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The Use of Genre-Based Cycle with L1 Rhetorical Structure in L2 Writing Class: An Exploratory Study

Tzu-Shan Chang[1*]

[1] Department Foreign Language of Instruction, Wenzao Ursuline University of Languages, Taiwan

[*] Tzu-Shan Chang, E-mail: tzushanchang@gmail.com

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Abstract

This paper demonstrates the systemic functional approach (SFL) with the L1 rhetorical structure in a genre-based writing class and then examines the effectiveness of this study's approach in developing Chinese EFL writers' competence in writing argumentative essays. This EFL writing course follows the SFL approach, the genre-based cycle of teaching and learning, to provide students with repeated opportunities to practice literacy skills gained in previous cycles until they master different genres. The genre-based cycle formed the writing instruction along with the L1 rhetorical structure as a strategy; Chinese EFL sophomores (n = 44) were instructed in this writing class. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected: Interviews and ratings of students' writing from two raters before and after the instruction. The results presented that most participants had made statistically significant progress in their writing competence, particularly in structuring paper. The incorporation of L1 rhetorical structure into the genre-based cycle offered participants a framework to organize their arguments in L2 writing. When EFL students' home languages/cultures are treated as the resources within the context of a genre-based cycle, their prior knowledge of L1 rhetorical structure transits to more accurate construction of L2 essays.

Keywords

L1, L2, rhetorical structure, crosslinguistic influence, indirect, genre, argumentative essays, writing competence

1. Introduction

Early SLA research perceives L1 and L2 as two separate systems, and such perception "forms the basis for much language teaching methodology that teaches without reference to the first language and discourages its use in the classroom, hoping that the students will build up a new language system with no links to the first" (Cook, 2003, p. 6). However, language acquisition or use does not function this way; instead, "two systems accommodating to each other" (Cook, 2002, p. 18) and a hybrid system that

combines L1 and L2 knowledge occurs and thus works as an integrative continuum that will keep changing depending on different factors, such as L2 learners' exposure to spoken or written language (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2013) or L2 instruction (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2013). Kobayashsi and Rinnert's study (2008) indicates that transferability of writing competence across languages takes place. According to Cook's theory of multicompetence, L2 learners, or multilingual users as they should be called, are the people who possess the "knowledge of two languages in one mind" (1991, p. 112), and thus discouraging L1 use in L2 class might be against the nature of language acquisition and probably takes away the advantage of knowing two languages.

Studies have investigated L2 writers' development from a genre perspective and confirmed the effectiveness of genre approach in L2 writers' writing competence (e.g., Hyland, 2009; Freedman, 1994; Cheng, 2006, 2007), but most of these studies examine the development of students' genre knowledge in either an L1 or L2 context but not in a bilingual or multilingual perspective (Gentil, 2011, p. 6). Gentil (2011) proposes that when student writers possess the ability of understanding the genre features and then verbalizing the understanding of genre and genre variation in one language, this ability should not be underestimated in their process of composing or analyzing genres in another language (p. 11). However, researchers and scholars encourage more research on incorporating L1 into L2 genre-writing courses, but they seem not to suggest any methods of doing so.

In this regard, if studies have demonstrated the transferability of writing competence across languages, and more important, studies that examine the use of L1 within the context of genre-based writing course are encouraged by scholars (e.g., Gentil, 2011; Yasuda, 2011), studies on the use of L2 writers' L1 into the writing course deserve attention. Thus, the present study investigates how the genre-based cycle of teaching and learning along with the L1 rhetorical structure is implemented and how such an approach develops Chinese EFL writers' competence in writing argumentative essays.

2. Literature Review

The present study follows the latest adapted model of the genre-based cycle (Cope & Kalantzis, 2014, p. 11). Various researchers, such as Macken et al. (1989), Hammond et al. (1992), Rothery (1996), and Feez and Joyce (1998) had adapted this cycle to their teaching, and the effectiveness of its application is evidently supported, such as the project, LERN (Literacy and Education Research Network) (Macken et al., 1989), and basic components that constitute the cycle include modeling, joint construction, and independent construction (Cope & Kalantzis, 2014, p. 11; Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 34). The detailed description of each phase that constitutes the cycle is directly quoted from Hyland's description of it (Hyland, 2007, p. 159).

