down, Squeak." She pleaded.

"My name is not Squeak, and you can't tell me what to do," the little boy muttered, "because you're not really my sister!" His voice rose to a shout.

Veronica sighed. She wondered if her stepbrother would ever accept her as his big sister. "OK, Gerald," she said, "Your name's not really Squeak, but that's what your mom calls you?"

"Yeah, but you're not my mother, are you?"

Veronica could see the tears in Squeak's eyes, yet she felt herself getting angry anyway. "No." she sighed, "but I'm still a part of your family."

Write one more line of dialogue for each character to say to the other at the end of the story. Use quotation marks correctly.				

Appendix F

Mining-Point of View			
Voice A story can be told from different points of view. Your point of view affects the voice you use when you write.			
Travis and Aunt Heather each wrote a personal narrative about the same situation. Read the narratives. Then answer the questions.			
My birthday is going to be a real bummer. First, I found out that Mom and Dad have to work all day, so I'll be spending the day with Aunt Heather. But then I saw her at the grocery store last night. "What are we going to do for my birthday?" I asked her. "Umm, I don't know," Aunt Heather said. She frowned a little bit. "But Mom and Dad said we could do something really fun!" "I know, but I think I caught a cold," she said with a sniffle. 1. What does Travis think will happen on his birthday?			
2. What kind of voice does he use in his narrative?			
Aunt Heather			
I ran into Travis at the grocery store today! He asked me what we were doing for his birthday. "Umm, I don't know," I told him as I tried not to smile. "Mom and Dad said we could do something really fun," he whined.			
"I know, but I think I caught a cold." I faked a sniffle. I think he believed me! I can't wait until Saturday when Travis finds out we're having a surprise birthday party for him!			
3. What does Aunt Heather know will happen on Travis's birthday?			

4. What kind of voice does she use in her narrative?

Appendix G

Writerly Reading-Unit 1

BK5 U1 Pre-reading activity

Class:,,,
It goes without saying that before Eric and Pamela set off on their journeys, they did a lot
of research to find out the specific details of these programs.
政治
(F5)
This is what Eric discovered before he decided to participate in the Work and
Travel USA program. Chengchi Cheng
Travel USA program. Chengchi United

Appendix H

Unit 1 of Sanmin Reader Book 5

Unit 1 Seeing for Yourself

Eric Chen, a twenty-year-old college student from Taiwan, has joined the Work and Travel USA program and has been working in Florida as a waiter in a buffet restaurant for three weeks. His duties include refilling trays and cleaning tables for customers. Boring as the job might seem, Eric has gained some special experiences from it. For example, a local customer wearing a Chinese tunic suit often practiced Mandarin with him, and an elderly lady once comforted him when he accidentally spilled salad dressing all over her clothes. Before the buffet restaurant opens for customers, Eric sits down and eats with his co-workers the meal prepared specifically for them by the chef. This helps Eric save money, so that he can afford to enjoy some of the area's famous tourist attractions on weekends.

Pamela Tsai, on the other hand, just graduated from college this year and is visiting Australia on the Australia Working Holiday Visa. Currently, she is working in a peach orchard near Melbourne. Before this, she worked at three other jobs: One was lobster packaging, another was grape pruning, and the other was ski repairing. Pamela likes Australia's relaxed atmosphere, but the job she is doing now is not easy. From 7 a.m. to 3 p.m., under the blazing sun, she needs to reach up and bend down to pick peaches and nectarines, and put them into buckets. Pamela, like many of the other working holiday travelers there, lives in an on-site caravan park, which provides backpackers with basic accommodations. After this job, she will join the Great Ocean Road tour and then fly to Gold Coast to enjoy the beaches and sunshine there.

It goes without saying that before Eric and Pamela set off on their journeys, they did a lot of research to find out the specific details of these programs. The Work and Travel USA program is open to students ranging in age from 18 to 28. After employers in cooperation with the program examine applicants' personal information and résumés, every applicant selected will have an interview with the program manager. Although students are required to possess a certain level of proficiency in English in order to live and work in the United States, what matters most is their passion and willingness to share and communicate. This is what Eric discovered before he decided to participate in the Work and Travel USA program.

