

CRITICAL WRITING SKILLS FOR
INTENSIVE ENGLISH
PROGRAMS

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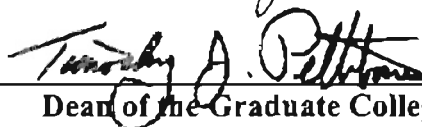
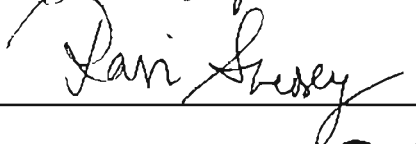
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background	1
Definition of Writing Skills	2
Operational Constraints of IEPs	4
Need for Essential Skills Objectives	11
Assessments Require Objectives	12
Business Requires Objectives	25
Goals of the Study	27
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	29
Methods and Approaches	29
Methods' and Approaches' Contributions of Skills	31
Summary of Skills from Methodology	42
Professors' and Students' Perception of Writing Needs	46
Professors	47
Students	52
Writing Skills Effect on Written Communication	56
Skills Which Improve Writing	57
L1 and L2 Writing	61
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES	65
Purpose	65
Methods	65
Data Collection from Assessment Instruments, Curricula, and Literature Sources	67
Data Collection from In-depth Interviews	80
Weighted Skills Collection	82
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	86
Literature Sources Data	86
Assessment Instruments Data	89
Curricula Data	91

Chapter	Page
Teacher Commentary Data	93
Most Common Skills in High-Mid Quartile of Each Data Source	95
Most Common Skills in Highest Quartile of Each Data Source	96
Most Common Skills Across the Four Sources of Data	96
Most Common Skills Across Three Sources of Data	99
Most Common Skills	100
Weighted Skills	102
Summary and Discussion	105
V. CONCLUSION	109
REFERENCES	112
APPEDIXES	119
APPENDIX A - Textbook Contributors of Skills to Literature Data	119
APPENDIX B - Contributors of Assessment Data	120
APPENDIX C - Contributing Intensive English Programs	123
APPENDIX D - Interviewed Teachers' Qualifications	123
APPENDIX E - Collapsed Terms	126
APPENDIX F - Skills from Literature Sources	128
APPENDIX G - Skills from Assessment Instruments	130
APPENDIX H - Skills from Curricula	131
APPENDIX I - Skills from Teachers	132
APPENDIX J - Questions for Interviews	134
APPENDIX K - Rating Sheet Given to Teachers to Weight Skills	136

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Assessment and Collation List.....	69
II. Sample Objectives from Curriculum Source.....	71
III. Categories and Sub-Divisions of Skills.....	72
IV. Teacher Qualifications.....	81
V. Extraction of Weighted Skills from a Curriculum.....	83
VI. Weighted Skills in Percentages and Quartiles.....	83
VII. Literature - 10 different counts divided by 4.....	87
VIII. Skills from Literature Sources.....	88
IX. Skills from Assessment Instruments.....	90
X. Skills from Curricula.....	92
XI. Skills from Teacher Commentary.....	94
XII. Most Common Skills in High-Middle Quartile of at Least One Data Source..	95
XIII. Most Common Skills in Highest Quartile of One Data Source.....	97
XIV. Skills Occurring in All Four Sources of Data.....	98
XV. Most Common Skills in Three of Data Sources.....	99
XVI. Most Common Skills Cross-Referenced from Separate Data Groups and Across All Data Groups.....	101
XVII. Most Heavily Weighted Skills.....	103
XVIII. Most Common and Most Highly Weighted Skills.....	104

NOMENCLATURE

ALM	Audio Lingual Method
EAP	English for academic purposes
ELS	ELS Language Centers
ESL	English as a second language
IEP	intensive English programs
L1	first language
L2	second language
LEP	limited English proficient
OKTESOL	Oklahoma Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TESL	teaching English as a second language
TESOL	Teacher of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Critical Writing Skills for Intensive English Programs

Chapter One

Background

As compared to the other skill areas of language development, writing research and pedagogy is relatively new. Evidence of this, according to Kroll (1990), is apparent from the TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) conventions of the late 1970s, which had few writing presentations on the program. Later, however, beginning in the mid-1980s and continuing to the present, many workshops addressing composition instruction have been found at TESOL conventions. One of the reasons for this, Russell (1991) explains, is that for many years, writing was only seen as an extension of speaking and, it was assumed, that if a student learned to speak, then he would also be able to write. Subsequently, however, writing emerged from being an addendum to the spoken word and became seen as a needed academic skill. Educators developed classes whose purpose was to teach error-free writing which was coherent and could be used for any purpose regardless of the social or disciplinary situation it addressed. This meant that the goal of composition classes was to teach students the abilities needed to create a well-developed written product.

This goal, a well-developed written product, in itself, has created many of the basic problems for writing teachers. Silva (1990) explains that there is no agreement on which writing skills are critical to this creation of good composition. Rather than being based on sound theories of good writing, different composition methodologies have evolved as a

reaction to previous approaches, each of which seemed to lack inherent qualities to good written text, or which emerged as an effort to reflect current philosophies. Because of their manner of development, teaching methods and approaches give no definition of what constitutes a good product nor agree on skills needed to produce one.

Before discussing the skills espoused by different writing methods and their benefits or lack thereof, it is necessary to establish a specific background and context for teaching. The focus of this study is on the development of a list of skills which could be used in a writing curriculum for a short-term Intensive English Program (IEP). Therefore, in order to establish the foundation for this study, I will first provide a working definition of writing skills. Next, I will describe the peculiar situation of short-term intensive English programs in order to show that not all skills are feasible for instruction in this context.

Definition of Writing Skills

Initially, the curriculum writer must have a conception of a writing skill. One of the problems I have encountered was teachers' and researchers' differing interpretations or definitions of this term. In seeking to clarify these discrepancies, I arrived at a particular working definition of a writing skill on my own, which is explained further in this section. This is the definition working in this paper. The source for this more detailed concept of skill is the literature on ESL reading or language learning strategies.

Defined by Green and Oxford (1995), learning strategies or skills are "specific actions or techniques that students use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing L2 " (p 262). Green & Oxford (1995) and Clarke and Silberstein (1987) agree that strategies encompass a wide range of behaviors that can help the development of

language competence including vocabulary, syntax, and discourse. Mackay (1987) believes these strategies are part of what a student needs to know, so that he will not be a poor information gatherer or information producer. Furthermore, Green & Oxford (1995) added that when students use language learning strategies or skills, they can be more responsible for their own language development.

The skills referred to in these studies are directed at reading and general language learning skills, but good writing also reveals strategies or skills which learners can be taught. Such writing skills can be defined as procedures taught individually to students, in order that they might improve their development as writers on their own in order to become independent learners of composition. Furthermore, these writing skills are procedures of text-production or text-manipulation performed by the writer which facilitate a reader's comprehension of the written text.

Not only can reading and language learning research give us a definition for a strategy or skill, but a justification for teaching writing strategies also comes from this research. Just as reading teachers should make students aware of the many types of reading or language processing strategies available to them (Green & Oxford, 1995), writing teachers should provide groundwork for writing so that learners can form or organize their ideas more systematically (Tickoo, 1981). When students recognize what constitutes good writing and have learned the steps necessary to produce it, then students can proceed in the task of production of good text. Teachers should provide that type of knowledge by training students in the ability to recognize the attributes of effective writing as well as the various strategies for composing (Kroll, 1990). As Green & Oxford (1995) have shown,

effective use of strategies can be taught, and we can extrapolate from this that writing abilities help the writer put his ideas into words on paper in the precise manner he wants.

A strategy-teaching approach for composition classes would provide basic skills which could enable non-native speakers of English to better manipulate text (Shih, 1992). Just as reading strategies do not automatically build text into chunks comprehensible to the ESL learner, but assist him in doing this for himself, writing strategies can help students to build more comprehensible text. If we accept this way of looking at writing instruction, then we can agree that giving students the components or skills needed to become good writers on their own, through practice (just as good readers improve through practice) is a reasonable and profitable focus for an IEP writing class. In fact, this is not a new idea. Zamel (1982, 1983, and 1987) found that ESL college students use various writing strategies and she suggested at least some skills-teaching when she said that poor writers can benefit from being taught how to make use of writing strategies.

The above conception of a writing skill is the working definition used for this research. This manipulation of text, whether of reading the text or writing the text, as well as processes which take place in the writer's mind in order to lead to the manipulation of text are considered here as writing skills. The next step to understanding this project is an explanation of the context into which the teaching of skills must fit.

Operational Constraints of IEPs

Through talking with professionals from universities, from public schools or semester IEPs, I discovered that a short-term IEP has unique constraints under which it must teach students. My interest in finding essential skills to use in curriculum design

stems from the problems which short-term intensive English programs have with teaching writing that other types of programs do not seem to experience. The term "intensive English programs" is familiar to many in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). Familiarity, however, does not equate to true recognition of what "intensive" means in terms of curriculum and instructional limitations at a short-term school. In order to truly comprehend this specialized situation, one must examine the elements which go into defining an institution as short-term intensive.

To provide some perspective, consider a schedule for a university composition class for ESL students. One course meets for three, fifty-minute classes a week for fifteen weeks, which makes about 48 periods available for instruction. Universities also have intensive centers whose programs run the same sixteen weeks as content classes; although these classes may meet everyday instead of three times per week. In these intensive centers, there are approximately 75 contact periods for composition classes. In comparison, a short-term intensive class may last four weeks with five fifty-minute classes per week or last six weeks with four classes per week. One of these would be the writing class. A four-week IEP writing class would only meet 16 times. If the student continues for more than one four-week period, there is a very great likelihood that he will not have the same teacher during the next period. In fact, he may never have the same teacher twice during a prolonged stay at this type of school, so that the continuation of a student can not be equated with a long-term program. In comparison with a university class, it is easy to see the first difficulty with IEP instruction: the actual time in class for these short-term schools is much less than a semester class or a university intensive program and student are exposed to many teachers writing philosophies.

In order to see the next difficulty of IEPs, how this intensiveness of time affects writing instruction, it is helpful to look at a specific institution (ELS Language Centers) whose practices are common to many other short-term IEP schools. Even though not all IEPs are organized exactly like ELS Language Centers, there are enough similarities, so that if we look at how this institution addresses the teaching of writing, a clear picture emerges of the problems such schools experience.

I have chosen ELS Language Centers as the model for short-term IEPs as it is representative of other intensive institutions. This is true because this particular program was the first intensive school to spread to many parts of the world teaching ESL. It was the training ground for many ESL teachers who later established their own schools (Blevins, J. 1999. Personal communication. ELS Language Centers, Oklahoma City, OK). Because these teachers knew the ELS Language Centers' program had been successful, many new schools used their system as a foundation. This is evident today if one looks at the many different systems of schools.

The two most similar qualities evident in short-term, intensive schools worldwide is the organization carried over from ELS Language Centers. There, all classes are set up according to ascending levels of proficiency with each level a separate short-term program. ELS Language Centers has nine levels; beginning with level 101 students and ending with 109 students. Each level lasts four weeks with six units of instruction per day or thirty per week. At other schools, the number of levels or the time-allotments of the program may vary, but the general system is the same. Some of these institutions teach classes for four weeks while other programs may teach for six or eight weeks. Many of these have the same nine level program as ELS, but many have as few as four or six levels, while others

have as many as twelve. Often other intensive programs are not thirty hours per week as at ELS, but only twenty or twenty-five. However, because most intensive schools modeled themselves after ELS Language Centers, the following discussion of IEP operation and its effects on writing instruction is based on the curriculum of that institution as being representative of others.

Intensive programs of this type have both academically and non-academically bound students, but this research will only refer to writing curricula for academic students. Therefore, the curricula of the IEPs referred to in this research will be of the type aimed at students who are studying English in order to attend an American university.

For academically bound students at these centers, five classes of the thirty units of instruction per week are spent in writing classes. The curriculum for the writing classes is broken up into elementary instruction for levels 101 through 103, intermediate in levels 104 through 106, and advanced for levels 107 through 109. In the 101 classes, students learn the basics of sentence formation, capitalization, and punctuation. In each of the 102 and 103 levels, teachers cover construction of two or three types of paragraphs; such as descriptive, narrative, or compare and contrast. By the end of the elementary levels, students will have been taught basic sentence structure and various methods of paragraph development. The intermediate classes focus on essay structure, again, covering two or three different types of development in each level. In the advanced 107 class, essay instruction concludes and an introduction to research writing begins. In the last two advanced classes, students complete their study of how to conduct research and produce a documented paper.

The class itinerary above may seem, at first glance, to be appropriate and attainable. However, when one looks more closely at the logistics of each class, the problematic "intensiveness" of the situation becomes more recognizable.

In the level 101 through 104 classes, the students are required to write three to five paragraphs during each level. The main difference between levels is the varying types of forms. For example, in the first week of instruction of 102, students might be taught how to write descriptive paragraphs, and do a first and final draft of that type of writing. This would be done in approximately four hours of instructional time, which seems both possible and plausible. The next week would cover a narrative and weeks three and four, other types of paragraphs. In 103, teachers might spend one week reviewing paragraph types taught in 102 and then teach topic sentences at the beginning, middle, and end of paragraphs. In week two, students might learn how to write specific details in different types of paragraphs and later learn how to write concluding sentences. In these elementary levels, students are taught many rhetorical forms and the work, at this point, for both students and teachers is fairly manageable, but hardly thorough.

Problems with "intensiveness" begin to surface when the same time frame is applied to the objectives set for the 104 through 107 classes. Level 104 students learn how to write introductions, thesis statements, concluding paragraphs, outlines and begin writing three paragraph compositions: usually descriptive and narrative. In each of the next three levels, students must produce three essays of differing types. The objectives specify the ability to write different types of essays, such as "can write a persuasive essay" or "can write a descriptive essay." For example, the level 105 students might be taught how to write compare and contrast essays, descriptive essays, and be introduced to paraphrasing

and summarizing. The level 106 class teaches argumentative, narrative and advantage/disadvantage essays and continues with practice in paraphrasing and summarizing. In 107, classes follow a similar pattern, covering classification essays, persuasive essays, library research foundations, and continuing with summaries and paraphrasing practice. For each essay at each level, students write an outline, rough draft, do conferencing, and write a final draft. If this sounds remarkably fast to most teachers, it will become even more astounding when one looks at the actual time of instruction available within each level.

In an institution which is on a four-week schedule, an instructional pattern emerges for each session. On the first day of the session, students must be tested and placed in an appropriate level. This lessens the instructional time for writing classes by one day. At the end of the session, three units of instruction are lost to final exams. During the last week, writing final exams are required to be given on Tuesdays. Then, Wednesday is the last day of composition classes. Finals in other classes are given on Wednesday or Thursday. The last day of the session is used for handing out grades and graduating students who have completed the program. Thus, in a four-week session, a total of sixteen fifty-minute periods of instruction is available to teachers in order to complete the assignments outlined above. Such a short amount of class time allowed for instruction and in-class production of compositions increases the need for IEPs to only include essential skills in their curriculum.

Another element which affects intensive center composition classes by limiting instructional time is plagiarism. In a composition class, it has been the experience of many teachers that when students receive instruction during class and do all of their actual writing at home, they often plagiarize. Sometimes, students copy verbatim from

encyclopedias or magazines. Often, other students at higher levels or others already at the university write the essay for the IEP students. Over the twelve years of my involvement with a four-week IEP, I have seen this problem manifest itself every time a teacher allows students to write at home. Despite the fact that a low percentage of students cheat, it is such a consistent phenomenon that outside-of-class compositions are generally not allowed for graded products. Experienced teachers have learned that graded compositions must be produced during class time. This, of course, further limits the time left for instruction.

A normal teaching routine in a composition class, then, loosely follows the pattern below. On day one the teacher teaches skills and concepts needed to prepare the students for writing the essay. Then, students must finish a rough draft in one to two days during class to ensure no cheating. The teacher must take the essays home and mark them that night. The next day the teacher and student meet for a conference about the improvements needed in the essay. After that, the student has one day in class to make revisions. The following day the student must finish his editing and turn in the final copy. This allows the student six days for instruction, writing, revising, and finalizing an essay. The teacher, then, has one night to score the essays and return them before students begin another essay, so that the rough draft of the next essay can improve upon the weaknesses exhibited in the first essay.

The preceding is a general overview of the contents, structure, and procedure of each writing class at ELS Language Centers. The point which results from all of the above conditions is that, in short-term Intensive English Programs, a very limited amount of time is available for instruction by teachers, production of essays by students, or grading of essays. This very limited time allotment is the element which inhibits these IEPs from

implementing curricula which mirror most other types of programs. Of course, all programs want to include essential skills, but IEPs must streamline their courses much more than schools with longer instructional periods. As a result, one outstanding need becomes apparent: to determine which skills should be included.

This section of text, therefore, has formed the foundation around which all skills or decisions for curricula are discussed in the rest of this paper: the specific context of a short-term IEP. Consequently, the Intensive English Programs (IEPs) referred to in this research are the private institutions which teach classes encompassed by short time increments rather than those with more teaching hours. In the next section, we will specify the particular needs of short-term IEP writing curricula which this study seeks to address.

Need for Essential Skills Objectives

A different consideration which affects instruction at an intensive school, is the grading of the objectives which have been set for each writing class. In composition classes, essays demonstrating these objectives are usually graded using one or a variation of two grading styles: analytic or holistic rubrics. However, as will be seen in the next section, these two types of grading include problems for IEPs, both in the logistics of their use, and with the description of writing skills on each and their comparability with objectives lists. Since these two types of scales are the most common way of grading classroom essays at ELS Language Centers, it is important to show how the time involved in using these types of grading affects IEP composition teaching. Furthermore, it is even more important to understand how the objectives outlined at the beginning of the class and

those actually graded in these two popular rubrics affect instruction and student-customer satisfaction.

Assessments Require Objectives

The issue of assessment is the most outstanding reason that IEPs need essential skills for objectives. There should be a direct link between teaching and assessment. Wolcott and Legg (1998) agreed because when assessment is specifically connected to what is taught, students know what to study and learn. White (1994) added that there is much anecdotal evidence which suggests that conscious or subconscious adjustments are often made by teachers to what is taught in order to reflect what will be tested. In composition class objectives, as White (1994) said, curriculum writers must not only take into account the complexity of writing and concentrate instruction on the skills and processes which make up this complexity, but also take into account how the grading affects instruction.

Each of the three general types of assessment scales: holistic, analytic, and variations of these, has its own benefits and weaknesses for IEP's. The first of these three types, holistic scoring, is most often used with standardized tests or placement exams, but is, likewise, used by classroom teachers. According to Wolcott and Legg (1998), the theory behind grading holistically is that an essay is not just many parts put together to make a whole, and so, is not judged feature by feature, but rather by the "overall impression...that is created by the elements working together within the piece" (p. 71). It does not evaluate each element which goes into an essay as to how well or poorly it was produced, but it emphasizes the positive aspects while being balanced by the negative ones.

As the reader grades an essay holistically, he relies on his experience, training, and exposure to previous LEP (limited English proficient) writing to help judge its possibilities and failures. Because the paper is judged by its comparison to other papers, they are often given grades in a rank-ordered manner, where the best essay of the group is given the highest grade and the worst receives the lowest.

The scoring rubrics for this kind of grading are not a list of skills which must be demonstrated and then evaluated, rather they are guides which describe performances which have been found to be true of most LEP students at the various levels contained within the rubric. For example, a "seriously deficient" paper is characterized by one rubric as being "extremely short with virtually no development at all...[it] may be...off-topic" (p. 74). Sometimes, holistic scoring is not conducted with a scoring rubric at all, but has papers at the different levels which are representative of each, and against which other papers should be compared and judged. In fact, many theorists believe that a composition is not the sum of its parts and therefore it must be graded holistically to determine the overall qualities.

Holistic scoring has benefits for IEP teachers. First, it is much faster than other types of grading. This is a top priority at an IEP. Furthermore, holistic grading acknowledges the teacher's expertise as a professional in that it assumes the teacher has enough experience to make a fair judgment on each essay. It gives each teacher control over his classroom by allowing him to emphasize those elements in a composition which he feels are most important. It gives the teacher more freedom with instructional objectives as well as on grading criteria. Clearly, holistic grading gives the teacher more overall input about how composition is taught and scored in his particular classroom.

