

**THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE GENRE-BASED APPROACH
ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH WRITING AT THE
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES,
KHON KAEN UNIVERSITY IN NORTH-EASTERN
THAILAND**

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Volume 1

Chapters 1 – 7 and Bibliography

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CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP/ORIGINALITY

I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

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DEDICATION

To my parents ...

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMEP	Adult Migrant English Program
CRN	Co-operative Research Network (Thailand)
DSP	Disadvantaged Schools Program
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MNC	Multi National Companies
NCELTR	National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research
NESB	Non English Speaking Background
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
TAFE	Technical and Further Education (Australia)
TESOL	Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Testing of English as a Foreign Language

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ABSTRACT

The Thai government has proposed education reform programs to be competitive with its neighbours and globally. One major policy is to improve competency in English.

Thailand has a long history of importing approaches for teaching English from western countries. For a complex variety of reasons the structural-based approaches have been the most influential ones on both teachers and bureaucrats. While these approaches enable Thais to communicate at the basic level, emphasising spoken language, they do not provide systematic guidance to write extended texts effectively. Thai educators have tended to import approaches literally without adequately researching the practicality and suitability of them. This thesis is an attempt to explore whether it is possible to adapt a recently evolved, western 'genre-based' approach to the teaching of English in Thailand.

The research focuses on factual English writing because it is highly valued in government, commerce and industry. English and Thai rhetorical patterns differ significantly so students need to write their texts to meet English readers' expectations. To achieve this, students need to be taught to write explicitly. Soundly based in Systemic Functional Linguistic theory, the genre-based approach teaches writing at whole text, paragraph and clause levels. It is concerned with realising appropriate generic structure for the different social communication tasks. This approach has the potential to improve Thai students' writing ability.

The research project was primarily an ethnographic-case study that was carried out with the co-operation of 45 third year English major students for 14 weeks (from October, 1997 to February, 1998) at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University in northeast Thailand. It is centred on the Exposition genre because some Thai educators had noted that it was one of the most neglected in the Thai educational system, but one of the most valuable genres in western culture.

The research outcomes showed that the genre-based approach had a significant positive impact on students' factual writing, showing gains in the control of generic structure and language features of the Exposition.

Nevertheless, the research suggests that for the genre-based approach to be successfully implemented in a foreign language context such as Thai, a number of modifications are necessary.

The genre-based approach provides students with insights into cultural expectations of writing in English and has the potential to contribute to the policy goals of the Thai government for the upgrading of English teaching and also contribute to its wish of achieving the education reform agenda.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

In Thailand, people place a high social and economic value on education. It is considered to be the essential path to self-improvement, both in the sense of becoming a more worthwhile person and as a means of gaining financial security and socially significant employment (O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997). At the level of the nation-state, education is an important means of achieving national security, development and prosperity, goals which the monarchs and successive governments since King Chulalongkorn's era, King Rama V (1868-1910), have embraced and striven to achieve (Ministry of Education 1996a; Nakornthap 1997; Kantabutra 1998).

It is one of my priorities to upgrade our education system (King Chulalongkorn, cited in Kaewdaeng 1997:39 (preface)).

The development of our country depends on the education of our people. Today's education determines the future of the country (King Bhumiphol, cited in Kaewdaeng 1997:39 (preface)).

Until recently, there has not been a serious attempt to evaluate the quality of Thai education. This was because the country's economy was largely based on cheap and mainly unskilled manufacturing labour supplied to Japanese and other foreign companies. Other industries depended on the exploitation of natural resources, such as timber and canned seafood for export (Jongsatityu 1997; Jolley 1997; Khoman 1999). Because of cheap labour, during the early 1990's Thailand had one of the fastest growing economies in the world (Khoman 1999).

In 1997, Thailand experienced a major economic and financial downturn. Analysing the reasons for this, Kaewdaeng (1997), Wasi (1998) and Khoman (1999) found that one of the factors responsible was the weakness in human resources, especially in the later stages of education and in transition to employment. In addition, all three writers argued that the Thai education system has long been influenced by the 'reproductive approach'

to teaching and learning, emphasising conservative attitudes to knowledge, with teachers at the centre for teaching and learning activities. They went on to say that while the reproductive approach emphasises memorising, and does this very competently, it does not equip Thai graduates with problem-solving, analytical and critical thinking skills necessary for Thai people to compete for higher level jobs with those educated and trained in Western systems. Nor does it encourage them to develop self-directed learning skills. These skills are necessary for the development of individuals and ultimately, of the country because they enable Thais to adapt themselves to changes, make valid and creative judgments and know how to research for knowledge independently. (The factors contributing to the domination of the 'reproductive approach' in the Thai education system are detailed in Chapter 2.)

In common with many other countries, Thailand has been greatly affected by the 'globalisation phenomenon' which has transformed the world into a so-called 'global village' (Wongsothorn, Sukamolsun, Chinthammit, Ratanothayanonth and Noparumpa 1996; Chayanuvat 1997). The advancement of telecommunication technologies enables people from different parts of the world to be in contact, exchange information and do business with each other quickly and spontaneously. Komin (1998) notes that based on world growth trends of the late 1990s, it is apparent that the largest and fastest economic growth in the early 21st century will be centred in the Asia-Pacific region, especially Southeast Asia. Multinational corporations (MNCs) have recognised the factors that contribute to this – very large newly industrialised populations can provide both cheaper labour and a massive consumer base. This has led to many more multinational corporations establishing major offices, production facilities and marketing and distribution outlets in the region. To strengthen the economy of the country and to be competitive in the more interdependent world, Thais need to have extensive technical and professional education and training, particularly in the fields of sciences, computing and finance (Jolley 1997). It has become clear that for Thais to take their place in the global economy they need to be fluent in English, as it is used for the exchange of technological information, and used in the US, which has become the world's industrial leader, and in the UK and its former colonies such as India, Canada and Australia. Additionally, English is the most common language used internationally, including on the internet. It is estimated that some 800 million people worldwide speak

English. Of these, approximately 350 million are native speakers, approximately an equal number are second language speakers, and a further 100 million speak English as a foreign language (Ahulu 1997). English has a wide range of practical uses. As early as 1987 Crystal (1987:358) had observed:

It [English] is the main language of books, newspapers, airports and air-traffic control, international business and academic conferences, science, technology, medicine, diplomacy, sports, international competitions, pop music, and advertising. Over two-thirds of the world's scientists write in English. Of all the information in the world's electronic retrieval systems, 80% is stored in English.

Professor Dr Wichit Srisa-an (1998), a renowned Thai educator, states that for Thais to have access to the enormous – and rapidly growing – body of written information, the alternatives are either for it to be translated, or for English to become a second language. The cost of the former is prohibitive and does not achieve a national objective of developing the knowledge and skills appropriate to participation in the global economy, apart from the small number of those who would be employed doing the translations. Srisa-an (1998) suggests as the only practical alternative, that English must become a second language. The government has wholeheartedly embraced the second option, and taken positive steps to provide Thais with the skills to access information in English. At some risk to Thai culture, Thais are now strongly encouraged to acquire the various skills necessary for learning and using English, namely reading, writing, listening, speaking and creative thinking. Srisa-an (1998) further argues that without the ability to read, understand and evaluate the worth of information as well as its application, the information will be of questionable value. It should be noted that it is not my intention in this thesis to analyse whether this philosophy is appropriate, but rather to explain the position taken by the authorities, because it is in this context that my research is located.

1.1.1 The Thai Government's Education Reform Programs

In the late 1990s, the Thai government acknowledged that the reproductive approach prevalent in the Thai education system was unsuitable to develop the human resources of the country. It was perceived that the only way to bring about change was to completely overhaul the Thai education system. The government thus launched the

Educational Reform Program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007), which, however, had to be abandoned late in 1997 due mainly to economic problems. It then announced the National Education Act (1999-2002).

One of the central issues of the education reform program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007) concerns the upgrading of the quality of curricula and teaching-learning processes. Teachers were encouraged to shift their teaching style, from being the dominant, authoritarian power in their classroom ('teacher-centred') to taking into account students' interests ('learner-centred'). This was necessary so that students will be active learners, being able to question, think and seek knowledge by themselves. Further, teachers were encouraged to emphasise activities that helped students to develop problem-solving, analytical and critical thinking skills. Of particular interest, the government recognised the importance of foreign languages, particularly English. The implementation of the educational reform program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007) resulted in the proposal to start teaching English from Prathomsueksa 1 (or Year 1 in primary school). This constituted a drastic change to Thailand's previous foreign language policies, through which students began studying English from Prathomsueksa 5 (or Year 5 in primary school) (Wongsothorn et al 1996).

Although the Ministry of Education's Reform Program was initially enthusiastically received by academics and by the general public who were concerned that education reform in the education system was long overdue, it did not bring about significant change to the Thai education system. A major problem appeared to be that it still focused on the bureaucracy's top-down process of centralisation, an acute problem in the Thai education system. Most reform issues were designed and were determined at the ministerial level without the participation of other stakeholders i.e. schools, local communities and parents. Some educational reform principles lacked well-grounded research to verify their practicality and suitability in the Thai educational context. An illustration of this can be seen in problems associated with implementation of the policy to start teaching English from Prathomsueksa 1 (or Year 1 in primary school) between 1996-1997. The implementation of this policy has been highly problematic because no prior research had been undertaken to discover the extent of the shortfall in the number of adequately qualified English teachers at many schools. Public and media criticism

focused on both the quantity available and more specifically on the quality of those already teaching, finding that many teachers did not hold even a bachelor's degree in English, and that many were not able to use English beyond the most basic level. Later, the Ministry of Education had to allow schools to make their own decisions as to whether they were ready to start English at the recommended level. The Ministry of Education's reform program (1996-2007) was later abandoned in mid 1997 in favour of the National Education Act (1999-2002) movement.

The National Education Act (1999-2002), the nation's first, promised to bring long-term structural reform to the Thai education system. It was prepared by four prominent government agencies, namely the Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC) within the Office of the Prime Minister; the Education Committee of the House of Representatives; the Ministry of Education and the Bureau of the National Primary Education Committee. In my view, the Act appears to be more realistic in what it attempts to achieve because its policies had been closely scrutinised by academics, Members of Parliament and the general public through public polls and seminars in a process intended to be consultative and inclusive. It differs significantly from the previous education reform programs in that it stresses the educational reform of the entire system. It emphasises education for all, with a new curriculum, and teaching methods that enhance the learning-to-learn skills of students backed by a new administrative system more conducive to local participation in education provision. The National Education Act (1999-2002) was announced on August 20th, 1999 and was expected to have full effect from August 20th, 2002. To date, no significant change has happened because of political upheavals and the budget deficit (Bunnag 2001; Nontharit 2001). An immediate result of this hiatus is that the necessary re-training of teachers to implement the reforms at grass-roots level has not yet happened. Teachers, at all levels in the system, need to be kept abreast with education reform issues eg. learner-centred approach and the role of local organisations and communities in education management (Pintawanit 2000). Despite the setbacks, it is evident that the Thai government is determined to reform the Thai education system.

Further details concerning the Thai government's foreign language policies, the role and status of English in Thai society and the reform agenda will be presented in Chapter 2.

1.1.2 Purpose of the Research

One of the purposes of my project is to contribute to a research base which may serve to inform decisions in education policy and implementation strategies. Thailand has a four year electoral cycle, but it is rare for a government to run for its full term. While the bureaucracy is responsible to the elected government, because of the relative instability of the complex coalitions that form governments, the emphasis in policies shifts accordingly. It has often been the case that policies and programs from other countries have been enthusiastically embraced and implemented in haste to provide a quick fix to a current problem without even pilot programs having been tried in the Thai context. The Ministry of Education's (1996-2007) policy to purchase computers for all schools, irrespective of the availability of electricity, teacher knowledge and the real needs of communities was a startling and expensive example. Of more direct interest to this thesis is the decision to teach English from Prathomsueksa 1 (Year 1 in primary school), without determining if the teachers were adequately trained, the availability of other resources, and without monitoring the needs of communities in widely different regions of the country.

My particular interest is in English writing skills (and reading skills to some extent). A number of educators and linguists (eg. Halliday 1985; Martin 1985; Christie 1990b; Matthews 1995; Gerot 1995) note that in western culture writing skills are considered prestigious. As Martin (1985:51) argues "the most prestigious users of language become writers, not speakers". In line with this, Luke (1993:7) states that:

Written language is a central mode for daily economic transactions, social relations and labour. Rudimentary textual competence is required for even minimal participation, much less powerful control over the texts of everyday life. More versatile and critical competence is needed for occupational mobility, informed civic participation and, quite simply, to avoid being exploited as a worker, citizen and consumer.

Yet, writing skills are very difficult to acquire (Nunan 1989; Richards 1990). Research carried out by a number of educators and linguists (eg. Kress 1982; Halliday 1985; Hammond 1990a, 1996) point out that writing is essentially a solitary activity and thus, students do not receive immediate feedback. Further, written language differs significantly from spoken language in terms of linguistic features and organisation and

cannot be ‘picked up’ naturally. Kaplan (1966; 1984), McKay (1993) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996) note that writing activity is particularly difficult for foreign language learners because people in different cultures have different expectations, resulting in different rhetorical styles. For these reasons, writing skills need to be taught formally. As Grabe and Kaplan (1996:198) remark:

What is clear is that there are rhetorical differences in the written discourses of various languages, and that those differences need to be brought to consciousness before a writer can begin to understand what he or she must do in order to write in a more native-like manner (or in a manner that is more acceptable to native speakers of the target language).

Tribble (1996:12) notes that language learners in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context should be competent in writing skills because:

without a capacity to write effectively in the target language, foreign language learners will not have access to roles that would otherwise be available to them, for example in an international community which uses that language for trade or other types of contact.

However, teaching approaches in the EFL context (eg. Direct Method and Audio-lingual Method) have typically put greater emphasis on speaking skills. While writing skills are taught, they usually emphasise the mastery of the grammatical structure of individual sentences and vocabulary. Students may be able to write sentences and a short paragraph correctly, but they usually have difficulties, or are even at a loss, when asked to sustain argument in writing a complete text or article. Hammond (1989) notes that these traditional approaches do not provide students with sufficient guidance about structure, organisation and development of the written texts. Kaplan (1966, 1984) adds that these approaches do not explain to students that rhetorical patterns of written texts vary from culture to culture. In their studies, Kaplan (1966, 1984), Hyland (1990), McKay (1993) and Ballard and Clanchy (1993) found that one of the problems that students from English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) backgrounds experience in writing is their inadequate understanding of how texts are organised. Siriphan (1988) asserts that this problem negatively affects the class performance of Thai students studying in colleges in the US.

In Thailand, the English proficiency of Thai students even at the university level is often less than satisfactory (Siriphan 1988; Komin 1998). This is because it is only taught in the classroom as a separate subject rather than being used as the medium of communication. Students, particularly those who live outside big tourist destinations such as Bangkok, Chiang Mai and Phuket rarely have opportunities to use it outside the classroom. In Wongsothorn's view (1994, 1996), the writing ability of Thai students is of particular concern because extended writing is not widely taught. Siriphan (1988) and Clayton and Klainin (1994) add that most writing programs are still taught using the traditional model, emphasising accuracy of grammatical structure and vocabulary. In addition, Wongsothorn (1994, 1996) found that the formative tests in most writing programs stress objective-type questions which require sentence completion, reordering sentences, reordering words, and error correction. Students have very few actual opportunities to represent their ideas and knowledge through the written mode.

In the context of higher education, which is my particular interest, it is increasingly essential for students to be fluent in English writing for a number of reasons because some courses or programs require students to write essays, reports and research papers in English (Wongsothorn 1994). This is in accordance with the national objectives as expressed in the education reform agenda, which aims to ensure that Thais are able to actively participate in the global economy rather than to serve as a source of cheap labour in multinational corporations. High-level research is increasingly globalised, so that Thai graduates who have good command of English will more easily be able to compete for international research funding for both domestic and international research projects. In the global competitive environment it is also the case that Thai graduates who have English will have an edge over their peers in terms of their career choices or professional advancement. While the establishment of 'international' educational institutions which offer courses in English have mushroomed in recent years, only students from affluent backgrounds can afford to attend. This heightens the need for the government to investigate alternative approaches to teaching writing that would lead to significant improvement of students' writing ability.

Graduates from courses at Ubon Ratchathani University, where I work, and in similar courses at vocational education institutions, will enter the workforce needing English

reading and writing skills to communicate with foreign investors as business partners and their local English-speaking managers. It is for this reason that my research attempts to develop students' writing competence.

I am particularly interested in the genre-based approach to the teaching of writing which was developed in Australia by Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) and their colleagues such as Kress (1982), Christie (1984), Derewianka (1990), Gerot and Wignell (1994), Hammond (1987) and Hammond, Burns A., Joyce, Brosnan and Gerot (1992). The theoretical basis of the genre-based approach draws heavily on systemic functional linguistic (SFL) theory developed by Halliday and others (eg. Halliday 1985, 1994; Halliday and Hasan 1985; Martin, Matthiessen and Painter 1997). Systemic theory holds that language is a resource for making meaning and that language use is functional. In addition, it emphasises the relationships between text and its context. It thus provides systematic explanations of how written (and spoken) texts are organised in different social and cultural contexts. Importantly, it focuses on rhetorical structure and realisation of that structure through grammatical choice. It differs significantly from other EFL approaches in that it takes into account language at the level of whole text, clause as well as sentence (Hammond 1987, 1989, 2001; Burns R. 1990; Derewianka 1990). I chose the genre-based approach from the available alternatives because it provides a sound theory on which to base practical methodology to teach writing that appears to have the potential to lead to the improvement of my students' writing ability in actual social context.

The genre-based approach was initially developed and used in teaching writing in primary school education (eg. Martin and Rothery 1980, 1981; Martin 1985; Callaghan and Rothery 1988). Its theory and teaching practices, however, have also been applied in teaching literacy at other levels of education: secondary school education (eg. Write It Right Project 1994), adult education (eg. Hammond et al 1992 and Hagan, Hood, Jackson, Jones, Joyce and Manidis 1993), higher education (eg. Jones, Gollin, Drury and Economou 1989) and vocational education (eg. Joyce 1992).

Where it has been used extensively in Australia, the genre-based approach has been found to be an effective approach to teaching writing to native speakers and in teaching

English as a second (ESL) language to non-English speaking migrants (eg. Burns R. 1990; Humphrey 1990; Hammond 1989, 1990; Drury and Webb 1993). While research into its application has been carried out in other educational contexts eg. in Indonesia by Sutojo (1994), in Singapore by Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) and in Vietnam by Dang (2002), it is not known to have been applied in any systematic way in Thailand. This research is the first attempt to explore the way in which the genre-based approach can be applied to teach writing in the Thai university system and to document the possibilities of this approach for future consideration.

An overview of major approaches to teaching English in the EFL context, the theoretical basis and development of the genre-based approach and the cultural rhetorical patterns will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

1.2 Research Questions

Because the Thai education system differs from the Australian education system where the genre-based approach was developed, it is necessary to investigate which aspects of the genre-based approach will be appropriate for the Thai context. At the same time as providing research findings on the genre-based approach I am conscious of Tudor (1993) and Samuel's (1997) concern that simply adopting a method used in one cultural context for another is unlikely to be successful. It is necessary to investigate whether the genre-based techniques of teaching English can be adapted for the Thai cultural context. Taking these aspects into consideration, this research asks:

- i. to what extent is the genre-based approach a viable and pedagogically effective alternative to other major approaches available in the EFL context to teaching English writing to Thai students;
- ii. in what ways does the genre-based approach need to be modified to suit the Thai tertiary education system; and
- iii. to what extent can the genre-based approach contribute to the government's goals of reforming the Thai education system.

This research represents only one attempt to investigate improved approaches to teaching and learning across the curriculum which may work in the Thai education system. However, in my view it differs from a number of other approaches in that it draws on a substantial body of contemporary language theory as well as an empirical research.

1.3 Research Context

The research questions are addressed through the study of a genre-based program implemented in an Essay Writing course, a compulsory course for English major and minor students at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University in the northeast of Thailand. Students in Khon Kaen are generally less exposed to English in their day-to-day lives than students in Bangkok, so there are fewer outside influences, and the students' need to learn in classroom contexts is greater.

It is a happy coincidence that the work of the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen has had a history of innovation, and has not simply pursued teaching traditional methodologies. Most recently the American 'process approach' has been used, so the staff have a positive attitude to trying alternatives. The genre-based approach was an attractive option to try in Essay Writing because the curriculum for this course already drew on names and elements already familiar from other approaches, such as 'description', 'narration', 'comparison', 'cause and effect' and 'arguments and persuasion', minimising the shock of the new to students continuing from the second year course. However, the genre-based approach differs from the existing curriculum in its provision of systematic teaching/learning principles and practices to be applied for each of these compositional elements in context.

Also coincidentally, the fact that I was a graduate of Khon Kaen meant that I was familiar with the courses, many of the staff and some of the university's management. When I asked if I could carry out my research in the Department of Foreign Languages I was offered encouragement and the necessary local resources on the condition that the research not adversely affect students' academic progress. Furthermore, I was advised

that since I was only to be on campus for one semester, the course should not be too radical a departure from those already undertaken by students.

1.4 Research Approach and Design

Research exploring more effective approaches to teaching the writing of a foreign language should be undertaken in the ‘real’ situation so that teachers would be able to replicate it. To ensure that this would be possible I followed a ‘naturalistic’ and ‘ethnographic’ approach. The naturalistic approach is favoured by Nunan, who argued that investigation of any behaviour can only be understood in relation to its natural context (1992). It followed that in pursuing ethnography through a case study conducted over an academic semester, the description and analysis of data would be essentially qualitative, since accurate, relevant quantitative data of the teaching-learning process was difficult to obtain and of doubtful value. Thus, qualitative data may have been superior in capturing information and providing a depth of understanding lacking in other research approaches (LeCompte and Goetz 1982). Qualitative analysis of non-psychometric data, including student diaries, interviews and classroom language gives a comprehensive overview of what has actually happened in the classroom context. When these data were triangulated with the teacher’s own data and the data kept by an independent observer, the subjectivity of the students was balanced and a clearer picture emerged about each step in the process of implementing the genre-based approach to the teaching of writing. Since a major aim in this research was to gain insights into the complexities of implementing the genre-based approach in a specific classroom context, qualitative data analysis enabled me to develop an appropriate level of understanding.

Ethnography differs from other ‘qualitative’ and ‘naturalistic’ researches in that it draws on three basic principles, namely the ‘emic’, ‘etic’ and ‘holistic’ principles (van Lier 1990). The ‘emic’ principle refers to an understanding of the research context from an insider’s perspective (Watson-Gegeo 1988; van Lier 1990; Burns A. 1999). In taking this perspective, the participants’ (i.e. students’ and my own) expectations, their beliefs and their reactions towards the genre-based approach are incorporated in the analysis and interpretation of the data.

By contrast, the ‘etic’ principle refers to an understanding of the research context from an outsider’s perspective (Burns A. 1999). When analysing and interpreting the data, I had to step back from my teaching and reflect on my students’ reactions towards the genre-based approach, my own teaching experience, and the effects of the genre-based approach on students’ writing. There were considerable difficulties in attempting to abstract myself from the experiences and to view the evidence of observed behaviours, although the notes taken by an external observer assisted this process.

The ‘holistic’ principle concerns the necessity to take into account the cultural context of the behaviour being investigated (Watson-Gegeo 1988; Nunan 1992), to consider how principles, program design and classroom practices which were developed in an English-as-a-first-language country ‘translate’ into the Thai cultural setting. This issue is considered at some depth in Chapter 4.

These principles meant that an ethnographic approach was appropriate because I did not intend to undertake research which seeks to compare the genre-based approach with other specific teaching approaches to teaching writing in the EFL context. The genre-based approach is already well documented as a modern approach based on well-understood linguistic and educational research in Australia. Instead, I set out to explore the ways in which it might be useful and could be applied for teaching writing to Thai students. As indicated above, the theoretical basis of the genre-based approach is developed from the systemic functional model of language which holds that language learning is a social process and takes place in context (Halliday and Hasan 1985). In line with this theory, the research needed to be carried out in an existing Thai university classroom.

To understand the impact of the approach and the beliefs, reactions and attitudes of the 45 students who participated, I needed to be part of the classroom culture over a period of time where the study took place (Burns R.1990; Johnson 1992; Nunan 1992). This is a shared experience of teaching and learning by both teacher and students, and accords with the ‘emic’ principle in the context of a study conducted over a whole semester.

Nevertheless, two departures from the norm of ethnographic research were necessary. First, I had to take the unusual step of controlling the environment by deliberately introducing the genre-based approach into the classroom because I could not find any classrooms in Thailand to observe English writing already being taught using this approach. I had to implement the program in order to analyse the impact and implications of the genre-based approach on the context under investigation. Second, the circumstances required that I was both teacher and researcher, as I was the only person at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University, who knew enough about the genre-based approach and systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to teach it. (Other information and the advantages and disadvantages of assuming two roles in the classroom are described in detail in Chapter 4).

While this project is restricted to the case study of a single cohort of students, it is expected that conclusions will be applicable more generally to populations of students studying foreign languages. Nunan (1992) and Cohen and Manion (1994) argue that the results of a case study may be generalisable if the study is carried out intensively and analytically. Despite these restrictions, it is my view that the analysis of the genre-based approach in this classroom context has provided valuable insights that are relevant to other educational contexts in Thailand. In addition, I will argue that this research may be relevant for those in other foreign language contexts facing similar challenges in teaching English literacy.

1.5 Background to Teaching Unit Development

Prior to the research being carried out, the Department in Khon Kaen University and I agreed that I would focus on four genres: Exposition, Discussion, Description and Narrative. Due to the pedagogical practices associated with the Teaching-Learning Cycle (a concept fully explained in Chapter 3), which informs the genre-based approach, it quickly became obvious that there was insufficient time for me to teach students all four genres using all stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle in a 14 week semester.

I decided to focus primarily on Exposition as the most significant genre, using all four stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle. For other genres (i.e. Discussion, Description and Narrative) I used only the Modelling and Independent Construction stages. I thought that although students had less exposure to these other three genres, they would become aware of the similarities and differences between them.

The detailed explanation of the reasons for my decision to focus primarily on Exposition and to include the genres of Discussion, Description and Narrative in my teaching are given in Chapter 4, where there is also discussion of the design of each teaching unit.

1.6 Data Collection and Analysis

1.6.1 Period of Data Collection

The 45 students in the one-semester Essay Writing course were broken into two classes of approximately equal numbers of randomly distributed ability. I intended to collect data over the 16 weeks in both classes. In practice, this time was reduced to 14 weeks due to public holidays and social events. This reduction in available teaching and therefore data collection time was to have repercussions, as described in Chapter 5.

Teaching the Exposition, the principal genre, continued for the first 7 weeks. The remaining teaching hours were spent on three other genres, Description, Discussion and Narrative. Additional time was spent on activities related to the research, including questionnaire administration, short essay writing at the beginning of the semester and explanations about the research to the body of students and fellow staff members.

The nature of the data which I collected from the classroom is discussed in the following section.

1.6.2 The Data

In section 1.4, I noted that I was the only person at the Department familiar with the genre-based approach and SFL theory. This meant that I taught both classes from the

curriculum that I had planned (see also Chapter 4). At the same time, I collated the research data cumulatively, while the class-by-class experiences were fresh in my mind. This risked compromising the roles of teacher and researcher. In order to minimise bias, I collected the broadest range and quantity of the data available. These included:

- students' diaries;
- audio-tape recordings of classroom lessons;
- tape-recorded informal discussions;
- observation notes;
- photocopies of various stages of students' written texts; and
- e-mail messages between my supervisor and myself.

Fuller explanation of the reasons for collecting this quantity and diversity of data are explained in Chapter 4.

1.6.3 Data Analysis

Analyses of students' reactions towards the genre-based approach and my reflections on my own teaching experience are based on a content analysis (Ericson, Baranek and Chan 1987, 1989, 1991; Denscombe 1998), that is, the major issues that emerged from the relevant data were identified, summarised and analysed. The data that records students' reactions are the diaries in which each student kept and recorded informal discussions. The data that records my reflections on my own teaching experience include my own and an observer's observation notes, recorded informal discussion, recorded classroom lessons and e-mail messages between my supervisor and myself. The results of analyses of students' reactions and my reflections will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

In order to understand the impact of the genre-based approach on students' writing performance, I analysed students' written texts, particularly the Expositions, on which this research focused. The analysis involved students' Expositions written for three different topics and under three different circumstances. These topics were:

- i. ‘Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?’ written at the beginning of the semester (i.e. prior to students being taught by the genre-based approach);
- ii. ‘Should rainforests be saved?’ written after students were taught by the genre-based approach; and
- iii. ‘Should smoking be banned in public places?’ written for the final examination at the end of the semester.

Analysis of students’ Expositions was seeking to establish the extent to which students could apply their knowledge of the genre to their texts. The analysis drew on the following features: generic structure and relevant language features, and their development of arguments. The analysis also involved students’ control of grammatical structure of sentences. The reasons for the analysis of these features are explained in Chapter 4 and the results of the analyses are presented in Chapter 6.

I also analysed students’ control of the generic structure from ‘contrastive rhetoric’ perspective (detailed in Chapter 3) to shed light on the extent to which students’ texts are influenced by the ‘Thai’ writing style.

Analyses of all data provided insights into the extent to which the genre-based approach is suitable for the Thai educational context and into the ways in which I will need to modify my teaching if I continue with the genre-based approach in the future. This will be presented in Chapter 7.

1.7. Contribution of the Thesis

First, the thesis contributes to the education reform movement in Thailand by providing Thai teachers with an alternative approach to the teaching of English writing that is based on a substantial body of language theory. Although the research focused principally on the teaching of the Exposition section of the genre-based approach, and was carried out at a university, I anticipate the results of the research would provide

useful guidance to the teaching of other genres and at other tertiary institutions. It may also be applicable to the teaching of English in other educational contexts including schools.

Second, the thesis provides insights into the kind and significance of the difficulties experienced in planning, teaching and evaluating that are likely to be encountered by teachers attempting to implement educational innovation. In reviewing these challenges, I provide insights into the ways in which the genre-based approach could be modified to suit the Thai educational and cultural context. I also take into account the challenges of implementing any new approach to language teaching.

Third, the results of the research into the genre-based approach will provide useful guidance for further research or application of the genre-based approach in other EFL contexts.

1.8 The Organisation of the Thesis

The organisation of this research is as follows:

Chapter 2 provides background information about the Thai educational context. It begins with a discussion of teaching and learning approaches in the Thai education system and the factors contributing to the dominance of the reproductive approach. This is followed by an overview of the status and role of English in Thailand, the Thai education system, policies concerning the teaching of foreign languages and the education reform agenda.

Chapter 3 is the literature review. It examines the rhetorical patterns in Thai and English. It provides overviews of the major teaching approaches that have been influential in the EFL context and in teaching writing. It discusses the notion of genre in three major educational contexts, namely the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) genre theory, English for Specific Purpose (ESP) and New Rhetoric Studies. It describes the major goals and theoretical principles of the genre-based approach as well as its associated Teaching-Learning Cycle. The chapter concludes by addressing the

criticisms of the genre-based, considering its contributions to the Thai educational context and examining related studies.

Chapter 4 presents the research methodology. It describes in detail the research approach and design, research ethics, learner profile and background to the teaching units. Additionally, it explains the data collection and data analysis. Results of data analysis are presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

Chapter 5 presents students' reactions towards the genre-based approach and my own reflections on my teaching experience. The chapter draws on the following data: students' diaries, audio-recordings of the informal discussion between students and myself, audio-recordings of the Exposition lessons, corresponding e-mail messages between my supervisor and myself, and observation notes made by an observer and myself.

Chapter 6 investigates the impact of the genre-based approach on students' writing. In order to examine this, comparative analysis of Expositions written under three different sets of circumstances are carried out. These are Expositions written at the beginning of the semester prior to the teaching of genre-based approach, at the Independent Construction stage after students are exposed to the genre-based approach and at the end of the semester in the final examination. Analysis of Expositions draws on the following linguistic aspects:

- students' control of the generic structure (based on both 'genre-based' and 'contrastive rhetoric' perspectives);
- their ability to develop arguments, and
- their use of language features relevant to the genre, including tenses, participants, processes and technical terms.

The analysis also addresses students' control of grammatical structure of sentences, as 'correct grammar' is considered one of the important features in successful writing in the Thai EFL context.

Chapter 7 discusses the place of the genre-based approach in my future teaching and its pedagogical implications for the teaching of writing within the existing system at my university. It also considers broader use of the genre-based approach in Thailand's higher education system. Finally, it makes recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

THAI EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

This chapter details the background of the Thai education to provide the context for this research project. It begins with the Thai education system, the policies that shape the teaching of foreign languages and the status and role of English. It goes on to discuss the dominant approach of teaching and learning in Thailand, the 'reproductive' approach, and the factors contributing to its importance. The chapter ends by considering the relevance of this research project as a contribution to the Thai government's education reform agenda.

2.1 The Education System in Thailand

The formal education system in Thailand consists of four levels, namely, (a) pre-school or pre-primary, (b) primary, (c) secondary and (d) higher education (Ministry of Education 1995, 1996a):

(a) Pre-school or Pre-primary Education (or Anubalsueksa) is considered as a preparatory course to primary education. Generally, public pre-schools offer a two-year course, but private pre-schools offer a three-year course. The age of entry ranges from three - four years old.

(b) Primary Education (or Prathomsueksa) offers a 6-year-compulsory and free of charge course. All children are obliged, by law, to attend primary school. The age of entry ranges from six - seven years old.

(c) Secondary Education (or Mattayomsueksa) comprises two levels: lower (Years 7-9) - and upper (Years 10-12). On completing lower secondary students may enter vocational education and training and continue into higher levels of vocation-oriented programs depending on their aptitude and interest. Those completing Year 12 can apply to enter higher education. As a result of the implementation of the National Education

Act (1999), secondary education has become compulsory and free of charge to all people (see also 2.9). Students may choose to leave the school system after completing 12 years of education.

(d) Higher Education (or Udomsueksa) is divided into three levels: diploma, undergraduate and post-graduate. It may take place in a college, a university or a special institution.

Generally, upper-secondary school graduates can pursue their higher education by taking the national university entrance examination. Most university degree programs take four years to complete although Architecture and Medical Science take five and six years to complete respectively.

Alternatively, graduates can pursue their higher education by enrolling in one of the two open public universities, namely the Ramkhamhaeng and Sukhothai Thammathirat Universities, both of which are located in Bangkok. These universities offer quality education in an open-admission environment. The instructional system at the Ramkhamhaeng University is a combination of on-campus instruction and distance learning through mail, radio, television and other modern facilities. By contrast, the Sukhothai Thammathirat University offers only distance learning services. Unlike the general public universities, these two universities do not offer medical science degrees, but do offer degrees in all other faculties. At present, there are 22 public and 28 private universities and institutions in Thailand (Ministry of University Affairs 1995).

Apart from the universities, there are several forms of education modified to suit different purposes of training, interest and ability. These include such specialised areas as teacher education and training (provided by the Rajabhat Institutes), nursing, physical education, technical and vocational education (similar to TAFE in Australia), music, drama, the military and police.

Figure 2.1 below, illustrates Thailand's education system.

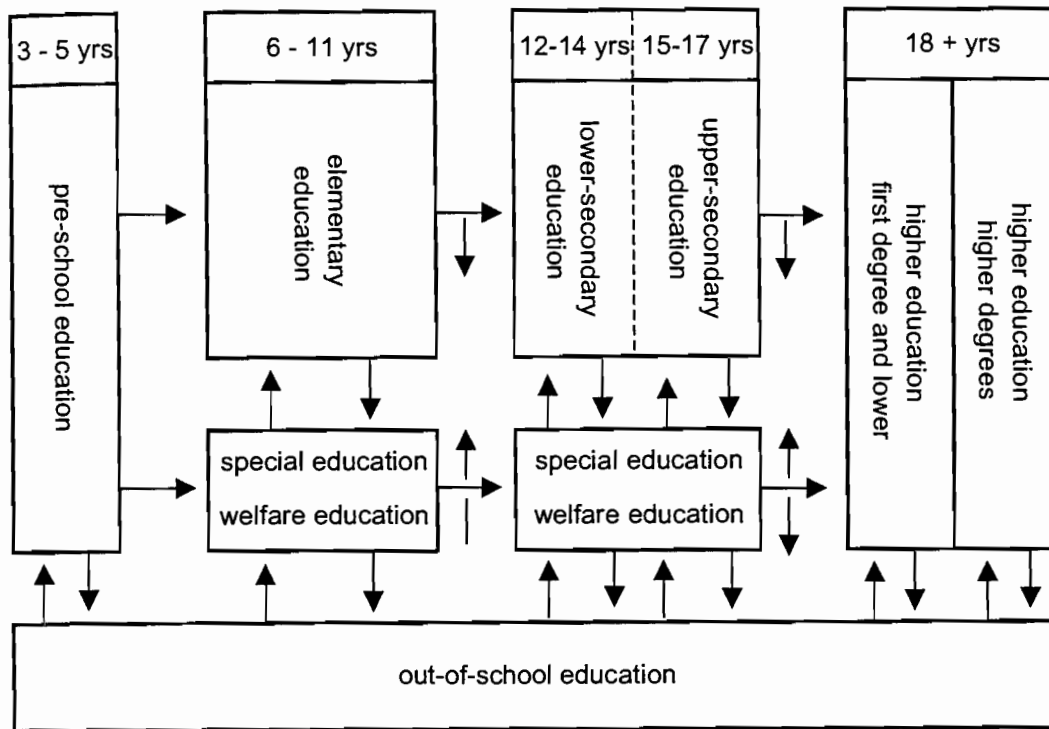


Figure 2.1 Thailand’s education system (Ministry of University Affairs 1995:15)

It should be noted that most levels of education offer foreign language courses, thus it is important to understand the policies that shape the teaching of foreign languages in the Thai education system.

2.2 Policies that Shape the Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Thai Education System

Official Thai policy regarding the learning of foreign languages encourages both the languages of the region and significant European ones. Education bureaucrats expected that Thai people would be eager to acquire a working knowledge of the languages of neighbouring Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam. Thailand also needs language skills in Japanese and Mandarin as it is interacting significantly at government and private-industry level with the regional powers, Japan and China. Because Thailand trades with many countries and has diplomatic relations with almost all, it is equally essential that there is some scholarship in the major world languages. University courses are available in English, French, German, Spanish and Italian. However, English has been specified

in government policy as the most important one because it is a global language (McKay 1992; Wongsothorn et al 1996; O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997).

Thai foreign language policy has changed recently. Prior to the implementation of the education reform program at the Ministry of Education in 1996 (see detail discussion in 2.7). Foreign languages were taught as an optional subject in state-run schools from Year 5 through the upper-secondary level. At the primary level, students could choose to study English or Mandarin, but at the secondary level they could choose also to study other foreign languages eg. French, German, and Japanese. The majority of students chose to study English because they recognise its value for their job prospects as the most widely used international language for both academic and occupational purposes. It is worth noting that in many institutions English is the only foreign language taught because there are so few qualified teachers of other foreign languages. The decision to offer only English was made by the institutions themselves and thus the policy to offer it as one language among others was not actually occurring (Sukwiwat 1985; Wongsothorn et al 1996).

Time allocations for each level have been prescribed by the national government, (Wongsothorn et al 1996), as the following table illustrates.

Table 2.1: The allocation of time for English teaching at both primary and secondary schools (before the education reform at the Ministry of Education, 1996).

Levels of Education	Allocation of Time Per Week (minutes X times)
<u>Primary:</u> Years 5-6	20 minutes X 5
<u>Secondary:</u> Years 7 –9	50 minutes X 4
Years 10-12	50 minutes X 8

In 1996, the implementation of the Ministry of Education Reform Program brought about significant change of the policies concerning the teaching of English in both primary and secondary schools. According to the 1996 curriculum policy, English was intended to be mandatory from Years 1 to 12. Although the program was not fully

implemented due to political and economic reasons, this policy was resurrected in the National Education Act (1999 –2002) (see also 2.9) as a commitment in 2002.

Time allocations were set nationally (Ministry of Education 1996c). The following table illustrates this.

Table 2.2: The allocation of time for English teaching at both primary and secondary schools (after the education reform at the Ministry of Education, 1996)

Levels of Education	Allocation of Time Per Week (minutes X times)
<u>Primary:</u> Years 1-4	20 minutes * 6
Years 5-6	20 minutes * 15
<u>Secondary:</u> Years 7 -12	50 minutes * 4

At both primary and lower-secondary levels of education, students can choose also to study only one other foreign language as an elective subject but students in upper-secondary schools can choose to study more (Ministry of Education 1996a). Whatever other language students choose to study, all students are required to take English language tests for entry into the higher education institutions (Wongsothorn et al 1996). It is also a compulsory subject in all technical and vocational institutions (Wongsothorn et al 1996; Chayanuvat 1997).

At university, the number of credits for English which students are required to achieve varies from department to department depending on its importance in their area of specification. For example, at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, students from the Department of Information Sciences are required to enrol in English courses for 10 out of a total of 145 credits. On the other hand the Department of Foreign Languages students, majoring in English, are required to earn 53 credits for their major subjects (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Handbook 1996).

University students can also choose to study other foreign languages as an elective subject. The number they can choose is determined by the number of credits of the

elective courses that they need within their degree structure as well as their availability in each institution (Wongsothorn et al 1996). For example, at Ubon Ratchani University students can choose to study Vietnamese, Japanese, Chinese (Mandarin) or Khmer.

The significance of the above discussion for this thesis is that the Thai government has specified English as having the highest foreign language learning priority across the entire education system. This political will is a reflection of the people's choice of English for its value as the most useful support to get a job. The willingness of government, institutions and people to adopt English as the first foreign language indicates a deliberate choice for international communication tasks.

Because English is the most widely-taught foreign language in Thailand it is relevant to review its status and role.

2.3 The Status and Role of English in Thailand

Officially, English has no particular status in Thai society and is considered only as of equal importance with other foreign languages such as Chinese, French, German, Italian and Japanese. However, in reality, its role is more significant than that of any other foreign language. As a world language, Thais have used English as a means of cross-cultural communication for a wide range of purposes eg. diplomatic, technological and scientific development, and business for more than two centuries (Sukwiwat 1985; McKay 1992; Srisa-an 1998). However, Thais and successive governments have been reserved about how English is placed in the education system and in Thai culture. Due to the Thais' pride in their national language, the policy is for English to be the first foreign language, rather than as a second language as it is in neighbouring countries such as Malaysia and Singapore (Gonzalez 1994; Srisa-an 1998).

English teaching in Thailand began in the early Rattanakosin Period in the late eighteenth century, after Bangkok was established as the capital city in place of Ayuddhaya. The study of English was confined to the ruling class who needed to know it to "preserve national independence" (Sukwiwat 1985:8). Thailand was under political

pressure from the then colonial powers, such as the United Kingdom, France and Portugal. Thai governments at that time realised that it was necessary for Thai noblemen and government officials to be able to communicate with dignitaries from these countries. When they had to communicate through foreign interpreters using elaborate diplomatic protocols, it was possible that in the complex interpreting procedures Thai national interests might be jeopardised. Many Thai government officials were sent to the United Kingdom to study English (Sukwiwat 1985; Suan Sunantha Wittayalai 1989).

At the turn of the nineteenth century, knowledge of English became increasingly important for the ruling class not only to oversee government affairs, but also to modernise the country. King Mongkut (1851-1868), (King Rama IV), who was greatly concerned with modernising the country along western lines, emphasised that it was essential for Thais to learn English because it was a vehicle to acquire a western style education (Sukwiwat 1985:5). He stressed that:

knowing the Thai language very well without knowing English at all will be very frustrating, because thousands of foreign textbooks are in English. Therefore, to study various subjects at present, one has to depend on English (Rajakitchanubeksa 1891, cited in Sukwiwat 1985:5).

In 1861, King Mongkut sent fifteen of his children, including Prince Chulalongkorn who was his eldest son and who later became his successor, to study at Raffles School in Singapore, since there were no English schools in Thailand. He later decided to establish a school in his Bangkok palace, and employed Mrs Anna T. Leonouvens to teach English to court children (Suan Sunantha Wittayalai 1989).

During the reign of King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910), King Rama V, the role of English in the process of modernising the country was significant in the reform of the government administration system. The acquisition of advanced knowledge from the Western countries was essential for such reform. In 1870, he founded an English school for the royal children in the palace to prepare them for further studies in Europe (Mulasilp 1986; Mikusol 1988; Office of the National Education Commission 1996a). The old government administration system, based on personal and family relationships,

was replaced by a modern bureaucracy and a centralised government focused on the king. This change is regarded by some as the start of Thailand's modern era (The British Council 1991; O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997). In terms of education, in the late nineteenth-century, western-style primary schools were established around the kingdom in place of traditional Buddhist monastery education (Ministry of Education 1996a). Although there is no evidence to validate whether English lessons were available in these schools, the establishment of private mission schools teaching English indicated that English had begun to be taught to commoners beyond the palace.

In the twentieth century, especially after World War II, the study of English was no longer confined to the elite or high-ranking government officials. Thais have been encouraged to study English as the international language for science, technology, aviation, business and international relations, with 80 percent of all information in the world-wide informational storage and retrieval networks being in English (Ahulu 1997). Thailand, similar to many other Southeast Asian countries, is undergoing transition from an agricultural subsistence economy to compete as a newly industrialised country. In moving to achieve this objective, the government is encouraging the shift from local, family-owned businesses to joint ventures with multi-national corporations. In terms of business transactions, English is the most commonly used language in both written and spoken modes (Wongsothorn et al 1996). The Thai government's policy is to improve Thailand's international standing, with Thai people using English as a medium of communication, cooperation and assistance not only with people in the same region, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), but also from different parts of the world. To achieve this Thais must reach international standards in their chosen areas of professional expertise, and to do so must be fluent in English to gain access to advanced information and technology from the world at large, and to communicate with their counterparts from different countries. Thais who have a sound knowledge of English will have the edge over their peers in the career market, particularly since the economic boom of the 1980's (Wongsothorn et al 1996; Chayanuwat 1997). Thus, knowledge of contemporary English has become a key to professional advancement (Sukwiwat 1985; Wongsothorn et al 1996).

The government does not think that Thai culture is threatened by the increased public interest and commitment to English because of its importance to national development and economic improvement. Before the departure of King Chulalongkorn's children to further studies in Europe, he advised them that they should utilise their acquired knowledge mainly in relation to the Thai language. He stressed that:

if you know a foreign language and can not read, write nor translate it into Thai, what is the use of it? (Sukwiwat 1985:1).

King Chulalongkorn's statement has been adopted loyally in successive governments' language policies. To date, English has been taught at most educational institutions as a formal subject. It has only been made a medium of instruction in some 'international' schools and at some levels of education, which offer special programs in English eg. Bachelor of Arts (English) at Khon Kaen University, Master of Applied Linguistics at Mahidol University and Doctoral Degree in Business Administration at National Institute of Development Administration (Ministry of University Affairs 1995; Wongsothorn et al 1996).

Another historical reason why Thai governments' language policies have approached the learning of English (and other foreign languages such French and German) with caution may be linked to the country's national pride in never having been colonised by a European power (Gonzalez 1994). The Thai national language, Standard Thai or Central Thai, the language spoken by the majority of Thais and the 'natural' language of Thailand's Central Region, is used as the language of instruction at all levels of education and training throughout the country (Smyth 1987; Wongsothorn et al 1996). Learning the Thai script, which embraces regional spoken dialects, helps to conserve and promote the cultural identity. Thai literature, though not well known in the West, is rich in poetry, novels, short stories and the theatre, in song lyrics both traditional and contemporary, and in the Thai film, television and radio industries. Imported films are usually dubbed or subtitled in Thai. Only a few specialist theatres show films in their original language, though most of these will be showing mainly blockbuster US films, in English.

Since the economic crisis in 1997, the Thai government has further emphasised the role of English for the economic survival of the country. There has been higher demand for Thais to acquire English for specific purpose (ESP) language skills, particularly in the banking and financial sectors necessary for strengthening the economy (McMurray 1998).

In the twenty-first century, a number of scholars (eg. Smith 1988; Eskey 1989; Srisa-an 1998) estimated that the role of English in Thailand will be even greater. Due to the rapid development of computer and communication technologies Thais will need English to access advanced information mostly published and broadcast in English, to make the maximum use of it. Reciprocally, they will need to be able to express themselves well enough in English to be able to communicate and represent themselves to the rest of the world effectively. Smith (1988:3) pointed out that:

whatever it means to be a Thai in the 21st century and whatever position Thailand takes in the international community; their positions and characteristics will be expressed internationally in English.

In the words of Dr Sippanond Ketudat, one of the distinguished educators in the country, “English is no longer a matter of preference. It is a matter of necessity” (Sukwiwat 1985:64). Dr Wichit Srisa-an (1998) strongly supported Dr Sippanond Ketudat’s words by urging Thais to master English as their first foreign language. He reasoned (1998:1-2) that:

the days when a Thai could excel in the world of business, education, politics or any other undertaking without the knowledge of English are long past. Educated Thais now need a firm and confident grasp of the English language through which they can express themselves and access the huge amount of information that becomes necessary for daily life.

As pointed out earlier, increased Thai mastery of English does not mean that the national language, Standard Thai will be displaced. Thai is used for all domestic communication purposes and this significance is unlikely to lessen (Smyth 1987; Wongsothorn 1996; Srisa-an, 1998). The Thai government has acknowledged that the proficiency in English of Thai graduates is far behind graduates from their Singaporean and Malaysian counterparts. Increased proficiency in English will enable Thai graduates

to be more competitive with graduates from those countries, particularly in terms of job mobility.

In sum, the official status of English in Thailand is that of the foreign language with a greater role than that of any other (Sukwiwat 1985; McKay 1992). As early as 1988, various writers forecast that, due to the dominance of English as the global language, it would flourish and prosper in Thailand in the twenty first century (Eskey 1989; Wongsothorn et al 1996; Hoelker, Sanpatchayapong, Jeong-ryeol and Cates 1998; Srisa-an 1998). The Thai government recognises the value of English as the international lingua franca for political as well as for economic purposes, including technology transfer. Thai government and business-supported scholarships awarded to students to study in overseas English-speaking countries are the tangible evidence of this.

This research project responds to several of the issues raised to this point. It explores whether an Australian developed genre-based approach is a viable alternative approach to teaching English writing in the Thai educational context. The results of the study would contribute to the Thai government's attempt to improve Thai knowledge of English.

Because the genre-based approach was developed in Australia to suit the Australian educational environment, it is proper to ask how readily the approach may be transferred to Thailand. I begin with a review of the culture of teaching and learning in the Thai education system.

2.4 The Dominant Approach of Teaching and Learning in Thailand

As indicated in Chapter 1, education in Thailand is highly valued. Yet, a number of educators have argued that the Thai education system needs further modernisation before it can contribute significantly to achieving national objectives. An acute problem in the system is the dominance of the 'reproductive' approach to teaching and learning (Office of National Education Commission 1996a; O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997;

Nakornthap 1997; Bunnag 1997; Na Chiengmai 1998; Wasi 1998; Khoman 1999). In using the term ‘reproductive’, which will be explained in detail below, I draw on the work of Ballard and Clanchy (1991) who wrote extensively on the subject of the learning style of overseas students in “Teaching Students from Overseas”. This work is important because it was written as a result of extensive observations of the disadvantages that foreign students experienced when studying at tertiary level in a western education system.

Ballard and Clanchy (1991) explain that approaches to teaching and learning in all education systems and all countries can be broadly categorised into three: the ‘reproductive’, the ‘analytical’ and the ‘speculative’. They argue that the ‘reproductive’ approach emphasises conserving attitudes to knowledge. It holds education to be the process of acquiring and retaining a body of knowledge. Students are expected to memorise facts and absorb and conserve knowledge as transmitted to them by their teachers and their prescribed textbooks. Teachers are the recognised experts and authorities in the classroom, and as such are seen as being responsible for organising educational material and imparting it to their students intelligibly and competently. On the other hand, the ‘analytical’ and ‘speculative’ approaches emphasise extending attitudes to knowledge. The former encourages students to question and think critically about the knowledge that is presented to them, and the latter encourages students to hypothesise and develop independent research skills (Ballard and Clanchy 1988, 1990; O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997). The emphasis on one approach over another varies according to levels of education and educational contexts. While the application of these terms – reproductive, analytical and speculative – are necessarily an over-generalisation of what are often a complex range of factors in education, they are useful in identifying practices that have often been taken for granted in Thailand. For this reason, the term ‘reproductive’ approach is useful in relation to the Thai context.

Classrooms at all levels of education in Thailand have long been dominated by the ‘reproductive’ approach to teaching and learning (Office of National Education Commission 1996b; O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997; Nakornthap 1997; Bunnag 1997; Na Chiengmai 1998; Wasi 1998; Khoman 1999). Although at the tertiary level,

that is at college and university, there have been some attempts to introduce ‘analytical’ and ‘speculative’ approaches, these generally have had little positive impact on Thai students who find great difficulty in adjusting to them at this late stage of their formal education. Rather than adapting to the self-directed, intellectual approach to learning required at universities students instead tend to persist with intensive study and memorisation of their textbooks and lecture notes. They do not try to question, discuss, or seek information other than that provided by their teachers in the classroom. Of course, whilst rote learning may mean that many students can remember what they have been taught, this mechanical retention of information does not necessarily lead to understanding. They may then be unable to make use of their knowledge, especially in different contexts. A Thai student, Monson (cited in the Bangkok Post, 15 September 1998:9) recalled of his education during primary and secondary schooling that:

In Thai literature classes I was forced to memorise selected poems, at least one every year. In Buddhism studies I was required to memorise prayers in Pali, not knowing what they mean even now. In biology, I knew by heart every internal organ of the human body and certain insects down to the blood vessels, not having a chance to bisect even one insect. In chemistry, I had to balance equations, and never saw what sodium looks like. What I am trying to point out is that I have never been taught how to **think**. By the time I reached college, after 12 years in school, the part of my brain used for thinking might have all but vanished. The teaching style at university may be more encouraging, but what is the use when you don’t have the basics? ... And I am afraid the younger generation are taught no differently. I propose a grassroots revamp of the system which focuses on **thinking**. Students have to be taught **how to think** [my emphasis].

In my own experience, I found that one of my problems in studying in universities in Australia (I completed my Graduate Diploma and Master Degrees at two different universities in Sydney) was to adjust myself to the teaching-learning style and the method of assessment. In Thailand, at schools and university, I was rarely required to participate in activities or carry out tasks which required me to use thinking skills to analyse issues or to solve problems. I was seldom required to work independently, to seek knowledge or information by researching projects or by writing reports to demonstrate understanding and the application of knowledge and research skills contextually. My knowledge and achievement in most courses was normally assessed by the scores obtained from the mid-term and final examinations, most of which

comprised multiple-choice questions, cloze tests and short answers. To pass the examinations, I needed to read, memorise and reproduce accurately the knowledge that I had been taught in the classroom. The examination score was the absolute indicator of my success.

By contrast, when I began studying in Australia, I was expected to engage in critical discussion and problem-solving group activities. Importantly, the method of assessment in most courses focused largely on essay-type assignments. To succeed in this style of assessment, I was not only required to demonstrate an extensive knowledge on the subject, but was also required to present the knowledge according to the conventions of analysis and criticism. This was very frustrating for me because my former educational background did not prepare me for this kind of teaching and learning. The first few months were the hardest time for me because I was not aware of ‘what’ to write in the essays, let alone ‘how’ to write essays appropriately. Although I was required to write essays in some exams at university in Thailand, I merely had to demonstrate that I could accurately recall what I had been taught in the classroom. In other words, I was not required to offer alternative interpretations of ideas or theories presented in the exams. To survive and succeed in the education and assessment system in Australia, I gradually realised that I had to change my learning approach. I had to be able to research and explore knowledge independently and read more extensively. I also needed to learn ‘how’ to write an academic essay appropriately by reading books about essay writing and getting help from native speakers. Above all, I needed to develop my thinking skills by questioning and evaluating ideas and theories that I had read and learnt. As a student from a non-English speaking background, I still had an English problem. This problem was not considered severe, as I had successfully passed the required English exam, International English Language Testing System (IELTS), before being accepted to study in Australia. The more serious problem is to be able to ‘think’ analytically and critically.

Bradley and Bradley (1984), Ballard and Clanchy (1991) and Todd (1997) noted that most of the difficulties which Asian students experience when studying in western countries, are caused neither by language problems, nor by general differences in

cultural background. Rather, they are due to the habits developed over the twelve years exposure to the education system in their home countries. Unlike western students, most Asian students have not had the opportunity to develop the appropriate critical thinking skills necessary for academic study. Ruggiero (1988) noted that these skills cannot be acquired simply through the transmission of knowledge. Rather, they need to be included in learning activities, and taught integratively and systematically. He reasoned that:

if they [students in Asian countries] are to graduate and be competitive in a world which technology and globalisation is changing more and more rapidly, lecturers and professors need to provide their students with the analytical skills that will enable them to solve problems, make decisions, and integrate new technology and theories outside the classroom. One of these analytical skills is critical thinking (Ruggiero, 1988 cited in Pikkert and Foster 1996:57).

The Thai government has acknowledged that the current education system is based largely on the reproductive approach to teaching and learning and that it is ill-equipped to enable students to achieve critical thinking skills (Office of National Education Commission 1996b; Jongsatitya 1997; Wasi 1998; Kaewdaeng 1997). In an attempt to upgrade the quality of the Thai education system, the Thai government has initiated several reform measures. As indicated in Chapter 1, since 1996 several education reform agenda have been put forward by different government agencies. These have included the Education Development Reform Program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007, abandoned in 1997) and the National Education Act (1999-2002). It is useful to describe the factors contributing to the dominance of the reproductive approach in the Thai educational context as the basis from which to then elaborate the proposed reform programs.

2.5 Factors Contributing to the Dominance of the Reproductive Approach to Teaching and Learning within the Thai Education System

The predominant teaching and learning approach of teachers and students in any country is not only shaped by their individual personalities and abilities, but also by their socio-cultural background and educational experiences (Ballard and Clanchy

1991; Tang and Absalom 1998). Kember and Gow (1991) argue that the educational context in which the teaching and learning takes place, and other educational variables such as surface assessment demands and over-lecturing also contribute significantly to the dominant pedagogy. They wrote:

any tendency to rote-learn may be as much a function of the teaching and learning environment as the inherent characteristic (Kember and Gow 1991:118).

Although their research was undertaken in Hong Kong rather than in Thailand, Kember and Gow's findings point strongly to the idea that when students understand the need for a different approach they can change their learning processes. It is necessary for specific instruction about the required processes, so that students find out how to analyse, for example, journal articles.

This section reviews why the reproductive approach is dominant in teaching and learning in Thailand. Although the reproductive approach predominates, it should be noted that other teaching-learning approaches (i.e. the analytical and speculative) can be found. However, the reproductive approach is pervasive because of a range of factors discussed below.

According to both expatriate and Thai educators (eg. Bradley and Bradley 1984; Ballard and Clanchy 1991; O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997; Kaewdaeng 1997; Wasi 1998), the dominance of the reproductive approach has grown out of broader Thai social and cultural values and educational traditions. Some of these factors are: (a) teachers' status; (b) the nature of the relationship between teachers and students; (c) hierarchical social relations; (d) the phenomenon of 'face'; (e) methods of assessment; (f) teacher training and (g) the centralised administration of Thai educational institutions. As many Asian countries have similar social, cultural and educational backgrounds, it is not surprising that the dominant teaching and learning approaches in these countries are more or less similar to those of Thailand.

(a) Teachers' status: Thai teachers enjoy very high status (O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997; Kaewdaeng 1997). This is not only because of the importance given to education,

but also because of the influence of Buddhism, the religion of the majority of Thais. Buddhist teaching emphasises respect for teachers of all kinds, not just for teachers of religion. This is powerfully encultured so that after respect for the Buddha, the law of Thailand and monks, respect for teachers comes ahead even of parents (Ballard and Clanchy 1991). This respect is honoured so highly that Thais celebrate ‘Wan Khru’ (the Teachers’ Day) on 16th January of every year. On this day, students in most educational institutions hold an official ceremony to pay respect and express gratitude to their teachers.

It is also the nature of Thai culture that children or young or less-qualified people should pay respect to parents, seniors and professionally-qualified people. In turn, these people are socially obliged to guide, assist and act as the role models for children or younger or less-qualified people (O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997). In an educational context, teachers, as seniors and professionally credentialed people, are expected to provide students with a body of knowledge clearly, sufficiently and accurately. Also, they are concerned about their students’ welfare and progress. In turn, the students, as younger and less-qualified people, are expected to be loyal and supportive of their teachers. Students conform to the social norms by working hard, generally behaving well in the classroom and trying to learn what the teacher gives them (O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997; Nakamura 1998).

In common with Thai students, students from countries which are referred to as ‘Confucian-heritage’ cultures have shown a strong preference for rote-memory learning styles both in their home and overseas educational institutions (Biggs 1994). In China, for example, Maley (1986, cited in McKay 1992:51) found that:

Even now the most widely accepted view of learning in China is that it is memory-based. The teacher or textbook has the knowledge. In order to acquire it, it is sufficient for students to commit it to memory.

In Australia, a lecturer of Dentistry complained that:

Students from Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong appear to be much more inclined to rote learning. Such an approach does not help problem solving (Samuelowicz 1987:123).

The learning style of students from these countries has been significantly influenced by the Confucian tradition to which younger generations are expected to conform, gaining knowledge imparted to them by earlier authorities or scholars (Tang and Absalom 1998). One of the Confucian sayings illustrates such tradition:

“I do not invent, but merely transmit; I believe in and love antiquity” (Ballard and Clanchy 1991:15).

To effect change in the Thai education system, teachers’ status needs to be taken into consideration and dealt with carefully. At the same time that Thai teachers’ status needs to be honoured, it is essential to convince them, that in some circumstances, the values of assuming other roles in the classroom such as the manager or facilitator which may lead to a more reflective teaching and learning process.

(b) The nature of the relationship between teachers and students: A number of writers have noted that Thai students’ overall academic performance compares poorly with that of students from other Asian countries. The nature of the relationship between teachers and students in Thai society contributes considerably to this (Kaewdaeng 1997; Santimetaneedol and Bunnag 1998; Tunsiri 2000). Students rely heavily on teachers as the exclusive source of knowledge and perceive that teachers are knowledgeable people and authorities who can provide them with a correct and definite answer and viewpoint for them to adopt, and this should not be challenged or criticised. Some Thai students who have gone to study overseas have experienced the mismatch of expectations between the lecturers’ role and students’ role. Typically, they felt confused and questioned the western lecturers’ qualification and responsibility when the lecturers did not provide them with a correct answer immediately. A third year Thai Botany student who studied at an Australian university wrote that:

If a lecturer does not answer a student’s question in class, but asks the other students what they think, in my country we would think that teacher is either poorly qualified or lazy. But in Australia this way of not giving the answer ...

is common in our class, even when the Professor is our teacher (cited in Ballard and Clanchy 1991:1).

On the other hand, the western lecturers, who are familiar with a teaching and learning approach in which students are expected to engage actively in critical discussion and to contribute their ideas to the class at large, find that Thai students tend to speak less. They are reluctant to ask or answer questions, let alone offer any comments or raise criticisms in the classroom. Ballard and Clanchy (1991) found that some lecturers attribute the ‘passivity’ of Thai students to their shyness or lack of confidence. Other lecturers were more critical, attributing it to either their laziness or stupidity. In my view, based on my experience and that my observations of others, ‘laziness’ and ‘stupidity’ do not reflect the characteristics of well-qualified Thai students studying overseas. Thai students may be quiet and inactive in the classroom but are actually understanding and being alert to what is being presented to them. Some, however, may lack confidence in expressing their ideas and reactions in English. Traditional learning styles may also hinder active participation in the classroom, for example, students may consider it inappropriate to interrupt to ask their teachers questions, behaviour which would be considered inappropriate in Thai culture. A second year Thai undergraduate recalled his experience in an Australian university (cited in Ballard and Clanchy 1991:16):

When I am in class and the professor asks questions and we have to discuss, I never say anything. Often I think of answers, but I cannot express my ideas well, so I wait for someone else to speak for me. I have never asked a question. The other students ask many questions and even argue with the professor. I could never do that, because I do not think that is right behaviour. I do not want to be like Australian students.

Littlewood (2000) provides an entirely different view of what Asian students think, as distinct from how they behave. In a survey he questioned the attitudes of a broad sample of upper secondary and tertiary students in eight East Asian countries that include substantial numbers of Malaysian, Thai and Chinese students. He found that some of the ideas held by Western teachers/lecturers were misconceptions based on a stereotype. For example, the idea that Asian students were ‘obedient listeners’ did not reflect the roles they *would like* to adopt in the classroom. He also found that “Asian students do

not see the teacher as an authority figure who should not be questioned; they do not want to sit in class passively receiving knowledge...”. Littlewood concluded that the stereotype had developed based on the requirements of the education systems rather than any inherent characteristics or predispositions of the individual students.

(c) The phenomenon of ‘face’: In Thai society, the preservation of ‘face’ is extremely important (Bradley and Bradley 1984). For Thais, their sense of public dignity as good and able people, worthy of respect is of great importance. O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997) urge sensitivity to this important aspect of Thai culture and ask teachers to find educational techniques that respect it. These cultural norms may lead to Thai students appearing to be inactive in the classroom because on the one hand, it is considered inappropriate for the students to ask their teachers too many questions, let alone to oppose their teachers (Na Chiengmai 1998). The teachers may lose ‘face’ if they could not answer students’ questions. Some of them may even feel that their students do not pay them enough respect. On the other hand, students themselves avoid initiating conversations, asking questions or participating in the classroom vocally because they are afraid of making mistakes and hence of losing ‘face’ in front of their friends. In an attempt to save their ‘face’, students may go to see their teachers before or after classes, or in the teachers’ office, to ask questions or make comments about the lessons.

In my experience, as both teacher and student, I am aware that foreign teachers, particularly westerners, may be frustrated because Thai students tend to accept knowledge quietly and with little verbal response. In many situations, it is difficult even to encourage students to simply respond ‘yes’ or ‘no’ to indicate whether they understand the teachers’ instructions or lecture. On the one hand, they are reluctant to say ‘yes’ because they themselves are afraid of losing ‘face’ if the teachers ask them further questions and they cannot answer them. On the other hand, they hesitate to say ‘no’ because this may imply that the teachers have not explained the lesson properly and, as authorities in the classroom, they may lose ‘face’. Students are likely to feel insecure at the prospect of their respected teachers losing face, so they do not challenge the teachers’ knowledge. Some students may feel threatened when their teachers

encourage them to participate more actively and express their ideas frankly in the classroom.

In South Korea, Li (1998) found that the ‘face’ phenomenon also has a strong influence on the teaching-learning model. Some South Korean teachers of English avoid engaging students in the target language for real communicative purposes and teach about the language itself. This is because they fear losing face if they cannot answer students’ questions in English. They are confident only in explaining grammatical patterns. Young-Cheol (26 July 1995 cited in Li 1998:687) stated that:

“... In Korea, when you can’t answer all the students’ questions right away, you can’t be a teacher”.

Jin-Kyu (17 July 1995 cited in Li 1998:687) asserted that:

“... If your kids find that you cannot always answer their questions very confidently, you are going to lose their respect and finally lose them. In our culture, teachers are supposed to know everything and be always correct”.

Accordingly, these teachers prefer to adhere to traditional approaches which allow them to prepare exactly what they are going to teach, and maintain precise control of activities in the classroom. This fear of losing ‘face’ affected the way in which I implemented the genre-based program in the classroom. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

(d) Method of Assessment: Method of assessment is another problem that has significantly influenced the prevailing ways of teaching and learning in Thailand (Kaewdaeng 1997). Generally, the Thai teaching curricula, at all levels of education, emphasise examinations at the end of each semester. There are also major examinations that determine students’ educational future at the end of each section of that educational system: primary, lower secondary, upper secondary or university admission, and various levels within the university system (Bradley and Bradley 1984; Office of National Education Commission 1996b). Most of these examinations consist mainly of multiple choice questions or gap-filling tests, which are rarely used for major

examinations in the western educational context. As a result, most responsible teachers in the Thai educational system put great emphasis on the accumulation of knowledge and memorisation of facts necessary for succeeding in this style of examination.

In certain examinations, such as those for admission to tertiary institutions, including universities, nursing colleges and the Police Cadet Academy, the pressure of competition is very high because admission to these institutions is considered to be the stepping-stone to a future career. As a result, it has been perceived that ‘good’ teachers are those who prepare and gear the lessons to help students pass these examinations. In the same vein, ‘good’ students are those who work diligently and follow teachers’ directions, pursuing the issue, which the teachers suggest are important and worthy of attention. In their attempts to pass these examinations, some students attend private tutoring schools to get extra assistance and coaching from tutors. Some dedicate a great amount of their after-school time to studying the old entrance examinations, concentrating on the most repetitive questions and trying to predict the most likely questions so that they can prepare themselves accordingly. The importance of these examinations is emphasised at the expense of the activities that would enable students to develop learning skills that may be crucial for their life-long success eg. discussion, problem solving and critical thinking skills.

Although the educational experiences of students in some cultural contexts are based largely on rote-memorisation, it is possible to encourage them to adopt a more analytical approach to learning. In their study, Landbeck and Mugler (1994) found that students at the University of the South Pacific, Fiji, whose educational background was heavily influenced by rote-memory learning, had demonstrated that they could adopt a more analytical approach to learning. Nevertheless, some students noted that their transition through different approaches of learning was difficult because the techniques associated with a more analytical approach, such as questioning, discussion and independent research, were at odds with their university’s examinations. Inevitably, they had to continue employing archaic learning techniques, which helped them pass exams successfully. Therefore, if the introduction of a more analytical approach to

learning is to be successful, the method of assessment needs also to be changed accordingly. This has been happening slowly in Thailand.

In the context of my research project, I was required by the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University to carry out the final examination although this method of assessment does not readily fit with the mode of assessment required by the genre-based approach. The results of my study showed that the examination did not adequately represent students' writing performance (see Chapter 6 for detailed discussion).

The Thai government was aware of the importance of improving the method of assessment in the Thai education system. This was evident in its attempt to reform the university entrance examination (see 2.8.2). While the impact of the reform has been marginal to date, my research is an attempt to contribute to the government's assessment policies.

(e) Teacher Training: In most education systems, teacher training contributes greatly to the typical teaching-learning pattern. For the Thai education system, the reproductive approach has been traditional rather than the analytical and speculative approaches (Office of National Education Commission 1996b, 1997; Janchitfah 1997). The crux of the problem is that the educational institutions responsible for teacher education and training, the Rajabhat Institutes (formerly known as the teachers' colleges), have had to concentrate on the mass production of graduates to meet the rapid increase in demand for teachers (cited in *The Nation*, 13 February 1997). They have not been able themselves to focus on the socio-educational change from producing teachers who are good public servants to teachers who are analytical, and prepared to use a variety of teaching-learning approaches and assessment methods. The main method for teaching and learning is the lecture, where discussion and questioning is not usually encouraged; the main method of assessment is an examination, emphasising multiple-choice tests, where students are discouraged from seeking knowledge and exercising their thinking power (Office of National Education Commission 1996b). Accordingly, teachers who have graduated from these institutions do not know how to teach their students to learn

differently, not to mention how to learn more effectively (Ekachai 1999). The Ministry of Education is still to propose the minimum entry standards for teacher recruits in either public or private schools (Janchitfah 1997).

There are other factors contributing to the continuing dependence on the reproductive approach by Thai teachers. Most classrooms in Thailand are large, containing over 40 students. It is not always feasible or efficient for teachers to organise activities that require students to think by themselves and be more independent in their learning (Maurice 1985; Saengrat 2003). Teachers, especially those in the public sector, still receive low pay although salaries account for 75 per cent of educational budgets. Some teachers lack motivation to improve their teaching while others have decided to leave for better paying jobs (Ekachai 1999). Due to the educational budget deficits, the Ministry of Education cannot provide serving teachers in schools with sufficient training courses to update them with alternative teaching-learning approaches that might enable them to teach their students to learn more effectively. Most teachers remain with the ‘chalk-and-talk’ approach to which they are accustomed (Janchitfah 1997).

The Thai government accepts that teacher training is an integral part of upgrading the Thai education system. From the early 1990’s, it has provided scholarships for academics to further their studies overseas eg. in the UK, US and Australia. In my case, I was granted scholarships to study both Masters and PhD degrees.

If the Thai government is to upgrade the education system, it is essential to begin with teacher education. Teachers need to be qualified in teaching as well as in one or more content areas.

(f) The centralised administration of Thai educational institutions: Two major ministries, namely the Ministry of Education and Ministry of University Affairs, control most educational institutions in Thailand. The Ministry of Education is responsible for education at all levels except higher education, which is organised by the Ministry of University Affairs. The advantage of this central system is that it may implement

change across the whole country. But, bureaucrats need first to be convinced of the need to change by being fully informed about the desired goals.

On the other hand, there are disadvantages due to the sheer size of the top-down system. Although the central bureaucrats outline changes to be made, they can only be implemented at the local level. Resistance may occur if the local authorities have no opportunity to express their ideas or do not have their doubts discussed. For example, the Ministry of the Education's reform program (1996-2007) when it was abandoned in 1997 failed at least in part due to the lack of consultation with communities.

There is evidence that other Asian countries experience the same problem. For example, in Indonesia the application of the communicative approach has not been completely successful because of the top-down centralised curriculum and education policies. These do not accommodate the principles of the communicative approach which recognise students' needs and interests, and encourage their participation in curriculum planning and teaching-learning processes (Jazadi 2000). In China, the structural-based approach has continued to be used in teaching English in most educational institutions because of the ease with which students' achievement can be centrally examined for the accuracy of language use, and the results compared (Tang and Absalom 1998). In my opinion, this has inhibited the adoption of more modern methods requiring students to be more analytical and reflective, and more appropriately assessed at classroom level.

To conclude, there are a number of factors contributing to the predominance of the reproductive approach in the Thai education system, ranging from social and cultural traditions, educational practices and resistance to change. There have been several attempts to initiate reform.

2.6 Thai Education Reform

Education reform in Thailand has been significantly influenced by rapid economic improvement. During the 1980's, Thailand, similar to other ASEAN countries, notably Malaysia and Singapore, enjoyed rapid economic growth and was regarded as one of

the fastest growing countries in the world (Khoman 1999). This was mainly because Thailand was very resourceful in using low-paid, unskilled labourers, most of whom are not educated beyond primary school (Office of National Education Commission 1996a; Jongsatityu 1997). However, a decade later Thailand can no longer rely on these labourers for the economic success of the country because of fierce competition from other countries such as China, Vietnam and Indonesia. To survive economically, Thailand has had to move into a more sophisticated manufacturing industry (Jolley 1997; The Australian 1997).

Like other countries, Thailand has been greatly affected by the advancement of information and communications technologies (Wongsothorn et al 1996; Office of the National Education Commission 1996b; Chayanuwat 1997; Srisa-an 1998). In order to be competitive, to strengthen the economy and to function in a 'globalised' world successfully, the Thai government decided to develop the country's human resources to be at least as qualified and skilled as in comparative countries. In 1999, Asiaweek (1999) compiled a list rating Asia's best universities. Four renowned Thai universities, namely Chulalongkorn, Thammasat, Mahidol and Prince of Songkhla Universities were ranked only twenty nine, thirty eight, thirty nine and forty-four respectively. The Political and Economic Risk Consultancy, Hong Kong, found that the education and technical skills of Thai workers are far behind those of other Asian countries such as Japan, India, South Korea and China. Among ASEAN countries, Thai workers are ahead of only Malaysians, Vietnamese and Indonesians (The Thairath, 30 August 1999:2). This evidence suggests that while there seem to be some common problems in the educational system of Thailand and other Asian countries, as already discussed in the previous section, the problems of the Thai education system are more serious and change is critical. Since 1996, there have been proposals to revamp the Thai education system to bring it into line with international standards. As mentioned earlier, these proposals include the Education Reform Program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007) and the National Education Act (1999-2002). The 1996-2007 Education Reform Program was largely abandoned in 1997 mainly due to the economic crisis making it impossible to provide adequate infra-structure for the implementation of the program.

The policies introduced in the National Education Act (1999-2002) were put in place from 20 August 2002.

2.7 The Education Reform Program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007, mostly abandoned 1997)

The education reform program at the Ministry of Education was designed to revise and amend the existing operational approaches, with a view to mitigating or eliminating problems and enhancing the quality of education. The program to lay the foundation for educational excellence was to be fully implemented by 2007 (Ministry of Education 1996b) in four areas: (a) school; (b) teacher; (c) curriculum and (d) administrative reform. The major principles of each of these areas are summarised below.

(a) School Reform: aimed to determine the size and location of schools in the regions, set standards for school buildings and facilities, and monitor the effects of the program for short- and long-term improvements expressed in educational outcomes.

(b) Teacher Reform: This required continuous improvements to teacher recruitment and training, and skill development for serving teachers and administrators in both the public and private sectors include distance delivery and credit given for upgrading.

Teachers were to be encouraged to choose or develop lesson plans that suit learners and enable them to create and develop their learning in a truly life-long fashion. Also, teachers would be encouraged to carry out research and development of teaching/learning activities.

(c) Curriculum Reform: The curriculum and teaching-learning processes were to be reformed by organising teaching/learning approaches that required systematic thinking rather than rote-learning. The learner would be enabled to analyse, synthesise and build a core of knowledge that would form the basis for future learning.

Foreign language learning reforms specified that English was to be taught from Year 1.

Assessment of students' performance was to be reformed to ensure that it conformed to the test standards that put emphasis on their actual behaviour. Results of the assessment were to be used to develop the learner and the teaching/learning process. Selection of students of all types and levels of education were to be based more on continuous assessment rather than examination. One outcome of this was the proposal to overhaul the university entrance examination (discussed in full in 2.8.2).

(d) Administrative Reform: was to be decentralised to promote the roles of the family, communities and the private sector in educational institutions and their management. Community participation in determining educational policy was to be encouraged at all levels.

The Ministry of Education's reform program was well received by the general public and academics who considered that education reform in Thailand had long been overdue. The program contained promising principles to overhaul the grassroots of the Thai education system. However, the program was implemented unevenly.

2.8 Impact of the Education Reform Program at the Ministry of Education (1996-2007, mostly abandoned 1997)

The Ministry of Education's reform program was launched in 1996. Soon after it was published many Thai educators expressed their concern that the reform program would not achieve its objective (Nakornthap 1997; Ekachai 1999). Although the program aimed to reform the Thai education system in four areas, the only area in which change did occur was 'curriculum'. This appeared due mainly to the program still being driven by the bureaucracy's top-down centralisation. Most policies were designed and determined by the Ministry of Education. The reform program was implemented for only a short period of time (from 1996 to mid-1997) and amid controversies. Some Thai educators (eg. Kaewdaeng 1997; Nakornthap 1997; Wasi 1998) were concerned that although the reform program was based on good intentions and contained many

promising policies, it lacked well-grounded research to verify its practicality and suitability. Some policies looked good on paper, but were not suitable to the Thai educational context because they were difficult to translate into workable strategies due to factors such as the readiness of educational institutions, qualification of personnel involved, and resources. These problems are discussed in the following sections.