As for Pamela, a 21-year-old woman who is fond of beautiful landscapes and natural environments, Australia was her first choice. As a result, she googled "working holiday in Australia" to know more about the life and jobs there. She learned that people who are older than 18 and younger than 30 are eligible to apply for the Australia Working Holiday Visa. She also found out that if she got a job there, she could earn some money to

supplement her funds while she was traveling abroad during the 12 months on this visa. Programs like the Work and Travel USA and the Working Holiday encourage young people to explore our planet. In addition to making money and gaining valuable work experience, those who take part in these programs can develop global perspectives, get a real taste of foreign cultures, and enhance their ability to solve problems. However, without a full understanding of these programs and a positive attitude, no one is guaranteed a memorable, worthwhile trip. Whoever is interested in these programs should be prepared for hard work, unexpected situations, and even problems like racial discrimination. When you are physically and mentally ready, go and see for yourself how amazing the world is.



Appendix I

Mining-Lexical Cohesion

任務:圈出指涉 Eric Chen 的詞語

Eric Chen, a twenty-year-old college student from Taiwan, has joined the Work and Travel USA program and has been working in Florida as a waiter in a buffet restaurant for three weeks. His duties include refilling trays and cleaning tables for customers. Boring as the job might seem, Eric has gained some special experiences from it. For example, a local customer wearing a Chinese tunic suit often practiced Mandarin with him, and an elderly lady once comforted him when he accidentally spilled salad dressing all over her clothes. What's more, every day before the buffet restaurant opens for customers, Eric sits down and eats with his co-workers the meal prepared specifically for them by the chef. This helps Eric save money, so that he can afford to appreciate some of the area's famous tourist attractions on weekends.

Chengchi Univer

討論:你可以從中歸納出什麼原則?

Appendix J

Unit 4 of Sanmin Reader Book 5

Unit 4 Butterflies and Elephants

Seven hundred faces stared at me. Some people were giggling, while others were quietly attentive. Wearing my white polka-dot dress, I stood onstage. I was one of the six girls in my senior class who had been voted to be a "princess" to represent our high school in a huge, citywide festival. When I was selected, I knew that I'd eventually have to give a speech. Despite my considerable anxiety, I decided to take on this challenge and conquer my fear of public speaking.

Little did the audience know that as I stood there looking "all together," my heart was actually beating like a drum. Then, I decided that this must not be true at all. Of course they could hear the hammering of my heart. "Dear God, what am I doing?" I said to myself. No butterflies remained in my stomach. No, now I had elephants. The thundering herd was threatening to trample me thoroughly. Nervousness filled my veins, making me feel light-headed.

I stepped toward the microphone. Aware of all the heads bobbing in the sea of faces before me, I began my speech. A few phrases tumbling out quickly, the tremor in my voice was noticeable. However, a growing sense of confidence began to build inside of me as the crowd quieted down. My muscles relaxed. My breathing eased. Maybe the weeks of practicing before my bedroom mirror was paying off. "Maybe I can really do this," I thought to myself.

Then, just thirty seconds into my three-minute speech, the microphone died. Glaring at the offending instrument of my potential downfall, I wondered if it might be possible to strangle an inanimate object! How could the microphone do this to me?

Outwardly paralyzed with horror and humiliation, I frantically plotted what I should do next. Should I run off the stage in despair or wait for the power to return to the

microphone? Time seemed to stand still, crystallizing a moment of opportunity—when intent suddenly meant everything.

I chose neither of my first two quick solutions. Instead, I faced this unexpected obstacle head-on: I closed my eyes to still my quaking limbs and forced out the hot anxiety in my lungs to make room for what I intended to do.

I took a deep breath, paused for a moment, and then continued. Before me, the hushed audience focused on each new word, as if I were a bird, singing out for the very first time.

