

# Examination of writing tasks in English textbooks for lower secondary schools in an EFL context: A genre perspective

OSAWA, Koji  
Kyoto University of Advanced Science

## Abstract

There has been an increasing demand to develop L2 literacy in ESL/EFL contexts to facilitate communication in the rapidly globalizing world; thus, it is crucial for TESOL educators to promote writing practice that can meet such demand. However, previous studies on English literacy education in Japan have demonstrated that the teaching practice focuses heavily on lexico-grammatical accuracy, and that learners consequently lack writing skills with regards to text structure. Therefore, this study suggests including the notion of genre in writing instruction. The study aims to analyze English textbooks currently used in Japanese lower secondary schools based on the concept of genre, and to clarify the distribution of genres among the textbooks. The findings demonstrated that the most dominant genre was reports, followed by stories and arguments. Interestingly, atypical report and argument genres were frequently identified in the textbooks. The findings can contribute to a better understanding of how the concept of genre can be applied to writing instruction in English education in Japan.

## 1. Introduction

There has been an increasing demand to develop L2 literacy, particularly writing skills, in the ESL/EFL contexts to facilitate communication in the rapidly globalizing world (Yasuda, 2014). Literacy is a form of social action in which meaning making is co-realized through language and context (Halliday, 1978), and it is a requisite for fully preparing individuals to participate in society (Christie and Derewianka, 2008). Existing research highlights the importance of promoting L2 writing practice to enable learners to meet the said demands. However, research and surveys into English literacy education in Japan have shown that the greatest challenges are that the writing skills among the learners and a global focus on writing instruction among teachers are lacking. Yasuda (2014) examined teachers' writing practice and student writing experiences at both upper secondary school (USS; Year 10-12) and university levels, and demonstrated that the main writing tasks carried out in USSs were either decontextualized sentence production or translation; multi-paragraph text writing was seldom undertaken. This study also showed that USS teachers commonly focused on lexico-grammatical accuracy rather than on the structure and content of writing due to the heavy demands of university entrance examinations. In addition, about half of

the freshman-year students felt unprepared for the university-level writing tasks of English courses. At lower secondary school (LSS) level (Year 7-9), several surveys identified an apparent lack of writing skills among students. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (MEXT) administered the national standardized test in public LSSs, and the results demonstrated that students faced difficulties in text organisation and logical connection (MEXT, 2015). Similarly, the report on the nationwide academic performance test implemented for year-9 students in public LSSs highlighted a lack of text organization skills (National Institute for Educational Policy Research, 2019).

This study proposes that applying the concept of genre to writing instruction could help resolve the aforementioned problems. A major advantage of this concept is its focus on both context and text (Martin and Rose, 2008). From the perspective of the social semiotic tool—systemic functional linguistics (SFL)—genre is defined as ‘different types of texts that enact various types of social contexts,’ and characterized as ‘a staged, goal oriented social process. Social because we participate in genres with other people; goal-oriented because we use genres to get things done; staged because it usually takes a few steps to reach our goals’ (Martin and Rose, 2008, p. 8). Genre is configured through three register variables: tenor (i.e., role relationships between interactants), field (i.e., social activity), and mode (i.e., role of language). Each dimension is realized by a particular social function of language, or metafunction of language. The interpersonal metafunction is to enact relationships, the ideational metafunction is to construe experience, and the textual metafunction is to organize text (Martin and Rose, 2008).

Previous researchers in SFL have discovered the genres required for enabling students to attain the competencies necessary for successful academic lives, i.e., school genres (Rose and Martin, 2012). School genres are classified into three families based on their central purpose: engaging, informing, and evaluating. Engaging genres (or story genres) consist of narrative, anecdote, exemplum, and recounting. Informing genres consist of histories, procedures, reports, and explanations. Finally, evaluating genres consist of arguments and responses. Each genre has a distinct social purpose, text structure, and lexico-grammar features. Previous research has clarified how social activity, discourse, and lexicogrammar are interconnected within each school genre, and developed the necessary pedagogy based on the concept of genre (i.e., genre-based pedagogy) (Rose and Martin, 2012). The deep insights gained from the research have helped teachers provide L2 learners with explicit knowledge about the interconnection between text and context, and contributed to their improvement of writing skills. Thus, applying the concept of genre to writing instruction in English education in Japan might help learners overcome the current difficulties in writing.