Although previous studies have clearly mapped out the application of the cycle and detailed the activities conducted under each step (e.g., Callaghan et al., 2014; Cope & Kalantzis, 2014; Hyon, 1996; Feez, 1998), and the effectiveness of its application is supported, evaluations of the activities actually used in class seem to be lacking. Also, the examples of applying the cycle date back to the 80s and 90s,

and if that application is successful in the 21st century, where educational settings have changed significantly, studies that use the cycle should not be underestimated (e.g., Martin, 2009, p. 19).

Three studies conducted in this century have used the teaching-learning cycle to teach students writing and specifically described how it was used to reach the goals of research (e.g., Schulze, 2011; Bacha, 2010; Luu, 2011). All the research results suggest that the writing instruction helped the participants compose essays that met the requirements of academic writing. Schulze's study gives voice to the practicality of the cycle in developing students' writing competence in persuasive essays. As in Bacha's study, the cycle includes five steps that help form her writing instruction. The results of Bacha's students' writings before and after the instruction displayed the effectiveness of her approach. Luu (2011) used the teaching-learning cycle to improve his students' academic recount essays, and the study results indicate that more than 80% of the students successfully gain more control over the key features in the biographical recount essays (p. 126).

These three studies discussed above reveal the practicality and flexibility of the cycle in writing course, but none of the researches provided any additional resources in students' L1 in each step. The innovative aspect of this study is that the present genre-based writing course followed this cycle as the setting of Bacha's study, and the use of the L1 rhetorical strategy was mainly implemented along with the genre-based cycle, which was before and during the first step—setting the context.

In fact, the use of L1 in EFL genre-based writing course is encouraged. Gentil expresses that once student writers gain the ability to understand the generic features and to verbalize the understanding of genre and genre variation in one language, this ability should not be underestimated when they are composing or analyzing genres in another language (Gentil, 2011, p. 11). Also, a study by Kecskes and Papp (2000) has shown that the transfer of writing skills is positive. Kubota (1992) makes clear that the similarities in information organization that both Japanese and English writing share helps Japanese speakers learn English writing. The positive correlation between L1 and L2 writing ability is further supported by several studies (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Schoonen et al., 2003; Ma & Wen, 1999). Being more specific, Sasaki and Hirose state that proficient L1 writers are also skilled at L2 writing. Their finding implies that L1 writers might transfer their writing skills in L1 when they are writing in L2. Furthermore, other researchers from earlier studies, such as Lay (1988), Cumming (1989, 1990), and Wang and Wen (2002) also remark that L1 use facilitates the process of thinking and writing in L2.

As discussed above, studies have demonstrated the practicality and flexibility of the cycle and the positive relation between L1 and L2 writings; studies also confirm that using L1 facilitates the process of thinking and writing in L2; scholars also encourage the use of L1 in L2 writing class, but they seem not to suggest any methods of doing so. Therefore, this study follows the genre-based cycle along with the use of L1 rhetorical structure and then evaluates this study's approach by examining students' pre- and post-argumentative essays and their perceptions regarding such an approach as well as their writing competence. Rather than approaching a genre-based writing course with preconceived notions about the text that students are expected to learn, the transfer of students' L1 knowledge encourages teachers

to guide students to recognize the value of prior linguistic knowledge and to use it to suit the features of the new rhetorical situation.

Research questions:

1. How the genre-based cycle is implemented with the use of L1 rhetorical structure?
2. How do Chinese EFL writers develop their writing competence in the genre-oriented EFL writing course where the genre-based cycle is adopted with the L1 rhetorical structure as a strategy?
3. What are Chinese EFL writers' perceptions concerning this approach and their progress of writing competence?

3. Method

Research question 1: How the genre-based cycle is implemented with the use of L1 rhetorical structure?