Knowing that I had made the right decision, I felt the blood return to my pale face, along with a calm, sure feeling. Next, my voice boomed out. It reached far into the recesses of the upper balcony, where I could see people no longer bobbing in front of me, but sitting fascinated, and maybe amazed at how determined I was.

My soliloquy ended. Then, all of the students shouted and cheered, the large room vibrating with applause. I appeared humble on the outside, yet I was bursting with pride on the inside. I had mastered my greatest fear, along with a big extra dose of unforeseen adversity. I had driven the butterflies and elephants out of my stomach. At that moment, I honestly believed that this loud cheering was a new kind of elephant thundering in my ears!

In an instant, a realization swept over me like a gift-I could do anything! Taking a bow in my white polka-dot dress, I felt a glow that I would never forget. I realized that inside of me existed a young woman once tested-a young woman who was bolder than her fear.

Appendix K

Mining-Unit 4

BK5 U4 Writing Activities

	Class:	Number:	Name:			
任務 1:	找出在課文中描述	性主角「感到緊張	的語句			
Line	Sentence					
任務 2:	找出在課文中描述	『主角「鎮定下來	:」的語句			
Line	Sentence		_ X \\			
	/_	/ /				
			1/2			
		(/	· 3 \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \			
	-					
任務 3:	\ 7					
記敘文架						
Orientatio	on – sets the scene	and mood, introdu	ces characters and includes the when,			
where, w	ho or what.	72	:70.			
Complica	ation – the dilemma	or problem that s	ets off the events.			
Sequence	e of events – trigger	ed by the complic	ation, including the description of the			
events as	they happen (perha	aps with further co	mplications).			
Resolution – the climax or ending where the problem is resolved.						
Evaluation – a comment or evaluation of events in the story						

Appendix L

Mining-Sentence Variation

Writing Good Sentences 句子要多樣化

One type of	l like to look at the stars. I always look for the North Star.	
sentence	Once I saw a shooting star. I thought it was beautiful.	
Different types of	Have you ever noticed how many brilliant stars you can	
sentences	see? Look for the North Star. Once I saw a shooting star. It	
	was so beautiful!	

Writing Different Types of Sentences 1-6. Rewrite this science article. Change each underlined statement to a question, a command, or an exclamation, The word in parentheses will tell you which kind of sentence to write.

Revising

When the sun goes down, the night lights come up. This is a beautiful sight to see. (exclamation) First, you might spend some time looking at the moon. (command) Moonlight is sunlight reflected off the moon. Then you can move on to the twinkling lights in the sky. (command) The twinkling lights are stars. Some of the stars we see are more than 2.5 million lights-years away. (exclamation) You may notice pinpoints of light that do not twinkle. (question) They are planets. The night sky is so beautiful. (question)

1	
2	Changahi Uni
3	· chgch.
4	
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6.	

Appendix M

Writerly Reading-Unit 5

BK5 U5 Writing Activities

Class: Number:						
It's only human nature to pursue physical attractiveness. However, some people ma						
go to extremes in order to get the looks they want.						
政治						
3 ()						
It seems that being skinny is their first priority; malnutrition and unpredictable, fatal side						
effects count for nothing.						

Appendix N

Unit 5 of Sanmin Reader

Unit 5 Beauty is Only Skin Deep

It's only human nature to pursue physical attractiveness. However, some people may go to extremes in order to get the looks they want. You might be stunned by how far they would go—some may even sacrifice their health. For example, those who desire to be thin sometimes deprive themselves of food to keep their weight down. A few have stomach surgery to restrict the amount of food that they can consume. It seems that being skinny is their first priority; malnutrition and unpredictable, fatal side effects count for nothing.

In addition to weight, height may be another common worry to many people. One typical response is to wear shoes with heels, but this isn't good enough for some people who desperately want to be taller. They will undergo surgery to have their legs lengthened, which is especially remarkable because the whole process is acutely painful and can require spending up to a year in a wheelchair. The operation itself involves breaking the legs, drilling holes in them, inserting metal rods in each leg, and, finally, allowing new bones to grow in these gaps. In spite of the fact that most patients have to take painkillers to ease the pain and that there is no guarantee that the surgery will succeed, hundreds of people have this kind of surgery done every year. Unfortunately, many of them endanger their health as well as their future only to become crippled.