The freedom which holistic grading gives teachers is the foundation of the problems that it can create for an IEP curriculum writer and administrators. One of the goals of developing a set of objectives for any class is to create a format for a teacher, so that no matter who teaches the course, the students will cover the same material. This standardizes the product an IEP sells by helping with quality control. With holistic rubrics, much deviation is possible, so that classes which should be similar can become vastly different depending on the instructors. For example, a holistic objective might be "can use persuasive arguments." This is a very broad idea, wide open to interpretation by teachers. It can contain many different individual components which are not directly listed, so that each teacher must come up with their own list of what a student must do in order to use persuasive arguments.

Another criticism of holistic scoring is that there is little instructional value for either teachers or students. Because it is the rater's overall impression of the qualities, and not an evaluation of any strengths or weaknesses demonstrated in an essay (Elbow, 1996), there is no information to tell what performance areas need work or which are good or average (White, Lutz, & Kamusikiri, 1996; Zak & Weaver, 1998). This makes it difficult for students to understand why they were given a particular grade. Furthermore, it can cause a teacher problems in explaining how a student could improve. In an IEP, this can make the student disgruntled, defeating the business aim of keeping customers happy.

The other pertinent problem with holistic scoring is that it is extremely dependent on the grader's training, experience, and even his frame of mind at the time of grading. Initially, new teachers have no frame of reference against which to judge papers' proficiency. They have yet to gain the experience that allows veteran teachers to use a

holistic tool. Too, all teachers value different elements in composition and give a varying weight to each element. As a result, the same paper could be given vastly different scores by different teachers teaching the same class with the same objectives. To overcome such an inconsistency, Wolcott and Legg (1998) explained that continuous training and retraining is necessary to keep teachers closely in tune to what is acceptable for each course at a given institution. Furthermore, it is necessary that there is continuity provided by the administrators of the teacher training to ensure that the standards do not deviate from one training session to the next. The problem with this is that the continuous training and retraining of teachers necessary to keep graders in sync with each other (inter-rater reliability) is costly in both time and money to any IEP administration.

In addition, experts agree that holistic grading reflects the subjective bias of the particular instructor judging the composition, and not "any empirical objective criteria" (Perkins, 1980, p. 61). To get teachers to be consistent with each other in their scoring, training is required to create a community of agreement as to what constitutes each score (White, 1994). Because there is no agreement on what skilled writing is or by what criteria it should be judged (Raimes, 1985), such training can devolve into discussions, even arguments about what should be valued in writing (White, 1994).

Holistic scoring is not only a problem between teachers, but is also a problem within an individual's own scoring habits. In my own experience of grading placement tests holistically, my testing coordinator has shown me where I have graded a certain essay lower on one occasion than in a later retraining session. In guessing how to account for such a discrepancy, I can only guess that my particular frame of mind or current teaching assignment must have affected the way in which I graded the essay. Other teachers concur

that their mood or current teaching situation, whether of writing or other classes, apparently colors their essay grading at any given time. The retraining which helps control such differences between teachers' grading cannot prevent variations within the grading of a single teacher. Thus, IEP administrators have the problem of intra-rater reliability as well as inter-rater reliability.

An instructional problem with holistic grading is this subjectivity of the procedure. The concepts scored in holistic grading are abstract concepts which are challenging for teachers to demonstrate and, thus, even more so for students to understand. This is explained more clearly by White (1994) when he said that it is possible to score papers holistically; however, it is impossible to teach holistically. Skills must be taught one at a time. Good instructional rubrics should help provide information (White, 1994) to direct both students and teachers as to what steps to proceed to in further instruction. This type of information ideally should include the skills they have learned, have learned to some degree, or not learned.

To sum up these problems, because holistic scoring does not list a specific set of skills, but rather general behaviors or goals of the entire essay, there are often great differences between what teachers grade even when they are teaching corresponding classes. This sets different objectives for the same assignment and violates the IEP business requirement of standardization. It creates inconsistency within instruction as teachers stress and grade the points of writing they feel are most important. This one aspect of holistic grading, inconsistency, can cause the most headaches for administrators who must answer to students when an obvious difference emerges between classes proclaimed as identical (Eskew, P. 1999. Personal communication.

ELS Language Centers. Oklahoma City, OK). Thus, holistic grading goes against the IEP's business to standardize its class instruction.

If all of this is true, then, why is this type of grading most popular with IEP teachers? There is one unarguable benefit to holistic scoring, which is that it is faster than any other method for scoring essays. This is especially important for IEPs since teachers have a minimal amount of turn-over time from the day of essay production to that of handing back graded papers. As we can see, however, the benefits of using holistic grading in an IEP are greatly outweighed by its drawbacks. Its strongest attribute for an IEP is that this type of grading can be performed very quickly. Holistic scoring, while being of benefit for an IEP teacher in grading quickly, has many drawbacks for the curriculum developer and administrators. Most importantly, this type of scoring augments the argument for specific objectives and scoring of those objectives in order to promote quality control of the IEP product.

Where holistic scoring shows the need for specific objectives, analytic scoring supplies skills, but still has weaknesses which also reveal a need for specific, essential skills. Primarily, it is valued for its inclusion of a variety of sub-skills which are each given a value. Traditionally, these skills would be surface features such as capitalization, punctuation or grammar. Recently, however, sub-skills include more global abilities like coherence, or imagination (White, 1994). Each skill is given a particular value and these values are added up to arrive at a grade for the paper. The skills often emphasize linguistic abilities which are to be used as a basis upon which to build communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell, 1997) and they can be very broad or specific. However, unlike behaviors described by holistic rubrics, analytic lists usually are

composed of items which are much less global. Another characteristic of this type of scoring is that it can separate the types of skills (Wolcott & Legg, 1998) into micro-skills such as form or mechanics, macro-skills such as content and comprehensibility, and other skills such as the ability to write a thesis statement. The purpose of these divisions is to make it clearer to the student what the quality of his work is. Wolcott and Legg (1998) stated that analytic grading assumes that the whole quality of the composition is a sum of its parts since it examines how effectively a student has handled each of the features listed on the rubric. It allows the teacher to point out strengths and weaknesses on each of the salient features of the composition in order to show students how they can produce more effective writing. This ability to pinpoint strengths and weakness is the most important benefit of analytic scoring and meets instructional needs of curriculum writers.

This type of scoring method can be an effective teaching tool if class objectives are closely tied to the rubric. It allows teachers to test the different skills considered necessary for proficient writing. Both the student and the teacher know what areas have been mastered and which areas still need work or have not been learned at all. This type of scoring helps new teachers to be more confident of the grade they assign students and helps experienced teachers feel more objective about grades they give.

Analytic grading scales include many types of skills which can be individually taught. It includes elements teachers feel must contribute to proficient writing. With sufficient training for reliability, analytic grading enables both new and experienced teachers to be as consistent as possible on the reasons for their grades. It has the added benefit of helping the student to understand why he received a particular grade and in what writing areas he must improve to improve his grade.

However, analytical scoring has a major drawback for Intensive-English Programs. It is time consuming because it requires a specific number of points for each objective in the scale and, then, that those points be added up (White, 1994). Furthermore, when marking grades on the rubric, there is often not a pass/fail mark for each skill but "rating levels--which often include such descriptive degrees as 'to some extent' versus 'often,' or 'weak' versus 'poor'" (Wolcott & Legg, 1998, p. 117). These words are obviously opinions and not clear evidence of what the problem or strength actually is. In addition, in one scoring project done on portfolios, an average assessment using an analytic scale took twenty to thirty minutes while scoring the same portfolios holistically took about five minutes each (Wolcott & Legg, 1998).

Another problem is that there is no agreement in the profession about which skills or sub-skills should be included on such a score sheet (White, 1994). Some analytical scoring guides only include micro-skills while others include a gamut of skills from micro- to macro- and those in-between. Judgments as to what skills are included on the rubric allow teachers to emphasize their own particular pet skills rather than the same skills other teachers of corresponding classes are grading. Added to this, the multitude of skills on an analytic guide requires so many decisions for the teacher, that confusion easily occurs in the mind of the teacher while grading. Furthermore, as the students move from paragraphs to essays, the scoring guide becomes longer and longer, taking more and more time for the teacher to grade as students become more proficient. This tendency of an analytic scale to be longer and longer creates grading problems for IEP teachers who have little time to grade. Sometimes, instead of including every skill used in composing, the descriptions of the skills become more and more general which adds to the ambiguity of what is actually

being performed, leading to problems similar to holistic problems. Finally, the student may have so many evaluated elements to comprehend that he may feel overwhelmed and may just give up trying to figure out how to improve anything at all (Wolcott & Legg, 1998). IEP students who feel that they have no control over their grade are not happy customers.

Using the strengths of these (holistic and analytic) two opposite types of grading leads to two other types of essay assessment which should be considered. One attempt to refine these emerged as a reaction to problems in holistic grading. As described by Wolcott and Legg (1998), primary trait scoring is a scoring instrument which is designed for a specific task rather than a generic one to be used on any type of written assignment. This task-based idea is much like that of analytic grading's application to the specific assignment. Unlike analytic scoring, the task is the important element as it "identifies the primary trait and provides a rationale as to what the task intends to accomplish in terms of a specific audience and purpose" (p. 90). The primary trait is not a rhetorical mode, but is a feature inherent to the task given; such as summarizing, analyzing, or supporting an argument. The skills graded would only be those required to fulfill the assigned task.

The benefits for IEPs of this type of scoring are several. The theory recognizes the fact that different types of writing tasks require various types of skills or traits. For example, a narrative writing would use much different writing strategies than would a persuasive essay. Wolcott and Legg (1998) adds that it also takes into consideration the particular audience or purpose of the task. Because of this, a distinctive scoring guide for the task would only include writing performances which would likely appear in that particular type of composition. The criterion-based scoring of this type allows for greater reliability both among teachers and within a single teacher's scoring repertoire.

Furthermore, this criterion eliminates the need to rank-order the essays since the overall impression is not as important as performance on the listed traits.

In addition, this type of scoring has some recommendations for good objectives and grading. First, it can be used quickly, much as a holistic scale can. Next, its inclusion only of skills required for the task meets the instructional goal of providing students with knowledge of what skills they must perform. It also clearly defines what skills will be measured, so that these can be listed on the objectives for the class. This form of grading suggests the use of various writing tasks and their corresponding skills as the basis of objectives which could be matched to their appropriate level of proficiency. Primary trait scoring offers more support for the benefits of a skills-based curriculum and suggests particular skills for evaluation.

The weakness of this type of scoring mainly is that it is for skills used only in one particular task. Unless tasks are quite similar, many of the skills used in one task would not appear in another task. In fact, the skills which would be used in most types of essays are not the focus of this type of grading, but specialized skills determined by the task. Each task does not build upon the skills of previous tasks which allows them to be forgotten or diluted. For example, the connectors necessary for writing a compare/contrast paper are used much more seldom in other types of development, so that the skill of connectors is quite different in differing rhetorical schemes. Furthermore, unless succeeding tasks are quite similar or identical, there is no opportunity for practice to improve skills learned. Overall, this scoring theory is too focused or limited to be useful for an Intensive English Program:

A variation on the idea behind primary-trait grading was suggested by Hamp-Lyons (1992) which incorporates the strengths of all the three grading approaches previously mentioned. It is called multiple-trait assessment. She took the benefits of primary-trait and holistic scoring (time efficiency) and combined them with the instructional strength of the analytic rubric (inclusion of many skills). The traits often considered trivial in analytic guides such as "spelling, [or] handwriting" (Zak & Weaver, 1998, p. 233) are not present in this new type of scoring. Here, there are traits of global skills, such as clear main idea or excellent language control, listed on the rubric, and micro-skills are replaced by more generalized terms, such as structures or choice of vocabulary, which match the type of task. These would be abilities individualized for a particular type of essay.

This is not a content-specific task rubric as in primary-trait scoring. Each trait or skill is given a value just as in an analytic scale and tells at what level each of the features is being performed (Zak & Weaver, 1998). The advantage of this was expressed by Elbow (1996) in that it provides feedback which students can use to improve and shows teachers a clear perspective of what needs to be taught. This list of writing skills to be measured in multiple-trait scoring is the great strength of analytic grading without its inclination to include all writing skills on every assignment. A multiple-trait scale can be altered to fit individual assignments to cover only skills which have been taught in a particular class rather than all skills which are needed for advanced academic writing. Furthermore, it allows skills to reappear in successive assignments to allow for practice in a way that primary trait scoring does not.

An IEP would find it easy to use this kind of scoring method in a sequenced curriculum, where beginning and intermediate students have not been taught all of the

possible elements of good composition. Instead of each teacher grading their preconceived idea of good writing, the teacher grades the skills within the essay which have been taught within the space of that particular class and its objectives. The student is not responsible for improving the overall quality of his writing. Rather he is responsible for acquiring the specific skills taught, performing them in the essay, and practicing them in later essays to improve quality of the skills. Subsequent essays within the same class, could be evaluated on the progression of the quality of these acquired new skills.

Multiple-trait scoring enables the teacher to give a clear reflection of the quality of production of each of the skills listed on a scale for a particular class. These ratings of skills justifies for both teacher and student the assigned score and reveals what the instructional goals for a particular student are for the future. Furthermore, since only features taught in that class are included, scores are less overwhelming to the student. He sees not only his weaknesses in the low scores, but the areas on which he is strong or moderate, which leads to confidence in his composing abilities.

Another plus of not including all writing skills on a rubric, as in multi-trait scoring, is that the skills can be grouped into objectives for separate courses and sequenced according to their difficulty. This meets the need of curriculum writers to make sure that the teaching objectives can and will fit with the assessment instrument used by teachers. Furthermore, since the teachers can be given specific objectives covering the tasks for each course, the consistency desired by learning institutions can be better maintained between classes regardless of the instructor. If raters with contrasting biases grade an essay using a multiple-trait assessment, they will probable agree on the strengths and weaknesses of the essay, but they may disagree in their bottom-line, holistic score (Elbow, 1996). Therefore,

rating only the skills on the multiple-trait rubric can bring more consistency in grading among teachers.

The objections to this type of scoring are several. First, some see the scoring process tainted by a holistic halo effect in that if the overall impression of the essay is good, then the features listed on the rubric will be scored highly. In contrast, a poor overall view would result in low scores on the traits. This may in fact be a problem, but it is this very problem that the traits listed in the rubric are trying to combat (Elbow, 1996).

The second objection is more substantial. Most agree that the essential quality of any assignment is not the sum of its parts and, because of this, we should not assign grades as if it were. However, if one accepts the goal of the composition classroom to be that of teaching skills rather than creating good writers, this objection is easily overcome. The scoring is not on the entire essay, but on the performance of the skills learned in that class and demonstrated within the essay. Such a focus is highly beneficial to the writing teacher and curriculum writer. If a teacher is expected to evaluate and grade the skills taught within one class and not all writing skills, grading is simplified. A composition teacher's job becomes the teaching of writing skills or strategies a student can use to eventually reach that goal of essential quality sought by a professor. If the teacher evaluates how well the student has learned those skills he has been taught in that class, then the teacher is no longer responsible for also evaluating skills taught in previous classes. Furthermore, the curriculum writer can set skills as goals within one class which all students can learn whether minimally or proficiently. This satisfies the IEP desire to keep their customers happy since students want assessment which gives "maximum and speedy feedback

[and]...breaks down the complexity of writing into focused units that can be learned in sequence and mastered by study (White, et al, 1996, p. 22).

Of the four types of assessment here, it seems that that of multiple-trait assessment fulfills the needs of IEP's to have a grading method which allows for skills-based teaching. Once specific skills which are agreed upon, then instruction and assessment can be matched to the objectives built from those skills. Therefore, assessment's need for objectives gives another basis for the establishment of an essential skills list.

Business Requires Objectives

Because these IEPs are often businesses, students are considered customers who must be kept happy since they are paying a high price for the service. When customers are happy, profits increase, and in a business of this type, profits are an important element in the way education is conducted. One way to keep customer satisfaction high is to provide the students with pre-determined educational objectives for each class or level to accomplish in a four-week session. Therefore, IEPs need objectives for sound business purposes. The objectives represent the basis of the product that the students are buying; that is, if they pay money, this is what they will get for their money. Another purpose for objectives is that students are graded according to whether or not they have mastered the skills outlined in the objectives. This allows the student to assess how long he will need to stay at the school in order to acquire the skills he needs; and, consequently, how much money he will have to spend on those skills.

This setting of objectives for each class is of paramount business importance to IEPs because it is one way to attract customers. Their customers, who also happen to be

students, have two important demands of their chosen institution. The first is that the student be able to accomplish his learning quickly. The second demand is that the school be an institution of quality learning. Historically, IEPs have accomplished these by using the latest research in their teaching methods and telling the student what he will learn at each level of instruction. This assures the student or customer that specific abilities in English language usage (objectives) can be acquired both quickly and effectively. Quickness and effectiveness are the incentives for students to choose one IEP over another and they also form one of the strongest marketing tools for this type of business. As a result, objectives satisfy a sound educational requirement, and are demanded by IEPs in order to offer as good a product as possible to consumers.

Another sound reason for IEPs' need for objectives is that they form a systematic foundation for teachers, which is necessary in order for a school to provide continuity and consistency within and between courses. My first awareness of a need for such a foundation came from my grading experiences. Through discussions and training sessions with other teachers, I came to agree with Perkins (1980) when he said that there exist many diverse ways to deal with assignment of grades in writing classes. In addition, what I came to understand was that not all teachers value the same elements in grading nor do they teach the same elements. Other ESL professionals agree. According to Hamp-Lyons (1991), trained teachers do not agree on which essays are quality, nor do they agree about which elements within essays makes one better than another or worse than yet another. Instead, these teachers teach whatever they have deduced to be important through their own teaching-experience rather than teaching skills which researchers have proven empirically to improve students' writing. This poses severe problems in an IEP which is supposed to be

producing the same product at all of its centers. In order to form a basis for this standardization, these IEPs need a curriculum with clear performance goals and a specific understanding of the sub-skills to be measured at each level (Camp, 1996).

This background has defined writing skills in the context of this research, set the context for teaching of those skills at short-term Intensive English Programs, and introduced a practical need for essential skills as teaching objectives and grading criteria. As this research evaluates different elements which contribute writing skills, it will be done in light of teaching and dealing with the acquisition of skills as the goal of the writing class. Skills which are commonly held to be important by writing theories and research, by professors, students, writing assessment rubrics, curriculum writers, and teachers can be said to be accepted as skills essential to produce good writing. By focusing on specific sequenced sets of skills, teaching students to be good writers can become a long-term goal of writing classes in general rather than the goal of one level. To accomplish this long-term goal, sub-components of good writing are target behaviors to be taught and graded. These form the objectives of individual classes; ie. instruction will focus on abilities which can be used to produce good writing. This more specific new goal, acquisition of writing strategies or skills, can provide a new approach to composition instruction for an IEP learning context.

Goals of the Study

In order to identify skills which could be taught in a skills approach to composition, this research will examine the following questions:

1. Which writing skills appear in most composition-teaching literature, including writing methodology books and textbooks, professors' and students' perceptions of writing needs, and skills evaluation studies?
2. Which skills are included in many assessment rubrics?
3. Which skills are included in many IEP writing curricula?
4. Which skills are important to practicing teachers?
5. Which skills are agreed on as being important by all sources?

The next section will seek to address question one above. It will examine research studies which looked at writing skills suggested by writing methodologies and approaches. Then, it will look at opinions taken from professors and students at universities about writing skills they felt were needed at a university. Finally, studies which have tried to determine whether specific writing skills actually improved students' writing are reviewed..

Chapter Two

Methods and Approaches

Review of the Literature

Over the years, there has been an ongoing conversation among writing theoreticians and others about which skills or what kinds of writing abilities should be taught. Before examining researchers' findings about skills, it would be helpful to create a foundation by examining what abilities are included in good methodology and teaching approaches. This foundation can then be compared with skills which are held to be important by university students in their written assignments and which skills, when taught, have been shown to actually improve student composition. Finally, each of these approaches must be viewed in light of the business aims of an IEP.

Methods and Approaches

Many teachers and curriculum writers look to composition teaching methodologies to form the basis for course work. In composition pedagogy, there are two distinct schools of thought: product focused instruction and process focused instruction. Nunan (1991) gives a general description of these two practices. Product-based teaching emphasizes "the end result of the learning process" (p. 86). That means that students are expected to be able to produce a coherent and competent essay as a result of instruction. Process writing does not emphasize the importance of the final paper, rather it sees activities which develop students' use of the language to be a more profitable use of instruction.