Although there had been significant change in the policies as a result of the Ministry of Education's curriculum reform, in practice the only changes implemented were that teaching of English began in Year 1 and the introduction of the new university entrance examination system.

2.8.1 Impact of Policy Changes to the Teaching of English From Year 1:

Formerly, English was offered as an optional subject to students in state-run primary schools from Year 5 through upper secondary education (Wongsothorn et al 1996). But, according to the Ministry's of Education reform program (1997-2007) it would be offered as a compulsory subject from Year 1 onwards (Ministry of Education 1996b) to allow students to develop their knowledge of English from primary to secondary education continuously (Ministry of Education 1996c; Wongsothorn et al 1996).

The program was carried out with great difficulty, particularly in schools in rural areas, because of the severe lack of qualified teachers (Bunnag 1996). Many teachers do not hold even a bachelor's degree in English. Although the education authorities provided teachers with short training courses prior to the program being implemented, teachers were not confident that they would be able to teach their students effectively because their English skills could not be dramatically improved in a matter of months. Many teachers stated that the best that they could do was to teach their students to read and write the English alphabet (The Bangkok Post, 17 May 1996).

In 1996, the American University Alumni carried out an English proficiency assessment of 249 primary school teachers of English and found that it was at the bottom of the English proficiency scale (i.e. G-1 level). It is not surprising that many Thai students who finished the primary school certificate can barely speak English. The Ministry of

Education has not yet tackled the quality of teachers, though it has long been regarded as one of the most serious problems in the Thai education system (The Bangkok Post, 18 March 1998).

Many schools were ill-equipped to carry out English teaching programs. They lacked necessary teaching equipment such as cassette recorders and textbooks (Bunnag 1996). In 1997, even though the Ministry of Education provided 5,998 primary schools across the country with modern computers and sound laboratories, the contribution of such equipment to the reform of the Thai education system had been marginal (Janchitfah 1997). In Jongsatityu (1997) and Nakornthap's view (1997), this equipment only enriched the physical appearance of schools designated in the English teaching program. In some schools, computers and sound laboratories were left idle because there was no electricity, or no teachers or technicians who could operate or maintain them. In other schools, although there were teachers or technicians, the computers and sound laboratories had not been used to their full capacity because of a shortage of educational software and cassettes. Most computers ended up being used by students only for typing their reports, but even so there were not enough computers for them. Many sound laboratories were locked, unused, behind heavy security doors, as the teachers were worried that they would be held responsible for any damage (Janchitfah 1997).

It was suggested that the English program was also not responsive to the needs of primary students in rural areas (The Bangkok Post, 17 May 1996). As most students in rural areas had neither need nor opportunity to communicate in English in everyday life, they did not see the immediate value in studying it. Also, due to the economic background of these students, the majority of them were unlikely to pursue their study at higher levels of education. Thus, the knowledge of English was not seen as essential for them. Their teachers were not convinced that it was necessary for them to improve their knowledge of English or to attend any English teaching and training course as they also considered that knowledge of English would not be of great value to their students.

Mr Payoongsak Chandarasurin, the chief of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, stated that although the Department was obliged to follow the Ministry of Education's policies, the Department would do so cautiously (Bunnag 1998). In Mr Chandarasurin's view (cited in Bunnag 1998), the Ministry of Education should review its policy to make English mandatory from Year 1, only at primary schools where there are enough qualified teachers and adequate teaching facilities. The Ministry of Education should also set aside budget for a comprehensive teacher training and for necessary equipment at all ill-equipped schools.

In June 1998, the Ministry of Education decided to ease its policy by announcing that primary schools, both well and ill-equipped, were free to decide when they were ready to teach English (Bunnag 1998). In my view, although this compromise provided flexibility to the administrators of educational institutions, it undermines the intention of the reform agenda and timetable. However, this is inevitable because schools do not have enough adequately trained English teachers. The Ministry of Education has not carried out any research into the practicality and suitability of the policy to teach English from Year 1 in Thai primary schools. The participation of other educational stakeholders such as parents, local educational institutions and importantly, students, who are the most affected and are crucial to the success of the reform, is still ignored. As a result of the Ministry of Education's announcement, students whose schools are well-equipped will be more advantaged than students whose schools are ill-equipped and lack funding, particularly those who are in the rural areas. Thus, the success of the implementation of the English curricula will depend more on the readiness and resource of individual institutions than on the education reform policy itself.

2.8.2 Impact of Policy Changes to the University Entrance Examination System:

Typically, the examination to enter universities in Thailand is fiercely competitive, particularly for highly regarded universities such as Chulalongkorn, Thammasat and Mahidol. Thai society regards success in this examination as both the first step to a highly paid career and as a major social status symbol. As a first step, the Ministry proposed to reform the entry process, which had encouraged teachers and students to put great emphasis on rote learning necessary to pass these examinations, rather than on

the ‘learning to learn skills’. It wished to move the admission examination format away from the almost exclusively ‘multiple choice’ battery of tests in an attempt to encourage Thai teachers and students to focus on different kinds of lessons. The Ministry of education in conjunction with the Ministry of University Affairs introduced a new university entrance system taking into account students’ upper-secondary school (Years 10-12) Grade Point Average and Percentile Ranking for 10 per cent of the assessment. The other 90 per cent was from the examination score (Bunnag 1999). This new system was enforced for the first time in the annual university entrance examination in April, 1999. The implementation proved to have been made in haste, without the processes having been fully tested. In May 1999, the Ministry of University Affairs declared the new entry system null and void because of erroneous Grade Point Average and Percentile Ranking calculations. These errors had been made by both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of University Affairs during the scoring process (The Bangkok Post, 4 May 1999). The Ministry of University Affairs was then forced to fall back on the previous entrance examination system, but even this solution caused another problem as it left the choice of faculties of 126,000 candidates in disarray and the introduction of the new system in a doubtful position. The system was overhauled and properly implemented for the examinations since 2000.

As has been the case with the policy to teach English from Year 1, although the policy to improve the university entrance system was based on good intentions, it did not take into consideration the participation of educational stakeholders other than the two top-level organisations, the Ministry of Education and Ministry of University Affairs. Nor had the new university entrance system been tested prior to being implemented officially at the national level. This practice clearly contradicted the policy set forth by the Ministry of Education that the community would be encouraged to participate in determining educational policy at all levels (Ministry of Education 1996b).

Although the education reform program introduced by the Ministry of Education (1996-2007 and which was mostly abandoned in 1997 due to Thailand’s financial crisis in that year) has not yet succeeded in overhauling the Thai education system, it has demonstrated that the government has worked to improve it. In my view, the reform

program has not yet got to the grassroots of curriculum reform. This can be achieved neither simply by the implementation of the English curricula in primary schools nor by providing these schools with modern technology such as computers and sound laboratories. Curriculum reform should be concerned with research into teaching and learning approaches to help Thai teachers and students shift their traditional teaching and learning style to a more reflective one. The Ministry of Education acknowledged this need in its 1996 policy, but has not been able to take up this issue. As my research draws on the genre-based approach, which has been influential in teaching writing for twenty years or so, particularly in Australia, its findings may serve to contribute to broader curriculum reform in Thailand. Although my research focuses on learning at the tertiary level, the approach may be transferable to other levels of education.

To strengthen the country's economy, after the 1997 crisis, the government was forced to re-assess the nation's educational policies. Taking into consideration the shortcomings of the Ministry of Education's reform program, the government recommended that if Thailand was going to achieve 'true' education reform it would be necessary to enforce the National Education Act (Jongsatityu 1997).

2.9 The National Education Act (1999-2002)

Thailand's first National Education Act (1999-2002) was prepared by four government agencies, namely:

- the Office of the National Education Commission within the Office of the Prime Minister;
- the Education Committee of the House of Representatives;
- the Ministry of Education; and
- the Bureau of the National Primary Education Committee.

The Thai National Education Act drew on the National Education Acts promulgated in Malaysia, Singapore, Vietnam, South Korea, Japan, New Zealand, Australia and the US (Jongsatityu 1997).

Some of the core policies of the National Education Act (1999-2002) are based upon the policies put forward in the earlier Ministry of Education Reform Program (1996-2007, mostly abandoned in 1997). For example, the policies propose that the administration system of educational institutions should be decentralised, encouraging the active participation of educational stakeholders other than education institutions, such as parents, local community and private sectors; a ‘learner-centred’ teaching and learning model should be applied at all levels of education; teachers should provide students with activities enabling them to develop their thinking, problem solving and research skills, promoting their extending attitudes to knowledge and life-long study skills. The Act also proposed that English should be made compulsory from Year 1 (attempted to be implemented in 1996). Measurement and evaluation systems should be improved to reflect learning objectives at all levels. Educational institutions should support teachers to carry out research to shed light on ways in which Thai students will develop through a more effective education system (Ministry of Education 1999).

Some of the policies in the National Education Act propose radical changes to the Thai education system. Currently, all Thais are eligible for quality education free of charge for at least 12 years (from Years 1 -12). In the interest of the standard and quality of education, the policies recommend that an independent accreditation institution should be established to assess and control the standard and quality of educational programs of all levels of educational institutions across the country. In terms of teacher training, the policies propose that there should be an independent institution, the Teachers’ Council, which is responsible for controlling the standard of teacher training, developing teacher education and certifying teachers at all levels except the universities. This is very different from the existing, traditional system that requires a relevant degree eg. physics, engineering or English, but no requirement to have a teaching certificate to be eligible to apply for a teaching post in the educational institutions. However, the new policies will not be applied to teaching staff in institutions providing academic degrees, or to visiting lecturers. The situation at tertiary level will not be affected by the reform. In my case, I was recruited to be a lecturer of English at a university because an English degree was regarded as the only qualification required. I had never been trained for

teaching at any level. My lack of teacher training and teaching experience affected my confidence and teaching practices at my first appointment. So that while teaching at Ubon Ratchathani University, I relied heavily on the subject's prescribed workbook as I did not know about alternative teaching techniques that would have enabled me to teach students differently (see also 3.3). My inexperience in teaching also significantly affected the way in which I implemented the genre-based approach at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University (see Chapter 5 for further discussion).

At the time that this research is being written, it is too early to expect to see any significant effect on the Thai education system of the National Education Act (1999-2002). According to Ruangdit (2001) and Bunnag (2001), one of the major problems has been (and, by implication, will continue to be) that some politicians and government agencies were accused of blocking the process because they fear losing their power as a result of the decentralisation of the education system. Nontharit (2001) adds that the government is not yet able to provide sufficient funding – estimated to be more than 10 billion baht (approximately AUD\$45,000,000) – for the full program of education reforms. Bunnag (2001) noted that many top-quality teachers, some of whom were from prestigious schools designated to spearhead the education reform process, opted for early retirement because of the lack of interest in education reform of the administrators and their colleagues.

In respect of administrative reform, three leading educational agencies, the ministries of Education, of University Affairs and the Office of National Education Commission will be unified into one single ministry called the Ministry of Education, Religion and Culture (Ministry of Education 1999).

In sum, like the education reform program proposed earlier by the Ministry of Education (1996-2007, mostly abandoned in 1997), the National Education Act (1999-2002) has important plans for teaching EFL. These reforms have not yet had a chance to materialise due to various reasons including reforming the education bureaucracy itself and the budget deficit. Further, the interest of stake holders has not yet been adequately stimulated, particularly those administrators and teachers involved in pilot studies. My

research is located in the context of the government's reform agenda. While limited to one classroom in one university, it makes a contribution to other levels of education. In my view, on-going small-scale research of this nature is necessary in order to gain insights into the way in which any education innovation can be applied in the Thai education context most effectively.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the Thai education system. The review shows that the quality of education is considered a critical problem in Thailand. This is because the teaching-learning system historically persists with transferring knowledge to students and on rote-memory learning rather than on enhancing students' capabilities in acquiring knowledge, creativity and problem solving. Social, cultural and educational factors contributing to the traditional teaching-learning style include aspects such as the status of teachers, the phenomenon of face and method of assessment.

The Thai government proposed two comprehensive education reform programs to achieve the necessary societal changes. Due to the economic crisis in 1997 and the 'globalisation' phenomenon in the late 1990's, the Thai government intends to improve Thais' knowledge of English as one aspect of reforming the Thai education system. Government policy expressed the wish that Thailand not fall behind its neighbours and needed to become more competitive to meet the challenge of globalisation. The reform programs contain policies to bring significant changes to the Thai education system from the decentralisation of the administrative system of educational institutions to curriculum development which emphasised systematic thinking rather than rote learning. Particularly relevant to this research project is the policy to start teaching English from Year 1, providing impetus for my study.

However, in the short time since the reform programs were implemented they had little chance to make an impact on the Thai education system, mostly due to economic reasons. A major problem was that the programs were designed from the top-down by the government education agencies without consultation with other stakeholders, risking

the level of commitment of those who have to implement them. Additionally, the programs were inadequately researched to test their practicality and suitability and have not yet sufficiently addressed existing educational issues such as teacher education and training, and the measurement and evaluation system. Some politicians and government agencies are accused of blocking the reform process because they fear losing their power due to the decentralisation of the administration of institutions.

The government's reform programs have had the positive effect of raising public and academic awareness of the need for reform so that it is now widely discussed. Following the false start, the government is now giving greater emphasis to involving stake holders at the local level when introducing innovative programs and tackling teacher training and the evaluation of students' achievement across the board.

As mentioned elsewhere, my research draws heavily on the genre-based approach developed in the Australian literacy education. I turn now to a review of the theoretical background of the approach as well as other EFL major approaches that shape English teaching in Thailand.

CHAPTER 3

WRITING ACROSS CULTURES

3.1 Introduction

The purposes of this chapter are to review the literature about contrastive rhetoric studies, teaching approaches and language theories that inform this research project. The chapter begins with an overview of the rhetorical patterns of English and Thai texts. This is followed by the review of major EFL teaching approaches that shape language teaching in Thailand. The major part of the chapter is devoted to an account of the approaches for the teaching of writing in English. This major section includes discussion of the process approaches that represent a paradigm shift in language teaching in the L1 context. These process approaches provide historical background for the development of the genre-based approach.

Since the genre-based approach draws on the principles of systemic functional linguistics, the chapter also provides the educational theory that underpins the genre-based approach. There follows an examination of the major goals and values of the genre-based approach. These will be discussed to shed light on the relationship between the genre-based approach developed in Australia and the other two major genre traditions, namely the English for Specific Purpose (ESP) and New Rhetoric studies. The similarities and differences in their theorisations of the notion of 'genre' and their views on instructional implications will be examined. The criticisms and contributions of the genre-based approach will be detailed. Finally, a review of related genre-based studies in both ESL and EFL context will be presented at the end of the chapter.

3.2 Rhetorical Patterns of English and Thai Texts

I argued earlier in 1.1.2, one of the reasons that foreign students experience difficulties writing English texts is because they have inadequate understanding of how texts are organised. In other words, they are not aware that the rhetorical patterns vary from culture to culture (Kaplan 1966, 1984; Hyland 1990; McKay 1993). Kaplan (1966, 1984) argues that although students are able to write texts in their native language competently, they do not necessarily become effective writers in their second language. Apart from having control of the grammatical structure of the language, students need also be able to write texts that meet their readers' expectations. This section aims to explore the rhetorical patterns of texts from different cultures with a special focus on Thai and English.

Studies in contrastive rhetoric have been significantly influenced by the early work of Kaplan (eg. 1966, 1984). In his pioneering study, Kaplan (1966) observed that English expository essays written by students from other cultural backgrounds differ significantly from those written by American students. For example, he found (1996) that texts written by students of Semitic languages (such as Arabic and Hebrew) are based on a series of parallel coordinate clauses. In the case of Romance (and Russian) the arguments are developed largely by examining material to be rejected, digressions which English speakers find largely irrelevant (Kaplan 1966). More relevant to this research, Kaplan described texts written by students from Oriental countries (his examples are Korean, Japanese, Chinese and Thai) as:

being marked by what may be called an approach by indirection. In this kind of writing the development of the paragraph may be said to be "turning and turning in a widening gyre". The circles or gyres turn around the subject and show it from a variety of tangential views, but the subject is never looked at directly. Things are developed in terms of what they are not, rather than in terms of what they are (1966:10).

On the other hand, English writing is characterised as linear in its development:

An English expository paragraph usually begins with a topic statement, and then, by a series of subdivisions of that topic statement, each supported by example and illustrations, proceeds to develop that central idea and relate that idea to all the other ideas in the whole essay, and to employ that idea in its proper relationship with the other ideas, to prove something, or perhaps to argue something (Kaplan 1966:4, 1984:45).

Kaplan (1984) argues that when native English speakers read analytical or factual essays written by Asians encultured into ‘oriental’ style of writing they are confused by the circumlocutions that underlie the indirect approach to criticism, and may conclude that the writer lacks understanding of the topic, or is an inept writer unable to structure analysis.

Research carried out by linguists and educators of other languages and cultures have supported the position first taken by Kaplan (1966) that there are cultural differences in linguistic and discourse structures and these influence students’ writing in their second language. For example, Clyne (1987) studied academic texts written by German speakers and found that the digression is typical of German writing and the repetition is necessary to develop a logical argument. In his study of Korean academic texts, Eggington (1987) found that the typical rhetorical pattern was the four-part pattern ‘*ki-sung-chon-kyl*’. This pattern corresponds to the Japanese ‘*ki-shoo-ten-ketsu*’ and the Chinese ‘*qi-chong-jun-he*’ styles. Thus, in texts for these languages, there is the introduction of argument, the development of argument, the abrupt change of direction of argument to an indirectly related argument, and a conclusion. The research of Indrasutra (1988) concluded that Thais habitually used more convoluted metaphorical expression with extended similes including personification, than Americans in writing narrative texts. She observed that in Thai language and culture, analogy was the common basis of discussion by contrast with American English. Indrasutra (1988) attributed this to the influence of Buddhism. Thai students wrote narratives with low emphasis on plot and more on thought in order to explain or teach moral values. On the other hand, American students’ writing was not influenced by their religious beliefs and hence used narratives as devices to evolve plot to intrigue, entertain and inform their readers. In line with Kaplan’s research (1966, 1984), Hinds (1990) studied texts written by Japanese, Korean, Chinese and Thai students and suggested that there is an Oriental writing style. He argued (1990:89) that English-speaking writers may organise their texts either deductively or inductively although in expository writing the deductive style is preferred. Hinds noted that:

inductive writing is characterised as having the thesis statement in the final position whereas deductive writing has the thesis statement in the initial position.

By contrast the common writing style in Japanese, Chinese, Korean and Thai is characterised as the ‘quasi-inductive’, involving the delayed introduction of purpose (Hinds 1990). Readers of these languages are not informed of the purposes of the texts until at the final paragraph because it is perceived that writing that is too explicit is not valued. To quote Hinds (1990:99-100):

Seen in this light, we must recognise that the traditional distinction that English-speaking readers make between deductive and inductive writing styles is inappropriate to the writing of some non-native authors. We may more appropriately characterise this writing as quasi-inductive, recognising that this technique has as its purpose the task of getting readers to think for themselves, to consider the observations made, and to draw their own conclusions. The task of the writer, then is not necessarily to convince, although it is clear that such authors have their own opinions. Rather, the task is to stimulate the reader into contemplating an issue or issues that might not have been previously considered.

Chutisilp (1985, cited in Siriphan 1988:112) added that Thai English writers typically delay the introduction of purpose because:

getting to the point too soon does not stimulate the readers’ curiosity nor does it create suspense. It is common, therefore, to find an elaborate maze of wordiness before arriving at the topic sentence that is normally placed at the end of a passage.

However, Hinds (1990), when discussing the ‘quasi-inductive’ rhetorical style, notes that when the purpose of a written piece is delayed, that is, does not become obvious in the opening sentence or paragraph, native English readers are disoriented and the writing is regarded as incoherent.

Richards and Sukwiwat (1983) argued that the ‘face’ phenomenon embedded in the Thai culture affects the way in which Thai people communicate and express their ideas. They (1983:121) explained that in Thailand the concept of ‘face’ is referred to by the term ‘krengrtfai’, which means:

taking the other person’s face, needs and feelings into account so that no threat is involved either to speaker or to hearer.

Richards and Sukwiwat (1983) argued further that due to the concept of ‘krengrtfai’ Thais are taught to mask their negative emotions and avoid overt acts of disapproval, criticism, displeasure and resentment, particularly if they are interacting with people of different rank and status. It is highly important in the Thai culture to preserve social

harmony. Speakers will express disagreement only when they are absolutely certain that they are correct with respect to the point in question, and even then leave open a degree of uncertainty.

On the other hand, the old English-speaking cultures place a higher value on individualism. Throughout primary and secondary education children are encouraged to consider the evidence and come to their own conclusions, and be prepared to express them, testing their views against others of similarly independent minds, including teachers. This notion needs to be remembered when considering the way in which Thai people try to understand not only linguistic differences between written conventions in English and Thai, but the cultural differences which underlie them.

To illustrate the rhetorical pattern of Thai expository writing, a text written by a first year Thai university student for the topic ‘Should smoking be banned in public place?’ in Samabuddhi (1991:258) will be analysed (the text is a direct translation from Thai to English).

Key: Italics in square brackets are my comments.

[Discussion of the advancement of science and technology and their advantages and disadvantages]

Nowadays, we all are aware that our world is advanced in science and technology. Yet, this advancement has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantage enables us to do things much more conveniently. The disadvantage is that it affects the ecological balance. In earlier days, we did not have cars. We walked everywhere. Later, we were better developed and went from using animals to carts, trains and cars for transportation. We cannot deny that nowadays the car is a necessity. But, it will not affect our health if we do not own or use it. We are just used to the convenience that it brings us to take us to places. If we reflect on its disadvantages, we will see that it causes air and noise pollution. It is the price that we have

to pay for our convenience. As we can see, scientific and technological advancement affects our environment. **Why then do we have to worsen our environment by smoking?** [*The writer's position*]

[*Arguments – series of questions*]

Who would have thought that there is a danger hidden under the clean white paper that wraps the cigarette and the butt? There is a medical report that cigarettes contain nicotine which causes lung cancer. Although the effect of lung cancer is not immediately apparent, it will gradually increase. If you don't want to look after yourself, that's your problem. How about other people around you? Have you ever thought about them? Wherever you smoke - on the street or in the theatre - your behaviour will shorten the lives of those people. Isn't it time that we start a campaign encouraging people to stop smoking in a public place?

In the excerpt above, the writer did not introduce the purpose of the text until the final sentence of the first paragraph. Instead, he devoted the whole paragraph to describe the advancement of science and technology raising the general issue of their advantages and disadvantages. These issues were not directly related to the 'smoking' topic although coming closer with the remarks that tobacco smoking is a comparatively modern phenomenon that might be linked in some way to the rapid evolution of scientific and technological developments.

As the second paragraph developed, it became clearer to the readers that the writer was actually talking about cigarette smoking, then supporting the idea that smoking should be banned in public places. He provided some authoritative evidence that cigarettes contain nicotine that causes lung cancer. However, his other arguments were presented as simply a sequence of questions. As a result, the text was rated poorly by the native English-speaking teachers (Samabuddhi 1991). English speakers would be unlikely to

accept this piece as ‘factual’ writing, rather rating it as ‘opinion’ or ‘exhortation’, with especially the first paragraph’s circumlocutions appearing to be digressions from what might be taken as the purpose from the first sentence. Yet, its meaning is quite clear to Thais, providing an evolving sequence of circularly linked ideas. It is not successful Exposition in English because this rhetorical pattern does not meet readers’ expectations, especially in the logical sequence and linking.

When Thais write in English there is an observable tendency to carry over this circular style rhetorical pattern, as noted by Ballard and Clanchy (1988:30)

A Thai postgraduate [was] writing a thesis [at an Australian university] about population changes in northern Thailand. The first chapter of this thesis covered a general summary of the geography, history and culture of Thailand. The second chapter covered the same features, in more detail, of northern Thailand. In the third chapter, after 50 pages of this general introduction, the student began to provide information about population patterns. His Australian supervisor crossed out the whole first two chapters because they were ‘not relevant’ and suggested that student should have begun with his material in chapter three... Yet to the Thai student, this direct ‘English’ approach seemed too blunt. It was against all his training in which a gradual approach to the central issues was preferred.

These examples reinforce a central theme in this research project that for Thais to communicate with native English speakers successfully and effectively, they need to be aware of major genres in English and their specific rhetorical patterns.

As I have argued in Chapter 2, Thai students’ learning styles and their method of presenting ideas and information are significantly influenced by their socio-cultural and educational backgrounds. Although such cultural underpinnings are strong, students who embark on an English writing course are also able to absorb the non-linguistic cultural norms. Thais who have studied overseas (particularly in the US, UK and Australia) have successfully adjusted to the educational cultures of these countries (O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997). O’ Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997) stressed that “culture is, after all, learned behaviour, not inherited behaviour”. The important implication for this thesis is that when these Thais return as lecturers and teachers they will be able to apply these new approaches to teaching with cultural sensitivity. Students equally are able to change by adapting to different approaches inherent in new methodologies. The findings in my research bear out the fact that students are able to

write texts that meet English speakers' expectations, at least at the university undergraduate level.

Insights from contrastive rhetoric studies, as the above review illustrates, can contribute significantly to the teaching of writing in the EFL and ESL contexts. Connor (1996) and Taplin (1995) argue that understanding of rhetorical differences of their own language (L1) and target language (L2) texts helps EFL and ESL teachers to be more confident in their teaching because they know explicitly how writing in different languages works. They may be able to refine their teaching pedagogy in a way that helps students to write texts that meet their readers' expectations more effectively. As Ventola and Mauranen (1991, cited in Connor 1996:169) remarked:

The awareness of differences in reader expectations about how texts are organised, how explicitly transitions should be stated, how directly requests are made, and so on, is crucial for a non-native writer. Lack of awareness of such cross-cultural differences in text characteristics and reader expectations is believed to be the main cause preventing non-native writers' success in the international community.

However, some researchers (eg. Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996) expressed their concerns that the contrastive rhetoric studies “concentrated on the final product without giving adequate attention to the ways in which text was produced”. Contrastive studies thus overlooked other factors such as the context, audience and purpose of the writing. They do not explain systematically the strategies students should employ in order to write texts successfully. To quote Grabe and Kaplan (1996:199):

It is evident that contrastive rhetoric offers some implications for what students need to know; it does not clearly provide answers for exactly how to facilitate this understanding for a student.

Leki (1991) goes further in criticising contrastive rhetoric studies on the grounds that they are “... intuitive rather than empirical ...”. She goes on to note that there is some validity in teaching contrastive information but argues that the real value to students is to reassure them that they are not stupid when they tend to transliterate, their difficulties stemming from acknowledged differences in the structures between L1 and L2.

To conclude, insights from studies in contrastive rhetoric are clearly relevant to the research presented in this thesis. They highlight the importance of cultural differences

in written texts and point to the importance of focusing students' attention on both discourse and sentence level patterns. However, these insights on their own do not provide sufficient explanatory power. For my research, I needed an approach that would enable me to explain systematically to students a more practical way to achieve their purposes in writing factual English texts. For these reasons, I turned to the genre-based approach that has been developed primarily in Australia. In a later section of this chapter, I outline the language theory underpinning the approach and its major goals and principles. But, before doing so, I attempt to contextualise this approach by reviewing other approaches that have been influential in language teaching, especially in EFL contexts and in Thailand.

3.3 Overview of the Major Approaches to Language Teaching in the EFL Context That Has Shaped Teaching in Thailand

Approaches adopted in Thailand have closely followed approaches developed to teach English as a foreign language (EFL) in native speaking countries, particularly in the UK, the US and Australia. This section reviews the theoretical background of these approaches, their strengths and weaknesses, and their impact on English language teaching in Thailand.

Traditionally, approaches developed in the EFL context were primarily concerned with speaking skills. Writing skills were often introduced only at the point when necessary as a memory aid as students moved towards mastering oral skills. Since the early twentieth century, writing was typically the secondary skill set, rather than being valued for its unique contribution to the development of whole-language competence.

Recognition of the importance of written skills were evident through the grammar-translation method developed to teach 'modern' languages such as French, Italian and English to adult foreigners in Europe in the mid-nineteenth century. This method holds that a fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read and appreciate literature written in the target language (Larsen-Freeman 1986; Derewianka and Hammond 1991; Richards and Rodgers 2001). In order to achieve this goal,

students were required to learn the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language and be competent in translating the target language into their native language and vice versa. Although it was highly possible that students would never communicate in their target language, it was thought that they benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign-language study. Students were considered successful language learners if they could translate into and out of the foreign language successfully and effectively (Larsen-Freeman 1986; Richards and Rodgers 2001).

The grammar-translation method has been extensively criticised (eg. Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983; Derewianka and Hammond 1991) for its over emphasis on the written mode, particularly on literary reading and grammar practices. As a result, students may be literate in the language that they are studying, but are often unable to use it for fluent oral communication.

Concern with the limitation of the grammar-translation method led to a number of new developments in the EFL context. Most of these new developments, influential in English language teaching in Thailand, focus primarily on the spoken mode.

The direct method was more concerned with effective language use than with intellectual analysis (Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983; Brown 2001; Richards and Rodgers 2001). It emphasised the direct and exclusive use of the target language in the classrooms, teaching grammar inductively and emphasising correct pronunciation. By mid-twentieth century, the direct method became widely used in Europe and other regions in the teaching of English as a foreign language (Richards and Rodgers 2001).

The audio-lingual method (related to the direct method) was initially developed in America during World War II. It was developed to teach foreign languages to military personnel and diplomats who would be required to operate in foreign countries (Haskell 1986; Richards and Rodgers 2001). Based on structural linguistics and behavioural-psychology learning theory, the audio-lingual method supports habit formation with mastery of speech a priority in foreign language teaching and learning. As a result, its teaching techniques emphasise the sequenced training of macro skills, that is, listening

before speaking before reading before writing. To reinforce good habit formation, teaching techniques such as mechanical drills, ‘mim-mem’ (mimicry/imitation and memorisation) were carried out in language laboratories (Haskell 1986).

Later the structural - situational approach was developed in Australia, driven by the need to teach English to a large number of adult migrants, from different linguistic backgrounds, who arrived in the country in the post world war period (Derewianka and Hammond 1991). Similar to the audio-lingual method, the structural - situational approach drew heavily on the structural and behavioural theories, emphasising the teaching of aural-oral skills before reading and writing skills. Recognition of social context marked the significant difference between this and previous approaches. However, it continued with mechanical drills, repetition and rote-memorisation, since ‘accuracy’ was regarded as vitally important to the process of good habit formation necessary to successful language learning.

Due to the linguistic diversity of students, it was necessary that English was used as the medium of instruction. In order to facilitate language learning, the structural - situational approach advocated the teaching of grammatical structure, normally sequencing from the simplest to the most difficult, in a carefully controlled situation with the aid of objects, realia, or even the gestures of the teachers themselves. For example, in order to teach students about the time, the teachers demonstrated the time on the clock and provided them with an opportunity to practise grammatical patterns used in describing the time through repetitive drilling exercises:

What’s the time, please?	or	What’s the time?
It’s (one/ two/ three...) o’clock.		It’s half past (one/ two/ four ...)

(The Commonwealth Office of Education 1965:14-5).

In Thailand, different versions of the structure – and behavioural – based methods are still evident in many English classrooms (Maurice 1985 and Chayanuvat 1997). Their theoretical principles are well suited to the reproductive approach usual in the Thai education system. They make few demands on teachers and provide structured ‘safe’ support for those who are not confident in their own use of English. In addition, students’ tasks in structure-based methods are suitable for the assessment system emphasising ‘accuracy’ of language use.

In hindsight, when I taught at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University from 1991 to 1992, I drew heavily on the structure – and behavioural – based methods in teaching students. This was mainly because at that time I lacked teacher training and experience. I had just graduated with a Bachelor Degree (English) from Khon Kaen University and had never attended any teacher training course. I was not aware of different kinds of teaching approaches, or how to apply them to suit different topics to improve the effectiveness of my teaching and thus my students' learning. My only teacher training experience had been observing a senior colleague's classes.

As I was a junior lecturer and lacked teacher training and experience, I was given responsibility for teaching Foundation English 1 and 2 compulsory courses for all first year students. These courses were concerned with general English and did not demand technical knowledge as did other courses such as English for Students of Agriculture, and English for Students of Engineering. In both Foundation English 1 and 2 courses students were provided with workbooks which had been produced by the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science, Prince of Songkhla University, Hat Yai, Songkhla in the South of Thailand (At the time, the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University was short of staff and was itself unable to produce the workbooks.) The workbooks are structure-based, with each teaching unit concerned with different grammatical structures, sequenced from the simplest to the most difficult. For example, in Unit 1 of Foundation English II (Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science 1994:1-17), students are required to study grammatical structures used to describe 'numbers', 'mathematical expressions', 'dates', 'quantity' and 'measurement' respectively. Grammatical structures are normally explained to students explicitly. For example, grammatical structures that are used in describing 'quantity' are:

there are/were a lot of/ plenty of/ a considerable number of/ countable nouns
there is/was only a little/ a minute quantity of/ uncountable noun

To master these grammatical structures, students are required to practise using these grammatical structures through several exercises, most of which are controlled exercises such as gap-filling, true or false, sentence re-arrangement and short answer. For example, they are provided with nouns such as grapes, butter and beef and are

required to construct sentences using suitable quantity words to describe these nouns appropriately (Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science 1994:13):

there were a small number of grapes
there was a minute quantity of butter
there was considerable amount of beef.

Since each teaching unit was structure-based, the typical teaching-learning lesson in my classroom was teacher-centred most of the time. I generally lectured with short periods of teacher-initiated questions directed to individual students. Although students were sometimes assigned to work in pairs and groups, they were working to practice using grammatical structures rather than to use language for a real communicative purpose. I was comfortable with this methodology because I was not completely confident with my English. At the time, only newly graduated myself, I held only a Bachelor Degree in English and had never been overseas to experience it as the primary language of communication. I often translated English to Thai and often used Thai to confirm explanations of various aspects of the target language. It is worth noting that my own teaching approach does not necessarily represent the teaching approach of all other lecturers at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University as many of them were more qualified and experienced than I was at the time.

Teaching was completed to meet the mid-term and final examination schedule. Examinations consisted mainly of multiple-choice questions, gap-filling tests and short answers. Thus, the teaching and learning in this circumstance encouraged rote-learning at the expense of other learning skills such as questioning and discussion. On the one hand, I felt bound to finish certain teaching units on time but, as an inexperienced teacher, I lacked techniques to make the lessons more interesting and challenging. On the other hand, on occasions when I did vary teaching and learning activities, it appeared to the students to be at odds with specific preparation for the examinations.

The Department of Foreign Languages at Ubon Ratchathani University was aware that it was impossible to expect students to be competent in English and equip them with self-learning skills by their attending English classes only three hours a week. Therefore, the Department provided students with the Self-Access Learning Centre where they could access reading materials, language laboratories, computer-assisted

language learning, and satellite television programs from different broadcasting stations eg. MTV, Star TV, Channel V, CNN and BBC. The addition of these resources undoubtedly supported students, and it is interesting to note that they provide some of the much needed context missing from the structure – and behavioural – based methods.

During the 1960s, these highly structured methods for language teaching began to be challenged. Increasing interest in foreign language learning meant that research into effective teaching increased. In addition, developments in socio- and psycho- linguistics provided new insights that would affect ways of teaching and learning to become more communication oriented. Linguists and educators were concerned that the structured approaches did not equip students with sufficient communicative skills to enable them to use language successfully beyond the classroom. Even with well-intentioned teacher initiatives in managing the materials supplied and relating it to local situations students were following, and responding to, the teacher's directions. They were encouraged to over-learn those foreign language utterances and grammatical patterns through drills and dialogue practices until they could pronounce or use them correctly and automatically. As a result, they were able to produce recognisable and acceptable sound patterns, but were unable to use their perfectly memorised grammatical patterns and dialogues for genuine communication with native speakers who, often, thought that the learners were far more advanced than they actually were (Rivers 1964; Allen 1980; Larsen-Freeman 1986; Richards and Rodgers 2001).

One of the strongest challenges to the theoretical assumption underpinning the structured approaches was by Chomsky, a theoretical linguist, who argued that language is not developed by habit formation so that it cannot be learned by imitation and repetition. To quote Chomsky (1966:153):

Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of abstractness and intricacy.

Chomsky proposed an alternative theory of language learning to that of structuralists and behaviourists, namely, the transformational – generative grammar theory which distinguishes linguistic *competence* from linguistic *performance*. Linguistic *competence* refers to the linguistic system (or grammar) that an ideal native speaker of a given

language has internalised while linguistic *performance* focuses on the acceptability of sentences in speech perception and actual production (Chomsky 1965).

However, Chomsky's distinction of linguistic competence and performance has been strongly criticised by many sociolinguists and psycholinguists who found that it was too strict to account for language in use (Rivers 1983; Yalden 1983). In response to Chomsky's theory, Hymes coined the term *communicative competence* which has had far-reaching consequences for theories and approaches of language teaching and learning. In Hymes' view (1979), *communicative competence* should go beyond the knowledge of rules of grammar (or implicit and explicit knowledge of the rules of grammar) to include the knowledge of the rules of language use. He stressed that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (1979, p.15). Hymes added that grammaticality is only one of several parameters that actually affect communicative competence.

Based on Hymes' definition of communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) proposed a theoretical framework of communicative competence consisting of the following four components:

Grammatical competence – ability to use language grammatically;
Sociolinguistic competence – ability to use language appropriately;
Strategic competence – ability to use language to convey intended meaning effectively; and
Discourse competence – ability to use language to express meaning cohesively.
(Canale 1983:9-10).

This description of the theoretical framework of 'communicative competence' has been widely accepted by many linguists and language teachers, and has been a feature of approaches to language teaching and learning in both ESL and EFL context since the 1970s.

In Britain, the notion of 'communicative competence' gave impetus to the development of the functional-notional approach. It is oriented toward the functions of language which students are likely to engage in communicative situations. So 'functional' requires that the place of grammar is to explain or differentiate linguistic functions in

specific contexts of usages (Rivers 1983; Brown 1994). Functions refer to what speakers are doing with language:

the ‘language acts’ such as agreeing, refusing, offering, apologising, inviting, expressing hope, fear etc. (Alexander 1978:12)

Notions are what the speakers are talking about:

All language functions operate through notions. The notion can be determined by answering the question ‘What?’ or ‘Whom’ after the function ... The notions will therefore be determined by and will derive from the topic. (Alexander 1978:13).

While this approach may be useful for basic teaching to beginners or those only aspiring to learn enough of a language to be self-sufficient tourists in Europe, some linguists and educators (eg. Candlin 1976; Brumfit 1978; Widdowson 1979) criticised the functional-notional approach for not helping students to achieve effective communication any more successfully than the structure – or behavioural – based approaches. They argued that while the functional-notional approach provides students with linguistic elements for achieving certain social purposes, it does not equip them with language strategies needed for participating in actual communicative situations. In Widdowson’s view (1979), the functional-notional approach only proposed a new way of organising and presenting linguistic elements. He wrote (1979:254):

only very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact. They tell us nothing about the procedures people employ in the application of these rules when they are actually engaged in communicative activity. If we are to adopt a communicative approach to teaching which takes as its primary purpose the development of the ability to do things with language, then it is discourse which must be at the centre of our attention.

Linguists and educators (eg. Brumfit 1984; Nunan 1988) sought further advances that recognised the real needs of students in vocational and social settings. They needed to take into account not only the immediate demands of the classroom but the longer-term aspirations of students, and to engage with the subjects that interest students. This resulted in the development of the ‘communicative’ approaches to teaching second and foreign languages. Examples of these approaches are ‘the needs-based curriculum’ (eg. Brindley 1984), ‘the learner-centred curriculum’ (eg. Nunan 1988), ‘competency-based language teaching’ (eg. Auerbech 1986; Docking 1994) and ‘task-based language teaching’ (eg. Willis 1996; Skehan 1996). While the emphases of these approaches differ, the specific development of each was based on the principles of ‘communicative’

language teaching and learning. That is, all focus on students' communicative competency, taking into account their goals, their needs and their interests. All encourage active participation of students in the development of the curriculum and encourage negotiation between teachers and students during the teaching-learning processes. In addition, these new approaches are concerned with meanings of the language rather than forms, and emphasise classroom activities such as games, role plays and gap-information activities which enable students to use their target language for real communicative purposes. The practical and authentic materials are usually used to expose students to the target language in a meaningful context and create a genuinely acquisition-rich environment. The teacher is always in the classroom, but his/her roles are not fixed as an instructor all the time. Rather he/she will be as a facilitator, helper as well as resource person, either separately or simultaneously. This is done to maximise students' learning time and to promote their 'self-direction' so that they will be able to carry out their learning independently beyond the classroom. Throughout the 1980s, language teachers in many different parts of the world, including such diverse cultures as Australia, China and the US, all claimed to be using variants of the 'communicative' approach.

Following a conference in Thailand organised by the TESOL organisation in 1985, the communicative approaches became the most widespread and popular bases for language teaching and learning in the country (Maurice 1985; Wongsothorn 1996). Yet, the effects of using these on language teaching were marginal (Maurice 1985). One of the problems was that Thai teachers and students found it difficult to accommodate those principles underlying the approaches that require teachers and students to take more cooperative roles in the classroom. Those practices confronted their traditional beliefs and expectations of the classroom (Maurice 1985). Maurice, a lecturer at the renowned Mahidol University in Bangkok, observed in his article "*Communicative Language Teaching in Thailand: Communicative or Confused?*" (1985:19-21) that most classrooms in Thailand are highly teacher-centred:

there is much telling, some teaching, but very little involving of the learner taking place. Many teachers seem to dominate classroom interaction to such an extent that students are virtually spoon-fed, or perhaps force-fed, the foreign language in very small chunks.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Thai culture is influenced by Buddhism which emphasises respect for teachers. In the specifically institutional forms of education, qualified and experienced teachers offer students carefully structured knowledge in a sequential way. Students are expected to work hard to follow their teachers and meet their expectations by being well-behaved in the classroom and demonstrating their keenness to learn (O’Sullivan and Tajaroensuk 1997; Nakamura 1998). This is the basis of the reproductive approach, as described in the previous chapter.

The communicative approaches are largely unstructured, encouraging students to practise using the target language in a relatively uncontrolled fashion, for which teachers can never be fully prepared. This places great pressure on non-native speaker teachers who are expected to be able to respond to any and every language problem that might occur in the classroom. Thai teachers’ confidence is at risk so they were reluctant to change their roles from being an authority to being a facilitator or resource person for example (Maurice 1985). Therefore, they stayed with approaches and techniques that least threatened their reputations or exposed them to the risk of failure or losing face. As also mentioned in 1.1.1 and 2.5, the shortage of qualified teachers, both in terms of their English proficiency and their teaching skills, remains one of the major problems in the Thai education system.

In contrast to the contemporary official emphasis on ‘communication’, assessment in English continues to be structurally-based, focusing on sentence completion, reordering words, and error correction, according to Wongsothorn (1994), a highly regarded Thai educator. Students have not yet gone beyond linguistic forms, and their performances are still assessed only in terms of linguistic competence, recalling the grammatical basics at clause and sentence level (see also 2.5). This is the unfortunate reason why most teachers and students concentrate on the acquisition of grammatical structure regardless of language skills that could develop and cultivate their communicative skills.

It is worth noting that the effects of the communicative approaches discussed above are by no means specific to Thailand. As mentioned in Chapter 2, at 2.5, Li (1998) noted that in South Korea teachers tend to stick to structure-based approaches rather than the

communicative-oriented approach. They are confident in explaining grammatical rules to students, but hesitate to encourage their students to communicate interactively with them in English because they are afraid that they may not be able to answer some of their students' questions. As teachers, they fear losing 'face'. In Indonesia, the education bureaucracy is strongly centralised to cope with the problems of the geographical spread of the country, but it is at the expense of flexibility to introduce curriculum change. The central government even controls the universities' curricula (The Australian 1997).

The above discussion identifies problems in implementing communicative approaches in Thailand, highlighting these as issues associated with importing the genre-based approach from one context to another.

To conclude, most approaches developed in the EFL context have traditionally emphasised speaking skills at the expense of writing. Where the teaching of reading and writing occurred, it typically required students to complete sentences (essentially exercises in grammar) and to write 'compositions' as exhibitions of grammatical construction, rather than systematically developing students' writing skills. While proponents of the various versions of communicative approaches claim that they embrace all language skills, in my view they do not provide sufficient explanation for the development of writing skills. They do not adequately acknowledge the differences between learning spoken and written language. Nor do they provide sufficient emphasis on textual organisation to achieve higher-level purposes. These problems are especially significant in the context of university education where students need to write essays, reports and research papers in English in some courses or programs.

In order to assist Thai university students to improve their writing skills and be able to use their English competently, I needed to explore an alternative approach which:

- focuses on language use at the level of the whole text,
- emphasises the teaching of language skills integratively, and
- specifically addresses the teaching of writing,

hence, my choice of the Australian genre-based approach.

To contextualise the Australian genre-based approach, I now discuss approaches which have been influential in teaching writing in both ESL and EFL contexts.

3.4 Major Approaches Which Have Been Influential in Teaching Writing

Until the late 1970s, teaching of writing in the English speaking context was dominated by traditional writing approaches and process approaches (Reid 2001). These are discussed below to provide a framework for the evolution of the genre-based approach and its implications for the teaching of writing in the EFL context.

3.4.1 Traditional approaches to teaching writing to non-native speakers in English speaking countries.

Traditional writing approaches emphasise students' mastery of the structure of language. Development of writing skills in these approaches results from students successfully imitating the sample texts provided by the teacher (Caudery 1997 and Badger and White 2000). Examples of these approaches are the grammar-translation method and controlled composition approach. As already mentioned in 3.3, the grammar-translation method, developed during the mid-nineteenth century, recognises the importance of writing skills. It requires students to translate text from, and into, the target language and engage in grammatical exercises to reinforce their grammatical mastery of it. Yet, the grammar-translation method was criticised for its over-emphasis on writing skills at the expense of speaking. This later led to the development of the audio-lingual method which dominated language teaching in the 1950s and early 1960s (Raimes 1983). The audio-lingual method draws on structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology and holds that language is speech and that learning is habit formation. Writing plays a subservient role, practised to reinforce students' mastery of grammatical and syntactic forms necessary for producing accurate speech (Silva 1990). The controlled composition approach was developed to enable students to master such skills (Raimes 1983). It emphasised four sequential writing stages: familiarisation, controlled writing; guided writing; and free writing (Pincas 1982a). The familiarisation stage aimed to introduce students to the language features of a particular text. In the controlled and guided writing stages, students practised using those language features

with increasing freedom until they were ready to move to the free writing stage where they used their knowledge to produce the texts independently (Pincas 1982a).

The example Pincas (1982b) offers for the controlled composition lesson is the teacher asking students to write a letter to pen-friends. In the familiarisation stage, the teacher introduces students to the pattern of the letter, including details such as the address expressed in format of the target language's way. At the controlled stage, the teacher asks students to produce a similar letter using the provided proforma and information. During the guided writing, students write and/or respond to their friends' letters and, finally, at the stage of free writing, they write a genuine letter eg. to the International Friendship League, UK (Pincas 1982b). These stages are in some ways similar to the Teaching-Learning Cycle, the teaching practices associated with the genre-based approach although the underlying theories differ. This will be discussed further in 3.8.

The contribution of the controlled composition approach is that, as with the genre-based approach (see 3.7), it pays attention to writing at both sentence and text levels. It also enables students to begin with a high level of success, because the format at this stage provides such carefully selected and sequenced language features to fill in the gaps that it is quite difficult for them to make an error (Raimes 1983). The controlled composition approach however has been criticised on a number of grounds. Silva (1990) argued that the 'control' is a device of habit formation, enabling learners to manipulate the grammatical and syntactical structures that they have encountered. The teacher is a proof reader rather than being concerned with the ideas and the appropriateness of their expression. The controlled composition approach focuses so heavily on students' control of language structures that the text "becomes a collection of sentence patterns and vocabulary items – a linguistic artefact, a vehicle for language practice" (Silva 1990:13). It does not take into account 'audience' or 'purpose' – factors contributing significantly to the success of the texts. This aspect is explored further below.

To summarise these issues, teaching of English writing in the mid-twentieth century was dominated by structural-behavioural based approaches emphasising the mastery of grammatical structure at sentence and text levels. While these approaches enabled students to use language grammatically, they did not provide students with sufficient

guidance for writing extended compositions effectively (Badger and White, 2000). They paid little attention to the writing ‘process’ itself (eg. how the content of text is to be researched) and did not recognise the importance of audience or purpose of text to convey the message in the L2 culturally accepted style (Silva 1990; Caudery 1997). As Zamel (1982:195) remarked:

Questions dealing with why or for whom students are writing were not taken into account. The whole notion of how writers write – where ideas come from, how they are formulated and developed, what the various stages of composing entail – was ignored.

Responding to these concerns, educators in different parts of the world, notably the UK, US and Australia, developed what later become widely known as the ‘process’ approaches.

3.4.2 Process Approaches

The theoretical basis of the process approaches, initially developed for use in the L1 context, was significantly influenced by the interrelated progressivist ideas that derived from the personal growth movement after Montessori, Dewey (summarised in Cope and Kalantzis 1993a) and Piaget, dating from early in the twentieth century. Personal growth ideas were developed in the UK (eg. Dixon 1967; Britton 1970, 1982; Barnes, Britton and Rosen 1971) after an important conference in Dartmouth in 1966. The personal growth movement emphasised that students should enjoy themselves through actually using language to write about topics that interested them, rather than focussing on learning about language.

Shortly after the initial work began in UK, the process writing approach was developed in the US, possibly attractive because it promoted the free-flowing exchange of ideas (eg. Moffet 1968; Murray 1982; Graves, 1983, 1984). The progressivist ideas were also enthusiastically taken up in Australia in the early 1980s and played major roles in the advancement of the process approaches. According to Walshe (1986:2), the process approaches were based upon two major principles:

- (i) Writing is a process;
- (ii) The teaching of writing is most successful when it is individualised, as in one-to-one conferences.

In respect to the first principle, proponents of the process approaches (eg. Graves 1983; Turbill 1983) argued that if students were to be successful and competent writers, they needed to be provided with opportunities to practise writing. The writing process was normally complex, involving recursive stages of pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing and publishing. Through these stages, students were able to explore their ideas, discover meaning and develop a sense of audience (Murray 1984). These stages also made students aware that, by contrast to the traditional belief, writing was far from being a ‘one-shot’ activity (Turbill 1983; Collerson 1995).

The second principle emphasised the individualisation of the writing process. In Walshe’s view (1986:2), it was “the most effective way to teaching writing”. Students were encouraged to take control of their own writing, making their own decision on the choice of topic and the writing form as well as the revision and publication of their texts. Their ‘ownership’ and ‘voice’ in their writing were highly valued because these factors were basic to the students’ motivation to want to improve their writing ability (Walshe 1981a; Graves 1983; Derewianka and Hammond 1991). Teachers needed to give students as much autonomy as possible to enable the writing process. Hence, their role differed significantly from that in the traditional writing classrooms, becoming largely one of a facilitator (Walshe 1981a,b; Graves 1983; Christie 1994).

The process approaches were influential in teaching writing in a number of countries from the early 1980’s. In Australia, the approaches were adopted across primary, secondary and adult education programs. This was probably because they had shed some new and valuable insights into literacy education. According to Collerson (1995) and Caudery (1997), one of the significant contributions of the process approaches was that they acknowledged the importance of ‘audience’ and ‘purpose’ and encouraged students to take these factors into account when writing their texts. This was a significant departure from the traditional writing approaches where students normally wrote texts in order to be assessed by their teachers. Caudery (1997:19) argued further that:

these two factors [audience and purpose] affect all aspects of a text, in terms of both the language used and text content. No-one can claim to be proficient in

writing in a language unless they are able successfully to adapt the way they write to different audiences and purposes.

Although critical of a number of aspects of the process approaches, Hammond (1995) and Caudery (1997) have argued that the approaches provided teachers and students with new and stimulating experiences. As students were encouraged to take control of their writing (i.e. choosing their own topic and writing form), they became more interested in what they were writing and enjoyed writing it. The active participation of students in the writing process (eg. during the conference stage) challenged the traditional relationships between teacher and students whereby students were normally expected to sit quietly and follow the teachers' instructions diligently.

In addition, interest in the process approaches resulted in research concentrating on both the pedagogy and the nature of the text in teaching writing (Hammond 1995). This represented a shift away from reading that previously had been the focus of the majority research in the L1 context. Thus, it provided part of the context for the evolution of the genre-based approach, the subject of my research.

Debates around the process approaches focused on a number of features in creative writing. Ones that had drawn particular criticism were that process approaches emphasised authorship at the expense of socio-cultural engagement (Gilbert 1990; Rothery 1996). Gilbert (1990) and Rothery (1996) argued that students were not learning how to write to communicate for different social purposes. Independently, they concluded that most children used the patterns of their speech to write their compositions and did not progress beyond recording their experience of the world they observed. To quote Gilbert (1990:56):

I would claim that the use of authoring or authorship terms – like the use of the terms 'creative writing' in the 1960s and 'personal response' in the 1970s – may operate to disenfranchise many children from any real understanding of the social, learned nature of writing and reading and to deny them access to the obvious power of cultural literacy. I would suggest that such terms serve to authorise some children's disadvantages because they construct an image of language learning which is personal, not learned; individual, not social; innate, not environmental.

In my view, the emphasis on authorship is even more problematic if students do not have basic competence in the language, especially students from the non-English speaking backgrounds (NESB).

Christie (1985:26) added that students could acquire a greater sense of individual place in society through “active participation in social processes ... [in which] one learns both to express one’s own individuality, and, ultimately to develop new ways of making meaning”. She pointed to the need to communicate the written material to others in order to ‘test’ the thinking and its expression in the social context.

The distinction between the ‘orality’ and ‘literacy’ was not adequately addressed in teaching by the process approaches. A number of genre theorists (eg. Martin 1985; Rothery 1996; Derewianka and Hammond 1991; Cope and Kalantzis 1993b) argued that ‘natural’ literacy learning, endorsed by the process-approaches, was useful in encouraging students to express themselves in writing, but implicitly limited students to the genre of recounting their own experiences, even when extended to writing the fictional ‘story’. This left a large gap in their knowledge of how to go about writing for the other purposes and particularly of how to go about writing the range of factual texts that are part of a normal curriculum.

The professionalism implicit in the teachers’ role appeared to be devalued when they acted only as facilitators or managers in the process writing classroom (Cope and Kalantzis 1993b). Gilbert (1990) and Rothery (1996) added that the main role of teachers is to ensure all students have the same kind of access to learning written language skills. It follows that Aboriginal children and ESL students, for example, will be particularly disadvantaged because their home backgrounds may not allow them access to a wide range of written genres which are valued in schooling. Good teaching practice requires teachers to support students through the early stages of leaning, that is, provide scaffolding. It is inescapable that the teacher should help students develop those written language skills for the writing tasks in contexts that are beyond their immediate experience.

In Asia, the impact of the process approaches is evident, although in varying degrees in different countries, including the Philippines, Singapore and Malaysia. In the Philippines, Ora'a (1995) applied process pedagogy to teaching writing in a Freshman Class at the Ateneo de Manila University for three weeks. Ora'a argued that the study showed that the process pedagogy was beneficial to students, offering more satisfaction to student writers especially a sense of personal achievement and an improved self-esteem (Ora'a 1995). However, Ora'a offered no evidence of specific improvement of the students' writing skills.

In Singapore, Jie (1995) carried out a 30-hour in-service training course for 16 Chinese language teachers at secondary schools and junior colleges at the Language Teaching Institute of the SEAMEO Regional Language Centre. Throughout the course, the participants were required to write diaries recording their reactions to the various approaches to teaching writing advocated for ESL/EFL situations including the product/traditional and process approaches. On completion of the program the participants thought that the process approaches offered them a better teaching method to develop students' writing. However, they suggested that the approaches needed to be modified considerably to suit their various educational contexts. Due to the time factor and their teaching workload, the participants recommended that students should only write two drafts of their texts and that teacher-student conferencing should be done in smaller groups or as a remedial lesson (Jie 1995).

In Malaysia, the Curriculum Development Centre of the Ministry of Education promoted the implementation of the process approaches in the primary and secondary school syllabuses in the late 1980s and the 1990s (Chitravelu 1994; Samuel 1997). Critics were concerned with writing courses which traditionally emphasised grammatical exercises in the form of gap-filling and rearranging the order of sentences, without taking into account students' needs for self-expression and decision-making. However, Samuel (1997) noted that the impact of the process approaches in teaching English writing in the Malaysian classrooms was marginal. He observed that many teachers played lip-service to the principles of the process approaches but in practice their teaching followed the pattern while failing to implement the essential practical details. To quote Samuel (1997:231):

For example, writing conferences are top-down invocations from the teacher; drafting resembles “doing corrections” (and is viewed as punitive); feedback focuses on surface features of text; in offering feedback teachers re-write student drafts; and needless to say, the teacher takes ownership of the text, instead of allowing students to appropriate the text they are composing.

In Samuel’s view (1997), these unintentional outcomes may occur due to the administrative constraints. Malaysian classrooms tend to be examination-oriented with students expected to finish writing their texts within time limits so that they may not always find it possible to write multiple drafts. In the chronically large Malaysian classrooms, teachers find it difficult to conduct effective writing conferences or to provide enough personalised feedback to all students. This outcome is similar to the Singaporean experience with a similar recommendation to modify the process, as described by Jie (1995), reducing its value. These outcomes also highlight the difficulties of applying an approach successfully used in one culture to one with quite different education traditions.

In Thailand, to my knowledge from a review of the available records, the process approaches were not widely taken up. However, at Khon Kaen University, where my research was carried out, the influence of a version of the process approaches was evident in some of the English writing classes (see also 4.5). I noted that the majority of students had positive attitudes towards the process approaches because they were able to write texts on their own chosen topics. They enjoyed the freedom to choose topics with an emphasis on creativity fostered by an enthusiastic teacher. Analysis of their texts (see also 6.4) written prior to being taught by the genre-based approach reflected their enthusiasm for basing their writing on their personal opinions and experience as a means of expressing themselves. The analysis also showed that while most were able to write intelligible texts – grammatical and comprehensible – the range of subjects and the diversity of treatments was limited by their experience. For example, they were less able to write an informative, factual text on a topic outside their experience, that is, they had not developed appropriate control of the targeted genre (in this case the Exposition). This indicates that, as in Australia, while the process approaches encourage students to practise writing towards higher levels of fluency, they may not assist students to write the various kinds of factual texts that are valued in the western culture.

To conclude, the process approaches have provided valuable insights into the teaching of writing with an emphasis on creativity. They recognise the importance of students' contributions and encourage their involvement in the writing process. However, the process approaches have also drawn some criticisms, especially from the SFL genre-theorists (eg. Martin 1985; Rothery 1986; Hammond 1987; Callaghan and Rothery 1988; Hammond and Hood 1990; Hammond and Derewianka 2001). They argued that the process approaches falls short to assist students to learn how to write differently for different purposes. They also argue that the emphasis on oral language learning at the expense of an explicit focus on the nature of written texts is problematic. A result of emphasising spoken language skills is that some students produce 'talk-write' written texts, limited to recounting or interpreting personal experience.

This section has provided an overview of both traditional writing approaches and process approaches. Traditional writing approaches (eg. the grammar translation method and controlled composition) are primarily concerned with students' ability to produce grammatically correct texts. Because these approaches are based on a language theory that does not relate language 'form' and 'meaning' they assume that 'meaning' will emerge later as students gain control of linguistic 'form'. On the other hand, student-centred process approaches expect students to gain control of 'form' with increasing fluency as they relate their thoughts, ideas and emotional responses.

In my view, neither of these approaches 'work' for Thai students because teaching students to be successful writers requires both. As Kamimura (2000:17) said "... a lack of either of the two factors leads to unsuccessful EFL writing performance"

The Australian genre-based approach differs markedly from both the traditional and process approaches by integrating both language 'form' and 'meaning'. It draws heavily on systemic functional linguistics developed by Halliday (1985, 1994) and others (eg. Halliday and Hasan 1985; Martin 1992).

3.5 The Theoretical Principles of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

The theoretical principles of systemic functional linguistics relevant to my research can be summarised as follows (Halliday 1994; Eggins 1994; Christie 1999):

- (i) language use is functional;
- (ii) language is to be understood as text;
- (iii) language is intimately related to its context;
- (iv) language is a resource for making meaning.

In detail:

(i) Language use is functional: Systemic functional linguistics, unlike traditional formal grammar, is not concerned with a set of rules that prescribe correct and reject incorrect usage (Derewianka 1990; Halliday 1994; Christie 1999). Instead, it focuses on how language is *used* to fulfil people's needs in society eg. to acquire information and to discuss ideas. Halliday (1994) stresses that far from being arbitrary, language has evolved to satisfy human needs. He further adds (1994:xiii):

a functional grammar is essentially a 'natural' grammar, in the sense that everything in it can be explained, ultimately, by reference to how language is used.

As a functional model of language attempts to describe how people actually use language in a wide variety of ways it must analyse both the *usage* and the *contexts*. This analysis examines the way people construct written and spoken text at the whole-text level and how those structures construct meaning (Derewianka 1990; Halliday 1994; Gerot and Wignell 1994).

(ii) Language is to be understood as text: A reader looking at a decontextualised sentence or utterance cannot fully discern the purpose and structure of its intended communicative behaviour (Halliday 1994; Eggins 1994; Christie and Unsworth 2000). According to Halliday (in Halliday and Hasan 1985), text is "a form of exchange and is essentially a semantic unit". Halliday adds that text needs to be considered from two perspectives at once, both as a *product* and as *process*. He wrote (in Halliday and Hasan 1985:10):

We need to see the text as *product* and the text as *process* and to keep both these aspects in focus. The text is a *product* in the sense that it is an output, something that can be recorded and studied, having a certain construction that can be represented in systematic terms. It is a *process* in the sense of a continuous process of semantic choice, a movement through the network of meaning potential, with each set of choices constituting the environment for a further set.

Hasan (in Halliday and Hasan 1985) takes this a further step by arguing that once the text has been created it, in turn, creates a new context. Christie (1999:759) asserts that “text is known only because of the context that gives it life; conversely, context is known only because of the text that realises it”. These arguments lead naturally to the next point that “text is intimately related to its context”.

(iii) Text is intimately related to its context: ‘Context’ means the circumstances or social situation that gives rise to a specific utterance as a construct with meaning related to it. The notion of context is emphasised in the work of anthropologist, Bronislaw Malinowski (1923, 1935) (Halliday and Hasan 1985). Based on his studies in the Trobriand Islands of the South Pacific, Malinowski realised that in order to adequately understand the text, he needed to take into account both its context of situation and context of culture. He referred to the *context of situation* as the environment of text, and the *context of culture* as the whole cultural background in which the text is constructed (Halliday and Hasan 1985). These two terms were adopted and further developed by Halliday to become an integral part of the systemic linguistic theory which emphasises a holistic theory of *language in context* (Halliday and Hasan 1985; Matthiessen and Bateman 1991).

The *context of situation*, according to the systemicists (eg. Halliday and Hasan 1985; Butt et al 2000) involves three contextual variables, namely field, tenor and mode. *Field* refers broadly to the subject-matter of the text. *Tenor* concerns the relationship between the participants, their statuses and roles. *Mode* is the channel of communication being used, that is, in simple terms whether it is written or spoken. These three variables determine the *register* of the text (Halliday and Hasan 1985).

The *context of culture* refers to the system of beliefs, values and attitudes, which people bring with them into any social interaction (Hammond 1989). People living in different

cultures have different systems of beliefs, values and attitudes and hence, ways to get things done or to achieve their goals or purposes. Within any culture, there are predictable ways of getting things done, resulting in the evolution of specific genres that have distinctive social purposes and stages, using different grammar and lexis eg. service at the counter, ordering meals at the restaurant and telling stories (Martin 1984; Hammond 1989; Humphrey 1990). Texts, which have similar purposes and features, are called ‘genres’, and may be oral and written (Martin 1984; Martin, Christie, Rothery 1987; Derewianka 1990). In realising different social purposes, these genres have predictable patterns of organisation, i.e. they have predictable beginning, middle and end structures. Each stage of that structure is, in turn, realised through specific grammatical choices. For example, to achieve the social purpose at a service counter involves three stages:

- greeting to establish human connection (“Hello. Can I help you?”);
- exchange of information and money (“Yes. I’d like a carton of milk, please.”/ “\$1.80, please.”); and
- exchange of farewells (“Thank you. Have a nice day.”/ “Thank you. You too. Goodbye.”).

(adapted from Ventola 1983, cited in Callaghan and Rothery 1988:26).

This notion of ‘genre’, introduced by Martin (1980, 1981, 1984), is central to the development of the Australian genre-based approach on which my research is based. It should be noted that the Australian genre-based approach differs somewhat from Halliday’s theory in that it incorporates both the notions of *register* and *genre* in its theoretical construction. Halliday is concerned mainly with the *register* (Hyon 1996).

Within systemic functional linguistics, register and genre theory make explicit the relationship between text and context. This relationship is summarised by Christie (1999:761) as follows:

When people create a text, the choices they make with respect to register are said to involve the context of situation, whereas those choices made with respect to the overall genre are said to involve the context of culture.

(iv) Language is a resource for making meaning: Language is not merely used to exchange sounds, words or sentences, but rather to make meanings and to make sense

of each other's world (Eggins 1994). In Halliday's view (1994), meanings are usually expressed through three metafunctions simultaneously: the *ideational*, *interpersonal* and *textual*. To quote Halliday (1974, cited in Teich 1999:9):

Whatever we are using language for, we need to make some reference to the categories of our experience; we need to take on some role of the interpersonal situation; and we need to embody these in the form of text.

Halliday (in Halliday and Hasan 1985:16-23) describes the meanings of the metafunctions as follows:

- The *experiential* metafunction is concerned with the relationships between people, places, things and processes that are made apparent through language exchanges.
- The *interpersonal* metafunction refers to the qualitative relationship, such as their values, between speakers/ listeners and writers/ readers.
- The *textual* metafunction refers to how the utterance is structured to function as an appropriate message in a particular environment.

The relationship between the three metafunctions, register of text, and their associated grammatical system are summarised by Eggins (1994:78) as follows.

The *field* of a text can be associated with the realisation of experiential meanings; these experiential meanings are realised through the Transitivity of the grammar. The *tenor* of a text can be associated with the realisation of interpersonal meanings; these interpersonal meanings are realised through the Mood patterns of the grammar. The *mode* of a text can be associated with the realisation of textual meanings; these textual meanings are realised through the Theme patterns of the grammar.

In sum, systemic functional linguistics, which underlies the Australian genre-based approach, differs significantly from other language theories in that it views language as a system for constructing meaning. It thus emphasises language choices and how they construct meaning.

Using the theoretical principles of the systemic functional linguistics as a springboard, I will now turn to discuss the Australian genre-based approach. It should be noted that this approach draws heavily on SFL and has been developed principally by Sydney

linguists (eg. Martin and Rothery 1980, 1981; Hammond 1987; Derewianka 1990; Burns R. 1990). It is also referred to as SFL genre theory or the Sydney genre school.

3.6 The Australian Genre-based Approach

The term ‘genre’ has long been used in literary studies to categorise the different kinds of writing such as the novel, short stories and science fiction (Gee 1997). In contemporary education, the term ‘genre’ refers not only to these but more specifically to texts that have identifiable and recurring features occurring in everyday life, such as work and study. The notion of genre has been the focus of a range of studies concerned with first and second language teaching.

Drawing on the register and genre theory that derived from SFL, Australian genre theorists have further defined genre to mean “a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (Martin 1984:25). Martin, Christie and Rothery (1987:59) explained this definition further that:

Genres are referred to as *social processes* because members of a culture interact with each other to achieve them; as *goal oriented* because they have evolved to get things done; and as *staged* because it usually takes more than one step for participants to achieve their goals.

As genres have a purpose or goal and are staged in that they follow a specific predictable sequence, it is possible to de-construct and analyse them. Some of the written genres identified by Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) in their research into writing in primary schools are: Report, Procedure, Explanation, Exposition, Description and Narrative. (Some of these are described and explained more fully in Appendix 2).

The Australian genre-based approach to the teaching of writing, as previously indicated in 3.4, emerged as the reaction against the prevailing ‘progressivist’ approaches which emphasised the process of composing texts, but gave little attention to the nature of the texts themselves. Proponents of the genre-based approach (eg. Martin and Rothery 1980, 1981; Kress 1982; Christie 1984; Callaghan and Rothery 1988; Hammond 1987; Derewianka 1990 and Hammond, Burns A., Joyce, Brosnan and Gerot 1992) argued that it was necessary to provide more than opportunities and a supportive environment

in which to practise writing for students to be successful participants in the educational context and in the broader community. Teachers needed also to provide students with information about how to construct effective written texts, particularly the knowledge about genre. They argued that by drawing on the notion of genre, teachers could more effectively assist students in developing control of written texts.

Proponents of the genre-based approach emphasise that if students are left to work out the language resources needed for constructing effective written texts by themselves without explicit instruction, it would be extraordinarily time consuming and inefficient (Rothery 1986). It was argued that some students, particularly those from historically marginalised groups of the Australian society either by reason of culture, gender, socio-economical background, or race may be disadvantaged (Hammond 1987; Knapp 1989; Christie 1990a, 1990b; Cope and Kalantzis 1993b; Knapp and Watkins 1994; Matthews 1995). To quote Rothery (1986:79):

If we do not take up the challenge of teaching children to write we are accepting an inequitable education system as far as the development of writing abilities is concerned: one where the advantaged continue to be advantaged and the disadvantaged continue to be disadvantaged. The advantaged students are those who learn the structures of texts largely on their own accord. They are not explicitly taught how to organise written texts but through their reading and patterns of interaction they develop mastery of a range of written varieties. The disadvantaged are those who, for a number of reasons, do not develop mastery of the ways written texts are organised to achieve goals. Included in this group are children learning English as a second language; children whose families are from a different culture; children who are poor readers and children from certain socio-economic groups in community.

Thus, the Australian genre-based approach is:

an approach to language and literacy education that incorporates an understanding of the notion of genre, and the teaching about genres, into educational programs (Hammond 2001:187).

The incorporation of an understanding of the notion of genre and the teaching about the distinguishing features of each genre appeals to me in the context of teaching English as a foreign language. The detailed description of specific genres at the levels of overall rhetorical (or generic) structure as well as at the level of grammar is a better basis than contrastive rhetoric studies (see also 3.2) which focuses only on the broad description of text structure. As Christie (1990a:79) remarked:

First language users of English will normally enjoy certain advantages over second language users, but both will need to be taught to recognise and use the genres of an English speaking culture, especially in writing. For the second language user in particular, it is often disconcerting to come to terms with rhetorical structures well away from those of one's own culture and native tongue.

I also favour the Australian genre-based approach rather than traditional and process writing approaches because it represents a paradigm shift in teaching literacy. To quote Cope and Kalantzis (1993a:1):

It [the genre-based approach] is based on an understanding of the nature of language quite different from that of traditional grammar. Not only does it move beyond traditional pedagogies which stress formal correctness; it also goes beyond the process pedagogies which stress 'natural' learning through 'doing' writing.

The genre-based approach was first applied in the primary-school sector, targeting disadvantaged children in New South Wales. Its success there has resulted in it being adopted in other sectors of Australian education, followed by some international recognition and adaptation (Cope and Kalantzis 1993b; Gee 1997; Feez and Joyce 1998).

Before outlining the goals and principles of the genre-based approach, however, it is important to locate the Australian genre-based approach in relation to other approaches that have also drawn on the notion of genre, namely English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and New Rhetoric Studies.

In ESP, genres are referred to as "communicative events" which have similar "communicative purposes" and share various linguistic patterns in terms of "structure, style, content and intended audience" (Swales 1990:58). Researchers in ESP have used genres as tools to analyse and teach both written and spoken language required of native speakers in academic and professional contexts (eg. Swales 1990; Nwogu 1991; Bhatia 1993; Flowerdew 1993). Research in this area covers the overall organisational patterns in genres, for example, academic articles' introductions (Swales 1981, 1990), master of science dissertations (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans 1988), medical abstracts (Salager-Meyer 1990), popularised medical research reports (Nwogu 1991), sales promotion letters and legal documents (Bhatia 1993), and university lectures (Thompson 1994). Other studies examined sentence-level grammatical features, such as verb tense, hedges,

and passive voice, in these text types (eg. Hanania and Akhtar 1985; Salager-Meyer 1994; Tarone, Dwyer, Gillete and Icke 1981). ESP scholars, as with those of the Australian genre-based approach, argued that the analysis and teaching of genre structures and grammatical features are critical to students' effective participation in their disciplines and professions (Hyon 1996). This view, however, is not central to the New Rhetoric studies.

New Rhetoric studies differs significantly from the work in ESP in that it places greater emphasis on the situational contexts in which the genres occur. In addition, it pays particular attention to the social purposes, or *actions*, that these genres fulfil within these situations, rather than on their linguistic forms (eg. Miller 1984; Bazerman 1988, 1994; Devitt 1993; Smart 1993; Freedman and Medway 1994). In her article "Genre as Social Action", which is seminal in shaping the New Rhetoric theory, Miller (1984:151) argued that:

a rhetorically sound definition of genre must be centred not on the substance or the form of discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish.

Unlike ESP scholars who focus primarily on linguistic descriptions of texts in professional and academic settings, New Rhetoric scholars draw on ethnographic studies of rhetoric, composition studies and professional writing. The outcome provides a significant data base of information about what actions various texts actually do in these highly specific written forms (eg. Bazerman 1988; Devitt 1991; Smart 1992, 1993). Hyon (1996) noted that New Rhetoric scholars have shown less concern about the potential of genre theory for teaching text form for itself, and have concentrated more on assisting university students to achieve the purpose of whatever it is they are writing, an understanding of the primary social functions or actions of the various genres. For example Freedman and Medway (1994:11-2) suggests that in learning genre, attention needs to be paid to the function of genre because "knowing the gross surface features [of texts] is the easy part, and insufficient on its own".

Bazerman (1988), speaking from the particular position of analysing writing for scientific purposes, asserts that if students are to select the rhetoric appropriate to the function required in any specific situation, it is essential that they have a clear understanding of the social context of each of those situations. Hammond and

Derewianka (2001:191) argue that because New Rhetoric is “reluctant to engage with specific pedagogical practices”, their impact on language teaching has been marginal.

In summary, there are similarities as well as differences between the Australian genre approach and English for Specific Purposes and New Rhetoric Studies. The important similarities are that they all place great emphasis on the relationships between genres and their contexts. In doing so, they aim to help students to become effective participants in their academic and professional environment as well as in their broader communities (Hyon 1996). Because all three focus on the whole text – rather than only at the sentence level – students can learn “the recurring and predictable patterns” inherent in longer texts, and this is sufficient grounds for “rethinking of ways in which language has traditionally been taught” (Hammond and Derewianka 2001)

A major difference between the Australian genre-based approach and the others is in their intended audiences. The Australian genre-based approach focused originally on ‘disadvantaged’ school and adult students while the others focused on university students. A second difference is in their beliefs in the extent to which students should be taught about genres explicitly. ESP shares with the Australian genre-based approach the concern with making the linguistic structures of written texts accessible to students. On the other hand, New Rhetoric scholars emphasise the need to consider the total context, including the settings surrounding academic and professional genres and their functions (Hyon 1996; Hammond and Derewianka 2001).

The Australian genre-based approach has been successfully used in the L1 context. Students, particularly those from historically marginalised groups of Australian society by the reason of culture, gender, socio-economic background or race, have been taught about genres explicitly to help them participate effectively in mainstream education. Struck by this pattern of success I wondered whether the genre-based approach would be as successful in teaching English as a foreign language to Thai students.

3.7 Major Goals and Principles of the Australian Genre-based Approach

The major goals of the genre-based approach, as indicated in the previous section, are to assist students to succeed academically and to empower them for social success (Rothery 1986; Callaghan 1991; Gee 1997; Hyon 1996). As Cope and Kalantzis (1993a:7) argue that:

Learning new genres gives one the linguistic potential to join new realms of social activity and social power.

In order to achieve its major goals, the Australian genre-based approach draws on the following principles (Wyatt-Smith 1997; Feez and Joyce 1998):

- (i) Language development involves learning language, learning through language and learning about language;
- (ii) Language learning is more effective if teachers make the knowledge of language and of genres explicit to students;
- (iii) Language learning process is a series of scaffolded developmental steps, each addressing different aspects of language, and in which the teacher's role is 'authoritative', not 'authoritarian'.

In detail:

(i) Halliday (1979) argues that learning *language*, learning *through* language and learning *about* language are inextricably interrelated social activities. As students learn *language*, they realise that language is a resource for making meaning. Language forms (words, structures and discourse structures) are not arbitrary, but are developed to realise meanings. By learning *through* language, students become aware that they are using language to understand their environment and manipulate their role in it. When learning *about* language students develop understandings of how language works and how it is used to construct meanings in relation to its socio-cultural context (Rothery 1989). The idea of learning *about* language has implications for the explicit teaching of the language and genres. This will be discussed further below.

This way of articulating what is involved in language development enables us to differentiate educational practices in English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language contexts. In the ESL context, students learn English by participating

in an English speaking society and by attending school within mainstream education. By learning *through* language students become aware that they learn the subject matter to make sense of it in a social context closer to that of L2 native speakers.

On the other hand, while EFL students must also learn English and how its system works they usually learn about the world through their mother tongue, and have been doing so since they were born. Students do not begin to learn about the world through English until later in their education. Thus, while facing considerable challenges in their learning environment there are clear and pressing reasons for learning English. It is therefore essential for EFL teachers to construct the type of ‘context’ for learning English that enables students to learn *language*, learning *through* language and learning *about* language simultaneously.

(ii) Explicit teaching of the knowledge of language and of genres. As mentioned above, learning about language requires learning its structures and using them to construct meanings. Proponents of the genre-based approach (eg. Kress 1982; Hammond 1987; Christie 1990a, 1990b; Cope and Kalantzis 1993; Hagan et al 1993) argue that genres are the ways in which people in different culture get things done. While contrastive rhetoric studies provided insights into the reasons that the different genres have evolved to serve different socio-cultural purposes, it is the genre-based approach that makes more explicit the structure and language choices specific to each of them. As Hammond (1987:173) contends explicit knowledge includes:

discussion of the purpose of texts, of how best to begin and end, of what to put in the middle, of how best to organise information.

Rothery (1986:4) stresses that:

The more genres a person can handle competently, in speech and writing, the greater range of activities s/he can participate in, both in educational and community contexts.

However, proponents of the genre-based approach consistently emphasise that explicit teaching of the knowledge of language and of the genres does not simply imply a return of grammar drills, nor is it merely an alternative to existing teaching approaches (Hammond 1987; Knapp and Watkins 1994; Wyatt-Smith 1997). It asks students to think about how the language ‘works’ when it is used for a particular purpose, including

the social context in which it is appropriate. Teachers intervene to provide the specific kind of assistance that students need at various points such as the specific features of the genre being taught. It is this explicit teaching about language that is missing in other teaching approaches, especially process approaches (Hammond 1987; Wyatt-Smith 1997). Rothery (1986) maintains that such explicit teaching will help to eliminate the 'hidden curriculum' in writing. This second principle of the genre-based approach has drawn both positive and negative responses from a wide range of educators and linguists. Their views will be discussed further in 3.9 and 3.10.