3.1 The Incorporation of L1 Rhetorical Strategy into the Genre-Based Cycle

The six steps described below demonstrate the use of L1 rhetorical strategy with the genre-based cycle.

Step 1: Warm-up and introduction of the writing conventions in Chinese

Instead of directly teaching the conventions of Western writing, I tried to familiarize my students with it by guiding them to discuss their perceptions concerning the conventions of Chinese writing first. Rather than emphasizing the different linguistic, rhetorical, and thought patterns in the two languages, I elicited students' discovery of the similarities that both conventions shared, so that the discovered similarities served as the basis for the research participants to start to make use of their L1 knowledge in the process of learning an L2 writing system (e.g., Kubota, 1992).

Some essays in Chinese were offered in class, and I asked them about the conventions of Chinese writing that they found in the essays to see if they followed their perceived Chinese rhetorical pattern that they discussed earlier. Once they stated their perceived elements of the writing system in Chinese, such as indirect or Qi-Cheng-Zhuan-He, I asked them to characterize the system. For better transit them to the new genre in L2 that they will encounter (e.g., Schulze, 2011), this step was added before the cycle began, as a way of implementing rhetorical structure as a strategy.

After the identification of the rhetorical structure, I showed them Figure 1, developed from their discussion, presenting the conventions in both languages, which led to the next step of the genre-based cycle.

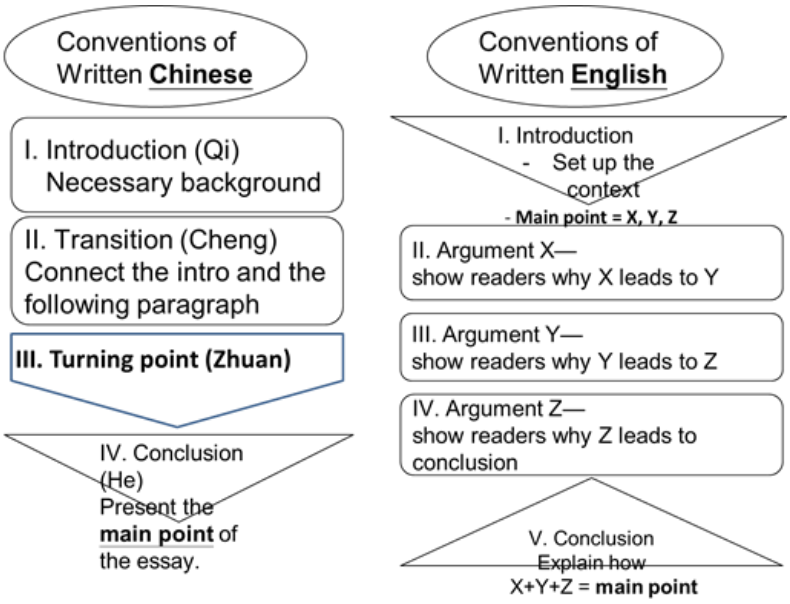

Figure 1. Conventions of Written Chinese and Conventions of Written English

Step 2: Setting the context—Writing conventions in Chinese and English

I used Figure 1 to highlight the similarities that both conventions shared, and I hoped the discussion of the similarities could trigger students' activation of their linguistic knowledge in the Chinese writing system, so that they would be able to easily relate their existing knowledge to the English writing system. Once students were familiar with the similarities of the two conventions, the next focus was guiding them to notice the differences through the use of Figure 1 and the different shapes of the boxes in it.

I believe that the use of Figure 1 helped scaffold students' learning of the conventions of written English. As Hyland (2007) suggests, "One way of providing this kind of support [scaffolding], for instance, is through the use of 'writing frames', which are simply skeletal outlines used to scaffold and prompt students' writing" (p. 158).

First, the two frames helped students notice the similarities and differences between the two sets of conventions and then help them make connection between the two when the process of writing started. Second, the frame of the conventions in written English functioned as the template that enabled them to produce their text more easily, in particular when they encountered different genres.

The shapes of each box in Figure 1 were purposeful. The point of the triangle shape indicates the location of the "main point" or "thesis" in the paragraph, and both the triangle and reverse triangle help indicate the placement of the main point in the paper as a whole. That placement might lead students to recognize the direct and indirect patterns in the two sets of conventions.