Product writing came from a view of language learning which fit in well with the early philosophies of "structural linguists, and the bottom-up approach to language process

and production" (Nunan, 1991, p. 87). As Nunan (1991) explained, early approaches which favored the product-orientation espoused activities in which students manipulated text at the sentence level. They might copy a correctly formed paper or use it as a model to imitate in producing an original composition. Sometimes students would be asked to transform these correct models into works personalized by the student. These types of activities sought to provide mastery of the language at the sentence level. Often these activities were grammar exercises or sentence formation practice. It was believed that once mastery of these forms was achieved, then coherent paragraphs and essays would naturally follow.

This type of teaching was partly responsible for the organization established at Intensive English Programs at their birth. These activities provided a step by step sequence which was easily defined by both students and teachers for instruction and evaluation. Because this type of teaching held dominance for such a long period of time and is still reflected in the teaching in many parts of the world, IEPs have been reluctant to change their sequential organization that matched so well with this fundamental way of teaching ESL. However, newer methods and approaches have affected curricula in IEPs.

As ideas about language acquisition and learning changed to more contemporary views of language as discourse, this focus on product writing concentrating on sentence level learning came to be seen as inadequate. This dissatisfaction with product approaches, along with the new ideas of writing no longer being structural, lead to a new way of teaching composition. Process writing reflected these changing views. It followed an inductive theory of language learning and focused on global features rather than local ones.

Nunan (1991) stated that this process approach to teaching composition came about as ESL teachers and professionals recognized that good writers do not follow a sequential pattern when writing, or complete a paper at the first attempt. Instead, it was acknowledged that good writers follow a recursive process of writing several drafts before being satisfied with their text. This approach asked students to put ideas on paper with no consideration to form or correctness. It utilized group or peer reviews and, in ideal situations, one-to-one teacher/student conferences between drafts. This reviewing and conferencing was to encourage students to discuss their ideas, so that others could help the writer clarify his language or expression in successive drafts.

Because the process approach has become so widely accepted as the best choice of methods offered, it is the one currently used by most intensive institutions. This choice serves the business marketing tool of providing the latest, newest, most espoused learning theories in the language program. However, it is important to look at all teaching methods and approaches to see which skills they hold as valuable.

Methods' and Approaches' Contribution of Skills

Both of these schools of composition instruction suggest skills which are demonstrated by good writers. It is helpful to examine the approaches and methods which were based on these differing ideas in order to isolate critical skills valued by their theorists. The first set of approaches we will examine can be considered to focus primarily on product. These include the controlled writing approach, the contrastive rhetoric approach and the grammar-syntax-organization approach.

During the audio-lingual period, according to Krappels (1990), writing was seen not as a separate language skill, but as an extension of speaking. Writing was not a primary concern and its purpose was to reinforce speaking. Based somewhat on these ideas of ALM (Audio Lingual Method), controlled composition provided models of good writing which writers could imitate. It stressed "accuracy and correctness...avoid[ing] errors...positively reinforc[ing] appropriate second language behavior" (p.44). Discrete units of language were studied and it was believed that when these were mastered, then students would be able to create original compositions. Activities included were "imitation, manipulation, substitutions, transformations, expansions, completions, sentence patterns, vocabulary, learned structures" (p.44).

The important push in these methods was on the quality of the final written product or essay. Raimes (1983) explains that the product oriented approaches emerged from the audio-lingual method from the 1950's and '60's. In the first of these product-oriented approaches, controlled composition, students followed a sequence of activities which allowed few mistakes during specified operations on the given piece of writing. This method held that grammar, syntax, and mechanics were the key factors writers should master in order to become good writers.

A benefit to this approach, which should be noted by curriculum writers, is that it provided an image for students to follow as they produced unfamiliar rhetorical forms. Just as a painter could not paint a flower if he had never seen one before, it was assumed, a student could not write a persuasive essay American style if he had never read one before. An image to work toward was a teachable goal for ESL teachers and their students in intensive programs. Furthermore, a given pattern provided a concrete objective that the

student could either duplicate or not. Nevertheless, duplicating a model did not allow students to expand their writing abilities. Because controlled composition focused only on one small set of writing skills, it did not help students to generate and focus their ideas.

The problem with this approach was that it did not allow students to build skills which could help them develop the fluency necessary to producing what Kroll (1990) calls proficient discourse in composition. The reason for this was, according to Kepner (1991) that the focus of controlled composition was on micro skills, considered at that time to be grammar skills, with no inclusion of other types of skills which are known to contribute towards the development of good writers. In fact, Kepner (1991) found that this approach did not develop the fluency necessary for academic work. Walsh (1991) and Russel (1991) agreed with Kepner. While controlled composition would make those professors concerned with form and students who are secure learning grammar happy, many ESL teachers looked for another way to help students become better writers.

One theory which emerged as a reaction to controlled composition, but was still product-based, addressed the organization of paragraphs and essays. Based on Kaplan's (1967) theory of contrastive rhetoric, a technique emerged of building discourse by learning how paragraphs are assembled and later how essays follow this construction. Kroll (1990) explains that theorists extrapolated from Kaplan's model to develop a contrastive rhetoric approach on the belief that there are pre-existing formal schema in English which the writer fills in with the content he feels is appropriate. Silva (1990) described the skills in this approach as constructing and arranging discourse forms and the elements required to perform these skills. Included in this were different types of essay development, such as "classification, definition, causal analysis, and so on." Silva (1990)

describes this method as students being taught the components of paragraph and essay construction; for example, topic or supporting sentences, and thesis statements or concluding paragraphs. These skills built from sentence construction to paragraph construction and on to the essay. Krapels (1990) explained this in more detail. It emphasized usage skills in syntax, spelling, and punctuation. A specific paragraph form including topic sentences, support sentences, concluding sentences and transitions was the focus of elementary instruction. This form was expanded for more proficient students to include essays and longer forms of text. It included outlining and parts of an essay, such as an introduction, body and conclusion. This was an extensive list of skills for ESL students. As Krapels (1990) said, the contrastive rhetoric approach taught discourse forms such as: "description, narration, exposition, argumentation,... illustration, exemplification, compare and contrast, partition, classification, definition, and causal analysis" (p. 46). to learn and master.

Many writing theorists were not satisfied with this method. Nunan (1991) reports more current theory sought to develop writers' composing processes and saw such contrastive rhetoric approaches as one-step, linear exercises which did not reflect the true nature of good writers. Still more problems with the contrastive rhetoric approach were suggested by Kroll (1990) who said that thought and learning were not fostered through this type of instruction. Furthermore, Silva (1990) added that it did not develop a writer's sense of purpose or audience, nor allow for the fact that most good writers draft and revise before arriving at a final composition.. Many ESL professionals believed that this approach did not teach students the drafting and revising that were the common behaviors good writers followed in composing. They believed that if habits of good writers were

omitted from the curriculum then students would not be able to develop to the utmost of their writing abilities.

The contrastive rhetoric approach was widely used by Intensive English Programs for many years. Elements of this approach are, today, still present in many systems. Yet, as it fell into disfavor amongst university and other writing professionals, IEPs came to agree that there must be a better way to teach composition.

Just as the contrastive rhetoric approach fell short of many ESL professionals' expectations in the promoting of adequate writing skills, so did the grammar-syntax-organization method. According to Raimes (1983) some educators saw the writing product as a combination of the many parts of previous approaches and from this the grammar-syntax-organization approach was born. This approach also focuses on form, but where the contrastive rhetoric approach dealt with form on a sequential basis, this approach believed that composition was not composed of separate skills which were mastered "one by one" (p.8). In this approach, composition is not perceived as a sequence of skills, but many tasks, which teach students to use organization while they also focus on the required grammar and syntax. Instead, students were asked to pay attention to all three aspects named in the approach at the same time. For instance, if a student is writing a set of instructions he needs the vocabulary, structures of commands, and appropriate organization patterns to do this. As he prepares for the task, he practices each of the pieces so that when he is ready to write he will "see the connection between what [he is] trying to write and what [he needs] to write it" (p. 8). For example, if a student wants to tell how to "operate a calculator, the writer needs...appropriate vocabulary...an organizational plan based on

chronology...[and] sequence words" (p.8). This approach emphasizes the purpose of the writing task and the forms needed to perform that particular task.

A benefit of this approach is that it emphasizes the purpose of the piece of composition. Another benefit is that it contains many of the skills included in other approaches mentioned. The grammar-syntax-organization approach offers many different skills which can be used in objectives. Isolated skills such as how to develop a compare/contrast paragraph or how to organize a persuasive essays are a strength of this writing method. However, later researchers believed that the grammar-syntax-organization approach did not include the need for awareness of audience which is essential in most academic writing. In addition, since the skills are tied so closely to the specific task being performed, the skills may not be as generalizable as needed by most ESL compositions classes. Because of the lack of widely used skills, intensive schools looked toward different methods.

As reported by Caudery (1995), many writing professionals expressed dissatisfaction with this and other traditional methods because they did not recognize that writing was truly a many-faceted process. This was the beginning of the second division of writing theory known as process.

The process approaches took an opposite direction from those which were product based. These approaches tried to develop the mental procedure the writer experienced during the composing and revising of the composition rather than focusing on producing a perfect end result. The approaches included in this section are free-writing, the process approach, the communicative approach, and English for academic purposes.

The free-writing approach was the first of these attempts to help students expand and refine their ideas as they wrote. This approach places importance on the quantity of writing rather than its proficiency. As Raimes (1983) explained, students are to be concerned with the content of their compositions more than the form. It was the first approach to address the processes working in a writer's brain that could produce good composition. It used brainstorming techniques such as clustering or sustained writing to encourage students to write whatever came to mind and, then, later, to use these ideas to compose a paper. Raimes (1983) presented the belief of this approach by saying that if students could express their ideas clearly, then mechanics, organization, and other good writing abilities would gradually develop. This approach worked as a way to generate ideas, but did not produce the academic-quality product universities required. One of the activities used in this approach is that of sustained writing. Students are instructed to write continuously for five or ten minutes without stopping regardless of what they write. This means that even if they write "I can't think of anything to write." (p. 7), they must still write for the full amount of time. The purpose is to make writing more familiar so that less fear is involved in the composing process. Students are also told to keep the audience of their paper in mind. The content of their papers should include subjects which hold their interest and these, later, form a foundation for writing tasks which are more focused. These steps of brainstorming for ideas and addressing audience are the strengths of this approach. In spite of these strengths, it is evident that IEPs need more skills for a complete curriculum than are present here.

Such free writing was an initial attempt to address thought processes and lead others toward teaching composition in a process approach. According to Caudery (1995), as a

result of this altered way of perceiving writing and, in an attempt to solve some of the drawbacks of earlier theories, Murray, and others like him began a new approach labeled "process". It was an approach in which students moved through a cycle of brainstorming, writing, revising, rewriting, peer and teacher conferencing, more revising, and more rewriting which lead to a final copy. The emphasis was on discovery of meaning through drafting and conferencing. As in free writing, the importance was not on form, but on content. The goal of the new philosophy was not so much to produce a well-written piece of literature as to determine what was causing the problems which prevented students from producing good written texts and to address those difficulties. As explained, this approach developed as ESL professionals recognized that writing was not a linear process requiring specific steps, but a recursive process unique to each writer. Krapels (1990) stated that the goal of this approach was to encourage thought and expression of both native writers and ESL writers, and, as such, to help promote learning. Skills included in this approach are: brainstorming, diagramming, outlining, drafting. All of these activities address global skills which affected the writing process. According to Myers (1997), these activities helped students understand the nature of writing as requiring revisions and rewriting in order to express themselves more articulately.

There are, however, problems with this approach. According to Caudery (1995), the process approach to teaching writing was adopted by ESL composition teachers not because of proof that it was effective, but because of anecdotal evidence, amongst composition teachers in general, that the approach was helpful. Such methodology merely became popular as teachers saw improvements in their students' writing; although there was little evidence at the outset that this was a sound theory. However, as stated by

Horowitz (1986), this approach does not adequately prepare students to meet some tasks required of them at a university. For example, students who do not learn well inductively may not grasp the skills revealed through the self-discovery steps of this process. In addition, the approach does not prepare students to write essay tests which are required at a university. It also "gives [ESL] students a false impression of how university writing will be evaluated" (p. 142). Where teachers in composition classes may grade the process, university professors will grade the product. Overall, as Krapels (1990) said, this approach neglects the socio-cultural context of EAP (English for academic purposes) writing.

In addition, L2 (second language) students are not usually placed in ESL composition classes because they have problems coming up with ideas, which was the reasoning behind process writing. Instead, as Myers (1997) reported these students have insufficient control of vocabulary or syntax in order to produce fluid writing. Process writing does not address these concerns. It is an approach which does not include the skills which are needed by ESL students, such as the ability to use transitions correctly or to sequence data in a manner logical to an American. In spite of all of these deficiencies, many ESL classrooms promote the process approach to writing because teachers believe, because of their own classroom experience, that it improves L2 composition proficiency.

There are two major problems with using process approaches in IEPs. There are logistical difficulties directly applicable to the context of IEPs. One might assume that the conception of the word "process" implies a strictly sequenced set of activities which would easily lend themselves to an IEP curriculum. In fact, just the opposite is true, in that, two fundamental tenets of the process method are that the procedures are recursive and non-linear. The skills included in this spiraling reappear in writing classes of many levels. This

may give students the impression that they are being taught the same objectives again and again, which, in an IEP, may lead to unhappy students who do not want to pay to be taught the same things over and over. Furthermore, Caudery (1995) said the process approach requires much more individualization and time for drafting than do other approaches. It is obvious from the above explanation of an IEP teaching schedule, that time and individualization are difficult at best.

As a consequence, process writing, alone, does not lend itself well to an IEP curriculum. Yet, the global abilities emphasized in the process approach are ones which help students learn through their writing—one of the abilities desired by professors. This means that some way of incorporating these skills in the curriculum should be found so that students will learn to use writing as a learning tool and not just as a way to fulfill assignments. Furthermore, the process approach adds skills which teach a writer the various steps good writers employ in order that they too can develop good writing habits. This makes them more independent as writers, as well as more responsible for their own learning.

A version of the process approach which attempted to focus a writer's message was the communicative method. It tried to join ideas from process writing to the current philosophy that language teaching should be relevant in the real world. It aimed instruction at legitimate interactions that students would experience in the world outside the classroom. According to Raimes (1983), this method of teaching writing emphasized actual communication with a particular audience who actually read the composition and who often responded to the piece. Awareness of audience as well as purpose was stressed. The skills taught were the ones necessary to fulfill whatever task was assigned and these

incorporated many of the skills from earlier methods. For academic writing, rhetorical forms of development were the target interactions taught to students. There was no specific list of skills included in this approach other than the task-types. This approach was well adapted for tasks such as writing memos or business letters, but only provided rhetorical forms as general goals for academic tasks.

However, these forms, such as compare/contrast or argumentative essays contribute general goals held valuable by EAP theorists. The procedure of the communicative approach was similar to other process approaches, including pre-writing, drafting, and revising. Like other process approaches, it did not focus on specific skills, but rather broad behaviors. Nonetheless, if a particular type of essay production, for example persuasion, was held to be a broad skill, then, a persuasive essay qualified as a communicative act since it sought to transfer ideas to, or communicate with, a reader in order to persuade him to do something. Since many teachers felt a more focused approach was needed, further attempts to develop writing methods appeared. As with other methods, this approach was not comprehensive enough in providing skills for intensive schools.

To address this, the EAP approach attempted to recreate academic situations for which students could write actual assignments similar to those which could appear in their future academic work. Silva (1990) described this approach to writing as a re-creation of the situations under which students will actually produce academic composition; for example, essay tests, production of academic discourse, and presentation of information in known academic formats. This method tried to take the benefits of communicative theory and blend them with purpose and audience for a specific product. Like others before,

however, it too did not outline specific teaching methods with skills as objectives to lead to a described goal of good writing: making it inadequate for Intensive English Programs.

Summary of Skills from Methodology

Each of the above approaches or methodologies was trying to mold the teaching of composition into a theory which, when used with ESL students, would enable them to produce a high-quality, articulate prose. Each writing method or approach includes skills or sub-skills known to appear in the compositions of good writers.

Controlled composition can contribute the ability to recognize a model of writing and the ability to reproduce it in order to lead to an understanding of the rhetorical forms that students will need to produce for content classes. This type of schema is needed by ESL students because the writing forms in their language are often quite different from the modes used by English writers. This skill to reproduce a known model in a composition is a global skill which has been shown to improve student writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998), and, therefore, should be included in an IEP skills hierarchy. It also emphasizes accuracy, vocabulary, sentence pattern, substitution, transformation, and expansion. Controlled composition stresses systematic production of grammar, syntax, and mechanics.

Like controlled composition, contrastive rhetoric provides practical schemata necessary to producing writing in a foreign language. Using rhetorical forms appropriately to address a discipline-specific audience functions as a broad-based skill or long-term goal of EAP students. Another ability which is useful from contrastive rhetoric is the idea that writing can be learned in small chunks or skills which can be added together to build better writers. The sequence of abilities (sentence construction, paragraph construction, essay construction, etc.) lends itself well to the leveled arrangement of IEP writing classes and is

still reflected in the curriculum of ELS Language Centers course work. This pre-existing form is concrete and fits nicely within a set of objectives for a writing class.

The contrastive rhetorical model includes the skills of paragraph construction, including topic sentences, supporting sentences, concluding sentences, and transitions; essay development types such as illustration, exemplification, comparison, contrast, partition, classification, definition, causal analysis; essay construction including introduction, body, and conclusion; and organizational modes like narration, description, exposition, and argumentation (Silva, 1990). The other skills offered by this method are syntax, spelling, punctuation, paragraph forms and transitions, and essay forms (including outlining, introductions, body paragraphs, and conclusions).

Another approach which offers a few skills for the IEP multi-leveled curriculum is the grammar-syntax-organization approach. Its idea of applying appropriate grammar and syntax to rhetorical forms is a skill particularly useful in academics. another ability suggested by this approach is focus on vocabulary. Skills promoted by the grammar-syntax-organization approach were assigned according to the specific purpose of the assignment; ie. the grammar, syntax, and organizational patterns needed to fulfill a particular task.

The first process approach, freewriting, seeks to develop a writer's fluency. Through its sustained writing activities writers develop content and ideas. At the same time, they focus on a particular audience to which they must address these ideas later in a composition.

The process writing approach contains ideas which appeal to curriculum writers for IEPs because of the popularity of the approach. They include specific abilities which can

be taught and practiced both during class time and as homework. The process approach of free writing offers the skills of brainstorming, clustering, and sustained writing. Skills attributed to the process approach, itself, by Silva (1990) and Caudery (1995) are: "recursiveness..., diagramming, outlining, and multiple drafts... peer and teacher commentary...student-teacher conferences...prewriting activities...planning and organizing...becoming aware of the various composing options...final product...revision... audience expectations" (Caudery, 1995, p.8 & 9), "adding, deleting, modifying, rearranging, vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, mechanics, finding topics, generating ideas and information, focusing, planning structure and procedure." (Silva, 1990, p. 15).

The communicative approach contains a restricted set of skills to serve as a complete teaching method in a skills-based curriculum. However, one important element it emphasizes much more than other approaches is the consideration of audience. The communicative approach addresses the skills of purpose, responding, rewriting, summarizing, content, language, and levels of formality (Raimes, 1983).

EAP writing utilizes the skills of development of academic discourse schemata, skills from contrastive rhetoric, essay exam writing, content, analysis, use of source materials, evaluation, screening, synthesis, organization, presentation of data in academic form, purpose, and the writer revealing himself as a member of the academic community. All of these can contribute useful skills for intensive language schools.

As can be seen, these methods offer a broad range of skills from discourse oriented ones to those focused on format or other local considerations. Even though some skills are duplicated, expanded or refined in different applications, there is no agreement amongst

any of the existing writing approaches on a particular set of skills writers need to master. The underlying problem with each method is that there is a focus on specific sub-points or skills of writing; yet, none of these theories deals with the overall picture. Some identify skills which are specific enough to be taught, while others assume one learns to write by writing prolifically and getting feedback. All omit some components addressed by others. For IEP writing teachers and administrators seeking to design curricula, there is no clear consensus to be found among ESL writing theorists about a complete set of skills necessary for ESL writing in the manner as has developed for other language areas such as grammar or reading.

Intensive English Program curriculum writers employ various of these methods, but no one method appears to sufficiently meet the need of Intensive English Programs or their students. Yet, since each method contains skills which are believed to improve student composition, it seems that an approach which integrates the strengths of each method could contribute to a new focus in teaching composition which would work for IEPs. This research seeks to take one step in the direction of creating such an integrated method by identifying a set of skills which are agreed upon by educated sources to be necessary to developing good writers.