(iii) The third principle is that the process of learning language is a series of scaffolded developmental steps addressing different aspects of language (Feez and Joyce 1998; Martin 1999; Hammond 2001). This principle draws upon two major and related areas of studies:

- studies of young children's language development;
- studies of negotiated learning and notions of 'scaffolding'.

(a) Studies of young children's language development, particularly those undertaken by systemic linguists (eg. Halliday 1975; Painter 1985) show that young children's spoken language develops as an outcome of their involvement in frequently occurring social situations in which the patterns of language are recurring and predictable. These recurring patterns of language use provide models recognisable even when the circumstances and participants change in minor ways. Adults interacting with the young child provide ways to respond to new situations by using language features that are appropriate in each new situation (Painter 1986). This becomes a basis for recognising that there are different genres with predictable patterns of language features, required, for example, to ask someone to do something, or to recount an incident.

Studies like those of Halliday (1975) and Painter (1985) contribute significantly to language development and literacy education in that they emphasise how active both adult and child are in the shared construction and joint negotiation of meaning. (Hammond 2001)

(b) Studies of negotiated learning, based on the work of Gray (eg. 1985, 1986), argue that language development is heavily dependent on negotiation in which meaning is confirmed as a result of shared experience. Teachers make use of this by encouraging discussion in the classroom so that children have a broader range of expressions to recognise in their reading and use for their writing. Negotiated learning studies also draw on notion of ‘scaffolding’ (developed by Bruner 1978, 1986) that emphasises the teacher’s explicit support and guidance to students in the early stages of their language learning and literacy development. The supporting scaffolding of ideas and expressions are reduced as students demonstrate increasing ability with spoken and written language.

Rothery (1996) and Wyatt-Smith (1997) add that this progressive withdrawal of the ‘scaffolding’ more closely defines the teacher’s role in the classroom, that is, their role is *authoritative*, not *authoritarian*. As an expert in the classroom, the teacher provides students with systematic guidance and careful support through various activities so that students ultimately gain the control of written genres. At the same time, the teacher also recognises the importance of students’ contributions to the teaching-learning process. Hammond and Freebody (1994:437-8) comment on the teacher’s role as follows:

An authoritative teacher is one who develops literacy programs that are based on a clear theoretical understanding of the nature of language and literacy development; designed for specific groups of learners; have clearly articulated goals; have carefully selected and sequenced activities and tasks that are designed to achieve the program goals; and incorporate effective assessment and evaluation procedures.

Wyatt-Smith (1997:11) adds that:

an authoritative teacher is one who operates out of a holistic model of language in a learning context which makes absolutely clear how the features of language to be taught and assessed are systematically related.

These two views of the teacher’s role are in marked contrast to progressivist facilitative teaching approaches as already discussed in 3.4.

Studies on negotiated learning share some commonalities with studies on young children’s language development and with the work on scaffolding more generally. These studies recognise the importance of the context within which the language

operates and the active participation of all parties (i.e. students, caregivers and teachers) in the negotiation and construction of meanings (Hammond 2001).

The notion of ‘scaffolding development’ is central to the pedagogical practices developed as part of the genre-based approach (Martin 1999). These pedagogical practices are commonly referred to as the ‘Teaching-Learning Cycle’ and are elaborated in the next section.

3.8 The Teaching-Learning Cycle

The original version of the Teaching-Learning Cycle was developed by Callaghan and Rothery (1988) and had three distinctive stages:

(a) Modelling of Texts: Drawing on the principles of explicit teaching about genres, and scaffolding, the teacher aims, in this stage, to provide students with a text that is an appropriate example of the content and structure for the particular genre being taught. It will include a clear expression of its purpose and language features (Derewianka 1990). To enable students to understand how the genre is constructed to achieve its purpose, the social function, textual organisation and language features of the model text are analysed explicitly (Callaghan et al 1993). Hammond et al (1992) note that the selection of the model text depends on the teacher’s assessment of its relevance to students’ real life needs and their learning goals at their level of language development. If appropriate texts cannot be found, there is every reason why teachers may write their own examples, based on their knowledge of the generic structure and language features of the genre consistent with the social context for which the text is being constructed.

(b) Joint-Negotiation: This second stage of the Cycle begins with the teacher spending time discussing with students the general organising structure for the text. Continuing with ‘scaffolding’, the teacher provides students with guidance and support to gather and organise the information. The class may be broken into smaller groups where members’ ideas may be researched and checked for agreement about relevance. Similarly, the language features that have been discussed as a whole class can be further

explored for possible contribution to the structure of the genre. This is essential because it is the opportunity to bring to students' attention the differences between the language of the spoken expression, and writing. The teacher draws these from the class and assembles them on a whiteboard, taking the opportunity to enlarge on the purpose of various aspects and features as students mention them. The process may well go to several drafts especially if students do not yet appear to be ready to begin writing by themselves.

(c) Independent Construction: This is the stage in which students write their own version of the genre as an individual activity, so that the lessons learned might be directly applied. During this stage, the role of teacher is to circulate, providing students with feedback on what they have achieved and offer constructive comments on any changes needed to make their texts achieve their purposes effectively. This support is explicit, with the dual objectives of praising achievement and noting the kind and location of errors in their writing, including conducting 'conferences' with individual or small groups of students to discuss specific features of their texts. The teacher can establish not only *what* the individual problems are but also to detect patterns of error and is thus able to offer further assistance with grammatical choices or the schematic structure of the text as required (Derewianka 1990; Hammond et al 1992).

The essential responsibility of teachers during this stage is to set up procedures to assess students' control of the genre to this point, in order to decide whether to proceed to the next genre or repeat stages or activities (Callaghan et al 1993). Thus, the teacher is looking for evidence of students' developing control of the social purpose of the genre, knowledge of the information field, use of the schematic structure and grammatical patterns, the organisation of the information within that structure, and understanding the difference between spoken and written expression (Hammond et al 1992).

There have been many subsequent versions of the Teaching-Learning Cycle, most incorporating the original three stages (eg. Derewianka 1990; Rothery and Stenglin 1994; Feez and Joyce 1998). One of the influential versions in literacy education was developed by Hammond et al (1992), drawing in turn on earlier work of Burns A. and Joyce. They argued (1992) that the original model was inadequate because it needed a

fourth stage – Building Up the Field Knowledge – to ensure that the subject matter itself was clearly understood as well as the context in which it was to be written about. This additional stage acknowledges the importance of both learning *through* language idea and the inseparability of ‘form’ and ‘meaning’ in language learning.

In this Field-Building stage, the teacher and students research and discuss the cultural and social contexts of the topic. Humphrey (1990), Hammond and Freebody (1994), and Hammond (2001) add that this stage is particularly important for students from non-English speaking backgrounds. Through Field-Building, students learn about relevant content and also develop control of spoken English that enables them to talk about this content. Rothery (1996) emphasises the distinctness of Field-Building as a separate stage, one in which the relative importance of individual aspects of the content is negotiated between students, and teacher and students. The act of negotiation provides a common basis of knowledge shared by all of the groups’ members. This four-stage version is used in this research for its particular relevance to learning English as a foreign language. The following figure illustrates this:

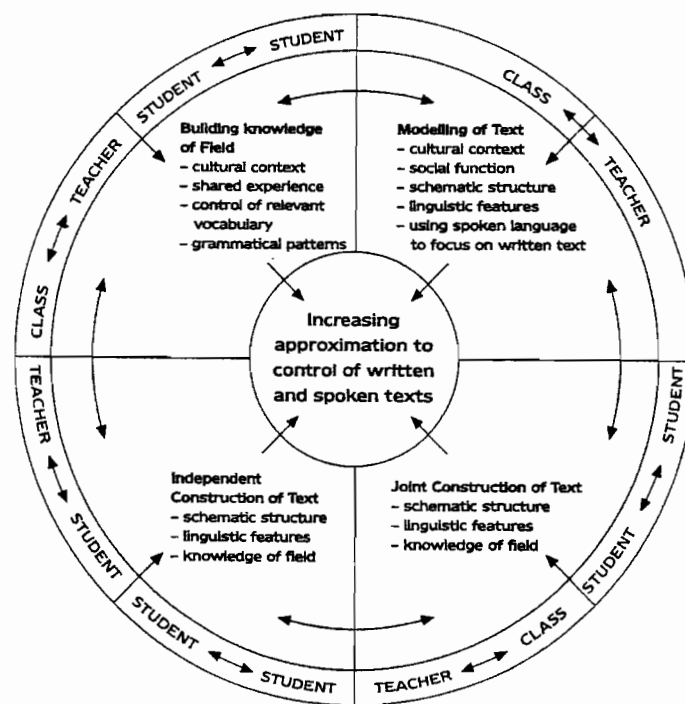


Figure 3.1: The Teaching-Learning Cycle (Hammond, Burns A., Joyce, Brosnan and Gerot 1992:17).

Usually when the genre is being introduced for the first time, the teacher and students work through all the four stages (Burns R. 1990; Feez and Joyce 1998). However, the teacher may enter or revisit any stage at any point of time depending largely on students' needs and on their language competence in relation to the language activity being taught (Callaghan et al 1993; Hammond et al 1992; Rothery 1996; Feez and Joyce 1998; Martin 1999). In cases where students have existing shared knowledge from other sources, eg. from another subject at university, the Field-Building stage may be omitted. Equally where a topic requires a large amount of research the stage may need to be repeated until teacher and students consider it sufficiently negotiated to prepare students to begin writing their texts independently.

Teacher flexibility of this kind is important for teaching child and adolescent students. It is much more so in teaching adults. Callaghan et al (1993) argue the importance of the teacher having a clear understanding why he or she is teaching at any given point in the cycle and what outcomes are being sought from each classroom activity. It is also the teacher's responsibility to explain the reasons to students and to invite their contribution to decisions about spending a little more time, or to move on to the next section. It is especially important that adult students have a clear understanding of the outcomes of any specific activity. Callaghan, Knapp and Noble (1993:181) stress that:

The more clearly defined each language activity, the more specific each of the learning outcomes for the activity can be. Because writing is such an important part of the education process, it simply cannot be left to 'hit and miss' strategies.

The genre-based approach's Teaching-Learning Cycle has made significant contributions to language development and literacy education. It also has attracted considerable controversy. This will be discussed further in 3.9 and 3.10.

3.9 Criticisms of the Australian Genre-based Approach

The genre-based approach has attracted several criticisms, primarily in Australia, and these can be summarised into three major issues:

- (i) the value of analysis and explicit teaching of genres;

- (ii) the pedagogical practices associated with the genre-based approach; and
- (iii) implications of teaching genres for maintaining the ‘status quo’ within western societies.

These aspects in detail:

(i) The emphasis on analysis and explicit teaching about language has a long history of debate. In particular, the teaching about generic structures of genres has drawn criticisms from different groups of educators and linguists (eg. Walshe 1981a, 1981b; Sawyer and Watson 1987; Freedman 1993, 1994; Kay and Dudley-Evans 1998; Badger and White 2000). Critics have expressed concern that explicit teaching may be too ‘recipe-like’ and therefore counter-productive as it risks constraining students from actively participating in the writing process and being able to express their ideas creatively. Their concern extends to thinking that students will continue to expect to be told ‘how’ to write certain types of texts and perceive that they need to conform strictly to the ‘formula’ that has been provided if they are going to write their texts successfully and effectively, that is, they will resist the teacher dismantling the supporting scaffolding.

However, the genre theorists (eg. Martin 1985; Rothery 1981, 1986; Hammond 1987; Martin, Christie and Rothery 1987) argue that such criticisms are based on an incomplete understanding of the development of the genre theory. Drawing on systemic linguistics, which views language as a resource for making meaning and emphasises the relationship between text and its context, the genre theorists argue that ‘genre’ represents the way in which people go about using language to achieve their social purposes in their different contextual settings. They emphasise that a ‘genre’ evolves differently in different cultures. Hence, its structure is simply a statement of the predictable way in which people proceed to achieve an end. It is not a formula to be handed down to students and to which they must rigidly adhere in their writing. The system provides students with the insight into how language works, but is not intended to deprive them of the ability to work beyond the system. It also provides students with an effective tool to participate in the education system but, equally importantly, in the broader outside community.

Further, genre-theorists (such as Martin and Rothery 1981; Martin 1984, 1985; Rothery and Gerot 1986; Knapp and Watkins 1994) argue that in order to be able to write creatively, students, must in the first place, have control of the genre to utilise it for their own purposes. In line with the genre-theorists' view, an advocate of the learner-centred approach to second language learning, Nunan (1999:286) stresses that "one must master the rules in order to transcend them".

(ii) As mentioned in 3.8, the Teaching-Learning Cycle associated with the genre-based approach proposed guidance to be used in curriculum planning. Yet, when it is translated into classroom practices some language educationalists (eg. Cope and Kalantzis 1993b) expressed the concern that it risks being used too prescriptively and rigidly, particularly by inexperienced teachers.

A more critical evaluation of the Teaching-Learning Cycle was provided by Callaghan, Knapp and Noble (1993), of particular interest because Callaghan was one of original proponents of the Cycle. Callaghan et al (1993) noted that the Cycle was based heavily on studies of early child development and argued that "it is best seen as a crucial sequence of stages which embodies aspects of the learning process but without filling in the details of how learning actually occurs in the classroom." They argued that the Teaching-Learning Cycle was not translated into discrete teacher activities; and that the transition from theory to practice was problematic. The teacher needs not only to have a thorough understanding of systemic functional linguistics, but also a good command of English to apply the approach to the classroom effectively. This is even more problematic in the EFL context where English is not used as a means for daily communication and teachers have little time to spend researching while taking a full teaching load across the broad curriculum. My experience in applying the approach to the classroom supports this view and will be further discussed in 5.3

In addition, Callaghan et al (1993:190-1) assert that there appears to be a number of simplistic assumptions concerning language learning. They state that:

While there is a quite correct assumption that children learn to speak through interaction with, and intervention by, adult carers, this assumption has been quite unproblematically transferred to the joint-negotiation stage of the model where

the teacher is instructed to shift students' language from speech to writing. The problem here is that speech and writing are quite different and separate modes, and writing is not speech transcribed. Students are simply being told that we speak one way but write another, and then the teacher writes it down for the students. This is not a pedagogy, it is a demonstration to students of how to write correctly. Texts from whole classes of students who "independently" produced their text, after having participated in the practice of "teacher scribing", often show a monotonous similarity in their "individual" writing. In other words, the practice of "teacher scribing" has the potential of being a very efficient model of "reproduction" pedagogy.

Cope and Kalantzis (1993b) had originally supported the genre-based approach but subsequently argued against the cyclic nature of the model on the grounds that it appeared to be a return to the 'transmission pedagogy'. The model focused on reproduction of the teacher's work. To quote Cope and Kalantzis (1993b:15):

... modelling involves no less than telling students how they should write – a process which culminates in their achievement being marked in terms of how well they realize the predetermined generic structure ... a practice textual form [that] is largely presented in an uncritical way at the modelling stage. The joint construction stage is then meant to help students internalise the form exemplified by the model so they can reproduce that form in 'independent' construction.

These critics argue that far from being a Teaching-Learning Cycle, this process is linear.

Callaghan, Knapp and Noble (1993) added that there should be no surprise that the joint-negotiation teaching strategy was successful because the early work in the 'Cycle' approach was undertaken primarily in a middle-class school with the majority of students from English-speaking backgrounds. Their family and school backgrounds were conducive to an environment in which negotiated learning was the norm. This strategy could not be simply translated into classrooms where genre-based approaches were being implemented for working-class and NESB students.

These criticisms highlight the need for further research into the pedagogical practices of the Teaching-Learning Cycle, particularly in the NESB context. My research explores the ways in which the Cycle would need to be modified to suit the Thai EFL context. The outcomes of the research and suggestions for the modifications of the Cycle will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 7 respectively.

(iii) The ideological basis of the genre-based approach – that the explicit teaching of mainstream genres will lead to ‘equity’ in education and ‘empowerment’ of students – is called into question by a number of educators and theorists, particularly those who are proponents of critical literacy theory (eg. Luke 1993, 1996; Lee 1993; Luke, O’Brien, Comber 1994, 1996; Kamler 1997). They argue that while the explicit and detailed teaching would enable some students to have access to ‘powerful’ discourses, texts and genres in the mainstream of education, it does not necessarily lead to equitable access in education and social power. They were also concerned that the emphasis on the mastery of genres would encourage students to engage in the construction of texts reproductively and uncritically, supporting, rather than providing alternatives to, the teaching for obedience, for maintenance of the status quo. To quote Luke (1996:314):

A salient criticism of the “genre model” is that its emphasis on the direct transmission of text types does not necessarily lead on to a critical reappraisal of that disciplinary corpus, its field or its related institutions, but rather may lend itself to an uncritical reproduction of discipline.

Lee (1993) asserted that the genre-based approach does not assist students to be critical in their learning because it implies following a pattern limited linguistically and pedagogically by the immediate content and form, and not confronting the broader social analyses of curriculum, pedagogy and schooling. She wrote:

What is missing is, among other things, a social theory of discourse which acknowledges simultaneously the complexity and materiality of the negotiation of power relations in social practices.

In their defence, the genre-based theorists (eg. Christie 1990b, 1996; Martin 1993) argue that students should be taught about genres explicitly so that they know how language works to make meaning and are able to use language resources to achieve their purposes in the various social contexts in which they exist. If this knowledge remains implicit to students, some of them, particularly those from the marginalised groups eg. EFL/ESL and Aboriginal students, will continue to be disadvantaged in the Australian context. Christie (1990b:83) wrote:

for as long as we leave matters of language use available to some and not to others, then we maintain a society which permits and perpetuates injustice of many kinds.

In addition, the genre-based theorists insist that the explicit teaching of the genres does not inhibit students from being able to read and write texts critically. They argue that

through the explicit teaching of genres, students will have control of linguistic resources essential for analysis and critique of texts. As Christie (1996:55) remarked:

Capacity to deconstruct and discuss genres is essential to the associated activities of critiquing them.

Based on their studies in Australian primary and secondary classrooms with large numbers of ESL students, Hammond (1995, 1996) and Macken-Horarik (1996a, 1996b, 1997) argue that students, in order to analyse and criticise text, require both the knowledge of genre (linguistic tools) and an understanding of their culture (sociological tools). Teachers who consciously provide both tools equip students to be independent and able to go beyond simplistic textual interpretation.

Most importantly, Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999:531) also found that:

any effective critical literacy program has a long lead time in an ESL classroom. Engaging with the meanings of texts requires much time and effort on awareness of alphabetic codes, comprehension of texts, recognition of the cultural significance of specific genres, the ability to construct well-formed and cohesive texts, and the ability to undertake reflexive and critical analysis of texts. Our argument is that students will be able to undertake effective analysis and critique of any text only when they are able to engage with the text.

Yet, Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999) added a caution, that teaching critical literacy should be integrated throughout the entire program, not merely added on as a kind of afterthought.

As mentioned in 1.2, my research aims to investigate the extent to which the genre-based approach is a viable and pedagogically effective alternative to other major approaches in the EFL context to teaching English writing to Thai students. However, the research made no attempt to investigate its ideological basis because, unlike the Australian context, in Thailand English has the status of a foreign language in which the ideological basis is a variable of a quite different kind, to be investigated in its own right.

Despite the above criticisms, the genre-based approach appears to have made a number of contributions. These will be discussed in the next section.

3.10 Contributions of the Australian Genre-based Approach

The contributions of the Australian genre-based approach can be seen in four major areas:

- (i) the analyses and explicit teaching of the major genres;
- (ii) the reflective, analytical and critical teaching and learning processes;
- (iii) the integrated-skills curriculum;
- (iv) the classroom can be both ‘teacher-focused’ and ‘learner-centred’.

In detail:

(i) One of the most significant contributions of the Australian genre-based approach is its analysis and explicit teaching of the generic structure and distinctive language features of the major genres that students are expected to learn to write as they develop their writing skills (Hammond and Derewianka 1991; Hammond 1996). Butt et al (2000) argue that when students learn the fundamentals of the genres at the whole text level they are able to rework these when they need to write for different communicative tasks. They wrote (2000:17)

When students are introduced to the structural patterns of different genres, they build a rich repertoire of text elements. This repertoire becomes the basis for constructing whole texts that are sensitive to the demands of the culture, and therefore, effective in the culture. As students gain confidence and expertise with different text patterns, they are able to adapt, combine and customise these patterns to meet individual and complex purposes.

Importantly, the genre-based approach, drawing on systemic functional linguistics (SFL) which recognises the importance of the social and cultural contexts of texts, emphasises that that ‘genres’ exist within the broader social and cultural domains (Hammond and Derewianka 1991; Butt et al 2000). This emphasis also contributes significantly to literacy education in the ESL and EFL contexts. It enables the teacher in second/foreign language teaching contexts to explain in a systematic way how the genres that predominate in (English-based) culture ‘work’, with the objective of teaching students to write texts which meet their readers’ expectations. As Christie and Rothery (1989:4) argued:

learning the genres of one’s culture is a necessary part of becoming a successful participant in the culture.

This issue is central to this research project and recognised by both the genre-based approach and contrastive rhetoric, although the contrastive approach does not follow through with a proposal for explicitly teaching about generic structure and language features.

(ii) The genre-based approach promotes reflective, analytical and critical teaching and learning processes. Drawing on the SFL, which holds that language is a resource for making meanings, the genre-based approach provides teachers and students with a language to talk about language (i.e. a metalanguage). This enables teachers and students engaged in all writing processes to discuss, compare, analyse and criticise written (and spoken) texts more systematically, analytically and critically. Students will understand how and why texts are organised in certain ways and will be able to evaluate their own texts, taking on some of the responsibility for their own learning and developing their independence. It will therefore encourage them to be more analytical and critical writers (Hammond 1990, 1996). As Hammond (1996:218) remarked:

Without an explicit understanding of language and how language functions, including a metalanguage for discussing such understandings, students are unlikely to develop the resources to enable them to analyse critically the social, cultural and ideological positioning inherent in every written text.

Teachers, using the same metalanguage, will have much clearer ideas about what it is they are doing when they ask students to write. It will also help eliminate the doubts students may have about the mysterious conclusions teachers appear to reach when assessing their work. To quote Butt et al (2000:261):

This shared language [metalanguage] makes it possible for teachers to make clear and explicit statements about what students are expected to learn and what aspects of their language learning will be assessed to what standard at the end of a teaching program. This takes the guesswork out of assessment and eliminates the 'hidden curriculum'. In addition explicit statements about what is required of students are open to critique, review and renegotiation.

Rothery (1996) adds that the metalanguage provides teachers with tools to review their classroom practice reflectively and analytically. Teachers are able to monitor and reflect on their own and their students' language use in contexts where both are working towards the achievement of particular learning goals.

Traditionally, Thai teachers, as mentioned in Chapter 2, are authority figures, dominating the teaching process. By being more reflective and analytical teachers will improve their classroom practice by considering what students have actually learned.

(iii) The genre-based approach emphasises the integrated-skills curriculum. The Teaching-Learning Cycle, a pedagogy associated with the genre-based approach, enables the teacher to develop an ‘integrated-skills’ curriculum for language teaching and learning (Rothery 1996). In practice this means that at any stage of the Cycle students are exposed to reading English as well as speaking and listening to others, all activities leading towards writing in English. At various stages students need to do independent book-based research in the target language, acquiring stylistic experience to use when they write (Burns R.1990). For example, during the ‘Field-Building’ stage the teacher may ask students to research information about the chosen topic by reading journal articles, seeing a film or video, having a debate or participating in a small group discussion.

Traditionally, the English curriculum in Thailand teaches the separate language skills as discrete subjects eg. Speaking is emphasised in one class, and Writing in a different one. The other language skills are used only to reinforce learning the targeted skill. In contrast, Mountford (1986:5) argued that “language learning is above all an integrated activity”. The ‘integrated-skills’ curriculum is significant for Thai students’ language development because it allows them to practise using language integratively as is normal by native speakers. Creating opportunity for this in the classroom simulates the real life situation as far as possible.

(iv) The classroom can be both ‘teacher-centred’ and ‘learner-focused’. Based on the notion of scaffolding, the genre-based approach views language learning as a social and interactive process between teacher and students. At various stages of the lesson, the classroom may be ‘teacher-centred’. The teacher, as an expert, provides students with explicit knowledge and guided practice. As students develop greater control of the knowledge and their contributions in the classroom increase, the classroom shifts to ‘learner-focused’.

As mentioned in 2.5, Thai classrooms are mostly ‘teacher-centred’. A change to an understanding that the classroom can be both ‘teacher-centred’ and ‘learner-focused’ would enable Thai teachers to improve their teaching. They would be able to carry out the language program which values both their expertise and students’ contributions.

3.11 Review of Related Genre-based Studies

This final section aims to review related SFL genre-based studies both in Australia, the home country of the genre-based approach, and in the EFL context where this research is implemented.

3.11.1 Genre-based Studies in Australia

There have been many studies concerned with the genre-based approach in Australia in the past decade, mostly at the primary school level, some at secondary (Hammond and Derewianka 2001). Especially interesting for my research are those few research projects that have been carried out at tertiary level and in the specific area of adult English as a second language education, since my interest is teaching university students in Thailand.

At primary school level, the first and one of the most influential studies was the early work of Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981). Their major findings, based on analysis of some hundreds of primary school students’ texts, were that in any given situation, students produced a range of genres. Yet teachers referred to their students’ texts generally as ‘stories’ regardless of the genres. Although teachers accepted a range of genres in students’ writing, they tended to value ‘narrative’ writing more than the ‘factual’ writing. Martin and Rothery’s findings (1980, 1981) are seminal to the development of the genre-based approach and have provided impetus to subsequent research that has drawn on genre theory and its implications in literacy education and language development.

One of those subsequent studies that had significant impact in teaching literacy specifically at the primary school level was the project undertaken by the Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program (DSP) in NSW (Callaghan and Rothery 1988). The project involved 16 teachers of students in Years 5-8 working in eight disadvantaged schools across Australia. It was concerned with the application of the genre-based approach to teach factual genres such as the Report, Explanation, Exposition and Discussion in History and Social Sciences in Years 5-8. On completion of the project, the participants reported that the approach had significant impact on their teaching. As they had a clear understanding of the genres, they were able to explain to students precisely what was expected of them in writing texts to achieve different social purposes. In turn, this explicit knowledge helped students to gain confidence in their writing and importantly, empowered them to achieve in areas where they might otherwise have failed (Callaghan and Rothery 1988). It is worth noting that while this DSP literacy project provided insights into the teachers' responses towards the approach, it did not include those of students. Nor did it present analysis of students' texts although they were collected. The project gave impetus to further research and provided encouraging implications for teaching literacy at other levels of education.

At the secondary school level, the Write it Right literacy project was carried out within the Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program over the period 1991-1996. The project aimed to provide support to secondary teachers in developing their students' literacy competencies across all major curriculum areas in Years 7-10 (publications from the project appear in the series "Write it Right: Resources on Literacy and Learning" and include Exploring Literacy in School English (1994), Exploring Literacy in School Geography (1996) and Exploring Literacy in School History (1996). The project provided insights into the variety and range of genres and language features that students will need in order to achieve the outcomes of their curriculum subjects. Although the project has been variably influential it has not been taken up in secondary schools in any official way. However, it has continued to influence the way in which many secondary teachers work, especially those in NSW.

At the secondary school level also, but on a much smaller scale, Hallenstein (1994) applied the genre-based approach to teach the Discussion genre to overseas and

Australian Year 11 students at St. John's College at the Northern territory. She based her course on Callaghan and Rothery's Teaching-Learning Cycle (1988). At the end of the course, it was evident that the genre-based approach helped students to write academic argumentative English writing more effectively. Analysis of the sample texts showed that students gained a better control of the structure of the Discussion genre. The texts consisted of a clear Thesis Statement, identifying the issue to be discussed, and Preview, foreshadowing the arguments. The expression of the arguments still had some way to go, but students' management of them signalled a growing understanding of the generic structure. In addition, the texts contained a Recommendation. Students also demonstrated a significant improvement in grammar, particularly in their use of conjunctions. Hallenstein (1994) argued that students would have improved further with a greater understanding of the field knowledge.

In adult ESL education, the impact of the genre-based approach was particularly evident in the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) funded by the Commonwealth Department of Immigration, Multiculturalism and Indigenous Affairs (DIMIA) and carried out by the (Australian) National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR). For example, Hammond (1989) coordinated a project that involved teachers from Adult Migrant English Services (AMES) in Brisbane and Sydney through the cyclical processes of theoretical input, action research and data collection. The project drew on and explored the implications of Halliday's systemic functional linguistics (eg. Halliday 1985; Halliday and Hasan 1985) and the genre theory developed by Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) and others (eg. Christie 1984, 1985) in the context of adult ESL education. Three major issues emerging from the project were:

- an understanding of both systemic functional linguistics and genre theories enabled teachers to identify and analyse genres that students need to learn to read and write.
- both spoken and written language need to be included in any literacy program as spoken language plays such a supportive role in the building up of the field knowledge of study. It also provides opportunities for teacher and students to discuss, analyse and reflect on the construction of written texts.

- the classroom may be conducted as either teacher-directed or learner-centred at various points in the lesson. More importantly, it is necessary for the teacher to have a clear idea of *what* they are doing and *why*, founded in a clear theory of language (Hammond 1989).

These provided a useful basis for literacy development within the AMEP.

Another adult literacy project investigated how the genre-based approach could be applied to teaching the genre “job application letter” to adult second language learners at the early stages of learning (Burns R. 1990). The 19 students participating were all within their first year as permanent immigrants to Australia and had all been rated towards the bottom on a seven point oral rating scale (AMES, Speaking Proficiency Descriptions, Brindley, 1979, cited in Burns R.1990). The students came from a wide variety of first-language backgrounds, some of which used non-Roman script. The majority of them had completed secondary school in their countries of origin. The outcomes of the project showed that after being taught by the genre-based approach students were able to produce texts which were closer to the “job application letter” genre. Burns R. (1990:70) argued that this was made possible because:

the genre-based approach, based on SFL and the notion of genre and register, provides an explicit account of the schematic structure, organisation and language features of the genre upon which they were focusing.

To conclude, genre-based studies in the Australian ESL context indicated that the genre-based approach had a positive impact on the teaching of writing at different levels of education, ranging from primary school to adult education. I now investigate whether the approach has had a similar impact in the EFL context.

3.11.2 Genre-based Studies in the EFL Context

As already mentioned in 1.1.2, research into the impact of the Australian genre-based approach is limited in the EFL context. From available research in EFL, it is only possible to get a glimpse into the impact of the approach at the secondary and tertiary levels, as well as teachers’ opinions about the approach.

One relevant study was undertaken by Sutojo (1994) in Indonesia. This study investigated the teaching of Report writing to junior high school students, using Callaghan and Rothery's (1988) version of the Teaching-Learning Cycle. The study indicated that the genre-based approach enabled students to write the Report genre effectively. Analysis of their texts at the end of the program revealed that, while they varied in length and content, all illustrated good control of schematic structure of the Report genre. In addition, students' control of relevant language features (i.e. Theme, Transitivity and Reference) had improved significantly.

Research particularly relevant to this thesis was carried out by Dang (2002) at the English department of a foreign language teacher training college in Hanoi, Vietnam. This research aimed to investigate whether the genre-based approach was an effective approach in teaching the writing of the English Discussion genre to Vietnamese students at the tertiary level. It involved 23 second-year students and was carried out for 4 weeks. The results of the study showed that after being taught by Callaghan and Rothery's version of the Teaching-Learning Cycle (1988), students across three ability groups (i.e. competent, average and below average) were able to write texts that resembled successful Discussion models. Their texts showed good control of the generic structure of the Discussion, consisting of Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments (for and against) and Recommendation. Further, they were able to use language features relevant to the genre confidently and effectively. These included theme choices (i.e. Topical and Textual Themes), conjunctions and transitivity (i.e. processes, circumstances, nominal groups and use of modality) (Dang 2002). The results of the study also revealed that students responded positively to the genre-based program. The students reasoned that it enabled them to understand this genre and it provided them with systematic guidance to write a discussion essay. On its completion students suggested that the program required some modifications. For example, they said that the time-lapse between the Joint-Negotiation and Independent Construction stages should be lengthened to allow students to have sufficient time to make the transition from one stage to the next smoothly. In addition, students noted that the teacher should encourage 'adult' students to research reading materials by themselves more (Dang 2002).

Kay and Dudley-Evans' study in Singapore (2000), unlike previous studies, was more concerned with L2 teachers' responses to the genre-based approach. It should be noted, however, that Kay and Dudley-Evans used the term 'genre-based approach' to refer to both the ESP and Australian genre-based traditions. The study was carried out at the Regional Language Centre and involved 48 teachers working with primary, secondary, tertiary, and adult students in Australia, Fiji, Germany, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. The participants reported that their experience in applying the so-called 'genre-based approach' in their own classrooms was contentious. They saw that the 'genre-based approach' provided students with a higher level of control of social discourse, achieving the primary purpose of discussion. In addition, students considered that the approach gave them a sense of security by providing them with models to analyse the effectiveness of their own writing and that of others.

However, the participants thought that the 'genre-based approach' might be too prescriptive if students did not venture outside the models. Similarly, unimaginative teachers may restrict their teaching to the models, leading to students' lack of creativity, in turn affecting their motivation. Kay and Dudley-Evans (2000:311) said that "it could become boring and stereotyped if overdone or done incorrectly".

The results of this study reflected other educators and linguists' views on the genre-based approach (in this case the Australian tradition, see also 3.9 and 3.10). It should be noted that Kay and Dudley-Evans (2000) did not detail the way in which the participants applied the approach in their classrooms.

The results also indicated that the Australian genre-based approach needs to be further researched, particularly in the EFL context to shed light on the way in which it can be used most effectively.

A review of related studies reveals that, over all, the genre-based approach has impacted positively on teaching literacy at different levels of education in both ESL and EFL contexts. However, it should be noted that these studies were concerned with either the teachers' responses towards the genre-based approach or with the impact of the

approach on students' writing, not with both. It should be noted also that while the studies in ESL contexts included the Exposition genre (eg. Callaghan and Rothery 1988 and "Write It Right" series 1991-4), the studies in EFL contexts tended to focus on other genres such as the Report (Sutojo 1994) and the Discussion (Dang 2002). My research represents a contribution to further explore an application of the genre-based approach in the EFL context. It considers both teacher and student perspectives and focuses on the Exposition genre, regarded as the most highly valued in western factual writing.

Chapter 4 describes the research approaches, the design and the implementation of the genre-based program at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University in the northeast of Thailand.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The purposes of this chapter are to discuss the context in which the research takes place, research approaches, ethics specific to this research, and the learner profile of the participating students. In addition, it provides necessary information about Khon Kaen University and background information about writing courses offered by its Department of Foreign Languages. Then follows a description of the kinds of data that were collected and systems of content and linguistic analysis that were used. Content analysis was based upon the work of Descombe (1998) and others (eg. Ericson, Baranek and Chan 1987, 1989, 1991). Halliday and Hasan's work on lexical cohesion was also used to analyse the data such as students' diaries and audio-recordings of the informal discussion. The linguistic analysis drew heavily on the work of Martin (1980, 1981, 1985) and other genre-theorists (eg. Rothery 1980, 1981; Derewianka 1990; Gerot and Wignell 1994). It was used to examine students' Expositions. As the linguistic analysis is also firmly embedded in systemic functional linguistics (SFL), it enabled me to gain greater insights into students' developing control of the written language.

4.2 Research Context

It was noted in the first chapter that the genre-based approach was originally used in teaching writing in primary schools. My interest was the possibility of its adaptation for use in university education. I decided to carry out the research in the Essay Writing course at the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen University (which will be referred to as the Department hereafter) because of my personal connection as alumnus, and for the following reasons.

The Essay Writing course requires students to learn increasingly complex compositions and to practise them by writing English essays. This focus was parallel with my research objectives of investigating the extent to which the pedagogical practices of the genre-based approach are suitable in teaching English writing in the tertiary classroom in Thailand. Literacy education at the Department has traditionally been innovative, with a staffing policy which mixes qualified Thai teachers and nationals from the US, New Zealand and Australia. In particular, the Department has used pedagogy based on the process approaches in the prerequisite Practice Writing II course (see 4.6 for further discussion). The Essay Writing course aims to teach about writing texts for different purposes, such as ‘description’, ‘narration’, ‘comparison’, ‘cause and effect’ and ‘arguments or persuasion’. My request to research the implementation of the genre-based approach in the Essay Writing course did not cause radical departure in teaching focus, and nor did it disrupt the learning or language development of students.

There were also practical advantages for teaching and collecting the data of my research at the Department. As a graduate from the Department, I knew many staff members from my undergraduate years and still keep in touch with them. It was not difficult for me to develop collegial relationships with them that were conducive to carrying out this research. The Department was interested in my research and its findings, allowing me to conduct the research in a supportive environment. Students enrolling in the Essay Writing course were from two strands: English majors with associated units in English language, and minor students who included the study of English in the context of various other subject majors. Most of the students enrolled in the Essay Writing course had a genuine interest in studying English. Knowledge of English writing would be useful for their academic progress and also for their future careers. In addition to its value to the student body, the research context of the Essay Writing course was relevant to my ‘real-life’ teaching context in Thailand. Thus, research findings from this site would be useful not only for me but for others, both academically and professionally.

4.3 Research Approaches

The research approach of this study may be described as qualitative ethnographic-case study. The underlying principles of ethnographic inquiry are relevant to my research because I did not intend to test or prove whether the genre-based approach is a more effective approach in teaching writing than the more traditional approaches. Rather, I aimed to explore ways in which the approach needed to be modified to suit the Thai educational and cultural context. As indicated previously, the theoretical basis of the genre-based approach is developed from systemic functional linguistics (SFL), which holds that language and language learning are social processes that take place in context (Halliday and Hasan 1985). Therefore, research needed to be carried out in the real, natural and on-going classroom. In order to gain an inside perspective of the actions, perceptions and beliefs of the students being investigated, I needed to become a part of the culture where the study takes place over a period of time (Hammersley and Atkinson 1983; Burns R.1990, 1995; Johnson 1992). At the same time, I needed to be conscious of my role as a researcher so that I was able to analyse and interpret the data systematically and analytically. I had also to detach myself from the teaching situation and reflect on my students' reactions towards the genre-based approach, my own experience during teaching, and the effects of the genre-based approach on students' writing. To this end I drew on the *emic* and *etic* principles underpinning the ethnography, to be discussed below.

Ethnography is broadly categorised as 'qualitative' and 'naturalistic' research. It is 'qualitative' because it utilises non-psychometric data collection techniques such as observation and interview, yields qualitative data and provides descriptive and interpretive analysis. Ethnography may provide insights not otherwise able to be captured or explained comprehensively about the interaction between teacher and students in the classroom, and the relationship between teaching and learning processes and their contexts (Le Compte and Goetz 1982; Hammersley and Atkinson 1983; Watson-Gegeo 1988). Ethnography is also described as 'naturalistic' because it emphasises the study of phenomena and people in their naturalistic social contexts (Watson-Gegeo 1988; Johnson 1992; Nunan 1992; Burns A.1999), a position which accords with the theory underpinning systemic functional linguistics (SFL).

However, van Lier (1990:42) argued that ethnography differs from other ‘qualitative’ or ‘naturalistic’ research approaches in that it adheres to two basic and related principles:

- an *emic* viewpoint,
- a *holistic* principle.

The *emic* viewpoint refers to the need for the researcher to generate and interpret the data from the perspective of the participants under investigation so that their behaviours, experiences, beliefs and situations can be fully understood. The *holistic* principle refers to the necessity to study an event or a behaviour in relation to its context because any event or behaviour is a part of a broader context and cannot be understood apart from it (Watson-Gegeo 1988; van Lier 1990; Burns R. 1990; 1995; Nunan 1992; Burns A.1999).

van Lier further argues (1990:42):

Both these principles [*emic* and *holistic* principles] can be seen to be a result of the ethnographer’s refusal to control the environment or to isolate features for specific scrutiny and quantification on the basis of pre-established criteria or vested interests. However, as an observer the ethnographer is of necessity selective in his/her observations, intrusive by virtue of his/her presence, and predisposed to interpret happenings in a certain way by virtue of training, beliefs, assumptions and theoretical persuasions.

Burns A. (1999) adds that an *etic* viewpoint, which refers to an understanding of the research context from an outsider’s perspective, is another significant feature of the ethnographic study.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that this research deviates in some aspects from the conventional ethnography in that, to understand the impact of the genre-based approach on the context under investigation, I attempted to control the classroom environment by deliberately introducing the genre-based approach into it. Further, I was both researcher and teacher. This occurred because I was the only person at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University who knew enough about systemic functional linguistics to apply it in the classroom through genre-based teaching practice. Some of my colleagues knew about the genre-based approach as a theory but had not considered

its use in the Thai educational context, and certainly not its use within the Department. Due to time constraints and the fact that I was based in Australia before and after my fieldwork, it was impossible for me to recruit or train any lecturers in SFL and the genre-based approach prior to my research being carried out.

I was aware of advantages and disadvantages in being both teacher and researcher. The advantages were that, as I was directly and actively involved with the research, I would be able to control the sequence of teaching and learning events and to gain insights into the observable outcomes of student behaviours, both social and academic in the classroom. In accordance with the ‘emic’ perspective of ethnographic inquiry, I would be immersed with a rich collection of data that would enable me to understand students’ reactions, opinions and attitudes towards the genre-based approach from their perspectives. Also, as the research was carried out over a semester, my presence would become familiar to students. This would make them feel more comfortable in expressing to me their opinions and concerns regarding the genre-based approach.

However, there were some disadvantages of being both teacher and researcher when relatively inexperienced in both. As already mentioned in 3.3, I had only one year of teaching experience and I lacked a formal teacher training qualification. Although I had substantial knowledge about the genre-based approach prior to the time the research was carried out, I had never used it for teaching. It was difficult for me to grapple with the way in which the lesson should be carried out, to manage the classroom and at the same time, to step back to observe and explore the impact of the genre-based approach. The major challenge was to monitor and document the interactions between the students and myself effectively while at the same time focusing on teaching.

To overcome the problems of being both teacher and researcher in the classroom, I adhered to the ethnographic principle of ‘thick’ description in which data was collected, relating to as many factors as possible, that might impinge on the students being studied (Nunan 1992). The data included questionnaires, students’ diaries, photocopies of students’ written texts, observation notes made by an observer and myself, related e-mail messages between my supervisor and myself, and audio-recordings of classroom

language. This will be discussed in detail in section 4.10.2. In order to achieve triangulation of data, I also recruited an observer, a fourth year English major student, to participate in the research. The reason for recruiting a student for this role was because none of the lecturers at the Department was available to monitor my research. Prior to the research being carried out, the observer was informed fully about the research topic, its objectives, the theories it draws on, its research methodology and its duration. She was also informed that her role in the research was to take notes of relevant features of the classroom practices: what I wrote on the whiteboard; the activities that I presented to students; students' response to my instructions and questions; their presentations and the displays of their work during its presentation. The observer's notes were used in conjunction with the data collected by other techniques to assist me to understand classroom realities. As a student herself, the observer was familiar to all the students and myself, and she was accepted more or less as a member of class. Her lack of teaching experience was not considered to jeopardise the nature of the research or the research findings. It was a concern that the role of the observer would have some effect on the normal behaviours of the students and myself, and the kind of interaction between us – the 'observer's paradox' (Labov 1972; van Lier 1988; Allwright and Bailey 1991). As it turned out, after a very short period the observer melded into the class and the influence of her presence was minimal.

Although this research drew heavily on ethnographic principles, it also constituted a case study. Nunan (1992) points out that a case study is similar to ethnography in its philosophy, methods, and concern of the context of the phenomena under investigation. Nevertheless, there is a distinguishable difference between them. While ethnography typically involves an intensive study of a particular culture, a case study is more limited in scope, focusing on a particular aspect of the culture or subculture under investigation. In this case, it is a case study of writing in a particular EFL classroom, that is, of an Essay Writing course, rather than of all EFL classrooms.

Nunan (1992) and Cohen and Manion (1994) argued that although the case study typically involves a study of a single unit such as a student, a classroom or a school, its findings may be generalisable to the wider population to which the unit belongs. To quote Nunan (1992:89):

One can learn a great deal about one's own students in general through a detailed study of one particular student, in the same way as insights into language classrooms in general can be derived from the intensive analysis of a single classroom.

Thus, although this research focused exclusively on the study of writing in the Essay Writing course at the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen University, the findings may be relevant to other foreign language classrooms in Thailand and elsewhere. As I argued in Chapter 1, I see that the value of this research lies in its contribution to the educational reform agenda that is prevalent in Thailand. Its value also lies in providing Thai teachers with an alternative approach to teaching English writing in the Thai educational context. In addition, the findings have the potential to provide some insights that may be relevant to the development of language teaching and learning programs in similar contexts.

To sum up, the principles and methodologies of the ethnography and case study are harmoniously related. The incorporation and integration of these two approaches into the research provided me with a principled basis for my research design to gather rich, authentic and contextualised data from the classroom being studied. This data enabled me to gain insight into students' thoughts, behaviours and actions towards the approach introduced into the classroom and of ways in which it could be modified to suit the cultural and educational context under investigation.

As mentioned in 4.1, this research involved the participation of the students enrolling in the Essay Writing course at the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen University. It was essential for me as a researcher to inform the Department and to ensure that the research would be carried out appropriately and ethically. Issues of ethics are discussed in the following section.

4.4 Research Ethics

To ensure that I met the ethical standards of both the University of Technology, Sydney, and Khon Kaen University I followed all of the required procedures. Additional ones

were adopted to take into account the ‘power relationship’ between myself and students to ensure that students did not feel threatened by being disadvantaged in the classroom or their success in course overall if they elected not to participate in my research. In the first hour, I informed the students, in Thai, about the research topic, its objectives, the theories behind it, the research methodology and its duration. I issued them a UTS Informed Consent Proforma containing information about my on-campus supervisor, Dr Sripanya Chaiyai, and my UTS research supervisor, Associate Professor Jennifer Hammond, whom they could contact if they had any concerns about my research. Further, I assured students that most of the research procedures represent normal requirements of their participation in the course and did not involve anything which might invade their privacy, deceive them concerning their participation or hinder their learning progress. While the research was taking place, they were invited to take opportunities both inside and outside the classroom to express their ideas or to discuss with me any issues regarding the research that might concern them. They were free to choose not to participate in the research or to withdraw their participation any time without giving a reason. I made it clear that such actions would not prejudice their academic progress and results. But in such a case, as I was the only teacher of the Essay Writing course and it is a compulsory course, students would be required to continue studying and complete the course without contributing to the data. In the event five of the fifty chose not to participate in the research from the beginning of the semester. To give an assurance to these students that they would not be disadvantaged I told the whole class that the non-participating students would be treated in exactly the same way as students who participated in the research. In all ways these students would participate in class activities but I would not collect data from their writing exercises (although they would be assessed in exactly the same way as participating students). I would not collect their diaries for analysis. Nor would they be required to attend the informal discussions at the end of the course. Their achievement in the course would be judged solely by their own performance. I informed students who participated in the research that they had access to their own data. To protect their identities, I told them that the data would be stored securely and that they would not be identified in any analysis of data or written outcome, instead, being referred to by pseudonyms. Only my UTS supervisors and myself would have access to the data. Further, when reported in my

thesis, confidentiality would be maintained. While I was conducting the research on campus, I maintained an openness about the research with the Department head and with other faculty members.

As mentioned in 4.2, the research also involved an observer, a fourth year English major student. Before the research was carried out, the observer was informed fully about the research detail and her role. She also signed a UTS Informed Consent Proforma.

4.5 Learner Profile

The Essay Writing course, in which this research is located, is one of the compulsory courses for English major and minor students at Khon Kaen University. When this research took place (from October 27th, 1997 to February 14th, 1998), there were 50 students studying in the course. Forty-seven of them were third year English major students and the rest were the fourth year Thai major students who studied English as their minor subject. The majority of them were 20-year-old females who lived in the northeast region of Thailand and had studied English for at least eight years before coming to university. All of them had successfully completed Mattayom 6 certificate (equivalent to the Year 12 certificate in Australia) and were accepted into the university by either the quota system, an exam which is held annually by the university itself, or the university entrance system, an exam which is centrally organised and held annually by the Ministry of University Affairs, Bangkok. Most students, particularly those who were accepted to study at the Department by the university entrance system, chose to study at the Department as their last or second last choice of four. The required scores to be accepted to the Department are relatively lower than for similar faculties in some other more prestigious universities, for example, Arts at Chulalongkorn and Liberal Arts at Thammasat. This suggests that the proficiency in English of students who enrol in the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen University is lower than those who enrol in similar courses at those prestigious universities. The English proficiency of most students at the Department may be described as at band 5 (Modest User) of the International English Language Testing System test.

The socio-economic background of most of these students is from relatively low-income families. Before they enrolled, they studied English mainly in formal classrooms. Only a few of them said that they had attended courses conducted in English by other institutions, most of which are privately owned eg. American University Alumni Association, the Brain, Home of English and Serm-Luksutr (a renowned English school, specialising in intensive English courses for Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) examinations). The courses that most students had attended were conversation, grammar, and an intensive course for the university entrance examination and TOEFL. The duration of such courses ranged from one month to two years. Only one of the students said that she had attended an extra writing course. In terms of experience studying overseas, only three students reported that they had attended primary or high schools in the US or the UK. The duration ranged from one year to eight years. No students had previous experience of the genre-based approach. The educational and socio-economical backgrounds of these students was similar to that of students in most public universities in Thailand. If the genre-based approach proves suitable to students at this Department it may be generalisable to students at other tertiary institutions and levels of education in Thailand, and in similar contexts beyond.

Most students at the Department of Foreign Languages chose to study English because they enjoy studying it and realise that English is an international language that will be very useful for their future career and further study. However, a few of them admitted that they only enrolled in English because they were accepted into the program in which it is a compulsory unit. The medium of instruction in most classes is English, for both Thai teachers of English and teachers from countries such as the US and Australia. Nowadays, there are more visiting scholars and international students working and studying on the campus. Students have some opportunities to use English for real communicative purposes outside the classroom, particularly those who are actively involved in social events such as the Christian fellowship congregation, or who work as part-time teachers of Thai or volunteers at the American University Alumni, Khon Kaen, which has an office at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences.

Before enrolling in the Essay Writing course, all students successfully completed the specified prerequisite subjects Practice in Writing I and II. The next section describes these to provide details of the context for the Essay Writing course and my research.

4.6 Prerequisite Practice Writing I and II

My discussion here of the writing courses held at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University draws on both official documents (eg. students' handbook, and courses' handouts and workbooks) and excerpts from students' diaries and transcripts of informal discussions. As students referred to the names of the lecturers of Practice Writing I and II courses consistently both in their diaries and during informal discussions, the names of these lecturers will sometimes be referred to in this chapter. In order to protect their identities, they will be referred to by pseudonyms: the lecturer of Practice Writing I is referred to as Mr Tana. For Practice Writing II the lecturer of the first class is called Mr James and the second Ms Elle.

Practice Writing I draws heavily on traditional approaches (see also 3.3). It aims to help students gain control of the grammatical structure of sentences. It emphasises the teaching of grammatical features and rules such as use of conjunctions, prepositions, punctuations, tenses, sentence combination and error analysis (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University 1996). Jirayut and Surachai reflected on their experience in this course that:

Mr Tana emphasises grammar. He taught us grammatical structure at sentence level so that we know how to write sentences in English correctly. We learnt about idioms and conjunctions (Jirayut, 28/1/98).

Mr Tana taught us about grammar, how to combine sentences and how to use conjunctions and tenses (Surachai, 2/2/98).

In Practice Writing I, in order to provide students with opportunities to practise writing connected texts, students are required to submit essays for two types of text, known as 'A' or 'B' on a weekly basis. For writing activities 'A', students have to write texts on the given topics eg. 'Introducing myself', 'The person I admire the most' and 'My

dream job’. For writing activities ‘B’, students have to find articles they are interested in and write whether they agree or disagree with the articles. The articles may be in one of the following areas: Education, Politics, Economics or Business, Social Issue or Problem(s), Medicine or Health and Science or Technology. Since students are required to write essays for both these writing activities independently and outside the classroom, they can write their essays in the way they wish (i.e. ‘freestyle’) and draw upon their own experience, imagination and feelings. Essays are evaluated in terms of the extent to which students can express their ideas clearly and use grammatical structure appropriately and accurately (McDaniel and Johnson 1994).

According to students’ comments, they enjoyed studying this course very much because they learnt a lot about grammatical structure. They also enjoyed the writing activities because they could write whatever they want. For example, Nirund said:

I enjoyed studying in Mr Tana’s class very much. He taught us about grammar eg. punctuations and etc. They are what we need to know in order to be able to write correctly (4/2/98).

Sunisa asserted that:

Mr Tana gave us two kinds of work: A and B. For A, we had to find information and write about it. For B, we wrote about it from our experience so it was pretty relaxed (29/1/98).

Practice Writing II is more concerned with a whole text level. It focuses on ‘informative’ writing that aims to increase the writer’s understanding of a subject. This kind of writing can be found in newspapers, magazines, textbooks, recipes, technical manuals and research reports (Pradutshon and McDaniel 1997). Based on process approaches, students are taught about nine recursive stages prior to starting writing. As stated in the course’s curricula, these are:

- Selecting the subject: Before writing, students need to decide the subject that they want to write about and what point they are going to make about the subject. This will become their ‘thesis’.
- Determining your purpose, and readers or audience: Since the Practice Writing II course emphasises ‘informative’ writing, students are expected to write their texts to give information. To be able to write their texts

successfully, they have to decide who their ‘readers’ or ‘audience’ are because these will determine their writing style and choice of words.

- Brainstorming: Students need to brainstorm to get ideas on what they will write about. They should write down any words that they can think of.
- Organising ideas: Students need to sort out which ideas will be the major or minor points in their texts.
- Writing the first draft: Students write their first draft.
- Revising: Students should read their texts to detect whether there are any faulty sentences, ill-chosen phrases and lapses in thinking. They should also check whether their texts need to be re-organised or any parts of their texts need to be deleted or expanded upon, or whether examples are insufficient, unclear or inappropriate. If it is possible, students should ask their friends to read their texts and discuss the problems with them.
- Rewriting: Students should rewrite their texts as many times as they, their teacher and their friends find necessary.
- Editing drafts: Students go over their texts to correct any careless errors and grammatical or spelling mistakes.
- Writing the final draft: After students are satisfied with their texts, they can write their final drafts

(Pradutshon and McDaniel 1997:13-4).

In terms of text organisation, students learn in the Practice Writing II that the structure of each text consists of ‘Introduction’, ‘Body’ and ‘Conclusion’. To quote Parinya:

... We wrote a whole text and we just know that each text has an Introduction, Body and Conclusion (27/1/98).

Students learned that a successful text is one that is well organised, focused and logically and coherently linked. To quote Anchana:

In Mr James’ class, he emphasises ‘brainstorming’ activity and the importance of writing a text which is well-organised and focused because Thai people usually write a very broad text. The well-organised text is a text which each paragraph is logically and coherently linked (28/1/98).

As in Practice Writing I, students were allowed to choose their own topics in the Practice Writing II class, taught by different lecturers in the following semester, and

were encouraged to express their ideas about them. However, the assessment criteria in Practice Writing II placed greater emphasis on students' ability to express and organise their ideas than on their control of grammar. Jaruwat explained:

In Ms Elle's class (Practice Writing II), she does not focus on grammar. It's free-writing and she cares only my ideas and their organisation (27/1/98).

Students said that they enjoyed learning the Practice Writing II course very much because they could express their ideas and write whatever they want to:

I enjoyed studying in Mr James's course because I can write texts free-style. He likes us to express our ideas (Suda, 29/1/98).

In Mr Tana and James' classes, it is free-writing. We enjoy writing because we can write whatever we want (Preeya, 3/2/98).

Satisfying writing experiences in both of these well-run courses contribute significantly to students' expectations and perceptions of what writing courses should be. This is reflected in the way in which they reacted initially to the implementation of the genre-based approach. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

To conclude, approaches in the Practice Writing courses focus on sentence level and on overall text structure although in a general way, explaining that the organisation of each text consists of 'Introduction', 'Body' and 'Conclusion'.

The genre-based approach, implemented in Essay Writing, differed from the approaches used in the two prerequisite subjects in its systematic and detailed analysis of specific genres. It focused on both the text structure and lexico-grammatical levels and argued that these are functionally linked. It also differed in its associated teaching practices, the Teaching-Learning Cycle (see also 3.8).

4.7 The Essay Writing Course – Implementing the Genre-based Approach

When I approached the Department to get permission to conduct my research in the Essay Writing course, I was told to develop teaching units that parallel the existing curriculum. In other words, I should teach students five genres that are compatible with

the five compositions specified in the curriculum: ‘description’, ‘narration’, ‘comparison’, ‘cause and effect’ and ‘arguments’. It should be noted that the existing Essay Writing curriculum emphasised how to organise the structure of the text for different purposes. The genre-based approach, while including these, also focused on explicit teaching of the generic structure and language features specific to each. For example, in the existing Essay Writing curriculum the composition ‘comparison’ explains that there are two common structures:

- The ‘block plan’ where the writer compares the two objects, topics or places under the same categories, looking at the categories under the first object, topic or place and then at the second.
- The ‘alternating plan’ where the writer compares each category of the two objects, topics or places alternately.

Each structure begins with ‘Introduction’ and ends with ‘Conclusion’ (Pradutchon and McDaniel 1997:24-5). Examples of these structures are:

(a) Block Plan:

Introduction (and thesis)	
1. Khon Kaen	2. Bangkok
Traffic	Traffic
Entertainment	Entertainment
Work Opportunities	Work Opportunities
Medical/ Dental Care	Medical/ Dental Care
Schools	Schools
Conclusion	

(b) Alternating Plan:

Introduction (and thesis)	
Traffic	Khon Kaen Bangkok
Entertainment	Khon Kaen Bangkok
Work Opportunities	Khon Kaen

	Bangkok
Medical/ Dental Care	Khon Kaen Bangkok
Schools	Khon Kaen Bangkok
Conclusion	

By contrast, the genre of Exposition, as developed by the genre-based linguists and described fully in 4.8 below, argues that Exposition’s generic structure consists of Thesis Statement, Arguments and Recommendation. Its language features emphasise, for example, the use of generalised participants, a variety of processes (eg. material and relational), present tense and technical terms (Derewianka 1990).

Due to the pedagogical practices associated with the Teaching-Learning Cycle of the genre-based approach, it was impossible for me to teach students five genres in one semester effectively. After negotiations with the Head of the Department, it was agreed that I would teach students four genres – the Exposition, Discussion, Description and Narrative, focusing primarily on Exposition. (The genres of Description, Discussion and Narrative will be detailed in Appendix 1).

I decided to focus primarily on the genre of Exposition because the existing curriculum required the ‘arguments or persuasion’ based composition. Importantly, the Exposition contains language features found in ‘comparison’, ‘cause and effect’ and ‘arguments or persuasion’ compositions. As indicated earlier, some Thai linguists eg. Indrasutra (1988) and Samabuddhi (1991) considered that the Exposition (or argumentative genre) has not been much taught in Thailand. Writing Exposition demands high levels of knowledge about the subject matter and the capacity to express it with a degree of abstraction. Martin (1980) and Rothery (1984) note that the Exposition is valued highly in western society. Due to the dominance of English as a global language, I feel it was essential for Thai graduates to be competent in this genre in order to be able to communicate with native speakers and participate in cross-cultural social, economic and political events effectively.

My aim was also to include teaching of Discussion, Description and Narrative genres. Discussion, like Exposition, contains many of the language features in the existing curriculum's compositions 'comparison', 'cause and effect' and 'arguments or persuasion'. Further, the genre of Discussion builds upon Exposition in that Exposition presents only one side of the issue, whereas Discussion argues both sides (Butt et al 2000; Hardy and Klarwein 1990; Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program 1989). Many Thai students are not aware of these differences. I think that explicit teaching about the differences would help to identify the unique features of each. Description and Narrative are compatible with the existing curriculum's 'description' and 'narration' compositions and fitted with the Department's requirement. In the event, time restrictions meant that these genres were only presented very briefly and as a way of highlighting differences between these and the 'argument' genres.

To examine ways in which the genre-based approach needed to be modified to suit the Thai educational context, I designed a teaching unit that focused on teaching Exposition to tertiary-level students. While teaching units of other genres (Discussion, Description and Narrative) were also developed, they are not discussed here because they are not specifically relevant to this thesis.

Before elaborating on the Exposition teaching unit, I first provide a summary of the genre of Exposition.

4.8 The Genre of Exposition

In the following text and interpretive notes I demonstrate the text structure and lexicogrammatical features of Exposition. As indicated in Chapter 3, the genre-based approach draws on the theoretical assumption that specific stages within each genre are realised by predictable and recurring patterns at a lexico-grammatical level.

Sarawut, a student from an 'average' group, wrote the following text as part of the unit on 'rainforests', and is selected because it exhibits typical features of a successful Exposition.

Why should we save rainforests?

Thesis:

Rainforests are great natural resources of plants and animals. Now they are being destroyed rapidly by witless people. They are cutting down many trees for building and short term financial gain. If the deforestation continues, tremendous problem will occur.

Arguments:

The deforestation causes the loss of incalculable species of plant and animal because rainforests are their usual habitats. Researcher estimates that at least 12 per cent of bird species in Amazon Basin and 15 per cent of plants in central and South America are now extinct. If the deforestation continues, nearly half the world's plant and animal species will become extinct. To prevent the horrific consequence, people had to stop deforestation.

The loss of rainforests means the loss of fresh air. Rainforests absorb carbon dioxide, a greenhouse gas, by the process called photosynthesis and they give us oxygen, which is useful for human beings. Moreover oxygen keeps balancing toward the climate of the earth, which is called ozone. It absorbs and prevents heat from outside into the earth. If we destroy rainforests, it means we destroy the source of oxygen.

Conclusion:

Rainforests give us a lot of potential benefits. If we lost them, it means that we lost the important resources. Besides, the considerable problems would happen. We, therefore, should stop deforestation.

(adapted from Sarawut's text, Khon Kaen University, January 1998)

Based on the work of Martin and Rothery (1981) and Rothery (1986), the generalised generic structure of the Exposition genre is:

Thesis ^ Argument N ^ (Conclusion)

In this structure, ‘Thesis’ is the part of the text in which the writer states his/her position taken on the issue and ‘Argument’ is concerned with information provided to justify that position. The symbol ^ indicates that the element at the left of the symbol precedes that to its right. The sign ‘N’ means that this part of the text can be repeated. Finally, ‘Conclusion’ is the part of the text where the ‘Thesis’ and ‘Arguments’ can be briefly restated. However, Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) point out that use of this part is optional.

Elaboration on this generic structure has been put forward by such linguists as Derewianka (1990), Gerot and Wignell (1994) and Gerot (1995). They state that the ‘Thesis’ usually consists of the ‘Position’ which introduces the topic and gives the writer’s position, and the ‘Preview’, where the writer briefly outlines arguments presented to justify the writer’s position. ‘Arguments’ include the ‘Point’ to be argued, and the ‘Elaboration’ (or supporting details) where each ‘Point’ and ‘Argument’ is developed and supported. ‘Conclusion’ (or Reiteration) is the part in which the writer sums up the arguments and reinstates his/her position. This version of generic structure has been adopted in my research.

According to Martin (1985) and Martin and Peters (1985), there are two Exposition genres: Hortatory and Analytical. Of these, the Hortatory Exposition (or ‘persuading *to*’) endeavours to persuade the readers to do what the thesis recommends. Such aims are normally found in editorials, letters to the editor, sermons, and political speeches and debates. The second, Analytical Exposition (or ‘persuading *that*’), usually tries to persuade the readers that some judgment is correct. Examples are typically found in lectures, seminars, tutorials, essay writing and some examination answers. However, in the teaching unit upon which this research is based I did not emphasise the distinction between these two types of Exposition because I was already introducing a whole new approach of writing to students and I felt I needed to devote sufficient time to help students to get a sense of how arguments unfold.

In order to be able to write the Exposition effectively, the writer needs also to have control of language features peculiar to the genre because the choice of language features realises the stages of the genre (Matthews 1995; Butt et al 2000). As I did not emphasise the distinction between Hortatory and Analytical Expositions, the review of language features will be concerned with language features of written Exposition in general. These include the use of:

- generalised participants;
- a variety of processes;
- present tense;
- passives;
- technical terms; and
- causal conjunctions.

Exposition typically includes **generalised participants** – a whole group of human and non-human participants such as *rainforests*, *plants* or *animals* (Martin and Peters 1985; Derewianka 1990). However, specific participants, referring to specific phenomena can also be used depending on the purpose of the text (Butt et al 2000). As the above text illustrates, some specific participants (eg. *carbon dioxide* and *photosynthesis*) are used to provide evidence supporting Sarawut’s arguments for saving rainforests. In addition, the participants are most frequently realised by **nominal groups**, a group of word modifying the noun headword eg. *the loss of rainforests* and *the source of oxygen*. The notion of ‘nominal group’ is discussed further in 4.12.

Exposition uses a variety of processes that are realised as verbs. These are summarised below.

Table 4.1 Process types featured in the Exposition

Process Types	Functions
- Relational	- Establish the relationship between participants and other participants or their circumstances. This involves the use of verbs <i>to be</i> and <i>to have</i> eg. <i>rainforests <u>are</u> great natural resources of plants and animals</i> and <i>we <u>will have</u> no trees to absorb CO₂, and greenhouse gas.</i>
- Material	- Describe how things <i>happen</i> or what the participants <i>do</i> eg. <i>rainforests <u>are being destroyed</u></i> and <i>rainforests <u>absorb</u> carbon dioxide.</i>
- Existential	- Express processes of <i>being</i> eg. <i>There <u>are</u> many kinds of plants and animals in rainforest</i> and <i>As a result, a higher level, a lot of new diseases and coasts flood <u>would happen</u>.</i>
- Mental	- Express what the participants think, feel or see eg. <i>The scientists <u>predict</u> that the next century the world's temperature will increase between 1 degree and 3.5 degrees</i> and <i>For example, presently people hardly <u>see</u> Orangutan, Aye-aye, and Lumur.</i>
- Verbal	- Express what the participants say eg. <i>This process <u>is called</u> greenhouse effect</i> and <i>Moreover, the World Health Organisation <u>said</u> that it will bring epidemics such as Malaria, Yellow Fever and Haemorrhagic fever.</i>

Overt expression of the writer's personal feelings, attitudes and experience is discouraged in writing the Exposition because it is concerned with rational interpretation of the world (Martin 1985; Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW 1994). Therefore, mental and verbal processes are usually used impersonally (Martin and Peters 1985). This device lends the statement the authority of an abstraction or generalisations rather than a simple personal expression. Martin and Peters (1985:65) add that:

the writer can express her/his attitude in the environment of a causal conjunctive relation: attitude is expressed in conjunction with the reason for holding that attitude. Overt expression of the writer's attitude must be defended. Reasons must be given for holding a belief.

Exposition is usually expressed in the present **tense** because it is concerned with generalised phenomena. It records actions or thoughts that are continuing or repeated, with some expectation that they will continue in the future. It is less concerned with the single event or a particular time or place (Christie 1984; Derewianka 1990, 1998). However, other tenses can also be used where the timing of the text changes. For example, if the writer refers to the historical background of the issue then the past tense will be used, and if s/he make forecasts, then the future tense is appropriate (Derewianka 1990). In addition, **passives** may be frequently used to remove human agents and allow the writer to organise information differently. This will be discussed further in section 4.12.

The function of Exposition is to argue and convince, so the realisation of cause and effect is important (Martin 1985). Causal **conjunctions** establish this relationship. Other conjunctions such as temporal and additional are also used as they enable the text to link logically and cohesively (Knapp and Watkins 1994; Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program 1989).

Table 4.2 Conjunctions featured in the Exposition

Conjunctions	Functions
- Causal	- To express causal relations between clause eg. <i>if rainforests are destroyed and so rainforests are disappeared.</i>
- Temporal	- To sequence arguments in order of the importance, not time eg. <i>Firstly, animal and plant species will become extinct and Finally, the earth's climate will change.</i>
- Additional	- To add new information eg. <i>Moreover the ice-covered areas will melt and Furthermore, the loss of rainforests means the loss of food, drinks, and natural products.</i>

The examples above include both ‘internal’ and ‘external’ conjunctions. This issue is taken up later in 4.12.

Because Exposition emphasises objectivity of language, it tends to include a number of **technical terms** implicit in the subject matter. Writers can assume that target readers have similar specialist, topic-specific vocabularies, allowing for precision and hence clarity. Technical terms used in well-written Exposition increase the efficiency of the medium for communication. The use of technical terms also enables members of some specialist disciplines to share knowledge efficiently and precisely (Derewianka 1990, 1998).

The text structure and some lexico-grammatical features of the Exposition, central to my analysis of the impact of the genre-based approach on students’ writing, are included in the Exposition teaching unit discussed below. The results of the analysis will be presented in Chapter 6.

4.9 The Exposition Teaching Unit

The development of the Exposition teaching unit was in accordance with the four-stage version of the Teaching-Learning Cycle developed by Burns and Joyce (cited in Hammond et al 1992) as an extension of Callaghan and Rothery's (1988) by Hammond et al (1992), as discussed earlier, in 3.8. As I was based in Australia, the unit was constructed prior to my return to Thailand. Activities associated with each stage of the Cycle are summarised below (the complete version of the Exposition teaching unit is in Appendix 1)

Stage 1 – Building Up the Field Knowledge: My aim here was to teach students the Exposition genre through the subject of 'rainforests'. I deliberately chose 'rainforests' because the teaching unit was designed when I was in Australia. I did not have the opportunity to negotiate with students about a subject in which they might be interested. In Thailand, English is taught as a foreign language (EFL). Students have limited access to English in their daily life. In order to teach students English, it is necessary to bring English materials to the classroom. I considered that 'rainforests' might be of interest to students because this is a global issue and it is relevant to students' real life situation because Thailand has rainforests and the country is facing a deforestation problem. Before I left Australia I was able to prepare a range of written and graphic resource materials to distribute to students both as motivation and as a 'starter kit' before they started to write their own text about the topic. In addition, they had access to extensive resources in English and Thai to do more research about the topic outside the classroom. Students' reactions to that topic are discussed in Chapter 5.

To enable students to research information about 'rainforests' as well as to practise language skills, a variety of activities were included.

(i) Brainstorming: My purpose was to activate students' own experience and existing knowledge about 'rainforests'.

I asked students to work in small groups and think about 'rainforests'. I advised them to write down any words or ideas that come into their minds. After that, I asked students to

share their ideas with the class. Based on students' contributions, I drew up semantic webs on the whiteboard. This was to help students build up associations of words and ideas and construct a bank of information about the field.

(ii) Dictagloss: In this activity, a short text (in this case, concerning 'rainforests') was read out at normal speed to students. They jotted down the key words or phrases and then reconstructed their own passage with approximately the same meaning as the original but based their own understanding or gist of the text (National Professional Development Program 1996).

Rainforests are dense closed forests found in the areas where it rains regularly.

There are two main types. The first one is Tropical rainforests, located close to the equator where the climate is usually warm and wet all year round. Their largest areas are in the Amazon basin of South America, the Congo Basin of Africa and throughout much of Southeast Asia.

The second one is Temperate rainforests, growing in the higher latitude regions where the climate is wet and maritime-like. They cover the Northwest coast of North America, South coast of Chile, Southern Australia and New Zealand.

Rainforests are homes to a large number of plants and animal species. All are interdependent. If any part of them is harmed or destroyed, the rest would suffer too.

Through this activity, students had opportunities to use language in order to learn about rainforests by actively engaging in negotiation and construction processes

After I re-read the text, students worked in small groups to reconstruct the text which had approximately the same meanings to the original one.

(iii) Watching a Video Tape and Note Taking: This activity aimed to broaden students' knowledge about rainforests, particularly in Southeast Asia and Thailand and to enable them practise listening and summarising skills.

I showed the video tape “The monk, the trees and the concrete jungle – How to save the rainforests” (by Jonathon Porritt 1997), motivated by asking students to listen for the main ideas and note them. I then asked students to move from group to group and share their notes.

(iv) Oral Group Presentation: This was to enable students to develop language to talk about rainforests, aimed at assisting them to develop reading, listening and speaking skills and to promote a learning-independent process.

I asked students to form small groups. Each group was provided with articles for the same topic. These topics were: (i) rainforests and food products, (ii) rainforests and plant and animal species, (iii) rainforests and medicines, (iv) rainforests and rainfall and soil erosion, (v) rainforests and global warming, (vi) rainforests and indigenous people and their cultures. Students in each group presented information to their friends who noted down key words and issues. After the presentation, I encouraged students to discuss and reflect on their learning about rainforests and English language by asking questions such as:

- What did you learn from the presentation?
- Did you agree with what your friends said? Why? or Why not?
- What is the most important issue for you? Why?
- Did you learn any new terms?
- What do it/they mean?

I wrote students’ contributions on the whiteboard. These added to the bank of information constructed during the earlier activities in this first stage.

Stage 2 – Modeling of the Text: The purpose of this stage was to explicitly teach students the generic structure and language features of the Exposition so that they became aware how it is structured to achieve its purpose.

I distributed the model text 1 ‘Why should we conserve our forests?’ to students (see Appendix 1). Then, I asked them to respond to the following questions so that they understood the context of text:

- What is the text about?
- How do you know?
- Who would write a text?
- Why did he/she write it?
- Who do you think is the reader of the text?
- Where do you think you would find the text like this one?

After that, I asked students to analyse the overall organisation of the model text to find out what the writer did in order to present an argument:

- What did the writer do first, next and last?

Later, I asked students to look more closely at specific paragraph organisation:

- What does the *first* sentence of the first paragraph give information about?
- What does the *second* sentence of the first paragraph give information about?
- What does the last paragraph give information about?

To reinforce students’ understanding, I worked with them on the whiteboard to draw a schematic outline, summarising the generic structure of the Exposition, consisting of ‘Thesis Statement/Preview’, ‘Arguments’ and ‘Conclusion’.

Analysis of language features focused on four relevant features of the Exposition genre, namely participants, processes, tenses and conjunctions (see also 4.8) due to the time constraint. These language features were chosen because they are also common to the other genres that students were expected to learn over the semester.

I explained the definition of each language feature to students, providing them with examples. I asked them to re-read, individually, the model text and analyse it for each

language feature. They then worked in small groups to discuss their findings. At this early stage, I used the traditional terms *nouns* and *verbs* that students were familiar with instead of the corresponding lexico-grammatical terms *participants* and *processes* respectively. This was to allow students to concentrate on acquiring content knowledge rather than having to worry about learning the new terms. The two new lexico-grammatical terms (*participants* and *processes*) were introduced to students when they could be related to specific items of knowledge.

To enable students to gain greater understanding of the generic structure and language features of the Exposition, I provided them with the model texts #2 (Should rainforests be saved?) and #3 (Television – Harmful to Children) to analyse (See Appendix 1).

Stage 3 – Joint-Negotiation: To provide students with ‘first-hand’ experience to develop appropriate written language and with good model texts, students and I jointly constructed the Expositions.

Initially, I suggested to students in both classes that they wrote texts for the Joint-Negotiation stage on the “rainforests” topic. I thought that students would be able to use their knowledge about the topic and the required language skills to write texts successfully. As I had prepared a substantial amount of background information to augment students’ knowledge about rainforests, I thought I would be able to provide them with constructive advice about the way in which they could use this information to develop effective arguments. However, the “rainforests” topic drew strong criticisms from a number of students (see further discussion in 5.2). They insisted that they did not want to write joint-negotiation texts on this topic. Students in class 1 chose to write “Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?” and class 2 chose “The Advantages of the Amazing Thailand Campaign” respectively. I had not prepared any resource material for the “Amazing Thailand” topic but there was an abundance of it available from the Tourism Authority of Thailand, promoted heavily in the media.

At the time, I was concerned that if I asked students in both classes to write the whole texts jointly with me, it might take many hours to finish the Joint-Negotiation stage because we had spent time discussing the topics and negotiating information. I decided to ask students in each class to brainstorm about their chosen topics from their prior knowledge. I then asked them to form groups of 4-6 and to select an issue that they wanted to focus on and develop it into a paragraph. Each paragraph was to be featured as an ‘Argument’ in a complete text for each topic. To construct complete texts, students and I jointly wrote the ‘Thesis Statement/Preview’ and organised ‘Arguments’. Once these were complete, we were able to write the ‘Conclusion’.

Stage 4 – Independent Construction: The purpose of this stage was to enable students to practise their writing skills and demonstrate their understanding of the Exposition, I asked them independently, to write an essay on the topic ‘Should rainforests be saved?’ for approximately 200-250 words. Alternatively, students could choose to write texts on the topics that interested them. However, they had to research information by themselves. Due to the time constraint, all students wrote texts independently outside the classroom. My consultation was available to all of them by appointment.

In an attempt to provide sufficient opportunity to practise writing, students were allowed to submit three drafts for comments, with only their final drafts to be marked as part of the course assessment. I responded to students’ drafts in terms of their control of generic structure, use of language features relevant to the genre of Exposition and development of arguments, but only gave the grammatical structure of sentences lesser attention as they are not my primary focus.

Because the genre-based approach differs from the approaches favoured in previous writing courses, I anticipated that it would draw at least some positive and negative responses from students. Students’ responses are reviewed in Chapter 5.

The next section summarises what happened during the period of data collection and the nature and amount of collected data.

4.10 Data Collection

4.10.1 Period of Data Collection

In collecting the data, I spent one 14-week semester teaching two classes of the third year students enrolled in the Essay Writing course at the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University. Students could enrol in either class at their convenience; the timetable for class 1 ran on Monday and Wednesday at 9.00 – 10.00 a.m. and class 2 on Tuesday and Thursday at 11.00 – 12.00 a.m. Initially, the duration of the course was supposed to be 16 weeks (or 32 period hours a semester). However, Public Holidays and social events, including the King's Birthday, Constitution Day, Commencement, mid-term examination week, Charity Day and New Year's holidays, disrupted the classes. In practice the course lasted only 14 weeks (or 28 period hours for the semester).

I attempted to teach both classes the unit on 'rainforests' as similarly as possible, working from the same lesson plan to repeat the sequence of the same activities, as well as applying the same criteria for evaluation. As the genre of Exposition was the primary focus of the research, it consumed most teaching time, about 15 hours for each class. The remaining teaching hours were spent on the Discussion, Description and Narrative genres and on those activities related specifically to the research, including questionnaire administration, short essay writing at the beginning of the semester and explanation about the research.

As both the teacher and researcher, while I was teaching in each class I was also systematically observing and documenting data. The amount, purposes and data collection techniques are discussed in the following section.