Step 3: Modeling—Recognition of the required elements in Each Paragraph

Research participants were asked to read the sample essays in English and to recognize the features of each paragraph in an argumentative essay. Recognizing the function of each paragraph led the research

participants' first impression of the nature of English writing, and they were guided to examine the elements required in each paragraph.

Along with reading the sample essay from the textbook, I asked the participants to highlight the sentences or parts of the sentences that represent the key components required in each paragraph to examine students' understanding of the format.

Step 4: Joint construction—Putting pieces together

The second sample offered in step 4, however, did not include all the required parts of academic writing. The weaknesses of the second sample essay offered students a chance to collaboratively complete the essay based on the requirements of an argumentative essay. The purpose of this stage was for students to start to write, and in a more teacher-guided way, they still needed to add some missing pieces or more explanation to make the sample essay more convincing and complete. Also, I had a chance to assess whether they understood how to put the theories into practice. As Hyland (2007) states, "by categorising and analysing the texts they ask their students to write, teachers become more attuned to the ways meanings are created and more sensitive to the specific communicative needs of their students" (p. 151). I was in a better position to reflect on my teaching and observe students' practices of writing.

Students were then asked to write a paper in a group based on the topic that I provided. Working collaboratively helped students get started writing together and learning from each other the parts that they did not quite "get". Students' potential level of competence could be raised by receiving assistance from more capable peers, such as their group members or instructors, and the process of scaffolding started.

Step 6: Independent construction 2—Writing individually

Once the exercise of writing collaboratively was completed, students were required to compose an essay as a take-home assignment, which worked as a summative evaluation to examine whether they would able to complete the essay by themselves.

Step 7: Comparing

After students turned in their papers, they were required to read several articles from textbooks. We would then identify the genre the article was written in and how it was structured to achieve social purposes (Hyland, 2007, p. 159).

4. The Study

This study was conducted in a one-semester compulsory course of 18 weeks. Excluding midterms and finals, and the writing instruction was around 30 hours. Around 44 EFL sophomores participating in this study, and their language proficiency was around 240 to 260 (out of 360) in the College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT) (Note 1), roughly equivalent to GEPT intermediate level and TOEIC 650 to 750.

Quantitative data included two pieces of students' in-class writing before and after the instruction. They

were required to write at least 220 words for each essay within 30 minutes.

The topic for the pre-writing: Age doesn't matter in a relationship.

The topic for the post-writing: Advantages and disadvantages of keeping a pet.

These topics were argumentative types of question. Students had to follow the format of academic writing and establish a position by constructing convincing arguments.

One experienced EFL rater and I blindly rated the students' writings. The EFL rater did not know the purpose of this research and when the data were collected, which protected the grading of the students' papers from any effects of the research itself.

Based on Lumley's scale descriptor (2005), the EFL rater and I rated the students' writings. Lumley's scale was adopted because such an analytic rating scale was carefully constructed and developed based on the two tasks: "giving/requesting information or explanations" and "arguing or discussing an issue" (p. 87). The latter task echoed the purpose of the argumentative essays that were targeted in the present study.

Before rating, raters practiced rating sets of scripts that were not included in the present study data to familiarize ourselves with each scale and ensure that the grading standards were in agreement. Making sure our grading standards did not differ to a certain level, after grading pre- and post-writings independently, I compared the grading to determine whether it was in agreement and to evaluate the acceptable rater variability. There was a strong and positive correlation between our grading in both pre- and post-writings. In pre-writing, the interrater correlation (Pearson correlation coefficient) was .78 for TFA, .83 for CoP, .79 for CO, .58 for GC, and .92 for total scores of students' writing. In post-writing, the interrater correlation was .72 for TFA, .69 for CoP, .50 for CO, .78 for GC, and .95 for total scores of students' writing.