## 2. Literature review: Genre analysis in EFL contexts

Genre analysis was initially developed in Australia, and has since spread to many countries (e.g., North America, South America, and Asia) within vastly different academic areas (e.g., science, history, literature). There are several studies that have focused on school genres of English textbooks in EFL contexts (e.g., Dalimunte and Pramoolsook, 2020; Na and Lee, 2019). In the Japanese educational context, several studies have analyzed textbooks from the perspective of school genres (e.g., Hayakawa, 2007; Watanabe, 2017, 2018). In Hayakawa's (2007) study, which analyzed reading textbooks used at university, discovered 10 types of school genres (e.g., reports, explanations, stories); however, 10 out of the 14 texts in the textbook did not contain the typical features of text structure and/or lexico-grammar needed to achieve their social purposes. Watanabe (2017) analyzed 73 writing tasks used in textbooks in both public USSs and commercially available textbooks for USS students. The analysis revealed that the school textbooks included wide varieties of school genres (e.g., reports, arguments, recounts) while the commercial ones contained a limited range of genres (e.g., expositions, and atypical expositions). Additionally, Watanabe (2018) examined 50 writing tasks used in the entrance examinations of Japanese universities, and discovered that the tasks mainly consisted of two genres, i.e., expositions (42.8%) and atypical arguments (41.1%).

While these studies have contributed to our understanding of school genres at the levels of USSs and universities in Japan, there are few studies that have analyzed English textbooks at LSS level from the perspective of genres. This study aims to address this research gap by answering the question: How are school genres distributed in the writing tasks among six MEXT-approved English textbooks currently used in Japanese LSSs? The findings could help teachers in providing L2 writing instruction for EFL learners.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Material

The material used for this study was English textbooks employed from 2021 at LSSs in Japan. Six types of textbooks were published by private publishing companies in accordance with the Course of Study (COS) guideline (2017)—an English curriculum created and issued by MEXT. All the textbooks were approved by MEXT after verifying that all learning outcomes and requisite items specified in the COS guideline were included in these textbooks. Once they were approved and published, each board of education situated in the nearly 1000 districts across Japan selected one of the textbooks. Each textbook consists of 3 graded reader series: Blue Sky (BS; Keirinkan, 2021); Here We Go (HWG; Mitsumura Tosho Shuppan, 2021); New Crown (NC; Sanseido, 2021); New Horizon (NH; Tokyo Shoseki, 2021); One World (OW; Kyoiku Shuppan 2021); and Sunshine (SS; Kairyudo, 2021). All the textbooks were selected

and analysed to clarify the distribution of school genres.

### 3.2 Data Analysis

The current study uses a qualitative research approach based on the concept of school genres. The first step of the procedure was to extract the data on writing tasks, including instructions, and model texts from the textbooks. During the process, decontextualized single-sentence writing tasks were excluded since this does not require a knowledge of genres. Spoken mode tasks (e.g., writing conversational exchange) were also excluded since the focus of this study is on school genres (i.e., written mode). Once the samples were extracted, they were categorized into particular school genres based on the framework of the school genre (Derewianka and Jones, 2016; Rose and Martin, 2012; see Table 1). Texts that were mostly analogous to typical genres but partly different from their social purpose, text structure and/or linguistic feature, were categorized as atypical genre. Furthermore, the genres that do not belong to school genres (e.g., different types of letters, emails, and text messages) were described as others due to the limitation of words in this paper.