4.10.2 The Data

The amount of collected data from both classes was extensive. This is summarised in the following table:

Table 4.3 Summary of the collected data

Data	Quantity
1. Questionnaires	45
2. Photocopies of students' written texts at the beginning of the semester	42
3. Photocopies of students' written texts on the Exposition, Discussion, Description and narrative genres:	
3.1 Exposition	
- Draft 1	34
- Draft 2	31
- Final Draft	34
3.2 Discussion	
- Draft 1	37
- Final Draft	45
3.3 Description	
- Draft 1	43
- Final Draft	45
3.4 Narrative	
- Draft 1	38
- Final Draft	45
4. Photocopies of students' final exam written texts	
- Should smoking be banned in public places?	39
- Should Khaodin Zoo be renovated?	6
5. Students' diaries	38 note books
6. Observation notes made by an observer during the lessons	2 note books
7. Observation notes made by myself after the lessons	2 note books
8. Audio-recordings of the classroom language	approximately 56 hours (2x28)

9. Audio-recordings of the informal discussion between students and myself at the end of the semester	approximately 15 hours
10. Related e-mail messages between my supervisor, Associate Professor Jennifer Hammond, and myself	10

(i) Questionnaires: My purpose in administering the questionnaires was to gain general information about students before they began their studies in this course. The questionnaires, written in Thai so that there could be no misunderstandings, were administered in the first class hour of both classes (after a brief explanation about the research). They consisted of five sections: students' biographical data; their current English practices; their perceptions of good English teaching; their perceptions about their own English learning, writing and future English writing practices; and their purposes and goals in learning English (See Appendix 3). The results from the questionnaires are presented in section 4.5.

(ii) Photocopies of students' texts written at the beginning of the semester: In the second hour of the semester, I asked students to write an essay to express their views on the topic 'Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?'

The data obtained from their written texts enabled me to make an initial assessment of their English writing proficiency prior to studying in the course. These written texts allowed me to compare and contrast students' written texts on the Exposition genre both before and after they had been taught by the genre-based approach. The linguistic analysis of these data provided insightful information on how the approach impacted on students' writing performance over a period of time.

It should be noted that the topic 'Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?' was chosen because at that time the Faculty, of Humanities and Social Sciences had announced the policy that the students in the Faculty would continue to be required to wear uniforms to the classroom and this generated considerable discussion among the students.

(iii) Photocopies of students' written texts on the Exposition, Description, Discussion and Narrative genres: During the semester, students were required to write 200-250 word essays to practise their writing skills and demonstrate their understanding of all four of the genres of Exposition, Discussion, Description, and Narrative although little time was spent teaching the genres of Discussion, Description and Narrative. All students' drafts of all genres were photocopied and collected. However, only the final drafts of their Expositions (for the total of 34 out of 45) were used for detailed linguistic analysis to shed light on the impact of the genre-based approach (see Chapter 6).

(iv) Photocopies of students' final exam written texts: In accordance with the requirement of the Department, students were required to undertake a final exam at the end of the semester. In preparing the examination question, I decided to focus only on Exposition because it was the genre that was taught in most detail.

I asked students to write a 200-250 word Exposition on one of the following topics: 'Should smoking be banned in the public places?' and 'Should Khaodin Zoo (the biggest and oldest zoo in Thailand, located in Bangkok) be renovated?' All students were given reading articles for each topic (three medium length and two long articles, both in English and Thai, for the former topic and three long articles in Thai for the latter) so that they could read, develop their understanding about the topic and use some information to develop their argument. The exam lasted three hours.

(v) Students' diaries: To gain insights into students' opinions and perceptions of the genre-based approach, at the end of each lesson I asked students to write diaries in English to reflect and comment critically about the activities which they had learnt in the classroom. I provided them with guided questions to focus their written responses. The questions were:

- What activities have you done? What did you understand was the purpose of these activities?
- Do you think the activities achieve their purposes? How?

- Do you think the activities are relevant to your English learning purposes? If so, how?
- What aspects of the teaching process or activities do you like/ don't you like?
- What aspects of the teaching process or activities are useful/ not useful for you?
- Did you enjoy learning these activities?

Although I was primarily concerned with students' reflections and comments about the activities presented to them in the classroom, students were encouraged to write about other matters which interested them as well. This was to make students feel at ease in writing their diaries. As students were required to write and submit their entries every week, this served students as a regular, informal and un-graded way to practise their writing as well.

Students were informed that I would not correct grammar or spelling, but would respond to their reflections and comments and answer any questions they raised. The diaries were a dialogue between them and myself and were confidential.

(vi) Observation notes made by an observer during the lessons: The observer's role was to take notes of relevant features to the classroom practices such as what I wrote on the whiteboard, the activities which I presented to students and students' responses to my instructions and questions. The notes were used as reminders of what happened in the classroom and assisted in the interpretation of classroom practices.

Although the observer could not take notes of all lessons in both classes because of some of her personal commitments and a brief absence due to her sickness, her observation notes did cover most of the lessons.

(vii) Observation notes made by myself after the lessons: After each class, I took notes about the activities that I had taught and commented on students' reactions to them as well as the classroom atmosphere in general. My observation notes were used for the same purpose as the observer's observation notes. The cross-checking of my

recollections after the class with the observer's notes provided valuable information which helped to minimise the possible problems in the researcher-as-teacher situation.

(viii) Audio-recordings of the classroom language: Throughout the semester, each session was audio-recorded, mainly for the interaction between the whole class and me. I also attempted, as far as possible, to record the interaction between students, particularly when they participated in group and pair work. In each class, I asked two students to record their participation in activities with their classmates.

The recordings provided backup data which other data collection methods may have missed or overlooked. The transcription analysis assisted my understanding of the teaching-learning processes in the classroom. In addition, the recordings constituted another way in which I attempted to separate the roles of researcher from teacher.

(ix) Audio-recordings of informal discussions between students and myself at the end of the semester: Close to the end of the semester, an informal small group discussion was held to elicit participating students' opinions and attitudes about the differences between the Essay Writing course and other writing courses, and their opinions towards the genre-based approach. The students were asked to respond honestly to a set of structured questions:

- How does the Essay Writing I course differ from other writing courses such as Practice in Writing 1 and 2?
- What aspects of the genre-based approach do you consider most helpful for your writing? Why?
- What aspects of the genre-based approach do you consider least helpful for your writing? Why?
- Does the genre-based approach help you to learn to write better? How?
- Will you study in other writing courses in which the teachers also use the genre-based approach in their teaching? Why?

The discussion, which lasted about an hour and was audio-recorded, was carried out in Thai and in a friendly atmosphere so that students felt comfortable with the discussion and could express their opinions and attitudes freely.

(x) Related e-mail messages between my supervisor and myself: While I was carrying out the research at the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen University, I kept in touch with my supervisor, Associate Professor Jennifer Hammond, via e-mail. The exchange of messages recorded my responses to students' reactions towards the genre-based approach and my supervisor's advice for my implementation of the approach. These exchanges helped me to reflect on my teaching experiences and to gain insights into students' interaction in the classroom to ensure that the research process was on track.

There were a number of reasons for collecting a large amount of data. Some of the data were collected because they were an ordinary part of the course assessment required by the Department, such as the photocopies of students' written texts on the Discussion, Description, and Narrative genres and for final exams. Secondly, the research took place in Thailand and I was based in Australia. Once I had returned to Australia, it was impossible for me to collect more data in the same classroom. In accordance with the 'emic' perspective of ethnographic inquiry, it was vitally important that data was generated and interpreted from the participants' perspective so that their view of reality could be represented (van Lier 1990; Allwright and Bailey 1991; Johnson 1992). Taking into consideration the principle of 'thick' data collection, it was essential to collect as much as possible in order to take decisions about what was important and what might be regarded as having some influence on the outcomes (Geertz 1973).

I found it difficult to teach and at the same time maintain a sufficiently objective view to research effectively. The teaching and learning processes and interaction in the classroom was dynamic and complicated, consisting of multiple levels which could not be sufficiently recorded by a single data collection method (van Lier 1988; Allwright and Bailey 1991). The combination of data enabled me to have a fuller and more realistic view of what actually happened in the classroom. It maximised my confidence

that the research findings were not simply artefacts of a particular, single data collection technique (Burns R.1990; Johnson 1992; Cohen and Manion 1994). It was not envisaged that every part of the data would be discussed in detail in this thesis, but the richness of the data assured me that I would have sufficient for analysis and presentation and ultimately, the findings would have greater validity and reliability.

The next section explains approaches to data selection and analysis and how the data are presented in the thesis.

4.11 Data Analysis

In my exploration of the impact of the genre-based approach, I drew on two major approaches in analysis of data. These approaches are summarised in the following table.

Table 4.4 Data and analysis approaches

Data	Analysis Approaches
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students' diaries; - Audio-recordings of the classroom language; - Audio-recordings of the informal discussion; - My own and an observer's observation notes; - Relevant e-mail messages between my supervisor and myself. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Content Analysis
Students' written texts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - beginning of the semester, - final drafts of the Exposition, and - the final exams. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Linguistic Analysis

Content analysis focuses on the identification of key words or ideas occurring frequently in the texts (eg. Ericson, Baranek and Chan 1987, 1989, 1991; Descombe 1998). However, Halliday and Hasan's work (1976, 1985) on lexical cohesion suggests that content analysis may be taken further by analysing the patterns of lexis, one of the major cohesive, text forming devices in English. Analysis of such patterns provides insights into the systematic ways in which meanings are constructed across interviews or survey responses.

Through the content analysis, I was able to select and summarise major issues emerging from the relevant data. The findings, which are presented in Chapter 5, informed students' reactions towards the genre-based approach and my reflections on my teaching experience. The findings provide insights into the extent to which the genre-based approach is suitable for the Thai educational context and into the ways in which pedagogical practices associated with the genre-based approach need to be modified.

The linguistic analysis was undertaken for two major reasons. As a teacher, I intended to investigate the extent to which the genre-based approach enabled students to write texts that approximated to the model Exposition. My analysis of students' texts drew directly on the description of the Exposition developed by Martin (1980, 1981) and others (eg. Rothery 1980, 1981; Martin and Peters 1985) as already described in 4.8. More specifically, the analysis focused on:

- students' control of the generic structure of the Exposition;
- students' control of language features specific to the Exposition. These included participants, processes, tenses, passives and technical terms.

Analysis of students' control of generic structure also enabled me to gain insights into the extent to which these Thai students' texts may be influenced by the delayed introduction of purpose typical of the Thai writing style (as already discussed in 3.2).

As a researcher, I aimed to find out if the genre-based program enabled students to develop as writers. I therefore carried out further linguistic analysis of students' development of arguments in order to see how students' texts have changed.

My analysis of students' development of arguments, which is crucial to the genre of Exposition (Martin 1985), drew on the aspects of the SFL theory developed by Halliday (1985, 1994) and others (eg. Halliday and Hasan 1985). These are listed and discussed further in the following section.

The outcomes of the analysis of students' development of arguments also enabled me to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their written texts. These will be presented in Chapter 6.

4.12 The Development of Arguments

I analysed the following language features to understand the extent to which students are able to develop arguments appropriate to the Exposition genre:

- thematic structure;
- grammatical metaphor (in the forms of nominalisations and nominal groups, and grammatical metaphor of reasoning through verbs, nouns and prepositions);
- use of passives; and
- use of internal and external conjunctions.

These differed from the language features that were included in the program that I actually taught (see also 4.9). I drew on the analysis listed above because it enabled me to gain insights into the development of students' texts and importantly, their development as writers. These features are described further below.

(a) Thematic Structure: The analysis in this research draws principally on the notions of Theme and Rheme initiated by the Prague school of linguists and further developed by Halliday (1985, 1994) and others (eg. Eggins 1994; Thompson 1996; Martin et al 1997). According to Halliday (1994), the meaning of a clause is constituted by two elements: Theme and Rheme. Theme refers to “the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is what the clause is going to be about” (1994:37). Rheme is the remainder of the message, the part in which the Theme is elaborated. In English, Theme is identified by the initial position in a clause (Halliday 1994; Eggins 1994; Thompson 1996; Martin et al 1997).

Investigation of the development of arguments contained in students' texts requires analysis of the Theme's relevance because, generally, the choice of Theme in an individual clause plays an important role in the organisation and development of information over the course of the whole text (Martin, Matthiessen and Painter 1997). In Exposition, the writer's choice of Theme can facilitate the way the ideas and arguments are organised and developed (Drury and Webb 1993). Expositions are factual writing, based in research rather than any one person's feelings, opinions or experience (Martin 1985; Derewianka 1990). In academic writing, the writer needs to be able to use language appropriate to the written mode (Martin 1985; Berry 1995; Gerot, 1995). The organisation of Theme is one way of achieving academic writing.

Theme can be classified into three types:

(i) Ideational or Topical Theme: When any experiential element which has a status in transitivity as a participant, circumstance or process, occurs in the first position in a clause, it is described as an Ideational or Topical Theme. Some examples of the Ideational or Topical Theme from my students' texts are:

- Participant as Theme:

Rainforest destruction	causes the greenhouse effect.
Topical Theme	Rheme

We	should save rainforest
Topical Theme	Rheme

- Circumstance as Theme:

In Thailand	there are less rainfall
Topical (Marked) Theme	Rheme

- Process as Theme:

Save	rainforests
Topical Theme	Rheme

(ii) Interpersonal Theme: An Interpersonal Theme contains interpersonal meaning as the following clauses illustrate:

Possibly,	rainforest plants	provide medicine for AIDS.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

Do	you	remember there is one statement “No dictatorship in Thailand”?
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

(iii) Textual Theme: The clause is related to its theme by the Textual Theme. The following clauses illustrate this.

if	rainforest	disappears
Textual	Topical	Rheme

In addition,	the topsoil	will be damaged.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

As a matter of fact,	most of the world’s 30 million known species	are in the rainforest areas.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Normally, the Thematic structure of each clause includes only one experiential element (ie. the Topical Theme). But, it is possible that it may be preceded by textual and/or interpersonal elements. These elements are also part of the Theme and then the Theme is referred to as a Multiple Theme. Typically, the sequencing of a Multiple Theme is Textual ^ Interpersonal ^ Topical; in any case, the experiential element comes last – anything following this is part of the Rheme (Halliday 1994; Thompson 1996).

For example:

because	the deforestation	causes bad phenomenal outcomes.
Textual	Topical	
Theme		Rheme

In my opinion,	I	like wearing uniform.
Interpersonal	Topical	
Theme		Rheme

but	sometimes	it	is more strict at the university
Textual	Interpersonal	Topical	
Theme			Rheme

In spoken language, multiple themes are normally used. These are realised through the sequencing of Textual and/or Interpersonal elements together with Topical ones. Note that Topical Themes in spoken language are normally realised through personal pronouns or names eg. *I*, *you* and *we*. Where these elements are not Thematised, a Topical Theme tends to be realised through a brief nominal group, referring either to specific participants (eg. *my friend* and *our country*) or a simple circumstantial expression (eg. *in the future* and *in my university*) (Eggins 1995; Gerot 1995). The following clauses illustrate these:

I	agree that students should wear uniform to the classroom
Topical	Rheme

In my opinion	I	don't agree with it
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

and	in my university	it is popular also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

On the other hand, in written language the Topical Theme predominates. It is commonly concerned with abstractions or generalisations about people, situations and causes, and is realised through nominalised elements or complex nominal groups (Eggins 1994; Gerot 1995). The terms 'nominalisation' and 'nominal group' will be discussed further in the next section.

Examples:

many kinds of plants and animals	are in danger
Theme	Rheme

the destruction of rainforests	causes the greenhouse effect
Topical	Rheme

In both examples the Theme is a complex nominal group “*many kinds of plants and animals*” and “*the destruction of rainforests*”. However, the second example is a nominalisation of the verb “*destroy*” (“*destruction*”).

In sum, analysis of thematic structure is relevant to my research because it enables me to investigate whether students have learned to develop arguments appropriate to the written Exposition.

(b) Grammatical Metaphor: According to Martin (1986), grammatical metaphor is extremely important in learning to write effectively, particularly in expository writing. He adds that the two most important forms of grammatical metaphor in factual writing are *nominalisation* and *reasoning*. Halliday (1994) argues that creation of a grammatical metaphor has as its most powerful, single source nominalisation, i.e. situations where meanings of words typically (congruently) realised by one type of language pattern are realised by other less typical (incongruent) linguistic choices. The following clause exemplifies this process:

soil *erosion*, greenhouse effect, and animal *extinction* are disastrous problems

The above clause shows that the processes *erode* and *extinct* have been nominalised as *erosion* and *extinction* respectively.

Eggs (1994) notes that *nominalisation* has two main textual advantages. Firstly, it enables the writer to organise text rhetorically. Through the nominalising process, concrete participants, such as people, usually disappear, or are replaced by abstract participants. This allows the writer to distance him/herself from the text, making it more abstract, impersonal, formal and authoritative, these being typical features of written expository text (Martin and Peters 1985; Knapp and Watkins 1994). Use of the nominalising process also allows the text to become more lexically dense, enabling the writer to pack more information into each clause, particularly through the *nominal group*. It consists of a series of words elaborating the noun headword (Gerot and Wignell 1994; Eggs 1994). Examples of the nominal group are:

rainforests
tropical rainforests
the burning of tropical rainforests

The above examples illustrate that a noun *rainforests*, a headword of the nominal group can be classified and described by other words which accompany it.

Another form of grammatical metaphor which is crucial to the development of arguments in expository writing is *the expression of reasoning* (Martin 1985, 1986). Typically, in spoken language, logical relations between clauses are expressed explicitly through causal conjunctions. For example, in the following clauses “if” is used to mark cause and effect.

If the trees are destroyed, many kinds of plants and animals are in danger.

However, in mature written Exposition these relations tend to be expressed through the use of grammatical resources other than conjunctions. These include prepositions, verbs and nouns (Martin 1985, 1986). The following clauses illustrate how the prepositional phrase *as a result of*, the verb *cause* and the noun *disadvantages* are used to express reasoning respectively:

- (a) *In Australia, for example, 23,000 people die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.*
- (b) *Smoking causes lung cancer.*
- (c) *Cigarette has many disadvantages.*

It should be noted that in (c) the noun ‘disadvantages’ is used to express reasoning. Using a conjunction, this version of (c) would come out as “Cigarette affects the health of smokers and may cause fire”

Gerot (1995, p.108) notes that through prepositions, verbs and nouns the writer is able to express reasoning within clauses rather than between them, in effect burying the reasoning. The reasoning becomes “less transparent and less easily refuted”.

Analysis of grammatical metaphor in students' texts provides insights into their developing control of written language. With analysis of Theme, it also provides insights into students' abilities to organise arguments and present evidence to support those arguments.

(c) Use of Passives: In a written Exposition, *passives*, as mentioned in 4.5, may be frequently used because they enable different elements of clauses to be located at the Theme position (Martin 1985; Butt et al 1995, 2000). To illustrate this:

Firstly, if rainforest is destroyed, the water cycle will be affected.

The above example shows that by using 'passives' the words *rainforest* and *the water cycle* are Thematised and can therefore become part of the rhetorical pattern developed in the text. The confidence with which students use passives in their texts is another indication of the development of their writing skills.

(d) Use of Internal and External Conjunctions: Realising textual meanings of text, *internal* conjunctions are more commonly used in written text than *external* conjunctions (Eggins 1994). *External conjunctions* are used to relate events which happen in the real world situation, but *internal conjunctions* link the writer's ideas within a text (Drury and Gollin 1986; Martin 1992; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Eggins 1994). Martin (1992) notes that the mature writer uses *internal* conjunctions both to organise the argument and to provide links that build the schematic structure of a text. Examples of these conjunctions in students' texts are:

External Conjunctions:

because	trees	give them food and home
Textual	Topical	Rheme

and	the heat	will be kept in the earth so much
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Internal Conjunctions:

In addition,	rainforests	are home of many species of plants and animals
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Finally,	rainforests	play major role in regulating the climate
Textual	Topical	Rheme

It should be noted that the distinction of external and internal conjunctions is not always clear-cut. However, I include both in my analysis to illustrate that there are differences in the way in which students use conjunctions.

The following list, adapted from Martin (1992), is a useful summary of external and internal conjunctions:

	<u>Distinctive Internal</u> ¹	<u>External/internal: "Cohesive"</u> ²	<u>Paratactic</u> ³	<u>Hypotactic</u> ⁴
Additive				
addition:	Moreover, In addition	And	and	besides
alternation	Alternatively	Or	or	if not ... then
Comparative				
similarity:	Equally, That is	Likewise	so^ Finite	like, as, as if, like when
contrast:	On the other hand	In contrast, Instead	but	whereas, except that

Figure continued overleaf.

Temporal				
simultaneous:	At the same time	Meanwhile, Throughout	and meanwhile	while, when, as long as
successive:	Finally, At first	Previously, Thereupon	then	after, since, now that
Consequential				
purpose:	To this end	To this end	modulation + so	so that, lest, so as, in case
condition:	Then	Then, Otherwise	modality + so	if, even if, unless
consequence:	In conclusion, After all	Therefore For	so	because, as, since
concession:	Nevertheless, Admittedly	However, Yet	but	although, in spite of
manner:	In this way	Thus	and thus	by, thereby

1. Examples of conjunctions which cannot be external are given where possible (exceptions: *in this way, then, to this end*)
2. Examples of “cohesive” (ie. inter-sentence) conjunctions limited to those which can be clause complex initial.
3. Examples of paratactic conjunctions limited to those which allow a branching structure (ie. ellipsis within the clause complex: *John arrived but Mary didn't.*)
4. Examples of hypotactic conjunctions limited to those introducing clauses that can be either Theme or Rheme in the clause complex.

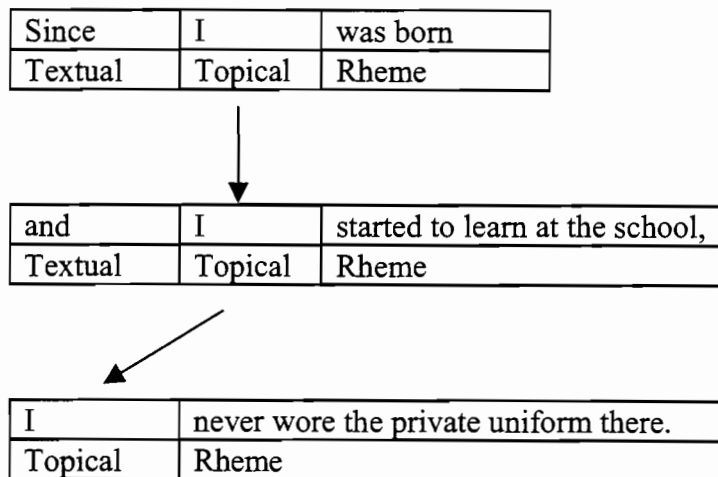
Figure 4.1 A summary of external and internal conjunctions (Martin 1992:179)

To conclude, analysis of students’ choice of Theme, and their use of grammatical metaphor, passive voice and conjunctions enabled me to assert more about students’ developing control of arguments and their writing skills.

4.14 Implications for Understanding Students’ Development as Writers

By analysing students’ choice of theme, grammatical metaphor and conjunctions, I was able to explore the method of development in students’ texts. The method of development refers to the way Topical Theme develops over the course of the whole

text, and can also be related to the *mode* variable of text (Eggins 1994). In spoken language, the typical method of development is Theme *re-iteration* in which some elements are Thematised consistently (Eggins 1994; Fries 1995). The repetition of the same elements enables the speaker to keep a clear focus within the text. However, constant reiteration is equally problematical. The listener will rapidly lose interest in a text that does not appear to have anything new to offer. Since Theme is the point of departure of the message, a repetitive Theme means that the message always departs from the same place but the ‘new’ information introduced in Rheme will not be picked up. Spoken language is, by nature, both dynamic and unplanned, and thus the Theme’s pattern tends to shift rapidly. This rapid shifting is usually within a limited range of items, most of which are personal pronouns eg. *you, I, she, he, we* and *they* (Eggins 1994). The following is example of Theme re-iteration:



In written language, thematic progression is used differently. There are two major patterns of the thematic progression: the *zigzag* and *multiple-Theme* (Eggins 1994). In the *zig-zag* pattern, the information introduced in the Rheme in the prior clause is picked up and made Theme of the following clause. Text cohesion in this pattern is achieved by building on newly introduced information. Thus, a sense of cumulative development is given which may be absent if the spoken language’s repeated theme pattern is transferred into writing (Eggins 1994; Fries 1995).

Also,	it (deforestation)	increases the amount of carbon dioxide, <<the greenhouse gas>>, in the atmosphere.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

The greenhouse gas	causes the greenhouse effect, increasing the global warming about 1 – 3.5°C (2-6° F) each year.	
Topical	Rheme	

The consequence	is the polar ice will melt that becomes a big problem in the next century.	
Topical	Rheme	

In the multiple-Theme pattern, a number of different ideas introduced in the Rheme of one clause are realised as Theme of subsequent clauses. This pattern is commonly used in expository texts (Eggins 1994; Fries 1995; Gerot 1995). Because no example of the multiple-Theme pattern occurred in my students' texts, I illustrate this aspect with an example from Eggins (1994:304-5).

The three main reasons babies cry	are hunger, cold, and illness.
Topical	Rheme

Hunger	can be determined by considering when the baby was last fed.
Topical	Rheme

Babies	feel cold more acutely than we do and the smaller the baby, the more warmly it should be wrapped up.
Topical	Rheme

Finally, sickness or pain	may also be signalled by crying ...
Topical	Rheme

Butt et al (2000) argue that the effective use of thematic development enables the writer to organise information which flows thematically through the whole text. The reader can follow the text purposefully.

In sum, the value of analysing students' method of development is to indicate that they are able to organise information thematically as expected of the written Exposition.

4.15 Conclusion

In this chapter I have discussed the context in which this research took place. I chose the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University partly because of my personal contact and partly because I was familiar with their courses. The existing Essay Writing course required students to practise writing extended texts for different purposes, in line with the general thrust of the genre-based approach. The purpose of the research is to consider the value of the genre-based approach itself, not to compare it to existing teaching approaches. More significantly, the research intends to consider how any implementation of the genre-based approach may need to be modified to suit the Thai university circumstances. I argued that the instrument most appropriate for this research is the ethnographic-case study, requiring qualitative evaluation of data collected in the real context of ordinary classrooms. I focused on the Exposition genre, which is not widely taught in the Thai context but highly valued in Western education. The Exposition contains many of the language features that students had been required to learn in the existing Essay Writing course. I collected a great deal of data from many sources in order to triangulate the findings and to maximise validity and reliability.

Analysis of the data used content and linguistic analysis. Content analysis is concerned with the identification of repeated patterns of ideas or major themes. Both helped me to interpret students' reactions towards the genre-based approach. I was able to consider these alongside my reflections on my own teaching experience. Linguistic analysis drew directly on Martin's (1980, 1981, 1985) description of the genre of Exposition, necessary to investigate the extent to which the genre-based program impacted students' writing. Further linguistic analysis of the development of arguments was also carried out to observe change in the way in which students organised and developed

information supporting their position, which is central to the Exposition. The findings assisted me to assess how the genre-based approach affected the students' developing writing skills. In addition, I analysed the grammatical 'accuracy' of sentences as grammatical accuracy is regarded as an important factor for successful writing, especially in Thailand.

In the next two chapters, I detail the outcomes from analysis of data collected in this research. Students' reactions towards the genre-based approach and my reflections on my own teaching experience are described in Chapter 5. The various ways in which the genre-based approach impacted on students' written texts is examined in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

REACTIONS AND REFLECTIONS

5.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this, the first of two chapters where I present findings from my analysis of data, I summarise students' reactions towards the genre-based approach. I also explore my reflections on my own teaching experience with a view to identifying the major issues emerging from both students' reactions and my reflections.

As indicated in 4.10.2, the collected data for this research are extensive. This chapter draws on the following:

Table 5.1 A summary of the data used in the analysis

Types of Data	Quantity
1. Students' diaries	38
2. Audio-recordings of the informal discussion between students (42 of them) and myself	15 hours
3. Audio-recordings of the Exposition lessons of both classes 1 and 2	36 hours (2x 18)
4. E-mail exchanges with my supervisor	10
5. Observation notes made by an observer	2 note books
6. Observation notes made by myself	2 note books

It should be noted that all 45 students from both classes 1 and 2 initially agreed to participate in the research project. At the end of the semester, seven students decided not to submit their diaries because some of them had included matters unrelated to the genre-based approach, while others had not maintained their diaries. The informal discussion was carried out at the end of the semester and three students decided not to participate.

The data in Table 5.1 were selected for the analysis for the following reasons:

(i) Students' diaries enabled me to gain insights into the formative changes in students' reactions towards the teaching-learning processes, classroom activities and classroom management style associated with the genre-based approach as the course progressed.

(ii) Audio-recordings of the informal discussion between students and myself at the end of the semester provided me with students' opinions about the differences between my genre-based approach Essay Writing course, and the writing courses that these students had completed in their first and second years at university, namely Practice Writing I and II. It was my view that information from the audio-recordings would reveal summative changes in students' attitudes to the courses. I sought students' views on:

- the most helpful stage(s) of the Teaching-Learning Cycle for assisting students in their writing development;
- the least helpful stage;
- whether the approach helps students to write better; and
- whether students would choose to study in other genre-based writing courses.

(iii) Audio-recordings of the Exposition lessons were a back-up and were recorded to help me to remember, understand and reflect on the way in which I carried out the lessons. In particular, I used them to recall the patterns of interactions in the classroom, rather than them being the central focus of analysis.

(iv) The related e-mail messages between my supervisor, Associate Professor Jennifer Hammond, and myself reminded me of the issues which I encountered while I was carrying out the research at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University and the way in which I responded to those issues.

(v) The observation notes made by an observer and myself allowed me to cross-check the activities in the classroom as interpreted by an independent person. My own observation notes were an aid to recalling my comments about the various activities and students' responses in the classroom at the time.

Analysis of all data drew primarily on content analysis; that is, the data were initially analysed to identify the recurring themes and major issues emerging from students' reactions towards the genre-based approach and my reflections on my teaching.

A summary of students' reactions and my reflections is provided at the end of the chapter. Implications for future use of the genre-based approach are discussed in Chapter 7.

5.2 Students' Reactions Towards the Genre-based Approach

This part focuses on students' reactions towards the genre-based approach. It begins with their overall reactions and goes on to discuss their reactions at each stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle. Then, the more general issues emerging from their reactions will be detailed. These issues include the order of presentation of stages within the Teaching-Learning Cycle, the importance of writing practice, the importance of negotiating the choice of topic, the challenge of writing the Exposition, and the issue of learner independence.

5.2.1 Students' Overall Reactions Towards the Genre-based Approach and Their Reactions at Each Stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle

As I have previously argued in 4.7, the genre-based approach differs from the approaches which have been traditional in writing courses at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University. It was anticipated that when students were invited to comment on this new, and different approach, a range of controversial reactions would be expressed. In part, it was thought that simply because the genre-based approach was new it could offer challenges to some students and disturb the equilibrium of others, but it was also considered that the new approach might appeal to a wider cross-section of students.

Students provided a great deal of evidence that the genre-based approach was a good way of teaching, particularly at the end of the semester, although they initially expressed some resistance.

For some (7 of 42) students, the genre-based program brought them a new, systematic and challenging learning experience. For example, Burin wrote:

... I got many things from this course and I think it'll have many advantages for my work... I think the English course here are not complicated and I think we should have more teacher like you that try to bring the new thing to us. It's good way to improve English (22/1/98).

The view that previous courses had not been sufficiently demanding was one that was expressed by a number of other students, as Nirund wrote:

This course is systematic. I know what am studying and why (4/2/98).

Note that Nirund added the extra dimension that he considered his understanding of the reasons given for the genre-based approach stage to be important.

Sawitree supports the notion of "... system ..." which, in this context, supports the opinion expressed by Burin. Sawitree describes her change from opposition, through resistance, to final acceptance of the genre-based approach over the 14 weeks of the course.

This class was a great one. At first, I didn't like it much but right to the very end I enjoy it. I felt lucky myself because I and my peers got to be the 1st one to study in the system like this (Sawitree, 13/11/97).

The majority of students (30 of 42) found that the genre-based program had worthwhile effects on their learning experience. Generally, they reasoned that the program not only enabled them to know 'how' to write, but also to write texts better:

In this class I learn how to write and how to do. A lot of things, a lot of knowledges and I got it (Wanee, 2/12/97).

... I know many things about writing... Finally, I want to tell you that "Thanks a lot for your teaching. I got a lot of knowledge from you" (Tipa, 5/2/98).

I think that there are many benefits, which I get from this course. I think that a new knowledge that I get, it's very necessary for the writing course. I find the way to write the essay and how I can write it better (Pattama, 27/1/98).

I got a lot from your class ... I did learn how to write it properly (Jirayut, 1/2/98).

Students' view that the genre-based approach helped them to write better is supported by analysis of their Expositions. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

This sample of comments, apart from the good feelings they generated in me, offered the reassurance that the implementation of genre-based approach had achieved the desired outcome. They also indicated that as students had become more familiar and confident with the genre-based approach their responses become more positive.

Students were asked to record and express their private views in their diaries at each stage of the Teaching - Learning Cycle (see 3.8). The informal discussion carried out at the end of the semester revealed students' different opinions about each stage of this Cycle. When they were asked to nominate the most useful stage of the Cycle for their writing from this experience, the majority of them ranked the Modelling of Text as most useful and Joint Negotiation as the least useful stage. Six of the 42 students, who participated in the informal discussion, said that all stages were useful. Despite the fact that students nominated one stage as the most useful in the Teaching-Learning Cycle, most considered that the activities in other stages were also beneficial to them. Table 5.2 summarises students' reactions towards each stage of the Cycle.

Table 5.2 Positive responses to the Teaching-Learning Cycle – Students' views

Stages	Number of Students
Building up the field knowledge	22 of 42
Modelling of Text	31 of 42
Joint-Negotiation	9 of 42
Independent Construction	38 of 42
Total number of students participating in the informal discussion	42

The Modelling of Text stage was regarded as the most useful stage possibly because it met students' expectations of what a writing course should be, based on their limited prior experience. It enabled students to learn 'how' to write. The Independent

Construction stage was attractive to those students who valued the importance of writing practice. By contrast, the Building Up the Field Knowledge and Joint-Negotiation stages appeared to be resisted by students because they were completely new and were outside their experience and expectations (see further discussion in 5.3).

To analyse students' reactions, extracts from their diaries and transcripts of the informal discussion between students and myself will be referred to and discussed. The term "Ajarn" (a pronoun for a teacher or lecturer in Thai) which regularly appears in the extracts refers to myself. The pseudonyms "Mr Tana" and "Mr James" refer to the lecturers of Practice Writing I and II courses respectively, both these courses having been completed as prerequisites by students in the present study.

(a) Building up the field knowledge stage: As indicated earlier, the purpose of this stage was to help students to become familiar with and to have sufficient knowledge of rainforests. To achieve these purposes, students were expected to participate in the following activities: brainstorming, dictagloss, watching a video tape and note-taking and group presentation (see 4.9 for detail).

Approximately half of the students (22 of 42) responded positively towards the Field-Building activities. Of these, six noted that the activities enabled them to share ideas and get information about rainforests from their friends. To quote Siree:

Diagram of rainforest make me know about rainforest better... This activity (brainstorming) is useful and interesting for us. We feel good when we can share our opinion or our idea to another person. And we enjoy with this teaching more than teaching in the book or the lesson because I think it is very boring. Moreover I think nowadays the student should participate with their class or their friends to share idea (Siree, 3/11/97).

Siree's reactions are significant in that they acknowledge that it is necessary to undertake some research before being able to write on an issue that generated some discussion amongst other students. Her reactions also suggest she enjoyed social learning – an issue that provoked different views amongst some other students.

For 11 of these students, the Field-Building activities were useful because they provided opportunities to learn about rainforests as well as to practise macro skills (ie. speaking, listening, reading and writing skills). In addition, the activities enabled students to develop self-directed learning. Extracts such as the following express these views.

... "Dictagloss" practices my skill both listening and writing. I like it when I share idea in the small group... (Uma, 6/11/97).

This activity (oral presentation) is quite good for students. They know about rainforest and they can search for information by themselves. This job can be called learning by yourself (Suwanun, 19/11/97).

*Last Tuesday, Ajarn Saowadee told us to watch the video about the rainforest at room 3505. ... **It could be the good method to practise listening.** Also, I got some (new) knowledges from this story, for example, "Thailand was the first country where officially ban logging and etc. That's great really (Nirund, 14/11/97).*

Nirund's enthusiasm about the value of the rainforests video increasing his knowledge base carries an additional level of awareness of the contribution that speaking and, here especially, listening, make to writing.

Five of the students stated that the Field-Building activities were useful, enabling them to collect sufficient information for writing their texts. Importantly, the activities made them realise the significance of researching for information prior to writing and that they could not write factual texts successfully from their prior knowledge and ideas. Some of these students' responses were:

...At the beginning of the course, I didn't know much about rainforest. I got the information about it from my friends' presentation. When I wrote my text, I hardly needed to read my sheets (Gaew, 27/1/98).

I like this stage (Building up the field knowledge) ... because we can get information from different activities... It is not boring. You gave us sheets, but you didn't teach us only what is in the sheets. We have to read and find information by ourselves. This makes us know what to write in our texts (Burin, 3/2/98).

... Because we are writing a factual text, we need to have factual information. Otherwise, we will only put our ideas in (Dara, 26/1/98).

About the first assignment, I was very sorry that I didn't spend much time to write... As you told me we had to have much information before we write something. That is completely correct (Chutima, 8/1/98).

However, the other half of the students (20 of 42) from both classes responded negatively towards the Field-Building activities. Four of these reasoned that they felt that some of the Field-Building activities were neither challenging nor interesting to them. For example, Sawitree wrote:

When we watched a video-tape in the classroom, I felt we were like young kids (28/1/98).

Parinya's concern was that the Field-Building activities should be more entertaining:

I don't know what you think, but the (Field-Building) activities need to be more entertaining...it would be better if you add activities which are more interesting like games or competition. Even though we are university students, it does not mean that we stop playing games (27/1/98).

Sixteen argued that, as they were adult learners, they were capable of researching information by themselves. They added that as I prepared most Field-Building activities for them, they felt they were being spoon-fed. This hindered them from developing self-directed learning skills. For example:

The Building up the field knowledge stage is not necessary for Thai students because they are accustomed to finding information by themselves. If you give us a topic rainforests, we can go to the library to find information by ourselves. I think you provide us so much information that we don't know how to learn by ourselves (Sirilak, 6/2/98).

I think Thai students can find the information by themselves. So, this stage (the Building up the field knowledge) is a waste of time... Since you prepare the information for us, you make us lazy. Ah! Today I don't have to do any thing. I just come to class to watch a video-tape (Sunisa, 29/1/98).

I think you have prepared the lessons well. You tried to encourage us to do a variety of activities. That's good. ... But, I think it would be better if you

encourage us to be more independent. Otherwise, it is just like you 'spoon-feed' us (Panida, 19/2/98).

For adult-learners, you don't have to give them information. ...You can just give us ideas about how to research for information and then we can do it by ourselves (Jirayut, 28/1/98).

Students' criticisms that I provided them with too much information indicated that they might not yet understand the purposes of the Field-Building activities clearly. In other words, they might not yet realise that the activities were provided for them so that they would have sufficient information and English language vocabulary necessary to concentrate on writing about the topic prior to beginning writing their texts independently. It is also important in that it provides a shared knowledge and vocabulary, allowing assumptions to be made (though it is good to see them asserting their independence).

A further factor was that I had prepared the Field-Building activities while I was in Australia. I did not therefore have an opportunity to negotiate the topics for each of the specific activities with students. Students may have reacted more positively had I developed my program with a better knowledge of my students. It would be useful in future genre-based teaching that the purposes of the Field-Building activities be explained to students clearly. In addition, the teacher should negotiate the topics with students.

Despite some students' resistance to the Field-Building stage, evidence from their written texts suggests that this stage is a valuable one. The majority of students chose to write their texts on the "rainforests" topic although they had options of other topics. Analysis of their "rainforests" texts revealed that most students were able to write texts that were close to successful Expositions. Their texts were based on facts relevant to the "rainforests" topic as it had been discussed in class rather than on their personal experiences.

(b) Modelling of Text: As I have previously indicated, during this stage the two Exposition model texts were provided to students (see Appendices 2). In order to help students to understand the way in which Exposition texts are constructed to achieve

their purposes, students were asked to analyse the generic structure and language features of these texts (see also 4.9).

Thirty-one of the 42 students had favourable responses towards this stage. Most commented on the value of learning about generic structure:

...Today I study many things about writing. It isn't just only writing but it have many things such as organization, purpose, idea of writer and many things that I have never known when I'm write someone as essay. I like this activity. These are useful for me (Wanee, 27/11/97).

In Essay Writing class, today I study about topic sentence and supporting details. ... From these informations that help me understand the way to write essay better than the past (Wiyada, 2/12/97).

Today, I know a whole structure of the exposition writing. It was the thesis statement, argument and recommendation. ... I think this method of writing will be effective for Thai students because it is an interesting skill. It recommend us to write skillfully, orderly as well. For a few years I haven't learned the method. I confused and also I didn't know how I could write the good and interesting essay (Anchana, 26/11/97).

In addition, all of these 31 students found that the analysis of language features helped them to realise that language features also contribute to the success of the text. Further, they became aware how the writer needs to use appropriate language features for the genre if it is to achieve its purpose successfully.

Today I learn a lot about exposition especially the language ...It helps me in the way that I know the way the writer write exposition text. What I mean is that when I read or write I can classify it as an exposition (Sakda, 1/12/97).

... I like most analyzing about verbs – dividing verbal groups into four kinds including v. linking, v. doing, v. saying, and v. thinking. For me, this helps a lot in dividing the essays into groups and in writing each kind of essays. I think being able to tell the kind of the text is the first step to write the same kind of text ourselves. As we know what it is, we would be able to write in the same way. I mean we would be able to use that knowledge to create our text (Sunisa, 15/1/98).

...I think language features is useful for the writing. I mean the writer should know how to choose the word in the text, because the more different words I use the more different meaning or level of them I should know. The readers will know the information more clearly, if the writer know how to choose the suitable

word in each sentence such as when I talk about noun or noun phrase the reader should know what, where, when, why the reader should know when did it happened, something like this. I think conjunction and causal conditional can make the reader know the thinking or the purpose of the writer. Phrase associate with reasoning will show the cause and the result. It can make the reader realize to the important of the text when they read each sentences they will think and synthesize the text. Therefore the text will be realizable, if the writer choose the suitable words in the text (Sarawut, 5/12/97).

Sunisa's and Sarawut's comments indicate a clear understanding of the specific details covered in the modelling stage, and their place in planning the outline prior to writing.

In terms of students' overall writing performance, most students (24 of 31) indicated that the Modelling of Text stage helped them to understand what they were aiming to achieve with their written texts. They had a clearer idea both of the purpose of the text and of its organisation.

My writing has improved in a way that I know 'what' I am going to write and 'why' (Sakda, 28/1/98).

I wrote better because I knew what to write first and next. My ideas are better organised (Intira, 26/1/98).

For me, I think the 'Modelling of Text' is the most useful for me because it helps me to know the organisation of the text. I write purposely and more appropriately. ...My text is more specific - - more like English text. Usually, it is very Thai - it beats around the bush (Anchana, 28/1/98).

This comment by Anchana is especially interesting as it indicates the impact of explicit teaching about generic structure. As the analysis of students' written texts (discussed in Chapter 6) will show, a major impact of the genre-based program was in students' developing control of generic structure.

In common with the Field-Building stage, the Modelling of Text stage also drew criticisms from some students (11 of 42). The most common criticism concerned the inflexibility of the generic structure. A few (6 of the 11 students who mentioned this aspect at all) considered that it was more or less like a recipe they needed to follow to be able to write their texts successfully. Also, they complained that it was not creative and limited their imagination.

When I wrote my (Exposition) text, I just followed the generic structure of the model texts which are also about rainforests and then I wrote the text in my own words. It was like copying ... I think it (the generic structure) is not creative (Gaew, 27/1/98).

I think the idea of generic structure is very conventional and complicated. It limits my idea. I dare not express my ideas because I am afraid that it will be incorrect. ...I felt that we are like robots which are being fed by you. It does not make us to think and use our imagination (Ranee, 26/1/98).

Gaew and Ranee's criticisms reflect those made by others in debates on genre-based pedagogy (see Chapter 3). Their criticisms may also reflect some lack of confidence on my part when teaching the unit on Exposition (an issue that is discussed further in 5.3.2).

The focus on analysis of language features also received some criticisms. As mentioned in 4.9, I deliberately focused on the following language features; nouns (or participants), verbs (or processes), conjunctions and tenses. Some students (5 of the 11 who mentioned this aspect) argued that analysis of these language features was not useful for them because they then never used or thought about such features when they wrote their texts.

I could not do the analysis (of language features) because ... I could not remember the technical terms (of language features) and there were a few of them (Parinya, 27/1/98).

About conjunctions and nouns, I never used them when I wrote my text. I never thought whether it is an abstract noun. ... Nor I used linking or thinking verbs. Even nowadays, I don't know what thinking verbs are (Dara, 26/1/98).

About tenses, we know that we have to use past tense when we write about what already happened in the past and present tense when we write about what happens at present. There is no need to analyse them (Surachai, 2/2/98).

Despite students' criticisms, analysis of language features for the "rainforests" topic undertaken in Chapter 6 (see also 6.5) will show that most students were able to use language features (i.e. nouns (or participants), verbs (or processes), conjunctions and tenses) particular to the Exposition in their texts successfully and effectively.

In sum, most students responded most positively to the modelling of the generic structure of the Exposition, but some expressed contrasting views on analysis of language features. These comments may reflect the need for more time within the teaching program to ensure understanding of the several purposes of the Modelling of the Text stage. They may also reflect the need for more analysis of these language features in relation to specific stages of the genre so that students accept that progressive stages of the genre make use of different language features.

(c) Joint-Negotiation: Students who found the Joint-Negotiation stage useful (9 of 42) stated that it enabled them to share ideas with their friends and importantly, to understand 'how' to write the Exposition better:

This week, the teacher let us to practise about writing exposition and to think about the text. It is good because I can understand clearer and share the idea with friends. ... We can use brain to think how to write exposition... (King-Karn, 1/1/98).

... In my opinion, writing the exposition text together in class is the useful guide for me. ... Finally, I would like to say that the complete text that we've written together make me feel very good for, now, I have a guide to write my text. At least, it's not totally dark (in my brain) (Sunisa, 13/1/98).

Interestingly, although this stage did not focus on the teaching of grammar, half of these students (4 of 9) said that it enabled them to learn more about it. To quote Sarawut:

I think this activity (Joint-Negotiation) was useful for me and our friends because every body had to share own ideas and write whole of the text. I think the another thing was the good grammars and the organization of each paragraphs. We will know the correct grammar and the ways how to organize the paragraph (Sarawut, 16/1/98).

However, the majority of students (33 of 42) expressed concerns of various kinds about the Joint-Negotiation stage. A third of these (11 of 33) stated that their experience of writing in groups was less than satisfactory because some of their friends were not willing to share their ideas. In some groups, it was the case that students who had contributed little expected the more able students to be responsible for finishing the joint writing task:

I was very tired [when writing in group] because some of my friends just sat still and listened. They did not want to talk and share their ideas (Chutima, 3/2/98)

I don't like Joint-Negotiation stage because it is quite boring. Some people don't want to share their ideas. So, it was so boring that I do not want to think either (Anchana, 28/1/98).

I did not like it [the Joint-Negotiation stage] ... since the first day that we started writing. When we worked in group, my friends usually expected that I would be able to write it. When I wrote a lot, they would say that "Have you already finished that?". It was like I was a dictator. But, if I asked them to share their ideas, they would tell me to write whatever I thought. It was so boring. ...It was like I worked alone... (Parinya, 27/1/98).

In hindsight, this might have been because I asked students to work in groups (of 3-4) without first adequately explaining to them how to work in groups effectively. Nor did I encourage or check whether students in each group participated with each other actively. At that stage, I did not realize that students could equally work in pairs, as there is no necessity in the genre-based approach for students to work in groups. As already discussed in 2.5, by nature Thai students are quite quiet and are not accustomed to interactive activities in the classroom although they may be mentally engaged in the lessons. Some students' comments reflected this:

Thai students hesitate to express their ideas because they are afraid that they may say something wrong and they will lose their 'face' (Samorn, 26/1/98).

When I worked in group, I was quiet because I was not confident in my ideas (Siree, 2/2/98).

Teacher ... I want to tell you something ... may be we are so quiet that you worry. I think you know that is the characteristic of Thai students. It doesn't mean that we are not interested in the thing that you say but it is normal for Thai students. If you ask them to answer, they will be quiet; but if you ask them to write instead of answer by mouth, I think they will have many topics to talk to you (Sopa, 5/11/97).

Almost half of the students who mentioned this aspect (15 of 33) questioned the usefulness of the Joint-Negotiation stage because they felt that I had tended to dominate it. To quote Sopa:

I think this activity (Joint-Negotiation) is very useful for us, you assure us about the work we have done but I disagree that you rewrite the 2nd argument by

yourself. May be our work is not good but I want you to improve or correct it. I disagree that you ignore it but I hope you have your own reason (12/1/98).

Dara asserted that:

At first, I didn't understand why we did it [the Joint-Negotiation stage]...Later, I found that it was useful because it provided me with guidelines to correct and improve my text. But, it was quite boring in the way that at the end you corrected and re-wrote the text for us. I didn't quite understand this !! (26/1/98).

In retrospect, I might have been too dominant because I was not confident with my own English, particularly with writing skills. When I helped students to revise and edit their texts, I tended to change the information in their texts to be similar to the text which I had asked a native speaker to proof read for me, that is, my model. Consequently, students considered that the jointly constructed texts had been significantly influenced by my ideas. This will be discussed in more detail in 5.3.2.

A small number of the students (7 of 33) said they did not find this stage very useful for them because they felt that they had already learnt enough from their first drafts. They only needed to revise some parts of their texts or fix up some grammatical problems such as control of sentences and word choices. One of these students was Wittaya:

Uh! I think it [the Joint-Negotiation stage] was only useful for students who didn't yet understand the Exposition. As I already understood it, it was not useful and I was not interested in it (27/1/98).

Wittaya was one of the representatives from an 'advanced' group (see also 6.2). His criticism was not unexpected. In hindsight, it might have been possible to allow him to continue writing the second and third drafts of the Exposition prior to finishing studying the Joint-Negotiation activities.

In sum, students had mixed views on the Joint-Negotiation stage. Some of them found it useful because it enabled them to understand the Exposition better. Others felt that group work was problematic and that my role during this stage was too dominant. The students' responses suggest the need for more opportunities to practise writing in groups. Teachers need to be confident in their English and be aware that the Joint-Negotiation texts are produced in order to provide students with the opportunities to

practise writing. At this stage, model texts need to be ‘good enough’ examples of expository writing rather than ‘perfect’ models.

(d) Independent-Construction: The purpose of this stage was to provide students with an opportunity to construct the Exposition without further assistance from their classmates or direction from me. Students were required to write 250 word essays on the given topic “Should rainforests be saved?” Due to their criticisms of the “rainforests” topic, they were also allowed to choose their own topics. In fact the majority (34 of 45 – the whole class, not just those participating in the informal discussion) decided to write their essays on the “rainforests” topic.

As previously mentioned, students were allowed to write Exposition texts for up to three drafts and were advised that only their final drafts would be collected for grading. I gave feedback on each of their drafts and, in addition, my consultancy outside the classroom was available to all of them. Most of those 34 students who wrote texts on the “rainforests” topic decided to write three drafts. This was because they would have opportunities to improve their drafts before submitting the most satisfactory draft for assessment. To quote Pim:

It's good that she gave us chances to improve the paper for three times. So the best one will check for scores. I think it's helpful because I can know what wrong points or what I have to improve and also get good suggestions from the teacher (1/12/97).

Approximately one fifth of the students (8 of 42) suggested that they should have been able to spend more time on this stage:

The most important stage is the Independent Construction as we can practice writing independently. We should spend more time on this stage (Patcharin, 3/2/98).

I think we should spend more time on the Independent Construction stage. We need to practice writing (Sirinthorn, 13/2/98).

So, not only studying in the book that makes me write better but also practising. I mean understanding is not enough. The more we write, the more we are skillful. I hope that you give me a chance (Natee, 26/1/98).

In Sirilak's opinion, the Independent Construction was a particularly important stage for Thai students for the rare opportunity to practise writing extended passages in English that would be progressively improved over three drafts in consultation with the teacher.

I think the independent construction is the most important stage because Thai students do not often have opportunity to practice writing (6/2/98).

In sum, almost all students found the Independent Construction stage very valuable, probably because it met their expectations. The following quotes illustrate this:

It's [the Independent Construction] the most important stage because we can practice writing... The crux of the writing course is to practice writing (Anchana, 28/1/98).

For me, the most useful stage is the Independent Construction stage because I can practice writing by myself (Pattama, 29/1/98).

In addition, the Independent Construction stage provided students with the opportunity to assess their own control of the genre at this point:

It [the Independent Construction stage] enables me to know whether I can write successfully (Ratree, 29/1/98).

It [the Independent Construction] enables me to know how well I can write and to know whether I understand what I have learnt. It gives me chance to put theory into practice (King-Karn, 29/1/98).

Students' responses indicated that it would be appropriate to provide more opportunities to practise writing in the program built around the genre-based approach.

5.2.2 More General Issues Emerging From Students' Responses

The students' responses to each stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle raise broader issues. These included:

- order of stages within the Teaching-Learning Cycle;
- importance of writing practice;
- importance of negotiating the topic;
- challenge of writing the Exposition; and
- the issue of learner independence.

(a) **The order of stages within the Teaching-Learning Cycle.** As indicated previously, students were accustomed to choosing their own topics and finding the content information for the topics by themselves. For some writing activities, they started writing texts independently after spending a few hours brainstorming about the topics and reviewing the organisation of text to ensure that it consisted of 'Introduction', 'Body' and 'Conclusion'.

By contrast, in the course in which the genre-based program was implemented, students were required to participate in a variety of Field-Building activities prior to being introduced to the Modelling of Text stage which aimed to assist students learn 'how' to write the Exposition. Because of this, most students were frustrated and anxious that they did not yet have any idea about how to write their texts. For example, Surachai wrote in his diary after two successive Field-Building activities that:

... At first, I thought in the Essay Writing class students would have to get to know clearly about how to write an essay. So far, I don't know precisely about the process of writing an essay or things like this. "May be next time", I hoped (5/11/97).

In the Essay Writing class, we watched the video about rainforest in Japan and its neighbour countries. And we were supposed to grasp the gist of the video. "Another step", I thought (10/11/97).

On the one hand, students may have been frustrated during the presentation of the Field-Building activities because I did not adequately explain the purposes of these activities to them (see also 5.3.1). On the other hand, it might be the case that the Field-Building activities did not meet their expectations that they would learn 'how' to write from the early stage of the teaching process.

Because of students' expectations, it was to be anticipated that when the Modelling of Text stage was carried out, it would receive overwhelmingly positive responses from students. For example, Wittaya wrote in his diary that:

We learned something more than information today...We learned how to organise our essay. It's what we should know (27/11/97).

and later,

The class today is the most worthwhile since the beginning of the course, I feel I learnt something more subtle and I like to know what I learnt (4/12/97).

In fact, some students (12 of 42) noted that the Modelling of Text stage could have been introduced to them earlier. They reasoned that if they knew the generic structure of the text first, they would know how to research for information for their texts effectively.

I think this stage (the Modelling of Text) should be the first stage. We should know the generic structure of the text before we research for information ... (Natee, 28/1/98).

I'd like to know the generic structure of the text first. ... When we learnt about 'rainforests' (in the Field-Building stage), we learnt about them in general. But, when I wrote my text I just wanted to focus on 'rainforest people'. Had I known the generic structure of the text earlier, I would have known what sort of information that I should focus on (Chutima, 3/2/98).

... I think before we start writing any thing, we need to know the generic structure of the text. Otherwise, what we write may not make sense. Even though we have information, we cannot write if we don't know the generic structure of the text (Wiyada, 29/1/98).

Despite students' negative comments, analysis of their texts for the "rainforests" topic (Topic 2), which they wrote after finishing studying the Field-Building and Modelling of Text stages, illustrated that they were not disadvantaged by the order of the presentation of the Modelling of Text stage. Most students were able to write texts that have generic structure and language features typical of the written Exposition (see also 6.5). Nevertheless, the order of all stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle may need to be revised if it is to meet students' expectations, and, as importantly, not arouse their negative reactions. This highlights the importance of the 'arrow' in the original cycle diagram showing the fluidity and recursivity of the process rather than a linear procedure. As the above discussion illustrates, the Modelling of Text may need to be presented at the beginning of any program based on genre theory.

(b) The Importance of Writing Practice. As indicated above, in the prerequisite writing courses (i.e. Practice Writing I and II) students were usually expected to write texts independently after spending a few hours brainstorming the topics and reviewing

the organisation of text as 'Introduction', 'Body' and 'Conclusion'. Lecturers teaching these courses encouraged students to practise frequently in order to be able to write competently.

In the genre-based Essay Writing course, I initially intended to ask students to start writing Expositions independently after I had finished teaching the Field-Building, Modelling of Text and Joint-Negotiation stages. Some writing activities at the sentence and paragraph levels were provided during the Field-Building stage, eg. dictagloss and note-taking while watching a video tape. However, many students (33 of 42) expressed their concerns consistently, during both stages, arguing that they needed to begin practicing writing Exposition texts. The following quotations illustrate this concern:

On Thursday, the teacher practices the students by reading an article and students take note. I enjoy this activity, but I do not think that it is useful for essay writing ... I think the students would like to have more practices and want the teacher's suggestions or comments to improve our writing (King-Karn, 9/11/97).

... After presentation I have a knowledge about rainforest and it make me love going to the library. My reading was develop but I think we should practice writing (Suda, 25/11/97).

Today, my class has the only one group presentation which not yet present... However, I want to write essay because this class is essay writing ... (Chutida, 25/11/97).

I learned about the mean to write texts more. I knew about the argument which is the body of the text, the recommendation which is the conclusion of text. ...I think it was the last hour to explain the new method. It's the time to write text by ourself (Patcharin, 26/11/97).

Again some of my friends said it's boring them. They think that to study writing is to write, to practice in writing. Your method – to gather the structure and information before writing – doesn't fit for Thai student, they think (Sakda, 17/12/97).

Mr James asked us to write an essay. He taught us for three hours and asked us to write an essay. I agreed with his opinion on teaching. We should write first so that we know our mistakes. Then, we can fix those mistakes... He allowed us to practice writing more than teaching us about theory (Jirayut, 28/1/98).

Sakda and Jirayut's comments demonstrated that students had rather firm ideas about how things were, and hence how that they should continue to be done. Their comments indicated that they did not yet understand or accept my explanations about the contribution of each stage to the actual writing stage. Additionally, they were interested in the more tangible aspects of writing that, when corrected, would result in perfect word choice, grammar, syntax and a high mark.

Due to the Department of Foreign Languages' requirements, students were required to participate in a final examination. In the examination, I asked them to write Exposition texts on either of two topics: "Should smoking be banned in public places?" and "Should Khao-din Zoo be renovated?" in a time limit of three hours. This might have been one of the reasons why students had been eager to start practising writing the Exposition texts.

Because of students' frustration, I decided that it was necessary for me to allow them to start writing their first drafts of the Exposition after we finished the Modelling of Text stage and before we began the Joint-Negotiation stage. The decision was well received, as the following extracts illustrated:

I thank you for your assignment because it made me to feel that I am learning in writing class (Chutida, 17/12/97).

So today I heard from my friend that you talk about the next work for us to writing an essay. I think it is benefit for us to practice writing essay (Kanya, 9/12/97).

After waiting for a long time, the dream came true. We all will do the first assignment. It was the first exposition writing for us which we had to gather the knowledge that we had learned from Ajarn and then adapt it for our works ... (Suwannee, 8/12/97).

As already discussed in 5.4 (d), students reacted overwhelmingly positively towards the Independent Construction stage and suggested that they wanted to spend more time on this stage. Students' reactions in this section confirmed that they put great emphasis on the writing practice. This is strong evidence that, in future genre-based programs, it is appropriate for the teacher to provide activities to encourage students to practise writing

earlier and more regularly. As a motivational device some teachers may prefer to ask students to write texts 'cold' at the beginning of the program for the genre under focus so that they understand the relevance of each stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle.

(c) The Importance of Negotiating the Choice of Topic. As mentioned in 4.9, I designed the teaching unit of the Exposition genre while I was in Australia and deliberately chose the topic "Should rainforests be saved?". As Thailand has a deforestation problem, I thought the topic would interest students. However, only three students of both classes (3 of 42) offered positive comments, reasoning that the topic was worth studying because it was a global environmental issue.

I am very proud to learn to write about rainforests because it is a global issue (Pawinee, 28/1/98).

Thank you for Ajarn Saowadee to make me know about the rainforest. It's so popular topic. I can know how to save it correctly and can tell other people how to care it also (Dan, 19/11/97).

... I think it is good idea that you teach us about 'rainforests' because the rainforest deforestation is the global environmental issue and we need to know about this (Patcharin, 3/2/98).

However, the majority (39 of 42) criticised the rainforests topic strongly. They reasoned that it was irrelevant and of no interest to them.

... I don't know why it has to have been rainforest. 'Why not something more interesting?' ...I just have a feeling that "rainforest" bored my friend and I to some extent ... (Surachai, 3/11/97).

... After we, students get out of the room, there were a lot of complainings about the topic of Rainforest. A lot of us suggested to have some other nearer topics, something around us that we are familiar with. Something like the topic of wearing uniforms to class that we used to do in class. That was a good topic... (Sawitree, 3/10/97).

Rainforests topic is very serious. You know, we are not students of the Biological Sciences Department. We, English major students, don't like this kind of topic (Siree, 29/1/98).

Despite the unpopularity of the rainforest topic only seven (7 of 42) noted that the rainforests topic did not inspire them to write.

... I don't like rainforests so I don't want to write about it (Natee, 28/1/98).

... I don't like something which you teach me to collect the information, etc. I think everybody has the idea or the favorite and we want to write something which we like ...I know the Topic "Rainforest" is popular in the world and I know some parts about it but I think it is very boring ... (Chutida, 12/11/97).

... I also feel that the topic rainforests is very boring and I don't really like it. I was really relieved when you told us that we can write texts on any topics that we are interested in. It is my intention that I will not write about "rainforests" (Parinya, 17/1/98).

... I think this topic is boring. Maybe you should to choose the new one that is more interesting. Something's more entertain or funny and it is around everyday's life. May be I have more ideas to write about it (Sirilak, 10/11/97).

Because of students' criticisms of the rainforests topic, I decided to allow them to choose their own topics when they wrote Exposition texts independently. Despite announcing this, the majority of them decided to write their texts on the rainforests topic. At this juncture they reasoned that it was more convenient for them to write texts on the topic which they were already familiar with and had extensive information about than to research new information for their own chosen topics.

I decided to write this topic because I was lazy to find information by myself (Jaruwan, 27/1/98).

After you finished teaching the Building Up the Field Knowledge stage, I was lazy to find the information by myself (Chutida, 2/2/98).

In sum, although a majority of students reacted negatively towards the imposed topic, ironically, most of them decided to continue with it when alternatives were offered. Students' resistance to the imposed topic highlights the importance of including negotiation of the choice of the topic. This data suggests that in future teaching, it would be better teaching practice to draw from students in advance a range of topics which they might be interested in and find relevant, with the teacher being prepared to negotiate final topic(s) with students. This will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

(d) The Challenge of Writing the Exposition. As mentioned in 4.7, this research focused primarily on learning to write the genre of Exposition. According to students' reactions as expressed in their diaries and in the informal discussion, a few students found it useful. However, many others resisted it.

Interestingly, the small proportion of students (4 of 42) who found the Exposition useful reasoned that they could apply it to their own lives for both personal and academic purposes:

After I have learned how to write exposition, I realise that the works I have done are not following the form. I think I can improve it afterwards. So far I know how to write to my mom to ask for more money. What a wonderful kind of writing (Sakda, 24/11/97).

I applied my knowledge [of the Exposition] to other courses. For example, I used it to write the essay-type exams in the History and Civil Civilisation courses. ... I knew what to put in the 'Introduction' and what should be in 'Supporting Details'. ... Previously, I didn't know how to write my exams. I just wrote whatever I can think of so my essays tend to beat around the bush... (King-Karn, 29/1/98).

But, the majority of students (38 of 42) resisted the Exposition genre. This may be because it differed significantly from the kind of experience-based text that they had been expected to write in their prerequisite writing courses. There they had learnt that the structure of each text consists of three basic parts: 'Introduction', 'Body' and 'Conclusion'. To teach the Exposition I had to lead them to a different structure of text that is more densely packed with generalized, accurate and reliable information aimed at justifying that a fact or an idea is worth the reader's consideration. Exposition has distinctive generic structure and language features, is based on scientific enquiry and logical evidence rather than on the overt expression of the writer's personal feelings and imagination (Martin and Peters 1985; Martin 1986; Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al 2000). Because of these differences, some students (8 of 38) said that it was difficult for them to make the transition from their previous writing style to Exposition in a short period of time:

I was accustomed to writing whatever I want to. Suddenly, I was asked to write the Exposition. I could not adjust myself to it well (Intira, 26/1/98).

We have never practiced writing like this [the genre-based writing]. ...Our essays normally consist of 'Introduction', 'Body', and 'Conclusion', but we did not know what we needed to put in each of these parts... we felt frustrated when we studied with you because we had to study what we were not accustomed to (Suwannee, 26/1/98).

Nearly half of the students who were critical of Exposition (18 of 38) asserted that they felt frustrated when writing because they were being asked to write texts not just based upon their ideas and imagination, as had been the case in their prior educational experiences.

Today we learned more details about the expositive. There were the different words which were familiar to the words introduction, body and conclusion that were topic sentence, supporting sentences and recommendation. Even though the way to write the exposition was very nearly to the method which I used to learn, but it seemed to be more difficult than the old one because I had to tell the reader the background information, writer's position and preview and also using the formal language (Suwannee, 26/11/97).

When I studied with Mr Tana and Mr James, I didn't know what I studied. 'Writing' was writing. I just wrote what I thought. But, when I studied with you I knew more. I knew different kinds of genres... However, I felt that I didn't use my brain... because I didn't have to imagine... I could not express my ideas... I wrote a text because it was my responsibility. In fact, I didn't want to write like this because I could not think freely. I was frustrated (Sopa, 26/1/98).

...I told Miss Saowadee that everybody don't like it (the exposition) because of limitation the opinion and imagination. I think there are so many stages of writing. O. K. I know, the exposition is about the fact but I never study this type before... (Ranee, 28/1/98).

About a third of the students (12 of 38) stated that they preferred to write Description and Narrative because they thought that such genres were not as demanding, and that they could express their ideas and imagination, particularly if they were writing the Narrative. The following comments were typical of a number of others:

... I know that Description and Exposition are because the teacher compare between these genre how different they are. I know they are quite different because Exposition is more complex than Description and the most important is it is quite difficult and boring. When I will write an Exposition genre, I must write my own ideas, thesis statement, agreement and recommendation. I must be

aware and write carefully that in my essay there are these things or not, but for the Description Essay, I think it is easier than the Exposition because I only write the information as much as I can find. I don't be serious about the agreement and recommendation like the Exposition. If we can choose to write an essay between these two texts, I will choose the Description type (Somjai, 15/12/97).

*We started to learn a new type of writing. It was the description. **I think I love to write description more than exposition.** Since it is certainly easier. The exposition writing we need the thesis statement which is a hard one. Writing the description essay need only the description and identification. So when you gave us to find the generic structure of it, we can run it fast and easily. If I can choose, I will choose to write only this type of writing (Anchana, 9/12/97).*

I learned a new kind of writing which is called "description". It was much easier than other kinds that we've learnt before, because we don't have to convince the reader about the idea, all you have to do is describing... (Parinya, 10/12/97).

... I like it (Narrative) because it is not serious and I don't have to find information to support arguments (Pim, 19/1/98).

To conclude, the choice of Exposition drew negative reactions from a number of students. Students' comments and reactions suggest that this was primarily because it differed dramatically from the self-expression required in their previous writing courses. In future genre-based programs, it may be helpful if when a teacher introduces a new genre it is related more directly to the students' prior writing experience. For example, when working with the Personal Recount and Description genres (Christie 1984; Callaghan and Rothery 1988) the teacher can pick up teaching points from the preceding course or class and mark the transition from that form of writing to the needs of the new genre. By the time the teacher begins the more demanding genres based on facts and logical evidence, such as Exposition and Discussion, students will be accustomed to the idea that each genre has its own generic structure and distinctive patterns of language features. It could be expected that students will make a successful transition through learning the features found in each of them.

(e) Issue of Learner Independence. During the implementation of the Exposition teaching unit, I asked students to do a number of classroom activities in small groups. This was to provide them with opportunities to work and learn from one another, promoting learner participation and independence. A number of students (18 of 42)

responded positively to this kind of classroom organisation, reasoning that group work allowed them to share ideas with their friends, enabling them to learn from one another in a supportive environment.

I like to study in small group more than big group. I dare to share and dare to talk with my friends and I can know the way to study from my friend. ...I get new idea from them that it can improve my English too much ... (Wanee, 6/11/97).

And I like to work in group, I can talk and share idea. I think if we work in group, we can get more idea... (Areeya, 11/11/97).

... When teacher divided us into a little group. Everybody could share their own idea. I thought it was the best way of learning English (Kanya, 4/11/97).

Some students (9 of 42) asserted that group work allowed them to share their responsibilities so that they did not have to do everything by themselves. This also saved their time.

Besides, I like group work. I feel like working alone might make us miss many things, ...Also, when he work in group, we are less tired 'cause we do not have to do everything ourselves (Sunisa, 22/1/98).

I would like to appreciate your technique in teaching, forming group to find out them and share to everyone know. I think it will save time and everyone will more understand clearly and quickly (Sarawut, 5/12/97).

The following extract showed that through group work students could share their ideas and learn about a nominal group from each other.

Extract 5.1 The discussion about a nominal group by a group of students in class 2.

- S1: *...For example, the first sentences "rainforests are complex communities of plants and animals" ...many words ... Uh ... this sentence consists of many words. It has only one noun phrase but consists of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 words. The writer did it because he wants to make the sentence shorter ... So you know, if he didn't do this, we may have 2-3 sentences. From one sentence, we can know that rainforests are communities, rainforests are complex, rainforests are communities of plants and animals. Plants and animals be together is complex.*
- S3: *You mean that the writer wants to save the words so they ... they use noun phrase.*
- S1: *To save time and space.*
- S3: *Not flowery.*
- S2: *If you choose the same pattern every time, it's boring.*

The above discussion revealed that students had rather sophisticated understandings of nominal groups. Student 1 (S1) was able to explain to the members in his group clearly that a nominal group was used so that the writer could condense information into a sentence, and make it shorter. He provided his friends with an example that if the sentence “*rainforests are complex communities of plants and animals*” was unpacked, there would be two sentences which were “*rainforests are complex*” and “*rainforests are communities of plants and animals*”. From Student 1’s explanation, Student 3 (S3) realised that the significance of a nominal group was that the writer could present information precisely and concisely. Student 2 (S2) added that a nominal group provided the writer with an alternative way of presenting information. S/he did not have to repeat the same sentence pattern which could make the text rather boring, that is, “*rainforests are complex*” and “*rainforests are communities of plants and animals*”. Analysis of students’ texts taken up in Chapter 6 (see also 6.5) revealed that students were able to use nominal groups to develop arguments.

However, about a third of the students (15 of 42) were concerned that the classroom activities involved so much group work that it became boring:

It’s good to work in group. But, ... Uh! if we do that every hour ... every day, it is very boring (Patcharin, 3/2/98).

... I think activities in class is great, but you have to have various things to do, not only sit in groups and talk that we ... usually do... (Chutima, 25/1/98).

As I have indicated earlier in 5.2.1 (C), the reason that students complained that I asked them to do too much group work may have been because they misunderstood my explanations. I intended that a variety of group work activities be a means to allow students to share experiences and learn from one another, promoting learner independence.

To conclude, students had both positive and negative responses towards group work. Their mixed responses indicated that some students were not yet accustomed to this medium for independent learning. In future genre-based programs, it may be desirable that the teacher includes more group activities, explaining the mechanics of how the

activity is to be carried out as well as the purpose of each, encouraging students to learn more independently.

To balance students' views, the next section offers the teacher's perspective.

5.3 My Reflections On My Own Teaching Experience

In this section, I have sought to understand the advantages and disadvantages of the genre-based approach from a teacher's perspectives. These reflections are derived from my experience in one teaching-learning context. However, as a Thai person who was teaching in a Thai educational context, it is therefore likely that insights based on my experiences will be relevant for other Thai EFL teachers. Although foreigners who are teaching EFL in Thai universities have the authority and confidence of being native speakers, I think that aspects of my experience will be useful, particularly regarding cultural norms of teaching and learning as they impact on the genre-based approach.

The next section addresses the challenges concerning the dilemma of being both teacher and researcher, and the pressure of time. It also discusses issues that are of a more general nature arising in the implementation of the genre-based program. These include understanding the significance of the Field-Building stage, understanding the functional nature of language, building on students' prior knowledge, and my own confidence in English.

5.3.1 Personal Challenges

This research project was challenging for me for a number of reasons. The research was carried out in a slightly unreal context because circumstances required that I 'fly in' from overseas and start teaching immediately. I met students in the first timetabled lesson and began teaching with an approach differing significantly from traditional teaching approaches at the Department of Foreign Languages at Khon Kaen University. I lacked experience not only in teaching English, but also in using the genre-based approach. As I was the only person at the Department who knew enough about the

genre-based approach and about systemic linguistics, which underlies it, I had to simultaneously teach and research. It should be noted that the teaching units that I had prepared had not been evaluated by a more experienced Thai EFL teacher for their implementation in Thailand. As mentioned in 1.1, the application of the genre-based approach in Thai EFL classrooms to the time of writing was minimal, although this may change in the future.

Although a researcher from an overseas institution, I was still obliged to conform to the requirements of the Department of Foreign Languages, and to the calendar of Khon Kaen University. As already mentioned in 4.7, I was expected to teach the four genres, the Exposition, Description, Discussion and Narrative, in the semester. The course was supposed to be the standard 32 semester hours for each of the two classes, however, it lasted only 28 hours due to Public Holidays and social events such as the King's Birthday and Commencement. I was also obliged to have my students assessed by the university's normal final examination at the end of the semester although this summative form of assessment is not normally part of the genre-based approach. In the standard three-hour, unseen exam paper I asked students to write 250 words Exposition essays on one of the following topics: 'Should smoking be banned in public places?' and 'Should Khaodin Zoo be renovated?'. These challenges contributed significantly to the way in which I implemented the genre-based approach in the classroom.

(a) Dilemma of Being Both Teacher and Researcher. As mentioned above, I had to undertake the roles of both teacher and researcher in the classroom. I had to carry out the lessons using, for the first time, the genre-based approach. As the researcher, I had a difficult task in observing myself teaching and the students' learning in as objective way as possible. I believe that the dilemma of being both a teacher and a researcher affected the way in which I implemented the genre-based approach considerably.

Although before leaving for Thailand I had substantial knowledge of the genre-based approach and had prepared well-designed teaching units I was not confident with my own teaching. On occasions when the activities were carried out as I had planned and they received positive responses from students, I was relieved and considered that the

genre-based approach was worth exploring. For example, when the oral presentation was carried out successfully, I was delighted, writing in my observation notebook that:

The presentation of the second group was absolutely astonishing. Parinya was a D.J. who invited four guests to his talkshow: Miss Thailand World, a Japanese professor, Miss Teen Thailand and Pocahontas to talk about the problems of rainforest destruction, soil erosion, the regions where soil erosion occur. They also sang the song about rainforests. Other students in the class found that their presentation was absolutely perfect. I think I am going to give them a full score (18/11/97).

However, on the occasions when the activities were criticised and resisted by students especially early in the teaching program I was frustrated and became insecure. I constantly consulted my supervisor about the way in which I should adjust my teaching units to accommodate students' reactions and expectations. For example, when students criticised the "rainforests" topic as boring, I wrote to my supervisor that:

There are many students complaining about the topic, Rainforests. They said that it is very boring. I should have taught them a more interesting topic ... Honestly, I felt a little bit nervous about their comments. I am afraid that if the topic is boring, they will not pay attention to the lesson. Then, they may not be able to do many activities successfully (12/11/97).

My supervisor's response was:

I think at this point you should stick to the topic that you have prepared and try to convince students that it is worthwhile. (I think it would complicate matters if you tried to change that now – unless you already have an alternative topic in mind and the resources that would enable you to teach effectively) (12/11/97).

Taking my supervisor's advice into account, I decided to continue with the "rainforests" topic, but allowed students to choose their own topics for their independent writing. I wrote back to my supervisor that:

They still complain that the topic, rainforests, is boring. So, I decided to tell them that if they really don't like it, they could write the final task on other topic (for the Exposition). But, they must show me their sources of information as well eg. newspapers articles and oral interview. They could not just sit down and write what they think. It's not the purpose of this course to do so (4/12/97).

As already discussed in 5.2.1 (d), most students (34/45) decided to continue with the "rainforests" topic because they did not want to research for information by themselves.

Another factor to undermine my confidence further was that some students often compared my teaching to Mr James, a native speaker lecturer who had been teaching at the Department for more than five years and was regarded by most students as their best lecturer. At times, I was able to explain to students what I was doing and the reasons for it. I wrote to my supervisor that:

Now, we are in the modelling stage. The first section will look at language features of the text. But, the second section is still looking at the generic structure of the text.

So far, students complain that it is boring. (I asked them to work in groups and find out the generic structure of the text. They have to compare and contrast model text 1 and 2). They expect me to play games in the classroom or the activities should be more fun. Well, I really don't know what to do so I explained to them that they need to make the distinction between my course and Mr James' course which they enjoy very much. I told them that mine is more like academic writing, but Mr James' is creative so they could do more enjoyable activities. I have added what are supposed to be "fun" activities in the lesson, but I could not do that all the time. The class has to be both serious and fun (4/12/97).

At other times, I was so concerned with students' comments that I doubted whether I should continue with the genre-based program, as I wrote to my supervisor that:

Somehow I really think that my research already fails because nothing seems to go the way I expect. Further, many of my students don't like it at all. I sometimes feel very confused with what I am doing and what I should do (4/12/97).

My supervisor wrote back that:

I sympathise with your dilemmas, however, I think your students' reactions are not altogether surprising as you are approaching the teaching of writing from a very different perspective ... Although you have done a lot of preparation for the units of teaching, I think you need to be flexible in your methodology to accommodate the reactions and needs of your students (12/12/97).

My supervisor's response made me realise that although students reacted negatively and criticised the classroom activities, it did not necessarily mean that the activities were not useful or relevant to them. Rather, the activities might not meet their expectations and it was important for me to adjust my teaching units to accommodate their reactions and expectations considerably. Taking this into account, I decided to continue with the genre-based program.

As I was also a researcher in the classroom, I had to step back to explore and observe the impact of the genre-based approach on the teaching of writing to students. I therefore used the tape recorder to record the interactions in the classroom. While I was teaching, I was quite anxious about whether the tape recorder was working. Sometimes I became so involved in teaching I forgot all about the tape recorder. On one occasion, I wrote in my observation notebook that:

I continue working on the Joint-Negotiation activity... We finished the text at 2.00 p.m. It was pretty annoying that I forgot to change my tape cassette when it finished (13/1/98).