This discussion of writing theory shows that neither a wholly product approach nor a wholly process approach is ideal for IEPs. Using anything but a process approach has come to mean the "bad old days" (Myers, 1997, p. 3) when product was the sole means of teaching composition. Yet, the latest research has demonstrated a need for teaching both local and discourse skills rather than embracing one or the other (Myers, 1997). Kern and Schultz (1992) believe that composition instruction emphasizing an integrated method of

teaching can have a positive influence on students' writing. This holds very true for IEPs since both process and product approaches have been shown to contain procedures which are inherently incompatible with intensive situations. Because none of the specific methods we have discussed are agreed upon as being the perfect teaching methods, the goals of the writing program, as White (1994) says, should be decided partly based on agreement about skills from all of these instructional theories. One specific teaching approach or method should not be used as the sole contributor of writing objectives, but rather a combination of the skills from many differing methods is most likely to contribute skills which could be considered essential by most composition professionals.

Professors' and Students' Perception of Writing Needs

Professors and their students can define which writing skills are academic and, thus, desired in an EAP program at an intensive school. First, meeting the professor's expectations is the goal of any learner of composition since the professor is the one who will eventually determine a student's quality of writing by assigning grades. Because not all professors agree on which writing skills students need (Hamp-Lyons, 1990), it is beneficial to consider opinions of academicians in various fields. This will allow a consideration of skills which should be demonstrated in the final written products. Next, students' opinions should be included to give more perspective on writing skills needed during the process of composing rather than just product skills. Students' perceptions of what professors require can lend more substantiation to a list of chosen skills for a curriculum. These two views about what abilities are needed at a university will help

determine which kinds of skills should be considered for students whose goal is university work.

Professors

The ultimate goal of instruction with university-bound, IEP students is to provide them with the necessary composition skills to satisfy assignments at the university and please the professors enough so that the students receive high grades. Knowing what writing skills professors value helps determine which skills need priority in a limited curriculum. The next section, then, looks at research which explores the viewpoints of professors across the curriculum as to what is necessary for good writing in their discipline.

A good place to begin is research done with composition from native speakers of English and English professors. Russell (1991) tells in his history of writing curricula that research on native English writers shows late-nineteenth-century university educators focused on "mechanical skills: correct grammar, spelling, and usage necessary for transcribing" (p. 7). Previously, Vann, Meyer & Lorenz. (1984) found this also to be true of professors of ESL students in the mathematical and physical sciences as well as those in engineering. These professors were bothered more by local errors than were those from the social sciences, education, humanities, biological or agricultural sciences. Indeed, more recently, Agnew (1994) reported this focus on surface features is still seen as necessary by professors across the disciplines who report on being bothered by mechanical errors more than by content deficiencies. In addition, Russikoff (1994) saw the need for ESL students to perform up to the same standards as those expected of native speakers.

Other researchers contradict these findings that local skills are the ones that ESL students need to improve. The science and liberal arts teachers in Fregeau's (1999) case studies of two ESL students produced opposite viewpoints to those professors in the studies above. Fregeau conducted interviews of two university ESL students over one semester in regard to their L2 writing class and their other content classes. These students' science and liberal arts teachers reported that they wanted students to demonstrate that they had understood the concepts taught. Also, these professors felt that students should be able to express their ideas about content with clarity. They felt grammar and spelling were of much less importance. In contrast, the ESL and composition teachers in this study agreed with the professors discussed above who focused on local skills. Fregeau's two case study participants reported that their ESL instructors responded to the students' compositions by correcting surface errors and rewording incoherent text.

Additional research supports the findings of Fregeau in regard to mechanical errors being less important than global errors for some professors. Santos (1988) looked at how professors rated language and content in two essays, one of which was written by a Chinese student and the other by a Korean. Ninety-six professors from the humanities/social sciences departments and 82 from physical sciences departments of University of California at Los Angeles were asked to first identify and then rate the errors found in the composition they read. The results showed that humanities/social sciences professors were somewhat more lenient than physical sciences professors as far as surface errors. However, there was more difference in tolerance between experienced and less experienced professors. The less experienced ones were less tolerant of these errors.

In addition to this, Santos (1988) found that professors across the curriculum, regardless of age or experience, agreed that content and errors which affected meaning were the most important types of errors. Although some departments' professors were bothered more by local errors than others, when they compared local and content errors, professors, of all departments agreed with the science and liberal arts professors in Fregeau's study that the content errors were more significant than the language. Furthermore, these professors were more concerned with the ideas in a paper and stated that they would overlook mistakes of non-native speakers when valuing content.

Professors believed that, even though sentence level accuracy may affect the quality of writing, mistakes at the content or global level created problems in the discourse, making the paper difficult to comprehend (Burt, 1975). Santos (1988) and Leki and Carson (1994) identified some global errors, such as organization and development or support of ideas, as those which can make content incomprehensible. Another global error problem was discussed by Sullivan, Lyon, Lebofsky, Wells, and Goldblatt (1997) who found that professors in mechanical engineering perceive a need for students to have more precision in incorporating their references in recalling specific information than may be called for in other areas. This ability to be precise affected the student's ability to communicate the ideas coherently. Lee (1988) added that studies show, overall, that university teachers in all subject areas see a need for students to develop better organizational skills, use longer sentences and compositions, use better sentence structure and vocabulary, and improve usage.

Sullivan et al. (1997) also reported on problems with students' global writing abilities which were the subject of a task force at Temple University whose purpose was to

restructure the university's writing program. Before restructuring, professors across the curriculum were dissatisfied with students' writing in general and expressed concern about the students' inability to convey content. The purpose of the task force was to identify the source of these problems and reformulate the writing curriculum to rectify them. The task force worked with the faculty of writing-intensive courses to identify discrepancies between teacher expectations and student performance. Professors identified students' inadequacies in "selecting and focusing a topic, synthesizing source material, organizing and developing a paper, revising their drafts, and responding critically to published books and articles" (p. 377). The Council of Writing Program Administrators did an evaluation of the current program and in its report, made recommendations for change. The program was restructured to include discourse skills such as emphasizing audience and analysis of texts, and teaching students about "how writing is produced" (p.382). The result was improved student writing in content classes across the board.

Another way of examining how professors define the writing needs of their students is to consider the types of assignments students are expected to perform. By looking at class syllabuses, Canseco and Byrd (1989) learned more about the writing tasks assigned to graduate students in American universities. They examined syllabuses from graduate classes at Georgia State University in their College of Business Administration. They looked at a total of 55 syllabuses for 48 different graduate courses. The writing assignments assumed that students would be able to interpret and respond to topics discussed in the class through writing. Professors believed that students' composition should both demonstrate an understanding of content of the course and perform the specific writing abilities required for different writing tasks. This examination of the syllabuses did

unearth new needs of students in graduate classes, for example "instruction that focuses on interpreting and responding to topics provided by instructors" (p. 312).

Vann et al. (1984) added to the idea that higher-level, global skills affect the quality of a student's writing. Professors at Iowa State from departments across the curriculum answered questionnaires and responded to 36 sentences containing different types of errors. Overall, professors graded content; that is, the students' ability to communicate messages, more strictly than local errors. However, global errors which affected the organization of sentences overall were less acceptable than those which did not interfere with comprehension. Specifically, some local errors in writing skill, identified in the areas of spelling or punctuation, article and preposition usage, were more acceptable while errors in agreement of pronouns or subjects with verbs, word choice and word order, and relative clause usage were considered unacceptable.

Because of the change in belief that global skills improve writing more than surface skills, it is safe to say that ESL composition theory has grown toward less concern with error and more appreciation of content (Agnew, 1994) in order to prepare students for what ESL professionals see as the instructional needs of the students. Such global abilities will allow students to see how to use writing as a learning tool by revealing assigned information in their compositions (Leki & Carson, 1994). Even though professors in these studies valued content over correctness, many professors still felt a need for their students to develop better grammar as well as to improve other local skills.

It seems that professors agree that a variety of skills are needed by students for good writing performance at a university. Professors cited the micro skills of: spelling, composition and sentence length, vocabulary, and grammar. Other skills included were:

usage, development, and precise references. Organization was an important macro skill mentioned. Professors see a need for better vocabulary, grammar, and organization. They also included many more macro skills: writing outlines, book reports, term papers, and text-responsible writing. These examples should be included in a collating list leading to essential skills.

Students

Research shows that student perceptions adhere closely to the views of both ESL teachers and professionals from the content areas. Kroll (1978) reported that students in general listed global skills such as writing outlines, writing book reports, or writing term papers to be abilities necessary in content class writing.

The results Leki (1995) received from in-depth interviews provides more insights about which skills are beneficial to writing development. Students in this study suggested that EAP classes should teach writing strategies that good students or anyone else could use to fulfill writing tasks. Leki studied 5 (three graduate and two undergraduate) ESL students from a large state university in the United States. All had received above a 525 on the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) and were enrolled in classes requiring a significant amount of writing. Some of the strategies these students employed during their writing were: clarifying strategies, relying on past writing experiences, and looking for models. Being flexible in their ability to choose appropriate strategies to accomplish their tasks was displayed by all five of the students in this study. Therefore, this study supports the idea of strategy or skills training in writing classes as being both of value to the students and of being an element of successful students' writing process.

A different study of Leki's with Carson (1994) surveyed students about their writing experiences across the curriculum. They did a survey of 128 students who had received academic writing instruction and were currently enrolled in a university course requiring writing. The survey items included things such as good grades, perceived success in content courses, or perceived success on writing tasks for content classes. Students felt they needed more practice using sources for compositions than their writing classes had provided. This study identified the following perceptions: need for vocabulary, grammar, organization, writing speed, discipline-specific needs, and more challenging assignments.

Another study done by Leki and Carson (1997) reported findings on non-text-responsible writing, i.e. writing based not on texts, but only on ideas from the student. This research found that students believed the need for non-text-responsible writing to be the venue almost exclusively of the English class. ESL students at a large U.S. university were interviewed twice through a qualitative, in-depth process. In the analyses, a framework for classification of data revealed two divisions: type of writing and academic level of student.

Distinct differences were revealed about writing skills required by ESL writing classes versus content classes. One difference between ESL writing classes and content classes was the perception that information or ideas used in the writing courses needed to be clear and concise, but not necessarily correct. However, in their non-English classes, the content had to be accurate as well as clearly expressed. This means that another writing skill seen as needed by these students was that of text-responsible writing or writing to reveal learned material. Content classes usually require responses to reading, summaries of articles, and evaluations of subject material, rather than expository essays, journal writing, descriptive essays, or other types of writing typical of ESL classes and which are unrelated

to ideas taught in a content class. Therefore, the type of writing students were asked to perform revealed that students see the need for text-responsible writing as more important than the type of writing they were required to perform in their writing classes.

Leki & Carson (1997) also found differences in student perceptions of writing needs for content class writing, according to whether the student was enrolled in graduate or undergraduate school. While the undergraduates expressed that they were able to apply what they had learned in the ESL writing classes to content work, graduate students expressed a need for different abilities; for example learning the differences between general "textual preferences of ...genre" (p. 48) between the English department and other disciplines. Some disciplinary formats included forms, such as introduction, results, and discussion, learned in ESL classes, which graduate students found to be transferable. In spite of this, they felt that they still lacked in their knowledge of professional conventions for their particular discipline. Also, graduate students felt that writing classes did not teach them to transform text in order to avoid plagiarism. Furthermore, these students needed to be familiar with the formats for writing in their discipline; but their writing classes taught various rhetorical formats which may or may not have helped them later. This is a serious problem since the rhetorical forms taught in various approaches are not authentic EAP forms.

Probably, the most important element students felt they needed to write good L2 compositions was time. Students said again and again that when writing within a limited time allotment, they found it difficult to find ideas and vocabulary to express themselves satisfactorily. Yet, when students were asked to use source texts in their compositions, time did not pose a problem since they did not have to come up with content on their own.

In Fregeau's (1999) case studies of two university ESL students, she found frustration with their L2 composition classes. Both students felt that their compositions teachers' focus on surface level errors did not help them to improve their writing. These students felt that their writing class was not preparing them for their content classes i.e., they needed writing skills which would help them communicate ideas to their teachers since this was the emphasis of the content teachers. Furthermore, one of the students noted that if her writing had improved at all, it was from the practice she had done and she expressed a desire for more ungraded writing opportunities. She said that if they were ungraded she would "have practiced more meaningful and sophisticated writing." This study suggests that students want instruction in higher-level writing abilities which do not address surface features, but discourse, as well as just more practice writing.

It seems, then, that both professors and students show no overwhelming belief in the need for any particular type of skills for university composition. Professors, in general, are interested in the skills of correct grammar, spelling, correct usage, correct content, clarity, coherence, correct word choice, logical connectors, organization, development of ideas, support of ideas, precision in reference, sentence and essay length, vocabulary, audience, analysis, response, punctuation, agreement of pronouns and subjects/verbs, word order and relative clause usage. Students expressed the need for the writing skills of outlining, writing book reports and term papers, introduction, results, discussion, use of a model, use of sources, vocabulary, grammar, organization, writing speed, discipline-specific rhetorical formats, text-responsible writing, clarity, conciseness, coherence, correct content, summary, evaluation, and paraphrasing. These studies suggest that IEP curricula

should include a good balance of all of these types of skills when selecting objectives for classes in order to prepare students for academia.

This section has defined a set of skills from professor and students to form a foundation to which other research can add skills. The next section will examine which of the skills have been shown to improve writing and those which are uniquely needed by ESL students.

Writing Skills Effect on Written Communication

When considering how important certain skills are for teaching, primary importance should be given to those which have been shown to improve L2 students' writing. Another consideration are those skills which native speakers of English have that non-native speakers do not.

While it is relevant to take into consideration opinions of professionals from general academia, the ESL profession itself, and students as to what skills for writing are important, if the skills they name do not actually improve a student's composition, then they should not be considered as essential as those proven to do so. In order to do this, this section will first define a working concept of writing proficiency in order to set a target goal by which to evaluate skills. Then, it will look at studies which purposely or inadvertently identify writing abilities which improve or have no effect on students' production of compositions or their proficiency.

Furthermore, it is necessary to examine how similarities and differences in native English writers' and non-native English writers' composition skills affect the quality of their writing. Similar skills can be easily taught by teachers, but where differences occur,

special skills must be included so that ESL writers can communicate in a manner more closely related to native-speaker writing. These identified skills, those that improve writing and those of L2 (second language) which are similar or different from L1 (first language), will contribute to this research's proposed list of crucial composing skills.

Skills Which Improve Writing

If we want to find skills which will make students improve their writing, then we must have some concept of what we want them to be able to do in their essays. Connor and Kaplan (1987) explain this as the student's ability to produce "a coherent universe of discourse" (p. 26). A clearer idea of a coherent universe would be Widdowson's (1978) description of discourse as the writer providing enough clues in his text so that his intended meaning is communicated through world knowledge and conventions of language and usage which he assumes he shares with his reader. When a composition creates such a universe, the writer has created a text which is proficient and comprehensible to a native reader (Connor & Kaplan, 1987).

Because early L2 research was based on that done in L1, proficiency in L2 writing, according to Kepner (1991), was, for many years, defined as the ability to control the local skills needed to produce an accurate composition. Kepner wanted to determine if in fact these types of skills improved students' writing. He looked at teacher comments directed at error correction and those directed at content of the writer's message. When teachers corrected surface errors and followed this up with rules, no substantive change was noted in the students' compositions. Students who received comments about their content used many more higher-level propositions in their journals than did students who received feedback concerning their lack of accuracy. Furthermore, students who were instructed

about how to correct errors did not make significantly fewer errors than the other group. This study, then, showed that skills affecting discourse production rather than surface features improved the students' ability to create propositions to communicate coherent meaning. In addition, feedback concerning content improved content, but not accuracy. This suggests that elements of discourse ability can be said to improve student writing.

Another study which looked at what types of skills improved student composition was that of Kern & Schultz (1992). They looked at whether the restructured second-year foreign language curriculum of the University of California, Berkeley was improving students' preparation for upper-division writing. Previously, these classes included writing tasks which focused on accuracy instead of on idea development, essay organization, or the student's ability to effectively express his ideas. The new classes focused on the developing students' higher-order or global skills and, to a small extent, on accuracy of grammar. Rather than comparing writing performance of a control and experimental group, this study looked at how much change in writing performance occurred in these students. Overall performance did increase, but low ability students made the most improvement in French Three where they were taught "thesis statement development, rhetorical organization strategies, paragraph development and the writing of introductions and conclusions"(p. 6). All students showed at least some improvement, but not all ability levels had the same amount of increase. High ability students did not improve much in French Three where they received instruction in the fundamentals of writing, but they improved considerably from the instruction in French Four on in-depth analysis of French texts. This suggests that when they entered French Three, these high ability students were already fairly good writers so that the writing fundamentals did not help them much. Middle

ability students showed the same improvements as low ability, but they never overtook the high-ability group. Kern and Schultz's research found skills contributing to higher-order discourse to help improve student writing. This study, in addition, contributes actual components, such as the components stated above which were taught in French Three, which helped students build writing performance.

The fact that focus on form over content or communication does not improve writing skills is upheld by Fregeau's (1999) study of two university ESL students. The first student received writing instruction which focused on producing complete sentences and paragraphs rather than communicating with a specific audience. For this student, in an ESL composition class, most of the time spent was on drafting outlines, sentences and paragraphs. She felt that the outlining was useless and actually hindered her thoughts instead of helping her organize. This student regularly wrote her outlines after finishing her composition and consistently received high grades. This student felt the course was too simple and did not address her needs. Focusing on form, for her, interfered with her communication of ideas or content.

The other student in Fregeau's study was in a non-ESL course and was taught through a traditional system of learning typical of contrastive rhetoric or the grammar-syntax-organization approach which included both global and surface features. She was also required to follow several steps of process writing including brainstorming ideas, drafting, revising and doing a final draft. The teacher concentrated on the production of the correct forms and did not place much emphasis on whether the ideas were correct, but only if they were correctly expressed. This student was often frustrated and felt her course was much too advanced because her English proficiency made her performance of the global

abilities insufficient and frustrating. She felt that the concepts taught in this class were beyond her grasp. However, she did feel that her writing had improved because of the amount of writing practice she had done with the drafting. Also, she felt that the assignments were meaningful. As can be seen, even though this student did not feel that she had learned new skills, in fact, she did feel that her overall or global writing had improved, while the student who received training in surface features alone did not.

Cooper (1981) also identified some components of meaning-level skills which are inherent in good writing. He discussed the fact that as students achieve more complexity in their syntax, their writing is more compact; that is, instead of using several short sentences to express an idea, they can condense it into one sentence and still retain the meaning. For example, a less-proficient ESL writer might say, "Disneyworld is in Florida. It is an amusement park." Whereas, a more-proficient writer would produce, "Disneyworld, an amusement park, is in Florida." Such a sentence is more concise and more native-like. Another skill he defined was that of students' developing the ability to paraphrase. These two skills, production of syntactic compactness and paraphrases, should also be included in the list of essential skills.

Along with the studies described above, Connor and Kaplan (1987) believe that sentences must meet specific criteria in order to give meaning or substance to the sentences as a group rather than as isolated strings. When teachers can describe such criteria and teach it to students they can develop global skills to enhance their writing. Kepner (1991) affirms this idea that when teacher instruction, in the form of written feedback, focuses on global abilities, the writing proficiency of college intermediate L2 students is facilitated. Other studies (Lipp & Davis-Ockey, 1997; White, 1994; Zak & Weaver, 1998; Hall, 1990;

Vann, et al, 1984; Widdowson, 1978, & Cooper, 1981) support these findings. We can conclude from these studies that teaching and feedback directed at meaning level skills can develop good writing in ESL students.

Therefore, sentences must not only be understandable in isolation, but must also create relationships among themselves which provide meaning to the reader: these are propositions. Widdowson (1978) agrees that the global skill of creating propositions from sentences is a necessary quality to writing, rather than just the ability to produce clear language in each sentence. Furthermore, any text outside of known writing conventions is difficult or even impossible to understand (Widdowson, 1978); therefore, other skills students need is the ability to operate within accepted rhetorical guidelines and the ability to create and link propositions.