**Table 1. Analytical framework of school genre**

Genre families		Social purpose	Sample genres identified
Engage	Stories	To entertain readers by telling a story	Personal recount
Inform	Histories	To inform readers by telling chronologically sequenced events from the past	Autobiography Biographical recount
	Explanations	To explain the cause and effect of something	N/A
	Procedures	To direct readers to do something	Protocol
	Reports	To inform readers by classifying and describing entities	Descriptive report
Evaluate	Arguments	To persuade someone to think or act in a particular way by expressing points of view	Hortatory exposition Analytical exposition
	Responses	To express feelings, and evaluate and interpret the message of a work	Personal response
Macro-genre	Inquiry	To describe investigation with multiple purposes (e.g., observation, report on results)	Inquiry

## 4. Findings and Discussion

### 4.1 Overview of school genres in English textbooks for LSSs of Japan

Table 2 displays the overview of the distribution of school genres among the 6 textbooks. The total number of writing tasks were 292. It is clear that the wide range of tasks were designed in each textbook, with NC being the highest (n=62), and OW the lowest (n=35). The most dominant school genre was reports (43.2%), followed by non-school genres (17.8%), stories (17.1%), and arguments (10.3%). Histories, procedure, and inquiries were rarely identified among the textbooks.

**Table 2. Distribution of School genres in LSS textbooks in Japan**

Genre families		BS	HWG	NC	NH	OW	SS	Total	(%)
Engage	Stories	14	13	9	8	3	3	50	17.1%
Inform	Histories	1	0	2	1	1	3	8	2.7%
	Procedures	1	1	0	3	1	0	6	2.1%
	Reports	28	23	24	23	13	15	126	43.2%
Evaluate	Arguments	7	3	6	4	5	5	30	10.3%
	Responses	1	0	3	0	3	9	16	5.5%
Macro	Inquiries	0	0	1	1	2	0	4	1.4%
Non-school genres		3	7	17	12	7	6	52	17.8%
Total Tasks		55	47	62	52	35	41	292	100.0%

#### 4.2 Engaging family genres: stories

Table 3 shows the distribution of engaging genres among the textbooks, and apparently the most frequent was observation/comment (n=27), followed by personal recount (n=12), and imaginative story (n=9). Common school genres within story genres (e.g., narrative) were not identified.

**Table 3. The distribution of engaging (story) genre families**

Engaging genres	BS	HWG	NC	NH	OW	SS	Total
Observation/comment	8	8	5	3	3	0	27
Personal recount	4	2	1	3	0	2	12
Poem	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
Imaginative stories	2	2	3	1	0	1	9
Total	14	13	9	8	3	3	50

##### 4.2.1 Observation/Comment

The observation/comment genre was identified among 5 out of the 6 textbooks. It economically wraps up events that happened by observing personal experience and reflecting on it; however, its description of experience is not developed to include sequenced temporal events (Rose and Martin, 2012). The typical staging of observation/comment texts go through ‘observation’ (e.g., *I watched a soccer game on TV yesterday.*), and ‘comment’ (e.g., *It was exciting.*). The sample tasks identified among the textbooks were ‘*Diary,*’ ‘*Yesterday’s event,*’ and ‘*Events during vacation.*’

##### 4.2.2 Personal recounts

Personal recount was also identified among 5 out of 6 textbooks. Personal recount is a text that involves a more detailed description of events involving personal experience compared to the observation/comment text (Derewianka and Jones, 2016). Excerpt 1 shows an extracted model text whose staging starts with ‘orientation’ that provides background information for readers (e.g., *I went to an amusement park [...]*), followed by a ‘record of events’ that recounts events in their chronological order (e.g., *We rode many attractions [...]; We ate a lot of food [...]*). ‘Comment’ is optionally added to evaluate the event or to describe emotional response (e.g., *We had a great*

time.). The sample tasks identified were ‘Diary,’ ‘My school days,’ and ‘My favorite event this year.’

**Excerpt 1. Personal Recount (Blue Sky: English Course 1, 2021, pp. 115-117)**

Instruction: Write a diary following the text structure presented below: 1. a place where you went; 2. two events you experienced; 3. a comment.		
Orientation		I went to an amusement park with my friends. It was very crowded.
Record of events	event 1	We rode many attractions. The roller coaster was exciting.
	event 2	We ate a lot of food, too.
Comment		We had a great time.