Because of this, I did not have complete records of some lessons eg. the oral presentation of some groups in class 1 and some parts of the Joint-Negotiation stage in class 2. Since these tape recordings were intended as a back-up for the observation notes, the incomplete recordings did not affect the overall data analysis. These problems however did divert my attention from teaching at times.

(b) Pressure of Time: As indicated earlier, I was contracted to finish teaching four genres in a semester reduced to 28 hours. Due to this additional pressure, a number of problems arose. One of these was that I hurried my explanation of the purposes of the genre-based approach and of the initial Field-Building activities (such as brainstorming, dictagloss and watching a video-tape). Consequently, a number of students were confused and frustrated. Some of them questioned the relevance of the activities to the writing course, as their diary entries and informal discussion extracts showed:

... First two day that the teacher taught me, I didn't like the processes because it made me not sure about it purpose. In diary, I just only guess by myself what was the purpose. I want her tell us why did she taught us this activity or that activity (Intira, 6/11/97).

Today, the activity I did was hmm ... I'm not sure how to spell. May be "dictagloss". I don't know. It was new for me so I couldn't do it well. Another reason might be I didn't know what I was doing and for what I did it (Wittaya, 6/11/97).

I practised English listening in this hour but I couldn't understand all. I sometimes didn't understand that why you brought the video and why we saw it (Patcharin, 10/11/97).

Because of students' criticisms, I became frustrated and was not sure about the way in which I should react to their criticisms. So, I wrote to my supervisor as follows:

I have started teaching already. I asked them (students) to do brainstorming and dictagloss. Some students said that it is just a waste of time while many of them said that they are useful (this is from their diaries)... Further, many students feel frustrated that we haven't started writing (a full text yet). They felt like we are going nowhere. So, I think it might be better if I spend sufficient time talking about what we are doing and why? (I did make the purposes of each activity clear but they still do not understand how each activity could be beneficial for their writing) (12/11/97).

My supervisor gave me the following advice:

I think it is important, as you suggest, to talk to the students about your research and explain why you are doing and what are you doing. (I also think it is important to continue doing this throughout your teaching program) (12/11/97).

Taking my students' reactions and my supervisor's advice into account, I decided it was necessary for me to explain to students in detail the purposes of the genre-based approach and the Field-Building activities. Most students were satisfied with my explanation and understood better why they were asked to participate in unfamiliar activities and my specific goals for each. Examples of students' diary comments were:

This week I studied only on Monday. On Wednesday my teacher tried to make students clear about the subject's details. When she told us like that it made us understand why she taught us like that (Intira, 12/11/97).

It seemed to me, in the Essay Writing class today, that we didn't study nor did we do any activity. It was the intention of the teacher not to teach but to explain about what we are doing in the class. That was good, I think. She let us know the important thing we should know but didn't know until she told... (Wittaya, 13/11/97).

Some students admitted that they initially resisted the genre-based approach because the Field-Building activities did not meet their expectations of how writing courses should be:

I've understood purposes of these activities or teaching method because teacher told us all details of what she's doing. At the first time, I was confuse that why I have to do an activity in a class and some activities did not use writing skill (Pim, 12/10/97).

At first, we antied your teaching because, as I said before, we were not accustomed to this approach (the genre-based approach). When you arrived here, you just taught us what we have never known before. If you explained to us

first (what you are doing and why you are doing it), it would have been better (Suwannee, 26/1/98).

Because students understood the purposes of the genre-based approach and the Field-Building activities better, the activities were carried out more cooperatively and effectively. I later wrote back to my supervisor that:

Now, my situation is much better and easier. I think it is because I spent time explaining to students about my work clearly. So, many of them have better understanding and know where we are heading to (19/11/97).

Students' reactions and their criticisms made me realise the importance of making sufficient explanation of the classroom activities, and reinforcing those objectives from time to time, especially since my approach to teaching was new to them.

A further problem was that, sometimes to explain more clearly, sometimes just to save time, I often spoke Thai or translated English to Thai in the classroom. This had advantages and disadvantages in the Thai educational context, particularly at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University. The use of Thai may provide students with tremendous support when they experience difficulties understanding or conceptualising some information, but as students in this north-east region of Thailand are rarely exposed to English outside the classroom, the opportunity to be exposed to and use English in a meaningful context is beneficial for their language development. Thus, the policy of the Department requires the use of English as the medium of communication.

The following extract, which was taken from the audio-recordings of the modelling of language features in class 2, showed that by using Thai I was able to explain 'nominal group' to students both efficiently and effectively.

Extract 5.2 My use of Thai to explain 'nominal group' to students during the Modelling of Text stage in class 2

Ss: Teacher, we don't understand 'nominal group'.

- T: O.K. นักศึกษาทราบใช่ไหมคะว่าคำนามทำหน้าที่เป็นประธาน กรรม และ ส่วนเติมเต็มของประโยค (You know that ‘noun’ functions as subject, object or complement in a sentence, don’t you?)
- Ss: ทราบค่ะ/ครับ (Yes).
- T: ถ้าหากนักศึกษาจะหากลุ่มคำนามวิธีในการหาก็คือให้หาคำนามที่ ทำหน้าที่ดังที่กล่าวไว้แล้วในประโยค หลังจากนั้นก็ให้ดูว่า คำนามนั้นมีคำมาขยายหรือไม่ เช่น คำนำหน้า คำคุณศัพท์ คำบุรพบท หรือ คำนามตัวอื่นๆ อย่างเช่นคำว่า “greenhouse effect” นักศึกษา คิดว่าเป็นกลุ่มคำนามใหม่คะ (If we are going to find ‘nominal group’, we just have to look at ‘noun’ located at these positions. Then, we check whether it is modified by other words eg. article, adjective, preposition and noun. How about this phrase “greenhouse effect”? Do you think it is a ‘nominal group’?)
- Ss: ใช่ค่ะ/ครับ (Yes.)
- T: ทำไมถึงคิดว่ามันเป็นกลุ่มคำนาม (Why do you think that it is a ‘nominal group’?)
- Ss: เพราะว่ามีคำว่า “greenhouse” และ “effect” (There is a word “greenhouse” in front of “effect”.)
- T: แล้วหน้าที่ของคำว่า “greenhouse” คืออะไร (What is the function of the word “greenhouse”?)
- Ss: คุณศัพท์ (Adjective).
- T: ใช่ คำว่า “greenhouse” เป็นคำ adjective ทำหน้าที่ขยายคำนาม “effect” ใช่ไหมคะ แล้วมีกลุ่มคำนามอื่นๆอีกไหมคะ (Yes, the word “greenhouse” here functions as an ‘adjective’ and it modifies the word “effect”, isn’t it? Can you find other ‘noun phrases’?)
- Ss: “a complex community of plants and animals”.

However, on some occasions I tended to speak Thai so that I could make myself understood and cover all the planned teaching-learning objectives within the remaining available time. The following extract which was taken from the audio-recordings of the modelling of text stage in class 2 illustrates this.

Extract 5.3 My use of Thai during the Modelling of Text stage in class 2

- T: What does the paragraph tell you? I mean the first paragraph of the first model text. We know it provides us with the ‘background information’ of the topic. Does it tell us something else other than the background information?
- Ss: The writer’s intention.
- T: Yes, I think I would say that ... the intention of the writer to encourage us to think that there will be problems if we cut down many trees. So, this part I think we call it....
- Ss: Thesis statement.
- T: No, not really. I think I would call it the ‘writer’s position’. เพราะมันบอกว่า จุดยืนของผู้เขียนคืออะไร อย่างในตัวอย่างที่ 1 เราจะเห็นว่าผู้เขียน พยายามบอกเราว่าถ้าเราตัดต้นไม้มาก ๆ ก็เกิดปัญหาต่างๆมากมาย ในโลก ดังนั้นเราก็สรุปได้ว่าใน thesis statement ที่เป็นย่อหน้าแรกของ text ก็จะมี background information และ the writer’s position อยู่ ข้อมูล พวกนี้ทำให้เราทราบว่าผู้เขียนกำลังเขียนเกี่ยวกับเรื่องอะไร แล้วตัวผู้เขียนเองมีทัศนคติหรือมุมมองอย่างไรต่อประเด็น ที่เขากำลังเขียนอยู่ (The writer’s position indicates whether the writer supports the issue. According to the Model Text 1, we can see that the writer is in favour of conserving rainforests as he argues “if we cut down too many trees there will be enormous problems for our world”. So, we can summarise that the Thesis Statement consists of the writer’s position and background information).

The above extract from a discussion with students about the function of the first paragraph in the Exposition model text 1 shows that students were able to analyse the information concerning the writer’s intention. I then introduced the term ‘writer’s position’ to students and summarised the components of the thesis statement in Thai.

In hindsight, it may have produced a better learning outcome if I had asked students to share their opinions or encouraged them to summarise the components of the Thesis Statement. By simply explaining the components of the Thesis Statement in Thai before checking, I had limited my students’ opportunities to learn and share their ideas in English.

Extract 5.4 The revision of the argument in the “Advantages of the Amazing Thailand Campaign” text in class 2

- T: ... I think it is better to say this “the campaign provides Thai”
นักศึกษาไม่ต้องพูดว่า (we don’t have to say) Thai people because it is too

long... just Thais ... with the opportunity to promote their culture
ถ้าหากนักศึกษาต้องการที่จะเพิ่มคำว่า "...to people in other countries"
ก็เพิ่มได้ แต่ครุคิดว่าไม่ต้องเพิ่มก็ได้ แล้วขอมูลสนับสนุนละคะ (If you
want to add "...to people in other countries", you can. But, I think we can leave
it out. How is the supporting detail?). "The foreigners will see how wonderful
Thai cultures are. Not only in the big cities but also in countrysides have their
own cultures which are impressive". Good English? Good organisation? "The
North of Thailand is the Lanna Empire, so there are famous traditional
performances such as bla bla bla bla. This is only one region bla bla bla bla.
ดีไหมคะ จริงๆแล้ว จุดประสงค์ของย่อหน้านี้ก็คือแจกแจงว่า
โครงการนี้ช่วยทำให้คนไทยมีโอกาสเผยแผ่วัฒนธรรมของตน
ดังนั้นเราก็ควรที่จะอธิบายว่าวัฒนธรรมไทยคืออะไรก่อนใช้ไหมคะ
แล้ววัฒนธรรมไทยคืออะไร (Is it good? Actually, the purpose of this
paragraph is to discuss that the campaign provides Thais with the opportunity to
promote their culture. So, we should explain what Thai culture is like first).
What is Thai culture?

Ss: Thai dresses ... Thai customs ... Thai dances ...

The above extract showed that while I was helping students in class 2 to revise the argument in the text for the "Amazing Thailand Campaign" I spoke Thai more than perhaps was strictly necessary. On the one hand, my use of the Thai language might have enabled students to understand what I was saying and feel more comfortable about participating in and contributing to the construction the model text. On the other hand, by overusing Thai instead of attempting to explain in English, I was minimising students' opportunities to be exposed to the only substantial live target language input they were likely to receive.

To conclude, I encountered the problem that Thai teachers of English as a foreign language will themselves confront, that of finding the right time and context in which to speak Thai; that is, when it is appropriate to offer complex explanations in Thai. I think that my fear of not being able to meet my agreement with the Department of Foreign Languages to teach four genres in the shortened semester resulted in my compromising the policy of the Department by explaining in Thai more often in the classroom than was desirable.

5.3.2 Issues Arising in the Implementation of the Genre-based Approach

While I was implementing the genre-based approach in the classroom, I was also grappling with what it really is. To describe how I became familiar with this approach and understood it in practice, it is necessary to reflect on my own teaching experience.

Prior to the time that the research was carried out, I believed that I understood the purposes of all stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle thoroughly. However, I was not really sure about the way in which these stages should be applied in the EFL classroom. When I planned the Exposition teaching unit, my thinking about the way in which the Cycle should be carried out in the classroom was significantly influenced by my own educational background. Since I was an alumnus of Khon Kaen University myself, my educational background was very similar to that of my students. I had also studied the Practice Writing I and II and Essay Writing courses nine years earlier than my students, however the focus of these writing courses was unchanged.

My student background also significantly influenced the way in which I thought about the genre-based approach. The theoretical understanding of this approach which I had developed in Australia was therefore blended with my understanding of classroom practices developed from my own experiences as a student. Subconsciously I wished to preserve the best features of my Thai teachers' work in developing my interest in the whole field of writing. At the same time, intellectually, I could see that changes to produce a more systematic, linguistically oriented approach would benefit a larger proportion of the students. In sections (a)-(f) below I discuss my understanding of the principles of the Teaching-Learning Cycle of the genre-based approach to teaching English as a foreign language and how this related to my earlier understandings of appropriate classroom practices.

(a) Understanding the significance of the Building Up the Field Knowledge stage.

Owing to my educational background, when I began to design the Exposition teaching unit I believed that it would be sufficient for me to spend a few hours on the Building Up the Field Knowledge stage. At the time, I believed that what I needed to do was to brainstorm the rainforests topic with students and provide them with relevant reading

materials. As students are adult learners, they would be able to read and research for information about the topic by themselves. As indicated in 5.2.1 (a), my view is one that was voiced by the majority of students. Despite a number of discussions with my supervisor and co-supervisor, I only became convinced of the significance of the Field-Building stage after I compared students' final drafts for the "rainforests" topic (Should rainforests be saved?) with their texts for the "smoking" topic (Should smoking be banned in public places?). This will be discussed further at the end of this section.

When the Field-Building stage was carried out in the classroom, I was nervous because I was not yet convinced that it was necessary for me to spend more than two hours carrying out these kinds of preliminary activities for this stage. Nevertheless, I carried out most activities which I had prepared (see also 4.9) because, although concerned about student reactions I was anxious to follow the underlying principles closely, and so curious about the impact of the activities on students' writing performance. Extracts 5.5-5.6 illustrate how some of the Field-Building activities were carried out.

Extract 5.5 The re-construction of the 'dictagloss' text of a group of students in class 2.

Key for all of the following extracts:

S1 = Student 1

S2 = Student 2

S3 = Student 3 etc, and

T = Teacher

S1: *The second one is temperate rainforest growing in ...*
S2: *higher?*
S3: *the [higher]?*
S1: *I thought it's in the higher*
S2: *latitude?*
S1: *growing in the higher latitude ...*
S2: *region?*
S1: *Ya! ... growing in the higher latitude region... What's next?*
S3: *Where the climate is....*
S2: *wet?*

As the above extract shows, through the reconstruction of the text students learn about the temperate rainforest. This provides students with relevant factual information to be used in written texts.

Extract 5.6 The brainstorming session on rainforests in class 1.

- T: *How about the other group?*
S: *The advantages and disadvantages.*
T: *Yes, that's very interesting. What do you have here?*
S: *Advantages – originate the rain.*
T: *It originates the rain. What else?*
S: *It keeps balance of our nature ... and provides places for our animals.*
T: *Animal habitats. O.K. How about the disadvantages?*
S: *They are sources of diseases and cover so much space.*

The above extract showed that students had relatively good knowledge about rainforests and were aware that rainforests had both advantages and disadvantages. This information was later evident in their written texts.

Despite noticing that the Field-Building activities did actually help students to build up the bank of information and develop their understanding about rainforests, I was not yet convinced that I should carry out the Field-Building activities beyond the brainstorming in the classroom. I still believed that students should be able to research for information necessary to write about rainforests by themselves. In addition, I thought that as the course focused on writing skills it was more important for me to provide students with sufficient time to practise writing. I came to this view also because I detected that the students themselves were becoming impatient and wished to begin writing.

I only realised the full significance of the Field-Building stage for the writing process after I compared students' final drafts for the "rainforests" topic with their texts for the "smoking" topic. As mentioned in 5.2.1 (d), students were allowed to write texts for the "rainforests" topic for up to three drafts and most of them decided to do so. Texts for the smoking topic were written under the final examination situation within the three-hour time limit, which, of course, did not include the Field-Building stage. Students were provided with reading articles for each topic. The comparison between texts for these two topics made me realise that students needed to have sufficient information and knowledge about English language and vocabulary to be able to write their texts successfully and effectively. In students' texts for the "rainforests" topic, it was evident that most had substantial knowledge about rainforests soundly based on factual information typical of written Exposition, that is, their texts were not simply an expression of personal opinion (Derewianka 1990). In contrast, analysis of students'

texts for the “smoking” topic revealed that some students did not extract sufficient information and knowledge about English language and vocabulary necessary from the source material supplied in the examination to write effectively about that topic. Some of the arguments in their texts were based on their personal experience or contained only a list of ideas. To illustrate this, extracts from both the “rainforests” and “smoking” texts of one student is presented here although students’ texts are analysed in more detail in Chapter 6.

Text 5.1: Watchara’s text for the rainforests topic

Many species of animals in Rainforests are effected by deforestation directly. Because of they are the important places where contain biological diversity. Beside that, the animals earn their living by keeping fruits and living in appropriate ecosystem. Owing to this, if Rainforests are continually destroyed, the animals are in the verge of extinction. Such animals are Toucan, Frangipani caterpillar, Lemur, Three – toe sloth and Tiger South Asia. Some of them have already extinct as they cannot adapt themselves to new ecosystem that change fastly.

Text 5.2: Watchara’s text for the smoking topic

When we look outside, smoker had bad personality. If we talk with them or stand close them, it seems that we talk in smoke empire. Every time they say, they will blow smoke outside that very smell bad. Noticeable, they will keep cigarette all the time that look not smart.

From a comparison of texts 5.1 and 5.2, it is evident that the arguments in text 5.1 are based on factual information about the effect of rainforest destruction on animal species. Watchara was able to explain to the readers logically that as rainforests contain biological diversity and are animal habitats, there will be disastrous consequences if they are destroyed. Some animals may become extinct eg. Toucan, Frangipani-caterpillar, Lemur, Three-toe sloth and the South Asian Tiger. On the other hand, the arguments in text 5.2 are based mainly on her personal experience about the effects of smoking. She argued that smokers have defects of personality, smell badly and undermine their public appearance. Her arguments are not supported with researched evidence, as expected in mature Exposition writing.

In sum, prior to introducing the Field-Building stage in the classroom, I thought that I would be able to complete it in a few hours because I considered that adult students would be able to research for topic information and absorb appropriate language features by themselves. The comparative analysis of texts for the ‘rainforests’ and ‘smoking’ topics helped me to understand that students need to have not only sufficient information but also knowledge about appropriate aspects of sentence structure and vocabulary in English to be able to write their texts successfully and effectively. In future teaching, sufficient time needs to be devoted to the Field-Building stage if it is to be carried out successfully and effectively.

(b) Understanding the Functional Nature of Language: I grappled with the text and context relationship while I was carrying out the ‘Modelling of Text’ stage, thinking that I would be able to finish it within two to three hours. During my years as an undergraduate, I was usually expected to construct text consisting of ‘*Introduction*’, ‘*Body*’ and ‘*Conclusion*’ and was never required to analyse the generic structure and language features of model texts written with specific communicative purpose. Therefore, when introducing this wholly new activity (new both for me and the students) I thought that I would only need to explain briefly to students the social function, generic structure and language features of the Exposition.

After ongoing e-mail discussions with my supervisor, I realised that I had underestimated the purposes of the Modelling of Text stage. While the stage emphasises the explicit teaching of generic structure and language features of the genre, these need to be presented in their context. Students will understand that these are resources to make their texts achieve their purposes successfully and effectively, not merely prescriptive rules needed to be remembered for re-producing the texts. I made a conscious decision to implement this stage in full, so that later, in my teaching units for the stage, I included activities which required students to engage in the deconstruction and analysis of the social function, generic structure and language features of the Exposition model texts explicitly and actively. This is illustrated below in some extracts from the audio-recordings of the Modelling Stage of both classes 1 and 2.

Extract 5.7 Discussion between students in class 2 and myself about the purpose of the model text 2 and the social function of the Exposition.

- T: *And, what do you think the reader will do ... would do after reading the text (the model text 2)?*
- S: *Maybe nothing (laugh).*
- Ss: *They will get an inspiration to save the rainforests.*
- T: *Why do you think that when the readers read the text they will get an inspiration to save the rainforest? What made you think that?*
- Ss: *From the information, they can realise that rainforests are very useful.*
- T: *Yes, because the information tries to convince ... do you know the word convince ... persuade you to believe that it's so valuable so we should conserve it... So, can we conclude now what's the social function or purpose of the Exposition?*
- Ss: *To persuade people to save the forest.*
- T: *Ya, because the topic is about the rainforests. It tries to persuade people to save the rainforests. But, actually this is just one example of the exposition. The topic is about rainforests, but exposition actually is the genre being discussed. Its main purpose is to convince people to believe that something or some idea is correct and is worth thinking or paying attention.*

The above exchange shows that through the guided questions eg. “*What do you think the reader will do after reading the text?*” and “*Why do you think that when the readers read the text they will get an inspiration to save the rainforest?*”, I was able to help students to understand the purpose of the model text (to persuade people to save the rainforests). This also allowed me to explain the more general social function of Exposition that aims to convince people to believe that something is the case or worth paying attention to (Derewianka 1990; Hammond et al 1992).

Extract 5.8 Discussion between students in class 2 and myself about the generic structure of the model text 1.

- 1 T: *So, can you tell me how are the paragraphs ... we can look at the*
2 *first ... the shorter one first (the model text 1). How are the*
3 *paragraphs organised?*
- 4 Ss: *There are six paragraphs.*
- 5 T: *There are six paragraphs. So, what is the function or the purpose of*
6 *the writer to write each paragraph?*
- 7 Ss: *... to organise information.*
- 8 T: *Why do we have to organise paragraph? Why don't we just write “I*
9 *think we should save rainforest because bla bla bla? Why do we*
10 *have*
to organise the information in paragraphs like that?

- 11 Ss: *To clarify information to make it easy to understand.*
 12 T: *Yes, we have to organise information in paragraphs because it is*
 13 *easier to understand. And, what does each paragraph tell you?*
 14 *For example, paragraph 1 what does it tell you?*
 15 Ss: *Introduction*
 16 T: *About what?*
 17 Ss: *About problems in our world that many trees are cut down.*
 18 T: *Yes. ... Why did the writer have to write that?*
 19 S: *Hmm ... because what's happening to rainforest is bad ... and ...*
 20 *... hmm... the next paragraph ... hmm ... says about hmm*
 21 T: *About what? Any one would like to help him?*
 22 S: *The writer wants to tell us what he wants to talk about.*
 23 T: *Yes, thank you. Because the writer would like to tell us what he*
 24 *wants to talk about ... So, I think this part I'd rather call it the*
 25 *the Thesis Statement and the information in this part would be*
 26 *about the background information of the topic being discussed.*
 27 *And, it could contain other information as well.*

The above extract shows that students understood that in the model text 1 the information is organised into paragraphs in order to achieve particular purposes. When I questioned students about the writer's purpose for writing each paragraph, they were able to explain that it was because he/she wanted to present points in logical way (organise) information (line 7). Accepting this, I asked them for further explanation prompting them to clarify that the information was organised into paragraphs so that the writer could present it to the reader clearly and hence it was easy to understand (line 11). This recognition, that expository writing is for the benefit and use of the reader, is a significant step in students' understanding.

After students had sufficient understanding of the generic structure of model texts 1 and 2, they were asked to analyse the language features. This was to enable students to understand that not only the generic structure, but also language features contribute to the success of the text. As mentioned in 4.9, in this research project I focused on only four language features: nouns (or participants), verbs (or processes), tenses and conjunctions. Extract 5.9 illustrates how the analysis of 'conjunctions' was carried out.

Extract 5.9 Discussion about conjunctions with a group of students in class 2.

- S1: *In my group, it's short because it has not much about conjunction in the text ... normally ... in this one (the model text 1) it has temporal because it shows firstly, secondly and finally.*

- S2: *Ya! I can see it very clearly.*
- S1: *In this one (the model text 2) it is not in ordered... in the stage because the writer is more knowledge.*
- S3: *Sorry, the writer of this one (the model text 1) uses more conjunctions?*
- S1: *Ya, he uses more conjunctions ... use adding... and causal conjunctions when he wants to give the reason. But, normally additional conjunctions. It's like kindergarten or secondary student who writes in step ...firstly ... secondly ... and the third something like this ...*

This extract demonstrates that Student 1 (S1), who was originally from a group responsible for analysing conjunctions in model texts 1 and 2, was able to share her knowledge of conjunctions with her friends in a new group relatively well. She was able to explain to her friends that the model text 1 uses a variety of conjunctions such as additional, temporal and causal. Interestingly, she could identify that the model text 1 might have been written by a beginner writer because of the use of the temporal conjunctions to mark each argument explicitly such as firstly, secondly and finally. By contrast, the model text 2 might have been written by a more knowledgeable person because the arguments were presented in their logical order, rather than being marked explicitly by temporal conjunctions.

To conclude, the Modelling of Text stage confirmed in my mind the functional nature of language. It also helped me to realise that the generic structure and language features of the genre are not simply formulas or rules to be replicated. Rather, they are resources which people use to achieve their particular purpose.

(c) Building on Students' Prior Knowledge: As I was introducing a new teaching approach to students, it was necessary also to take into consideration students' prior knowledge.

Students' prior knowledge of the overall organisation of text contributed significantly to the success of the Modelling of Text stage. They were on familiar ground when we were analysing the generic structure of the Exposition, and I initially accepted their use of the terms 'Introduction', 'Body' and 'Conclusion'. Although these terms do not adequately explain how the text was organised to achieve the purpose of an Exposition,

students were able to grasp the overall structure of the text. The following extract from the audio-recordings of the analysis of the model text 1 in class 1 illustrate this.

Extract 5.10 The analysis of the model text 1 in class 1

- T: *Who would like to tell me what you have found in the text (the model text 1)? Anything you have found.*
- S: *After having discussed about this text ... Uh! we think that the first paragraph is **the introduction** and then uh! ... and about greenhouse effect and it is ... uh ...then after that about taking in carbon dioxide and by getting off oxygen is the explanation of greenhouse effect.*
- T: *So, it is the supporting detail which explains the...*
- S: *explains the main idea. Let me know about green house effect.*
- T: *O.K. So, how about the other group? What else? How about the rest of the paragraphs?*
- Ss: *The rest paragraphs in the same essay ... secondly... prevents soil erosion and then the explanation of soil erosion and shelter is the same is the explanation ... and the firstly, secondly and third and the fourth... all of these are **the body** of the text.*
- T: *Yes, all of these firstly, secondly and the third paragraph and finally ... they are called the body or the argument of the text. And ...*
- S: *And the last one ... we think that it persuades the people to save rainforest.*
- T: *Yes, and what should we refer to this part?*
- S: **Conclusion**

The above extract showed that students were able to identify that the first paragraph of the model text is the 'Introduction', identifying the writer's position on the issue. This is followed by the 'Body' where the temporal conjunctions such as firstly, secondly and thirdly are used to signal the issues to be discussed. At the end of the text is 'Conclusion' where the writer re-states his position on the issue that people should save rainforests.

In addition, students were able to analyse that each paragraph consisted of 'main idea' and 'supporting detail' although they misunderstood that the information "(they do this by) taking in carbon dioxide and by getting off oxygen" was the explanation of greenhouse effect (lines 4-8). In fact, according to the model text 1, the information was the supporting detail of the whole first sentence "Firstly, trees help stop the greenhouse effect".

After students had become familiar with the overall structure of the model text, I gradually introduced the new terms such as ‘Thesis Statement/Preview’ and ‘Arguments’ to them. The following extract from the audio-recordings of the analysis of model text 1 in class 1 exemplifies this.

Extract 5.11 The analysis of the model text 1 in class 1

1 ...And, what does each paragraph tell you?
2 For example, paragraph 1 what does it tell you?
3 Ss: **Introduction**
4 T: About what?
5 Ss: About problems in our world that many trees are cut down.
6 T: Yes. ... Why did the writer have to write that?
7 S: Hmm ... because what’s happening to rainforest is bad ... and ...
8 ... hmm... the next paragraph ... hmm ... says about hmm
9 T: About what? Any one would like to help him?
10 S: The writer wants to tell us what he wants to talk about.
11 T: Yes, thank you. Because the writer would like to tell us what he
12 wants to talk about ... So, I think this part I’d rather call it the
13 **the Thesis Statement** and the information in this part would be
14 **about the background information** of the topic being discussed.
15 And, it could contain other information as well.

The above extract showed that students, using familiar terminology, perceived that the first paragraph of the model text 1 functions as the ‘Introduction’, identifying the writer’s purpose (line 3). In this case, it offers a cautionary introduction to the reader about the consequences for the world if too many trees are cut down (lines 5 and 7).

Based on students’ contributions, new terms such as ‘Thesis Statement’ and ‘Background Information’ were introduced (lines 13 and 14). These terms would enable students to explain the function of the first paragraph of the text and the information to be included in it more systematically and explicitly than the traditional ‘Introduction’.

In terms of language features of the Exposition, I deliberately used the traditional terms ‘verbs’ and ‘nouns’ instead of the systemic-functional grammar terms ‘processes’ and ‘participants’. Students were already familiar with these traditional terms from their previous courses and I did not want to risk their confusion over grammatical terminology, preferring to focus on their application in writing. Similarly, I used terms such as ‘thinking’ and ‘action’ to differentiate verb (process) types instead of the

systemic-functional terms ‘mental’ and ‘material’ because these were simpler and I felt would be easier for students to remember and apply their learning processes.

The following extract from the audio-recordings of the analysis of the model text 2 (see Appendix 2) of class 2 students illustrates how students progressed towards contextual understanding of ‘doing’ and ‘thinking’ verbs.

Extract 5.12 Students in class 2’s analysis of ‘doing’ and ‘thinking’ verbs

- S1: Compare this one from this one How the verbal group be?*
S2: You look in the short one “We cut down ... Uh ... it is “doing” verb because if we cut down, it means that we are acting ... we are doing. It’s cutting, O. K?
S1: I understand.
S2: Thinking verbs mean the verb think together... In this sentence “it must be considered” it means “thinking”. The writer wants to share his opinion. I think it is very new technique. Uh! we should not write only “I think” or “In my opinion”.

The above extract shows that students were able to identify ‘doing’ and ‘thinking’ verbs and importantly, they were able to explain ‘how’ these verbs were used to convey meanings in the model text 2. Analysis of students’ ‘rainforest’ texts, written after being taught by the genre-based approach, showed that those students who did use ‘thinking’ verbs used them appropriately to the context (see also 6.5.2).

In sum, my experience in teaching with the genre-based approach reinforced the importance of taking students’ prior knowledge into account when introducing any new teaching approach. In particular, it reinforced the importance of recognising and respecting previous learning and to use it to assist acquisition of the newer, more complex ideas and practices required in the advanced writing genres.

(d) My Own confidence in English: I had studied in Australia for a number of years. However, I was not entirely confident with my English, particularly my writing skills. This lack of confidence in English resulted in some hesitations in my teaching, especially during the Joint-Negotiation stage. Unlike the Field-Building and Modelling of Text stages, I was not able to prepare clear-cut lesson plans or predict the sequence of the lesson for the Joint-Negotiation stage in advance. When I was helping students to

review the generic structure of the Exposition, I was able to carry it out confidently and effectively because I understood it thoroughly. However, when I was helping students to construct a model text through Joint-Negotiation I was nervous, being particularly concerned whether what I had helped students to write was correct grammatical English. As already discussed in 4.13, in the EFL context the control of grammatical structure at sentence level is considered as central to the success of writing. I also felt bound by the cultural expectations prevalent in Asian countries, including Thailand, that the teacher is a knowledgeable person and is expected to be always correct (see also 2.5).

To illustrate how I coped with my own confidence in English, extracts taken from the audio-recordings of the Joint-Negotiation stage in classes 1 and 2 will be referred to below.

Extract 5.13 The revision of the generic structure of the Exposition between students in class 1 and myself.

- | | | |
|----|-----|---|
| 1 | T: | <i>Can you tell me what is the generic structure of the exposition?</i> |
| 2 | Ss: | <i>... (silent)...</i> |
| 3 | T: | <i>It must begin with ...</i> |
| 4 | S: | <i>It has social function.</i> |
| 5 | T: | <i>Yes, it has social function and it has its specific generic structure.</i> |
| | | <i>So,</i> |
| 6 | | <i>each text must start with or begin with what?</i> |
| 7 | S: | <i>Topic sentence.</i> |
| 8 | T: | <i>Really? At the beginning of the essay?</i> |
| 9 | Ss: | <i>Introduction.</i> |
| 10 | T: | <i>Did I teach you that?</i> |
| 11 | S: | <i>Background information.</i> |
| 12 | T: | <i>Yes, it has background information. But, how do we call that?</i> |
| 13 | Ss: | <i>Thesis Statement.</i> |
| 14 | T: | <i>Yes, we call it Thesis Statement. The exposition must begin with Thesis</i> |
| 15 | | <i>Statement which contains background information, the writer's</i> |
| 16 | | <i>position and preview and then what's next?</i> |
| 17 | Ss: | <i>Argument.</i> |
| 18 | T: | <i>Arguments, not argument ... series of arguments ... it should contain at</i> |
| 19 | | <i>least two arguments ... and it concerns only one side of the issue so</i> |
| 20 | | <i>whether you agree or disagree with the issue you must stick to it</i> |
| 21 | | <i>and then what's the last part?</i> |

- 22 S: *Recommendation.*
 23 T: *Yes, it is recommendation. What is its purpose?*
 24 S: *To conclude all arguments of the text.*
 25 T: *Yes, to conclude or sum up arguments and to restate the writer's*
 26 *position whether he agrees or disagrees with the issue.*

The above extract illustrates that I was comfortable with my English at this point and was able to help students to revise the generic structure of the Exposition effectively and confidently. At the beginning of the revision, students were reluctant to contribute orally. This may have been because they did not wish to lose face by admitting that they had forgotten work already treated in earlier classes. By asking them questions and making some suggestions, I was able to cue their memory and help them identify the generic structure of the Exposition, consisting of the Thesis Statement (line 13), Argument (line 17) and Recommendation (line 22). Based on students' contributions, I was able to point out and clarify the characteristics of each part of the text. For example, I detailed the way that the Thesis Statement contains background information about the topic, the writer's position supporting or opposing it, and the preview indicating the arguments to be offered (lines 14-6). In addition, I suggested that there should be more than one argument in the text and that each argument should be concerned only one side of the issue (lines 18-20). Students' understanding of the generic structure of the Exposition contributed significantly to making the joint-construction of the model text successful as the following extract illustrates:

Extract 5.14 The joint-construction of the thesis statement between students in class 1 and myself for the topic "Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?"

- 1 S: *... There are many disadvantages ...*
 2 T: *O.K There are many disadvantages ...*
 3 S: *to wearing uniforms*
 4 T: *Is it to wearing?*
 5 Ss: *to wear*
 6 T: *Yes, it is infinitive, isn't it? ... So, this is your Thesis Statement "There are many disadvantages to wear uniforms". Do you have anything else to add into the sentence or this is already enough?*
 7 S: *..... (silence)*
 8 T: *Actually, this is fine if you want to write a simple text. But, if you want to provide background information for the readers who may not know anything about this rule (that students have to wear uniforms to the classroom), you may tell them when the rule was implemented.*

- 9 S: *Two moths ago, the university {made the rules of wearing uniforms}.*
 10 T: *I think the word “announce” would be better. “Announce” what?*
 11 S: *a policy of wearing uniform*
 12 T: *“Two months ago, the university announced the policy of wearing uniforms”. What’s next?*
 13 Ss: *This made many/most students disagree.*
 14 T: *This made many or most students disagree?*
 15 Ss: *Most!*
 16 T: *What’s next?*
 17 Ss: *Just put “There are many disadvantages to wear uniforms” next to it.*
 18 T: *So, your Thesis Statement is “Two months ago the University announced the policy of wearing uniforms to the classroom. This made most students disagree. There are many disadvantages of wearing uniforms to the classroom”. Are you satisfied with it?*
 19 Ss: *Yes.*

The above extract illustrates that students in class 1 and I were able to jointly-construct the thesis statement for the “uniform” topic successfully. Students contributed the information and ideas while I acted as a guide, asking questions and making suggestions about the structuring of the text. The resulting thesis statement was a successful one because it provides the reader with necessary background information about the topic. In addition, it contains the preview foreshadowing the issue regarding the disadvantages of wearing uniforms to the classroom to be presented in the text. Students’ control of the generic structure appropriate to the Exposition is evident in their texts for the “rainforests” topic written after the completion of the Joint-Negotiation stage (see also 6.5).

However, the above extract also shows one of the episodes that shook my confidence in English. Because of the spontaneity and group dynamics of the joint-negotiation situation I was unable to take time out to check two grammatical points raised by students. It should be noted that my doubts resulted in my misleading students about whether the participle “wearing” in the sentence “*There are many disadvantages to wearing uniforms*” (lines 3-7) functions as a noun and is used in the sentence incorrectly. So, I suggested to students that the sentence should be re-written as “*There are many disadvantages to wear uniforms*”. Further, I was also uncertain whether the phrase “*This made...*” needed to be included in the sentence “*This made most students disagree*” (line 19). I was not able to differentiate that it was students who disagreed with the policy, not the policy made them disagree. Although these grammatical

problems did not cause miscommunication, they affected my concern about my own use of English, and this lack of confidence was to cause repercussions later in the project.

In order to make sure that I helped students to produce the grammatical model texts, I decided that I needed to carry out the revision and editing process of the texts. I asked a native speaker to proof-read the model texts for me so that I could use these as my guidelines. I tended to use the proof-read texts verbatim; changing and correcting the information as well as grammatical structure in the model texts. This was because I was afraid that if I encouraged students to express their ideas too freely I might not be able to provide them with constructive advice about how to unify their ideas and to help them to construct sentences grammatically. Consequently, at some stages I turned the revision and editing processes into a demonstration of how to write correct texts. Students were required to listen while I explained how each sentence should be re-written. Understandably, some students questioned the usefulness of the Joint-Negotiation stage as they thought that I added too many of my ideas into the texts in the place of theirs (see also 5.2.1 (c)). The following extract illustrates this.

Extract 5.15 Discussion between students in class 1 and myself when I was helping them to revise the Argument 2 in their text for the topic “Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?”

1 T: ... O.K. Last time we stopped at a second paragraph and I did suggest to
2 to you my opinion because ... because the paragraph “Although people
3 in developed countries do not wear uniforms to the class, they still have
4 quality students”. For me, I don’t know what ‘quality students’ mean.
5 You didn’t define yet what you mean by saying ‘quality students’.
6 Because when you write topic sentence you need to define clearly what
7 issue you want to discuss. For the expression, ‘quality students’,
8 I suggest that we can write about ‘students **can succeed academically**’
9 and the rest of the paragraph ...in your own paragraph I think you need
10 to clarify what you mean by saying ‘quality students’. O.K.
11 I don’t want to use my own paragraph. I’d like you to correct your
12 own paragraph. You can use some ideas and information from my
13 paragraph to improve your own paragraph. So, what can you do?
14 Because I’d like to keep your work as original as possible. How can
15 we do that ... the second paragraph? **O.K. I’ll start the sentence**
16 “Although students ...’ What? ... I think the first clause is O.K. Do
17 you agree with me? “Although students in developed countries do not
18 wear uniforms to the **class...**’ We just change the second part. O.K?

- 19 *What's next? You can take some information from my paragraph.*
 20 S: *they can success ...*
 20 T: *they can success or succeed...*
 21 Ss: *succeed...*
 22 T: *they can succeed...*
 23 S: *their studies*
 24 T: ***They can succeed their studies or we can use 'academically'... O.K.***

The above extract showed that I tended to correct students' sentences and follow the native speaker's proof-read text, rather than initiating students' suggestions. For example, in lines 1-10, I pointed out to students that their topic sentence "*Although people in developed countries do not wear uniforms to the class, they still have quality students*" needed to be improved because the expression "*quality students*" was rather broad. I told them that it did not explain clearly the issue that they wanted to pursue. Instead of encouraging students to express their ideas regarding the revision of the sentence, I immediately suggested to them that the expression "*quality students*" should be re-written as "*students can succeed academically*" (lines 7-8). The revision of the rest of the paragraph proceeded in the same manner until it was complete. Eventually, the Argument 2 in class 1 students' text was a close approximation of the paragraph in the proof-read text for the topic, as texts 5.3 and 5.4 illustrate.

Text 5.3: The Argument 2 in class 1's original text

Although people in developed countries do not wear uniforms to classes, they still have quality students. For example, American can wear whatever they want; the university have aspects in giving education. Europeans, also, as one of the leading technological continents do not force students to wear uniforms. These countries tends to make progress in developing this nation more than forcing their students to wear uniforms.

Text 5.4: The Argument 2 in class 1's 'proof-read' text

Although students in developed countries do not wear uniforms to classes, they can succeed academically. For example, Americans and Europeans, as the technological leaders, do not force their students to wear uniforms. But, the universities in these countries are more concerned with intellectual stimulation which is more important for the academic success and useful for the development of the countries. In fact, students will be more able, as graduates, to develop their countries by being academically well prepared rather than dressing according to the university's arbitrary rules.

In hindsight, I should have been more confident with my English and have explained to students clearly that the Joint-Negotiation stage was carried out in order to provide students with a good model text of the Exposition before they began writing it by themselves. The model text does not need to be a perfect one.

Because I used the 'proof-read' text to revise and edit every part of the model texts, the Joint-Negotiation stage went on for rather too long (five and four hours in classes 1 and 2 respectively). Some students developed negative feelings about this stage. For example, Sakda wrote that the Joint-Negotiation stage was carried out for so long that he thought it is not suitable to the Thai educational context:

Still, we're learning about exposition. Joint-Negotiation technique is not suitable here. It take time for a while that I think it's going on very slow. Tell you ... adviser that this method doesn't work (Sakda, 12/1/98).

Suwanan stated that she spoke for the whole group:

It takes us so long time to finish writing the text for the 'Uniforms' topic. I can tell you that we don't like it (26/1/98).

Some students suggested more constructive criticism, arguing that the Joint-Negotiation stage should have been carried out differently. Instead of asking them to write the Exposition texts jointly with me, they suggested that I should have asked them to write texts by themselves first. I could then select from these to provide samples of unsuccessful texts, analysing why these are unsuccessful. The following quotations illustrate this:

I would like you to show us some examples of unsuccessful texts. You don't need to tell us whose texts they are. You can help us to find out their strengths and weaknesses. I think we will get more knowledge from this activity than writing text together (Wiyada, 29/1/98).

I don't think you need to carry out the Joint-Negotiation stage like you did. You may ask students to write texts by themselves and then show us some unsuccessful texts. We all can discuss their strengths and weaknesses together (Sunisa, 29/1/98).

On the evidence of the way the Joint-Negotiation stage went, I quite agreed with students' suggestions. I was not confident with my own English and was worried that I would not be able to provide students with appropriate advice regarding their control of grammatical structure and the clarity of their sentences. Although I now realise that it is not necessary to help students to produce a perfect model text, I think that I would be more comfortable and secure with my teaching if I were to carry this stage out as students had suggested. As I am able to prepare students' texts beforehand, I could discuss the details and provide them with advice regarding the strengths and weaknesses of their texts confidently and systematically. If the Joint-Negotiation stage is conducted this way they may find the activity more relevant and genuinely want to participate in it.

If I experienced these confidence-undermining emotional reactions related to my own teaching, it is also likely that the majority of Thai EFL teachers will have the same experience. Most will not have my opportunity to study in a native English speaking country for an extended period and are therefore likely to be less confident about their English than I am about mine. See Chapter 7 for further consideration of this issue.

(e) Understanding that Writing Involves Drafts: During the Independent Construction stage, I was initially hesitant to allow students to write multiple drafts although I was aware of their value. I was worried that the teaching of Exposition would be carried out for too long and I would not be able to finish teaching other genres. I became convinced that it was necessary to build into students' expectations that writing involves drafts after I compared their first with their second and third drafts during the Independent Construction stage. Analysis of students' first drafts showed that while students had substantial knowledge about the "rainforests" topic, some of them were not yet able to write their texts successfully because they did not yet have sufficient understanding of the Exposition's generic structure. In some students' texts, the generic structure was similar to the Description. In others' texts, although the generic structure resembled the Exposition's, some parts eg. Thesis Statement and Arguments were not yet well developed. By contrast, analysis of students' second and, particularly, their third drafts revealed that most students were able to write texts which approximated to successful Exposition texts. To illustrate this, the extracts of arguments from Kingkam's first and third drafts will be analysed and discussed. She was a

representative from the 'average' group and her text is included here as her work is typical of others.

Text 5.5: The 'Argument' in Kingkarn's first draft

What will happen if the Rainforests are destroyed? The answer is the world is not the same. Everything is affected. The rain does not fall as usual, the quantity of the water in the rivers, the canals, and the dams decrease. There are not much plants as the past. It affects the animals because there are less foods from plants for them. The animals that eat meat are affected too because when the animals that eat plants have less foods, they cannot survive and are going to have less quantity, it means that there are less meat to eat. When everything decreases, man is affected a lot because the less of foods and water.

Text 5.6: The 'Argument' in Kingkarn's third draft

Presently, world's climate is warmer. It is a result of cutting down many trees. Usually, the trees keep temperature to be normal. They absorb carbon dioxide, produce oxygen, and cause the rain. When the trees are cut down, and the factories still produce carbon dioxide, the gas is less absorb. It is still in the world's atmosphere because there are no trees to absorb it. This causes greenhouse effect. Its consequences are the higher word's climate, the usual seasons, and the less rainfall.

The comparison between texts 5.5 and 5.6 showed that in text 5.5 Kingkarn did not state clearly the issue to be discussed in a paragraph, but hypothesised that the world would not be the same as a result of rainforest destruction. In addition, she discussed three different issues in the same paragraph, including the decrease of rainfall, and the loss of plants and animals. Typically, in the written Exposition each argument focuses on only one issue (Martin 1985).

On the other hand, in text 5.6 Kaew stated the topic sentence clearly, leaving the reader with no doubt as to the purpose of the paragraph, that is, the world's climate is warmer as a consequence of rainforest destruction. The supporting information, based on facts, explains why this is so, making her argument more successful than that in Text 5.5.

Analysis of drafts of other students also showed significant improvement of their control of the Exposition between drafts 1 and 3. The results of the analysis are detailed in Chapter 6.

To conclude, the opportunity to write drafts contributed considerably to students' improvement of control of the Exposition.

5.4 Conclusion

Analysis of students' responses over the semester indicated an increasingly favourable response to the genre-based approach. Approval grew especially as students became more aware of my purposes in this approach and more comfortable with the activities included in the teaching program. Despite some initial resistance, the students indicated that the most positive feature was that the program provided them with a new and systematic learning experience. Students commented that the explicit teaching of the generic structure provided them with guidelines to write the Exposition effectively. They knew 'what' they were learning and 'why' they were learning it.

Students also identified some difficulties with the genre-based approach, or at least with the way in which I had presented parts of it while teaching the Exposition genre. These were: the order of stages within the Teaching-Learning Cycle, the importance of writing practice, the importance of negotiating the choice of topic, the challenge of writing Exposition and the issue of learner independence.

My own reflections on the experience of teaching the genre-based approach were clearly shaped by my personal situation – a relatively inexperienced teacher who was simultaneously attempting both to teach and research. However, my reflections also highlighted a number of issues that are likely to be relevant to other EFL teachers in Thailand attempting to introduce the genre-based approach in their programs. These issues include understanding the significance of the Building up the Field Knowledge stage, understanding the functional nature of language, building on students' prior knowledge, confidence in my own use of English, and understanding that writing involves multiple drafts.

Based on students' reactions and my own reflections, I consider the genre-based approach would work well to teach factual writing to adult students in the Thai EFL

context. Its Teaching-Learning Cycle is practical and based on a sound body of linguistic and educational theory, enabling teachers to explain to students explicitly and systematically the way in which a text is constructed to achieve its purpose. I found that the genre-based approach needs to be modified to suit the Thai education system. Proposals for its modifications will be discussed in detail in Chapter 7

CHAPTER 6

THE IMPACT OF THE GENRE-BASED APPROACH ON STUDENTS' WRITING

This chapter aims to explore the extent to which the genre-based program impacted on students' writing. Before embarking on the detailed discussion of the text analysis, it is necessary to explain the context in which the texts were written (6.1), the criteria that were used in the selection of students' texts (6.2) and the tools for text analysis (6.3). Analyses of the sample texts are presented in 6.4-6.6.

6.1 The Context of Writing

The texts which were selected for analysis were the texts written on the following topics: 'Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?', 'Should rainforests be saved?' and 'Should smoking be banned in public places?' These will be referred to as Topics 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

The sequence was significant for evaluating not only students' progress through the course, but also, from the research point of view, to assess how the genre-based approach contributed over time to students' ability to write factually. Topic 1 was written in the second hour of the semester (i.e. before the genre-based program began). Students were required to write 200-250 word essays for Topic 1 without prior discussion about the topic, or any indication of the generic structure and language features of the Exposition. The reason for asking students to write texts on this topic will be explained at the end of this section.

Topic 2 was written after students had spent about 15 hours (approximately half-way through the course) studying the Exposition genre through all stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle as indicated earlier. Students were allowed to write up to three drafts for

the “rainforests” or alternative topics. However, only their final drafts were selected for the analysis. Again, as indicated earlier most students (34 of 45) chose to write their texts for the “rainforests” topics (see Chapter 5 for an outline of the students’ reaction to my selection of the topic.)

Topic 3 was written at the end of the semester. In accordance with the requirement of the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, all students were required to take the three-hour final examination. I set the examination paper with a requirement to write a 200-250 word Exposition essay on either of the topics ‘Should smoking be banned in public places?’ or ‘Should Khaodin Zoo be renovated?’ Students were provided with reading articles (three medium length and two long articles, both in English and Thai, for ‘Should smoking be banned in public places?’ and three longer articles in Thai for ‘Should Khaodin Zoo be renovated?’). The majority of students (39 of 45) chose to write their essays on the former topic because the “smoking” topic was an issue of immediate concern to the students, while the “Zoo” topic was remote from their experience several hundred kilometres away in the country’s capital city, Bangkok. In addition, students may have found the articles in English on “smoking” provided useful vocabulary and sentence models to assist them.

In the analysis that follows, I have chosen only student texts on the “smoking” topic mostly because the vast majority of students chose this in preference to the “Zoo” topic. A second, but significant factor is that the writing of the few students who wrote about the ‘zoo’ is less representative of the group, making comparisons more difficult. It was intended that a selection of students’ texts from the first topic (“uniforms”) be compared with the final drafts of the second (“rainforests”) to find out what changes were evident that could be attributed to learning in the genre-based context. Both of these exercises were conducted within the normal classroom teaching-learning situation with my assistance available at any time. However, the third topic (“smoking”) was conducted as a final examination. This is not an ideal (or realistic) situation in which to write, with the implication that it may also have had an effect on the validity of comparisons made about learning writing skills with the texts produced for the previous two topics.

However, as noted in Chapter 2, at 2.5, the Thai education system places high value on the final written examination, and this is also true at Khon Kaen University. This method of assessment is unlikely to be replaced in the near future.

In the situation imposed by a formal examination, all students had exactly the same resource material and the same three-hour time limit in which to produce a first-draft outcome. I was able to judge the way students made use of what they had learned about writing the Exposition, without any input from consultation with me. The comparisons between students' essays for Topic 3 with the texts written about the two earlier topics enabled me to gain insights into the extent to which students had become able to generalise their knowledge of the genre-based theories to their texts.

As mentioned in 4.10.2, the data collected from Topics 1, 2 and 3 were extensive:

Table 6.1 A summary of the number of students' texts.

Topics	Number of Students' Texts
1. Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?	42*
2. Should rainforests be saved?	
(a) Draft 1	34**
(b) Draft 2	31***
(c) Draft 3	34
3. Should smoking be banned in public places?	39
4. Should Khaodin Zoo be renovated?	6
Total	186

(Note: * 3 students did not write texts for this topic, ** 11 students decided to choose their own topics, and *** 3 students did not submit their second drafts)

To illustrate the impact of the genre-based approach teaching program, 18 texts from six students (one text for each topic from each of the six students) will be referred to in this

analysis. As a benchmark, detailed analyses of three texts (one on each topic) of one student will be presented, selected as typical of others and providing an indication of the kinds of features evident in their writing. Reasons for the selection of these sample texts will be explained in 6.2. Texts of other students are also available for review in Appendix 6.

6.2 The Selection of the Sample Texts

Based on the preliminary analysis of all students' texts, I decided to categorise students into three groups: 'above average', 'average' and 'below-average'. As a check on the allocation I asked the opinion of several lecturers in the Department, who confirmed the grouping into these three broad ability categories. As noted above, to make the project manageable I have provided detailed analysis only of the texts for all three topics of six students chosen as representative of each ability group.

Four students were female, but gender was not an issue because the majority of students in the class were female. Texts were selected from across the range to ensure that the results of the analysis reflected the impact of the genre-based program on students' writing as accurately as possible. To ensure the anonymity of the students, all of them are referred to throughout this thesis by pseudonyms. Students who were representatives of the 'advanced' groups are called Sakda and Wittaya; of the 'average' group called Gaew and Intira; and of the 'below-average' group called Kanya and Uma. While the texts of these students will be cited and referred to constantly, the texts from a sample consisting of two additional students from each of the three groups for each of the three topics are available for review in Appendix 6.

As mentioned in 6.1, texts of one student on each topic were analysed in detail as the benchmark for comparison. Gaew, one of the representatives from the 'average' group, was regarded as most typical of the majority of the students in terms of both the level of English language proficiency on entry and her positive and negative reactions towards the genre-based program (see also Chapter 5). Comparisons are made with the texts of

the other five students to provide detail about the impact of the genre-based program on their writing. The analysis of linguistic features in these five students' will be summarised and used to provide illustrative material where appropriate.

6.3 The Tools for Text Analysis

The tools for text analysis were fully described in 4.11. I now apply them in analysing the students' texts constructed in the context of using the genre-based approach in the specific tasks of teaching English – especially writing skills – as a foreign language to adult students. In order to remind the reader, these tools will be briefly reviewed.

As a teacher, I would like to investigate the extent to which the genre-based program enabled students to develop control of the Exposition. Therefore, I examined the following features:

- the control of appropriate generic structure; and
- the control of language features relevant to the genre of Exposition (i.e. tenses, participants, processes and technical terms).

As a researcher, I carried out further linguistic analysis to understand students' development as the writers. More specifically, I analysed students' development of arguments and drew on the following features:

- thematic structure;
- grammatical metaphors (i.e. nominalisation and nominal groups, and grammatical metaphor of reasoning through verbs, nouns and prepositions); and
- use of 'internal' conjunctions.

Analyses of the above features also enabled me to understand the 'method of development' in students' texts, and find the strengths and weaknesses in them.

In addition, I was interested in analysing students' control of grammatical accuracy of sentences. Based on the preliminary analysis of all students' texts, the detailed analysis of the sample texts focused on:

- singular and plural forms of nouns;
- agreement between subject and verb;
- use of and selection of articles
- punctuation;
- appropriate prepositions;
- conjunctions.

Analysis of how well students have learned these features and how they have applied them in their texts follows.

It should be noted that the numbers in front of each clause indicates its sequence and all spellings in the texts are as in students' original texts.

6.4 Analysis of Texts for Topic 1 'Should Students Wear Uniforms to the Classroom?'

6.4.1 Control of appropriate generic structure

Analysis of generic structure of the texts written for Topic 1 aims to find out what students already knew about Exposition at the start of this new subject in the language program. It also investigates whether, in their first attempt to write English texts for this subject, students would carry over aspects of, or are in any way influenced by, the delayed introduction of purpose typical of Thai writing.

The results of the analysis from texts for this topic (referred to as "uniforms") will be compared with the results of the analysis of their control of the same linguistic features from their texts for Topic 2 ("rainforests") and Topic 3 ("smoking") to gain insights into the nature of the impact of the genre-based approach.

Analysis of students' control of generic structure in Topic 1 texts revealed that most students (41 of 42) did not yet have systematic awareness of the generic structure of the Exposition. This was to be expected because there had been no prior discussion of the genre. When writing on this topic, students tended to shift between genres of Exposition, Recount and Discussion (see also 4.8 and Appendix 2 for the descriptions of these genres).

It was also evident that the Thai writing style, including especially delayed introduction of purpose, influenced most students' texts. Interestingly, only two texts showed that they appeared not to have been influenced by the Thai writing style.

Gaew's text, below, (representative of 'average' students) demonstrates the shift between genres and the influence of the delayed introduction of purpose.

Gaew's text begins on the following page.

Introduction/Preview → The question "Should Students wear uniform to the classroom?" is quite popular in the teenager in Thailand. And in my university, it is popular also. I have chance to talk with my friend in this topic and a many of them don't want to wear uniform to the classroom. They said that it was not necessary for the students now because they must pay a lot of money for buying their uniform and they were not little students who must have a uniform, they should get a freedom. In the developed country like USA, England or Japan, the student don't wear university uniform. Our country should follow them. Those are their opinion.

Series of arguments (cons)

Series of arguments (pros) → However, some of students like wearing uniform, they said that it is polite and good looking. If the students didn't have uniform, they would pay a lot of money for the fashionable cloths. It is not necessary for students.

Thesis Statement → In my opinion, I like wearing uniform because the uniform shows that I am a student. I think that a teacher wear a polite cloth so we should do that also. And I can know the Thai student like to follow the fashion so it is not good if some students wear a good and expensive cloths, but some students don't have any money to buy them. It shows different students in the university.

Series of arguments (pros)

Conclusion → So students wear uniform to classroom or university is so good I think.

Annotations on the right side:
 - "past" tense
 - material
 - mental
 - verbal
 - relational
 - existential

The generic structure of Gaew's text shifts between the genre of Discussion, which tends towards the Recount genre because it reports the views of others, and Exposition. Gaew begins her text with:

1. The question "Should Students wear uniform to the classroom?" is quite popular in the teenager in Thailand.
2. And in my university, it is popular also.
3. I have chance to talk with my friend in this topic
4. and a many of them don't want to wear uniform to the classroom.

These clauses contain information that may be described as Introduction/Preview. The reader is introduced to the topic, that is, Khon Kaen University's policy requiring students to wear uniforms to the classroom. However, it lacks a Thesis Statement, identifying the writer's position taken on the issue that is necessary to a successful

Exposition text (Rothery 1986). Clauses 3-4 function as Preview, foreshadowing that the information in the following paragraphs will be about the argument against the issue indicated in the Introduction from Gaew's friends' perspective.

5. They said
6. that it was not necessary for the students now
7. because they must pay a lot of money for buying their uniform
8. and they were not little students who must have a uniform,
9. they should get a freedom.
10. In the developed country like USA, England or Japan, the student don't wear university uniform.
11. Our country should follow them.
12. Those are their opinion.

The information in clauses 5-12 confirms the readers' expectation. It involves a series of arguments, one of which is that it is not necessary for students to wear uniforms because of the cost factor (clauses 6-7). The second argument is the age or maturity factor implying that the university's students are capable of making reasonable choices (clauses 8-9). The third argument is to compare the requirement of their university with perceived prestigious European, American and Asian models (clauses 10-11).

13. However, some of students like wearing uniform,
14. they said
15. that it is polite and good looking
16. If the students didn't have uniform,
17. they would pay a lot of money for the fashionable cloths.
18. It is not necessary for students.

On the other hand, the information in clauses 13-18 has not been referred to before in the Introduction. Unlike former arguments, the arguments presented in these clauses are in favour of the policy.

Generically, these arguments make the text like a Discussion because the writer attempts to present arguments from more than one point of view (Derewianka 1990; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Butt, Fahey, Spinks and Yallop 1995). Some parts of these arguments, especially between clauses 5-8 and clauses 14-17 also made the texts like a Recount because they report the views of other students towards the issue as supporting evidence for Gaew's arguments.

19. In my opinion, I like wearing uniform

From clause 19 onward the generic structure of the text shifts back to Exposition. The writer's position on the issue is stated in clause 19, indicating that she is in favour of the policy. This significantly contrasts with typical academic Exposition writing in which the writer's position or interpretation of the issue is clearly stated in a Thesis Statement at the beginning of the text. In addition, it contrasts with the reader's expectation set up at the beginning of the text.

- 20. because the uniform shows that I am a student.
- 21. I think
- 22. that a teacher wear a polite cloth
- 23. so we should do that also.
- 24. And I can know
- 25. the Thai student like to follow the fashion
- 26. so it is not good
- 27. if some students wear a good and expensive cloths,
- 28. but some students don't have any money to buy them.
- 29. It shows different students in the university.

In an attempt to justify her position, a series of arguments are provided. However, these arguments consist simply of a list of ideas and are not characteristic of mature Exposition which the students are expected to achieve. In mature Exposition, each Argument for the Thesis tends to be developed into a paragraph rather than lists of ideas (Martin 1985; Derewianka 1990). The first argument is concerned with the

responsibility of being a student (clause 20). The second one implies the value of paying respect to teachers, that is, as the teacher wears conservative clothes, students should wear them as well (clauses 21-23). The third one is about 'fashion'. In Gaew's point of view, it is not good for students to wear fashionable clothes as this may create difference between students because some cannot afford them (clauses 24 – 29).

30. So students wear uniform to classroom or university is so good

31. I think.

In Conclusion, Gaew re-instates her position on the issue (clause 19).

Analysis of Gaew's text shows that she is able to provide arguments supporting her position. At this stage they are presented as a simple list, each item of which would be elaborated and linked in more developed Exposition writing. Additionally, her control of the generic structure of the Exposition is limited because her writing traverses the genres of Discussion and Recount as well as Exposition.

Analysis of generic structure in Gaew's text also reveals the extent to which her text reflects writing in the Thai manner. She approaches the 'uniforms' topic indirectly. Instead of stating her own position on the issue explicitly at the beginning of the text as one would expect in an English Exposition, Gaew discusses her friends' reactions towards the policy (clauses 1-18). She first states her position on the issue in the middle of the text (clause 19 "*In my opinion, I like wearing uniform*") and even here it is a slightly oblique expression. This is followed by a list of ideas supporting her position. She notes that a uniform clearly differentiates students from other people (clause 20), and offers an analogy with the conservative clothes worn culturally ('polite cloth') by teachers (clauses 21-23). She goes on to say that many students cannot afford to keep up with changing fashions so that socio-economic differences are less apparent if everyone wears the same clothes (clauses 24-29). Each of the points Gaew makes is perfectly valid, however because of their organisation, native English speakers may find her text unnecessarily indirect and hence quite difficult to understand.

The shift between genres and the influence of the writing in Thai manner is also evident in other students' texts. I selected Intira's text, (see below) another representative from the 'average' group, because it also showed the delayed introduction of purpose. In addition, it skated across the Recount, Exposition and Discussion genres.

Since I was born and started to learn at the school, I never wore the private uniform, there. I used to wear the uniform more than the private. I think it look beautiful because every students wear it and they look the same. If someone wears the uniform, and someone doesn't, when they join together, it look very strange.

When I moved to university, I was surprise why the students always discussed to wear the different style from the uniform. I don't agree with those students. There is easy reason. It looks clean when everybody wears black and white uniform. The important point, it is save for students who have a little money. They can buy the uniform (three shirt and three skirt) and they can use them all the week (until finish study). In the contrary, if the students wear the private style to study, they must change the style of the fashion all the time. It make them pay a lot of money to buy the new clothes in every month. It's because they don't want to wear the same style all the time. The last reason, when the students wear the uniform it mean that they respect the teacher who teach them in each subject.

Now, I am the student, too. I want to beg every body who still study in this university. "Please wear the uniform to the faculty because it points that you are the education person because you follow the rule of the university".

Annotations: "past" tense (pointing to was, started, wore); mental (pointing to I think it look); material (pointing to wears); Thesis Statement (pointing to I don't agree with those students); relational (pointing to points that you are); Orientation (pointing to the first paragraph); Exposition (Series of Arguments) (pointing to the first and second paragraphs); Thesis Statement (pointing to the underlined sentence in the second paragraph); Exposition (Series of Arguments) (pointing to the rest of the second paragraph); Conclusion (pointing to the third paragraph).

Intira's text, similar to Gaew's text, does not begin with a Thesis Statement introducing the reader to the topic and stating her position taken about the issue. Instead, it begins with an Orientation, a typical generic structure of the Recount, where the reader is introduced to a participant (Gerot and Wignell 1994). In this case, it is Intira herself who recounts her experience that she had never worn casual clothes to school (clauses 1-4).

1. Since I was born
2. and started to learn at the school,
3. I never wore the private uniform, there.
4. I used to wear the uniform more than the private.

However, from clauses 5-12 the generic structure of the text is more like Exposition because Intira attempts to provide reasons for her choice.

5. I think
6. it look beautiful
7. because every students wear it
8. and they look the same.
9. If someone wears the uniform,
10. and someone doesn't.
11. When they join together,
12. it look very strange.

But, in clauses 13-14 the generic structure of the text shifts back to Recount briefly where Intira retells her experience concerning uniform wearing in the university.

13. When I moved to university,
14. I was surprise why the students always discussed to wear the different style from the uniform.

Then, in clauses 15-27 the generic structure of the text again shifts back to Exposition where Intira's position taken on the issue is established, that is, she does not agree with the policy which requires students to wear uniforms to the classroom (clause 15). This is followed by arguments supporting her position. The first argument is concerned with the '*clean look*' of uniforms (clause 17). The second one is that wearing the uniform is economical for students (clauses 18-24). The third one is that it is the way that students

can show their respect to their teachers (clauses 25-27). However, similar to the arguments in Gaew's text, these arguments are simply a list of ideas.

15. I don't agree with those students.
16. There is easy reason.
17. It looks clean when every body wears black and white uniform.
18. The important point, it is save for students who have a little money.
19. They can buy the uniform (three shirt and three skirt)
20. and they can use them all the week (until finish study).
21. In the contrary, if the students wear the private style to study,
22. they must change the style of the fashion all the time.
23. It make them pay a lot of money to buy the new clothes in every month.
24. It's because they don't want to wear the same style all the time.
25. The last reason, where the students wear the uniform
26. it means
27. that they respect the teacher who teach them in each subject.

In her Conclusion, Intira reaffirms her position on the issue (clauses 28-32):

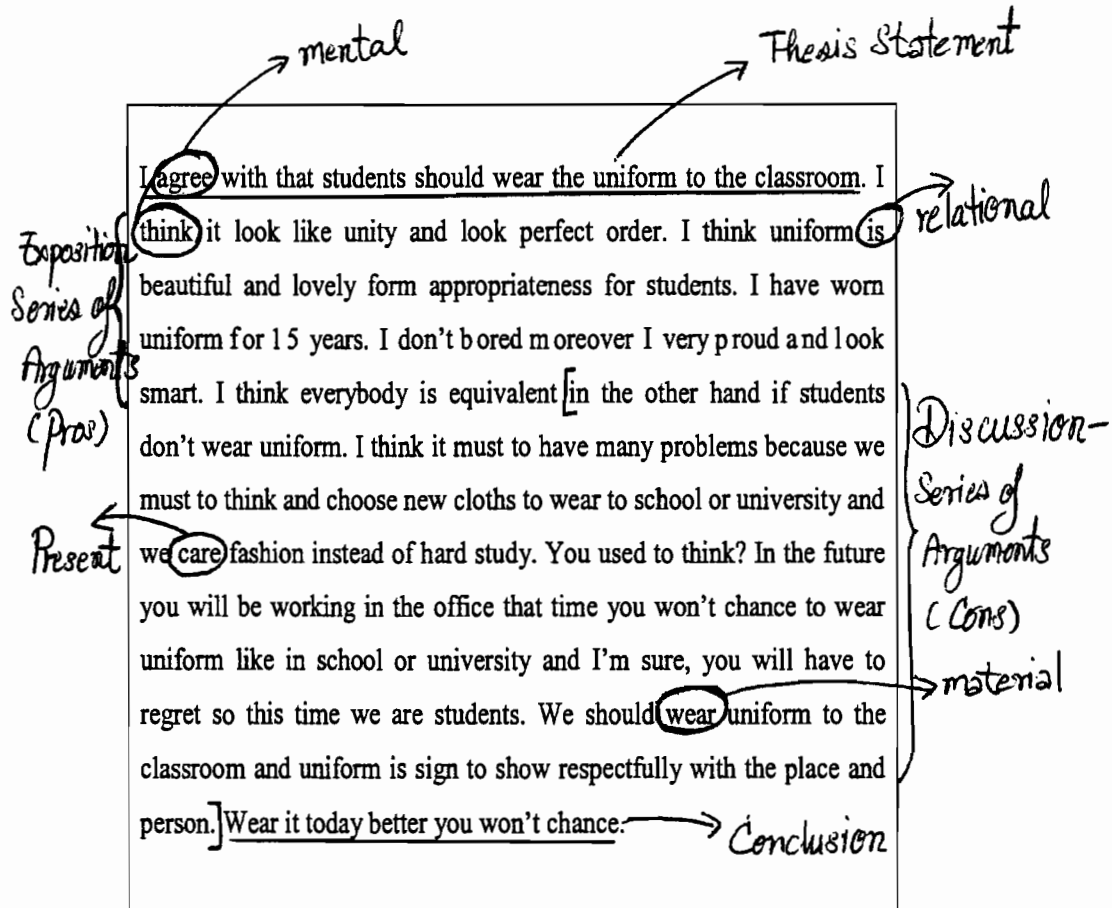
28. Now, I am the student, too.
29. I want to beg every body who still study in this university.
30. "Please wear the uniform to the faculty
31. because it points that you are the education person
32. because you follow the rule of the university".

But, instead of summarising the arguments presented in the text in the Conclusion as the typical Exposition does, Intira proposes a new argument, or perhaps the recommendation that students should conform to the policy. As they are educated people, they should follow the rules of the university (clauses 30-32). This leaves the reader wondering whether the writer wants to pursue the issue further.

As this analysis illustrates, Intira's text is influenced by the 'Thai' generic structure. She delays stating her position on the issue until clause 15 so that native English readers may think that her work at the beginning of the text is story writing. She contextualises her readers to the topic by retelling her experience that she never wore casual clothes at schools (clauses 1-4) and explaining reasons why (clauses 5-12). It is not until clause 13 that wearing a uniform to university is mentioned, the basis of the question. Her attitude in the context of the question is to express surprise that students at the University wanted to wear clothes other than the uniforms. Only then does she state her position on the issue that she supports the idea of wearing uniforms to the classroom (clause 15 "*I don't agree with those students*"). As already discussed above, arguments supporting her position contain only lists of ideas. Intira argues that students should wear uniforms to the classroom because of its "*clean look*" (clause 17). In addition, she argues that it is "*economical*" for students to wear uniforms (clauses 18-24) and that it is the mark of "*respect*" to their teachers (clauses 25-27). Although the text ends up with Conclusion, it does not actually summarise arguments in the text as the typical (English) Exposition does. Instead, Intira suggests the completely unrelated notion that students should wear uniforms because it indicates that they are educated people that accept the right of the university to have a policy on this issue (clauses 28-32). This leaves the reader quite confused about whether she is actually arguing in favour of wearing uniforms or has a completely different agenda, generalising from the example of uniforms to support conformity to whatever policies the university authorities may unilaterally announce, that is, proposing a new argument. As in Gaew's text, Intira's expression makes perfectly valid points but they are tangential rather than direct, and sequenced without obvious logical development, resulting in something closer to a 'list' rather than an Exposition.

In some of the other students' texts, the shift between genres also occurs (eg. Exposition and Discussion). However, these texts (2 of 42) introduce purposes at the beginning of the text as expected of the English texts. An example is found in Uma's text, one of the representatives of the 'below average' group.

Uma's text:



The results of the analysis of Uma's text, showed that the generic structure of the text shifts only between the Exposition and Discussion, making it different from Gaew and Intrira's texts. Typical of Exposition, the text begins with the Thesis Statement in which Uma states her position on the issue, agreeing that students should wear uniforms to the classroom (clause 1). This enables the reader to have a clear idea about the purpose that Uma wants to achieve.

1. I agree that students should wear uniform to the classroom.

To support her position, Uma provides arguments stating the 'advantages' of wearing uniforms. She lists three main ideas: appearance, habit and equality.

2. I think it look like unity and look perfect order.
3. I think uniform is beautiful and lovely form appropriateness for students.
4. I have worn uniform for 15 years.
5. I don't bored.
6. moreover I very proud
7. and look smart
8. I think
9. everybody is equivalent

However, from clauses 10-22 the generic structure shifts from Exposition to Discussion as Uma discusses the policy of wearing uniforms from the negative position, the 'disadvantages' of not wearing them. Here she elaborates two of her points: the time-wasting distraction of choosing what to wear, and clothes in life after university.

10. in the other hand if students don't wear uniforms.
11. I think
12. it must be to have many problems
13. because we must to think and choose new cloths to wear to school or university
14. and we care fashion instead of hard study.
15. You used to think?
16. In the future you will be working in the office
17. that time you won't chance to wear uniform like in school or university
18. and I'm sure,
19. you will have to regret
20. so this time we are students.
21. We should wear uniform to the classroom
22. and uniform is sign to show respectfully with the place and person.

Similar to the typical Exposition, the text ends up with Conclusion where Uma restates her position on the issue firmly (clause 23).

23. Wear it today better you won't chance.

However, as mentioned above, Uma's text reveals real weaknesses in her control of the Exposition because of the shifts of the generic structure from Exposition to the Discussion, with its arguments listed rather than being organised into paragraphs.

The above analysis shows that Uma's text is not influenced by the indirect manner of Thai writing. Uma's ability to organise information as convention requires in English was beyond my expectations because no prior discussion of the genre had taken place. It is possible that Uma had been exposed to the Exposition/English style writing outside the classroom through English books or in other English courses.

In summary, analysis of students' control of generic structure in texts for the Topic 1 showed that the vast majority of students (41 of 42) – across the 'above average', 'average' and 'below average' groups – were not yet able to write texts which approximated to successful English Exposition. In their texts, the generic structure tended to shift between the Exposition, Recount and Discussion. Further, their arguments were presented as simple lists rather than ideas being organised into paragraphs which focused on and developed each point.

The analysis also indicates that most students' texts (40 of 42) were influenced by the manner of Thai writing, especially involving the delayed introduction of purpose (eg. Gaew and Intira's). In just two texts such influence was not evident, and notably one example (Uma's) is from the 'below average' group. It should be noted that although Uma's text was stronger than others in this respect, it was weaker in that her arguments were less developed than others.

6.4.2 Language Features Relevant to the Genre of Exposition

Analysis of language features of the students' texts for Topic 1 aims to find out the extent to which students were able to use appropriate linguistic resources in constructing their texts prior to being taught by the genre-based language program. The results of the analysis indicated that most students across three ability groups were able to use appropriate tenses in their texts. It is noted that tense here refers to students' use of the present tense to make expository statements, the past tense to retell experiences and the future to predict, appropriately to the context.

Analysis of other language features – participants, processes and technical terms – revealed that most students had difficulties using these language features in their texts. To illustrate students' control of language features, Gaew's text – the representative of the 'average' group – will be analysed and discussed. The language features in two other students' texts – one from the 'above average' and the other from the 'below average' group – will be used to provide additional illustrative material.

(i) **Tenses:** As mentioned in 4.8, in Exposition, as in other factual genres such as Discussion, the simple present tense is typically used to present arguments because they are, for the most part, timeless generalisations. Other tenses, particularly the past and future tenses, may be also used when the writer wants to recall the past events or make predictions. In Gaew's text, the simple present tense was appropriately used to present arguments. Past tense is also used when she recalled and recorded her conversations with her friends. However, the change of tenses from present to past actually defines a shift of the generic structure from the Discussion to Recount. The following clauses illustrate this:

Key to interpreting the following texts' analysis:

: present tense

: past tense

: future tense

The sign // signals the sequence number of the clause

- Clauses 13-18: However, some of students **like** wearing uniform, //they **said** //that it **is** polite and good looking.// If the students **didn't** have uniform,// they would pay a lot of money for the fashionable cloths.// It **is** not necessary for students.
- Clauses 19-23: In my opinion, I **like** wearing uniform// because the uniform **shows** that I **am** a student.// I **think** //that a teacher **wear** a polite cloth //so we **should do** that also.

Similarly, in Kanya and Wittaya's texts (see Appendices 4), the representatives from the 'below average' and 'above average' groups respectively, the present tense was appropriately used to present arguments. Yet, these two texts differed from Gaew's text in that while other tenses (i.e. past and future tenses) were used, they were used only briefly to recall the past events or make predictions. Examples of the use of tenses in Kanya's and Wittaya's are presented below.

Kanya's text:

- Clauses 1-3: I **think** //it **is** necessary to wear uniform to the classroom//. because we **come** to class to get the knowledge//.
- Clauses 6-7: I **had seen** the international school,// the students don't wear uniform.

The above examples show that Kanya appropriately used the present tense in her text (eg. clauses 1-3), and also she used the past tense only briefly to recall an impression she had of another institution's students' clothing (clause 6). This change of tenses did not result in the shift of the generic structure to the Recount as in Gaew's.

Wittaya's text:

- Clauses 2-3: But, I also **think** // that it **will be** so terrible//
- Clauses 19-21: The uniforms worn by school boys **are** all the same// and I **think**// **it's** very funny//.
- Clauses 23-25: What I said **is** just like the problem of male students.// As I **know**, // all my female friends **got** into trouble after such a rule **was declared** strictly by who **is** not student and **doesn't** understand we students//.

Like Kanya, Wittaya appropriately used the present tense to present arguments (eg. clauses 19-21). He also used the future tense to make a prediction about the reaction of students to the University regulation regarding the uniforms (clause 3). Further, he used the past tense to recall the experience of his female friends in supporting his argument against the policy of wearing uniforms to the classroom (clause 25). As Wittaya used the past tense only briefly, it did not result in the shift of the generic structure to the Recount as in Gaew's.

The effective use of the tenses, particularly the present tense in students' texts (across all three groups) is almost certainly because they have learnt about this language feature in their previous writing courses, and possibly because the meanings are similar in their mother tongue.

Analysis of language features such as participants, processes and technical terms in students' texts showed that most – across all three groups – were not yet able to use these language features in their texts appropriately. To illustrate, these language features will be referred to in Gaew's text, with additional references to the texts of Wittaya and Kanya.

(ii) Participants: Because the social function of the Exposition is to put forward a point of view, or argument (not the personal world of the writers) it typically requires the use of generic human or non-human participants, although some specific participants can also be used (Callaghan and Rothery 1988; Derewianka 1990). Analysis of Gaew's text shows that she includes a number of generic participants. But, many other participants are specific participants, referring to Gaew herself and those who are related to her such as "*my university*", "*I*" and "*my friends*" as illustrated in the following clauses:

Key:

Underlined bold: generic participants

Italic bold: specific participants

- Clause 1: The *question* “Should Students wear uniform to the classroom?” is quite popular in the teenager in *Thailand*.
- Clause 2: And in *my university*, it is popular also.
- Clause 3: *I* have chance to talk with *my friends* in *this topic*
- Clause 4: and *a many of them* don't want to wear uniform to the classroom.
- Clauses 5-6: *They* said// that it was not necessary for the students now
- Clause 7: because *they* must pay a lot of money for buying *their uniform*

It should be noted that Gaew's – average group – use of specific participants from clauses 5-7 marks the shift of the generic structure to the Recount. According to Derewianka (1990) and Board of Studies, NSW (1994), the use of specific participants is more common in literary or story genres such as personal Recount and Narrative. As the purposes of these genres are to reflect upon and interpret the writer's experience, they emphasise specific and everyday participants such as *I*, *my university* and *my friends*.