Regarding the qualitative data, interviews were conducted after the completion of the writing instruction for a more in-depth understanding of students' perceptions concerning the use of L1 within the genre-based course and their process of writing competence. Each interview lasted around 20-30 minutes, and all interviews were conducted in Chinese because participants expressed themselves more fully when they used their mother tongue. I randomly picked 10 students and interviewed them individually. Their accounts were recorded and transcribed for analysis.

5. Results

Research question 2: How do Chinese EFL writers develop their writing competence in the genre-oriented EFL writing course where the genre-based cycle is adopted with the L1 rhetorical structure as a strategy?

Table 1. Changes in the Analytic Scores Pre- and Post-Tests after the Writing Instruction

	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Total				
Pre-test	2.09	1.02	.50	5.75
Post-test	7.10	2.15	.75	10.50
TFA				
Pre-test	.68	.47	.00	2.00
Post-test	1.72	.61	.00	2.50
CoP				
Pre-test	.82	.60	.00	2.50
Post-test	2.24	.78	.00	4.10
C&O				
Pre-test	.72	.53	.00	2.50
Post-test	1.71	.52	.00	2.50
GC				
Pre-test	.86	.42	.25	2.50
Post-test	1.42	.50	.25	2.50

Note. n = 44.

Table 2. Mean Differences in the Analytic Scores between Pre- and Post-Tests

	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Total				
Average differences between pre- and post-tests	44	5.0148	1.98118	.29867
TFA				
Average differences between pre- and post-tests	44	1.0455	.66094	.09964
CoP				
Average differences between pre- and post-tests	44	1.4170	.72448	.10922
CO				
Average differences between pre- and post-tests	44	.9830	.61568	.09282
GC				
Average differences between pre- and post-tests	44	.5636	.58542	.08826

Note. n = 44.

Table 3. One-Sample T-Test of the Mean Difference in the Analytic Scores between Pre- and Post-Tests

Item	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Total	16.790	43	.000	5.01477
TFA	10.492	43	.000	1.04545
CoP	12.974	43	.000	1.41705
CO	10.590	43	.000	.98295
GC	6.386	43	.000	.56364

Note. $p < .05$.

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for the argumentative essays scores according to Lumley's scale before and after the writing instruction. The results of the participants' sum scores and breakdown scores of writing all showed a significant increase in the tests of argumentative texts from pre- and post-writings. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for the mean differences in the analytic scores between pre- and post-tests of the argumentative writing. As Table 3 demonstrates, possible differences in the development of the participants' writing competence before and after the writing instruction were analyzed with one sample t-test of the mean difference in the analytic scores between pre- and post-tests. The results of the one sample t-test indicate statistically significant differences between the mean scores of pre- and post-tests; in other words, the participants made significant progress in composing argumentative essays from the four grading criteria. Also, the results of the one sample t-test also correspond with the analysis of the mean of the sum scores and breakdown scores of pre- and post-tests shown in Table 1.

The participants made more substantial improvement in the area of CoP, conventions of presentation, than that of TFA (Task Fulfillment And Appropriacy), CO (Cohesion & Organization), and GC (Grammar Control). The second greatest improved aspect was TFA, and the least greatest was GC.

Research question 3: What are Chinese EFL writers' perceptions concerning the use of L1 rhetorical strategy and their progress of writing competence?

Recurring themes from the interviews included the following points. The format of academic writing functions as a guide for students to easily follow rather than simply put down what they had in mind; students expressed they had written papers in English by structuring them in the way of indirect pattern before taking this class. Students also stated the use of L1 rhetorical structure a strategy with the genre-based cycle paved the ways for them to learn new knowledge from their prior L1 knowledge. Other interview findings presented that the participants had to expand their lexicon knowledge for encountering rhetorical contexts where they could not find the right word to express what they wanted.

[1] I simply wrote what I wanted, and I did not have the idea of dividing my paper into paragraphs. I simply put some paragraphs before the last one, the conclusion, and the paragraphs were not organized.

However, after this class, I started to realize what the structure of the paper was; even though I am not very good at doing it, I have the basic idea of the format (Esther).