L1 and L2 Writing

Now that a knowledge of some elements which improve students' writing has been determined, it is necessary to consider which of these should be of more importance to ESL teachers specifically. Many studies showed that, in a broad sense, writing in a second language is similar to writing in a first language (Valdes, Haro, & Echevarriarza, 1992; Caudery, 1995; Arndt, 1987; & Hall, 1990). They have also revealed differences which must be taken into account by the curriculum writer for ESL programs.

Silva's (1993) comprehensive study of native English writing and non-native English writing collated numerous research reports. In this study, L1 and L2 writers, overall, were found to be similar in that the recursive composing processes of "planning, writing, and revising, to develop...ideas" (p. 657) are the same. Furthermore, the research

agrees that good writers follow a similar process of "recursive composing process" (p. 657) in both their L1 and L2.

Another of these studies which looked at L1 and L2 similarities was Hall's (1990) comparative study which looked at the revising processes of four advanced ESL students at the University of Wyoming. Hall found common behaviors in the native language and English composing processes of these advanced ESL students. He found that, in both groups, "revisions focused on single words...[the]next most frequent level was the phrase... (p. 53) [other revisions were] substitution... addition...[and] deletion" (p. 49). These four students were able to use a single system of revising in both languages.

In spite of the fact that L1 writing has enough similarities to ESL writing (Krapels, 1990) to help research begin to define the needs of L2 writers, studies have also found persistent differences between the writing of native and non-native speakers of English. Differences can suggest skills which L2 students need which L1 students may not. The differences that Silva's (1993) study found were in the quality of the processes that ESL students followed. For example, while both native-English students and ESL students plan, the L2 students focused on more local details instead of global aspects of the composition. In the writing stage, the L2 students had more difficulty generating ideas, fewer of these ideas appeared in the text produced, and there was more difficulty in organizing the material. The revising steps also had distinct differences. There was less reviewing of the material, more focus on grammar and mechanics, and less reflection on texts than with native English writers. Other difference were: L2 students' transcribing or actual writing of the text was not as fluent or productive; L2 writing was less fluent overall; their texts contain more errors; and L1 texts were more effective than L2 texts.

These L1/L2 studies suggest that while both English and non-English speaking students need many of the same skills for writing, their ability in performing those skills are not equal. Non-native writers experience more difficulty overall with both global and local abilities. Specifically, these studies show that ESL students need extra focus on the skills of the writing and composing process, fluency, accuracy, text effectiveness, generation of ideas, content, organization, and general global skills manipulation.

The purpose of this section was to establish a definition of writing proficiency that would serve as a goal to which writing skills might contribute. It examined studies which suggested writing abilities that would have a positive effect on students' writing proficiency. Finally, similar and different skills needed by native English and non-native writers were discussed.

As seen above, the study of composition has progressed away from the old perception of composition teaching as control of surface skills. Rather it has been shown that teaching writing abilities which contribute to student production of global skills does improve student composition. The studies above include the following skills as those which improve student writing: thesis statement, rhetorical forms, paragraph development, introduction, conclusion, in-depth analysis, organization, coherence, cohesion, content, grammatical accuracy, brainstorming, drafting, revising, final draft construction, creation of propositions, linking of propositions, adherence to writing conventions, conciseness, paraphrasing, syntactic compactness, and all skills which affect discourse production. These studies recognize that "coherent texts are highly complex systems of macro- and micro-structures" (Kern & Schultz, 1992, p.1) which are components of comprehensible text. Control of these components can be said to improve students' composition.

In conclusion, it seems that there is much disagreement about which skills students need in order to become good writers. In order to find some agreement, the first step was to define "essentialism" as it applies to how integral a skill is to good writing as defined by methodology, professors, students, and researchers. It was shown that once specifications have been clearly defined at the outset of a program, there will be less confusion when teachers are called upon to determine where a student falls within the specified parameters (White, 1994). Instructional methods contributed opinions as to which skills are seen as most essential to composition theorists. Abilities valued by professors and students at universities have been discussed and analyzed as to their contributions in terms of whether the skills are needed academically. Finally, skills which actually improve writing and those specifically needed by ESL students were discussed.

The next step in this process was to look at opinions of those most knowledgeable in the field. Any consensus there would be a move toward establishing skills needed by second language learners in order to become a good writer.

Chapter Three

Methods and Procedures

Purpose

The goal of this research is to identify essential academic writing skills which could clarify writing instruction for English for Academic Purposes in short-term Intensive English Programs. This study will cross-reference skills held to be important by professors, students, assessment rubrics, curricula, methodologies, current composition research, and teaching professionals in order to establish skills which are essential to good writing.

Methods Overview

This research gathered data in several different ways. The first method was a collation of skills which had been the focus of a study from current composition literature regardless of the positive or negative results of the study. Also included in the literature skills were those skills which were explicitly taught in textbooks (see Appendix A). Then skills were taken from assessment instruments which came from standardized tests, ESL methodology textbooks, and ESL classrooms (see Appendix B). Next, skills were included from the curricula and objectives of various types of composition programs; from university LEP classes, long-term IEPs, and short-term IEPs (see Appendix C).

All skills collated from the literature or research were cross-referenced with each other, compared, and a count kept on each skill to show how many times that particular ability was mentioned. The counts designated the frequency of skills within one source of

data. In addition, skills were taken from in-depth interviews of classroom teachers who teach in two types of post-secondary, teaching situations; IEPs and university LEP composition classes. The skills from these interviews were collated, counted, and tabulated in the same manner as those from research. Next, skills from the literature, assessments, curricula, and interviews were cross-referenced and counts tabulated to give the frequency of skills across sources of data. Finally, weighted skills from assessment, curricula, and teacher data were collated to determine which were scored highly. It was assumed that those scores reflected the relative importance of the skill. These scores were then cross-referenced within the three data collections. This gave the most-heavily weighted skills. These results were compared to the other two sets of data (most common skills within a data source and most common skills across sources). The number of counts each skill received or its frequency within one source of data, plus the frequency of agreement across databases plus the weightedness of the skills determined each skill's level of necessity according to all sources investigated.

The data collection was based on a convenience sample as it was limited to the studies, assessment rubrics, composition theories, and curricula I located during my search for information. The reports of the contexts and methodological considerations could not be random because I collected this data from available, previously published research and not research of my own. These data, therefore, reflect each of the studies cited in my review of the literature.

The manner in which the data were extracted from the literature was selective. Skills which were the focus of a research study were included whether results of the study were negative or positive. Because specific grammar skills were often combined with

writing instruction in many of the sources, these were distinguished as separate skills and as components of the global skill of "grammar". Skills which were specifically discussed in TESL textbooks were included. Finally, skills which were taught in ESL writing textbooks were included.

Skills were recorded in descending order of importance as acknowledged by most counts to least counts. Frequency was reported by figuring quartiles of skills grouped from most to least counts (See Table 6 under Literature Source Data below). This showed the skills mentioned most to least often within each of the four groups of data (curricula, assessment, literature, and teachers). Then, a different frequency was found by looking at the occurrence of skills across the data. This was reported by quartiles, with occurrence in three or four separate data sources considered significant. Finally, the weighting of skills in the data from teachers, assessment, and curricula was reported by converting the weighted score from the data into a percentages of the total possible. Again, quartiles were taken from the percentages with the upper two quartiles being significant.

Data Collection from Assessment Instruments, Curricula, and Literature Sources

Assessment instruments used to collect data for this research came from three different areas of assessment: proficiency instruments from standardized tests, achievement instruments from IEPs, and sample scoring rubrics suggested by theoreticians in the assessment field of study (see Appendix B). Of these, ten were standardized tests used to measure proficiency and usually used to place students in a educational program. Thirteen were from assessment texts where they were given as examples for different types of assessment. Three were from IEPs and their purpose was to measure achievement after

teaching. These came to a total of 26 assessment instruments. First of all, assessment tools which had received acknowledgment from teaching professionals and TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) researchers as reliable, valid rubrics were chosen. Since proficiency testing has a different aim than achievement instruments, instructional grading sheets actually used in intensive schools were also included in the data collection. Finally, scoring samples from assessment methodology textbooks were added to include the theoretical and researched overview of the general types of scoring taught in TESL preparatory classes.

The skills from the data were collected by randomly selecting one assessment instrument from amongst the rubrics available, and recording all skills mentioned in this first scoring sheet. Then, another instrument was chosen at random. Any skills included here, which were already recorded from the first rubric and were also included in this second instrument, were not recorded a second time, but given a count or tick to indicate that the skill had been mentioned for a second time. Any skills in this second instrument, which were not in the first instrument, were added to the list. All skills from other scoring rubrics were added to the data in this same manner.

One assessment instrument is shown in Table 1. This was the third instrument from which skills were elicited. Some of the skills listed here were not yet on the collation of skills list. These skills were written into the list alphabetically. Any skill which was already on the collation list was given a tick or mark to count it as being shown again. The collation list is also shown in Table 1 with all skills from the assessment rubric already added. Each mark beside a term represents one curriculum where that term was mentioned. Therefore, if there is a term followed by two marks or ticks, that term was present in three

curricula. If the term is followed by one tick, then it was mentioned in two curricula. If there are no ticks or marks following, then it has only been mentioned in one of the three curricula's skills included on this collation list. The assessment came from Faigley, Cherry, Jolliffe, and Skinner, 1985.

Table 1
Assessment and Collation List

Diederich's analytic scale.					
	Low		Middle		High
Ideas	2	4	6	8	10
Organization	2	4	6	8	10
Wording	1	2	3	4	5
Flavor	1	2	3	4	5
Usage	1	2	3	4	5
Punctuation	1	2	3	4	5
Spelling	1	2	3	4	5
Handwriting	1	2	3	4	5

Collation List	
arguments	punctuation 11
capitalization 11	sentence structure accurate
conclusion	spelling 1
content demonstrated 11	thesis 1
details 1	usage
examples	wording
explanations	
flavor	
generalizations	
grammar accuracy 11	
handwriting	
organization 11	

The collation of skills from curricula and literature sources was done in the same manner as that done with assessment instruments. Forty-seven research studies or textbooks were chosen upon the basis that the focus was on academic composition and its contributing skills. The studies were selected because they looked at specific skills and

their effect on composition quality and they are those listed in the bibliography. Four textbooks were used, 17 TESL studies books, and 26 research articles were included. In the TESL books, skills were drawn from the chapters which addressed writing quality or skills. Several textbooks which were available at my place of work were also used because they overtly taught writing skills (see Appendix A). All of this literature was used as foundation information for this research or were directly reviewed above.

An example of how skills were deemed integral to a study can be seen in the following excerpt from Kern and Schultz (1992). Here, the study pinpointed skills in the scoring procedure used in the data collection for the project being discussed in this article. It states, "A group of eight research assistants scored the essays holistically on a six-point scale based on criteria established for content, organization, coherence, cohesion, and grammatical accuracy." All five of these skills were an inherent part of this study, therefore, they were seen as being mentioned as important skills to add to the collation of skills.

Curricula were received from sixteen English programs with levels ranging from 2 to 9 (see Appendix C). Of these, six were proprietary schools operating on a four-week system. Eight were intensive programs operated by universities functioning with various time lengths, from six-weeks to 15 weeks. The last two were university LEP English class curricula lasting 15 weeks.

An example of one curriculum from the data is in Table 2. From each set of objectives for writing, items which described writing skills as cited above were first added to a list. For example, in Level 3, in Table 2, number one "...simple, compound, and complex sentences" were added to the list since this was the first time any of these skills

was mentioned in any curricula thus far. The skill in Level 3 number 2 of "complete sentences" had been included once before in a different curriculum so that this term was already on the list. Therefore, a tick was given to this term on the list to show that this was the second mention of this term in a curriculum. If this term appeared in any other curricula, a tick or count would be added to it for each successive appearance. The set of

Table 2

Sample Objectives from Curriculum Source

Level 3 Composition objectives:

By the end of this course, the students should be able to:

1. review construction of simple, compound, and complex sentences.
2. distinguish between sentence fragments and complete sentences by identifying basic sentence parts.
3. review parts of speech as needed for effective revision techniques.
4. use all tenses in the construction of all types of sentences.
5. maintain writing journals focusing on expressing opinions in English.
6. review paragraph construction.
7. know and use a basic plan for building academic essays.
8. continue to develop an awareness of subject, audience, and purpose.
9. consider cohesion, coherence, and unity when drafting paragraphs and essays.
10. write a variety of paragraphs and essays:
 - a. informative essay and paragraph
 - b. narrative paragraph and essay
 - c. classification paragraph
 - d. summary/reaction
 - e. reaction paper
 - f. cause/effect paragraph
11. continue to develop and practice pre-writing and revision strategies
12. practice strategies for completing timed essays
13. understand the need for and use transitional devices within paragraphs and essays
14. introduce MLA documentation

objectives came from the Intensive English Language Program at Findlay University. The program has four levels and these objectives came from Level 3 of their program.

Writing skills were collected from the four areas of sources (literature, assessment rubrics, curricula, teacher commentary) mentioned in Chapter One. After recording skills from all data, three general categories, each with sub-categories emerged. The three main categories were Local Skills, Global Skills, and Organization Skills (see Table 3). The Local Skills were divided further into rule-based skills, and usage skills. These were skills which occurred in one place, like a sentence or paragraph, and followed a rule which could be taught or was the application of an idea in one place in the essay. They could also be a rule of format or a particular element included in overall mechanics. The Global area was separated into abstract, concrete, and usage. All of these skills dealt with material throughout the essay. The concrete skills were similar to rule-based but global rather than local. Here, the skills addressed adherence to rules, form, or the visible performance of a skill throughout the essay. The abstract skills were those which could not be physically

Table 3

Categories and Sub-Divisions of Skills

Local Skills	Global Skills	Organization Skills
rule-based	abstract	introduction
usage	concrete	body
	usage	conclusion
		paragraph
		rhetorical forms

demonstrated. The usage skills were similar to those in the local category, but here applied to the entire essay. The Organization division had further sub-categories: introduction,

body, conclusion, paragraph development, and rhetorical forms. These were skills which denoted the types of ideas required for development of essay structure. Table 3 is an in-depth look at these different categories.

The first category was that of Local Skills. The ruling characteristic of these was that these skills could be taught through grammar rules or were the usage of some other kind of rule. Furthermore, these skills affected one specific area of the text rather than the entire essay making them a local skill rather than a global skill which would affect the entire essay. Therefore, if the rule were violated, the meaning of the entire essay would not be affected, but only the meaning of one place in the essay. Rule-based skills were those which could be taught by rules of grammar, punctuation, capitalization, or other such concrete rules. An example of the rule-based skills would be: if a subject and verb did not agree, then the student did not follow the rule that subjects and verbs must agree in English. In addition, if a citation were done incorrectly in one sentence that would be a rule violated in one place. Other examples would be where word order rules were followed incorrectly in a sentence or when a subordinate clause was used alone rather than attached to a dependent clause.

The usage aspect of Local Skills identified skills which recognized how a writer used and applied his knowledge of rules to create his own unique composition. Things like word order or the differing arrangements of words a writer could possibly choose could be performed accurately, but the manner in which they are used adds to the writer's style. The usage sub-section deals not with how accurately skills are used, but with the manner in which the rules are manipulated. Transitions, for example, must be used between specific types of information. If they were used in between the wrong type of sentences, they

would make no sense. However, one transition misuse would not cause a complete misunderstanding of the entire essay. Further examples of local skills were word choice and the appropriate use of idioms. Word choice could affect how precise or general the meaning is of a particular sentence, yet does not affect the entire essay. Idioms, if used in the wrong situation, could present incoherence within a paragraph, but not within the essay. Because these skills affected a small area of text and not the message of the whole composition, they were considered local skills.

The next set of skills were global concepts presented in the entire text. This was the category of Global Skills. These were grouped together because they dealt with the entire essay and not just a part of the essay. Where some of the global skills concerned the ideas in the essay, others did not, but they still were characteristics of a writer's style which were present throughout the essay. For example, the variety of sentence structures or vocabulary in all parts of a paper demonstrate one writer's unique way of expressing himself. The unity of an essay is a function of all sentences and paragraphs, so that unity is a global skill. Another example of a global skill is mechanics which relates to whether or not formatting rules have been followed throughout the essay. Some of these skills addressed content and, the others concerned form or essay structure. They all dealt with ideas throughout a paper so that this category was holistic or global in character.

The sub-sets of skills in the Global category were Abstract, Concrete, and Usage. Some Abstract Skills were those which could not be demonstrated visually or taught by specific rules. For instance, the skill of coherence does not match one visual pattern that is unchanging in the way that spelling or capitalization has a visual, concrete pattern. When someone looks at a word, he knows whether or not it is spelled correctly. In contrast,

coherence is an interaction between the reader and writer that is intangible. It cannot be seen. Concrete skills were those which could be observed visually or followed rules which could be taught. These skills did follow a visual pattern which, although not identical, were similar enough for students to see. For instance, an outline can take on many forms, but the basic steps and requirements for each step are standardized. The "I" is a larger idea than the "A" or "B" would be in any part of the outline. Also, under any Roman capital letter there can be any number of sub-topics other than one. Another example would be that grammar accuracy is rule-based since it requires rules to be followed. Grammar accuracy, here, designates the accurate application of grammar rules throughout the paper rather than a particular instance of one, specific rule followed correctly in one sentence.

Usage skills were those which related the way in which the writer might convey ideas as in the Local category, but, in the Global category, these skills addressed the impression that the essay produced for the reader. For instance, variety of vocabulary used throughout an essay demonstrates the writer's particular voice. The ability to transform knowledge also is apparent by the way the writer presents or uses the learned material to author original text. Usage skills, then, were skills which demonstrate how a writer manipulates his knowledge within a complete composition.

Skills which fell under the Organization heading concerned the placement of ideas within an essay or paragraph i.e., the organization, as well as the sufficiency (both number and pertinence) of ideas, and the development of ideas within both paragraphs and complete compositions. The organizational skills were accepted structural text characteristics determined by American English writing conventions or rules for the

various rhetorical forms used for academic writing. These skills were again rule-based skills. The rules here, however, are not grammar rules, but rules that determine the form of an essay for writers of American English. These rules are unlike grammar rules, in that it is understood, that these rules are not as rigid or unchangeable as the rules in the Local category. For example, writing conventions require a thesis statement in an expository essay. The way in which the thesis is performed has various versions which all fulfill the same function. One writer may produce a thesis statement which explicitly states the sub-topics of the body paragraphs. Another may only give one general statement which shows the purpose for the paper. Yet another writer may use several sentences to explain what the purpose and the sub-topics of each body section. All three of these would be acceptable thesis statements, but all are different performances of the skill. This rule of composition, then, the requirement of a thesis statement, is unlike grammar rules which can only be performed one specific way. For this reason, although these skills are rule-based, they are not included with those previously mentioned with the Local Skills category.

In addition, the Organization Skills affected a part of the essay rather than the entire essay making them distinct from the Global Skills. The sub-components of the Organization category were rhetorical forms and rules for introduction, body, paragraph, and conclusion. The rules skills were those skills which used the rule-based skills as an inherent element, but had no accuracy element as described under usage above. Yet, they affected a larger part of the text than did a Local skill. They specifically enumerated the structural parts of a typical essay. For example, American expository writing requires an introduction, body, and conclusion; in that order. With these, the components present in the introduction are only at the beginning of the composition and the conclusion

components are only at the end. For paragraphs, topic sentences require supporting sentences and often have concluding sentences. A variety of placements of topic and supporting sentences is allowed. Thus, the rules can be manipulated, to some extent, to suit the tastes of the writer; unlike an agreement rule which must always be performed the same way and only affects the particular sentence into which it falls. Rhetorical forms were those types of essay development suggested; for instance, compare and contrast or argumentative. These were put under the organization category because they require particular types of information-organization and grammatical structures regardless of the type of content. For example, a compare/contrast essay requires many comparison structures and is often organized with all similarities together and all differences grouped together. The type of essay determines the way the information is put together in the text.

Most skills also fell under the character of three types of skills. First, the Content Skills were identified as those which could have an element of accuracy if the writing prompt asked for specific, learned material which was taught in the course work. In this type of skill, a student must relate learned material correctly in his paper. The second type of Content Skill had no accuracy element. If the content was of the writer's choice rather than the choice of the prompt, then there was no accuracy involved. These Content Skills reflected creativity or originality of ideas within the essay. Furthermore, both of these looked at ideas throughout the essay as well as an idea present in only one piece of the essay. These types of skills were those favored by the process approaches to composition which were focused more on ideas than on the presentation of the ideas. Content skills are shown in bold type in all tables below.