One interesting finding was that all the textbooks had at least one task for observation/comment and/or personal recount. This finding may be explained by the policy of the COS guideline, which states that a main learning outcome is to develop the writing skill for describing personal everyday topics, and recounting sequenced events in the past chronologically (MEXT, 2017). Thus, to meet the requirements of the COS guideline, story genre tasks could be included in all the textbooks. However, there were some issues identified among the tasks. OW designed only observation/comment tasks, and SS did not give explicit instruction on the text structure for personal recount. These findings suggest that LSS learners might miss opportunities to improve their fundamental skills in recounting the past. In addition, such skills are required to write more demanding and elaborated history genres (e.g., autobiography, biography, historical recount) in their successful academic career (Derewianka and Jones, 2016). Thus, teachers should be aware of the task design of the textbooks they currently use, and provide students with explicit instruction and/or extra story writing experiences, if necessary.

**4.3 Informing genre families**

Table 4 presents the distribution of informing genres (n=140) among the textbooks. It is noticeable that report genres significantly dominated within the informing genre (n=126). Histories (n=8) and procedures (n=6) were rarely identified, and no explanation genres were found.

**Table 4. Distribution of informing genre families**

Informing genres		BS	HWG	NC	NH	OW	SS	Total
Histories	Factual	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Autobiographical	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Biographical	1	0	1	1	1	2	6
Procedures	Protocol	1	1	0	3	1	0	6
Reports	Descriptive report	9	13	10	6	4	7	49
	Atypical report	19	10	14	17	9	8	77
Total		30	24	26	27	15	18	140

### 4.3.1 Descriptive reports

The finding showed all the textbooks included descriptive report genres (n=49). Descriptive report genre organizes an entity with its description, classification, or composition (Derewianka and Jones, 2016). Although descriptive reports were frequently identified, other report genres (e.g., classifying reports, compositional reports, and historical reports) were not identified. Excerpt 2 presents an extracted text, which introduces a traditional Japanese festival, ‘*Shichi-Go-San.*’ Its staging starts with a ‘general statement,’ which identifies an entity, classifies it into a category, defines it (e.g., *It is a festival [...].*), or locates it in time and space (e.g., *Shichi-Go-San is held in November.*); and ‘description,’ which describes particular features, characteristics, activities, and behaviours of the entity without attitudinal wordings (e.g., *They visit shrines to [...].*). It was also found that the entities described in the tasks varied within the continuum of generality from the personal (e.g., *my family, my friend*) to more generalised ones (e.g., *elephant, Japanese culture*). The sample tasks identified were ‘*My friends,*’ ‘*Quiz on a celebrity,*’ and ‘*Traditional Japanese cuisine.*’

#### Excerpt 2. Descriptive report (Blue Sky: English Course 3, 2021, pp. 90-91)

Instruction: Write a text to introduce an event in Japanese culture on a website.	
Title	<b>Shichi-Go-San - The Seven-Five-Three Children’s Festival</b>
General Statement	Shichi-Go-San is held in November. It is a festival for seven, five, and three-year old children.
Description	They visit shrines to pray for a long healthy life with their families.

### 4.3.2 Atypical reports

Table 4 demonstrates that the frequency of atypical reports (n=77) greatly exceeded that of descriptive reports (n=49). Excerpt 3 shows an extracted atypical report, whose title is ‘*My favorite person.*’ The text describes an entity, going through ‘general statement’ (e.g., *This is Tanakashi Sara.*), and ‘description’ (e.g., *She is a great jumper.*) by staging it similar to descriptive reports. However, unlike descriptive reports, atypical texts include the writer's attitudes interspersed within the whole text (e.g., *great, well, want*); and the ‘comment’ stage is optional (e.g., *I want to be a great jumper like her.*). In other words, this genre describes a particular entity with the combination of facts and evaluations. Although atypical reports evaluate an entity, it was not categorized in the argument genre since the social purpose appears to mainly inform us of an entity, rather than arguing a case with internal conjunction, which is a key linguistic feature of argument genres (Rose and Marin, 2012). The sample extracted tasks were ‘*Self-introduction,*’ ‘*Introduction of family and friends,*’ and ‘*Visitor information.*’

**Excerpt 3. Atypical report (One World: English Course 1, 2021, p. 44)**

Instruction: Write about your favorite person	
General Statement	This is Takanashi Sara. She is a professional ski jumper.
Description	She is a great jumper. She can speak English well.
Comment	I want to be a great jumper like her.