In Kanya's – below average – text, similar to Gaew, a number of generic participants, both human and non-human, are used. In addition, specific participants are frequently used. The following clauses exemplify the use of participants in Kanya's.

- Clause 2: because *we* come to class to get the knowledge,
- Clause 19: But in their uniform especially *KKU student* there are many style of them.
- Clause 22: In *my opinion*, *I* don't agree with it
- Clause 23: because many students set the problem with it
- Clause 24: because they don't have the cloth which in law.
- Clause 25: And now, in *our country* have an economics problem too.

However, Kanya's text differs from Gaew's in that while it contains a substantial number of specific participants, they do not mark the shift of the generic structure to the Recount. Rather, they show that Kanya's text resembles speech written down. This will be discussed in more detail at the end of this section.

In Wittaya's – above average – text, as in Gaew's and Kanya's, a number of generic participants, both human and non-human participants, are used such as “*uniform*”, “*students*”, “*male students*” and “*high school*”. But, the text also contains a substantial

number of specific participants, particularly the personal pronouns such as “*I*”, “*we*” and “*me*” as in the following clauses.

- Clauses 5-6: What I mean is *I* am definitely willing to wear the **uniform**,// but the **uniform** shouldn't be something most of **students** don't want to wear.//
- Clauses 7-8: As *the rule* says,// for **male students**, the **shirt we** wear must be like the **shirt we** used to wear in **high school**//

Similar to Kanya's, the use of specific participants in Wittaya's text does not mark the shift of the generic structure to Recount. Rather, it indicates that Wittaya wrote his text as he would speak.

(iii) Processes: As mentioned in Chapter 4, at 4.8, the Exposition tends to use a variety of processes such as relational, material and existential. As it is concerned with the interpretation of the world in a rational way, the explicit expression of the writer's personal feelings, attitudes and experience is normally discouraged (Martin 1985; Martin and Peters 1985; Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW 1994). Therefore, mental processes, which encode the writer's thinking, and verbal processes, indicating the structuring of thought into words, do not frequently occur. In Gaew's text, the dominant processes are relational and material. Some mental processes (eg. “*like*” and “*know*”) are also used to project Gaew's personal opinions and attitudes towards the “uniform” policy. Further, the use of verbal processes (e.g. “*talk*” and “*said*”) are also evident, encoding both Gaew's and her friends' communication processes.

Key:

Underlined bold: Mental Processes

Italic bold: Verbal Processes

- Clause 3: I ***have chance to talk*** with my friends in this topic.
- Clauses 5-6: They ***said*** //that it was not necessary for the students now//
- Clause 9: However, some of students **like** wearing uniform.
- Clauses 14-5: they ***said***// that it is polite and good looking.//
- Clause 19: In my opinion, I **like** wearing uniform
- Clauses 24-5: And I can **know**// the Thai student **like** to follow the fashion//

At the beginning of the semester, in common with all other students, Gaew was not aware explicitly of the purpose of the Exposition. Nor did she have any conscious understanding of processes typically used in the Exposition. Therefore, she was not yet able to use appropriate processes to develop her arguments effectively.

In Kanya's, similar to Gaew's, the dominant processes are relational and material. However, the text also contains a considerable number of mental and verbal processes. Some examples of these processes are:

- Clause 6: I **had seen** the international school,
Clause 10: They can wear the cloth every style that they **want** or the **like**
Clause 13: we shouldn't **judge** everyone by their cloth or their wearing.
Clause 22: In my opinion, I **don't agree** with it

Kanya's use of mental and verbal processes, similar to Gaew's, makes her text appear to be subjective because of the frequent use of "I" and "we", although this may be more to do with the lack of the range of alternative expressions, to be expected of beginner writers.

In Wittaya's text – above average – the overwhelmingly majority of processes are relational although there are also a number of mental as well as some verbal processes. The following clauses exemplify mental and verbal processes in his text:

- Clauses 7-8: As the rule **says**,// for male students, the shirt we wear must be like the shirt we used to wear in high school//
Clauses 13-5: I can **imagine** //that even the very handsome students who wears the uniform according to the rule of K.K.U. perfectly **must be known** //that he is from an university in countryside//
Clauses 116-7: For me, I **agree** //that jeans shouldn't be acceptable,/
Clauses 26-7: For me, people who **decide to declare** such a rule is like a dictator,// because he **thought** by himself//

As previously mentioned, the overt expression of feelings and opinions are to be expected of the beginner writers.

(iv) **Technical Terms:** Exposition generally tends to require writers to use a number of appropriately chosen technical terms that are particular to the subject matter to allow the writers to present arguments precisely and clearly. By using these terms, the writers can appear to present the information objectively, making their texts more written-like (Derewianka 1990, 1998). Analysis of Gaew's text, however, shows that she has used only everyday vocabulary or lexical items rather than terms particular to psychology of ego, or the fashion industry. This was to be expected because the "uniform" topic is a 'here and now' controversial issue with the wider implications for these students and does not require any technical knowledge. The following clauses illustrate this:

Clauses 5-9: They said// that it was not necessary for the **students** now// because they must pay a lot of **money** for buying their **uniform**// and they were not little **students** who must have a **uniform**,// they should get a **freedom**.

Similarly, Kanya and Wittaya's texts contain only everyday language:

Kanya's text:

Clauses 12-15: I think// we shouldn't judge **everyone** by their **cloth** or their **wearing**// I think// we should judge **people** by their **mind** or their **behavior**//.

Wittaya's text:

Clauses 7-10: As the **rule** says,// for **male students**, the **shirt** we wear must be like the **shirt** we used to wear in **high school**// and the **shirt** with long **sleeves** is okay// The **trousers**, according to the **rule**, are very unattractive//

To sum up, analyses of language features in students' texts for Topic 1 revealed some of their strength and weaknesses. A strength was that most students (across all three ability groups) were able to use tenses (i.e. present, future and past) appropriately in their texts. Their weaknesses were that they did not yet have control of a number of language features that were particularly relevant to the written Exposition. Most students' texts contained language features used in spoken language. They contained a substantial number of specific human participants, referring to students themselves or those who were somehow related to them such as "I", "we" and "my friends". Eggins (1994) and

Knapp and Watkins (1995) argued that in written text students were expected to make greater use of abstract language and generalised phenomena. In addition, most students often used verbal (eg. "said" and "talk") and mental (eg. "know" and "like") processes to encode their own and other participants' communication and thinking processes explicitly. Further, technical terms were not used, only every-day vocabulary (eg. "uniform", "classroom" and "cloth") probably due to how close they were to the "uniform" topic. The influence of spoken language in students' texts indicates that they were relatively inexperienced writers in English as well as grappling with the new demands of written Exposition.

6.4.3 The Development of Arguments

As discussed in 4.12 and 6.3, analysis of the development of arguments in each text drew on the following features:

- thematic structure;
- grammatical metaphors (i.e. nominalisation and nominal group, and grammatical metaphor of reasoning through the use of prepositional phrases, verbs and nouns);
- use of 'internal' conjunctions; and
- method of thematic development.

Analysis, of the development of arguments, based on the above features, in texts for Topic 1 revealed weaknesses in the writing of students from all three ability groups. Most obviously, their arguments were influenced by their personal feelings and attitudes. They drew on their personal experiences rather than investigated the issue in the abstract and presented the work based on factual research and expressed in logical argument. The expression of reasoning was made explicitly, normally through causal conjunctions. Almost all the conjunctions used in most texts to structure arguments were external, rather than the internal ones more typical of the written texts. Most arguments were a simple list of ideas. This combination contributed to the spoken-like quality of the texts. To illustrate this, Gaew's text, representative of the 'average group', will be analysed and used as the base for comparison. Texts of Sakda and Uma, representatives from 'above average' and 'below average' groups respectively, will be used as further illustrative example.

In Gaew's text, the development of arguments was based on her personal responses rather than on factual and logical arguments that may be found in researching the topic at some depth. Possibly my deliberate choice of a topic that is a common student experience and which generates divisive discussion is the real cause of the frequent subjective expressions of opinion. Gaew's personal responses were evident in her frequent use of the Interpersonal Theme and her choice of Topical Theme. For example:

19.

In my opinion,	I	like wearing uniform
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

Analysis of Topical Themes in Gaew's text (see also Appendix 5) also shows that the arguments are about Gaew herself, or those who are somehow related to her, rather than more abstract expressions related to aspects of the topic, more typical of the written text (Egins 1994; McCarthy and Carter 1994). Gaew's choice of Topical Themes is most commonly the first person pronouns such as "I", "we" and "you". Her other Topical

Themes are short and are concerned with specific participants such as "a many of them", and "our country". For example:

3.

I	have a chance to talk with my friends in this topic	
Topical	Rheme	

4.

and	a many of them	don't want to wear uniform to the classroom.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

And	I	can know
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Gaew's use of conjunctions also influences the way in which she develops arguments. In the following extracts she expresses her line of reasoning explicitly, using mainly

causal conjunctions. All types of conjunctions in her text are external, that is, relating actions going on in the real world. To illustrate these points at this early stage of her writing development, some Textual Themes in Gaew's text will be analysed.

In this first example, Gaew frequently uses causal conjunctions to express cause and effect between clauses explicitly. In the following clauses conjunctions "because", "so" and "if" are used. All of these conjunctions are external.

7.

because	they	must pay a lot of money for buying their uniform
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

so	it	is not good
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

if	some students	wear a good and expensive cloths,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Apart from causal conjunctions, the only other conjunctions in Gaew's text are additive conjunctions, all of which are also external:

2.

And	in my university,	it is popular also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

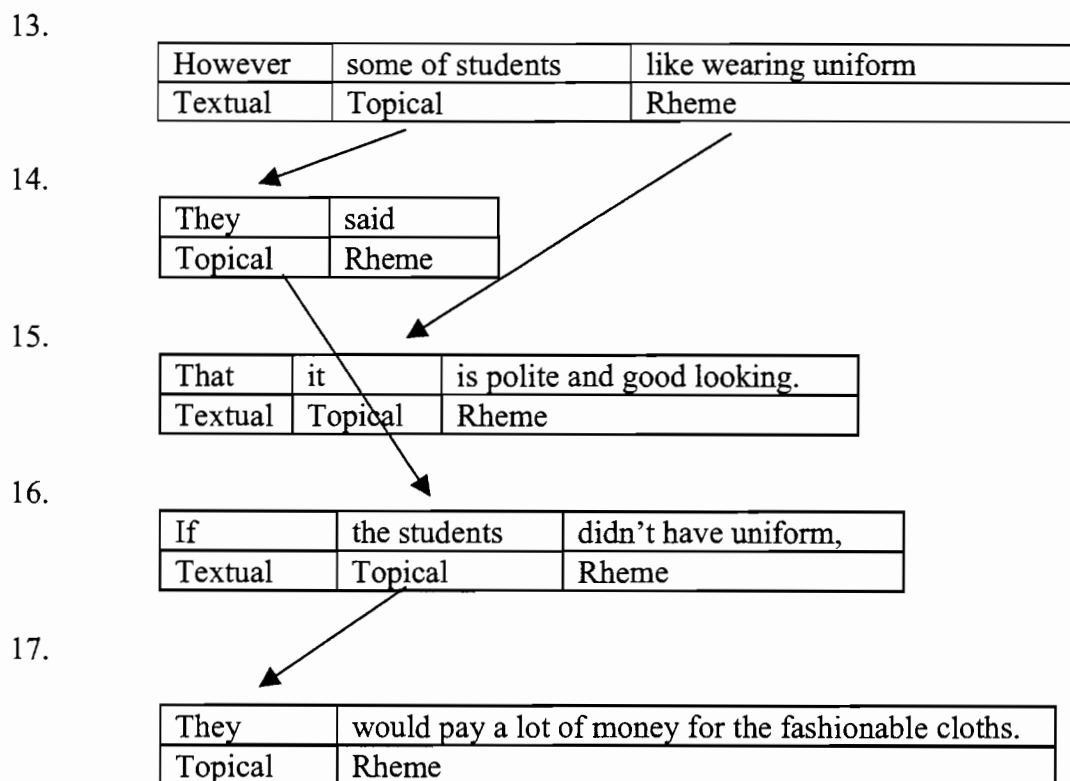
However,	some of students	like wearing uniform,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

but	some students	don't have any money to buy them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

The development of arguments in Gaew's text is not yet appropriate to the written Exposition because it consists only of lists of ideas rather than being organised into

paragraphs focusing on and developing each point (Martin 1985). Analysis of the method of thematic development illustrates this. The text contains short segments of Theme re-iteration in which some participants are thematised regularly, followed by thematic shifts, between different personal pronouns or various human participants. The following clauses illustrate the method of thematic development in Gaew's text:



As the above clauses illustrate, the personal pronoun “*they*” in clauses 14 and 17 is thematised repetitively, referring back to “*some of students*” and “*the students*” in clauses 13 and 16 respectively. This repetition of placing the participants in the thematic position is a strong reinforcement of the meaning (Eggins 1994). In Gaew's case, this repetition does not add to our knowledge as the ‘new’ information introduced in Rheme is never followed up. In clause 15, the Topical Theme shifts rapidly to “*it*”, referring to “*wearing uniforms*” in clause 13. Subsequently, the arguments in clauses 13-17 were only lists of ideas concerning ‘*what*’ students thought about the uniform and ‘*what*’ they would do if they don't have uniforms.

Analysis of relevant features in Sakda's text, a representative from an ‘above average’ group, in common with Gaew's, showed that his ability to develop arguments was not

yet appropriate to the written Exposition (see also Appendix 5). His arguments were based heavily on his personal responses; he expressed reasoning explicitly, using external causal conjunctions and his arguments were mainly a list of ideas.

Sakda's personal response to the topic was evident in his use of the Interpersonal Theme and especially, his choice of Topical Themes. Again, this was probably because of his involvement in discussions with other students about this topic. His one example of the Interpersonal Theme is:

21.

In my opinion,	in the future	when the students are the grown up,
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

The majority of Topical Themes were personal pronouns and many of them referred directly to Sakda himself through the personal pronoun "I". Where the personal pronouns were not thematised, the themes tended to be generic human participants or short nominal groups concerned with specific individuals such as "everyone", "each students", "one of my teachers" and "what I want to discuss here". It is significant that Sakda intended to convey the information from his point of view and that the information was concerned with people involved rather than with generalisations about them. For example:

12.

we	're going to walk along the communism.
Topical	Rheme

13.

One of my teachers	said
Topical	Rheme

14.

that	he	would wait to see that what is the result of paying attention at the uniform rather than to the academics.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

15.

and	I	agree with him.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

16.

What I want to discuss here	is how good it is
Topical	Rheme

Like Gaew, Sakda expressed reasoning explicitly, using causal conjunctions. Both “*because*” and “*if*” are external:

8.

because	it	is not a polite way of telling someone to do something by making the rule without noticing before.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

If	the faculty	neglects the aim of giving students academics.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Other kinds of conjunctions used in the text (eg. additive and temporal) are also external:

Key:

Italic bold: additive conjunctions

Underlined bold: temporal conjunctions

2.

<i>but</i>	I	have no idea why.
<i>Textual</i>	Topical	Rheme

4.

Since	I	was the first year
Textual	Topical	Rheme

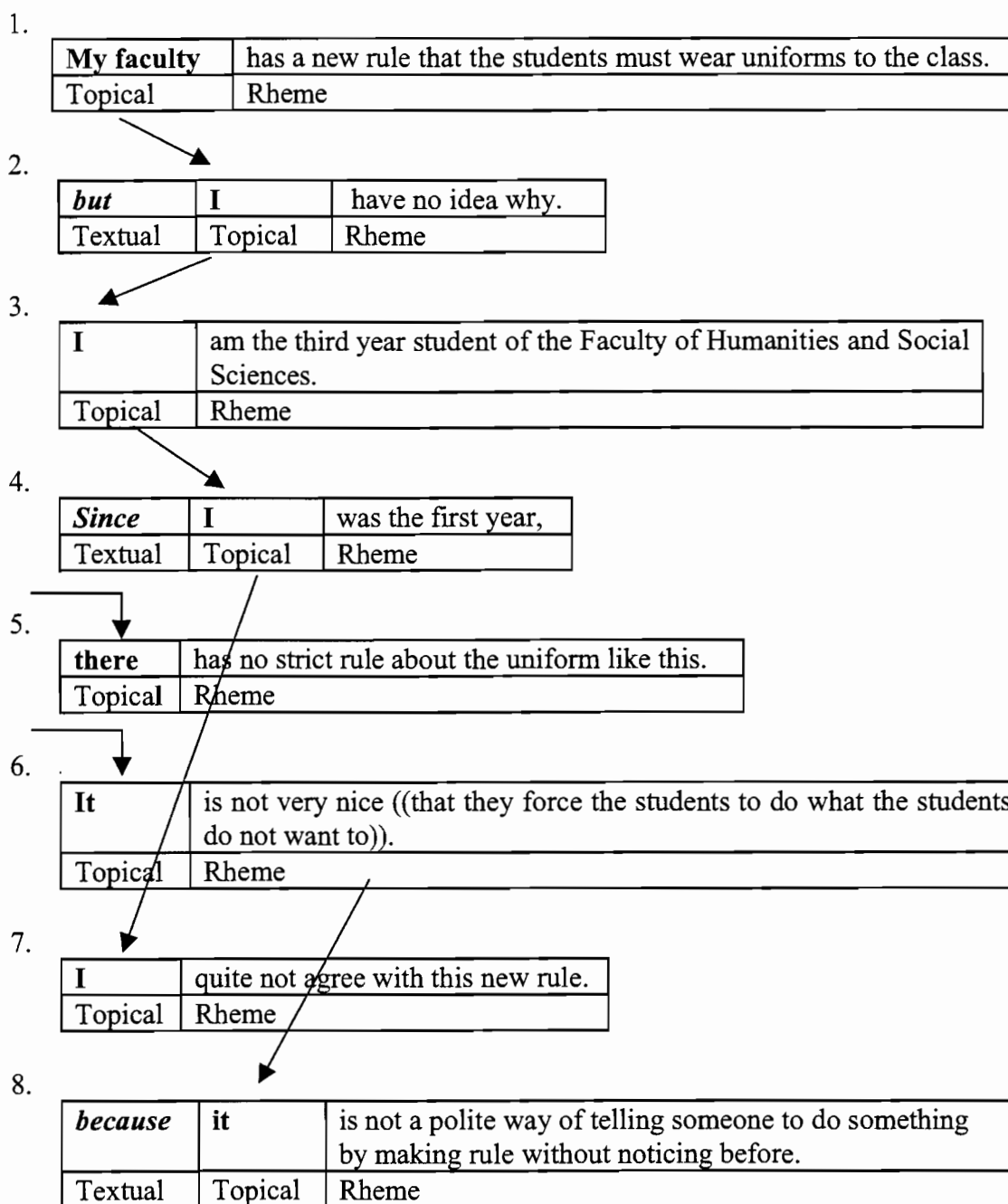
18.

And	I	Agree with him.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Again, using causal conjunctions to express reasoning between clauses explicitly, and external conjunctions to organise information, both appropriate in spoken language, are not typical of a written Exposition (Martin 1985; Hammond et al 1992; Butt et al 2000).

Sakda's text, like Gaew's, consists primarily of a series of ideas. Also like Gaew's, his method of thematic development draws heavily on the theme re-iteration, followed by rapid thematic shifts, normally between different personal pronouns or various human participants. The following clauses illustrate this:

The analysis of Sakda's text begins on the next page.



Analysis of above clauses shows that at the beginning of the text, the point of departure of the clause is a short nominal group “*my faculty*”, clearly indicating that what Sakda is going to talk about involves him personally. The themes in the following clauses (clauses 2-4) are the re-iteration of the personal pronoun “*I*”, emphasising that the information in these clauses is organised from Sakda’s point of view. In clauses 5 and 6, the thematic patterns shift to “*there*” and “*it*” which are usually considered as ‘dummy’ elements because they refer neither to the writer or readers, nor to anything that can be regarded as an aspect of the issue being talked about. They are located at the thematic

position because every clause in English needs to have a subject (Berry 1995). In clauses 7 and 8, the personal pronouns “*I*” and “*it*” are thematised again, indicating that the ‘new’ information introduced in Rhemes in previous clauses has not been followed up. As a result each argument in Sakda’s text is only a list of ideas.

Uma’s text, a representative from a ‘below average’ group (see also Appendix 5), is consistent with Gaew’s and Sakda’s in the problems of developing arguments. Her arguments are also largely based on her personal expression of ideas, opinions and experience. While Uma also primarily expresses her reasoning explicitly, using only causal conjunctions there is an interesting difference here. Her text includes a sprinkling of internal conjunctions. As with the others, though, her arguments are only a series of ideas.

Uma’s personal expression of ideas, opinions and experience is evident in the pattern of Topical Themes. The majority of them are personal pronouns “*I*”, “*we*”, “*you*” and “*It*”. Only a few Topical Themes are generic participants such as “*uniform*” and “*students*”. Unlike previous examples, there is no evidence of complex nominal groups in Uma’s text, below. Examples of Topical Themes are:

13.

in the other hand	if	students	don’t wear uniform.
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

15.

it	must to have many problems
Topical	Rheme

16.

because	we	must to think
Textual	Topical	Rheme

The reasoning in Uma’s text is expressed explicitly through the use of two causal conjunctions and both are external:

16.

because	we	must to think and choose new cloths to wear to school or university.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

so	this time	we are students.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Other conjunctions (which were additive conjunctions) illustrated below, are also external:

2.

and	in my university	it is popular also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

However,	some of students	like wearing uniform,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

but	some students	don't have any money to buy them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

However, her text includes two instances of internal conjunctions. These are:

Key:

Italic bold: additive conjunctions

Underlined italic: comparative conjunctions

9.

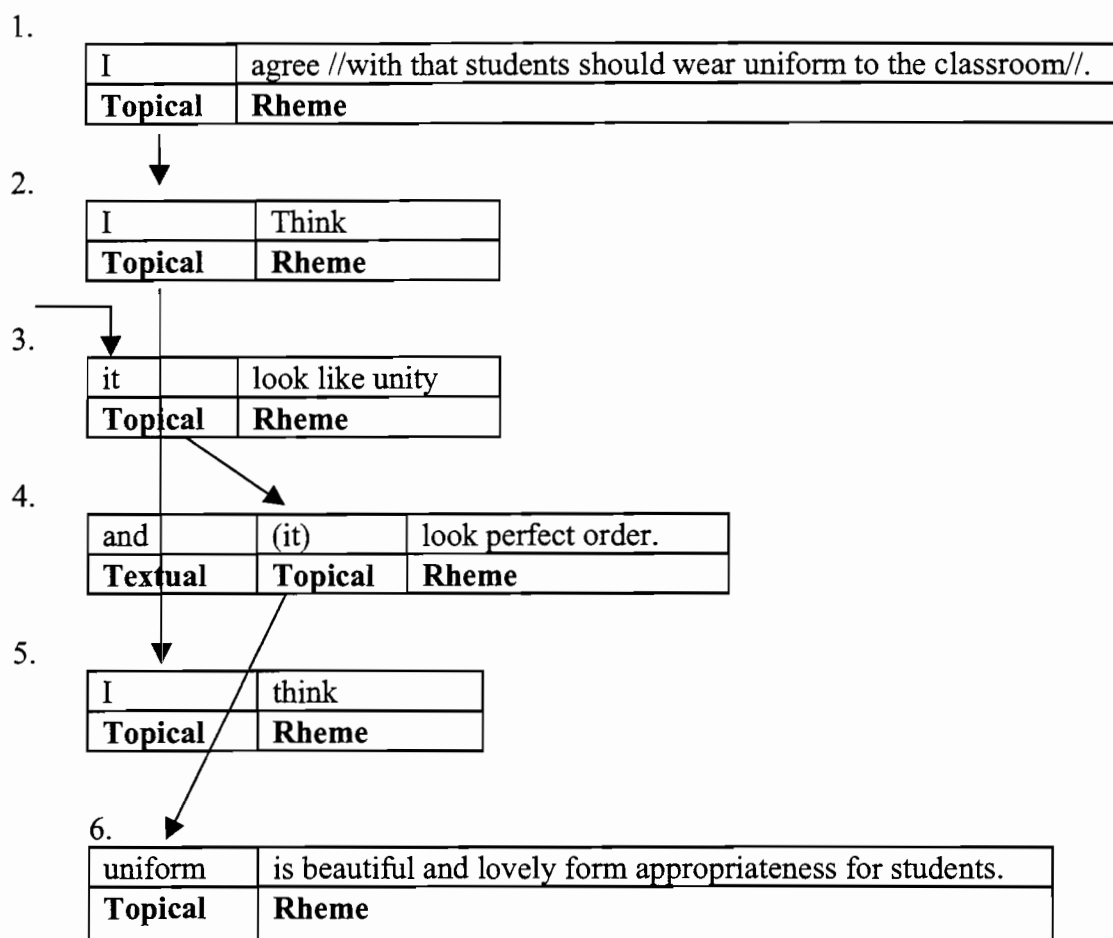
<i>moreover,</i>	I	very proud
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

<i>in the other hand</i>	<i>If</i>	students	don't wear uniform
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

The use of these internal conjunctions enabled Uma to present information rhetorically. In other students' texts, like Uma's, internal conjunctions are used only sparingly. This indicates that students are beginner writers and are not yet aware of the language

features of written texts. Despite Uma's use of internal conjunctions, the majority of her arguments is a list. The method of thematic development in her text illustrates this.



The method of thematic development in Uma's text is dominated by Theme re-iteration. As the above examples illustrated, in clause 1 the personal pronoun "I" is thematised and is then re-iterated in clause 2. In clause 3, the theme shifts to "it", referring to the "uniform" and is then reiterated in clause 4. In clause 5, the theme, again, shifts back to "I". In clause 6, the theme is "uniform" picking up those presented in clauses 3 and 4. On the one hand, the repetition of the same participant gives the text a clear focus. On the other hand, it indicates that the text is not developing because, as with the other texts, the 'new' information introduced in Rhemes is not picked up for elaboration. Because of this method of thematic development, the arguments are realised as a list.

To conclude, analysis of the ways in which students developed arguments in Topic 1 revealed major weaknesses. Typically, students drew on personal feelings, ideas and

experiences. This was especially evident in their choice of Themes. In addition, while their texts contained arguments, these were typically just a list of points, rather than the kind of developed and supported arguments that we would expect in a mature English Exposition. The extent to which this occurred became evident through the analysis of the method of thematic development which revealed that the theme re-iteration pattern was dominant (Eggins 1994). This method of thematic development indicated that students were aware of the issues but were unable to elaborate them in the zig-zag and multiple theme structure of written text (Eggins 1994).

6.4.4 Summary of Analysis of Texts on Topic 1

In order to establish a baseline for later comparison students' initial texts were analysed in terms of the level of control of generic structure and major language features of the Exposition (eg. Martin and Rothery 1980, 1981; Martin and Peters 1985). These analyses showed that most students were able to write comprehensible texts and to express their views about the "uniforms" topic. Predictably, the majority of students (41 of 42) had limited understanding of the significant features of the Exposition genre. Samples of the students' work at this preliminary stage showed that most texts shifted between genres such as the Exposition, Recount and Discussion. This was evident in 6.4.1.

Analysis of texts also provided clear evidence that most students' texts (40 of 42), as could only be expected, were strongly influenced by the writing style in Thai inculcated throughout schooling and the courses taken to date at tertiary level. The feature most inconsistent with the convention of argument in English is to delay the introduction of purpose. This is likely to be interpreted by English readers as vague, circular, obscure writing, or simply unnecessarily difficult to understand. When attempting to write factual material for English readers students will need to learn to introduce their purpose in an opening sentence, or at least, paragraph to meet their readers' expectations.

The texts also suggested that most students – again across all ability groups – were able to use tenses (i.e. present, past and future) appropriately in their texts. However,

analysis of other language features (i.e. participants, processes and technical terms) indicated that students had a number of difficulties. For example, most texts consisted of a significant number of specific participants, particularly those which referred to the writers directly, such as “*I*”, “*me*” and “*we*” rather than including generalised participants such as “*uniform*”, “*university students*” and “*students' rights*”. Students also used a substantial number of ‘verbal’ and ‘mental’ processes to encode their feelings and attitudes towards the issue explicitly such as “*said*”, “*judge*” and “*think*”. Because the “uniform” topic concerned them personally, it was to be expected that they would use every-day language and lexical terms such as the “*uniform*”, “*students*” and “*clothes*”.

Further linguistic analysis of students' texts showed that arguments in the sample texts from all ability groups were based mainly on the overt expression of the writers' personal feelings, ideas and experience. Most students used causal conjunctions to express cause and effect between clauses explicitly. Research also found that, at this stage, students used mainly external conjunctions. Finally, the research noted that students have ideas, but expressed them in the form of a list.

As mentioned earlier, students wrote texts for Topic 1 (“uniforms”) prior to being taught by the genre-based approach. It was expected that they would have difficulty writing expository texts to achieve their purposes successfully and effectively. On the other hand, students wrote texts for Topic 2 (“rainforests”) after they had been taught by the genre-based approach. Students' texts for Topic 2 therefore provided indications of the extent to which the genre-based approach impacted on their writing. Since the genre-based program focused specifically on the generic structure and language features of the genre, the analysis of these features should be especially relevant.

6.5 Analysis of Texts for Topic 2 (Should rainforests be saved?)

As already mentioned in 6.1, students wrote texts for Topic 2 “rainforests” after being taught by the genre-based program for approximately 15 hours. Analysis of students'

texts for this topic aims to shed light on the extent to which the genre-based program impacted on their writing.

6.5.1 Developing Control of Appropriate Generic Structure

Analysis of texts for Topic 2 illustrated that students generally had much greater understanding and control of a generic structure appropriate for the Exposition. The change of students' control of generic structure was evident in most students' texts, especially those written by students from the 'above average' (9 of 9) and 'average' (18 of 20) groups. However, the change in students' texts from the 'below average' group (5 of 5) was less dramatic. Overall most texts (29 of 34) contained generic structure appropriate for the genre (i.e. Thesis/Preview, Argument(s), and Conclusion) (Martin and Rothery 1981; Rothery 1986; Gerot and Wignell 1994). In a very few texts (5 of 34) it was less well developed.

Almost all texts (33 of 34) indicated considerable uptake of the generic structure of the Exposition, even though the period of teaching was relatively short. Using texts from the same students as in the earlier section of this chapter, the text by Gaew ('average group') will be analysed and discussed in detail to demonstrate the considerable change of the writer's control. Two other students' texts (i.e. Intira, another representative from the 'average' group, and Uma, a representative from the 'below average' group) will also be reviewed as illustrative material.

Gaew's text begins on the next page.

Gaew's text:

→ Thesis Statement/Preview

Rainforests are thick forests with all trees that are very close together.
They are mainly found in tropical areas where there are a lot of rain.
Presently, rainforests are being destroyed at harmfulness, The
destruction of rainforests cause we a lot of problems, for instance, the
greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food
products and the disappearance of natural places

→ nominal groups

→ Argument 1

The destruction of rainforests causes the greenhouse effect. If we cut
down a lot of trees, we will have no trees to absorb CO₂, and
greenhouse gas. CO₂, and other greenhouse gases allow less heat
energy from the sun to escape back in the atmosphere. When the heat
energy cannot escape, it will come back to the world and our world will
be warmer. The scientists predict that the next century the world's
temperature will increase between 1 degree and 3.5 degrees. This
causes the world's climate to change. For example, temperatures in the
UK will become like the Mediterranean countries. Also, the world's
agriculture will be damaged. Moreover the ice-covered areas will melt
and pour into the ocean. Some countries such as Bangladesh will suffer
from floods.

→ technical terms

→ mental

→ material

→ Argument 2

Another problem is that many plants and herbs used to produce
medicines will be destroyed. At least a quarter of important medicines
came from the plants which grow in rainforests. Curare, ipecac, wild
yam and Madagascar periwinkle are examples of forest plants are used

cc verb reasoning

Gaew's text continues on the next page.

to fight major disease such as cancer, leukaemia, muscular and heart diseases. Possibly rainforest plants provide medicine for AIDS. If we destroy the rainforests, these plants will be destroyed also.

Furthermore, the loss of rainforests means the loss of food, drinks, and natural products. Rainforests provide us with food and drinks such as rice, chocolates, oranges, lemons. In fact, many food crops actually originated in the rainforests. Although we can grow crops, the qualities of domestic crops are not quite good. They still need their wild relatives in order to save from devastation by diseases. Besides rainforests provide us with other essential materials, for example, furniture, cosmetics, stationery, musical instruments and logs for construction. If we wish to consume them in the future, we should stem the rate of rainforest destruction.

Moreover, if rainforests disappear, our natural places will disappear. Rainforests are places which are full of natural things like shade, water falls, flowers and wild animals. They are beautiful parts of our world. They make us feel relaxed and happy. If rainforests are destroyed, they cannot give us enjoyment.

In conclusion, the destruction of rainforests follows a lot of enormous problems: the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places. If we do not want to face these problems, we should save rainforest before it will be too late.

Handwritten annotations:

- material (pointing to "essential materials")
- relational (pointing to "means")
- Argument 3 (pointing to "the loss of food, drinks, and natural products")
- Argument 4 (pointing to "Moreover, if rainforests disappear...")
- "passive" voice (pointing to "are destroyed")
- "Present" tense (pointing to "follows")
- Conclusion (pointing to "In conclusion...")

Analysis of Gaew's text for Topic 2 ("rainforests") revealed that her control of generic structure had changed dramatically from that in her text for Topic 1 ("uniforms"). She was able to write a text that approximated more closely to a successful Exposition. At the beginning of the text the Thesis Statement was clearly established, leaving the readers with no doubt as to the purpose of the text, that is, to persuade the reader that rainforests should be saved (clauses 1-4). Clause 4 functions as Preview, foreshadowing the arguments to be presented to support the issue proposed in the Thesis Statement.

This enables the readers to predict that the arguments will be concerned with the effects of rainforest destruction in the areas of the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.

1. Rainforests are thick forests with tall trees that are very close together.
2. They are mainly found in tropical areas where there are a lot of rain.
3. Presently, rainforests are being destroyed at harmfulness,
4. The destruction of rainforests cause we a lot of problems, for instance, the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.

Most arguments (Arguments 1, 2, 4) focus on respective issues proposed in the Preview. Argument 1 (clauses 5-19) is about the greenhouse effect. Argument 2 (clauses 20-25) covers the disappearance of plants and herbs used to produce medicines. Argument 4 (clauses 35-41) is concerned with the disappearance of the natural places. Each argument contains a topic sentence, clearly identifying the issue being focused on, and supporting details, providing evidence and examples to support the issue. However, Argument 3 (clauses 26-34) contains information which is slightly different from that presented in the Preview (clause 4). It introduces the notions of "*the reduction of food products*" as well as "*the loss of drinks and natural products*". Even though this information is rather unexpected and thus attracts the reader's interest, it is closely related to the information indicated in the Preview (clause 4).

5. **The destruction of rainforests causes the greenhouse effect.**
6. If we cut down a lot of trees,
7. we will have no trees to absorb CO₂, and greenhouse gas.
8. CO₂ and other greenhouse gases allow less heat energy from the sun to escape back in the atmosphere.
9. When the heat energy cannot escape,
10. it will come back to the world
11. and our world will be warmer.
12. The scientists predict

13. that the next century the world's temperature will increase between 1 degree and 3.5 degrees.
14. This causes the world's climate to change.
15. For example, temperatures in the UK will become like the Mediterranean countries.
16. Also, the world's agriculture will be damaged.
17. Moreover the ice-covered areas will melt
18. and pour into the ocean.
19. Some countries such as Bangladesh will suffer from floods.
20. **Another problem is that many plants and herbs used to produce medicines will be destroyed.**
21. At least a quarter of important medicines came from the plants which grow in rainforests.
22. Curare, ipecac, wild yam and Madagascar periwinkle are examples of forest plants are used to fight major disease such as cancer, leukaemia, muscular and heart diseases.
23. Possibly rainforest plants provide medicine for AIDS.
24. If we destroy the rainforests,
25. these plants will be destroyed also.
26. **Furthermore, the loss of rainforests means the loss of food, drinks, and natural products.**
27. Rainforests provide us with food and drinks such as rice, chocolates, oranges, lemons.
28. In fact, many food crops actually originated in the rainforests.
29. Although we can grow crops,
30. the qualities of domestic crops are not quite good.
31. They still need their wild relatives in order to save from devastation by diseases.
32. **Besides rainforests provide us with other essential materials, for example, cosmetics, stationery, musical instruments and logs for construction.**
33. If we wish to consume them in the future,

34. we should stem the rate of rainforest destruction.
35. Moreover, if rainforests disappear,
36. our natural places will disappear.
37. **Rainforests are places which are full of natural things like shade, water falls, flowers and wild animals.**
38. They are beautiful parts of our world.
39. They make us feel relaxed and happy.
40. If rainforests are destroyed,
41. they cannot give us enjoyment.

Gaew sums up the arguments and reaffirms her position in 'Conclusion' (clauses 42-44).

42. In conclusion, the destruction of rainforests follows a lot of enormous problems: the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.
43. If we do not want to face these problems,
44. we should save rainforest before it will be too late.

Gaew's control of the generic structure makes her text achieve its purpose successfully.

Intira's text, below, is typical of other 'average' and 'above average' students, her control of generic structure also improves significantly. Like Gaew's, the generic structure of Intira's is well formed.

Intira's text begins on the next page.

Intira's text:

→ Thesis Statement / Preview → mental

Now rainforest is being destroyed too much from people who want its benefits. They have never known that there are a lot of bad effects if rainforest disappears.

→ Argument 1 → material

Firstly, animal and plant species will become extinct. There are many kinds of plants and animals in rainforest. Animals can survive because trees give them food and home. If trees are cut down, animals will die because of lack of food and place to live. Then animals will lose. For example, presently people hardly see Orangutan, Aye-aye, and Lumur because they have no place for surviving. → existential

→ generalised participants

← Argument 2

Secondly, forest people who know about medicines and plants will die. These people can not survive without forest because it is their home. They survive themselves by eating fruits, hunting small animals, and growing crops. They know the way to treat themselves from diseases because they stay in forest for their whole life. They can learn which herb uses for what. For example, they use the rosy periwinkle to treat leukaemia, the calabar bean for eye disorders, and papaya seeds for anti-fungal. Without rainforest, they will die. Their knowledges of medicine and plant will be gone with them, too.

→ Argument 3

→ passive voice

Thirdly, soil erosion will occur because there are no trees to absorb the water when the rain falls. Rainforest can relieve soil erosion because trees' leaves can make the rain pour on the soil softly and the roots make the water flows slowly. Conversely, if trees are cut down, the rain can not be absorbed and the topsoil will be destroyed. After topsoil is broken it will be hard for trees to grow because there are a lot of nutrients on topsoil. When trees lack of nutrients, they will die.

Intira's text continues on the next page.

Finally, the earth's climate will change. As rainforest is destroyed, there are no trees to absorb Carbondioxide (CO2) which releases from human activities, especially from burning material from wood and garbages. When this toxic gas rise up to the atmosphere, Ozone will be decreased (Ozone can protect people from sun's heat). So sun's light can shine directly to the earth and the heat will be kept in the earth so much. This process is called "greenhouse effect". As the temperature is higher, some ice-covered areas will melt such as Antarctic and Alaska. Then sea levels will rise and flood. Further the earth will become too hot. It can make people die because their skins are destroyed by ultraviolet (UV). And later their skin become to cancer which is hard to treat.

Argument & technical terms
relational
nominal groups

Conclusion
In conclusion, the loss of rainforests affects human beings who live in the earth directly. They will lose their lives and their properties. As long as human being can see rainforest, it is good sign that their life will go on. In contrary, if rainforest disappears, human being will have no future. Thus, if you want to live longer, save it.

Intira begins her text with Thesis Statement, providing background information about the topic and indicating her judgment on the issue (clauses 1-4). Clauses 2 - 4 function as Preview, outlining the arguments to be presented in the text to support Intira's position.

1. Now rainforest is being destroyed too much from people who wants its benefits.
2. They have never known
3. that there are a lot of bad effects
4. if rainforest disappears.

The arguments in the following paragraphs are concerned with four different issues, each of which is developed into a paragraph internally linked with each other and relating directly back to the Thesis Statement/Preview. The first concerns the

consequence of rainforest destruction in terms of the extinction of animal and plant species (clauses 5-13).

5. Firstly, animal and plant species will become extinct.
6. There are many kinds of plants and animals in rainforest.
7. Animals can survive
8. because trees give them food and home.
9. If trees are cut down,
10. animals will die because of lack of food and place to live.
11. Then animals will lose.
12. For example, presently people hardly see Orangutan, Aye-aye, and Lumur
13. because they have no place for surviving.

The second argument is about the disappearance of forest people (clauses 14-23). The third covers the soil erosion problem (clauses 24-36) and the final one involves the change of the earth's climate (clauses 37-51).

14. Secondly, forest people [[who know about medicines and plants]] will die.
15. These people can not survive without forest.
16. because it is their home.
17. They survive themselves by eating fruits, hunting small animals, and growing crops.
18. They know the way to treat themselves from diseases
19. because they stay in forest for their whole life.
20. They can learn which herb uses for what.
21. For example, they use the rosy periwinkle to treat luekaemia, the calabar bean for eye disorders, and papaya seeds for anti-fungal.
22. Without rainforest, they will die.
23. Their knowledges of medicine and plant will be gone with them, too.
24. **Thirdly, soil erosion will occur**

25. because there are no trees to absorb the water when the rain falls.
26. Rainforest can relieve soil erosion
27. because trees' leaves can make the rain pour on the soil softly
28. and the roots make the water flows slowly.
29. Conversely, if trees are cut down,
30. the rain can not be absorbed
31. and the topsoil is broken,
32. After topsoil is broken,
33. it will be hard for trees to grow
34. because there are a lot of nutrients on topsoil.
35. When trees lack of nutrients,
36. they will die.
37. **Finally, the earth's climate will change.**
38. As rainforest is destroyed,
39. there are no trees to absorb Carbondioxide (CO₂) which releases from human activities, especially, from burning material from wood and garbages.
40. When this toxic gas rise up to the atmosphere,
41. Ozone will be decreased (Ozone can protect people from sun's heat).
42. So sun's light can shine directly to the earth
43. and the heat will be kept in the earth so much.
44. This process is called "greenhouse effect".
45. As the temperature is higher,
46. some ice-covered areas will melt such as Antarctic and Alaska.
47. Then sea levels will rise and flood.
48. Further the earth will become too hot.
49. It can make people die.
50. because their skins are destroyed by ultraviolet (UV).
51. And later their skin become to cancer which is hard to treat.

The Conclusion (clauses 52-59) where Intira summarises the arguments presented in the text, reaffirms her position taken on the issue.

52. In conclusion, the loss of rainforest affects human beings who live in the earth directly.
53. They will lose their lives and their properties.
54. As long as human being can see rainforest,
55. it is a good sign that their life will go on.
56. In contrary, if rainforest disappears,
57. human being will have no future.
58. Thus, if you want to live longer,
59. save it.

The way in which the generic structure was organised enabled Intira to present a clear and convincing argument although, of course, control of generic structure is not the only aspect that makes this a successfully developed argument.

In some cases, especially with students from the 'below-average' group (5 of 5) the change of student's control of generic structure, although evident, was less dramatic. For example analysis of Uma's text, below, revealed that her control of generic structure for Topic 2 did improve from Topic 1, but the change was not as dramatic as other students'. While the text was organised around a generic structure appropriate for the Exposition genre, that is, Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments (Topic Sentence and Supporting Details) and Conclusion, it was not as well developed.

Uma's text is on the next page.

Thesis Statement/Preview

Rainforests are profitable for our life directly and indirectly. It provides us home, medicine and regulating climate. Nowadays the world changed because rainforests are destroyed by human beings, they burn and cut them down. If a lot of trees are destroyed. There will be many problems. We should be save them. → *passive voice*

Firstly, rainforests around the world provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire. They have lived in the forest for a long time. These people survive by hunting and gathering. But now the invaders have destroyed the rainforests so their homes have been destroyed. They have suffered and died from epidemics of diseases and become homeless. → *Argument 1*

Secondly, the plants of the rainforests provide medicines. People have used chemical compounds of many plant species as drugs and medicines such as (the rosy periwinkle of Madagascar for leukaemia) the papaya of Latin America for stomach illnesses, the calabar bean of West Africa for eye disorders, and the cinchona of South America for malaria. → *Argument 2*
→ *nominal groups*
→ *technical term*

Finally, rainforests play a major role in regulating the climate. When it rains, many trees in the rainforests absorb plenty of water by their roots and some of water is released into the air by their leave, including the sources of water: river, pond and stream evaporated. They condense into clouds but the air can not support the heavy clouds. They refine into water and return rains again. → *Argument 3*
→ *generalised participants*
→ *material*
→ *“represent” tone*

These are the reasons why we should conserve the rainforests. So we should stop demolishing them and conserve natural resources forever. → *Conclusion*

Uma's Thesis Statement was clearly expressed (clause 1), indicating to the reader that she supported the conservation of rainforests. Her Preview (clause 2) outlined the arguments to be presented to justify her position, that rainforests should be conserved because they provide people with home and medicine and in addition, their major role in regulating climate. However, the Preview did not coherently link with the

Arguments. From clauses 3-7, Uma provided background information about the situation of rainforests, that is, humans, by cutting and burning rainforests, destroy them. She predicted that *“if a lot of trees are destroyed, there will be many problems”* (clauses 6-7). However, this information might confuse some readers about the arguments which Uma went on to provide to support her position. The information led them to believe that the arguments would be concerned with the effects of rainforest destruction whereas the information in clause 2 and from clauses 9-25 showed that she actually intended to discuss rainforests' benefits. To avoid this confusion, Uma could retain only clauses 1, 2 and 8 as her Thesis Statement and Preview.

1. Rainforests are profitable for our life directly and indirectly.
2. It provides us home, medicine and regulating climate.
3. Nowadays the world changed
4. because rainforests are destroyed by human beings,
5. they burn and cut them down.
6. If a lot of trees are destroyed.
7. There will be many problems.
8. We should be save them.

Typical of what students have by this stage learned about the written Exposition and again in contrast to Topic 1, Uma's text contained a series of arguments organised into paragraphs. Each paragraph comprised a Topic Sentence identifying the issue to be discussed and Supporting Details providing evidence and example to support the issue proposed in the Topic Sentence.

In the first argument (clauses 9-15), the topic sentence was “rainforests around the world provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire” (clauses 9). While it clearly identified the issue to be discussed in the paragraph, it was contradictory to the Preview in clause 2, which stated that rainforests provide “us” (people in general) with home.

The supporting details (clauses 9-15) contained relevant information supporting the issue proposed in the topic sentence sufficiently and successfully. Uma argued that forest people have lived in rainforests for a long time, surviving by hunting and gathering (foods from rainforests). As civilisation – ‘the invaders’ – have destroyed the rainforests, their homes have been destroyed as well. As a consequence, the people who have managed to live in complete harmony with their environment have been decimated.

9. **Firstly, rainforests around the world provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire.**
10. They have lived in the forest for a long time.
11. These people survive by hunting and gathering.
12. But now the invaders have destroyed the rainforests
13. so their homes have been destroyed.
14. They have suffered and died from epidemics of diseases
15. and become homeless.

In the second argument, the topic sentence indicated that rainforests provide resources for medicines (clause 16) and the supporting details (clause 17) contained examples to support this.

16. **Secondly, the plants of the rainforests provide medicines.**
17. People have used chemical compounds of many plant species as drugs and medicines such as the rosy periwinkle of Madagascar for leukaemia, the papaya of Latin America for stomach illness, the calabar bean of West Africa for eye disorders, and the cinchona of South America for malaria.

The third argument was not as well developed as previous ones. While the topic sentence indicated that rainforests play a major role in regulating the climate (clause 18), it was unclear to the reader in ‘*what*’ way that rainforests play such a role.

18. **Finally, rainforests play a major role in regulating the climate.**

The supporting details for this argument were not logically linked. Uma wrote:

19. When it rains,
20. many trees in the rainforests absorb plenty of water by their roots
21. and some of water is released into the air by their leave, including the sources of water: river, pond and stream evaporated.
22. They condense into clouds
23. but the air can not support the heavy clouds.
24. They refine into water
25. and return rains again.

In fact, the logical explanation of the rain cycle was “the water released through trees’ leaves into the air mixes with water evaporated from other sources of water such as river, pond and stream. Then, it condense into clouds in the atmosphere to fall again as rain”.

The text concluded with Uma restating her position on the issue (clauses 26-28).

26. These are the reasons why we should conserve the rainforests.
27. So we should stop demolishing them
28. and conserve natural resources forever.

Uma’s text was not as well organised and developed as those of students in the ‘average’ and ‘above average’ groups, and therefore was less successful. Her text was typical of others’ from the ‘below average’ group for this topic. However, the texts from this group did show considerable improvement from their texts for Topic 1 by moving towards use of the generic structure approximating to the written Exposition.

Summarising the analysis of generic structure, it was evident that students had a growing awareness of generic structures of English. Most students, especially those from the ‘above average’ (9 of 9) and ‘average’ (18 of 20) groups, showed evidence of having absorbed the concept and practice of the Exposition. They had organised their texts around Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments (Topic Sentences and Supporting

Details) and Conclusion, making them closer to being successful examples of Exposition. Some students' improvement of control of the generic structure, particularly those from the 'below average' (5 of 5) group was not as well achieved as others. This was to be expected, in part because students studied the Exposition for only about 15 hours.

Analysis of students' control of generic structure in texts for Topic 2 also revealed that almost all of the students' (33 of 34) had accepted that it was appropriate in writing Exposition in English to thematise the purpose in the Thesis Statement. They were considerably less influenced by the circular way of Thai writing, which, like some other Asian languages, requires culturally delayed introduction of purpose. This was a significant change from Topic 1, indicating that the genre-based approach had assisted in a shift in their understanding of the differences between the languages and resulted in a recognisable improvement in their English writing.

6.5.2 Language Features Relevant to the Genre of Exposition

Analysis of language features in texts for Topic 2 showed that, in common with texts for Topic 1, students were able to use present, future and past tenses in their Expositions effectively. In some students' texts, particularly those from the 'above average' group (9 of 34) the use of this language feature showed greater sophistication such as the simple present, future, present continuous and present perfect. In addition, most students' (all ability groups) control of other language features – participants, processes and technical terms – improved significantly. Their use of these language features resembled those typically used in the written Exposition, enabling their texts to achieve their social purposes more successfully, and not, as in the first topic, causing unexpected shifts from the Exposition and Discussion genres to the Recount.

To illustrate the change of students' control of language features, text by the 'average group' representative, Gaew will be analysed, with additional analysis of Kanya's, 'below average', and Wittaya's, from the 'above average' group.

(i) **Tenses:** In Gaew's text, the present simple tense was usually used to present information. Also, future tense was frequently used to make predictions about the consequences of deforestation:

- Clause 1: Rainforests **are** thick forests with tall trees that **are** very close together.
- Clauses 6-7: If we **cut** down a lot of trees, // we **will** have no trees to absorb CO₂, and greenhouse gas.
- Clause 15: For example, temperatures in the UK **will** become like the Mediterranean countries.

In case of Kanya, the simple present and future tenses are also dominant:

- Clause 1: Rainforest **is** a forest which **has** high rainfall all year.
- Clause 5: When Rainforests **are destroyed**,
- Clause 6: green house effect **will occur**.

In Wittaya's text, the control of appropriate tense is obvious. In common with previous examples, his text was dominated by the simple present and future tenses. However, he also used the present continuous and the present perfect with some confidence to describe the situation in the rainforests.

- Clause 1: All around the world rainforests **are being cut down** continuously.
- Clause 2: As a result, human beings **are all facing** worldwide problems such as soil erosion, green(house) effect, and animal extinction.
- Clauses 7-8: Where rainforests **have been cleared**, erosion often **occurs**
- Clause 13: In India, due to the rainforest destruction high in the Himalayan mountains, severe flooding annually **takes** place in the river deltas.
- Clause 28: and some of them **are becoming extinct** such as South Asian Tiger and Dave Langur, Philippine Monkey-eating Eagle, and Amazonian Mantee.

To summarise, similar to Topic 1 texts, students were able to use the simple past and future tenses in Topic 2 successfully and effectively. However, in Topic 2 more students

in the average and above average groups demonstrated a higher level of sophistication in their use and control of tenses. This was probably due to the fact that they had been learning about this language feature from their school years and in the prerequisite university writing subjects. Their knowledge may well have been recalled and extended by the model texts in the genre-based approach.

(ii) Participants: In Gaew's text, the majority of participants were generic, the device typically used in written Exposition (Martin and Peters 1985; Board of Studies, NSW, 1994). While the text also contained some specific participants, many of them were non-human or abstract qualities. Only a small number of specific human participants were expressed using personal pronouns: "we", "our" and "us". However, the predominant use of generic participants in Gaew's text indicated that she had a greater awareness of the impersonal nature of the written Exposition (Martin and Peters 1985; Martin 1985; Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW 1994). Examples of choice of participants in Gaew's text are:

Key:

Bold: generic participants

Underlined bold italic: specific participants

- Clause 1: **Rainforests are thick forests with tall trees** that are very close together.
- Clause 8: **CO2** and other **greenhouse gases** allow less **heat energy** from ***the sun*** to escape back in the **atmosphere**.
- Clause 15: For example, **temperatures** in the ***UK*** will become like ***Mediterranean countries***.
- Clause 43-4: If ***we*** do not want to face ***these problems***, ***we*** should save **rainforest** before it will be too late.

Similar improvement in control of participants was also evident in other students' texts. Further, the way in which it had changed was much the same as that in Gaew's. For example, the majority of participants in Kanya's ('below average'), are also generic such as "rainforest(s)", "plants", "temperature", "drought", "flood" and "researchers". Although Kanya's text contains a considerable number of specific participants, most of them are also non-human participants or abstract qualities. The personal pronoun "we", referring to the Kanya and those who are related to her is used

only twice in the text. Some of these specific participants are illustrated in the following clauses:

Key:

Bold: generic participants

Underlined bold italic: specific participants

Clause 7: **Plants** can decrease the **green house effect** gases by photosynthesis.

Clause 16: On the **Antarctic** part, the **ice** was melt.

Clauses 20-1: Moreover **World Health Organization** said that it will bring **epidemics** such as **Malaria, Yellow Fever** and **Hemorrhagic fever**.

Clauses 25-6: For example, the **researchers** estimate that at least **12 percent of bird specied in Amazon bagin** and **15 percent of plants in Central and South America** are extinct.

Clause 27: However, **we** should have a responsibility for ourselves to protect Rainforest.

Clause 29: So **we** should save its for our future world.

Wittaya, a representative from the 'above average' group, also used generic participants extensively. He too used some specific participants but restricted them to "we" and "our". The following clauses exemplify the choice of participants in Wittaya's text, below.

Key:

Bold: generic participants

Underlined bold italic: specific participants

Clause 2: As a result, **human beings** are all facing **world wide problems** such as **soil erosion**, **greenhouse effect**, and **animal extinction**.

Clause 3: **We** should save **our rainforests?**

Clause 13: In **India**, due to the **rainforest destruction** high in the **Himalayan mountains**, **severe flooding** annually takes place in the **river deltas**.

In sum, from the examples analysed it appeared that students across all three ability groups have learned that Exposition requires a level of abstraction from self and extension beyond personal experience. This level of abstraction was evident in students' increasing use of generic participants.

(iii) Processes: Students' choice of processes changed dramatically between Topics 1 and 2. In Gaew's text, the processes were primarily material and relational. Her choice of process was appropriate for the relatively impersonal and objective Exposition that she wrote (Martin and Peters 1985; Martin 1985; Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW 1994). The following clauses exemplify the choice of processes in Gaew's:

Key:

Bold: relational processes

Underlined bold: mental processes

Italic: material processes

- Clause 1: Rainforests **are** thick forests with tall trees that are very close together.
- Clauses 12-3: The scientists **predict** that the next century the world's temperature *will increase* between 1 degree and 3.5 degrees.
- Clause 30: ... the qualities of domestic crops **are** not quite good.
- Clause 31: They still **need** their wild relatives in order to save from devastation by diseases.
- Clause 39: They make us **feel** relaxed and happy.
- Clause 43: If we *do not want to face* these problems.

In both Kanya's 'below average' and Wittaya's 'above average' texts, the dominant processes were also material and relational. Some mental processes were used in these texts but they were not used to project Kanya's or Wittaya's personal feelings or attitudes towards the issue as in their Topic 1 texts. Rather they were used to project the thinking processes of generalised participants. Some examples of the range of processes in Kanya's and Wittaya's texts are:

Key:

Bold: relational processes

Underlined bold: mental processes

Italic: material processes

Underlined italic: existential processes

Kanya's text:

- Clause 22: In addition, rainforests **are** home of many species of plants and animals.
- Clause 23: Right now they **become extinct**
- Clause 24: ... because their habitats *are destroyed*
- Clauses 25-6: For example the researchers **estimate** that at least 12 percent of bird species in Amazon basin and 15 percent of plants in Central and South America are extinct.
- Clause 27: However, we **should have** a responsibility for ourselves to protect Rainforest.

Wittaya's text:

- Clause 1: All around the world rainforests *are being cut down* continuously.
- Clause 2: As a result, human beings **are all facing** world wide problems such as soil erosion, green effect, and animal extinction.
- Clause 3: We *should save* our rainforests
- Clause 4: because the deforestation **causes** bad phenomenal outcomes.
- Clause 5: Soil erosion **is** one of disastrous problems.
- Clause 6: It *takes place* as a direct result of destroying the rainforests.

All three examples indicate overall a more impersonal and objective stance – one that is appropriate for Exposition and for the topic (Martin 1985; Martin and Peters 1985; Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW 1994).

(iv) Technical Terms: This topic has a range of technical terms that narrow and define meaning. Students in all three ability groups have recognised their value and made use of them. 'Average group' student Gaew used a substantial number of technical terms correctly in her texts:

- Clause 5: The destruction of rainforests causes the greenhouse effect.
- Clause 7: we will have no trees to absorb CO₂, and greenhouse gas.
- Clause 22: Curare, ipecac, wild yam and Madagascar periwinkle are examples of forest plants are used to fight major disease such as cancer, leukaemia, muscular and heart diseases.
- Clause 23: Possibly rainforest plants provide medicine for AIDS.

In both 'below average' Kanya's, and 'above average' Wittaya's texts, below, technical terms were also used confidently:

Kanya's text:

- Clause 7: Plants can decrease the green house effect gases by Photosynthesis.
- Clause 9: and release oxigen into the air.
- Clause 21: that it will bring epidemics such as Malaria, Yellow Fever and Hemorrhagic.

Wittaya's text:

- Clause 5: Soil erosion is one of disastrous problems.
- Clause 16: Meanwhile, the plants in rainforests absorb carbon dioxide as part of a complex food making called "photosynthesis".

The considerable use of technical terms in students' texts for Topic 2 suggested that the activities during the 'Building up of Field Knowledge' stage assisted students to develop an understanding of the audience

To conclude, analysis of language features in texts for Topic 2 revealed that students across all three ability groups were able to use tenses in their texts effectively. They usually used the timeless present tense to present their arguments and sometimes used the future tense to make predictions about the effects of rainforest destruction. When used in combination with some of the other language features – participants, processes and technical terms – their writing increasingly matched the criteria of the written Exposition.

Students also demonstrated progress in writing text that went beyond their personal experiences. In the “rainforests” topic their participants were often non-human or abstract qualities, rather than the expression of personal opinions. Similarly, they commonly used material and relational processes as appropriate for their topic.

It appeared that by going through the ‘Field-Building’ stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle, the students had researched the topic thoroughly and could use the technical and scientific terms appropriately in the context. This improvement in the combination of the use of language features, abstraction of participants and the greater mastery of technical terms resulted in less ‘spoken-like’ expression, now more closely approximating the structure and language features of written English Exposition. The changes in students’ control of all of these language features were clearly observable in the analysis. Although only a small sample had been analysed in detail the same improvements were equally seen in the writing of the whole group. It therefore appeared as if the changes are due to the impact of teaching the genre-based approach.

Since students’ control of language features had improved significantly from Topic 1, I was interested in researching the extent to which the genre-based approach had contributed to their ability to develop arguments. This will be discussed in the following section.

6.5.3 Development of Arguments:

Analysis of students’ development of arguments in this topic showed that they improved significantly from Topic 1 in all three ability groups. Students were able to

develop more complex and sustained arguments appropriate to the written Exposition. In some students' texts, particularly those from the 'below average' group (5 of 5) the arguments were less sophisticated or complex than those from the 'above average' (9 of 9) and 'average' (18 of 20) groups. However, most students' arguments were based on facts and supported with evidence. Most students (17 of 34) were able to express causal relations within clauses. In many texts (30 of 34), arguments were linked not only by external, but also internal conjunctions (although the number varied from text to text). More commonly, their arguments were organised into paragraphs which focused on and developed each issue. They often used zig-zag and multiple theme patterns to organise their arguments. Such patterns enabled students' texts to progress more cohesively and to achieve the stated purposes more effectively. Gaew's text – a representative from the 'average' group – will be analysed for improvement of development of arguments from texts for Topic 1. To illustrate the change, the thematic structure and other linguistic features used to develop arguments in her text will be discussed and referred to (see also 6.4.3). Two other students' texts, one from the 'above average' and another from the 'below average' groups, will be reviewed where appropriate for the same thematic structure and linguistic features used to develop arguments.

Analysis of Gaew's text shows that her arguments for Topic 2 improved significantly from Topic 1. They now offer generalised and factual information about "rainforests", resulting in a text appropriate for a reader seeking for information. By reading through the Themes at all levels of the text, the reader will be able to understand the way in which arguments are developed in the text (Martin 1986). To illustrate this, Topical Themes will be analysed and referred to.

Most Topical Themes are generic participants and are nominalised elements or nominal groups. Nominalisations and nominal groups are also used to present new information in the Rhemes. This enables Gaew to pack information into clauses and to present information impersonally, objectively and authoritatively (Eggins 1994; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Gerot 1995). The following clauses exemplify this:

Key:

Underlined bold: nominalisations

Bold: nominal groups

4.

The <u>destruction</u> of rainforests	cause we a lot of problems , for instance, the greenhouse effect , the <u>loss</u> of medicinal plants, the <u>reduction</u> of food products and the <u>disappearance</u> of natural places.
Topical	Rheme

21.

At least a quarter of important medicines	came from the plants which grow in rainforests.
Topical	Rheme

26.

Furthermore,	the <u>loss</u> of rainforests	means the <u>loss</u> of food, drinks, and natural products.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

The qualities of domestic crops	actually	originated in the rainforests.
Topical	////////////////////	Rheme

Other evidence which indicates that Gaew's text is closer to a written Exposition is the use of passives to structure arguments, as the following clauses illustrate.

16.

Also,	the world's agriculture	will be damaged.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

these plants	will be destroyed also
Topical	Rheme

40.

If	rainforests	are destroyed
Textual	Topical	Rheme

By using passives in these three clauses, Gaew is able to put “*the world’s agriculture*”, “*these plants*” and “*rainforests*” in the Theme position of the clauses. Thus, the clauses are information-oriented. Over the full length of her essay she structures the development of her arguments by beginning with the broadest possible categorisation (the world’s agriculture), narrowing to the very specific subset (these plants) and completes it with the broader specific (rainforests), bringing it back to the topic of the essay.

Despite changes in overall patterns of Theme and Rheme, Gaew’s text for Topic 2 still includes some personal pronouns in Theme position:

43.

If	we	do not want to face these problems,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

44.

we	should save rainforest
Topical	Rheme

Comparing the number of Topical Themes which are nominalised elements and nominal groups, these personal pronouns (“*we*” and “*our*”) occur in the thematic position only infrequently. The Interpersonal Theme occurs only in clause 23.

23.

Possibly	rainforest plants	provide medicine for AIDS.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

This indicates that Gaew's ability in developing arguments appropriate to the nature of written Exposition has progressed significantly. Her arguments represent a shift from rather poorly substantiated personal opinion to arguments supported by factual evidence. While the personal pronouns are used, they are generic and quite appropriate. Further evidence signalling that Gaew's text for this topic is closer to written Exposition is the use of verbs to express causal relations within clauses rather than explicit conjunctions, as the following clauses illustrate:

4.

The destruction of rainforests	<u>causes</u> we a lot of problems, for instance, the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.
Topical	Rheme

5.

The destruction of rainforests	<u>causes</u> the greenhouse effect.
Topical	Rheme

14.

This	<u>causes</u> the world's climate to change.
Topical	Rheme

The majority of conjunctions in Gaew's text are external. However, she also uses some internal conjunctions to organise arguments within her text relating one part of her text to another (rather than to what happens in the world, that is outside the text). The following clauses illustrate this:

Key:

Bold: additive conjunctions

Italic bold: causal conjunctions

15.

For example,	temperatures in the UK	will become like the Mediterranean countries.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

Moreover	the ice-covered areas	will melt
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

Furthermore,	the loss of rainforests	means the loss of food, drinks, and natural products.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

In fact,	many food crops	actually originated in the rainforests.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

Besides	rainforests	provide us with other essential materials, for example, cosmetics, stationery, musical instruments and logs for construction.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

35.

Moreover,	if	rainforests	disappear
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

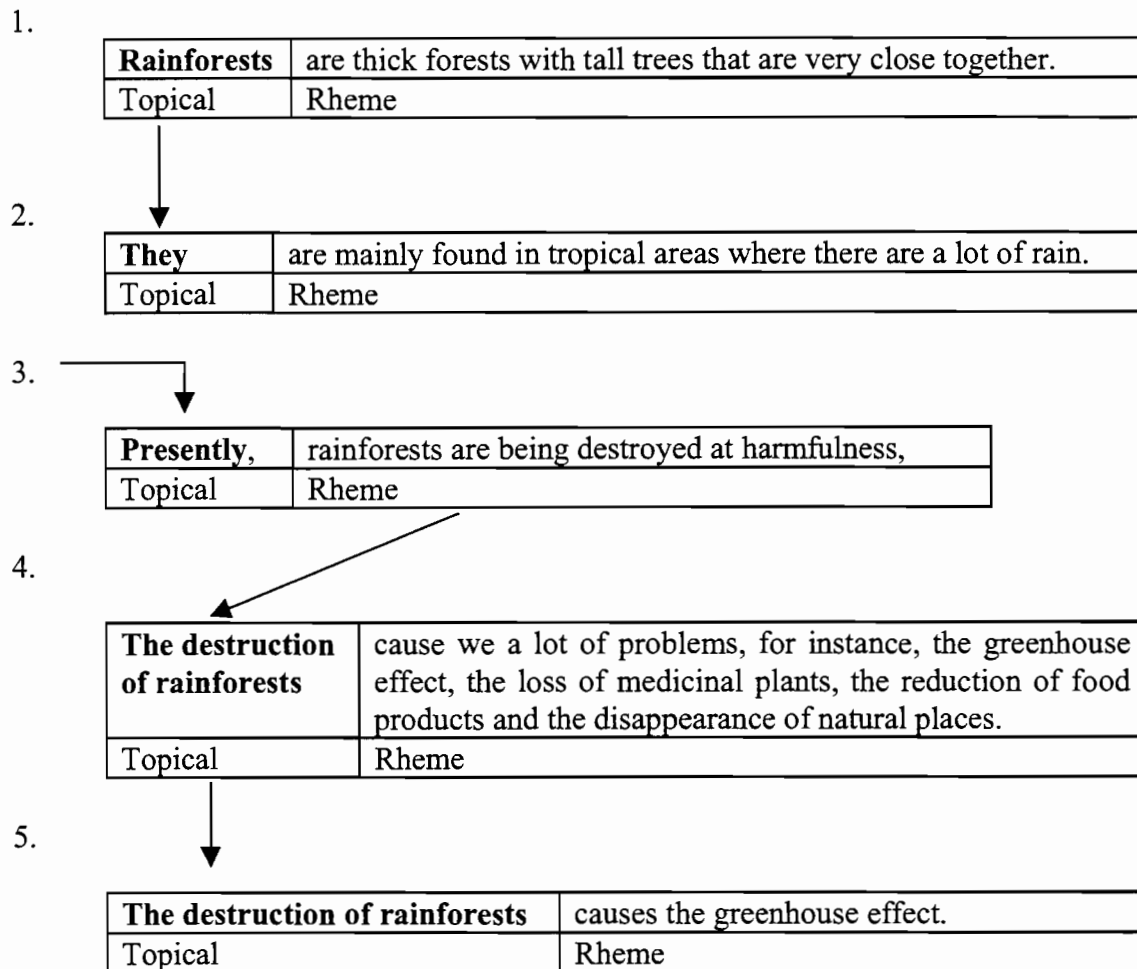
42.

<i>In conclusion,</i>	the destruction of rainforests	follows a lot of enormous problems: the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Note the internal conjunctions – “*furthermore*”, “*moreover*” and “*in conclusion*” – are used to stage the text, marking Arguments 3, 4 and Conclusion in the text respectively.

Gaew’s arguments are developed into paragraphs, each of which focuses on and develops successive arguments. Analysis of the thematic development illustrates this. Gaew uses a variety of thematic progression strategies, theme re-iteration, zig-zag and, notably, multiple theme patterns, to organise the structure of the whole text and develop arguments effectively, appropriate to the Exposition genre (Egins 1994). For example, from clauses 1-2 Theme re-iteration is used, leading to the repetitive thematisation of “*rainforests*”. Thus the focus of the text is clearly on “*rainforests*”. In clause 3, the Theme shifts to “*presently*”. While this causes a temporary break in cohesion, it successfully emphasises the state of “*rainforests*”. Then the use of the zig-zag strategy allows the Rheme of clause 3 “*rainforests are being destroyed at harmfulness*” to become the Theme “*the destruction of rainforests*” in clause 4 which introduces a number of different pieces of information in its Rheme. The information provides the reader with the ‘Preview’ of what is to come in the text. Readers are able to predict that the arguments to be presented in the paragraphs that follow will justify Gaew’s position on the problems caused by the destruction of rainforests. These problems are the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.

It should be noted that the use of nominalisation, particularly in the thematic position (eg. “*the destruction of rainforests*” in clause 4) enables Gaew to summarise arguments presented in the previous clause (i.e. “*presently, rainforests are being destroyed at harmfulness*” in clause 3). The argument is then presented concisely and impersonally as seen in the analysis of Gaew’s text, below.



The different pieces of information introduced in the Rheme of clause 4 is not promoted to become Themes of subsequent clauses which is a typical characteristic of the multiple-Theme pattern usually used in a long expository text (Eggsins 1994). Instead, they are re-introduced in the Rhemes of clauses 5, 20, 26 and 35-6 which function as the Topic Sentences of Arguments 1, 2, 3 and 5 respectively. For example, the Topic Sentence of Argument 1 is “*the destruction of rainforests causes the greenhouse effect*” (clause 5). The Rheme of the clause “*...causes the greenhouse effect*” relates directly back to the first problem introduced in the Rheme of clause 4 “*the greenhouse effect*”. Similarly the information introduced in the Rheme of clause 20 “*(another problem) is that many plants and herbs used to produce medicines will be destroyed*”, which function as the Topic Sentences of Argument 2, relates directly back to the second problem introduced in the Rheme of Clause 4 “*the loss of medicinal plants*”. This

pattern of thematic development enables Gaew to organise the text generically and enables elaboration of more complex arguments.

At the paragraph level, Gaew is also able to organise arguments effectively. For example, in Argument 2 the zig-zag pattern is often used to organise arguments to make them flow thematically and coherently. The Argument begins with the Topic Sentence "*Another problem is that many plants and herbs used to produce medicines will be destroyed*" (clause 20). The Theme of the clause "*Another problem*" signals to the reader that the paragraph will be concerned with a new issue. The new information introduced in the Rheme orients the reader to what a paragraph will be about. Using the zig-zag strategy, the Rheme of clause 20 is promoted to become the Theme in Clause 21 "*At least a quarter of important medicines*" and its Rheme "*... came from the plants which grow in rainforests*" has subsequently become the Theme of clause 22 "*Curare, ipecac, wild yam and Madagascar periwinkle*". In clause 23, the Topical Theme "*rainforest plants*" comes from the Themes and Rhemes of prior clauses (clauses 20-22). In clause 24, the Theme shifts briefly to "*we*". The use of the zig-zag pattern allows its Rheme to become the Theme "*these plants*" in clause 25. The constant Thematic progression from Themes to Rhemes make the arguments flow thematically and coherently (Butt et al 2000). The reader can follow the arguments from the beginning to the end of the paragraph effectively. The following clauses illustrated the method of development between clauses 20-25, below:

Gaew's text begins on the next page.

20.

Another problem	is that many plants and herbs used to produce medicines will be destroyed.
Topical	Rheme

21.

At least a quarter of important medicines	came from the plants which grow in rainforests.
Topical	Rheme

22.

Curare, ipecac, wild yam and Madagascar periwinkle	are examples of forest plants are used to fight major disease such as cancer, leukaemia, muscular and heart diseases.
Topical	Rheme

23.

Possibly	rainforest plants	provide medicine for AIDS.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

24.

If	we	destroy the rainforests,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

these plants	will be destroyed also.
Topical	Rheme

Because the arguments in Gaew's text are developed cohesively within a series of linked paragraphs, her text achieves its purpose more effectively.

The ability to develop arguments which are appropriate to the written exposition is also strongly evident in the text by Sakda – 'above average' group. As mentioned in 6.4.3, the arguments in Sakda's text for Topic 1 simply recorded his experience together with his feelings and thoughts. By contrast the arguments in this Topic 2 text are much closer

to a written Exposition. They are observations from an abstract position reflecting what he has learned both from the study materials and discussion with other students, enabling him to make generalisations about “rainforests”. To illustrate this, some of Topical Themes in Sakda’s text will be analysed and discussed.

Sakda’s text contains mainly Topical Themes, which is typical of a written text (Gerot 1995). Most of them are nominalised elements and nominal groups, allowing Sakda to pack information into clauses more tightly and abstractly (Gerot and Wignell 1994; Eggins 1994). Consequently, the arguments are more lexically-dense, generalised and impersonal. The resulting text is information-oriented which is well oriented to the reader looking for information (Martin 1986). For example in the first paragraph of Sakda’s text, which functions as the ‘Thesis Statement’, all Topical Themes are lengthy nominal groups and some of them consist of nominalised elements. It should be also noted that these linguistic features also frequently occur in Rhemes:

1.

Rainforests, <<the bright green band around the equator in our school atlases>>, are now facing a <u>frightening threat</u>.
Topical Rheme

2.

People in the regions are cutting down too many trees for short-term financial gain.
Topical Rheme

3.

If	the deforestation rate	increases continuously,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

the terrifying effects	will happen.
Topical	Rheme

Where pronouns are thematised, they refer to generic participants. For example the personal pronoun “*they*” is thematised in clauses 11 and 13, referring back to the lengthy nominal groups “*the loss of rainforests*” and “*rainforests*” in clauses 10 and 12 respectively.

10.

The <u>loss</u> of rainforests	means the <u>disappearance</u> of tribal people [[who live there]].
Topical	Rheme

11.

They	earn <u>their living</u> by <u>hunting animals</u> and <u>gathering</u> fruits.
Topical	Rheme

Throughout the text, the only thematised personal pronoun referring to Sakda in any way is “*we*” in clause 30.

30.

We	should, therefore, save our rainforests.
Topical	Rheme

This indicates that Sakda is better aware of the impersonal nature of the Exposition. That is, he realises that features of rainforests, rather than his personal opinions about them, form the bases for arguments. From his learned ability to use these features, his text for Topic 2 can be considered more successful than for Topic 1.

The use of verbs to express reasoning is further evidence that Sakda’s ability to write Exposition has improved significantly from Topic 1.

Examples of verbs used to express reasoning in Sakda’s text are:

5.

The destruction of rainforests	<u>causes</u> the detestable extinction of plant and animal species.
Topical	Rheme

9.

The loss of rainforests	means the disappearance of tribal people who live there.
Topical	Rheme

21.

Deforestation	contributes to several problems: convection current and wind patterns distortion, and unpunctual rainfall.
Topical	Rheme

In addition Sakda, similar to Gaew's, uses some internal conjunctions to help organise arguments:

25.

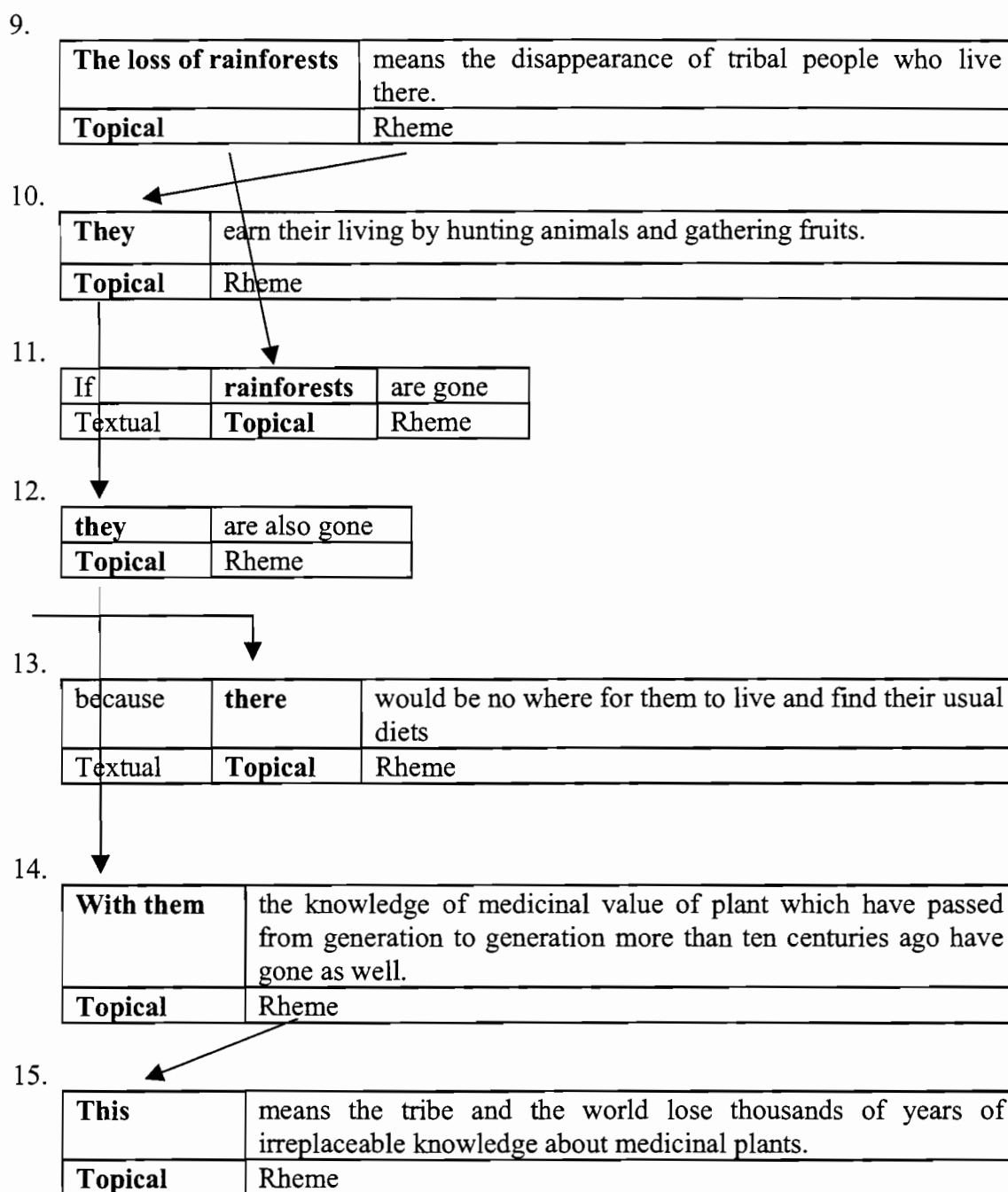
As a result,	higher sea level, a lot of new diseases and coasts flood	would happen
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

In conclusion,	the loss of rainforests	is the loss of incalculable diversity and enormous potential benefits.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Analysis of the method of development in Sakda's, similar to Gaew's, shows that his arguments are elaborated and organised into paragraphs, each of which focuses on a different issue supporting his position.