The next character of skills were rule-based skills, those which followed a particular rule of English grammar or syntax or some other type of rule which applies to composition. These addressed skills such as punctuation, capitalization, and other types of mechanics as well as rules such as citation format or specific grammar rules. Like content skills, these skills were distinguished between local and global as well. This allowed mechanics to be considered a global skill, describing the performance of many sub-skills and its sub-components such as punctuation or capitalization to be considered local. Rule-based skills are shown in italics in the tables below.

The last character of skills was that of essay structure. These skills are considered by some to be content skills and by other to be format skills. For this research, skills which reflected the manipulation of ideas were considered content. For example, the skill "narrows idea in introduction" concerns how the idea is presented in the introduction. In contrast, the skill "introduction format" denotes the presence of the elements required in a format rather than whether the ideas present actually do what the student believes they are doing. The student may say that he has included a thesis statement when, in actuality, the sentence he considers a thesis does not contain ideas necessary to make is a true thesis statement. Therefore, the student has written the essay skill of "thesis statement" as a part of "introduction format", but he has not necessarily mastered the content which needs to be present if the skill is performed completely satisfactorily. Essay structure skills are shown in parentheses in the tables below.

Many terms were collapsed when it was determined that a previously coined concept was being given a new name by a different interviewee or other data source. An example of this is one source using the term "fluency" and another using "communicative

quality". Here, "fluency" was used. The terms "elaboration and paragraph expansion" were both cited under the description "expand idea". Other instances where different words conveyed the same message were: paragraph development was changed to topic sentence supported; comprehensibility became coherence; "shows new idea in new paragraph" became "paragraphing appropriate". There were 25 terms which were collapsed in this way (see Appendix E). In most cases the term which was shorter, which was more frequent, or which was a more precise description was preferred over others for the same concept.

Other terms were left as separate entities even though they may have seemed similar. One example of this is the two terms "supporting sentences" and "topic sentence supported". The first refers to whether or not supporting sentences are present or whether there is more than one sentence in a paragraph. The second term pinpoints whether the supporting sentences in a paragraph actually expand or explain the topic sentence or not. Another group of terms also refers to supporting sentences, but were left as distinct categories because they were so often mentioned separately in many instances rather than being encompassed by the term supporting sentences. There were: examples, details, facts, description, evidence, and anecdotes. One other term which is similar to "topic sentence supported", but kept separate was "expand ideas". This was done because it was a specific way to support a topic sentence and other ways were not referred to by the source enough to conclude that any type of supporting sentence was really intended.

Several other skills listed may also appear to be the same. The skill "organization" is not under the Organization category because this skill means that a writer has demonstrated all components needed to organize a paper, like introduction, body, and conclusion. Within the category, the separate parts of organization are demonstrated, not

throughout a paper, but in a particular place in the essay. The same situation was repeated with the skill of "grammar accuracy" so that this represented the accuracy demonstrated by the entire composition and not the specific pieces of accuracy called for under the category of Local/Rule-based skills. Another set of terms which seems similar were "compound sentences" and "coordination" and "subordination". The first item refers to whether this type of sentence was present and the latter two concern the accuracy of the forms produced. Also similar to "compound sentences" was the term "combining sentences". A distinction was made to establish the students' ability to combine sentences from one draft to another rather than just include compound sentences in a paper. This is why these two terms were listed separately. Finally, the three terms of "vocabulary," vocabulary uniqueness," and "precise vocabulary" were separated because when most mentions of vocabulary arose. "Vocabulary" referred to the academic quality of the words. Uniqueness identified how routine the vocabulary was. Precision described the ability to use specific rather than general words; for example, the use of stroll rather than walk.

These three groups of skills, Local, Global, and Organization, emerged from the data and were not determined prior to the collection of skills. The same three categories were used in the data collection from the in-depth interviews. However the data collection itself was different. The next section explains how data from the in-depth interviews of writing instructors was obtained differently from the other data.

Data Collection from In-depth Interviews

Since writing instructors' knowledge and expertise does not come only from scientific research, but from actual classroom experience, teachers' input is invaluable for

its insights into the application of the top-down delineations of teaching methods or curriculum directives. An in-depth interview was a good way to get these acknowledged, subjective reports of teachers' encounters and applications of the teaching methods they learned while getting their teaching degrees. Using an objective, random selection of interviewees would not serve the aim that this research has of gathering opinions from professionals from various teaching contexts. Therefore, using a non-random selection process in selecting subjects for my interviews was necessary. In this way, I could choose teachers available and qualified (see Appendix D). Because the definitions of writing skills and the areas of writing selected were non-random, it was necessary to establish that these teachers were, in fact, qualified to give input as to what they believed essential writing skills were.

Thirteen writing teachers from both universities and intensive schools were interviewed. Eleven of those were from IEPs and two were adjuncts from universities. To

Table 4

Teacher Qualifications

Teachers with 0-2 years experience	1
Teachers with 3 - 5 years experience	3
Teachers with 6 - 10 years experience	2
Teachers with 11 - 30+ years experience	7
Teachers with at least 2 years teaching experience in writing	12
Teachers who held BA in TESL or related field	6
Teachers who held at least an MA in TESL or English	7

ensure professionalism, background questions (see Appendix J) were used to pinpoint each teacher's educational history and teaching experience (Kroll, 1979). Those with at least

masters' level training or more than two years' teaching experience in an IEP were considered qualified. A definition of writing skills as defined in this paper was given to orient the interviewee. Then, specific questions were asked (see Appendix J) and further questions (if any) needed to direct or clarify the answers received were added to individual interviews.

Subjects chosen to be interviewed for the study came from two separate sources. The first group were professionals with whom I am acquainted as a result of my job. The second group were teachers from my professional organization activities; teachers I met at Oklahoma Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (Oklahoma TESOL) meetings, and also from International TESOL agreed to participate as subjects. All of the subjects were chosen based on number of years taught, and credentials (see Table 4).

Weighted Skills Collection

Finally, the skills which were weighted were collated from assessment instruments, curricula, and teacher ratings. In order to determine which skills were most critical according to weightings, the data from these three sources were changed into rankings. Second, these rankings were collated. The rankings from the three types of data were done as follows.

First, skills from curricula were ranked for weightedness by looking at how many times they occurred across one curriculum. Skills which were included in more than one level of a curriculum were considered to be weighted. An example is in Table 5. Here,

Table 5

Extraction of Weighted Skills from a Curriculum

	vocab.	edit	sentence combining	capitalization	organization	summarizing	transitions	paragraph	thesis
Level 1	x	x	x	x	x	x			
Level 2	x		x				x	x	
Level 3		x	x						
Level 4	x			x	x			x	
Level 5						x	x	x	
Level 6	x					x	x	x	
Level 7								x	
Level 8									x
Level 9									x

the skills of vocabulary appears in 4 out of 9 levels, so that means it was in 44.4% of the levels. "Paragraph" fell into 5 levels or occurred 56% of the time. All skills occurrences were figured as percentages and ordered from most to least according to the percentage. An example for this conversion of skills in Table 5 is in Table 6. These

Table 6

Weighted Skills in Percentages and Quartiles

paragraph 56%	highest quartile
vocabulary 44.4%	high-middle quartile
sentence combining 33.3% transitions 33.3% summarizing 33.3%	low-middle quartile
edit 22.2% capitalization 22.2% organization 22.2% thesis 22.2%	lowest quartile

rankings were then divided into quartiles to allow the data to be combined with the other quartile data. The two highest quartiles were considered significant and used in the data compilation from other weighted sources.

In order for teachers to rank skills, data collected from all four data sources (assessment, literature, curricula, and teachers) and highest frequency skills were determined. Then, highest frequency skills were determined from across all four data groups. These two collections of highest frequency skills were collated into one list. Initially, these highest frequency skills were measured according to whether they occurred within two ranges: highest was between 50 and 100%; next highest was between 30 and 49%. The list of skills which fell into these two ranges was collated and given to the teachers to rank according to how critical each was in contributing to good writing.

A scale of one to five was used for the rankings with five being the most important. Teachers were asked to rank each skill on the list of high frequency. All scores were added and divided by the total score possible. Eight of the thirteen teachers responded with rankings for a total possible of 40 for each skill. For example, if a total of 33 points was given to fluency out of a possible 40 points, then this skill would receive an 83%. Then, like the curricula scores, these rankings were divided into quartiles.

Skills from assessment instruments were collated and the weighting of each was converted into a percentage. These percentages were converted into quartiles in the same way as the curricula and teachers' rankings. For example, on an assessment instrument, if content could receive between 27 and 30 points out of a total of 100, this was taken as 30%. All skills were arranged into percentages in descending order and then the quartiles were figured.

When all rankings from the three groups were converted into quartiles, these were cross-referenced and the top quartile was taken as the most heavily weighted. The top two quartile skills were also considered to be heavily weighted. The next section discusses the data results from these procedures. Finally, it discusses the relationships between the data and its use for Intensive English Programs.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

The results are shown below in three parts. The first section shows a separated overview of the data; one from all assessment rubrics, one from all literature sources, one from all curricula, and one from all teachers. This includes all sub-sections or categories which were the same for each set of data as discussed above. These were: Local Skills with the sub-sections of rule-based and usage; Global Skills with the sub-sections of abstract, concrete, and usage; and Organization Skills with the sub-sections of introduction, body, paragraph, conclusion, and rhetorical forms. The second half of the results below compares the skills across the four areas of data collection. These skills are analyzed to determine which were : 1) most frequent within one type of data, 2) most common across sources. Next, these two were cross-referenced to determine which skills were in both categories (separate data and across data). This determined which skills were the most frequent overall.

The last section showed the ratings of skills which were weighted in assessment instruments, in curricula, and by teachers. Finally, a cross-reference was done between the most frequent skills and the most highly weighted skills to suggest a list of critical skills for writing, which was the goal of this study.

Literature Source Data

Table 8 shows a portion of the skills collected from the 47 research or pedagogical literature sources as discussed above. A complete list of all skills mentioned is in

Appendix F. The skills collated from this data were those which were either being examined by a particular study, were explicitly taught in a textbook, or were the focus of discussion in a TESL textbook. No regard was given to whether the implications of the skill were negative or positive. The table includes only those skills with a count of three or more. There were 121 distinct skills mentioned across all the sources examined. Because there were 47 sources, the highest possible count any one skill could receive was 47 if it were mentioned in every source. The skill which was mentioned most was the skill of grammar accuracy, which attained a count of 13.

In order to determine which were most common, all scores were listed and the number of skills which received that score corresponded with them (see Table 7). Then the total number of scores was divided by four. If the number was not evenly divisible by four, then the higher scores contained a broader range.

Table 7

Literature

10 different counts divided by 4

counts	# of skills	counts	# of skills	counts	# of skills	counts	# of skills
13.....	1	8.....	2	4.....	8	2.....	24
11.....	1	6.....	5	3.....	16	1.....	53
9.....	1	5.....	11				

The highest quartile of skills received between 9 and 13 counts and contained only three skills: grammar accuracy (13), coherence devices (11), and word choice (9). The second highest quartile contained 18 skills with counts ranging from 5 to 8. The next quartile skills scored either 3 or 4 for a total of 24 skills. The lowest quartile contained 77 skills, which received either 1 or 2 counts. The lowest quartile had the highest number of

skills. This means that there was very little consistency in which specific skills were mentioned in the data from the literature sources.

However, little consistency is what might be expected from this type of data because these studies are not looking at a multitude of skills in the same way that an assessment rubric or curriculum developer would. Literature sources data would be expected to focus on a few skills for each study, so that consistent focus on the same skills

Table 8
Skills from Literature Sources

Local Skills	Global Skills	Organization Skills	Organization Skills
Rule-based	Abstract	Introduction	Body
5 <i>modifiers</i>	8 coherence	8 "thesis statement"	4 explain main ideas
5 <i>edit</i>	4 cohesion	3 "introduction format"	3 support of thesis
4 <i>t-units</i>	3 conveys tone		
3 <i>verb tenses</i>		Conclusion	Rhetorical Forms
3 <i>clauses</i>	Concrete	6 restatement	5 "process"
	13 <i>grammar accuracy</i>	6 gives closure	5 "definition"
Usage	6 "organization"	3 "conclusion format"	5 "compare/contrast"
11 coherence device	6 drafting		5 "classification"
9 word choice	5 revision	Paragraph	5 "cause/effect"
5 <i>transitions appro</i>	4 prewriting	6 examples	4 "chronological order"
5 <i>combining sent.</i>	3 <i>syntactic complexity</i>	5 "supporting sent."	4 "case study"
4 connectors		4 "topic sentence"	3 "response"
3 wording	Usage	3 topic sent. support	3 "physical description"
	3 content demonstrate	3 generalizations	3 "narration"
		3 details	3 "analysis"

in all the research data would, in fact, be surprising. This is borne out by the results that 53 skills received only one count and 24 received two. Except for grammar accuracy, all of the skills with a high frequency in this table dealt with content. Furthermore, in looking at the top two quartiles, 17 skills were the ideas in the essay and only four were about essay

structure or rules. This group of skills, from the literature sources, was the one where there was the least amount of agreement from consistency the sources.

Assessment Instruments Data

Unlike skills in the literature, skills from assessment would be expected to encompass all aspects of an essay. Because of this nature of assessments, any skill appearing on an instrument was included in the count. The weighting encountered on many instruments in dealt with later in the data collection.

Skills collated from assessment instruments, with the exception of the one- or two-count skills, are reported by Table 9, below. A complete table is listed in Appendix G. There were 19 different scores for these skills; therefore the quartiles were determined by dividing 19 by 4 leaving four scores in the lowest quartile and 5 in the highest three respectively. The possible high score for this data was 26. In this data, there were six skills in the top quartile or the most common rating. These fell into a range of 17 to 22 mentions. They were organization (17), spelling (18), details used (18), punctuation (19), clear expression of ideas (21), and grammar accuracy (22). This higher rate of agreement was to be expected since assessment instruments are all looking at a piece of writing as a whole and evaluating all of its characteristics. Because all assessment instruments are evaluating the whole essay, we expect more similarities. It is interesting to note that of the six skills with the highest counts, "details used" and "clear expression of ideas" are content skills, whereas, the other four address structural aspects of the essay. Furthermore, in the next lower quartile were eleven skills which addressed ideas and six addressed form or essay

structure. These received counts between 10 and 15. This lends support for the opinion that ESL professionals believe that content is more important than form. The third quartile

Table 9
Skills from Assessment Instruments

LOCAL SKILLS	GLOBAL SKILLS	ORGANIZATION SKILLS
Usage	Usage	Rhetorical Forms
11 precise vocabulary used	21 clear expression of ideas	05 "argument"
10 transitions appropriate	12 variety of vocabulary used	
09 complex structure	11 addresses prompt	Introduction
05 simple structure	05 "ideas balanced with support"	
	05 content demonstrated	Body
Rule-based		14 support of thesis
19 <i>punctuation</i>	Abstract	10 generalizations
18 <i>spelling</i>	10 unity	06 ideas smoothly change
15 <i>accurate sentence structure</i>	09 fluency	
12 <i>capitalization</i>	05 voice	Paragraph
05 <i>SV agreement</i>	05 succinctness	18 details used
	05 purpose	15 topic sentence supported
	04 cohesion	11 sequence logical
	04 audience	07 expand ideas
	03 synthesize	05 "supporting sentences"
	Concrete	Conclusion
	22 <i>grammar accuracy</i>	07 "conclusion format"
	17 "organization"	
	08 paragraphing appropriate	
	08 <i>mechanics</i>	
	04 <i>variety of sentence structure</i>	
	04 <i>paragraph length</i>	

skills received between 5 and 9 counts and there were 15 skills in this division.

The lowest quartile of skills had a range of between 1 and 4 mentions for a total of 41 skills. Unlike the data from the literature, the number of skills in the bottom quartile did not overwhelm the numbers in the other three quartiles. Even though it did not produce overwhelming numbers, there was still a large amount of disagreement amongst assessment

instruments as to what skills were being valued; even though agreement was considerably higher than the literature data. This is not what is desired amongst assessments. We would hope that assessments are rating similar skills. Because there is much variance, this supports the notion suggested above, that there is much disagreement about what good writing is and what skills are required for it. These results reinforce the necessity for this study.

Curricula Data

Table 10 displays the abilities included in the data taken from the curricula of intensive centers. Skills were taken from the objectives for each level. The fact that some skills appeared in more than one level is accounted for in the data collection of weighted skills later in this research.

As in the previous tables, no skills receiving one or two counts is displayed. A complete table is in Appendix H. Similar to the two previous collections, a high number of skills (46 out of 103) from curricula were mentioned by merely one or two institutions. In fact, 30 of these were only included by one school and 16 skills were included by only two. Quartiles were determined by dividing 13 (total number of scores) by 4 so that all quartile held 3 scores except the highest which had 4. Since the lowest quartile from the curricula skills contained the highest number of skills, 58, it becomes evident that most of the skills in this lowest quartile were those with between 1 and 3 counts. This gives even more support than did the assessment for the assumptions made above that there is little agreement upon which skills writers need to learn to become good writers. The second quartile contained 14 skills and received between 4 and 6 counts. 25 Skills receiving

between 7 and 9 counts fell into the third quartile. The following six skills in the top quartile, or the most common skills, were topic sentence supported (16), transitions

Table 10

Skills from Curricula

Local Skills	Global Skills	Organization Skills	Organization Skills
Rule-based	Usage	Rhetorical Forms	Paragraph
11 <i>reference cited app.</i>		10 "cause/effect"	16 topic sent. supp.
08 <i>punctuation</i>	Abstract	09 "compare/contrast"	06 "topic sentence"
06 <i>spelling accurate</i>	09 summarize	07 "narration"	06 sequence logical
06 <i>accurate sent.struc.</i>	07 paraphrase	07 "description"	05 examples
05 <i>edit</i>	07 audience	07 "argument/support"	06 details
05 <i>capitalization</i>	06 purpose	06 "process"	04 "concluding sent."
04 <i>SV agreement</i>	06 pre-writing	06 "classification"	04 expand ideas
	04 unity	05 "persuasion"	
Usage	04 style	05 "essay format"	Conclusion
12 transitions appropriate	04 coherence	04 "analysis"	11 "conclusion format"
04 <i>compound sentences</i>	03 synthesize	03 "response essay"	
03 word usage accurate	03 fluency	03 "expository"	
03 vocabulary	03 cohesion	03 "definition essay"	
03 <i>simple sentences</i>			
03 connectors	Concrete	Introduction	
03 <i>complex sentences</i>	07 "organization"	11 "introduction format"	
	07 "outlining"	09 "thesis statement"	
	07 <i>grammar accuracy</i>	04 narrow subject in Int	
	05 paragraphing app.		
	05 revision	Body	
	04 <i>mechanics</i>	08 "body developed"	
	03 <i>essay length</i>	08 support of thesis	

appropriate (12), reference cited appropriately (11), introduction format (11), conclusion format (11), and cause/effect (10). These received between 10 and 16 counts.

Finally, the curricula skills fell overwhelmingly in the content area if one looks at the two upper quartiles. Of these skills, 25 concerned content issues while only five addressed did not. Again, this reflects the results of the literature data very closely. This agrees with

the data from the literature and assessment which shows more importance of content skills than those directed at structure or form.

Teacher Commentary Data

Table 11 includes the skills from the data collected from teachers. Skills collated here were taken from the first mention of the skill in each interview. There were skills which were mentioned more than once by the same teacher. In order to account for the fact that some skills seemed more important than others, a weightedness rating was done by teachers after the interview as discussed below.