The frequent appearance of atypical reports may be explained by the policy of the COS guideline, which states that one main goal is to enable students to write a text about a particular fact by including their attitudes and feelings towards it (MEXT, 2017). Given that students in Japan do not usually use English outside the classroom, and begin practicing writing from Year 7, atypical report genres (e.g., self-introduction, introduction of friends and family) could be an essential step towards developing skills in describing entities of their everyday, personal world. However, all tasks of report genres lacked explicit instruction on the difference of linguistic features between typical and atypical reports. This might make it difficult for students to differentiate them, and consequently they might fail to improve the factual writing skills required for science in their later academic life. Thus, teachers should be aware of such difference, and provide scaffolding that enables students to write appropriate report genre texts based on the context, if necessary.

**4.4 Evaluating genres**

Table 4 shows the distribution of evaluating genre tasks (n=46). The argument genres constituted 30 tasks, and the frequency of analytical/hortatory expositions (n=8) was significantly lower than atypical arguments (n=22). Additionally, a common argument genre (i.e., discussion) was not identified. Meanwhile, response genres comprised only personal responses (n=16), and other response genres (e.g., reviews, interpretations) were not identified.

**Table 4. Evaluating genre families**

		BS	HWG	NC	NH	OW	SS	Total
Arguments	Analytical exposition	1	1	0	2	2	1	7
	Hortatory exposition	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Atypical exposition	6	2	6	1	3	4	22
Response	Personal response	1	0	3	0	3	9	16
Total		8	3	9	4	8	14	46

**4.4.1 Analytical exposition**

Excerpt 5 shows an extracted text of analytical exposition whose social purpose is to persuade readers by arguing a point of view (Rose and Martin, 2012). The staging mainly consists of ‘statement of position,’ ‘argument,’ and ‘reiteration.’ The ‘statement of position’ expresses the writer’s position on a particular topic (e.g., *I do not think [...].*) with the optional preview phrase (e.g., *I have two reasons.*). The



‘argument’ includes the point phase, in which the writer’s points are made (e.g., *First, sometimes we really need [...]*), and the elaboration phase, which provides readers with more specific details of the points (e.g., *If you are looking [...]*). Finally, the ‘reiteration of position’ (e.g., *We cannot ban everything.*) reviews the whole arguments previously made, and restates the writer’s position on the issue (e.g., *I do not think [...]*). The sample tasks identified were ‘*City life or country life?*’ and ‘*School lunch or packed lunch?*’

**Excerpt 5. Analytical Exposition (New Horizon: English Course 3, p. 45)**

Instruction: Write your opinion on electronic device use on the street, and explain the reasons for it.		
Statement of Position	<i>position</i>	I do not think we need laws for electronic device use on the street.
	<i>preview</i>	I have two reasons.
Argument 1	<i>point</i>	First, sometimes we really need to use those devices outside.
	<i>Elaboration</i>	If you are looking at a map, it is a bother to stop looking when you cross the street. Second, we can make our own decisions.
Argument 2	<i>point</i>	Bike accidents are common, but many people choose to ride them anyway.
	<i>elaboration</i>	
Reiteration of Position		We cannot ban everything. I do not think we need such a law.