Typical of other students, Sakda uses both the Theme re-iteration and zig-zag patterns to organise arguments. For example, from clauses 9-16, which forms Argument 2 in the text, both of these thematic patterns are used.



In clause 9, the zig-zag strategy allows the new information introduced in the Rheme to be promoted to become the Theme “*they*” in clause 10. In clause 11, the Theme “*rainforests*” is a reiteration of the Theme in clause 9. In clause 12 the Theme “*they*”, which is the re-iteration of the Theme “*they*” (*tribal people*) in clause 10, is used, emphasising that the argument is concerned with the “*tribal people*”. The thematic shift occurs briefly in clause 13 in which “*there*” is thematised. In clause 14, the Theme “*with them*” picks up the information provided in the Rheme of clause 9 and Themes and Rhemes in clauses 11 and 12. The Rheme in clause 14 “*the knowledge of medicinal*

value of plant which have passed from generation to generation more than ten centuries ago have gone as well" leads to the theme "this" in clause 15.

By using the zig-zag pattern to organise arguments in the text, Sakda is able to create cohesion of the text through accumulated information proposed in prior clauses. The reader reads the information purposely from the beginning to the end of the paragraph.

Analysis of the development of arguments in the text by Uma, a representative from the 'below-average' group, as in those by Gaew and Sakda, demonstrates that she has also absorbed features of the written exposition. Significantly she generalises the aspects from her research about the "rainforests" topic, instead of writing only about her subjective observations. Analysis of Topical Themes illustrates this.

Many Topical Themes in Uma's text are nominal groups. When they are not thematised, the third person pronouns (eg. "they") replace them, rather than, as she did in her Topic 1 essay, reverting to personalising the issue by using "I" or "we". This allows Uma to distance herself from the reader and to pack objective information in to clauses. As a result her arguments are formal, objective and authoritative. The following clauses illustrate this:

9.

Firstly,	rainforests around the world	provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

they	have lived in the forest for a long time.
Topical	Rheme

11.

these people	survive by hunting and gathering.
Topical	Rheme

17.

Secondly	the plants of the rainforests	provide medicines.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

many trees in the rainforests	absorb plenty of water by their roots.
Topical	Rheme

Apart from the thematisations of nominal groups and the third person pronouns, Uma also uses passives to organise arguments:

4.

because	Rainforests	are destroyed by human beings,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

So	their homes	have been destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

By using passives, Uma is able to locate “rainforests” (clause 4) and “their homes” (clause 13) at the thematic position to develop the arguments she wants to make. Martin (1985) notes that by using this device, the writer is able to present arguments authoritatively and factually.

It is noted that a couple of Topical Themes are the first personal pronoun “we”:

8.

We	should be save them.
Topical	Rheme

9.

So	we	should stop demolishing them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

As already mentioned, the thematisation of the first personal pronoun does not typically occur in a written Exposition but this is to be expected in a beginner writer.

Typical of other students from the 'below average' group (5 of 5), Uma uses only causal conjunctions to express cause and effect between clauses explicitly. Examples of these conjunctions are:

4.

because	rainforests	are destroyed by human beings,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

6.

if	a lot of trees	are destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

So	we	should stop demolishing them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Since I did not specifically emphasise the grammatical metaphor of reasoning in my teaching, it is understandable that some students did not pick up this linguistic feature from their readings and deploy it in their texts.

Nevertheless, there is evidence in Uma's Topic 2 text to show that her arguments are closer to the model of written Exposition. This is especially the case in her use of internal conjunctions to stage the text. The following clauses illustrate this:

9.

Firstly,	rainforests around the world	provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

Secondly,	the plants of the rainforests	provide medicines.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

Finally	rainforests	play a major role in regulating the climate.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Typical of the written Exposition, Uma's arguments are organised into paragraphs in which she uses not only theme re-iteration, but also the zig-zag pattern. The following clauses exemplify this:

9.

Firstly,	rainforests around the world	provide home for forest people: The pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

they	have lived in the forest for a long time.
Topical	Rheme

11.

These people	survive by hunting and gathering.
Topical	Rheme

12.

But	now	the invaders have destroyed the rainforests
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

so	their homes	have been destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

As the above clauses illustrate, the zig-zag strategy allows the new information introduced in the Rheme in clause 9 "(rainforests around the world) provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire" to become the Theme "they" in clause 10. Then it is re-iterated to be the Theme "these people" in clause 11. In clause 12, the Topical Theme shifts to "now", causing a temporary break in cohesion. Nevertheless it successfully emphasises the current plight

of rainforests. In clause 13, the Theme “their homes” builds on the Themes and Rhemes of all previous clauses. The use of both the theme re-iteration and zig-zag strategy in the paragraph allows the information to relate cohesively.

In conclusion, analysis of development of arguments in Topic 2 texts suggests that the genre-based approach has had considerable impact. Most notably students have learned how to assemble and develop arguments in a manner more closely approximating to the written Exposition, in contrast to their use of very ‘spoken-like’ language in Topic 1 texts. Generally, their arguments were based on facts and were defended with evidence rather than simply drawing on their overt expression of personal feelings, opinions and experience. This shift was evident in their use of generic participants, and nominalised elements and nominal groups. They tended to express reasoning within clauses. While most students predominantly used external conjunctions to organise arguments in their texts, some internal conjunctions (used to link texts rhetorically) were evident. Significantly, different from Topic 1, in most texts the arguments were extended and developed into paragraphs. In addition, different patterns of thematic development, especially the zig-zag and multiple-theme patterns were used to organise arguments cohesively.

6.5.4 Summary of Analysis for Topic 2 (Should rainforests be saved?)

Analysis of the generic structure of students’ texts for Topic 2 (“rainforests”) after only 15 hours exposure to the genre-based approach shows that the control of generic structure of most students, especially those from the ‘above average’ (9 of 9) and ‘average’ (18 of 20) groups has improved significantly from their Topic 1 (“uniforms”) texts. Most texts for Topic 2 showed evidence of students’ control of the generic structure framework typical of the written Exposition (i.e. Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments (Topic Sentence and Supporting Details), and Conclusion). The change of control of generic structure in the weaker groups’ students’ texts (5 of 5) was not as dramatic. This was to be expected in the large and mixed ability class after these students had studied the Exposition genre for only a short period of time.

Analysis of the generic structure also showed that only one of the students' texts (33 of 34) was at all influenced by delayed introduction of purpose that is culturally and linguistically the norm in the Thai language. It is reasonable to conclude that the genre-based program had contributed significantly to their English writing development. As students were exposed to model texts, it is also reasonable to think that they might be consciously following them in the construction of their own.

Analysis of students' control of language features also showed that they were able to write texts which were closer to the written Exposition. Evidence of this could be seen in their choices of participants and processes as well as their use of technical terms. They used mainly generic participants (human and non-human) and material and relational processes. Owing to the technical nature of the "rainforests" topic, they correctly employed a considerable number of technical terms. In common with Topic 1, most students were able to use appropriate tenses to the Exposition.

Most students are able to develop arguments typical of written Exposition. Their arguments now are information-oriented, containing words or phrases referring to some aspect of the "rainforests" topic. They are able to use grammatical metaphor of reasoning, although normally through verbs, to express causal relations within clauses. In addition, they are able to use internal conjunctions to structure their arguments, which, in turn, are organised into paragraphs.

The improvement between Topic 1 and Topic 2 texts in students' ability to express arguments makes it reasonable to assume the genre-based approach had made a considerable impact on students' writing. In Topic 1 students had listed ideas as points of support for their personal opinions about "uniforms". To change this the teaching program provided ways of elaborating and linking ideas to construct a coherent argument. These included requiring research of factual material and ensuring that students recognised the need to abstract their expression beyond their personal experience. Improvements to other aspects may be attributed to students absorbing or consciously following the model texts.

6.6. Analysis of Texts for Topic 3 (Should smoking be banned in public places?)

As explained in 6.1, texts for Topic 3 were written at the end of the semester in the context of the subject's final examination. Normally, a genre-based approach emphasises scaffolding assistance in a co-operative spirit through the stages of Field-Building, Modelling of Text and Joint-Negotiation activities prior to the students actually writing independently. Yet, there are many exam situations where students need to apply their knowledge acquired through the genre-based approach. In Thailand, the formal, competitive examination is an unchangeable part of the University's structure. In an attempt to establish some context for writing, students were provided with reading articles (3 medium length and 2 long articles, both in English and Thai, for the topic 'Should smoking be banned in public places?' and three long articles in Thai for the topic 'Should Khaodin Zoo be renovated?') as reference material to simulate research. Under examination conditions the students were permitted to bring a dictionary into the room but they had no prior knowledge of either of the topics on the paper, and could not discuss their ideas with anyone. The majority of students (39 of 45) chose to write on the "smoking" topic.

Analysis of students' writing performance for this topic showed both that students remembered what had been covered in the course and the extent to which they were able to generalise their knowledge of the Exposition to the examination topic.

6.6.1 Developing control of appropriate generic structure

Analysis of generic structure of Topic 3 texts indicated that a number of students, especially those from the 'above average' (7 of 9) and 'average' (12 of 21) groups were able to generalise what they had previously learned to their texts. However, texts for this topic were not as successful as for Topic 2. Common problems were that some topic sentences were not always well developed or that some arguments did not have topic sentence at all. Further, some arguments contained a list of information. In other cases, students did not round-off their arguments by summarising, but continued to add new information. These problems were particularly evident in the 'below average'

students' texts (9 of 9). Despite these problems, students' control of generic structure for Topic 3, while regressing from the success in Topic 2, was far more successful than Topic 1.

Interestingly, analysis also showed that there was negligible evidence of the influence of Thai generic structure in their texts. This is noteworthy because there were no texts available to students in the examination room to act as models.

To maintain comparability, I analyse the sample texts of the same students as in Topics 1 and 2: Gaew's text, as a representative from the 'average' group and texts of two other students, Intira, also from the 'average' group, and Uma's, a representative from the 'below average' group.

In Gaew's text, typical of others, the overall generic structure of the text approximated to the Exposition but it was less well developed than her text for Topic 2.

Gaew's text begins on the next page.

Gaew's text:

Presently, many countries issue a ban against smorking. They has a legal about smoking that smoking is totally prohibited in public places such as building, on any campus and within public transport. Yet there are many people continue to smoke in these places. By doing that it affects to the health of smokers and non-smokers, and it also cause a fire.

Smoking is the largest cause of death, for example, in Australia there are 23,000 Australians die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking. Increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, irritation of allergies and staing of teeth and fingers in short-term effects and shortness of breath, stomach ulcers and a cancer of lung in long term effects are examples of diseases by smoking. Besides smoking cause lacking competence of sex in male and female. S morking m akes the reduction in sperm in a male and r eduction in h ormone in a female. Moreover smoking during pregnancy is linked to babies being born under weight and miscarriage.

Furthermore, smorking is harmful to non-smokers. People who are around smokers will breath a main stream and exhaled smoke, and it affects their health. There are many diseases causing by passive smorking, for instance, increased risk of coronary heart disease and a cancer of lung. The scientists believe that passive smorking may be cause of 40,000 lung cancer deaths in the UK. In case of Mrs. Marlene Sharp who has never smoked is example for this opinion. She works in a pub more than 20 years and she pours beers for her customers while they are smoking. Finally she has a cancer.

Smoking can cause of fire, especially in crowded places like a pub or a

Handwritten annotations:

- “presents to tone” (circled) → points to the first paragraph.
- “relational” → points to “Smoking is” in the second paragraph.
- “existential” → points to “is” in the third paragraph.
- “generalized participants” → points to “smokers and non-smokers” in the first paragraph.
- “nominal groups” → points to “Increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, irritation of allergies” in the second paragraph.
- “Argument 1” → points to the second paragraph.
- “Argument 2” → points to the third paragraph.
- “Argument 3” → points to the fourth paragraph.
- “Argument 4” → points to the fifth paragraph.
- “material” → points to the sixth paragraph.
- “Argument 5” → points to the seventh paragraph.
- “Thesis Statement” and “Preview” → points to the first paragraph.

Gaew's text continues on the next page.

disco. In 1980 the Board of Fire Commissioners of NSW found that discarded cigarettes or matches caused about 13,600 fires and including 900 building fires. These things occur the careless of smokers because they did not put out fire before throw it off.

In conclusion, smoking affects the health of smokers and the health of people around them, besides it causes a fire risk. If whoever knows these dangers of smoking and continue this dangerous habit, they should be banned and smoking in public places should be banned also.

→ mental
Conclusion
→ "passive" voice

As the above text illustrated, the Thesis Statement was clearly established, introducing the reader to the topic and indicating Gaew's position on the issue, that is, she was in favour of the smoking ban (clauses 1-6). Clauses 5 and 6 functioned as Preview, outlining the arguments to support her position, concerned with the effects of smoking to the health of smokers and non-smokers. In addition she argued that smoking is a cause of fire.

1. Presently, many countries issue a ban against smoking.
2. They has a legal about smoking
3. that smoking is totally prohibited in public
4. Yet there are many people continue to smoke in these places.
5. By doing that it affects to the health of smokers and non-smokers,
6. and it also cause a fire.

Gaew provided a series of arguments to justify her position, but not all of them were equally well developed. The first argument began with a topic sentence "*Smoking is the largest cause of death*" (clause 7) an assertion which was not adequately justified. While the supporting details in clause 8 provided relevant statistics to support the topic sentence, the information in clause 9 was not completely relevant to the topic sentence. According to the information in clause 9, some diseases can be fatal eg. stomach ulcers and lung cancer. However, some diseases are not eg. irritation of allergies and staing (staining) of teeth and fingers. Thus, it is inappropriate for Gaew to make a sweeping

generalisation that “*smoking is the largest cause of death*”. If the topic sentence is to be coherently linked with the supporting details, it should be rewritten as “*Smoking causes a number of diseases*”.

7. Smoking is the largest cause of death,
8. for example, in Australia there are 23,000 Australians die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.
9. Increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, irritation of allergies and staining of teeth and fingers in short-term effects and shortness of breath, stomach ulcers and a cancer of lung in long term effects are examples of diseases by smoking.

The second argument is “*Smoking causes sexual incompetence in male and female*” (clauses 10). The supporting details of this argument are relatively brief. Gaew argued that “*Smoking makes the reduction in sperm in a male and reduction in hormone in a female*” (clause 11):

10. Besides smoking cause lacking competence of sex in male and female.
11. Smorking makes the reduction in sperm in a male and reduction in hormone in a female.

But, it is unclear to the readers why the reduction of sperm production in male and the reduction of hormones in female causes them to be sexual infertile.

In Argument 3 (clause 12), Gaew argued that:

12. Moreover smorking during pregnancy is linked to babies being born under weight and miscarriage.

Compared to previous arguments, this argument is merely a list of ideas. It lacks a topic sentence, identifying the issue to be discussed in a paragraph. To improve this

argument, it may be re-written as *“Moreover, smoking affects the health of pregnant women. Their babies may be born underweight. Some may have a miscarriage”*.

Arguments 4 (clauses 13-22) and 5 (clauses 23-26) are better developed than Arguments 1, 2 and 3. Each argument consists of a topic sentence, which clearly identifies the issue to be discussed in the topic sentence's own paragraph, and the supporting details, which provide logical evidence and examples to support the issue puts forward in the topic sentence. Argument 4 concerns the effect of smoking on non-smokers (clauses 13-22). Argument 5 explains that smoking is a cause of fire (clauses 23-26).

13. **Furthermore, smoking is harmful to non-smokers.**
14. People who are around smokers will breath a main stream and exhaled smoke,
15. and it affects thier health.
16. There are many diseases causing by passive smorking, for instance, increased risk of coronary heart disease and a cancer of lung.
17. The scientists believe
18. that passive smorking may be cause of 40,000 lung cancers deaths in the U.K.
19. In case of Mrs. Marlene Sharp who has never smoked is example for this opinion.
20. She works in a pub more than 20 years
21. and she pours beer for her customers while they are smoking.
22. Finally she has a cancer.
23. **Smoking can cause of fire, especially in crowded places like a pub or a disco.**
24. In 1980 the Board of Fire Commissioners of NSW found that discarded cigarette on matches caused about 13,600 fires and including 900 building fires.
25. These things occur the careless of smokers
26. because they did not put out fire before throw it off.

As is expected in a typical Exposition, the text ended with 'Conclusion', where Gaew summed up the arguments and reaffirms her position (clauses 27-32).

27. **In conclusion, smoking affects the health of smokers and the health of people around them,**
28. besides it causes a fire risk.
29. If whoever knows these dangers of smoking
30. And continue this dangerous habit,
31. they should be banned
32. and smoking in public places should be banned also.

As this analysis showed, Gaew's text revealed a number of problems in its organisation and development.

In Intira's text, below, another representative from the 'average' group, the control of generic structure was also evident although it was not as successful as in her Topic 2 text.

Intira's text is on the next page.

Intira's text:

→ Thesis Statement / Preview

One person can kill the other person who sit down around him by smoking. When those people smell that smoke, there are many bad effects happening to them.

Firstly, (the cigarette smoke) will destroy (their lives). When people breath in with cigarette smoke, it will pass to their hearts, their lungs, and their livers because these organs work bout breathing. Some part of smoke are kept in these organs. It affect to their health because this smoke cause to throat hurt, and lung cancer. *nominal groups*

Argument 1

Secondly, the mothers who have pernancy will abort. May be their children (are born) ahead of time, or their children become disable. After those woman breath the cigarette smoke in, their children will get it, too. It can kill them easily because of their soft bodies. And they have nothing to protect themselves. *"passive" voice*

Argument 2

Thirdly, the number of baby will be decreased. It (is) because sex competence of father degenerate. It (concerns) with sperm. If sperms are decreased in number and (are) not strong, it (will be) hard for sperms getting into the ovaries. So, the babies will not happen. *relational*

Argument 3

Finally, the husband (will have) new wife. Cigarette smoke makes women get the cancer at their womb. When husband and wife have sex, the blood (will bleed) and (get) pain. These make husband unhappy. The way to solve the problem (is) finding new wife. *material*

Argument 4

Cigarette smoke can (destroy) both (smoker) and (non-smoker) extreamly. Its effects does not happen suddenly, but it correct in long term until the body get damage and die. When this time come, it must be late to stop smoking. *generalised participant*

Conclusion

At the beginning of the text, Intira's judgment on the issue is well established. She proposed that cigarette smoke is harmful to other people's lives (clause 1). Clauses 2-3

function as 'Preview', foreshadowing argument to be presented to support her position, that is, there are many bad effects on people who smell the smoke (clauses 2-3).

1. One person can kill the other person who sit down around him by smoking.
2. When those people smell that smoke,
3. there are many bad effects happening to them.

To justify her position, Intira proposes a series of arguments but some of them are not as well developed as others. The topic sentence of Argument 1 (clauses 4) suggests that the argument in the paragraph will be about the effect of cigarette smoke on the lives of non-smokers who are forced to inhale it (i.e. passive smokers). The information in clauses 5-9 explains how the cigarette smoke affects the health of those people rather than their lives. In clause 10, she provides the readers with examples that the cigarette smoke causes sore throat and lung cancer. But it is unclear to the readers how "*throat hurt*" will destroy the lives of people who smell the smoke. If the topic sentence is to be logically linked with its supporting details, it may be re-written as "*Firstly, the cigarette smoke will destroy their health*".

4. **Firstly, the cigarette smoke will destroy their lives.**
5. When people breath in with cigarette smoke,
6. it will pass to their hearts, their lungs, and their livers
7. because these organs work about breathing.
8. Some part of smoke are kept in these organs.
9. It affect to their health
10. because this smoke cause to throat hurt, and lung cancer.

In Argument 2, the topic sentence is "*Secondly, the mothers who have pernancy (pregnancy) will abort*" (clause 11), leading the reader to expect supporting information that will explain how smoking will cause pregnant women to spontaneously abort. However the supporting information (clauses 12-13) does not really explain this. Rather it just offers the variation of premature birth (clause 12 "*Maybe their children are born*

ahead of time") and discusses the possible effects of smoking to produce full term babies who are malformed (clauses 13-17).

11. **Secondly, the mothers who have pernancy will abort.**
12. Maybe their children are born ahead of time,
13. or their children become disable,
14. After those women breath the cigarette smoke in,
15. their children will get it, too.
16. It can kill them easily because of their soft bodies.
17. And they have nothing to protect themselves.

In fact if the topic sentence is to be logically linked with the information in its own paragraph it may be re-written as "*smoking affects the health of the infants*" or "*smoking puts the health of the infants at risk*".

Argument 3 concerns "*the number of baby will be decreased*" (clause 18). Intira develops a complex link between smoking and conception although it is noted that in clause 19 she has confused the meaning of 'sex competency' with 'fertility'.

18. **Thirdly, the number of baby will be decreased.**
19. It is because sex competence of father degenerate.
20. It concerns with sperm.
21. If sperms are decreased in number
22. and are no strong,
23. it will be hard for sperms getting into the ovaries.
24. So, the babies will not happen.

In Argument 4 (clauses 25-32), Intira argues that "*the husband will have a new wife*" (clause 25). To justify it, she explains that by inhaling cigarette smoke the woman will get womb cancer (clause 26). However, one of the reading articles supplied states that smokers' wives get cancer of the womb because their husbands may transmit cancer-contaminated sperm to them when they have sex. It follows that when these couples

have sex the women with womb cancer may suffer pain and bleed (clauses 27-29). However, Intira has mistranslated the one article in Thai that was provided in the examination to come to the apparently flippant conclusion that the unhappy husband will solve his problem by finding a new wife (clauses 30-31). Rather the medically qualified writer is pointing out the long-term misery to both partners of male smoker-caused womb cancer and the inevitability of the woman's death. A new wife is likely to have the same fate. The whole paragraph may be re-written as "*Finally, male cigarette smokers may cause their wives to get womb cancer. When they have sex, they may transmit cancer-contaminated sperm to their wives' womb. As a result, the wives may have womb cancer. They will bleed or experience pain when they have sex*".

25. **Finally, the husband will have a new wife.**
26. Cigarette smoke makes women get the cancer at their womb.
27. When husband and wife have sex,
28. the blood will bleed
29. and get pain.
30. These make husband unhappy.
31. The way to solve the problem is finding a new wife.

The Conclusion (clauses 32-37) does not really summarise the arguments presented in the text. It begins with "*Cigarette smoke can destroy both smoker and non-smoker extremely*" (clause 32). But none of the arguments are concerned with the effects of smoking to non-smokers. Further Intira states that "*Its effects does not happen suddenly but it correct in long term until the body get damage and die*" (clauses 33-35). This is too specific as there is no evidence in the text elaborating the assertion. It may be more appropriate for Intira to say that "*Some of its effects do not happen suddenly, but they will appear in the long term until the body gets damaged, causing death*". Intira re-affirms her position in clauses 36-37 "*When this time come, it must be late to stop smoking*".

32. **Cigarette smoke can destroy both smoker and non-smoker extreamly.**
33. Its effects does not happen suddenly,
34. but it correct in long term

35. until the body get damage and die.
36. When this time come,
37. it must be late to stop smoking.

Uma's text, below, is typical of the 'below average' students'. Her control of generic structure reveals some strengths as well as some weaknesses.

Nowadays our world have many problems such as economic and social. These are involved with human. They made tension and each person can relax them by movie, shopping and sport. Many people relax by smoking. The numbers of smoker is increasing that made the problem to smoker and non-smoker. So we should banned them.

Smoke made hair and clothes smell, eyes water, throat dry, and bad - smelling of breath. These are diseases caused by smoking. Short - Term Effects: increased heart rate increased blood pressure increased hand tremor, increased levels of carbon dioxide, decreased urine formation and irritation of allergies. Long - Term Effects: chronic bronchitis, shortness of breath, cough and respiratory infections, and cancer of lung, mouth.

Smoking trouble people who is side especially areas in public places: shopping arcades, cinemas, restaurants, hospitals, and transports. Should be a rrranged tthe place f for smoking. The effect of smoking to health for these people: older before should be, made babies being born underweight and abort.

These are harmful of smoking, we can see It is good for health if you avoid and faraway from this, if you can not do you should be prevented in crowded places. Don't forgot non-smoker who effect also. Smoking should be banned in public places; we should supported non-smoking, against smoking and show the people to harmful of smoking.

Handwritten annotations:

- existential (pointing to "have")
- Thesis Statement and Preview (pointing to the first paragraph)
- relational (pointing to "made")
- Argument 1 (pointing to "Smoke made...")
- Argument 2 (pointing to "These are diseases...")
- nominal groups (pointing to "increased heart rate...")
- Argument 3 (pointing to "Smoking trouble...")
- Argument 4 (pointing to "Should be a rrranged...")
- mental (pointing to "we can see")
- Conclusion (pointing to "It is good for health...")
- "passive" voice (pointing to "should be prevented")
- "present" tense (pointing to "These are")
- material (pointing to "avoid")

Uma foregrounds the topic to the reader by saying that people today are experiencing both economic and social problems. As a result they have become tense and each person tries to release their tension through different activities such as going to see a film, going shopping, playing sport and smoking (clauses 1-5). From clauses 6-8, Uma establishes her personal position on the issue clearly. She continues the argument with a quantitative estimate "numbers are increasing" with these people's habit affecting not only themselves, but also non-smokers. Her conclusion is logical; she supports the campaign to ban smoking.

1. Nowadays our world have many problems such as economic and social.
2. These are involved with human.
3. They made tension
4. and each person can relax them by movie, shopping and sport.
5. Many people relax by smoking.
6. The numbers of smoker is increasing
7. that made the problem to smoker and non-smoker.
8. So we should banned them.

However, Uma's arguments are not as well organised and developed as previous examples. Some lack topic sentences identifying the issues to be discussed. Instead they contain only a list of information, though in a more elaborated, factual way than information presented in her Topic 1 text. For example in Argument 1 in Topic 1 Uma wrote "*I think it [the uniform] look like unity and look perfect order*". Slightly different from the previous clause, in Argument 1 in this topic she wrote "*Smoke made hair and clothes smell, eyes water, throat dry, and bad-smelling of breath*" (clauses 9-12). If the argument is to be appropriate to the written Exposition, it should begin with a topic sentence. This may be expressed as "*Smoking has unpleasant side-effects on both smokers and non-smokers*".

9. Smoke made hair and clothes smell,
10. (^smoke made) eyes water,
11. (^smoke made) throat dry,

12. and (^smoke made) bad-smelling of breath.

In Argument 2, the topic sentence is identified, that is, “*These are diseases caused by smoking*” (clause 13). To convey its intended meanings clearly, the sentence should be re-written as “*Smoking causes diseases. These can be categorised into short – and long – term effects*”.

13. These are diseases caused by smoking [[Short – Term Effects: increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, increased hand tremor, increased levels of carbon dioxide, decreased urine formation and irritation of allergies. Long – Term Effects: Chronic bronchitis, shortness of breath, cough and respiratory infections, and cancer of lung, mouth]].

In Argument 3, the topic sentence refers to the way in which smoking affects people who are inside enclosed areas such as shopping arcades, cinemas, restaurants, hospitals and transports (clause 14). Yet, Uma does not provide explanation or evidence to support her claim about the effects of smoking to these people.

14. Smoking trouble people who is side especially areas in public places: shopping arcades, cinemas, restaurants, hospitals, and transports.
15. Should be arranged the place for smoking.

In Argument 4, it is unclear to the reader who the phrase “*these people*” refers to and hence, who are “*older before they should be*”.

16. The effect of smoking to health for these people: older before should be, made babies being born underweight and abort (non-finite clause).

In Conclusion (clauses 16-27), Uma summarises the arguments and re-instates her position on the issue. But, she also expresses her personal feelings and attitudes towards it (clauses 18-23). Further, she tends to repeat information. The information in clauses 16 and 23 is repeated in clauses 26 and 24-5 respectively. If the Conclusion is to

achieve its purpose more effectively, it may be re-written as "*These are disadvantages of smoking. It should be banned in public places*".

16. These are harmful of smoking,
17. we can see.
18. It is good for health
19. if you avoid and faraway from this,
20. if you can not do
21. you should be prevented in crowded places.
22. Don't forgot non-smoker who effect also.
23. Smoking should be banned in public places;
24. we should supported non-smoking,
25. (^we should be) against smoking
26. and show the people to harmful of smoking.

In sum, analysis of students' control of generic structure for Topic 3 indicated that a number of students (21 of 39), especially those from the 'above average' (7 of 9) and 'average' (12 of 21) groups were able to generalise their knowledge of generic structure to texts written under the examination situation. However, other students' texts revealed some weaknesses and were not as well constructed as those written for Topic 2. This was to be anticipated because students were required to finish writing their texts in only three hours. They were neither advised of the topics nor provided with reading materials until the examination began. Despite this, most students' texts were better structured than their texts for Topic 1. Topic 3 texts included many features for the effective writing of the Exposition genre that had been taught leading up to the preparation of their final drafts for Topic 2. It was also worth noting that, despite the texts being written under examination conditions, there was negligible evidence of the Thai generic structure, especially the delayed introduction of purpose. It is reasonable to conclude that after being taught by the genre-based approach students were able to identify the differences and used the appropriate English structure for their Exposition texts.

6.6.2. Language Features Relevant to the Genre of Exposition

Analysis of texts for Topic 3 shows that most students were able to generalise their knowledge of language features for use in their texts. Generally, they used tenses (i.e. simple present, future and past) in their texts appropriately. In common with their texts for Topic 2, they showed that they had understood the necessity to incorporate technical terms that were appropriate to the context and topic, to convey their purpose to the intended reader. However, the use of participants and processes, particularly in the 'below average' and 'average' students' texts (12 of 39), showed signs of regression. To illustrate students' control of language features, Gaew's text – the 'average' – will be analysed in detail. The texts by Kanya and Wittaya, respectively the 'below average' and the 'above average' representatives, will be used for further elaborations.

(i) **Tenses:** Typical of the Exposition, students had no problems using mainly the simple present tense to present information. They use past and future tenses occasionally to refer to past events to provide justification to the proposed arguments and make predictions concerning the effects of smoking. For example the use of 'tenses' in Gaew's text are:

- Clause 1: Presently, many countries **issue** a ban against smoking.
Clause 5: In 1980 the Board of Fire Commissioners of NSW **found** that discarded cigarettes on matches **caused** about 13,600 fires and including 900 building fires.
Clause 25: because they **did not put out** fire before throw it off.

Similar to Gaew's text, the dominant tense in Kanya and Wittaya's texts is the simple present tense although past and future tenses are sometimes also appropriately used. The following clauses illustrate this:

Kanya's text:

- Clauses 1-2: Nowadays, when you **look** around in the society, // you **will** see some action that many people usually do it.
Clauses 31: but non smoker **inhale** that smok // and **can't blow** it.
Clause 33: So they **will** get a smok more than smoker.

Wittaya's text:

- Clause 3: In addition, it indirectly **causes** some problems to the society, too.
- Clauses 22-3: In NSW, it was found in 1980 that cigarettes or matches **caused** a total of 13,600 fires.

As mentioned previously, students' ability to use tenses in their texts appropriately may be due to the fact that they have learnt and practised using them in their previous courses and presumably have also learned from analysis of models of Exposition texts in this course.

(ii) Participants: The majority of students (27 of 39) were able to use generic participants. While some specific participants were used, they were only used to refer to specific individuals, places or organisations to provide examples to justify the arguments. Examples of these participants are in Gaew's:

Key:

Bold: generic participants

Underlined bold italic: specific participants

- Clause 1: Presently, **many countries** issue a **ban** against **smoking**.
- Clause 2: **They** has a **legal** [a law] about **smoking** that **smoking** is totally prohibited in **public places** such as *building*, on any **campus** and within **public transport**.
- Clause 7: For example, in *Australia* there are *23,000 Australians* die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.
- Clause 18: In case of *Mrs. Marlene Sharp* who has never smoked is example of this opinion.

Like Gaew's, specific participants are also evident in the 'above average' Wittaya's text. However those referring in some way to students' themselves are used only sparingly.

Wittaya's text:

- Clause 21: In Australia, in 1981, a total of 8.4 million working days were lost from **absenteeism** due to **smoke related illness**.
- Clause 22: In NSW, it was found in 1980 that **cigarettes** or **matches** caused a total of 13,600 fires.
- Clauses 27-8: As we can see, **cigarette smoking** causes **many considerably bad effects** to both **people** and **society**.
- Clause 30: we can make **better places** and **health**.

In some cases, especially in the 'below average' students' texts (5 of 5), the dominant participants are also generic participants. However, specific participants referring to particular individuals or students themselves such as "you", "your" and "we" are also evident. The use of specific participants in students' texts, especially those referring to students themselves or those who are related to them, regress a little towards their usage in Topic 1.

(iii) Processes: The majority of students were able to use processes appropriate to written Exposition. Their texts were dominated by relational and material processes and contained mental processes only sparingly. Some of them were used to project thinking processes of generic participants rather than particular people or students themselves as in texts for Topic 1. In Wittaya's text, similar to Gaew's, the dominant processes are relational and material processes. While other processes are also used such as behavioural and existential processes, only one of them is mental process:

- Clause 11: As a matter of fact, non-smokers may face a 30 percent higher risk of lung cancer simply by breathing in other people's smoke.

In some cases (12 of 39), students normally used relational and material processes. However, mental processes were also used to project feelings of participants, as the following clauses from the Kanya's illustrate:

Clauses 1-2: Nowadays when you look around in the society, you will see some action that many people usually do it.

Clause 9: you will not like it

(iv) Technical Terms: In most students' texts, some technical terms related to the field of "smoking" are used to develop arguments. These terms occurred in various of the reading articles and students have correctly absorbed them for use in their writing. In Gaew's text, examples of these terms are:

Clause 8: Increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, irritation of allergies and staing [staining] of teeth and fingers in short-term effects and shortness of breath, stomach ulcers and a cancer of lung in long term effects are examples of diseases by smoking.

Clause 10: Smorking makes the reduction in sperm in a male and reduction in hormone in a female.

In Kanya and Wittaya's texts, the use of technical terms are also evident:

Kanya's text:

Clause 18: smoking is the cause of the narrowing and respiratory infections, chronic bronchitis, cancer of lung, larynx, kidney and stomach ulcers.

Wittaya's text:

Clause 9: For example, it increases heart rate, blood pressure, production of stomach acid, levels of carbon dioxide, hand tremor

The use of technical terms enables students to present some specific information related to the field of "smoking" precisely and unambiguously.

To sum up the pressure of having to write texts for Topic 3 in three examination hours shows different outcomes in the students' control of some language features. Generally students from all three ability groups use tenses (i.e. present, future and past) in their

texts confidently, combining them with the appropriate use of technical terms relevant to the “smoking” topic. The area which appears least well managed is the control of ‘participants’ and ‘processes’, where some 15 of the 39 students reverted to writing in a style closer to a spoken text, using some specific human participants.

6.6.3 Development of Arguments

When writing texts for Topic 3 (“smoking”), only one third of students (12 of 39, three of the nine from the ‘above average’ and nine of the 21 from the ‘average’) were successful in developing arguments that approximated to an academic Exposition. Research by the students on the topic of “smoking” allowed them to base their arguments on facts. They employed relevant linguistic features (eg. grammatical metaphor of reasoning and internal conjunctions) in their texts. However, in two thirds of the students’ texts (27 of 39) the development of arguments is less effective than for Topic 2. One of the reasons is that students regressed to retelling their personal experiences regarding smoking, as they had in Topic 1 (“uniforms”) rather than developing arguments based on research of facts, as they had for Topic 2 (“rainforests”). In addition, some arguments were not well developed or organised because, under the ‘one-shot’ examination conditions, students could not discuss this aspect and edit their writing (a process vital to the process and genre-based approaches to learning English writing). Some arguments lack topic sentences and contain simply a list of information. Gaew’s text is representative of the more successful students.

Gaew’s choice of Topical Themes enables her to develop arguments typical of written academic Exposition. The majority of them are nouns referring to generalised participants, third personal pronouns, nominalised elements and nominal groups. Through these thematic elements, Gaew is able to present her arguments objectively, authoritatively and relatively abstractly (Gerot 1995). The text is information-oriented, enabling the readers to find factual support for her arguments (Martin 1986). Nominalised elements and nominal groups are also used to present ‘new’ information in Rhemes extensively. The following clauses exemplify Topical Themes in Gaew’s text:

Key:

Underlined bold: nominalisations

Bold: nominal groups

8.

Increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, <u>irritation</u> of allergies, and staing [staining] of teeth and fingers in short-term effects and shortness of breath, stomach ulcers and a cancer of lung in long term effects.	are examples of diseases by <u>smoking</u> .
Topical	Rheme

13.

People who are around smokers	will breath a main stream and exhaled smoke ,
Topical	Rheme

16.

The scientists	believe
Topical	Rheme

17.

that	<u>passive smoking</u>	may be cause of 40,000 lung cancers
Textual	Topical	Rheme

However, it should be noted that Gaew tends to use the nominalisation “*smoking*” in the thematic position repetitively. It is the point of departure of all Arguments (1-5) and the Conclusion. Clauses 6, 9, 11, 12, 22 and 26 function as the topic sentences of Arguments 1-5 and the Conclusion respectively.

6.

Smoking	is the largest cause of death,
Topical	Rheme

9.

Besides	smoking	cause lacking competence of sex in male and female
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

Moreover	smoking during pregnancy	is linked to babies being born under weight and miscarriage.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

Furthermore,	smoking	is harmful to non-smokers.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

Smoking	can cause of fire, especially in crowded places like a pub or a disco.	
Topical	Rheme	

26.

In conclusion,	smoking	affects the health of smokers and the health of people around then,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Further, in Argument 2 the nominalisation "*smoking*" is thematised repetitively.

9.

Besides	smoking	cause lacking competence of sex in male and female
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

Smorking	makes the reduction in sperm in a male and reduction in hormone in a female.	
Topical	Rheme	

However, there is evidence that Gaew is able to use passive effectively to help organise her arguments. For example:

30.

they	should be banned
Topical	Rheme

31.

and	smoking in public places	should be banned also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

By using passives in these two clauses, Gaew is able to put “*they*” and “*smoking in public places*” in the thematic positions so that the information is presented impersonally and authoritatively.

Further, there is an evidence of grammatical metaphor of reasoning through preposition, verbs and noun as the following clauses illustrate.

7.

For example,	in Australia	there are 23,000 Australians die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

Besides	smoking	cause lacking competence of sex in male and female
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

Moreover	smoking during pregnancy	is linked to babies being born under weight and miscarriage.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

that	passive smoking	maybe (^the) cause of 40,000 lung cancers deaths in the U.K.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

In addition, some internal conjunctions are used to link information within the text and signal its stage:

Key:

Bold: additive conjunctions

Italic bold: temporal conjunctions

7.

for example,	in Australia	23,000 Australians die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

besides	smoking	cause lacking competence of sex in male and female
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

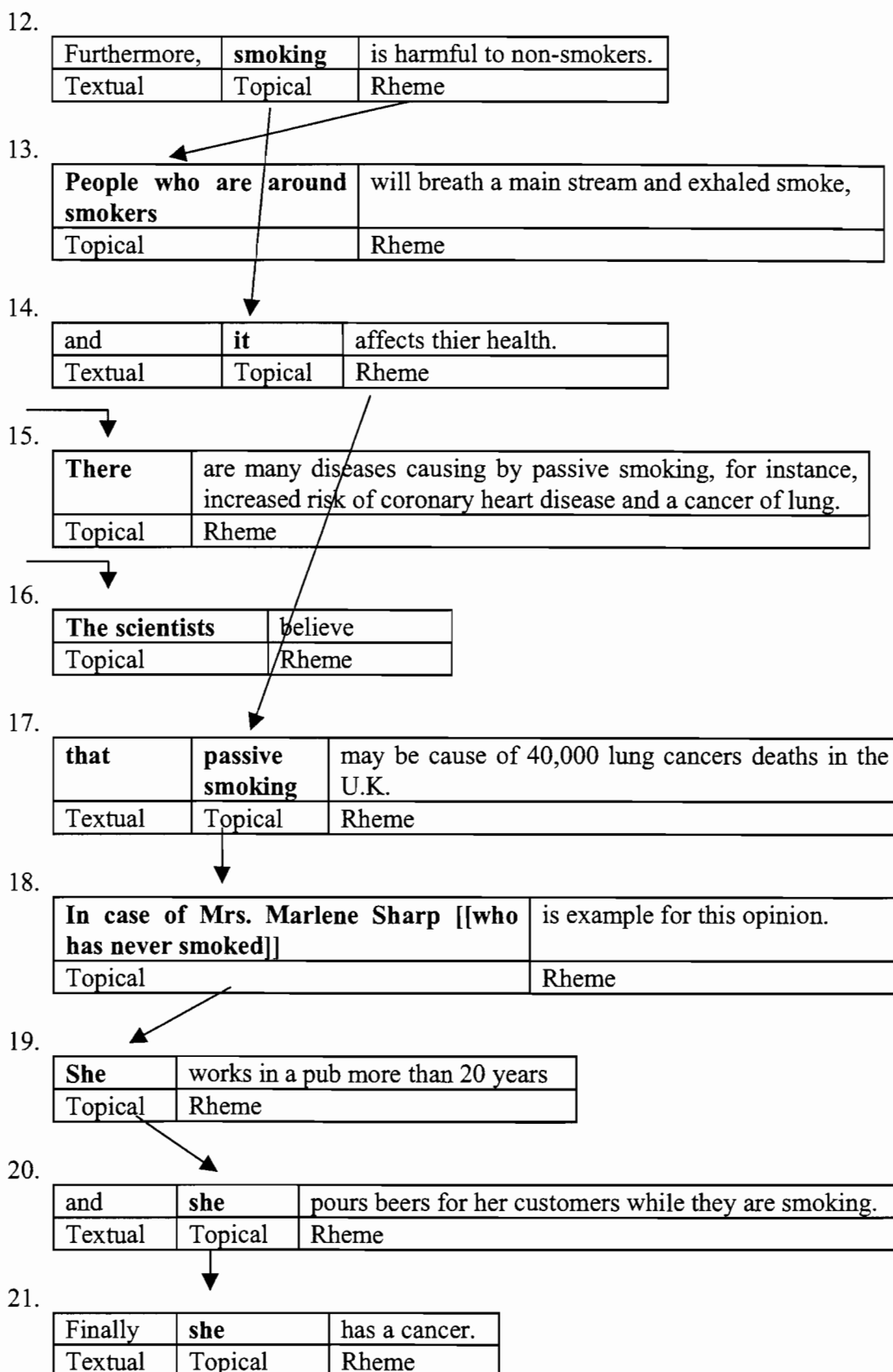
Moreover,	smoking during pregnancy	is linked to babies being born under weight and miscarriage.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

<i>In conclusion</i>	smoking	affects the health of smokers and the health of people around them,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Most arguments in Gaew's texts are organised into paragraphs: the thematic progression from clauses 12 - 20, which function as Argument 4 in the text, is presented below.

Gaew's text analysis begins on the next page.



In clause 12, which functions as the Topic Sentence of Argument 4, the Topical Theme “*smoking*” introduces ‘new’ information in its Rheme that “(*smoking*) is harmful to

non-smokers". This information alerts the reader that the paragraph will be concerned with the effects of smoking to non-smokers. Using the zig-zag strategy, the Rheme in clause 12 has become the Theme of clause 13 "*people who are around smokers*". Similarly the Rheme in clause 13 "... *will breath a main stream and exhaled smoke*" gets promoted to become the Theme of clause 14 "*it*", enabling the arguments to flow coherently. The reader knows where the information in each clause has come from and where it is going.

Between clauses 15-17, there are Thematic shifts resulting in the thematisations of "*there*", "*the Scientists*" and "*passive smoking*" respectively. These Themes allow Gaew to introduce new information into the text. From clauses 18-21, Theme re-iteration is used. The Topical Theme in clause 18 "*In case of Mrs Marlene Sharp who has never smoked*" has become themes "*she*" in clauses 9, 20 and 21. This gives the text a clear focus about the issue being discussed, that is, Mrs Marlene Sharp is an example of a non-smoker who gets cancer from passive smoking.

In Sakda's text, representing the 'above average' group, analysis of themes shows that he is also able to develop arguments which are approximate to an academic Exposition.

In terms of Topical Themes, he chooses nominalised elements, nominal groups, nouns referring to generalised participants and the third person pronouns. Nominalised elements and longish nominal groups are also used extensively in Rhemes. These language features enable Sakda to adopt an objective stance in relation to his topic. The text is relatively lexically-dense, abstract, formal, impersonal and authoritative which is typical of written texts (Drury and Gollin 1986; Eggins 1994; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Gerot 1995). The following clauses exemplify the use of nominalised elements and nominal groups in Themes and Rhemes in Sakda's text:

Key:
Underlined bold: nominalisations
Bold: nominal groups

8.

In those crowded places,	smoking can be a serious fire risk, especially to the non-smokers who are always in there.
Topical	Rheme

18.

the ability of have children	will decrease as well.
Topical	Rheme

27.

Recent research	reveals
Topical	Rheme

31.

Those causes	may be from the long-term effects such as shortness of breath, cough, and respiratory infections, chronic bronchitis, and cancer of lung, larynx, kidney and other parts of body.
Topical	Rheme

The only thematised personal pronoun referring to Sakda is “we” generalised to mean ‘people like me’ in clauses 32 and 35:

32.

If	we	are in the places [[where are filled with cigarette smoke]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

35.

that	we	are already known
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Similar to Gaew’s, Sakda uses passives to structure arguments:

30.

It	is considered	the largest preventable cause of death in Australia nowadays.
Topical	Rheme	

33.

In conclusion,	smoking	should be banned in public places
Textual	Topical	Rheme

By using passives in these clauses, the personal pronoun “*it*”, the dummy subject, and the nominalisation “*smoking*” are made the points of departure. The ability to use the passive to manipulate Theme and Rheme enables Sakda to present arguments effectively and cohesively.

Sakda is able to use verbs, nouns and prepositional phrase to express cause and effect within clauses:

4.

Since	smoking	causes considerable problems linked with disturbing non-smokers, affecting sexuality, and causing health damage,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

Besides	smoking	also has an effect on ability in producing babies.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

Moreover	smoking	can damage the healths of both smoker and non-smokers.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

In Australia	for example, 23,000 people die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.
Topical	Rheme

Further, the use of some internal conjunctions are evident:

13.

Besides	smoking	also has an effect on ability in producing babies.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

Moreover,	smoking	can damage the healths of both smoker and non-smokers.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

33.

In conclusion,	smoking	should be banned in public places
Textual	Topical	Rheme

In terms of the organisation of arguments, Sakda is able to use different kinds of thematic progression to organise each argument into each paragraph cohesively. The following clauses illustrate this:

6.

It	is very unpleasant for non-smokers to sit in the places where it is filled with smoke.
Topical	Rheme

7.

Such places	are restaurants, cinemas, public transports, and other public enclosed areas.
Topical	Rheme

8.

In those crowded places,	smoking can be a serious fire risk, especially to the non-smokers who are always in there.
Topical	Rheme

9.

Mrs. Marlene Sharp,	for example, a 58-year-old woman ((worked in pubs for more than 20 years)).
Topical	Rheme

10.

She	is never a cigarette smoker,
Topical	Rheme

11.

But	she	has cancer of larynx now.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

The thematic development of the above clauses illustrate that from clauses 6-8 the zig-zag pattern is used to organise arguments. In clause 6, the new information introduced in its Rheme "... is very unpleasant for non-smokers to sit in the places where *it* is filled with smoke" gets promoted to Theme of clause 7 "*such places*". Then, its Rheme "... are restaurants, cinemas, public transports, and other public enclosed areas" has become Theme in clause 8 "*in those crowded places*". Similarly Rheme in clause 8 has developed to be Theme in clause 9 "*Mrs Marlene Sharp*". Through this thematic

development, the arguments hang together cohesively enabling readers to absorb the arguments and follow their development toward their logical conclusion.

From clauses 9-11, the pattern of thematic development shifts to the theme re-iteration which "*Mrs Marlene Sharp*" and the personal pronoun "*she*" are thematised repetitively. This indicates that the arguments are concerned particularly with "*Mrs Marlene Sharp*", a non-smoker whose health is affected by cigarette smoke.

In many cases (27 of 39 students across all groups), the development of arguments does not achieve the same level of argumentation as in Topic 2. In some texts, the arguments are significantly influenced by students' personal feelings and attitudes about smoking. In others, the arguments are neither fully-developed nor cohesively organised. Some arguments lack topic sentences and some consist only of a list. Uma's text, representing the 'below average' group, is an example of these.

Uma's text contains two Interpersonal Themes:

15.

Should	be arranged	the place for smoking
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

23.

Don't	forget	non-smoker who effect also.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

Further some Topical Themes are the personal pronouns such as "*you*" and "*we*".

19.

if	you	avoid and faraway from this,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

if	you	can not do
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

you	should be prevented in crowded places.
Topical	Rheme

24.

we	should supported non-smoking,
Topical	Rheme

Uma's choices of themes indicate a less effective organisation of arguments than was the case in her Topic 1 text.

While other nominal groups are also thematised, they are usually brief and are concerned with people such as "each person", "many people" and "the numbers of smoker". The only nominalisation located at the thematic position is "smoking" as in clauses 14 and 24. The following clauses illustrate this:

4.

and	each person	can relax them by movie, shopping and sport.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

Many people	relax by smoking.
Topical	Rheme

6.

The numbers of smoker	is increasing
Topical	Rheme

14.

Smoking	trouble people who is side especially areas in public places: shopping arcades, cinemas, restaurants, hospitals, and transports.
Topical	Rheme

24.

Smoking	should be banned in public places;
Topical	Rheme

These examples of Uma's choices of themes indicate that her arguments are under-developed, focusing on people rather than on issues related to "smoking".

Unlike Gaew and Sakda, Uma uses only causal conjunctions to link arguments explicitly. In addition all types of conjunctions used in the text are external:

Key:

Bold: additive conjunctions

Italic bold: causal conjunctions

8.

<i>so</i>	we	should banned them.
<i>Textual</i>	Topical	Rheme

21.

<i>if</i>	you	can not do
<i>Textual</i>	Topical	Rheme

26.

and	(we should)	show the people to harmful of smoking.
<i>Textual</i>	Topical	Rheme

Most arguments in Uma's text contain simply a list of information points but these are not extended into full paragraphs, as the following clauses illustrate:

9.

Smoke	made hair and clothes smell,
Topical	Rheme

10

(Smoke)	(made) eyes water,
Topical	Rheme

11.

(Smoke)	(made) throat dry,
Topical	Rheme

12.

and	(Smoke)	(made) bad – smelling of breath.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Examination of the above clauses shows that the generic participant "smoke" is thematised repetitively (although it is an implicit theme in clauses 10-12). This means that the 'new' information introduced in the Rheme of each clause has never been followed up and further developed.

In the following clause, Uma simply provides a list of information concerning the effects of smoking. She fails to identify clearly who “*these people*” are.

The effect of smoking to health for these people: older before should be, made babies being born underweight and abort.
(non-finite clause)

To conclude, when writing on Topic 3 (“smoking”) for the final examination, some students from the ‘above average’ (three of nine) and ‘average’ (nine of 20) groups were still able to develop arguments approximate to the written Exposition. Their arguments were based on facts and reasons gathered from the reading materials. They were also still able to use grammatical metaphors of reasoning through verbs, nouns and prepositional phrases to express cause and effect within clauses. In addition, they managed to use some internal conjunctions to link arguments rhetorically.

However, the development of arguments in other students’ texts (27 of 39) did not reach the same level as they achieved in Topic 2. More specifically, their arguments regressed somewhat towards spoken like language as in Topic 1 texts. This was because some of their arguments were based on their personal feelings and experience rather than on researched information. They tended to express reasoning explicitly, normally through causal conjunctions rather than grammatical metaphor of reasoning using verbs, nouns and prepositions. They mostly used external conjunctions to link their arguments rather than internal ones. Similarly, they reverted to listing arguments without adequate justification. Although these arguments were longer and more relevant to the topic than in Topic 1 (“uniforms”), they lacked the point-by-point development achieved in Topic 2. Students’ regression to more spoken-like writing was to be expected because they were not provided with reading articles prior to the examination and were not allowed to discuss their thoughts with other students, or consult me. As they had to finish writing their texts within three hours, they did not have an opportunity to reflect on their writing and incorporate changes resulting from opportunities to redraft and edit their texts (normally part of the genre-based approach).

6.6.4 Summary of Analysis of Text for Topic 3 (“Should smoking be banned in public places?”).

Analysis of students' texts for Topic 3 (“smoking”) written under the examination situation showed both strengths and weaknesses. The positives were that despite the quite different conditions of the formal examination from the process of teaching and learning in the genre-based approach, analysis of students' texts showed little influence of the Thai generic structure. In some cases (12 of 39), students were able to generalise their knowledge of the Exposition to this examination context successfully. Their texts revealed acceptable generic structure (i.e. Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments (Topic Sentence and Supporting Details) and Conclusion (Martin and Rothery 1981). Their language features were typical of written Exposition. There is evidence of further development from Topics 1 and 2 with the greater confidence and competence to use tenses in their texts for this topic. All students appear to have analysed the readings provided in the examination room, interpreting and collating the research information. There was a pronounced improvement in the range and number of technical terms included in longer sentences, enhancing the authority of their writing in the “smoking” topic. Based on facts, their arguments were more closely reasoned in longer paragraphs. Their use of the grammatical metaphor of reasoning through verbs, nouns and prepositional phrases, and internal conjunctions in their examination texts demonstrates a significant sophistication. This is especially so when compared to the texts produced for Topic 1. It is recognised that their use of these features were more evident in Topic 2 where opportunity for consultation existed.

The negative outcomes were possibly attributable to the exam situation itself, rather than problems with the topic or the teaching-learning process. In the teaching semester students were not required to remember the features of the Exposition, but rather to evolve the use of them as the context required. The transfer of ideas and process from the ideal teaching-learning situation in the classroom to the pressures to perform in an examination was not wholly successful because the set topic was neither revealed nor discussed beforehand. As a result many students' control of generic structure (27 of 39) was not fully successful because the topic sentences of some arguments were not well developed, and some of their arguments were not introduced with topic sentences at all.

In some cases, the Conclusion did not really summarise the arguments, but added new information. Many students (12 of 39) regressed by using language features that were more typical of spoken language, using the personal pronouns such as “*you*”, “*our*” and “*we*”. Further, some students reverted to writing lists of relevant points as their arguments without developing them. This suggests that the formal examination may not be an ideal way to assess students' achievement from the course, and that a better way of evaluating student progress in this kind of course should be investigated. This issue is discussed in Chapter 7.

6.7 Conclusion

Based on the results of analysis of students' texts for all three topics, there appears to be evidence that the genre-based approach made a significant impact on students' writing. Analysis of Topic 1 texts (“uniforms”) revealed that a vast majority of students' (40 of 42) wrote texts that reflected typical Thai generic structure. That is, they tended to delay introduction of purpose. Analysis also revealed that students did not yet have any real awareness of the specific features of the genre Exposition. Generally, their texts shifted between the Exposition, Recount and Discussion. From previous courses, they had learned to use tenses in their texts effectively but, there was a clear need for higher levels of understanding of a wider range of language features. Their control of the language features – participants and processes – at this point was more typical of the spoken genres. They often used personal pronouns (eg. “*I*”, “*you*” and “*we*”) and mental and verbal processes (eg. “*think*”, “*believe*” and “*said*”) to project their thinking and communication processes towards the issue. It is acknowledged that this well may have been because the “uniform” topic invited personal reaction. However, at that stage they used only every-day language such as “*school*”, “*cloth*” and “*uniform*” in simple lists of the personal feelings, attitudes and experiences as the arguments supporting their position. Thus, their texts appealed to the readers' emotions to attract sympathy, rather than their intellect to achieve reasoned change in the dress code regulations.

Analysis of texts for Topic 2 (“rainforests”) written after being taught about the genre-based approach for approximately 15 hours, showed that their writing performance had improved significantly. There was only one case of the influence of the Thai delayed introduction of purpose generic structure. Most texts (29 of 34) contained the generic structure typical of the Exposition. Their language features were more typical of the written genres. They used predominantly generic participants or abstract qualities, many of which were nominalisations or nominal groups such as “*rainforests*”, “*the destruction of rainforests*” and “*the qualities of domestic crops*”. The dominant processes were relational (eg. “*cause*”, “*become*” and “*mean*”) and material (eg. “*cut down*”, “*found*” and “*originate*”). They also used a number of technical terms such as “*greenhouse effect*”, “*Ozone layer*” and “*AIDS*”. In common with texts for Topic 1, most students were able to use tenses effectively with advanced students tending to use grammatical structures such as present continuous and present perfect more. The development of arguments in most students' texts was appropriate to mature expository writing, based on generalisations about the topic rather than on students' personal responses. Most arguments were complex and extended, and arranged into paragraphs (Martin 1985), making their texts for this topic more successful than for Topic 1.

Analysis of students' texts for Topic 3 (“smoking”) written for the three-hour final examination showed that all students stated their purposes from the beginning of the texts although some other aspects of their writing performance reverted somewhat to patterns evident in Topic 1. A third of the students (12 of 39) were able to write texts that approximated successful Expositions. Two thirds (27 of 39) had some difficulty generalising their knowledge of Exposition to their texts. While their texts contained generic structure typical of the Exposition, they were not as well developed or organised as in their texts for Topic 2. The topic sentences of some arguments did not sufficiently address the issue in the paragraphs. Some arguments lacked topic sentences. In some cases, the arguments were not rounded off in the Conclusion where new ideas or arguments were proposed instead. There was some evidence that students had improved further from their texts for Topic 2 in the effective use of tenses. A positive feature was that they correctly used a number of technical terms related to the “smoking” topic such as “*passive smoking*”, “*cancer of larynx*” and “*chronic bronchitis*”. However, there

was evidence of reversion in their use of participants and processes to being more like spoken genres because of the prominence of specific participants (eg. “*you*”, “*your*” and “*we*”) and mental and verbal processes (eg. “*see*”, “*think*” and “*say*”). This, in turn, made their arguments more spoken-like. The reversion may be compared to the explanation about Topic 1 “uniforms”, that the “smoking” issue was also an immediate and observable personal concern, almost inviting personal reaction. Further evidence of this was that some of their arguments were simply lists of information. As a result, their texts for this topic were less successful than their texts for Topic 2. Nevertheless, they were still more successful than their texts for Topic 1.

Evidence of the positive impact of the genre-based approach on students' writing performance suggests that it is worth considering as an alternative approach for teaching English writing in the Thai educational context. Outcomes from Chapters 5 and 6 however have also indicated that this approach would need some modification if it were to be taken up more widely in the Thai educational context. This issue is addressed in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purposes of this chapter are five fold. The chapter begins by discussing the place of the genre-based approach in my future teaching. It goes on to describe the extent to which the genre-based approach needs to be modified to suit my immediate teaching context. Thirdly, it explains whether, in view of my experiences using it, I would support broader use of the genre-based approach (beyond my immediate teaching context). Additionally, it provides recommendations for further research. Finally, it details the contribution of the thesis.

7.1 The Place of the Genre-based Approach in My Future Teaching

I anticipate that when I return to work at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University, I will continue with the genre-based approach. There are two major reasons. Firstly, the results of my study, as presented in Chapters 5 and 6, showed that while the genre-based approach drew some negative reactions from some students, their positive reactions outweighed them and, more significantly, the approach did have a positive impact on their writing. In most cases, I am able to learn from the negative reactions, either to modify my teaching strategies or to make alterations to the approach itself (see next section). I continue to be attracted to the genre-based approach because it differs significantly from other approaches available in the EFL context. This will be discussed in detail at the end of this section.

The genre-based approach borrowed from Australia differed significantly from the approaches that had been historically used at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University. Such differences risked the possibility that students would exhibit strong positive and negative responses. By the end of the course a majority of students thought that their overall experience with genre-based writing was worthwhile as the approach taught them to write systematically, and to produce texts appropriate to

English conventions. However, in their reflections there were mixed reactions in what they regarded as the most and least useful stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle. The most useful rating went to the Modelling of Text with Independent Construction in second place. It is probable that this consensus came about due to their expectations of what a writing course should be, based on their experiences in prerequisite courses. The least useful stages according to the students were the Building up the Field Knowledge and Joint-Negotiation, probably because these processes as learning strategies had not been encountered in their previous learning experiences. Students reported that in the prerequisite courses they had a short period of discussion of the topics, selected because they concerned them personally, and then commenced to write. In these earlier courses, students were encouraged to organise their texts into the 'Introduction, Body and Conclusion' format which is considerably less precise than the detailed analyses of rhetorical structure for each genre, a feature provided explicitly by the genre theory. As discussed in Chapter 4, at 4.8, the generic structure of the Exposition consists of Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments and Conclusion. The change from the approach used by the lecturers of the prerequisite courses to the genre-based approach brought mixed reactions from students. Closer examination of their reactions suggest that the genre-based approach needs to be modified considerably to suit the Thai educational context. This will be discussed further in the next section.

A major component of this research was analysis of students' texts in order to gain insights into the impact of the genre-based approach. Comparison of the analysis of the results of students' texts for Topic 1 ("uniform") and Topic 2 ("rainforests"), written before and after being taught by the genre-based approach respectively, indicated that the approach had significantly improved students' writing performance.

Analysis of students' texts for Topic 1 ("uniform") showed that there were some strengths but it also revealed a considerable number of gaps in their knowledge about expository writing. Their control of generic structure shifted between the genres of Exposition, Recount and Discussion. Further, their texts were influenced by the Thai generic structure, where it is a Thai convention to suspend the introduction of purpose until close to the end of the text.

Analysis of students' use of language features and their development of arguments showed that most of them wrote texts as they would speak. The spoken-like quality was evident in their use of features at the changing of the clauses, such as "*In my opinion, I like ...*", "*I think ...*" and "*One of my teachers said ...*". As the subject of "uniforms" was of a personal concern and did not require a great deal of technical research, students not surprisingly used everyday language such as "*uniform*", "*school*" and "*my friends*". Their arguments were simply a series of ideas such as "*I think uniform is beautiful and lovely form appropriateness for students*" and "*However, some of the students like wearing uniform, they said that it is polite and good looking*". They usually expressed reasoning between clauses using only causal conjunctions such as "*so*", "*if*" and "*because*". Internal conjunctions used to link information were typical of a written text – such as "*moreover*" and "*on (in) the other hand*" – were used only sparingly.

On the other hand, analysis of students' texts for Topic 2 showed that most students, especially those from the 'above average' and 'average' groups, had developed a sound grasp of the features of the Exposition. Their control of generic structure conformed to that which is typical of the Exposition, containing the Thesis Statement/Preview, Arguments and Conclusion (Martin and Rothery 1980; Martin 1985; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Butt et al 2000). The second significant change was that there was negligible evidence of the texts being influenced by the Thai generic structure. Most students' texts were organised in a lineal logical progression, moving directly from the central idea to explanations and examples, typical of the English language conventions (Kaplan 1966, 1984).

Students' control of language features and their development of arguments had also improved significantly. Most were able to use language features to develop arguments which were typical of a written Exposition. This was evident in their frequent use of the following features: nominalised elements (eg. "*the deforestation*" and "*soil erosion*"), long nominal groups (eg. "*many kinds of plants and animals*" and "*every part of the earth*") and third person pronouns (eg. "*they*" and "*it*"). Due to the technical nature of the "rainforests" topic and their Field-Building work, most students used technical

terms confidently in their texts such as “*global warming*”, “*greenhouse effect*” and “*photosynthesis*”. Their arguments were more complex and sustained and were organised into paragraphs. Typical of written texts, there was evidence of their use of passives to organise arguments, allowing elements other than human participants to be located at the Theme position. Hence, their arguments were more formal and authoritative. In some texts, the causal relations were expressed within clauses rather than between them, usually through verbs such as “*the greenhouse effect causes the climate changes*” and “*deforestation contributes to several problems*”. More commonly, most students were able to use internal conjunctions to link and mark the staging of a text such as “*firstly*”, “*secondly*” and “*in conclusion*”.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, at 4.7, the Exposition genre is highly valued in the western culture because of its capacity to seek truth by uncovering reality and its ability to convey abstract ideas succinctly to readers (Martin 1985). Yet Indrasutra and Samabuddhi (1991) note that this genre is not widely taught in Thailand. Students’ control of it will assist them to engage in social, educational and political activities with the international communities more successfully. However, it is only one of major factual genres, all of which need to be taught (see also 7.4).

My experiences with this project support the value of the genre-based approach for its basis in Systemic Functional Linguistics. Most Thai students regard the learning of English as important because they realise that competency in English will contribute to their academic achievement which will be an advantage when seeking employment.

Systemic Functional Linguistic theory is located in social context and views language as functional. It describes systematically the relationship between language use and context and is thus well suited for teaching and learning English literacy (Callaghan and Rothery 1988). SFL explains explicitly that each genre is governed by different social purposes and is differentiated by their organisation, structure and language to achieve those purposes, enabling me to provide students with more systematic guidance as to how each is constructed to achieve its meaning. These students quickly grasped the principles of how each text type or genre is constructed to achieve its purpose. For

example, the generic structure of the Exposition consists of the ‘Thesis Statement/Preview’ as distinct from the more general term ‘Introduction’, and ‘Arguments’ is more specific than ‘Body’. In addition, descriptions of the lexicogrammar available through SFL helped students understand that the typical features of the Exposition include such aspects as generic participants, action verbs (or processes), causal conjunctions and nominal groups. I observed that while the genre-based approach emphasises the teaching of writing at the discourse level, it also teaches grammatical structure of sentences in order to present ideas unambiguously. Students’ texts for the “rainforests” topic in Chapter 6, at 6.5, illustrated this. As mentioned in 4.11, students’ control of grammatical structure of sentences has been traditionally regarded as one of the important features for successful academic writing in Thailand. In this respect, the genre-based approach does support the expectations of all the stakeholders.

Over the life of this research project, I found that students became better able to organise their texts to meet international readers’ expectations. Students also became more reflective in their learning and capable of analysing and assessing the strengths and weaknesses of their own texts, showing that they had become more independent in their learning. Their growing competence and confidence was evident in their diary responses – see Chapter 5 for extracts. I also found evidence of their improved control of the Expositions in their texts for the “rainforest” topic, illustrated in Chapter 6.

The genre-based approach integrates the teaching of both ‘form’ and ‘meaning’. As already discussed in 3.4, one of the major goals and principles of the genre-based approach is that language development involves *learning* language, *learning through* language and *learning about* language (Halliday 1979). This principle has significant implications for language teaching and learning English as a foreign language. As the course progressed I became aware that these students also need to learn ‘content’ or ‘subject matter’ to understand how language resources are used to construct meaning in each context. My research indicated that if students do not have sufficient ‘content’ knowledge, they could not really write their texts effectively even though they have adequate understanding of the generic structure and language features of the genre.

Analyses of students' "smoking" texts written under the examination showed that most students were less able to achieve their purposes due to their insufficient understanding of the topic (see also 6.6). I realised the importance of continuing teaching 'form' and 'meaning' concurrently and hence, integrating both in the curriculum. Implications for curriculum development in the EFL context will be discussed further in 7.2 and 7.3.

The genre-based approach has the potential to contribute to the shift from the prevalent 'reproductive-oriented' approach in the broader Thai educational system to the more desirable 'analytical' and 'speculative' (see also Chapter 2, at 2.4). The genre-based approach views language as a social system or as a resource for *making* meanings. In this sense, meaning (and knowledge) is *constructed* and *shared* rather than *transmitted* between people (Hammond 2001).

The semiotic view of language influences the teaching-learning processes of the genre-based approach significantly. The approach holds that language teaching and learning is a social interaction process where the teacher and students are engaged in negotiating meaning actively (Hammond, 2001). Through its commonly associated teaching pedagogy, the Teaching-Learning Cycle, students were required to practise and use different language skills typical of the 'analytical' and 'speculative'. For example, during its Field-Building stage students researched articles, discussed and synthesised the information to be used in their written texts at later stage. At the Modelling of Text stage, they de-constructed and analysed the model texts to gain insights into their generic structure and language features. Throughout this stage, students acquired a language to talk about language (i.e. the metalanguage). As already discussed in 3.11, this knowledge enabled students to analyse and assess the strengths and weaknesses of the texts by themselves. This aspect promoted independent learning, one of the ultimate goals of the Thai government's education reform. At the Joint-Negotiation stage, I negotiated language with students and encouraged them to think analytically and critically about the content to be put in the model text and how the text should be organised to achieve its purpose most effectively. I found it more positive than simply transmitting knowledge to students or prescribing correct grammar to be used in the construction of the text. During the Independent Construction stage, students worked on

their texts because I was by then confident that they had gained control of the genre. However, for Thai students to learn to be more analytical and critical, they would need to be educated by approaches which require them to think reflectively from their early years at schools. As pointed out in 2.4, Monson noted that some students may find it difficult to adjust themselves to new ways of learning at the university level. Recommendations for future research in schools are discussed in 7.4.

As mentioned in 2.5, the teacher is highly regarded in Thailand. The genre-based approach not only honours this, but also acknowledges the contributions of students. The role of teacher in the genre-based classroom is ‘authoritative’ rather than ‘authoritarian’. S/he is a knowledgeable person in the classroom who provides students with support and guidance. Hence, the genre-based approach addresses the controversial issue of ‘teacher-centred’ versus ‘learner-focused’, providing a better teaching-learning balance than other contemporary EFL approaches which tend to focus on either. My research implies that in Thailand teachers need to change to become less authoritarian and students to become more independent. This will be discussed further in 7.2.

The Teaching – Learning Cycle, associated with the genre-based approach in Australia, enabled students participating in my project in Thailand to use language skills integratively. As indicated in 3.11, the opportunities to use language skills integratively are significant for Thai students’ language development because they stimulate students to use language similar to their real life situation. In my research program, students were involved in a range of activities to encourage intensive discussion which assisted them in their oral language development. They were also required to participate in reading to encourage fluency. Although the formal examination focused only on writing, because of the nature of the program their abilities to speak, read and write have also developed.

To summarise, I will continue with the genre-based approach in my future teaching because my research results suggest that the approach is a worthwhile alternative to other major EFL approaches available to Thai teachers of English. Despite the constraints under which I was working, this new teaching/learning approach drew more

positive than negative reactions from students. It made a significant impact on students' writing, enabling them to write longer and better-organised texts that were closer to the English conventions for the Exposition genre. The results of text analysis in this research project support the view that has been argued by others (eg. Martin and Rothery 1980; Burns R.1990, Hammond et al 1992) that genres need to be taught explicitly otherwise students from non-native speaking backgrounds will continue to be disadvantaged. In addition, the research supported that idea that students imbued with the Asian cultural approach to learning are able to change successfully to the Western directness of approach, which is in line with the findings by O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997).

Nevertheless, as discussed in 1.2, an approach developed in one cultural context is not necessarily successfully transferable to another. Analysis of data in students' responses during and after completion of the course, the evidence in their written texts and my reflections on my teaching experience suggest that future genre-based courses would need to be modified considerably to suit the Thai educational context. Suggestions for the modifications of the genre-based approach are discussed in the next section.

I proposed in the first chapter of this thesis that my research would contribute to some of the Thai government's education reform agenda. Summarising my work in this section bears out my thesis that the genre-based approach is a viable alternative to the contemporary approaches in the EFL context.

7.2 The Modifications of the Genre-based Approach

When applying the borrowed Australian genre-based approach in the Thai educational context, my research suggests that I have to be aware that I am confronting a long history of cultural expectations in students about the ways in which teaching and learning takes place. I would need to adopt the genre-based approach flexibly, drawing on features which are most relevant to my teaching contexts and/or modify them in the way that most suits my teaching circumstances and students.

Based on students' responses and issues that I grappled with, the modifications of the genre-based approach needs to take into account:

- choices of topics and genres;
- clarification of the language program objectives;
- change in teachers' and students' expectations; and
- deliberate teaching of Thai and English genres.

(a) Choices of Topics and Genres: The data from my research suggests that when designing and developing the curriculum content for teaching English to Thai university students I would need to take into account choices of topics and genres. I need topics that have some depth and which engage students to develop the knowledge about them independently so that I can focus on the relevant language and genre.

As discussed in Chapter 5, at 5.2.2, students complained about my choice of the "rainforests" topic, saying that it did not inspire them to write because they did not see it either as inherently interesting or as relevant to their real life situation. In future teaching, I would 'negotiate' with students about topics that interest them across a range of areas. To reduce the possibility of students not being able to agree on a single topic, I would need to provide a short list of proposed topics so that their relevance to students may be discussed and students involved in the selection, with the objective of the students being more highly motivated to take 'ownership' of the content.

In order to assist students develop more abstract writing, as expected of the 'factual' genres, it would be appropriate for me to provide students with choices of topics that encourage them to research information and present facts to support their arguments eg. "*Should smoking be banned in the public place?*" and "*Should cars be banned in the city*". Christie (1984) and Rothery (1986) note that the choice of topic is crucial to students' success in writing because, if the topic is of interest and relevant to their needs, they will not only enjoy studying it, but will also be able to write their texts better. Prodomou (1992:50) asserts that:

when a class is given opportunities to work around topics that genuinely interest them, the teacher may achieve a dual purpose: those students who are struggling with aspects of the language will be encouraged to persist in their efforts

because the content of the lesson appeals to them, while those students who are more linguistically able will be more patient of a slow pace at times because they are not intensely bored.

Further, the data of my research suggested that the choice of genre would need to be considered in relation to students' prior learning experience, their needs and their learning goals. For example, if I were to use the genre-based approach with the first year students the writing syllabus would include genres such as the Personal Recount and Description, building up to the more demanding 'factual' genres such as the Report and Exposition to assist them to be able to write texts academically.

I would need to negotiate with the University the number of genres that students are expected to learn in a semester because introducing each new genre has to be managed in a cumulative way to maximise the carry-over from one genre to the next, as well as making the significant differences between them to be learned and practised.

Time factors also need to be considered. Negotiations should include taking into account other, external, factors involved, such as the known amounts of reduced time eg. public holidays, as well as the time lost through the less predictable social events. It is more important for the teacher to emphasise 'quality' rather than 'quantity'. As Rothery and Gerot (1986:163-4) argue:

in the interests of enabling students to write as we would wish them to, the amount of 'material covered' in a course may well need to be reduced. However, what is lost in quantity of material covered will be regained in quality of learning.

The combination of the above recommendations – choice of topic and grading the degree of difficulty of the genres selected – may indeed reduce the amount taught in any one semester, but these changes should be reflected in the success of students' achievements.

(b) Clarification of the language program objectives: As with the implementation of any educational change, it is important for the teacher to ensure that students understand:

- the objectives of the language program;
- the nature of the genre-based approach;
- its similarities to and differences from approaches which students have experienced in previous English courses; and
- activities being undertaken.

As the data indicated, one of the major reasons that students at first resisted the Exposition was because they were accustomed to writing texts from their own experience, ideas and imagination – various forms of creative writing. The data in my research project suggested that I had not explained adequately the difference between the objectives of courses that my students had already completed and the advanced course that I was now teaching – the third year level – which required students to write texts based on facts and rational judgment. It became important when this occurred to go back over the explanation I had given at the beginning of the course to discuss with students that the genre-based approach and factual writing was building on what had been learned in the prerequisite courses.

I had to explain again to students the pedagogical practices associated with the genre-based approach, the Teaching-Learning Cycle. I reminded them that each stage of the Cycle consists of a variety of activities, and restated the purpose of each activity, discussing what it was that they were expected to do, the behaviours required, and my expectations of outcomes. I became aware that realistically, it is difficult for students to understand explanations when a new approach is first introduced and before they have experienced any of the learning activities associated with it. Much of this reiteration will occur as supportive feedback to students as they participate in each activity.

(c) Change in Teachers' and Students' Expectations: As noted earlier, the genre-based approach has a number of features that are not a normal part of Thai educational culture. Thai teachers of English, as well as students, will be challenged by the differences. As an example, the data from my research showed that students, right from the beginning of the course, have expectations that they would learn 'how' to write in the sense that they will be taught more complex grammar and syntax. When I asked

them to participate in Field-Building activities, Dictogloss and oral presentations in small groups students' perceptions were that these were irrelevant because they were not actually writing. From this experience I learnt the importance of explaining the purpose of each activity and relating it to a specific writing goal. In future I would need to be flexible and adjust to meet at least some of the expectations that these adult students bring with them. I would begin by analysing a model text. This could be followed by first attempts at writing following the general outline of the models. Alternatively, I could start with independent writing, followed by analysis of model texts in both English and Thai to compare their similarities and differences – the contrastive approach. Students will thus be more highly motivated to become involved in the activities of the Modelling of Text stage, and later stages in the Cycle.

A second example of the ways in which students were challenged is that some students resisted my teaching in this genre-based language program because I wished them to take a more active and collaborative role. This was a difficult experience for some as it is not culturally normal in the Thai education context and they had not been required to engage actively in activities in their previous writing courses. In particular, the genre-based approach required students to work both more cooperatively and more independently at the same time. Students' confusion was particularly evident during the Joint-Negotiation stage. In future, if the genre-based program is to be carried out successfully, I would need to spend time at the beginning of the semester introducing these adult students to the new, different ways of learning. I would need to repeat these expectations and discuss the purposed outcomes of each activity when students appeared reluctant to participate. I would need to provide them with opportunities and time to practise, socialise and become comfortable with their new responsibilities and roles. In each lesson I would need to integrate some tasks or activities that allow students to work together with the objective of learning from each other. For example, I may ask students to form small groups to brainstorm a new topic or evaluate their texts from previous lessons.

Over time I would need to support students to become gradually more 'independent' in their learning and to make them aware that they will have to take charge of their own

learning once they leave the classroom. This is achieved by acquiring the skills they will need to do so. Esch (1996, cited in Lee 1998:288) notes that learner independence is promoted through ...

the provision of circumstances and contexts for language learners which will make it more likely that they take charge – at least temporarily – of the whole or part of their language-learning program, and which are more likely to help rather than prevent learners from exercising their autonomy.