This table also is not a complete list as it omits skills with scores of one or two. These are shown in the complete table in Appendix I. This data contained 10 different scores so quartiles were arrived at in exactly the same way as the literature quartiles were. Again, there were six skills in the top quartile. These six skills occurred between 10 and 8 times. These were fluency, topic sentence, thesis statement, word order, vocabulary, and support. The high-average quartile of the teacher data contained 17 skills having scores between 7 and 5. The low-average quartile held 36 and had scores of 3 or 4. As in all other data sources, the quartile with the most skills was the lowest with 67 skills. These were skills only receiving one or two counts

The data here are similar to the assessment data. This could be perhaps because there is a close relationship between what is taught and what is assessed; whereas teachers do not always teach what the curriculum tells them to teach. Furthermore, fewer teachers are aware of research trends or varieties of textbooks than are curriculum writers. Out of the top two quartiles, six of the skills dealt with form or essay structure while the other 17

Table 11

Skills from Teacher Commentary

LOCAL SKILLS	GLOBAL SKILLS	ORGANIZATION SKILLS
Rule-based	Abstract	Introduction
09 <i>word order</i>	10 fluency	09 "thesis statement"
06 <i>clauses</i>	06 paraphrase	06 attention getter
05 <i>punctuation</i>	05 unity	05 narrow subject in intro.
05 <i>capitalization</i>	05 substance	04 introduce topic
04 <i>spelling</i>	04 write clearly	03 "background"
04 <i>references cited app.</i>	04 coherence	
03 <i>verb tenses</i>	03 generating ideas	
03 <i>modifiers</i>		Body
03 <i>edit</i>		06 support of thesis
	Concrete	
	07 <i>paragraph length</i>	Paragraph
Usage	06 <i>grammar accuracy</i>	09 "topic sentence"
08 vocabulary	05 summarize	08 "support"
06 transitions appropriate	04 academic language	04 sentence order logical
05 word choice	04 <i>essay length</i>	04 "paragraph form"
05 <i>complex sentence</i>	03 <i>variety of structures</i>	04 "concluding sentence"
04 <i>accurate sent. struc.</i>	03 "practice"	03 explain
04 repetitions	03 "outlining"	03 examples
04 hooks		
03 <i>simple sentence</i>	Usage	Conclusion
03 <i>compound sentence</i>	04 integration of sources	06 gives closure
03 <i>complete sentence</i>	03 plagiarism	05 restatement
	03 content demonstrated	04 "conclusion format"
	03 addresses prompt	
		Rhetorical Forms
		05 "essay format"
		03 "descriptive"
		03 "compare/contrast"
		03 "cause/effect"

concerned content matters. It is noteworthy that assessment also had six skills with form and essay structure which exhibits an even closer relationship between teachers and assessment. As far as the type of skills showing most agreement, teachers favored content skills over other abilities. This makes all four data sources agree with the methodological trend away from form and toward content; supporting process approaches over product.

Skills Found in High-Middle Quartile of One Data Source

Table 12 contains skills found in the high-middle quartile of one data source. For

Table 12

Most Common Skills in High-Middle Quartile of at Least One Data Source

Local Skills	Global Skills	Organization Skills	Organization Skills
Rule-based	Abstract	Introduction	Conclusion
<i>word order</i>	fluency	"thesis statement"	"conclusion format"
<i>reference cited app.</i>	summarize	"introduction format"	restatement
<i>punctuation</i>	unity	narrow topic in intro.	gives closure
<i>spelling</i>	coherence	attention getter	
<i>accurate sent. struc.</i>	paraphrase		Rhetorical Forms
<i>capitalization</i>	audience	Body	"cause/effect"
<i>modifiers</i>	substance	support of thesis	"compare/contrast"
<i>edit</i>		body developed	"process"
<i>clauses</i>	Concrete	generalizations	"definition"
	<i>grammar accuracy</i>		"narration"
Usage	"organization"	Paragraph	"description"
transitions app.	"paragraph length"	details used	"argument"
vocabulary	drafting	topic sent, supported	"essay format"
precise voc.	revision	"topic sentence"	
coherence devices	"outlining"	"support"	
word choice		sequence logical	
combining sents.	Usage		
<i>complex sents.</i>	addresses prompt		

example, the skill of "fluency" was the highest scoring skill from the teacher commentary. Therefore, it fell into the top two quartiles of that data source. Of the skills found on Table Seven, thirty-two of these skills came from the assessment instruments. The curriculum data contributed 20. Twenty-three skills came from the teacher commentary, and 21 were from the literature data. Many of these were found in more than one type of data. Altogether there were 54 skills which fell into the top two quartiles of the data. These

fifty-four skills were used with the top quartile skills in Table 12 to satisfy this section's contribution toward identification of critical skills.

Most Common Skills in Highest Quartile of One Data Source

Table 13 included only those skills in the first quartile of one type of data. In the group of skills from teachers, a count of eight was sufficient for inclusion in this table. For assessment, a count of 17 was considered the beginning of the top quartile. A score of ten in the curriculum group was needed. In the literature data, five was the number required. When we look only at the top quartile of data from each source, it must be noted that skills concerning form had very similar numbers; six skills are mentioned in both teacher and assessment data, five skills are in the top quartile in curricula, and in the literature, four.

These two tables, Table 12 and 13, show the skills found in the top quartile of one data source and skills found in the top two quartiles of a single data source. They represent a comprehensive list from the first section of my analysis for critical skills. These are the skills which were used for the final data analysis with cross-referenced skills and weighted skills.

Most Common Skills Across the Four Sources of Data

The next set of data, in Table 14, cross-references all four databases to determine the amount of consensus across data types, regardless of how often the skill was mentioned in any single source type. A single mention of a skill was sufficient for it to be included, if it was mentioned at least once in the three or four source types. Those skills

found only in one or two sources of data were excluded as this corresponds to the lower two quartiles of the data. Only those skills in the top two quartiles were considered

Table 13

Most Common Skills in Highest Quartile of at Least One Data Source

Local Skills	Global Skills	Organization Skills	Organization Skills
Rule-based	Abstract		Paragraph
<i>punctuation</i>	fluency	Introduction	topic sentence
<i>spelling</i>		"introduction format"	supp.
<i>reference cited</i>	Concrete	narrow subject in	details used
<i>app.</i>	<i>grammar accuracy</i>	intro	
Usage	"organization"	introduce topic	Conclusion
transitions		Body	"conclusion format"
appropo.			
word choice	Usage	support of thesis	
vocabulary	writes clearly	generalizations	Rhetorical Forms
coherence			"cause/effect"
devices			

common. Therefore, if they were found in three or four data sources, the skills were included. There was a significant gap in the number of skills included in the group appearing in three or four databases and those included in only one or two of the sources. This gap is why I determined to consider those included in the three or four group to be significant.

Table 14 shows the skills which occurred in all four areas of source information. Of the Local Skills, five were found in all four sources of data. Furthermore, 14 skills from the Global area were mentioned in all four groups of data. An additional nine skills from the Organization category were also included in all four sources. These 28 skills can be said to have the highest consensus at 100%. Eighteen of these were content skills and the

other 10 were format or structure skills. This set of data supports one argument cited in the review of the literature that professionals feel more strongly about content than form.

There were other skills in Table 14 which only appeared on this table. These were skills which had a low frequency within a particular database, but which had a high rate of consensus when all sources were cross-referenced. Included in this group were:

Table 14
Skills Occurring in All Four Sources of Data
Literature, Teacher Commentary, Assessments, Curricula

LOCAL SKILLS	GLOBAL SKILLS	ORGANIZATION SKILLS
Usage transitions appropriate wording	Usage addresses prompt demonstrates content	Rhetorical Forms "argument" "essay format"
Rule-based references cited appropriate edit	Abstract fluency purpose cohesion audience style coherence	Introduction narrow subject in intro. Body support of thesis
	Concrete grammar accuracy paragraphing appropriate mechanics variety of sentence struc. "outlining" revision	Paragraph details used expand ideas "supporting sentences" "topic sentence" Conclusion "conclusion format" restatement

addresses prompt, demonstrates content, cohesion, style, wording, edit, advantage/
disadvantage, synthesize, voice, modifiers, verb tenses, connectors, coordination,
subordination, and chronological. Of these, eight address content skills and the other four

are grammar skills. Again, there is support here for the change from importance of content over form.

Most Common Skills Across Three Sources of Data

The second group of skills which indicated consensus across the data were those which occurred in three of the four source areas. These skills are shown in Table 15. It is interesting to note that of the sub-skills listed, four only contained one skill which qualified across three sources and one sub-skill had none. The three largest sub-skill areas were Rule-based skills, Rhetorical Forms, and Abstract Skills. The first of these had eight

Table 15

Most Common Skills in Three of Data Sources

LOCAL SKILLS	GLOBAL SKILLS	ORGANIZATION SKILLS
Usage	Abstract	Introduction
connectors	unity	attention getter
	paraphrase	"thesis statement"
Rule-based	voice	
punctuation	succinctness	Body
spelling	summarize	
capitalization	synthesize	Paragraph
word order	style	topic sentence supported
subordination		sequence logical
coordination	ORGANIZATION SKILLS	"supporting sentences"
verb tenses	Rhetorical Forms	"concluding sentence"
modifiers	"compare/contrast"	examples
	"cause/effect"	
GLOBAL SKILLS	"process"	Conclusion
Usage	"persuasion"	gives closure
integration of sources	"narration"	
	"chronological"	
Concrete	"advantage/disadvantage"	
"organization"		

listings while the following two held seven skills. There were 33 skills total included. Of these, only nine addressed form. These were: punctuation, spelling, capitalization, word order, organization, subordination, coordination, verb tenses, and modifiers. All of the other skills within this category concerned content or the way that content was used.

Most Common Skills

In order to have a comprehensive list of most common skills from both types of data analysis done above, I combined the four data charts shown above: Table 12, 13, 14 and 15. This combination of skills is contained in Table 16. Eight skills were included in the top quartile of one data source and across the data. These were transitions appropriate, references cited appropriately, fluency, grammar accuracy, narrows subject in introduction, support of thesis, details used, and conclusion format. The next highest frequency skills were in four of the data sources and in the high-middle quartile of one data source. These 18 skills were transitions appropriate, references cited appropriately, edit, addresses prompt, audience, coherence, grammar accuracy, outlining, revision, argument/support, essay format, narrows subject in introduction, support of thesis, details used, conclusion format, and restatement. Also, in this second group of most common skills were those which were found in three data sources and in the top quartile of one data source. There were only four of these: punctuation, spelling, organization, and cause/effect.

The next or third most common group were skills which were in the high-middle quartile of one data source, and which also occurred in three of the data sources. The sixteen which fell into this description were word order, modifiers, unity, paraphrase, summarize, compare/contrast, process, narration, attention getter, thesis statement, topic

Weighted Skills

Another consideration which must be taken into account is that all skills are not given the same importance by assessment instruments, by teachers, or within curricula. Of the 26 assessment rubrics examined here, four had weighted scoring. All of the curricula used had skills which were repeated at two or more levels. Furthermore, when teachers were interviewed, many of them stressed certain skills or repeated some skills indicating that they felt some were more important than others. In order to capture this difference in emphasis, an actual rating sheet was filled out by the teachers after the interviews were conducted (see Appendix K). Table 17 shows the results of the most heavily weighted skills.

The majority of the top quartile skills deal with the structure of the essay. Seven of the thirteen skills in this division concern the manner in which an essay is constructed rather than the ideas contained within it. These are shown in parenthesis. Six skills, transitions appropriate, summarize, compare/contrast, content demonstrated, gives closure, and introduces topic concern the transmission of ideas by the writer. These are shown in bold type.

In the group of the 2nd quartile skills, a minority of 5 skills out of 26 deals with essay structure. Six of these are skills which can be taught by learning or following a rule so are rule-based skills shown in italics. The last group are content skills. Therefore, these two groups of weighted skills leave contradicting conclusions. The top quartile skills suggest that essay structure holds approximately the same importance as content, while the

Table 17

Most Heavily Weighted Skills

from Assessment, Curricula, and Teacher Commentary

Top quartile	2nd Quartile	2nd Quartile cont.
Content Skills	Rule-Based Skills	Content Skills cont.
content demonstrated	<i>references cited appropriately</i>	integration of sources
support of thesis	<i>sentence structure</i>	word choice
introduces topic	<i>edit</i>	generalizations
transitions appropriate	<i>grammar accuracy</i>	cohesion
summarize	<i>verb tenses</i>	synthesize
gives closure	<i>word order</i>	writes clearly
Essay Structure Skills	Content Skills	narrows subject in introduction
"body developed"	audience	Essay Structure Skills
"thesis statement"	paraphrase	"essay format"
"conclusion format"	pre-writing	"argument"
"introduction format"	substance	"paragraph form"
"organization"	coherence	"narration"
"compare/contrast"	sequence logical	"cause/effect"
"topic sentence"	vocabulary	

2nd quartile of skills seems to suggest that content skills are more important than either essay structure skills or rule-based skills.

Frequency and Weightedness Data Combined

The final step in the data analysis was to combine the charts of highest frequency Table 16 and that of most heavily weighted skills, Table 17. This gives a final combination of skills which were considered significant according to the criteria set out for this research. This final cross-referencing of skills is displayed in Table 18.

All of the 38 skills from Table 17, the most heavily weighted skills, were also found in the highest frequency table, Table 18, except for four skills. These were: thesis statement, pre-writing, integration of sources, and paragraph form. When doing an

opposite comparison, there were many more skills on the most common table than were on the weighted compilation, 75. Forty of these were not included amongst the weighted skills. Because the appearance of so many skills from the weighted results are those on this final cross-referencing table, no new conclusions can be drawn. Many of these skills fit the definition of manipulating text defined in the introduction to this paper. However, some, for instance the abstract skills of cohesion and substance, are not abilities which can be defined as the manipulation of text. This proposes the problem of whether or not all skills

Table 18

Most Common & Most Highly Weighted Skills

Local Skills	Global Skills	Global Skills	Organization Skills
Rule-based	Abstract	Usage	Conclusion
<i>references cited</i>	substance	demonstrates content	gives closure
<i>app.</i>			
<i>sentence structure</i>	coherence	writes clearly	"conclusion format"
<i>word order</i>	paraphrase		
<i>edit</i>	audience	Organization Skills	Rhetorical Forms
<i>verb tenses</i>	summarize	Introduction	"narration"
	cohesion	narrows subject in intro.	"argument"
Usage	synthesize	introduce topic	"essay format"
transitions		"introduction format"	"cause/effect"
appropriate			
word choice	Concrete		"compare/contrast"
vocabulary	<i>grammar accuracy</i>	Paragraph	
	"organization"	sequence logical	Body
		"topic sentence"	support of thesis
			generalizations
			body developed

included in the data are, in fact, skills as defined by this paper. Perhaps some skills good writers acquire, they acquire from exposure to good text and practice in writing rather from overt teaching. It seems that these skills should be included in a skills based curriculum

because of their importance, but that they must be reserved for students whose language proficiency is more advanced, thus, allowing them to understand these abstract concepts.

This final list contained in Table 18 can be said to be those fitting the criteria for this study of most critical skills. In fact, the final data from the two types of data collection, frequency and weightedness, may be more representative of skills held important by all concerned.

Summary and Discussion

These findings substantiated the supposition that there is little agreement amongst educated sources as to what constitutes skills needed for good writing. Furthermore, they also upheld the idea that the two distinct schools of thought in composition theory, that of product versus process, still holds a significant sway on what skills are present in classrooms and research. Because both content skills and those dealing with form or essay structure were found to be linked with product and process theory. In addition, they lend support for the foundation of a skills-based-formula option for composition curriculum writers. These types of skills were present as most common skills in one data source, as most common skills across data sources, as most highly weighted sources, and as skills resulting from the final cross-referencing of all three of these data. These four collations of skills may be used to outline a nine step, recursive, skills-based curriculum suggested for short-term Intensive English Programs.

A structured curriculum can be sequenced by the availability of the lists of skills collated above. Such sequencing seems justified by some researchers. The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines define a sequence of global abilities many professionals feel L2

students follow in their development (Valdes, et al., 1992). Sequencing of skills was also suggested by Kern and Schultz (1992) when they found that French students who were writing in English acquired "coordination first, then subordination, then clause reduction". Cooper (1981) also found that syntactic complexity occurs in a rough sequence. These reports support schools which are based upon sequencing of classes from least to most difficult. Furthermore, since skills mastered in sequence is the basis of matriculation, curriculum writers must ensure that there is some type of progression of skills.

In using the skills from the table (Table 18) of most common and most heavily weighted skills to design curricula, one must also add skills which are components of skills contained here. It is impossible to teach the skill "sequence logical" without including the teaching of supporting sentences and perhaps concluding sentences. Because of the global nature of many of these skills, it is necessary to include other skills from the lists which led to this final one. Another reason to include more skills than those contained in Table 18 is the fact that there are not enough skills here to encompass nine levels of writing instruction as is found in many intensive programs. Therefore, by including the skills which contribute to the final list of skills, a complete set of objectives for these multi-leveled schools can be attained.

In the list of skills in Table 18, there are many grammar rules' skills which should be confined to Level 1 and 2 classes. Of course students make many grammatical mistakes throughout their writing development. However, this research seeks to address those specific skills which are normally taught in writing classes where grammatical skills are often taught in classes separate from writing. Therefore, the following suggested curriculum addresses mostly non-grammatical skills from the list of most common and

most heavily weighted group of skills (Table 18). It also draws skills from Table 16 and 17 for those skills needed to form the foundation of Table 18 skills or contribute to the teaching thereof.

Most skills are recycled at least once in another level to ensure practice of learned skills and to reinforce the idea that all skills should be added to those previously learned. Skills in bold are new skills for that level. By having a combination new and learned skills, students can begin writing as a continuation of the last class they had rather than as an entirely new course. This gives them confidence and more control over what their grade is since they are not only relying on new information to earn a grade but they can also rely on previously formed schema as they often do in other types of classes.

Level 101	Level 102
sentence structure/word order combining sentences simple connectors narration/paragraphs generalizations examples physical description/modifiers capitalization punctuation spelling editing verb tenses	sentence structure/word order topic sentence supporting sentences sequence logical physical description/paragraph process/paragraph compare/contrast/paragraph editing connectors coordination/subordination paragraph length unity topic sentence supported paragraph form
Level 103	Level 104
topic sentence supporting sentences unity topic sentence supported sequence logical cause/effect/paragraph advantage/dis/paragraph persuasion/argument/paragraph	introduction format attention getter narrows subject in introduction introduces topic/generalizations thesis statement essay format - 1 body paragraph conclusion format restatement

editing
connectors
paragraph length
expand ideas
details used
concluding sentence
complex sentences
combining sentences/revision

Level 105

essay format/intro/body/concl
thesis statement
support of thesis
body developed
organization/outlining
narrative/chronological essay
descriptive essay
addresses prompt
writes clearly
paraphrase
summarize
cohesion
vocabulary
edit
revision
paragraphing appropriate
advantage/disadvantage essay

Level 107

essay format/intro/body/concl
thesis statement varieties
demonstrates content
paraphrase
summarize
writes clearly
transitional devices
coherence devices
audience
substance
precise vocabulary
wording/revision
edit
cause/effect essay

gives closure
compare/contrast/intro/concl
description/intro/concl
ad/dis/intro/concl
cause/effect/intro/concl
persuasion/argu/intro/concl
edit
revision

Level 106

essay format/intro/body/concl
thesis statement
support of thesis
addresses prompt
demonstrates content
process essay
compare/contrast essay
paraphrase
summarize
writes clearly
cohesion
precise vocabulary
edit
revision
paragraphing appropriate
word choice
variety of sentence structures
transitional devices
organization/outlining

Level 108

essay format/intro/body/concl
thesis statement varieties
synthesizes content
paraphrase
summarize
writes clearly
integration of sources
references cited appropriately
purpose
audience
substance
argument/persuasion essay
precise vocabulary
wording/revision
edit

Level 109

essay format/intro/body/concl	wording/revision
thesis statement varieties	fluency
synthesizes content	style
paraphrase	succinctness
summarize	definition essay
writes clearly	edit
integration of sources	precise vocabulary
references cited appropriately	substance
purpose	audience

The above skills, whether considered essential or not, are a first step in providing curriculum writers and teachers with a firmer foundation of specific elements to teach writing students. They provide clearer objectives for students as they try to improve their writing by understanding where their deficiencies lie as well as their strengths. These skills, furthermore, provide a more dependable, consistent way to assign grades in a manner that enhances instruction and leads to confidence for students in their writing abilities.

Conclusion

This final list from Table 18 is not in reality, final. Rather it is a preliminary list of skills which can be expanded into a structured curriculum teaching writing skills as strategies in the manner that reading skills are taught. We do not try to grade a student's reading comprehension because we can not teach him to comprehend. We teach him reading skills and then grade his ability to use those skills. In the same manner, we should not grade the students' abilities to produce comprehensible output because we can not teach him how to be a good writer.

We should teach him writing skills and then grade his ability to exhibit these skills in his composition. "An assessment of written expression needs to consider each of the components of written expression that a student has been taught" (Bradley-Johnson & Lesiak, 1989) and not skills which have not been specifically addressed in that class or in prerequisite courses. In addition, curriculum writers should also take into consideration what type of evaluation methods or testing that teachers will use in the courses being designed because of the effects of backwash. Historically, there has been much talk about teaching to a test, and yet, is it really fair not to specifically teach all elements which are to be graded? This is especially true for grading writing where typically all elements of a good composition are graded on every assignment whether these traits have been taught in that class or not. Yet, in a grammar class, no one would ever consider putting grammar which had not been taught in the class on a test. Grading all composition elements seems extremely unfair for beginning and intermediate classes where students have not been exposed to all aspects of English academic writing. Therefore, curriculum writers should provide objectives which can fit easily into a well-structured scoring rubric and only skills which have been taught should be on that rubric. Only in advanced classes where students have been taught all possible writing strategies should a composition be graded as a whole.