**4.4.2 Atypical exposition**

Table 4 demonstrates that atypical argument tasks were designed more frequently than exposition genres among all textbooks. Excerpt 6 shows an extracted text, whose staging is closely analogous to that of typical expositions, consisting of ‘topic introduction,’ ‘reasoning,’ and ‘comment.’ First, ‘topic introduction’ introduces the writer’s main opinion about a particular topic (e.g., *I want to go to Brazil.*). The subsequent ‘reasoning’ stage includes the point phase (e.g., *First, I want to play with [...]*) and the elaboration phase (e.g., *They will teach me [...]*). Finally, the ‘comment’ stage is often added to the text to conclude the writer’s opinion. In addition, the key linguistic features of atypical exposition were similar to those of expositions. (1) Mental processes were often used to express opinions and reactions (e.g., *want, hope*). (2) Attitudes towards the topic (e.g., *want, best, hope*) were frequently expressed. (3) The text was cohesively organized through text openers (e.g., *I want to go to Brazil*) and paragraph openers (e.g., *I want to play with...*). (4) Text connectives were often used to signpost how the topic will be developed (e.g., *First, Second*). However, most importantly, atypical arguments do not appear to persuade readers to act or think in a particular way, but to merely introduce the author’s opinions about a particular topic in logical, evaluative, and cohesive ways. From the perspective of linguistic features, personal pronouns (e.g., *I, my, me*) were frequently used, rather than general, abstract, technical entities, which are common in the exposition genre. The sample tasks identified were ‘*My dream,*’ ‘*A place I want to visit,*’ and ‘*My favorite person.*’

**Excerpt 6. Atypical argument (New Crown: English Course 2, pp. 58-59)**

Instruction: Describe a place you want to go.	
Title	<b>Brazil</b>
Topic introduction	I want to go to Brazil.
Reason 1	<i>point</i> First, I want to play with the best soccer players.
	<i>elaboration</i> They will teach me some soccer skills.
Reason 2	<i>point</i> Second, I want to travel up the Amazon and go on jungle hikes.
	<i>elaboration</i> Guides will show me the amazing plants and animals of the jungle.
Comment	I hope that I can go there someday.

The frequent appearance of atypical arguments could be explained by the policy of the COS guideline (2017), stating that one main goal of writing is to enable students to simply express their opinion about personal topics (e.g., *their interest; places they want to go*) along with the reasons and supporting arguments in a logical and cohesive way (MEXT, 2017). In this sense, the task design of atypical arguments could contribute towards achieving its goal. However, the guideline also highlights the need to develop the skill in expressing opinions about more general topics (e.g., environmental problems, human rights). That is, writing expositions is a skill, which LSS students must improve. While 5 out of the 6 textbooks provided one or more exposition writing tasks, NC did not provide any analytical exposition tasks. This might cause students to miss the opportunities to practice writing this genre. Given the above points, teachers should be aware of the difference between expositions and atypical arguments in terms of their social purposes and linguistic features, and provide the necessary opportunities to achieve the intended learning outcomes.

**4.4.3 Responses: Personal Response**

The analysis shows that only personal response genre was identified (n=16) in the response genre. Personal responses are texts that respond to a work by expressing feelings (Rose and Martin, 2012). Excerpt 7 shows an extracted model text whose staging consists of optional ‘summary/description’ (e.g., *Eagles have been flying [...].*), and ‘opinion/comment.’ The sample tasks identified were ‘*Response to a narrative,*’ ‘*Response to a blog.*’ The task below appears to show explicit instruction on how the text will be developed. However, the tasks designed by NC and SS did not give any explicit instruction on the text structure. Additionally, HWG and NH did not provide any response writing tasks in their textbooks. Given that the COS guideline demands students to write a personal response cohesively (MEXT, 2017), the lack of explicit instruction and experience could cause learners to struggle with writing response genre texts.

**Excerpt 7. Personal response (One World: English Course 3, pp.24-25)**

Instruction: Write a summary of the reading text, following the text below. Then, write your opinion about the situation with one sentence.	
summary	Eagles have been flying over Hokkaido for centuries.