People in the contemporary world are concerned about their appearance indeed.

Nonetheless, it is not just in modern times that people have become obsessed by looking attractive and have risked their health as a result. In ancient Europe, dark skin was widely perceived as unattractive. Thus, many ancient Greeks and Romans applied certain make-up to make their faces look pale. Nevertheless, it never occurred to them that the make-up they applied contained lead, which consequently caused them a variety of health

problems like sores and infertility. Today, though people are aware of this unpleasant fact, many still use similar make-up to whiten their skin.

In contrast to ancient times, pale skin is not that appealing to some people nowadays. Tanned skin is getting popular, and those who want darker skin often go to tanning salons or take tanning pills to keep up with this fashion. However, both of these methods can bring about hazardous consequences. First, artificial tans are achieved with the use of tanning beds, which has been linked to skin cancer. According to recent scientific research, using a tanning bed more than once a month increases the risk of contracting skin cancer by 55 percent. Second, tanning pills contain certain kinds of additives that are actually dangerous, even for short-term use. Not only do these pills cause an itchy rash to develop all over the skin, but they may also lead to an eye disease. What's worse, tanning pills can damage one's liver. It seems that whichever way people choose, getting artificially tanned will end up costing them dear.

It's reasonable for us to try various ways to enhance our appearance, as looking good might increase our confidence and make us happy. Yet we must keep in mind that, excluding the often perilous methods for becoming more attractive, there are still multiple other ones that we can take advantage of, such as getting a proper amount of exercise and keeping a balanced diet. After all, it is no use being physically attractive if we are not healthy to enjoy it.

Appendix O

Modeling-U5

BK5 U5 Writing Hands-on

主題句:申論立場

• I totally agree with the saying, "Beauty is only skin deep," since it suggests that a person's value does not completely lie in his or her external appearance.

支持句:贊成/反對理由一、二、三...

- It is true that looks may open many doors for you, but it is personality that keeps those doors open.
 - No matter how attractive you are, without a kind heart, your beauty will eventually fade.
- What's more, one's appearance will change due to age, illness, weight gain, or an accident.
 - It will not last forever.
- Additionally, there is truth in the old saying that beauty lies in the eye of the beholder.
 - Everyone has his or her own definition of beauty.
 - It is impossible to have one kind of look that is pleasing to everyone.

結論句:再次重申立場或對讀者提出訴求

- To sum up, we should never judge a book by its cover. True substance comes from within.
- A. 範文中使用的承轉語 Chengchi
- B. 範文中使用的諺語
- C. 範文中使用的句型/片語

Appendix P

Mining Activities-Verbs

Using Exact Verbs

Owned

The woman and her son had only a poor shack and a horse

1-10. Replace each underlined verb in this story with a more exact one from each pair of words in the box. Be sure the exact verb fits the meaning of the sentence. Cross out the weak verb and write the exact verb over it.

left	returned	demanded	commented
cracked	broke	kicked	poked
strolled	galloped	nurse	teach
exclaimed	sighed	marched	bicycled
earn	grab	won	carried

Revising

A poor young man named Pavel rode his only horse to work every morning and <u>came</u> home with supper every night. One day the horse <u>got</u> loose and ran away, and the villagers cried, "What bad luck!"

"Maybe it's good. Maybe it's bad," stated Pavel. "Who know?"

The next day, Paver's horse <u>came</u> into his yard with four wild horses chasing it, and the villager <u>said</u>, "What good luck! The horses will help you <u>get</u> money."

"Maybe it's good. Maybe it's bad," stated Pavel. "Who know?"

The next day, one wild horse <u>hit</u> Pavel and broke his leg, and the villagers cried, "What bad luck! Now your mother must <u>help</u> you."

The next day, soldiers <u>came</u> into the village and <u>took</u> every healthy man off to meet the king, but they did not take Pavel. Was it good luck or bad luck?