Extract [1] present students' development with writing papers, from their unfamiliarity to familiarity with the format of academic writing. Before the class, Esther simply wrote what came to mind without any idea of structuring the paper. Esther may have had the basic idea of how to structure paragraphs, with an introduction, body, and conclusion, but she seemed not to know the reason for dividing the paper into certain paragraphs and their function in the paper until this class.

[2] I feel I did not realize the importance of comparing two types of writing until I started to write in English. I noticed how easily I would fall into the way of using the Chinese style to compose my paper in English. After I got my paper back from the teacher, I realized that I had started to write in a Chinese way, and then I knew that I should have constructed my paper by following the format of academic writing (Tank).

In extracts [2] Tank first confirmed that he knew of the existence of both the English and Chinese ways and also suggested that he would write papers in English as he did in Chinese. The interview statements corresponded with the literature discussed earlier that EFL students' writing in English was inevitably affected by their L1 writing (Kirkpatrick, 1993, 1997; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2012; Cai, 1993; Ji, 2011; Yang, Y. C. & Yang, Z., 2010; Kaplan, 1966, 1988). After this class, he understood that using the structure of Chinese way to compose an English academic paper might not be appropriate. The following extract [4] from Sylvia presents her process of knowledge transfer:

[3] I feel the comparisons between English and Chinese writing help guide me from the areas of familiarity to unfamiliarity—from Chinese to English writing, so that I can more easily accept new concepts. I mean I can better see the similarities and differences between writing in two languages. I still remember the diagrams that we used in class (Sylvia).

After explaining that her paper is better structured now, Sylvia further detailed the process of making good use of her prior Chinese linguistic knowledge to help her master academic writing in English. By understanding the similarities and differences of both rhetorical structures in Chinese and English, she could better understand the way of constructing academic papers in English.

Even though students positively stated that they had known the method of structuring their paper, and they had improved their writing competence, Leo indicated the difficulty of constructing his arguments.

[4] I feel sometimes I get confused when I construct my arguments. I have to be clearer when I am arguing for or against an issue because sometimes I feel that my position might be for in the first place, but then my position changes in the process of arguing for an issue. I feel I need to have clearer mind when I am writing argumentative essays (Leo).

In extract [4], Leo felt confused about constructing valid arguments because he felt his arguments might be unconvincing enough that his position changed.

Some students, such as Tank and Angel, had the experience of being unable to express themselves, and they would use the word "stuck" to describe when they were unable to write more fluently and when

they were restricted to their limited knowledge of vocabulary.

[5] I feel I will easily get stuck when I am writing in English; I can easily write all the way through when I write in Chinese. However, I feel I have to change my thought if I do not want to feel stuck (Tank).

[6] When I write in Chinese, maybe because it is my mother tongue, I can easily manage the fluency of my paper; but when I write in English, even though I have learned it for many years, I still do not feel that I can master it (Angel).

6. Discussion

First, the findings of students' pre- and post-writing indicated that the participants improved their competence the most in conventions of presentation of argumentative texts. The participants realized the structure of academic writing after the writing instruction; they had a better sense of the function of each paragraph, and thus instead of putting down what they wanted to say, as they had before the instruction, they knew they had to organize paragraphs to create an argumentative essay.

Probably because of the present study's approach, their prior knowledge of Chinese rhetorical structure was more activated so that the new concept of academic writing in English could be more easily internalized in the process of learning it. As Manchon et al. (2009) remark, compared to monolingual writers, multilingual writers' linguistic knowledge sources are wider, and their linguistic knowledge "can and are brought to bear when compositing", and this transfer "posits a strategic role for the mother tongue in L2 learning and use" (p. 119). The possible benefit of using L1 rhetorical strategy to advance participants' writing competence is additionally addressed by Yasuda's study, and she discusses that "when FL writers have shaped their understanding of how to write emails in L2 for diverse functional goals, they might thus be able to focus more on the use of their L1 when writing for the same or similar functional goals" (p. 126). The results of the present study might index a case of the transferability of L1 to L2 writing systems. The present research findings again support research on the interplay of L1 and L2 writing that FL writing is a bilingual event (e.g., Manchon et al., 2005, 2009; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009; Celaya & Naves, 2009; Cumming, 2009; Ortega, 2010; Schoonen et al., 2003).