#### **4.5 Macro-genre: Inquiry**

There were 3 tasks categorized as inquiries, which refers to a text that has multiple purposes within the overall system of investigation (Derewianka and Jones, 2016). The staging goes through several embedded genres (e.g., methods, results, discussion). It is interesting to note that the COS guideline does not state that students are required to develop this type of writing skills at the LSS level (MEXT, 2017). However, inquiry tasks might provide valuable opportunities for students to combine the basic genre-writing skills they have already learned (e.g., describing procedure, observing what happened, asking questions, reporting the results) within the overall purpose of inquiring.

#### **5. Conclusion**

This study examined the distribution of school genres among six MEXT-approved textbooks for LSSs in Japan. The results demonstrate that the most dominant genre family was ‘informing,’ followed by ‘engaging’ and ‘evaluating.’ The second finding was the detailed distribution of each genre family as follows: (1) Informing genres mostly comprised of reports, while the frequency of typical reports were far below that of atypical ones that often include evaluation of an entity, rather than objective facts. (2) The engaging genre mainly consisted of observation/comment and personal recounts; however, a lack of explicit instruction on the text structure of personal recounts was identified. (3) Within the evaluating genres, the most frequent genre was atypical arguments, which are similar to the text structure and linguistic features of expositions, but whose social purpose lacks its persuasive nature.

The present study appears to be the first study to examine the writing tasks designed in English textbooks used in LSSs, in Japan, from the school genre perspective. The findings of this study have practical implications. It is recommended that the teachers should be aware of the difference between typical and atypical school genres in terms of social purpose, staging, and linguistic features. This knowledge could enable teachers to explicitly instruct students on L2 writing in a culturally appropriate way, and provide learners with valuable writing experiences that lead to more successful academic lives. However, this study has a limitation, as it only examined writing tasks based on school genres, without exploring non-school genres, such as different types of emails, letters, and text messages. Thus, further research is required to better understand students’ writing experiences more comprehensively.

## References

- Dalimunte, A. A., and Pramoolsook, I. (2020). Genres Classification and Generic Structures in the English Language Textbooks of Economics and Islamic Economics in an Indonesian University. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 13(1), 1-19.
- Derewianka, B., and Christie, F. (2008). *School discourse: Learning to write across the years of schooling*.
- Derewianka, B., and Jones, P. (2016). *Teaching language in context*. Oxford University Press. 198 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10016.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotics*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hayakawa, C., (2007) Genre in English textbooks used in Japan. *Proceedings of Japan Association of Systemic Functional Linguistics*, 1, 89-103.
- Kairyudo. (2021). *Sunshine: English course* (Vols. 1-3).
- Keirinkan. (2021). *Blue sky: English course* (Vols. 1-3).
- Kyoiku Shuppan. (2021). *One world: English course* (Vols. 1-3).
- Martin, J. R., and Rose, D. (2008). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- MEXT. (2015). *Eigoryoku chosa kekka: Chugaku 3 nensei no sokuhou*. [The report on the results of English abilities of Year 9 students]
- MEXT. (2017). *Chugakko gakushu shido yoryo: Kaisetsu gaikokugo hen*. [The course of study guideline: Foreign languages]
- Mitsumura Tosho Shuppan. (2021). *Here We Go!: English course* (Vols. 1-3).
- Na, E., and Lee, H. (2019). The Analysis of Writing Tasks in High School English Textbooks: A Process-Genre Based Approach. *English Teaching*, 74(4), 105-129.
- National Institute for Educational Policy Research. (2019). *Heisei 31 nendo zenkoku gakuryoku gakushu jokyo chosa no kekka: Gaiyo*. [The outline of the results of the national standardized text]
- Sanseido. (2021). *New crown: English course* (Vols. 1-3).
- Tokyo Shoseki. (2021). *New horizon: English course* (Vols. 1-3).
- Rose, D., and Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney School*. London: Equinox.
- Watanabe, H. (2016). Genre analysis of writing tasks in Japanese university entrance examinations. *Language Testing in Asia*, 6(1), 1-14.
- Watanabe, H. (2017). An examination of written genres in English language textbooks in Japan. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 14(1), 64.
- Yasuda, S. (2014). Exploring changes in FL writers' meaning-making choices in summary writing: A systemic functional approach. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 27, 105-121