The overall goal of this research, then, was to identify the abilities which composition professionals believe are necessary to produce good writing for an Intensive English Program curriculum. Identification of these skills contributes to defining objectives for classes so that there is some control over what is taught in the classroom. In addition, some consistency among teachers and courses can be maintained. It, furthermore, allows for control of grading and teaching time which is severely limited in an IEP.

While these considerations are true for all language schools, this paper focused specifically on IEP schools. Critical writing skills obviously are important for every composition program, but the special context of IEPs severely limits the number of concepts which can be taught within any class. Therefore, it becomes even more important that all of the most crucial writing skills be covered and the less crucial saved for extra time when possible. Furthermore, in considering these essential writing skills in the same manner as reading skills, a more efficient outlook on instruction and assessment has been suggested. In conclusion, a list of critical writing skills has been initiated by this research in order to begin the basis for a more concise, theoretically sound, and easily usable composition curriculum.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Textbook Contributors of Skills to Literature Data

The Process of Composition

The Process of Paragraph Writing

Write to Be Read

Appendix B

Contributors of Assessment Data

Assessment instruments from TESL text books for graduate students:

Holistic Scoring, (Cohen, 1994)

Analytic Scoring, (Cohen, 1994)

Primary-Trait Scoring, (Cohen, 1994)

Multi-trait Scoring, (Cohen, 1994);

Assessment instruments from articles or books from the review of the literature above:

Advanced Reading and Composing for Nonnative Speakers Scoring Guide for Timed Writing 3 (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998)

ESL Paragraph rating scale (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998,)

ENSL 1405--Advanced English Writing Skills for the Social Sciences: Evaluation

Criteria for Revised Writing Assignments (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998)

Essay Rating Profile (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998)

Holistic Scoring Scale, (Wolcott & Legg, 1998)

Diederich's analytic scale, (Faigley & others, 1985)

Individual Student Analysis Version, (Florida, 1990)

Scoring Guide, (Wolcott & Legg, 1998)

Peter Elbow's grid, (Elbow, 1993)

Boise State University grid, (Leahy, 1992)

Science Portfolio Assessment Guide for Elementary School, (Legg, 1994)

Sample Holistic Scoring Guide, (White, 1994)

Standardized writing tests for placement of LEP students:

Oklahoma School Testing Program Overall Score, (Oklahoma, 1994)

Oklahoma School Testing Program Analytic Score, (Oklahoma, 1994)

The Direct Writing Assessment, (Direct, 2001)

International English Language Testing System Academic and General Training
Writing Exam, (IELTS, 2000)

The Language Assessment Scales Writing Component, (Duncan & de Avila, 1988)

Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide, (Hamp-Lyons, 1991)

The TOEFL Test of Written English, (Test, 2001);

Achievement assessments for classroom use:

Final Exam Evaluation Sheet, (Final, 1999)

ESL Composition Profile, (ESL, 2001)

Checklist for Composition (Frank, 1990)

Composition Evaluation, (Composition, 1999)

APPENDIX C

Contributing Intensive English Programs

The schools which contributed curricula were :

Proprietary Schools with a 4-week cycle and 9 levels.

ELS Language Centers, Oklahoma City University

Edmond Language Institute, University of Central Oklahoma

Tulsa Language Institute; Tulsa University

Shawnee Language Institute, Oklahoma Baptist University

Chester Language Institute, Widenour University

Orlando Language Institute

Semester programs at universities with a 15 week cycle.

Intensive English Language Institute, University of North Texas (7 levels)

American Language Program, Ohio State University (6 levels)

English Language Institute, The University of British Columbia (3 levels)

American Language Institute, California State University - Long Beach (level 6)

Intensive English Language Program, The University of Findlay (4 levels)

Intensive English Language Institute, Utah State University (6 levels - only level 3 and level 4 included here)

Intensive English Language Center, The University of Nevada - Reno (4 levels)

Semester university LEP programs with a 15 week cycle

Oklahoma State University (2 classes)

Lewis & Clark College (2 classes)

Appendix D

Interviewed Teachers' Qualifications

Teacher A

Teaching assistant at Oklahoma State University

Teaching LEP freshman English

BA in English working on MA in TESL

experience unknown

Teacher B

University professor at intensive language center at University of Nevada, Reno

Teaching LEP students in preparation for university entrance

Ph.D. in English

experience 13 years

Teacher C

Senior instructor at proprietary intensive program at Oklahoma City University

Teaching LEP students in preparation for university entrance

BA in French with minor in English

experience 10 years

Teacher D

Instructor at proprietary intensive program at Oklahoma City University

Teaching LEP students in preparation for university entrance

BA in English

experience 5 years

Teacher E

Adjunct at Oklahoma City University

Teaching business English to LEP masters level students

BA in English, MA in TESL

experience 4 years

Teacher F

Instructional Specialist at intensive English program at Oklahoma City University

Teaching LEP students in preparation for university entrance

BA in English and Drama, MA in Drama

experience 35 years

Teacher G

Director of Courses at intensive English program at Oklahoma City University

Supervise ESL teachers and program

BA in English with hours of graduate work in TESL

experience 28

Teacher H

Instructor at intensive English program at Oklahoma City University

Teaching LEP students in preparation for university entrance

BA in English, MA in TESL

experience 2 years

Teacher I

Instructor at public middle school

Teaching English, ESL, and vocal

BA in English, MA in voice

experience 7 years

Teacher J

Instructor at intensive English program at Oklahoma City University

Teaching LEP students in preparation for university entrance

BA in elementary education

experience in elementary education - 25 years, ESL - 3 years

Teacher K

Adjunct TESL instructor at Oklahoma City University

Teaching masters TESL classes

BA in religion, MA in TESL

experience 8 years

Teacher L

Adjunct ESL writing instructor at Oklahoma City University

Teaching LEP undergraduate writing

BA in secondary English education, MA in TESL

experience 15 years

APPENDIX E

Collapsed Terms

Local/Grammar Skills (Rule-based)

1. able to reference sources > references cited appropriately; 2. Agreement > SV agreement; 3 adverbs and adjectives > modifiers;

Local/Grammar Skills (Usage)

4. Signal words > transitions appropriate;

Organization Skills (Introduction)

5. Thesis of opinion or intent > thesis statement; 6. Perspective begins broad and focuses > narrow subject within introduction;

Organization Skills (Body)

7. Thesis statement development > support of thesis;

Organization Skills (Conclusion)

8. Paraphrasing in conclusion > restatement;

Organization Skills (Paragraph)

9. Specifics used > details; 10. Controlling idea > topic sentence; 11. Explain main idea > topic sentence supported; 12. Elaboration and paragraph expansion > expand idea; 13. Supporting techniques and supporting opinions > supporting sentences; 14. Evidence and emphasis > supporting sentences; 15. Paragraph development > topic sentence supported;

Organization Skills (Rhetorical Forms)

16. Situation/problem/solution/conclusion and problem solving > case study; 17.

Persuasive > argument/support; 18. Narration techniques > narration; 19. Description techniques > description; 20. Demonstrates expected format > essay format;

Global/Content Skills (Abstract)

21. Comprehensibility > coherence; 22. Communicative quality > fluency; 23.

Rhetorical connectedness > cohesion;

Global/Content Skills (Usage)

24. Report information or other peoples' ideas > integration of sources;

Global/Content Skills (Concrete)

25. Shows new idea in new paragraph > paragraphing appropriate.

Appendix F

Skills from Literature Sources

Local Skills	Global Skills cont.	Organization Skills
<i>Rule-based</i>	<i>Concrete</i>	<i>Introduction</i>
5 modifiers	13 grammar accuracy	8 thesis statement
5 edit	6 organization	3 introduction format
4 t-units	6 drafting	2 background information
3 verb tenses	5 revision	1 narrow subject within introduction
3 clauses		
2 verbals	4 prewriting	
2 subordination	3 syntactic complexity	<i>Body</i>
2 references cited appropriately	2 variety of sentence types	4 explain main ideas
2 passive voice	2 use of correct spelling	3 support of thesis
2 coordination	2 paragraphing appropriate	1 body
1 use of reporting verbs	2 outlining	
1 parallel structure	1 variation of discourse patterns	<i>Conclusion</i>
1 agreement accuracy	1 revise to change meaning	6 restatement
	1 succinctness	6 gives closure
<i>Usage</i>	1 mechanics	3 conclusion format
11 coherence devices	1 control of articles	1 all-inclusive statements
9 word choice	1 conforming to conventions	1 connect concl. to body
5 transitions appropriate		
5 combining sentences	<i>Usage</i>	<i>Paragraph</i>
4 connectors	3 content demonstrated	6 examples
3 wording	2 show complete thought development	5 supporting sentences
2 referential identity	2 sentence length	4 topic sentence
1 use of hyperbole	2 integration of sources	3 topic sentence supported
1 stylistic devices	2 present solutions	3 generalizations
1 hooks	2 paragraph reordering	3 details
1 explaining terms	2 paragraph refining	2 expand ideas
1 defining terms	2 clarifying information	1 concluding sentences
1 comparative language	1 use personal experience	1 facts
1 clarifying terms	1 use of alternate arguments	
1 asserting	1 propositional development	<i>Rhetorical Forms</i>
1 anaphoric element	1 persuasive language	5 process
	1 oversimplification	5 definition
Global Skills	1 ornate language	5 compare/contrast
	1 language with precision	5 classification
<i>Abstract</i>	1 knowledge transformation	5 cause/effect
8 coherence	1 hedging	4 chronological order
4 cohesion	1 essay length	4 case study
3 conveys tone	1 connect reading to experience	3 response
2 semantic link as cohesive device	1 addresses prompt	3 physical description
2 purpose		3 narration

2 paraphrase	3 analysis
2 audience	2 argument
1 use of syntax to influence meaning	1 persuasive
1 synthesize	1 essay formats
1 summarize	1 description
1 stating a rationale	1 demonstration
1 signal members of group	1 analogy
1 polishing	1 advantage/disadvantage
1 fluency	
1 conveys style	
1 conveys perspective	
1 conveys flavor	

Appendix G

Skills from Assessment Instruments

LOCAL SKILLS	GLOBAL SKILLS	ORGANIZATION SKILLS
<i>Usage</i>	<i>Usage</i>	<i>Rhetorical Forms</i>
11 precise vocabulary	21 clear expression of ideas	05 argument/support
10 transitions appropriate	12 variety of vocabulary used	01 illustration
09 complex structure	11 addresses prompt	01 analysis
05 simple structure	05 ideas balanced w/support	01 essay format
02 vocabulary uniqueness	01 varied transitions	
02 connectors	01 thesis development routine	<i>Introduction</i>
01 transitions routine	01 ideas balanced	02 attention getter
01 thesis statement uniqueness	01 ideas , conflicting ones balanced	01 narrow subject in introduction
01 impressive structures	01 explores issues thoughtfully	
01 wording	01 demonstrates content	<i>Body</i>
01 cohesive devices		14 support of thesis
	<i>Abstract</i>	10 generalizations
<i>Rule-based</i>	10 unity	06 ideas smoothly change
19 punctuation	09 fluency	
18 spelling	05 voice	<i>Paragraph</i>
15 sentence structure	05 succinctness	18 details used
12 capitalization	05 purpose	15 topic sentence supported
05 SV agreement	04 cohesion	11 sequence logical
03 syntax accurate	04 audience	07 expand ideas
02 word order	03 synthesize	05 supporting sentences
02 references cited appropriate	02 style	02 topic sentence
01 subordination	01 view point, alternatives used	
01 edit	01 point of view	<i>Conclusion</i>
01 coordination	01 coherence	07 conclusion format
	01 agreement of content and sentence design	01 restatement
		01 opens from focus
	<i>Concrete</i>	
	22 grammar accuracy	
	17 organization	
	08 paragraphing appropriate	
	08 mechanics	
	04 variety of sentence structure	
	04 paragraph length	
	02 register used appropriately	
	02 outlining	
	01 revision	

Appendix H

Skills from Curricula

Local Skills	Global Skills cont.	Organization cont.
<i>Rule-based</i>		<i>Rhetorical Forms</i>
11 reference cited appropriate	<i>Abstract</i>	10 cause/effect
08 punctuation	09 summarize	09 compare/contrast
06 spelling accurate	07 paraphrase	07 narration
06 accurate sentence structure	07 audience	07 description
05 edit	06 purpose	07 argument/support
05 capitalization	06 pre-writing	06 process
04 SV agreement	04 unity	06 classification
02 word order	04 style	05 persuasion
02 verb tenses	04 coherence	05 essay format
02 subordination	03 synthesize	04 analysis
02 parallel structures	03 fluency	03 response essay
02 coordination	03 cohesion	03 expository
01 verbals	02 writes clearly	03 definition essay
01 reporting verbs	02 voice	02 enumeration
01 passive voice	02 clustering	02 critique
01 articles	01 tone	02 chronological order
01 modifiers	01 perspective	01 problem-solving
	01 letter writing	01 listing
	01 freewriting	01 informative
<i>Usage</i>		01 exemplification
12 transitions appropriate		01 advantage/disadvantage
04 compound sentences	<i>Concrete</i>	
03 word usage accurate	07 organization	
03 vocabulary	07 outlining	<i>Introduction</i>
03 simple sentences	07 grammar accuracy	11 introduction format
03 connectors	05 paragraphing appropriate	09 thesis statement
03 complex sentences	05 revision	04 narrow a subject in intro.
02 cohesive devices	04 mechanics	01 attention getter
01 wording	03 essay length	
01 word repetition	02 variety of sentence structures	<i>Body</i>
01 use of discourse markers		08 body developed
01 idioms appropriate	Organization	08 support of thesis
01 handwriting		
01 combining sentences	<i>Paragraph</i>	<i>Conclusion</i>
	16 topic sentence supported	11 conclusion format
Global Skills	06 topic sentence	01 give closure
<i>Usage</i>	06 sequence logical	01 restatement
02 addresses prompt	05 examples	
01 variety of vocabulary	06 details	
01 use of simile	04 concluding sentences	
01 use of academic support	04 expand ideas	
01 routine content	02 facts	
02 integration of sources		
01 knowledge transformation		

Appendix I

Skills from Teachers

LOCAL SKILLS	GLOBAL SKILLS cont.	ORGANIZATION SKILLS cont.
<i>Rule-based</i>	<i>Abstract</i>	<i>Paragraph</i>
09 word order	10 fluency	09 topic sentence
06 clauses	06 paraphrase	08 support
05 punctuation	05 unity	04 sentence order logical
05 capitalization	05 substance	04 paragraph form
04 spelling	04 write clearly	04 concluding sentence
04 references cited appropriate	04 expand ideas	03 explain
03 verb tenses	04 coherence	03 examples
03 modifiers	03 generating ideas	02 description
03 edit	02 style	01 sequence logical
02 phrases	02 purpose	01 evidence
02 indentation	02 freewriting	01 details
02 combining sentences	02 cohesive	01 anecdotes
01 write on lines	01 voice	
01 use of et al, etc	01 simplicity	<i>Conclusion</i>
01 parts of speech	01 conciseness	06 gives closure
01 no use of first person	01 audience	05 restatement
01 front of paper	01 appropriateness	04 conclusion format
01 fragments	01 academic expectations	02 no new ideas
01 articles		
<i>Usage</i>	<i>Concrete</i>	<i>Rhetorical Forms</i>
08 vocabulary	07 paragraph length	05 essay format
06 transitions appropriate	05 summarize	03 descriptive
05 word choice	04 essay length	03 compare/contrast
05 complex sentence	04 academic language	03 cause/effect
04 sentence structure	03 syntactic complexity	02 newspaper articles
04 repetitions	03 variety of structures	02 letter forms
04 hooks	03 practice	01 spatial
03 simple sentence	06 grammar accuracy	01 short stories
03 compound sentence	03 outlining	01 research paper
03 complete sentence	02 revision	01 random
02 idioms	02 drafting	01 process
02 high level transitions	01 MLA/APA format	01 postcard
01 wording	01 paragraphing appropriate	01 poetry
01 original thesis		01 persuasive
	<i>Organization</i>	01 narrative
	<i>Introduction</i>	01 expository
<i>Global Skills</i>	09 thesis statement	01 dialog
<i>Usage</i>	06 attention getter	01 defense paper
04 integration of sources	05 narrow subject in intro.	01 classification
03 plagiarism	04 introduce topic	01 chronological
03 content demonstrated	03 background	01 argumentative
03 addresses prompt	01 no thesis thesis	01 argument

02 text responsible writing		01 agree/disagree
02 practice	<i>Body</i>	01 advantage/disadvantage
02 mechanics	06 support of thesis	
01 variety of expression	01 multiple paragraphs	
01 use of alternate arguments		
01 journal writing		
01 continuity of thought		
01 concrete ideas		
01 abstract ideas		

Appendix J

Questions for Interviews

DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Name
2. name of employer
3. description of school
4. job or position
5. description of job duties
6. education/experience

PREFACE

We are talking about L2 students who can not pass the TOEFL and are enrolled in
a multi-step intensive English program.

What is a writing skill to you?

I explain my definition so that they know what I'm referring to when I say skills.

Definition: The manipulation of text, whether of reading the text or writing the text, as well as processes which take place in the writer's mind in order to lead to the manipulation of text are considered here as writing skills.

QUESTIONS

What writing skills are required by the curriculum at the institution where you teach?

Of these, which are the most important to you?

What skills are essential for false beginners?

If they master these skills before they advance, what other skills would you teach?

Of all the skills you've mentioned (read list), what skills must students have

before they advance to the next level/they will fail without these skills?

What skills are essential for intermediate students?

If they master these skills before they advance, what other skills would you teach?

Of all the skills you've mentioned (read list), what skills must students have

before they advance to the next level/they will fail without these skills?

What skills are essential for advanced students?

If they master these skills before they advance, what other skills would you teach?

Of all the skills you've mentioned (read list), what skills must students have

before they advance to the next level/they will fail without these skills?

If you were going to rewrite or change your institution's writing curriculum, what are
three things which would be critical to include?

What abilities are absolutely essential for a student to master before entering a university
or beginning university work?

Appendix K

Rating Sheet Given to Teachers to Weight Skills

Instructions: Rate the following skills according to their importance overall for good writers to possess in order to produce good writing. 5 = very important, 4 = important, 3 = average, 2 = less important, 1 = somewhat important.

Local/Grammar Skills	Global/Content Skills	Global/Content Skills	Organization Skills
<i>Rule-based</i>	<i>Abstract</i>	<i>Usage</i>	<i>Conclusion</i>
clauses	unity	addresses prompt	gives closure
punctuation	substance	demonstrates content	restatement
capitalization	coherence	writes clearly	conclusion format
spelling	paraphrase		
reference cited app.	audience	Organization Skills	<i>Rhetorical Forms</i>
sentence structure	purpose	<i>Introduction</i>	narration
word order	fluency	attention getter	description
edit	summarize	narrows subject in intro.	argu/support
modifiers	cohesion	introduce topic	process
verb tenses	style	thesis statement	persuasion
coordination	succinctness	introduction format	essay format
subordination	synthesize		chronological
		<i>Paragraph</i>	advantage/disad.
<i>Usage</i>	<i>Concrete</i>	expands ideas	cause/effect
transitions appropo.	grammar accuracy	sequence logical	compare/contrast
word choice	organization	concluding sentence	definition
complex sentence	outlining	topic sentence	
precise vocabulary	paragraphing app.	examples	<i>Body</i>
vocabulary	revision	details used	support of thesis
wording	mechanics	topic sentence support	generalizations
connectors	paragraph length	supporting sents.	body developed
coherence devices	drafting		
combining sents.	variety of sent. struc.		

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 10/2/02

Date: Wednesday, October 03, 2001

IRB Application No AS00080

Proposal Title: CRITICAL WRITING SKILLS FOR INTENSIVE ENGLISH PROGRAMS

Principal
Investigator(s):

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Reviewed and ☐ Exempt ☒ Continuation

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Signature:



Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

Wednesday, October 03, 2001

Date

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor's signature. The IRB office MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.

2

VTTA

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Master of Arts

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