Second, the participants' concern about vocabulary knowledge was raised in the interview data. Both Tank and Angel anxiously remarked that their limited knowledge of vocabulary hampered them from expressing what they wanted to argue, so that sometimes they had to give up their original thought or had to use a different word to replace the more accurate words that they did not know. The participants' difficulty with vocabulary use corresponds to one of Yasuda's findings on FL writers' language development in the genre-based course, that "lexical diversity, or overall vocabulary size, did not exhibit a significant change over the course of the semester" (p. 125). In line with Yasuda's findings, the study by Manchon et al. (2009) demonstrates that student writers had more problems of "being unsure about the correctness or appropriacy of the option available to express the intended meaning" when they composed in L2.

Interestingly, interview data showed that the participants perceived their competence of lexicon was worse than they actually performed, even though the quantitative results of the students' writing showed that they exhibited statistically significant improvement in the area of grammar control. Yet grammar control was the least improved area in their writing among all the grading criteria. The cross-analysis of the research data might imply that more instruction on the advancement of EFL writers' lexicon knowledge is required in a genre-based writing course that uses L1 rhetorical strategy.

Additionally, their limited English proficiency, in particular their lexicon knowledge, might be another reason that they felt construction valid arguments was more challenging. This possible reason is discussed in Cheng and Chen's study, and their research results demonstrate that "evidently, limited English proficiency appears to prevent Taiwanese students from developing more reasons to justify their claims, providing explicit statements to bridge their reasons and claims, and generating counter-arguments and refutations" (2009, p. 44). Again, interestingly, although the difficulty of constructing valid arguments was not revealed in the analysis of students' writing, the statistically significant development in their task fulfillment and appropriacy might imply that students actually advanced their critical thinking and lexicon ability. Their actual performance in writing is better than their perceived ability of constructing valid arguments.

7. Limitations

Although the research results presented that the participants significantly improved their writing competence, the study results should be considered tentative. First, the study was only conducted in one class, where the numbers of students was 44, and such a sample size might not represent that all EFL writers would respond to this approach in the same way as this study's results indicated. Second, this study only examined one group, so the degree of the influence that the present study's approach has on the participants' greatly increasing writing competence might be better identified if one experimental group and a control group were administered. Future studies might use two different treatment groups and then compare the participants' achievement in their writing competence and essays to ensure the practicality and validity of this study's approach.

8. Conclusion

The present study offers a pair of implications, particularly for an EFL curriculum or writing course that aims to incorporate the usage of students' home languages and cultures. First, guiding students from texts they are familiar with to the ones that they are expected to learn scaffolds their knowledge of academic writing in English. EFL students' home languages and cultures function as the tangible basis that they can rely on to understand the abstract of academic writing as something new that has not been in their schema. Second, the present study's approach better helps scaffold students' writing in L2, and the results indicate that students found that such approach, especially the writing frames of both written conventions compared and analyzed, functions as a guide or direction for them to easily use their old

knowledge for the new one to organize their thoughts and arguments in L2 writing.

This crosslinguistic pedagogy puts both Chinese, in the present study, and English in equal status in language education, and students transfer their L1 writing skills to learn academic writing in L2. In this study, English was learned as a language, and Chinese was used as the basis for the new language; both languages were used and understood especially in terms of rhetorical structure. The courses that incorporate multilingual learners' home languages and cultures at least offer them an option to voice their multilinguality. The significance of this approach is that when their home languages and cultures are treated as the resources within the context of a genre-based cycle, their prior knowledge of L1 rhetorical structure transits to more accurate construction of L2 essays.

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Note

Note 1. The College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT) was founded by The Language Training & Testing Center, Taiwan, in 1997. It is a norm-referenced test that aims to evaluate English education and university students' learning outcomes. In the context of daily and school life, the test is designed to assess university students' English proficiency in listening and reading skills (Retrieved from https://www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw/CSEPT_main.htm).