Cotterall (2000) adds that a program designed to promote students' independence should also contain activities that encourage them to reflect on their learning in order to enhance their insight into the learning processes.

On reflecting on this teaching experience, I thought that the teacher needed to set aside time to encourage students to reflect on 'what' they have learnt or 'how' they learnt it. For example, I could ask students to evaluate what they learned in the previous lessons, and perhaps then think about linking it to the current lesson. This approach is encouraged by Dam and Legenhausen (1999) as one which ensures that students are engaged in their own metacognitive learning through evaluating their ongoing experience of the learning process.

[evaluation] is viewed as the pivot of a good learning/teaching cycle ... Evaluation has a retrospective and prospective function, in which the learning experiences of the past are reflected upon and transformed into plans for future action (Dam and Legenhausen 1999, cited in Cotterall 2000:112).

This process need not be restricted to interaction between teacher and students. Some social learning objectives are/could be approached through peer exchanges about what has been learned and how it might be applied to personal and/or professional objectives. I discuss this issue's implications for the professional development of Thai teachers of English in 7.3 (iv).

(d) The deliberate teaching of Thai and English genres: From my research, it is evident that prior to being taught by the genre-based approach most students' texts were influenced by the oblique and circular Thai generic structure (see also 6.4). In order to help students to write texts appropriate to the conventional styles of English texts, I would need to explain explicitly to students, using contrastive analysis, that conventional organisations of written texts vary from culture to culture. Unlike Thai

writing, English writing favours linear organisation, beginning by identifying the thesis and then developing it over a series of related arguments, each supported by facts, statistics and illustrations of arguments. Students generally have good control of the English grammatical structure of sentences, but still need to be assisted to write extended English texts successfully. To communicate with native speakers effectively, students also need to become aware of their readers' expectations – culturally as well as linguistically defined – and be able to employ the generic structure and linguistic choices appropriate for the genres.

To this point, what I have been arguing is based on the kinds of changes that I perceive to be necessary for the individual teacher to be able to implement the genre-based approach in his/her own classroom. This section of my concluding chapter substantiates the second contribution which I proposed in the introductory chapter, to provide insights into the ways in which the Australian borrowed approach would require adaptation to suit the Thai education system.

In the next section, I will discuss implications from my research for the broader application of the genre-based approach in the Thai higher education system and what changes would be required for such application to be effective.

7.3 The Broader Application of the Genre-based Approach

Based on the results of my study, I would support the broader application of the genre-based approach in the Thai higher education system. In my view, this approach has the potential to contribute to the Thai government's reform goals.

As indicated in Chapters 1 and 2, one of Thai government's goals is to reform the 'curriculum' in order to improve Thais' knowledge and command of English. Analysis of students' texts (presented in Chapter 6 and summarised in 7.1) showed that the genre-based approach did help students to improve their English, particularly writing skills. The opinion from one student confirms this:

At the first time I think writing essay is very difficult for me but when I finished

this I know about the technique to write for each text type. I know something that I never know before such as Exposition text... I know the way to write essay more than the past, even though I'm not sure that I can write better or not but I am very proud of myself that I can write essay in different kind (Wiyada 8/2/1998).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, because extended writing in English is not widely taught in Thailand, the ability of Thai students to construct longer texts (paragraph and longer) is of particular concern. Improvement in students' control of the language features required in writing extended or whole texts would be beneficial for them academically and professionally. Academically, students will be able to perform tasks required by some courses of their degrees eg. writing essays, reports and research papers. Professionally, students who have a good command of English will have the edge over their peers in terms of career opportunity to get jobs in the multinational corporations (MNCs).

Also, students' control of English writing skills will 'empower' them to interact with native speakers and achieve their communicative purposes (eg. social and economic) more successfully. This is in accordance with the national objectives as expressed in the government's education reform agenda to enable Thai people to be more competitive participants in the globalised world, and to be able to access, utilise and exchange information in English more effectively.

While the genre-based approach focuses on writing skills, the data in Chapter 5 illustrates that it also enables students to practise other language skills (i.e. reading, listening and speaking) within the one program. Therefore, it provides a better comprehensive approach to teach English in the EFL context in Thailand. In the national psyche, knowledge of English will not only lead to the recovery of economy but also improve Thailand's standing in the world.

As in other education systems, the Thai education system has aspects that frustrate teachers trying to introduce innovations in the classroom. Therefore, if the future implementation of the genre-based approach or of any other innovative approaches in the broader Thai education system is to be successful, some cultural changes need to take place. These include:

- more participation of stakeholders;
- changes in curriculum development;
- changes in assessment;
- more professional development support;
- more provision of teaching resources.

(i) Participation of Stakeholders: As noted in Chapters 2 and 3, Thai academics have previously attempted to apply new teaching concepts developed in other countries to teach English. However, the effects of some of these (eg. communicative approaches) were at best marginal and at worst created chaos. Despite being announced with some political fanfare, the impact of these new approaches was limited due largely to the lack of participation of stakeholders. Prior to the genre-based approach being implemented in any university, it is essential for the initiating teacher to negotiate with the stakeholders involved i.e. administration personnel, teaching staff and students, to gain their support for the principles and to seek their input for its effective introduction and assessment.

In my view, it would be beneficial for the initiating teacher to apply the genre-based approach in a pilot group or in only a few classes to explore ways in which the genre-based approach could be applied across the program. The implications of this issue for Thai English teachers' professional development will be discussed in (iv), below.

(ii) Curriculum Development: As mentioned earlier, in Thailand, English is taught as a subject which requires students to study grammatical usage. If educational innovation is to achieve its objectives, the development of the curriculum would need to take into consideration broader issues of ESL and EFL as well as comprehensive language skills.

The genre-based approach was originally developed in the ESL context. The teacher of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), intending to apply it in her/his classroom, needs to be aware of the differences between the two contexts and their teaching demands. As already noted in Chapter 3, at 3.7, in the ESL situation, students understand the need to learn English in order to participate in their everyday life with English speaking people.

At school and in higher education, students have to be able to engage with the normal curriculum. As a result, there is a very strong motivation for ESL students to learn English. In addition, the ‘content’ of what they learn is often determined within the broader curriculum of school or in higher education institutions. English is thus acquired in a range of subject contexts fairly naturally from the specific content that the students are studying.

On the other hand, in the EFL situation there is less imperative to learn English. The principal exposure to English for Thai students is from the Western pop music or films. Such students are located in their own culture and primarily use their L1. The EFL teacher therefore has to construct a context and a reason for using English for her/his students. As my data indicated (see also 5.2.2 (c)), I had difficulty introducing the “rainforest” topic to students because they did not see its relevance to ‘their curriculum’ and more importantly, their everyday life situation.

Based on the results of my study, the implications for future teaching are that it is beneficial for EFL teacher to understand that *language* (i.e. English) learning is interrelated to curriculum ‘content’. In other words, language learning is not simply about language rules or functions as Halliday (1979) has argued. It is also concerned with learning *through* language and *about* language.

By learning *through* language, the teacher provides students with the ‘subject matter’ or ‘content’ which they are expected to learn according to their school or university curriculum rather than the ‘constructed’ lessons or exercises to teach particular grammatical points or language functions. This provides students with an authentic context in which to learn language. In addition, it has “the potential to support both language and curriculum learning, in a reciprocal way” (Gibbons 2002:120). Gibbons goes on to point out that:

With a dual content-language focus, there is likely to be a continuous recycling of concepts, grammar, or vocabulary associated with particular curriculum knowledge.

Learning *about* language concerns the explicit teaching of genre and about genre, especially its generic structure and language features so that students will realise how

language resources are used to make meaning in the text. This also provides students with language to talk about language – a metalanguage – that enables students to examine how other writers construct texts, in turn applying these techniques in structuring their ideas and expressions in their own texts (Hammond and Hood 1990; Knapp and Watkins 1994).

Leckie-Tarry (1993:27) stresses that learning about language is crucial to students' academic achievement:

In order to teach students how to operate in an academic context, they must know the language of English academic texts, and this in turn will involve developing in them an understanding of how academic texts function in society; how academic texts are produced; how academic discourse relates to the English language as a whole, and how registerially specific are the linguistic structures of academic discourse.

To conclude, Halliday's notions of learning *language*, learning *through* language and learning *about* language have long been recognized as central to language development in the ESL context. Yet, these aspects have not been widely acknowledged in the existing EFL curriculum. If the genre-based approach is to be implemented to teach English as a foreign language successfully, it is appropriate for the teacher to develop curriculum to include all three. It is logical to consider introducing these notions in L1 across the curriculum in order to accelerate curriculum reform. This is further discussed in 7.4.

As mentioned in 3.10, the English curricula in Thailand traditionally focuses on one or two of the four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing). However, some authorities (eg. Byrne 1986; Grabe and Kaplan 1996) argue that students learn better when they are engaged in activities or tasks that facilitate use of language skills integratively. McDonough and Shaw (1993) note that in real life situation people rarely use language skills in isolation, but in conjunction. Morrow (1981:61) argues that:

One of the most significant features of communication is that it is a dynamic and developing phenomenon. In other words, it cannot easily be analysed into component features without its nature being destroyed in the process. It is of course possible to identify various formal features of the way language is used communicatively, and these can be studied individually. But, the ability to handle these elements in isolations is not indication of ability to communicate.

As discussed in 3.11, this notion of ‘integrated skills’ is at the core of the genre-based approach and suggests that if the genre-based approach is to be successfully implemented across the higher education system, Thai teachers will have to be convinced that the ‘integrated skills’ approach rather than the traditional compartmentalised approach produces better student learning outcomes. Based on my experience in teaching this approach, I found it better to teach language skills comprehensively. In order to achieve this, teachers need to take the following factors into consideration.

Textbooks and activities: Teachers need to emphasise integrating skills by the careful selection of textbooks and activities which support this practice. For example, teachers should ask students to read beyond the textbook and discuss what aspects in their readings to include in their writing. I noted that when I asked students to discuss what they had written, at least some of them would do additional reading leading to more effective writing, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996) found.

Timetables: Typically, in the Thai educational context teaching courses operate within the time-frames of various educational institutions that specify the number of class hours in the semester. However, if the ‘integrated skills’ curriculum as required by the genre-based approach is to be implemented in the classroom successfully and effectively, sufficient time needs to be allocated so that the learning process may be consolidated with adequate practice. It should be possible, at least, to have two hours, currently scheduled on different days, brought together as a block. It would additionally be desirable to extend the length of the course by adding a further hour, especially valuable for treating other genres and for writing practice, with the teacher available for consultation.

Teachers’ expertise: Teachers would need to change their view on their areas of expertise. While they are responsible for teaching English writing, they would also need to be knowledgeable about other language skills so that they can select or devise

activities and exercises to practise and evaluate language skills integratively. The implications for professional development are discussed below, in (iv).

If this recommendation is adopted then it would also be necessary to align methods of assessment with language skills being under focus. This issue will be discussed further in the next section.

(iii) Assessment: As already discussed in Chapter 6, most students' texts for Topic 3 written under the examination situation were not as successful as their texts for Topic 2 written during the semester (see also 6.6). In an examination, students have to write texts under pressure of time. Texts written in a formal examination may not be truly representative of students' capabilities. In addition, this method of assessment goes against a fundamental principle of the genre-based approach, which is that writing is not a 'one-off' task.

It will be necessary to change the way that Thai teachers of English think about assessment. In the university context, this change is feasible because teachers are responsible for their courses. I propose that alternative within-course or formative methods of assessment should be explored. Students' grades may be accumulated from progressive assessment tasks at the completion of defined stages. According to Jordon (1997:87), progressive assessment task have several functions:

they provide information on progress being made and areas of difficulty remaining, i.e. they provide screening, indicating what help is still needed. They also act as a spur or motivation for students by setting short-term goals.

Jordon (1997) noted that the frequency of progressive assessment tasks should be negotiated between teachers and students. Students quickly understand that low marks in early tasks may be compensated by later results. However, timing and frequency are critical, since over-frequent assessment cuts too much into teaching time and becomes a preoccupation of both students and staff. Too infrequent assessment does not identify problems quickly enough to enable them to be addressed. Above all assessment should not be highly competitive across the class. Instead, it should identify individual

problems that students are experiencing in order to maximise opportunities for positive reinforcement.

As noted in 1.1.2, the method of assessment in most writing courses in Thailand emphasises objective-type questions, requiring students to complete and reorder sentences and words, and correct grammatical errors. It is more appropriate that the formative assessment tasks move progressively towards writing essay length responses so that students combine their content knowledge with their use of English in extended-writing. Teachers of EFL need to be trained to assess essays based on the genre-based approach's use of specific criteria of each genre.

To promote an integrative skills course, the methods of assessment for other language skills need also to be carefully considered. For example, when teachers ask students to do an oral presentation to build up their knowledge about the topic the teachers should assess students' performance in terms of their ability to convey information clearly and thoroughly. Teachers need to explain to students the purposes and assessment criteria explicitly.

As university students are adult learners, teachers should encourage students to carry out learner-self assessment, promoting learner independence. Students may be asked to judge honestly their writing in accordance with the purpose or nature of each genre. Nunan (1988:116) pointed out that although this assessment is unsuitable to scale students' achievement, it provides "one of the most effective means of developing both critical self-awareness of what it is to be a learner, and skills in learning how to learn".

As Thai students are not yet accustomed to the process of self-assessment, the teacher would need to introduce it at the beginning of the course, establishing how important it is to assess their own work by developing critical habits and analytical reading methods. The time spent making self-assessment relevant should overcome any personal shyness and assist the shift from cultural norms. The teacher should provide students with models and a learner self-assessment form at the end of each teaching unit as a guide.

It should be noted that it is the teacher's responsibility to record all formal and informal assessments (the latter perhaps recorded as comment rather than as a numerical or letter grade) carried out during the course. When collated, these provide the evidence to inform final decisions about students' progress and overall performance at the end of the course.

These suggestions for change represent a dramatic shift from traditional approaches to assessment in the Thai educational system. It will be necessary to demonstrate significant advantage of progressive assessment measured by outcomes in genre-based approach EFL classes before attempting to convince teachers in other areas, education bureaucrats and politicians that it is a worthwhile system change. It would thus be appropriate for EFL teachers who use the genre-based approach to seek an exemption from traditional assessment methods to convince colleagues of the value of progressive assessment as a first step towards meeting the government's objectives.

(iv) Professional Development: As discussed in 1.1 and 2.5, one of the factors that hinders the progress and effectiveness of the Thai government's attempt to reform English teaching in Thailand is the shortfall of Thai teachers qualified to teach English. This situation is made worse by the general shortage of trained teachers, a national budget issue. Until now, Thai teachers, particularly at the tertiary level, have not been required to have certificated teaching qualifications, only a relevant content degree. While these lecturers are competent in English because they commonly hold relevant Master degrees, they are not necessarily knowledgeable about teaching techniques.

In any universities where education innovation takes place, professional development should be provided to assist aspiring Thai teachers of English to master and improve their teaching techniques and skills such as selecting learning activities, asking questions of students and giving feedback on students' learning (Richards 1998). Teachers would also need to be encouraged to continue beyond the threshold level of proficiency in spoken English both to interact with students and to be able to teach effectively in it. Heaton (1981) argues that teachers' proficiency in teaching language and their teaching techniques and skills are interdependent:

One of the basic assumptions underlying the approach here is that language cannot be divorced from content and practice. It is considered impossible, for instance, to teach English appropriate to the needs of the practicing teacher without teaching basic classroom skills at the same time. By improving the language skills of the teacher, the course deliberately seeks to improve the particular teaching skills which involve the use of those skills.

In Richards' view (1998), once teachers are competent in content and methodology further development requires their reflecting on their teaching in the context of their belief and value system. He adds (1998:23-4) that:

Activities that promote self-inquiry and critical thinking are central for continued professional growth, and are designed to help teachers move from a level where their classroom actions are guided by routine to a level where their practices are guided by reflection and critical thinking.

Bartlett (1990:205) notes that reflection or critical reflection refers to:

the stance of enabling us as teachers to see our actions in relation to the historical, social, and cultural context in which our teaching is actually embedded. Becoming a critically reflective teacher is intended to allow us to develop ourselves individually and collectively; to deal with contemporary events and structures (for example, the attitudes of others or the bureaucratic thinking of administrators) and not to take these structures for granted.

To keep abreast of innovations in English language teaching, the education bureaucracy would need to provide professional development workshops to teachers in their local or regional centres. Teachers would also need to be given some release and financial assistance for professional development to attend conferences conducted by the Rajabhat Institutes (formerly known as Teachers' Colleges) and universities in the major cities. In addition, professional development implies taking an active interest in the conferences held by, for example, the Thai TESOL Organisation, the British Council (Bangkok) and the American Alumni Association (Bangkok), and the sharing of papers on the genre-based approach.

In addition, the education bureaucracy would need to make available an adequate budget for the professional development of EFL teachers so that educational institutions are able to carry out their professional development programs continuously. An example of this is the 'Cooperative Research Network' (CRN) which has recently been established to coordinate the research effort nationally. Such research programs would

need to involve university lecturers and teachers from other higher educational institutions eg. the Rajabhat Institutes and the vocational sector. These partnerships could carry out literacy programs built around an innovative genre-based approach at their own institutions, exploring and critically reflecting on the approach's effects. Participating teachers could prepare and conduct sessions as well as being students in them because this is basic to the implicit notion in the genre-based approach of sharing experiences, which extends to successful teaching activities. An additional advantage of this form of peer participation is that teachers would explore and identify ways to modify the genre-based approach to improve their own levels of English proficiency. Throughout the programs, teachers would regularly participate in scheduled workshops to share and discuss their findings, with the objective of taking ownership and implementing curriculum change leading to better teaching practice and enhanced learning outcomes for students. Teachers could need also to share their experiences about the extent to which the genre-based program can be carried out in the teaching of subjects in Thai. After my return to work at Ubon Ratchathani University, I will be in a strong position to initiate a project based on the genre-based approach within the Cooperative Research Network. The CRN serves one of my university's goals to provide educational services to the local communities.

Another way of supporting professional development is that the government should be asked to provide scholarships for teachers to further their studies in native English speaking countries eg. the UK, US and Australia. While funding may not always be available for teachers to travel to these countries, it should be possible to fund attendance at Singapore's Regional English Language Centre (RELC), a renowned international centre much closer to Thailand. The government might be persuaded to support teachers to develop exchange and cooperation programs with overseas academics and promote 'working' international institutional links.

(v) Provision of teaching resources: If the implementation of an innovative genre-based approach is to succeed, the government would need to provide educational institutions with necessary budget for textbooks. Certain works, especially those on Systemic Functional Linguistics which the genre-based approach draws on, need to be

translated into Thai to make these accessible to Thai teachers of English who are not yet acquainted with the SFL and are not confident in their own English.

To sum up, the changes that I have been describing will have profound implications for the way in which we organise language teaching in universities. However, to this point my comments have been restricted to the higher education system. My research findings into the value of the genre-based approach imply a broader impact, for which further studies need to be carried out. Similar to 7.2, this section supports the second contribution of my research, to identify the cultural aspects inherent in the Thai education system and to propose ways of implementing an innovative approach contextualised for Thailand.

7.4 Recommendations for Further Research

This research has provided insights into the extent to which the genre-based approach can be applied for teaching writing only at university level in the Thai educational context. Due to limitations of time and cost, the research was carried out in one English class at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University in northeast Thailand and focused on only one genre, the Exposition. In order to gain more insights into the way in which the genre-based approach can be applied for teaching writing in the Thai educational context and contribute to the Thai government's education reform goals, it is recommended that further research in this area:

7.4.1 Replicate and extend this study in other university contexts.

I proposed in the first chapter that my study would contribute to the Thai government's education reform agenda, especially in providing alternative approach to teaching writing and provide guidance for further research or application of the genre-based approach in other EFL contexts.

Because this research project was carried out for a single semester and with only a third-year level class, after my return to work at Ubon Ratchathani University I intend to conduct further action research. The first project will be to compare the impact of the

genre-based approach in teaching other genres (eg. Recount, Discussion and Narrative as well as Exposition) in first and second year classes to increase the available data. It would be also useful to carry out further research in other university contexts. For example, these projects could involve replicating the work, but focusing on writing other factual and/or story genres, such as the Report, Discussion and Narrative for a considerably longer time. The third project would be to replicate these in other universities in Thailand. This would establish the validity of the genre-based approach more broadly in Thai higher education. In addition, it would be interesting to carry out a similar research project in the vocational education sector because of the internationalisation of industry. Future projects could involve Thai teachers of English working in their usual environment, rather than, as in my case, coming as a visitor to the university. In addition, some projects could include more systematic teaching of written and spoken language so that students are aware of their differences and realise the importance of learning to write. The genre-based approach recognises that students cannot simply pick up writing skills or transfer their spoken language to their written texts.

As mentioned in 1.1.2, research focused on the genre-based approach had been carried out in some EFL contexts eg. in Indonesia by Sutojo (1994) and in Vietnam by Dang (2002). Further research could also be carried out in other Asian countries, especially in those countries with foreign language learning policies similar to Thailand's eg. China and Indonesia. It is predicted that there would be a similar outcomes and issues. But, because, for example, Mandarin and Indonesian (and their cultural contexts) are so different from Thai, it would not be surprising if different modifications to the basic genre-based approach are also found to be required.

7.4.2 Use the genre-based to teach English in Schools

To provide the Thai government with evidence of the value of the genre-based approach, further genre-based research programs would need to be carried out at primary and secondary school level. As mentioned in 7.1, in order to assist Thai students to be more analytical and critical learners they would need to be taught by the approach which encourages them to think critically from their early years. Future

research programs could be inter-institutional with collaborative research that takes advantage of the capacity of younger people to learn language quickly.

As with the higher education level, the curriculum at the school level would need to integrate the teaching of content or subject matter with the English language. The development of the curricula could be based upon the negotiated learning and scaffolding principles underlying the Teaching-Learning Cycle. Teachers provide students with support and guidance at the early stages of the teaching and learning processes and then gradually withdraw their support after students gain more control of the content or subject matter and of the genre. Implementation of these aspects of the Teaching-Learning Cycle would represent a significant departure from the traditional teacher-centred approaches which teachers are commonly regarded as the source of knowledge and are responsible for transmitting it to their students.

As noted in 2.8.1, the proficiency of Thai primary and secondary teachers' English needs to be improved. Teachers' participation in the genre-based research programs would also provide opportunities to assist them to improve their English. However, professional development support from the government is necessary.

7.4.3 Conduct further linguistic research into contrastive analysis of Thai and English genres

As mentioned in 1.1.2 and 3.2, the value of contrastive analysis is that it raises the students' awareness that texts written in different cultures have different rhetorical and linguistic patterns. Such analysis gives students insights into their native speaker readers' expectations and helps them to write texts to achieve their purposes more successfully. Yet research in this area is still limited, especially contrastive analysis of English and Thai genres. To enable Thais to participate actively and communicate effectively with their English native speaker counterparts, more contrastive research which covers a wide range of genres, both 'factual' and 'story', needs to be carried out. Future research would explore similarities and differences of generic structure and language features of other genres in order to provide greater insights into the linguistic demands of each. Such research findings could be made widely available to other teachers to provide them with systematic guidance for their teaching.

7.5 Contributions of this research

In conclusion, this research reveals that the genre-based offers enhanced outcomes for learning of English writing in the Thai educational context, conferring many benefits to students. The strengths of the genre-based approach encouraging students to think, plan and work at the whole-text level, results in graduates having an expectation of working with extended and elaborated ideas. This is seen as necessary in communicating with English native speakers in a variety of business and professional contexts. In addition, learning to work both in groups and independently replicates the learning experiences of Western students, making communication easier for both. This is directly in line with the policies of the government of Thailand, to improve our international position relative to our neighbours and to participate more fully in the global economy.

While the genre-based approach is not the final step on the long road to improve Thais' knowledge of English, it has the potential to make a significant contribution to the education achievement in Thailand, as one student said:

I think there should be more writing courses like this (i.e. built around the genre-based approach). As far as I am concerned, Thai students have writing problem. I think if we could not write well we could not speak well either as they are related. I think writing practice involves thinking process. If we know how to think and can organise our ideas, we will be able to write and speak well (Panee, 5/2/98).

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**THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE GENRE-BASED APPROACH
ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH WRITING AT THE
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES,
KHON KAEN UNIVERSITY IN NORTH-EASTERN
THAILAND**

SAOWADEE KONGPETCH

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

Volume 2

Appendices

**Faculty of Education
University of Technology, Sydney**

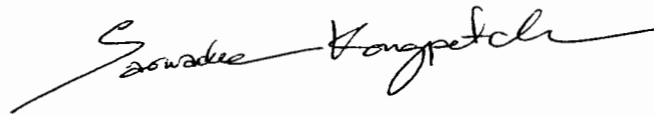
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I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

Signature of Candidate



Sowadee Hongpetchar

DEDICATION

To my parents ...

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMEP	Adult Migrant Education Program
CRN	Co-operative Research Network (Thailand)
DSP	Disadvantaged Schools Program
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MNC	Multi National Companies
NCELTR	National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research
NESB	Non English Speaking Background
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
TAFE	Technical and Further Education (Australia)
TESOL	Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Testing of English as a Foreign Language

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ABSTRACT

The Thai government has proposed education reform programs to be competitive with its neighbours and globally. One major policy is to improve competency in English.

Thailand has a long history of importing approaches for teaching English from western countries. For a complex variety of reasons the structural-based approaches have been the most influential ones on both teachers and bureaucrats. While these approaches enable Thais to communicate at the basic level, emphasising spoken language, they do not provide systematic guidance to write extended texts effectively. Thai educators have tended to import approaches literally without adequately researching the practicality and suitability of them. This thesis is an attempt to explore whether it is possible to adapt a recently evolved, western 'genre-based' approach to the teaching of English in Thailand.

The research focuses on factual English writing because it is highly valued in government, commerce and industry. English and Thai rhetorical patterns differ significantly so students need to write their texts to meet English readers' expectations. To achieve this, students need to be taught to write explicitly. Soundly based in Systemic Functional Linguistic theory, the genre-based approach teaches writing at whole text, paragraph and clause levels. It is concerned with realising appropriate generic structure for the different social communication tasks. This approach has the potential to improve Thai students' writing ability.

The research project was primarily an ethnographic-case study that was carried out with the co-operation of 45 third year English major students for 14 weeks (from October, 1997 to February, 1998) at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University in northeast Thailand. It is centred on the Exposition genre because some Thai educators had noted that it was one of the most neglected in the Thai educational system, but one of the most valuable genres in western culture.

The research outcomes showed that the genre-based approach had a significant positive impact on students' factual writing, showing gains in the control of generic structure and language features of the Exposition.

Nevertheless, the research suggests that for the genre-based approach to be successfully implemented in a foreign language context such as Thai, a number of modifications are necessary.

The genre-based approach provides students with insights into cultural expectations of writing in English and has the potential to contribute to the policy goals of the Thai government for the upgrading of English teaching and also contribute to its wish of achieving the education reform agenda.

APPENDIX 1

THE EXPOSITION TEACHING UNIT:

SHOULD RAINFORESTS BE SAVED

Unit Objectives: This unit aims to teach students the exposition genre through the field of rainforests. It is expected that at the end of the unit, students will be:

- (a) effective readers of an Exposition genre (i.e. they can identify the genre, explain its purposes, generic structure and language features, and evaluate whether it is a successful one);
- (b) able to write an Exposition genre effectively (i.e. they can write a text which has appropriate generic structure and language features for the genre, and achieves its purposes accordingly).

Introduction to Unit: Explain to students the objectives of the unit, the nature of the genre-based approach, how the approach differs from the usual teaching practices at the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University and how the approach will be beneficial to students.

STAGE 1: BUILDING UP THE FIELD KNOWLEDGE

Activity 1: Brainstorming

Purposes:

- (a) To activate students' own experience and existing knowledge about the field;
- (b) To contextualise the text and introduce some of the vocabulary from the text in a meaningful way;
- (c) To encourage students to build up associations of words and ideas; building up the bank of information about the field.

1.1 Explain to students about the purposes of the activity.

1.2 Show the transparency of the "crying earth" (Source: Hare, T. (1990). *Rainforest Destruction*. Franklin Watts Ltd, p.27) to students. Ask them to discuss with their friends the implications of the picture. Encourage them to share their ideas with the whole class.

1.3 Write the word "rainforests" with a circle around it on the whiteboard. Divide students into group of three. Provide them with a blank sheet of paper. Ask them to write the word "rainforests" with a circle around it on their paper as well. Ask them to sit back to think about rainforests and write down whatever they can think of. The teacher may help them by asking them some questions such as:

- What are the rainforests?
- Where could they be found?
- What kind of living things live in there?
- Have they ever been to any rainforests (in Thailand or somewhere else)?
- What did they see?
- Did they like it? Why?

1.4 Write down all students' contributions on the whiteboard.

1.5 Work with students to draw the semantic webs of the words on the whiteboard from the accumulated information.

Activity 2:

Purposes:

- (a) To assist students to use language in order to learn about the rainforests by actively engage in negotiation and recommendation processes;
- (b) To assist students to develop note-taking and editing skills;
- (c) To practise students to listen for gist;
- (d) To provide students with an interesting way to re-read a short text many times, emphasising important content at the same time as heightening awareness of language resources.

2.1 Explain to students about the purposes of the activity.

2.2 Read the text to students at normal speed while they are listening.

2.3 Ask students to jot down only key words or phrases (individual work).

2.4 Read the text again at normal speed.

Rainforests are dense closed forests found in the areas where it rains regularly.

There are two main types. The first one is Tropical rainforests, located close to the equator where the climate is usually warm and wet all year round. Their largest areas are in the Amazon basin of South America, the Congo Basin of Africa and throughout much of Southeast Asia.

The second one is Temperate rainforests, growing in the higher latitude regions where the climate is wet and maritime-like. They cover the Northwest coast of North America, South coast of Chile, Southern Australia and New Zealand.

Rainforests are homes to a large number of plants and animal species. All are interdependent. If any part of them is harmed or destroyed, the rest would suffer too.

Sources: Baker (1990) and Seidenberg (1990).

2.5 Ask students to work in group of 3-4 to reconstruct the text which has approximately the same meanings to the original one. Remind students that a successful text **is not** the one which contains exactly the same words with the original one, **but** the meanings.

2.6 Show students the original text. The teacher may ask students to share their notes and their strategies for re-constructing the text to the class. So, their classmates can adopt the strategies which they may find useful for them in the future.

Follow up activities:

- (a) To give students geographical knowledge about Tropical and Temperate rainforests;
- (b) To give students background knowledge about the levels of rainforests;
- (c) To give students background knowledge about the conditions of rainforests.

2.8 Show students the world map (see the map from the Cambridge University Press). Ask them to find out where each kind of rainforests could be found.

2.9 Ask student to work in pairs. Distribute to each pair a set of the exercise on the levels of the rainforests Ask each pair to complete the exercise together and then check their answers with other pairs. Summarise the findings by asking students to share their answers with the class. Also, ask them how did they get the answers? What techniques or clues did they use?

2.10 The teacher may develop classroom talk by asking students to tell their friends (especially those who have been to the forests) about other kinds of living things which live in each floor of the forest, particularly the animals and plants that are found in Thailand.

Activity 3: Watching video (The Monk, the Trees & the Concrete Jungle - How to save the Rainforests by Jonathon Porritt, 1997)

Purposes:

- (a) To give students further background knowledge about the rainforests, particularly about rainforests in Southeast Asia and Thailand;
- (b) To assist students to develop their prediction skills;
- (c) To show students that prediction is an integral part of learning processes;
- (d) To assist students to learn language and about rainforests through negotiation and reconstruction processes;
- (e) To assist students to develop their listening, note-taking, summarising and editing skills;
- (f) To prepare students to be ready for the next activity.

3.1 Explain to students the purposes of the activity.

3.2 Write down the title of the video on the whiteboard and ask students to predict what words or information they might hear or what the content of the video is about. This is to encourage them to use the available clues to predict what they are going to read or hear next.

3.3 Ask students what makes them think why they think to find out the clues that they use. By doing this, students can share their clues with the rest of the class.

3.4 Play the video tape. Ask students to note down only important words which might help them to get the meanings across. Also, encourage them to listen for the main ideas or important issues rather than trying to get all messages right. Play the video tape again if required (the length of the video is 10 minutes).

3.5 Ask students to work in groups of 4-5. Ask them to write a short paragraph (100-150 words) summarising the issue which is the most important or interesting to them.

Activity 4: Group Presentation

Purposes:

- (a) To assist students to learn language and learn more about rainforests, the importance of rainforests, from each other;
- (b) To assist students to develop their reading, listening and speaking strategies;
- (c) To assist students to develop their researching, note-taking, and summarising skills;
- (d) To promote a learning-independent process;

5.1 Explain to students the purposes of the activity.

5.2 Ask students to form 6 groups of 4.

5.3 Give each group 3-4 articles which are related to the same topic (all are linked to the importance of the rainforests or what people benefit from them). Ask each group to skim through the articles to get the general idea of the articles and share with their friends what their articles are about. Then, ask students to scan through the articles and try to work out how they are going to present the information to their classmates. Encourage them to be creative in presenting their information by using visual aids eg. pictures and diagrams or inventing their own presentation techniques. The topics for each group are:

Group 1: Rainforests and food products

Group 2: Rainforests and plant and animal species

Group 3: Rainforests and medicine(s)

Group 4: Rainforests and rainfall and soil erosion

Group 5: Rainforests and global warming

Group 6: Rainforests and indigenous people and their cultures

In order to relate the real life situation to classroom language, the teacher should encourage students, if possible, to try to add the information related to the Thai context. For example, Group 2 can give examples about the plants and animal species which are facing extinction because of rainforest destruction in Thailand and Group 3 can give examples about the medicine(s) which Thai people benefit from the rainforests. Also, encourage students to research information at the library or talk to knowledgeable people.

5.4 Ask each group to present their information to the class. Each group should take about 15-20 minutes.

5.5 Ask students to take note on the important issues from each presentation, using the note-taking proforma. The information will be useful for them when they write their

own text on the topic ‘Should rainforests be saved?’ to be assigned at the end of the unit.

5.6 Ask students to share their notes with their friends so that they share information and maybe learn more from each other.

STAGE 2: MODELLING OF THE TEXT

Purposes:

- (a) To introduce students to the model texts of the Exposition so that they know how good and successful Exposition texts are structured to achieve their purposes;
- (b) To assist students to understand that the Exposition has a structure, a distinct beginning, middle and end, and language features that the writer needs to go through to achieve its purposes;
- (c) To provide students with language (metalanguage) to talk about how the Exposition works and its contexts (field, tenor and mode).

Activity 1: Modelling Model Text 1 (Why should we conserve our forests?)

Purposes: To assist students to understand:

- (a) the way in which the exposition is structured to achieve its purposes;
- (b) the textual organisation of exposition;
- (c) some of the distinctive language features of exposition.

Preparing activities:

The teacher should explain to students that they are about to read the Exposition model text 1 (Why should we conserve our forests?). Before asking them to read it, the teacher should find out students’ existing knowledge about the Exposition so that she could build up their ‘new’ knowledge about the Exposition from their ‘known’ knowledge. This will also promote their predicting skills. She may ask them some of the following questions:

- * What is the Exposition?
- * What is its function?
- * How is it organised?
- * Who writes it? Why?
- * Who reads it? Why?

Activity 1.1: Introducing students to the context of the model texts 1 (Why should we conserve our forests?) and 2 (Should rainforests be saved):

- (i) Distribute each students the samples of each model texts.

(ii) Ask students to read each text and answer the following questions:

- * What is the purpose of the text?
- * What is the text about?
- * How do you know?
- * Who would write a text?
- * Why did he/she write it?
- * Who do you think is the reader of the text?
- * Why would they read it?
- * What do you expect the reader to do after reading the text?
- * Where do you think you would find a text like this one?

(iii) Ask students to share ideas with their friends and then discuss the answers with the whole class.

Activity 1.2: Introducing students to the generic structure of the model texts 1 (Why should we conserve our forests?) and 2 (Should rainforests be saved):

(i) Ask students to re-read the texts and identify the overall structure of each text. The teacher may assist students by asking the following questions:

- * How is the text organised on the page? or How many paragraphs are there?
- * What question or issue is being discussed?
- * Is the text about one side or both side of the issue?
- * Where are they told? or How do they know?
- * Are they arguments for and against?
- * How do you know? Where are they located in the text?
- * What information does the writer give to support the arguments?
- * Where does the writer sum up his/her idea?

(ii) Discuss the answers with students.

When the teacher is confident that students understand the overall structure of each text clearly, she can ask them more specific questions about the stages or generic structure of each text. For example:

- * What does the first paragraph give information about? What should it be referred to? [Thesis Statement: Issue/Preview]
- * What does the first sentence of the second paragraph give information about? What should it be referred to? [Topic sentence]
- * What do the rest sentences in the second paragraph give information about? What should they be referred to? [Supporting details]
- * Find the topic sentence and supporting details of the rest paragraphs.
- * What does the last paragraph give information about? What should it be referred to? [Recommendation]

The teacher should act as a scribe while students report back their answers (use OHP and coloured pens to highlight the stages of the text). She should also explain to them explicitly that all expositions have a structure i.e. they move through particular

beginning, middle and end stages and that each stage can be given a name that describes the function of that stage

Activity 1.3: Introducing students to the language features of model texts 1 and 2

If the teacher is confident that students understand the generic structure of the Exposition, she can introduce the language features of the model texts to them. Due to the time constraint, the language features under focus in this unit are *participants*, *processes*, *tenses* and *conjunctions*.

Before asking students to analyse the language features of each model text, the teacher should explain the language features which are new to all of them. In this case, they are participants and processes (verbs or verbal phrases).

Participants:

At the first stage, the teacher should not use the term *participants*. Rather, she should use the terms that students are more familiar with which are *nouns* or *noun phrase*. She could also explain to them that these words usually revolve around the *verbs* or *verbal phrase* and they might function as *Subject*, *Object* or *Complement* in the traditional grammar. They could be human beings, animals, creatures and even abstract qualities. Normally, they would be related to the field under focus. That is to say, if the text is about forests, most of the terms will be related to the forests such as *forests*, *trees*, *roots of trees*, *animals* and *birds*.

The examples of the participants in the model text 1 are:

- Sentence 1: All around the world **forests** are being cut down. (Subject)
Sentence 2: If we cut down **too many trees**, there will be **enormous problems** for our world (Object/Complement).
- forests and too many trees = things
- enormous problems = abstract (idea)
Sentence 3: Firstly, trees help stop **the greenhouse effect**. (Objective)
- the greenhouse effect = abstract (idea)

Verbs and Verbal Phrase (Processes):

Explain to all students that verbs or verbal phrase (or processes) could be categorised into different groups (As students are more familiar with the terms ‘verbs’ or ‘verbal phrases’ in the traditional grammar, the teacher should use these two terms rather than processes):

For example:

- 1). *action verbs* (Material) = verbs about doing and happening
- 2). *linking verbs* (Relational) = verbs which link one clause to another, could be verb to be (is, am, are) or verb to have (have and has)
- 3). *thinking verbs* (Mental) = verbs which are about thinking
- 4). *saying verbs* (Verbal) = verbs which are about saying

In terms of conjunctions and tenses, students have existing knowledge about these from other courses eg. English Structure and Practice in Writing II. The teacher need not spend time to explain about these in detail. Nevertheless, it is necessary to spend some time to elicit their existing knowledge about these so that they could use their ‘known’ knowledge to help them to learn ‘new’ knowledge, particularly for the conjunctions. The teacher may ask them the following questions:

- * What are conjunctions that you know?
- * What kinds of conjunctions are used to build logical relations of time? [temporal conjunctions]
- * What kinds of conjunctions are used to build logical relations of cause and condition? [causal-conditional conjunctions]
- * What kinds of conjunctions are used to add information to clauses or sentences? [additional conjunctions]

For the tenses, the teacher may discuss briefly with students about the tenses that they have found in the English articles and when each tense is used and why?

When the teacher is sure that students have general ideas about the language features under focus, she can move to the next activity.

Activities:

(i) Ask students to form 4 groups and each group should be responsible to analyse one of the language features: participants, verbs or verbal phrases, tenses and conjunctives. The directions for each group are as follows:

Group 1: Participants

- Ask students to draw a circle around the words functioning as participants in each model text and find out whether the participants are generalised or specific and human beings or creatures or abstract qualities.

Group 2: Verbs or verbal phrases (processes)

- Ask students to circle around the ‘*verbs*’ or ‘*verbal phrases*’ (processes) in the model texts and then find out what kinds of verbs or verbal phrases they are.

Group 3: Tenses

- Ask students to circle around the tenses in the model texts and then find out when each is used and why? and which tense is mainly used and why?
-

Group 4: Conjunctions

- Ask students to circle around the conjunctions in the model texts and then find out what kinds of conjunctions are used? and why?

While students are working in group, the teacher may move around to talk to them because some of them may need assistance. This activity may take 20-25 minutes.

(ii) After each group finishes their work, the teacher should ask them to form new groups. Each group should consist of 4 people and each of them should come from the former groups. Then, each of them should report what they have found from their former groups to their new members. By doing so, students can learn from each other and the atmosphere in the class will not be boring as they do not only learn from the teacher. In other words, they can learn by themselves and from their friends.

(iii) Before moving to the next stage, the teacher should check whether all students understand the language features of the model texts fully. She may ask them to summarise orally what they have learnt about each language feature. While students are reporting back their findings, she should act as a scribe, writing down their contributions on the whiteboard or transparency.

Activity 1.4: Modelling Model Text 3

After finishing activities 1.1 - 1.3, the teacher should distribute the model text 3 (Television - Harmful to Children) to students and ask them to analyse its generic structure and language features. Due to the time constraint, the teacher can assign them to do this activity as homework and individually. To assist them to understand the Exposition better, she should encourage them to compare and contrast it with the Model Texts 1 and 2.

STAGE 3: JOINT-NEGOTIATION

Purposes:

- (a) To assist students to have hands-on experience on how the exposition text could be crafted or constructed;
- (b) To assist students to understand how ‘spoken language’ could be developed to ‘written’ language;
- (c) To provide students with opportunities to develop drafting, editing and proof reading skills;
- (d) To prepare students for the ‘independent construction’ stage.

Preparing activities:

Before the teacher and students jointly write the text, the teacher should allow students to decide the topic which they want to write about. After that, she should brainstorm with them about the information that they want to put in their text in relation to the chosen topic. The teacher should record their contributions on the white board. As students may propose many issues, the teacher may ask them to choose only 3-4 issues

that they want to put in their text. They cannot write about all issues due to the time constraint.

The teacher divides students into 3-4 groups according to the number of the issues. Each group chooses the issue that they are interested in and work together to develop a paragraph to be put in the text.

3.1 Joint negotiation activities:

Purpose: To enable students to construct the exposition on the basis of a shared set of experiences and through the interactive negotiation.

Activities:

The teacher and students jointly construct the Exposition. The teacher acts as a scribe for a class and helps to shape students' contributions into a text which approximates the structure of the genre under focus. During this stage, the teacher should point out to students that although the approximating Exposition is important, they may not be able to succeed it at their first attempt. In other words, they may have to write several drafts to develop their control of the genre and be able to write an approximating one.

When the jointly-constructed text is completed, the teacher may ask students to check whether the text is a successful one by asking them to consult the Exposition proforma (see Vol 2 p18) and assessment checklist. If the text needs to be revised, the teacher should help them to revise it. The completed text will provide students with a model text which will be useful for them when they have to write a text independently.

STAGE 4. INDEPENDENT CONSTRUCTION

Purposes: To provide students with opportunities to construct the exposition independently.

Activities:

Students write the Exposition on the same topic, 'Should rainforests be saved?', independently. Alternatively, students could write on other topics which interest them. Students could assess and improve their texts by consulting the Exposition proforma and assessment checklist and, if required, they can consult the teacher. They are allowed to write three drafts and each draft will be commented by the teacher. Only their final drafts will be collected for assessment.

Model Text 1

WHY SHOULD WE CONSERVE OUR FORESTS?

All around the world forests are being cut down. If we cut down too many trees there will be enormous problems for our world.

Firstly, trees help stop the greenhouse effect. They do this by taking in carbon dioxide and by giving off oxygen.

Secondly, trees prevent soil erosion. The roots of the trees hold the soil together and stop it being blown away by the wind. They also stop it from being washed away by heavy rain.

Trees also provide shelter for many native animals and birds. If we cut down too many trees, many creatures would die because they would have no home.

Finally trees are a beautiful part of the world, giving us fresh air, shade and enjoyment.

As you can see, it is vital that forests be conserved for everyone's benefit.

(Source: NSW Department of School Education 1996:42)

Model Text 2

SHOULD RAINFORESTS BE SAVED?

Rainforests are complex communities of plants and animals. They occur in tropical to temperate areas which have a high rainfall. They must be considered communities at risk because they are being destroyed at such a rapid rate. Rainforests should be saved since their removal will have considerable impact on the number and variety of organisms, the rate of increase in greenhouse gas levels and on global climate.

The loss of rainforests means the loss of large quantities of unique plant and animal species. The ten percent of land surface which is currently covered by rainforests support forty percent of the world's plant species and fifty percent of the world's animal species. These plant and animal species evolve to suit specific environmental conditions. When these conditions are modified or removed the species will frequently become extinct. If rainforest destruction occurs at the present rate, the people of the late twentieth century will bear total responsibility for the removal of nearly half of the world's plant and animal species. To prevent this horrific prospect action must be taken to stem the rate of rainforest removal.

Another strong argument for retaining rainforests is the role that all plants play in assisting in the lowering of greenhouse gases. Plants absorb carbon dioxide and release oxygen into the air. Carbon dioxide is a greenhouse gas, which is produced by burning fossil fuels such as petrol, oil and gas. Greenhouse gases form a blanket around the earth and trap heat. The trapped heat will change the climate in all parts of the world. The consequences of climatic change could be disastrous. They include increased flooding, drought, famine and melting of polar ice caps. Removal of large areas of rainforest will increase the amount of greenhouse gases which blanket the planet.

Cont ...

Model Text 2 continued

There are clearly many reasons for saving the world's rainforests. The role of rainforests in the reduction of greenhouse gases and their contribution to the stability of the climate are two important reasons why the world community should stop this widespread destruction of a natural resource.

Model Text 3

TELEVISION - HARMFUL TO CHILDREN

Over the past forty years, television sets have become standard pieces of equipment in most homes, and watching television has become a standard activities for most families. Children in our culture grow up watching television in the morning, in the afternoon, and often in the evening as well. Although there are many excellent programs for children, many people feel that television may not be good for children. In fact, television may be a bad influence on children for three main reasons.

First of all, some programs are not good for children to see. For example, there are many police stories on television. People are killed with guns, knives, and even cars. Some children might think that these things could happen to them at any time. Therefore, they can become frightened. In addition, some youngsters might begin to think that violence is a normal part of life because they see it so often on television. They may begin to act out the violence they see and hurt themselves or their playmates.

Second, television can affect children's reading ability. Reading requires skills and brain processes that watching television does not. If children watch television too many hours each day, they don't practice the skills they need to learn how to read.

Finally, television may affect children's schoolwork in other ways. If they spend too much time watching television, they may get behind in their homework. Also, if they stay up to watch a late movie, they may fall asleep in class the next day. Consequently, they will not learn their lessons, and they could even fail in school.

Cont ...

Model Text 3 continued

In conclusion, if children watch too much television or watch the wrong programs, their personalities can be harmed. Furthermore, their progress in school can be affected. Therefore, parents should know what programs their children are watching. They should also turn off the television so that their children will study.

(Source: Oshima and Hogue (1988:93).

NOTE-TAKING PROFORMA

Listen to your friends' presentation on the importance of rainforests. Note-taking each of their importance in the boxes below.

RAINFORESTS

Group 1: Rainforests and food products

Group 2: Rainforests and plant and animal species

Group 3: Rainforests and medicine(s)

Group 4: Rainforests and rainfall and soil erosion

Group 5: Rainforests and global warming

Group 6: Rainforests and indigenous people and their cultures

<p>EXPOSITION PROFORMA</p> <p>Title: _____</p> <p>Thesis Statement Issue: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Preview: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Argument one * Topic sentence: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Supporting details: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Argument two Topic sentence: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Supporting details: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Argument three Topic sentence: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Supporting details: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Argument four Topic sentence: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Supporting sentences: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Recommendation: _____</p> <p>_____</p>
--

* the numbers of arguments are indefinite

APPENDIX 2

GENRES OF DESCRIPTION, DISCUSSION AND NARRATIVE

This section provides a summary description of the genres of Discussion, Description, Narrative and Recount. As indicated in Chapter 4, I included the genres of Discussion, Description and Narrative in my teaching units because I needed to conform to the requirements of the Department of Foreign Languages, Khon Kaen University. The genre of Recount is also included because when students first started writing most of their texts resembled it.

The description of each genre begins with the model text followed by the generic structure and language features specific to it.

(i) Discussion:

Gene Splicing → *genetic participants*

Thesis: → *material process*

Genetic Research has produced both exciting and frightening possibilities.
Scientists are now able to create new forms of life in the laboratory due to the development of gene splicing.

Arguments for: → *comparative conjunction*

On the other hand, the ability to create life in the laboratory could greatly benefit mankind. For example, because it is very expensive to obtain insulin from natural sources, scientists have developed a method of manufacture it inexpensively in the laboratory.

Another beneficial application for gene splicing is in agriculture. Scientists foresee the day when new plants will be developed using nitrogen from the air instead of from fertiliser. Therefore food production could be increased. In addition, entirely new plants could be developed to feed the world's hungry people.

10

Arguments against:
Not everyone is excited about gene splicing, however. Some people feel that it could have terrible consequences. A laboratory accident, for example, might cause an epidemic of an unknown disease that could wipe out humanity.

Conclusion:
As a result of this controversy, the government has made rules to control genetic experiments. While some members of the scientific community feel that these rules are too strict, many other people feel that they are still not strict enough.

mental process

relational processes

(Source: Gerot and Wignell 1994:215-6)

The defining characteristic of Discussion is that it sets out to state and evaluate all sides of a matter in which there are real alternatives in order to come to a conclusion regarding a course of action to follow or an agreement between stakeholders which is mutually acceptable. Its generic structure is similar to the Exposition except that it considers all sides of an issue, rather than advancing one view (Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program 1989; Hardy and Klarwein 1990; Butt et al 2000).

Thesis ^ Argument for (N) * Argument against (N) ^ Conclusion

The thesis consists of an 'Issue', stating the issue to be discussed and 'Preview', outlining arguments to be presented in the text. Argument for and against provides information which enables the reader to make an informed judgment. Each argument consists of 'Point', indicating an argument to be presented in the paragraph, and 'Elaboration', containing information, data and examples to support each argument. 'Conclusion' is the part in which the writer makes recommendations based on the weight of evidence presented in the arguments. It should be noted that the sign * means that the element on the left and right of the sign can happen in any order (Gerot and Wignell 1994).

Discussion shares some language features with the Exposition (Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program 1989; Hardy and Klarwein 1990; Gerot and Wignell 1994). These involve the use of:

- generic human and non-human participants, although specific participants can also be used depending on the purpose of the text;
- simple present tense and other tenses where the timing of the text changes;
- material and relational processes;
- causal and comparative conjunctions.

Unlike the Exposition, comparative conjunctions are frequently used in the Discussion to compare and contrast information and evidence.

(ii) Description:

Description:

Identification:
The residence is situated at Lot no. 56 Sunshine Place in the Sallina Quays Estate.

Description:
Tucked away in a prime cul-de-sac position with views to Jackson Island over a soon-to-be completed lake, the property is almost 45 squares.
It has a large four-car garage (remote doors), family room, a modern kitchen, five large bedrooms featuring ensuite and walk-in robe to main plus built-in robes in all others, intercom/radio throughout and beautiful landscaped grounds with any oval-shaped in ground pool.

Handwritten annotations:
- *specific participants* (points to Sallina Quays Estate)
- *adjectives* (points to prime and Jackson Island)
- *existential process* (points to It has)
- *simple present tense, relational process* (points to is almost 45 squares)
- *adjectives* (points to beautiful and oval-shaped)

(Source: Hammond et al 1992:79)

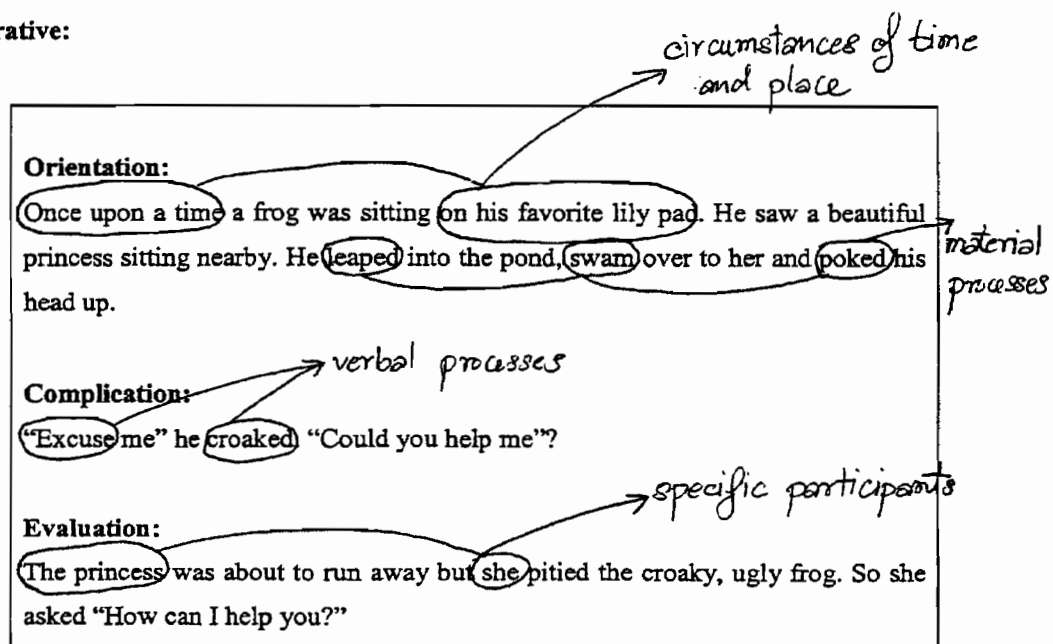
Description aims to describe a particular person, place or thing. Its generic structure begins with the 'Identification', identifying a particular person, place or thing. This is followed by the 'Description', describing the characteristics of the phenomenon (Martin 1985; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Hammond et al 1992).

Identification ^ Description (N)

In terms of language features, the Description genre focuses on specific participants (human and non-human participants) such as *Sallina Quays Estate* and *Jackson Island*. Relational processes are usually used to describe what the phenomenon is and what it is like eg. *the property is almost 45 squares*. Material processes are also used to describe behaviours and uses of the phenomenon eg. *Mr Adams climbed the mountain* and *The queen ant lays eggs*. To enhance the description of the phenomenon, epithets and classifiers are commonly used in nominal groups such as *a prime cul-de-sac position* and *five large bedrooms*. Regarding tense, the present simple tense is predominantly used to present generalised information about the phenomenon being described (Knapp and Watkins 1994; Gerot and Wignell 1994).

(iii) Narrative:

Narrative:



Complication:
“Well”, said the frog. “I am not really a frog. I am actually a handsome prince. A witch cast a spell and turned me into an ugly frog. Only the kiss of a beautiful princess can break the spell”.

Resolution:
The princess thought for a moment then picked up the frog and gently kissed him. “You lied” shrieked the outraged princess, wiping frog slime from her lips as the deceitful frog disappeared back into the pond.

relational processes

mental process/past tense

(Source: Gerot 1995:30-2)

The purpose of Narrative is to tell a story as a means of making sense of the events and happenings in the world. It can be both entertaining and informing (Martin and Rothery 1980; Board of Studies, NSW 1994; Butt et al 1995). Its generic structure is:

Key:

^ = is followed by

[] = domain of recursion or sequencing

N = recursive

() = optional

Orientation ^ [Complication ^ Evaluation ^ Resolution] N ^ (Coda)

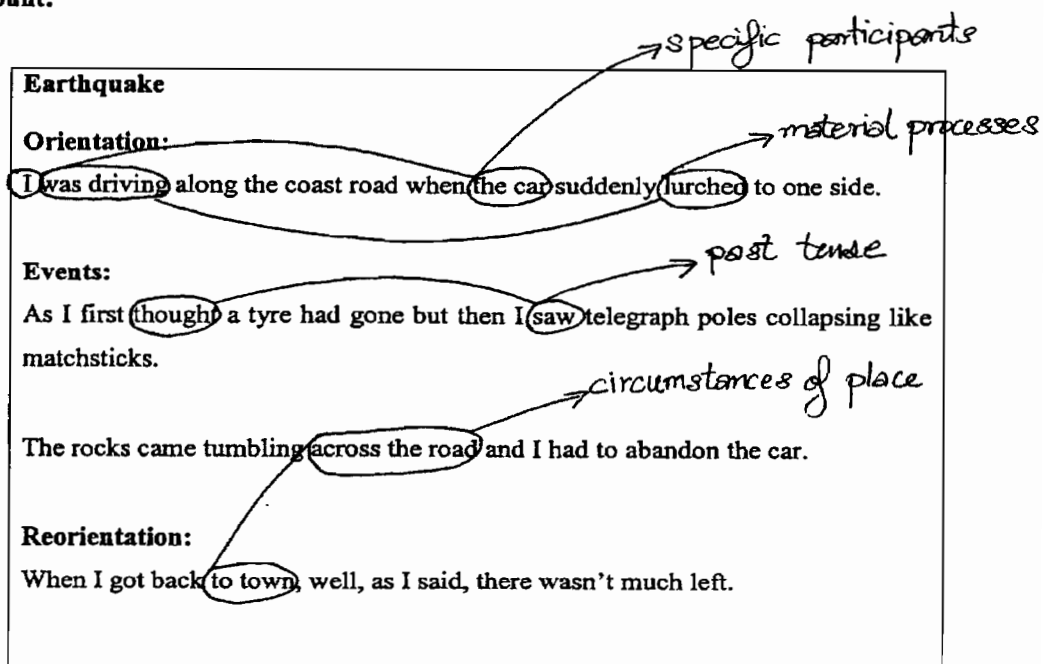
Narrative begins with an ‘Orientation’ in which the writer attempts to create the ‘possible world’ of the story by introducing the reader to the main characters and possibly minor characters of the story. Information about ‘where’ the story takes place and ‘when’ it is taking place is also provided. Orientation is followed by a series of events which is normally disrupted by some sort of ‘Complication’ or problem which temporarily prevent the major characters from achieving their goals. The significance of

the events is described in the 'Evaluation'. The complicating events are resolved for better or for worse in the 'Resolution', but they are rarely left completely unresolved. The sign N indicates that 'Complication', 'Evaluation' and 'Resolution' can be repeated indefinitely. Some stories may end with a 'Coda' which is used to define the changes in a character(s) explicitly, and/or record the experience learned from these changes (Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW, 1994; Butt et al 2000).

In terms of language features, Narrative emphasises the use of specific participants to refer to people, animals and things in a story. Past tense, words expressing circumstances of place and time and temporal conjunctions are typically used to retell, locate and sequence the series of events. Narrative uses a variety of processes: material processes to indicate the actions in the story; relational processes to relate the events; mental and verbal processes to indicate what characters are thinking, feeling and saying (Derewianka, 1990:42 and Board of Studies, 1994:104-5).

(iv) Recount:

Recount:



(Source: Gerot and Wignell 1994:194-5)

The purpose of Recount is to reconstruct events in the order in which they occurred for the purpose of informing or entertaining (Gerot and Wignell 1994; Butt et al 1995, 2000). Its generic structure is:

Orientation ^ Events ^ (Reorientation) ^ (Coda)

‘Orientation’ refers to the part of the text which introduces the reader to the setting of the events and participants involved. The purpose of ‘Events’ is to unfold what happened in chronological order. In the ‘Reorientation’, the writer closes the events. S/he may add her personal comment at the end of the text and this part is called ‘Coda’. Unlike ‘Orientation’ and ‘Events’, which are obligatory parts of the text, ‘Reorientation’ and ‘Coda’ are optional.

Since Recount is concerned with specific events which are related to the writer personally, it focuses on specific participants (human and non-human participants) such as *I*, *the rocks*, and *the car*. The material processes are normally used to describe what happened such as *was driving* and *lurched*. To reconstruct events which happened at a particular point of time in chronological order, the past tense, circumstances of time and place, and temporal conjunctions such as *first*, *second*, *and*, and *then* are commonly used (Derewianka 1990; Board of Studies, NSW 1994; Gerot and Wignell 1994; Butt et al 1995).

APPENDIX 3

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Invitation to participate letter:

Dear Student

I am currently doing a PhD at University of Technology, Sydney, Australia. As part of my studies, I am going to research the implications of the genre-based approach in teaching factual writing to Thai students at Khon Kaen University, Thailand. I would be very grateful if you could spend a little time to complete this questionnaire. The information you give me will be very useful for material design and language program development to be used in the study.

Please answer all questions frankly. Do not put your name on the questionnaire so that all information is given anonymously.

Thank you very much

(Ms Saowadee Kongpetch)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions by marking (x) in the bracket where the information is relevant to you.

Section A: Biographical data

1. Age

16-20 years old 1 ()
over 20 years old 2 ()

2. Sex

male 1 ()
female 2 ()

3. Major Subject _____

4. Minor Subject _____

5. Where did you get your High School Certificate?

School: _____

District: _____

Province: _____

6. How were you accepted into the university?

University examination (Quota) 1 ()

Entrance examination 2 ()

7. How long have you been learning English before studying in the university?

1 - 8 years 1 ()

more than 8 years 2 ()

8. Have you attended any courses or activities conducted in English by other institutions or organisations other than your school or university?

yes 1 ()

no 2 ()

If no, go to question 9.

If yes, please list:

place(s)
eg. AUA

length of time
(semesters/months/
years)

course(s)
(eg. English
conversation)

1) _____

1) _____

1) _____

2) _____

2) _____

2) _____

3) _____

3) _____

3) _____

4) _____

4) _____

5) _____

9. Why have you enrolled in the English major, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University?

Section B: Use of English

Questions 10-11: Please read the questions carefully and tick all applicable answers (1 = very often, 2 = often, 3 = sometimes, 4 = a little, 5 = not at all).

10. I use English for listening and speaking when I

- | | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 10.1. listen to English lectures in the classroom | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.2. listen to native-speaker lecturers | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.3. listen to Thai lecturers of English | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.4. listen to English news and radio programs | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.5. listen to English songs | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.6. watch English television programs,
video tapes and films | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.7. communicate with native-speaker lecturers | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.8. communicate with Thai lecturers of English | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.9. communicate with my classmates | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.10. communicate with my family and relatives | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 10.11. communicate with foreigners or tourists | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |

Others:

11. I use English for reading and writing when I

- | | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 11.1. read English application forms (eg. TOEFL
and IELTS) | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.2. read English articles or books for studies | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.3. read e-mail, CD Rom and Internet | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.4. read English novels, newspapers
and magazines | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.5. read letters | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.6. fill in the application forms
(eg. TOEFL and IELTS) | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.7. write assignments for English subjects | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.8. write diary or journal | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.9. write e-mail messages | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 11.10. write letters to friends or relatives overseas | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |

11.11. write letters for someone else

1 () 2 () 3 () 4 () 5 ()

Others:

Section C: Students' perceptions about good English teaching

12. What does a good English teacher do in the classroom? (For example, s/he encourages students to participate in the classroom, or s/he does drills)

Section D: Students' perceptions about their own English learning, writing and future English writing practices

13. In the classroom, which ways of learning English do you find helpful? (For example, I find that it is helpful for me to work in pairs/groups and to read many articles)

14. Do you think listening, speaking and reading help you to learn to write in English? (If so, how?)

15. Currently, do you learn English through contexts other than in the classroom (For example, learning English by yourself by listening to the English cassettes or learning English at private institutions such as AUA, ECC and Sermluksutr?)

16. How did you learn to write English best in the classroom? (For example, I learned to write English best if the teacher spends enough time talking about the content of the lesson and doing grammatical exercise)

17. How does your English writing helps you to learn English? (For example, my English writing helps me to use more appropriate words and better grammatical structure)

18. How do you feel about English Writing? (For example, I enjoy English writing as I could practise using English words and grammar, or I feel very frustrated because I do not know what to write)

Questions 19-21: Please read the questions carefully and tick all applicable answers; (1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = undecided, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree).

19. What do you find difficult about writing in English?

- | | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 19.1. grammar (e.g. punctuation and conjunction) | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 19.2. vocabulary | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 19.3. text organization | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 19.4. having the ideas of what to write | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |

Others:

20. In the near future (next six months), when might you need to write in English?

- | | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 20.1. fill in English application forms (eg. TOEFL and IELTS) | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 20.2. write assignments for English subjects | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 20.3. write diary or journal | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 20.4. write e-mail messages | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 20.5. write letters to friends or relatives overseas | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |

Others:

Section E: Students' purposes and goals in learning English

21. What are your purposes in studying in the English major? (1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = undecided, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree)

- | | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 21.1. I was accepted to the program | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.2. I like English | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.3. I want to communicate in English | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.4. I want to understand native speakers | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.5. I want to understand English texts and books for studies | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.6. I want to write in English | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.7. I want to study overseas | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |
| 21.8. I want to work with foreigners | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () | 5 () |

21.9. I want to work in foreign companies

- or countries 1 () 2 () 3 () 4 () 5 ()
- 21.10. I want to understand English news
and films 1 () 2 () 3 () 4 () 5 ()
- 21.11. I want to understand English songs 1 () 2 () 3 () 4 () 5 ()
- 21.12. I want to understand English novels,
magazines and newspapers 1 () 2 () 3 () 4 () 5 ()
- 21.13. I want to travel to other countries 1 () 2 () 3 () 4 () 5 ()
- Others:

22. What do you expect to achieve by the end of this course (eg. I want to understand English grammar and communicate in English better)

23. Please add any further comments about your English study:

Thank you very much

Saowadee Kongpetch

APPENDIX 5

THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' TEXTS SELECTED FOR ANALYSIS IN CHAPTER 6

Topic 1: Should students wear the uniform to the classroom?

(1) Gaew's ('average' group):

1.

The question "Should Students wear uniform to the classroom?"	is quite popular in the teenager in Thailand.
Topical	Rheme

2.

And	in my university,	it is popular also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

3.

I	have chance to talk with my friends in this topic
Topical	Rheme

4.

and	a many of them	don't want to wear uniform to the classroom.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

They	said
Topical	Rheme

6.

that	it	was not necessary for the students now
Textual	Topical	Rheme

7.

because	they	must pay a lot of money for buying their uniform
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

and	they	were not little students [[who must have a uniform]],
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

they	should get a freedom.
Topical	Rheme

10.

In the developed country like USA, England or Japan,	the students don't wear university uniform.
Topical	Rheme

11.

Our country	should follow them.
Topical	Rheme

12.

Those	are their opinion.
Topical	Rheme

13.

However,	some of students	like wearing uniform,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

they	said
Topical	Rheme

15.

that	it	is polite and good looking.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

16.

If	the students	didn't have uniform,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

they	would pay a lot of money for the fashionable cloths.
Topical	Rheme

18.

It	is not necessary for students.
Topical	Rheme

19.

In my opinion,	I	like wearing uniform.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

20.

because	the uniform	shows
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

that	I	am a student.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

23.

that	a teacher	wear a polite cloths
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

so	we	should do that also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

And	I	can know
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

the Thai students	like to follow the fashion
Topical	Rheme

27.

so	it	is not good
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

if	some students	wear a good and expensive cloths,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

but	some students	don't have any money to buy them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

It	shows different students in the university.
Topical	Rheme

31.

So	students wear uniform to classroom or university	is so good.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

(2) Intira's Texts ('average' group):

1.

Since	I	was born
Textual	Topical	Rheme

2.

and	(I)	started to learn at the school,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

3.

I	never wore the private uniform, there.	
Textual	Rheme	

4.

I	used to wear the uniform [[more than the private]].	
Topical	Rheme	

5.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

6.

it	look beautiful
Topical	Rheme

7.

because	every students	wear it
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

and	they	look the same.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

If	someone	wears the uniform,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

and	someone	doesn't,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

when	they	join together,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

it	look very strange.
Topical	Rheme

13.

When	I	moved to university,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

I	was surprise //why the students always discussed to wear the different style from the uniform//.
Topical	Rheme

15.

I	don't agree with those students.
Topical	Rheme

16.

There	is easy reason.
Topical	Rheme

17.

It	looks clean
Topical	Rheme

18.

when	every body	wears black and white uniform.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

The important point,	it is save for students [[who have a little money]].
Topical	Rheme

20.

They	can buy the uniform [[[three shirt and three skirt]]]
Topical	Rheme

21.

and	they	can use them all the week (until finish study).
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

In the contrary,	if	the students	wear the private style to study,
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

they	must change the style of the fashion all the time.
Topical	Rheme

24.

It	make them pay a lot of money to buy the new clothes in every month.
Topical	Rheme

25.

It	's because they don't want to wear the same style all the time.
Topical	Rheme

26.

The last reason,	when the students wear the uniform
Topical	Rheme

27.

it	means that they respect the teacher [[who teach them in each subject]]
Topical	Rheme

28.

Now,	I am the student, too.
Topical	Rheme

29.

I	want to beg every body [[who still study in this university]].
Topical	Rheme

30.

"Please	wear	the uniform to the faculty
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

31.

because	it	points
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

that	you	are the education person
Textual	Topical	Rheme

33.

because	you	follow the rule of the university".
Textual	Topical	Rheme

(3) Sakda's text ('above average' group):

1.

My faculty	has a new rule [[that the students must wear uniforms to the class]].	
Topical	Rheme	

2.

but	I	have no idea [[why]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

3.

I	'm the third year student of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences.	
Topical	Rheme	

4.

Since	I	was the first year,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

there	has no strict rule about the uniform like this.	
Topical	Rheme	

6.

It	is not very nice [[that they force the students to do what the students do not want to]].	
Topical	Rheme	

7.

I	quite not agree with this new rule	
Topical	Rheme	

8.

because	it	is not a polite way of telling someone to do something by making the rule without noticing before.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

I	know
Topical	Rheme

10.

that	everyone	knows how good of dressing up the uniform.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

It	shows	the unique of our faculty and university, the delicate of living under the faculty's rule, the property for students in the future
Topical	Rheme	

12.

- they	would be the good citizens living under the law.
Topical	Rheme

13.

But	each students	have their own ideas,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

right?
Minor clause

how to dress and how to do,
Non-finite clause

right?
Minor clause

If not,
Non-finite clause

14.

we	're going to walk along the communism.
Topical	Rheme

15.

One of my teachers	said
Topical	Rheme

16.

that	he	would wait to see
Topical	Rheme	

17.

that	what	is the result of paying attention at the uniform [[rather than to the academics]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

And	I	agree with him.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

What I want to discuss here	is how good it is
Topical	Rheme

20.

if	the faculty	neglects the aim of giving students academics//.
Topical	Topical	Rheme

21.

In my opinion,	in the future	when the students are the grown up,
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

22.

they	would be the good citizens [[who live happily]] under the laws
Topical	Rheme

23.

but	(^they)	have no thoughtfulness to ponder wether those laws are good or not.
Textual	(^Topical)	Rheme

24.

This	is the effect of aspects of rule [[rather than the lesson]].
Topical	Rheme

(4) Wittaya’s text (‘above average’ group):

1.

The idea [[that we students should wear uniform to the classroom]]	is actually acceptable for me.
Topical	Rheme

2.

But,	I	also think
Textual	Topical	Rheme

3.

that	it	will be so terrible
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

if	the rule	is not flexible.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

What I mean	is I am definitely willing to wear the uniform,
Topical	Rheme

6.

but	the uniform	shouldn’t be something most of students don’t want to wear.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

7.

As	the rule	says,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

for male students,	the shirt we wear must be like the shirt we used to wear in high school
Topical	Rheme

9.

and	the shirt with long sleeves	is okay.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

The trousers, <<according to the rule>>,	are very unattractive.
Topical	Rheme

11.

And	there	is only one style of shoes acceptable.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

I	mean the black shoes with shoelace.
Topical	Rheme

13.

I	can imagine
Topical	Rheme

14.

that	even	the very handsome student who wears the uniform according to the rule of KKU perfectly	must be known
Textual	Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

15.

that	he	is from an university in countryside.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

16.

For me,	I agree
Topical	Rheme

17.

that	jeans	shouldn't be acceptable,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

but	the rule	should be flexible by allowing students to wear anything can be considered the form of university students.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

The uniforms worn by school boys	are all the same
Topical	Rheme

20.

and	I	think
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

it	's very funny
Topical	Rheme

22.

if	something like that	will happen in university.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

What I said	is just the problem of male students.
Topical	Rheme

24.

As	I	know,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

all my female friends	got into trouble
Topical	Rheme

26.

after	such a rule	was declared strictly by someone [[who is not student and doesn't understand we students]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

For me,	people [[who decide to declare such a rule]] is like a dictator,
Topical	Rheme

28.

because	he	thought by himself
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

that	what he decided	must be good.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

31.

it	might be good for him only, not for us students [[who are forced by what he declared]].
Topical	Rheme

(5) Uma's Text ('below average' group):

1.

I	agree //with that students should wear uniform to the classroom//.
Topical	Rheme

2.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

3.

it	look like unity
Topical	Rheme

4.

and	(it)	look perfect order.
Textual	(Topical)	Rheme

5.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

6.

uniform	is beautiful and lovely form appropriateness for students.
Topical	Rheme

7.

I	have worn uniform for 15 years.
Topical	Rheme

8.

I	don't bored
Topical	Rheme

9.

moreover,	I	very proud
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

and	(I)	look smart.
Textual	(Topical)	Rheme

11.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

12.

everybody	is equivalent
Topical	Rheme

13.

in the other hand	if	students	don't wear uniform.
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

I	think
Topical	Textual

15.

it	must to have many problems
Topical	Rheme

16.

because	we	must to think
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

and	(we)	(must to) choose new cloths to wear to school or university
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

and	we	care fashion instead of hard study.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

You	used to think?
Topical	Rheme

20.

In the future	you will be working in the office
Topical	Rheme

21.

that time	you won't chance to wear uniform like in school or university
Topical	Rheme

22.

and	I	'm sure,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

you	will have to regret
Topical	Rheme

24.

so	this time	we are students.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

We	should wear uniform to the classroom
Topical	Rheme

26.

and	uniform	is sign to show respectfully with the place and person.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

wear	it today better you won't chance.
Topical	Rheme

(6) Kanya's text ('below average' group):

1.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

2.

it	is not necessary to wear uniform to the classroom.
Topical	Rheme

3.

because	we	come to class to get the knowledge,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

we	use the brain to study.
Topical	Rheme

5.

It	is not important to wear uniform.
Topical	Rheme

6.

I	had seen the international school,
Topical	Rheme

7.

the students	don't wear uniform.
Topical	Rheme

8.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

9.

it	is comfortable to find the cloth to go to school.
Topical	Rheme

10.

They	can wear the cloth every style [[that they want or the like]].
Topical	Rheme

11.

They	can wear a fashionable cloth too.
Topical	Rheme

12.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

13.

we	shouldn't judge everyone by their cloth or their wearing.
Topical	Rheme

14.

I	think
Topical	Rheme

15.

we	should judge people by their mind or their behavior.
Topical	Rheme

16.

On the other hand,	if	the students	wear uniform to the classroom.
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

It	is look polite
Topical	Rheme

18.

and	^(it)	show respect to the teacher.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

But	in their uniform especially KKU student	there are many style of them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

Sometime	it	is impolite [[more than do not wearing them]].
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

21.

Even though	at present	there are a strict law for students to wear uniform.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

In my opinion	I	don't agree with it
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

23.

because	many students	set the problem with it
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

because	they	don't have the cloth [[which in law]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

And	now,	in our country have an economics problem too.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

I	think,
Topical	Rheme

27.

the students	can wear the uniform like before
Topical	Rheme

28.

but	it	is not strick like the new law.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

They	can wear it [[more politely]] too.
Topical	Rheme

30.

However	the students wearing uniform or don't wearing uniform it	isn't necessary
Textual	Topical	Rheme

31.

because	in learning knowledge	doesn't judge their mark by their wearing
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

but	it	depend on their knowledge.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Topic 2: Should rainforests be saved?

(1) Gaew's Text: (average)

1.

Rainforests	are thick forests with tall trees [[that are very close together]].
Topical	Rheme

2.

They	are mainly found in tropical areas [[where there are a lot of rain]].
Topical	Rheme

3.

Presently,	rainforests are being destroyed at harmfulness,
Topical	Rheme

4.

The destruction of rainforests	cause we a lot of problems, for instance, the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.
Topical	Rheme

5.

The destruction of rainforests	causes the greenhouse effect.
Topical	Rheme

6.

If	We	cut down a lot of trees,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

7.

we	will have no tress to absorb CO ₂ , and greenhouse gas.
Topical	Rheme

8.

CO ₂ and other greenhouse gases	allow less heat energy from the sun to escape back in the atmosphere.
Topical	Rheme

9.

When	the heat energy	cannot escape,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

it	will come back to the world
Topical	Rheme

11.

and	our world	will be warmer.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

The scientists	predict
Topical	Rheme

13.

that	the next century the world's temperatures	will increase between 1 degree and 3.5 degrees.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

This	causes the world's climate to change.
Topical	Rheme

15.

For example,	temperatures in the UK	will become like the Mediterranean countries.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

16.

Also,	the world's agriculture	will be damaged.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

Moreover	the ice-covered areas	will melt and pour into the ocean.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

Some countries such as Bangladesh	will suffer from floods.
Topical	Rheme

19.

Another problem is that many plants and herbs used to produce medicines	will be destroyed.
Topical	Rheme

20.

At least a quarter of important medicines	came from the plants [[which grow in rainforests]].
Topical	Rheme

21.

Curare, ipecac, wild yam and Madagascar periwinkle	are examples of forest plants are used to fight major disease such as cancer, leukaemia, muscular and heart diseases.
Topical	Rheme

22.

Possibly	rainforest plants	provide medicine for AIDS.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

23.

these plants	will be destroyed also.
Topical	Rheme

24.

Furthermore,	the loss of rainforests	means the loss of food, drinks, and natural products.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

Rainforests	provide us with food and drinks such as rice, chocolates, oranges, lemons.
Topical	Rheme

26.

In fact,	many food crops	actually originated in the rainforests.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

Although	We	can grow crops,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

The qualities of domestic crops	are not quite good.
Topical	Rheme

29.

They	still need their wild relatives in order to save (^them) from devastation by diseases.
Topical	Rheme

30.

Besides	rainforests	provide us with other essential materials, for example, furniture, cosmetics, stationery, musical instruments and logs for construction.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

31.

If	We	wish to consume them in the future,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

we	should stem the rate of rainforest destruction.
Topical	Rheme

33.

Moreover,	If	rainforests	disappear,
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

34.

our natural places	will disappear.
Topical	Rheme

35.

Rainforests	are placed [[which are full of natural things like shade, water falls, flowers and wild animals]].
Topical	Rheme

36.

They	are beautiful parts of our world.
Topical	Rheme

37.

They	make us feel relaxed and happy.
Topical	Rheme

38.

If	rainforests	are destroyed,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

39.

they	cannot give us enjoyment.
Topical	Rheme

40.

In conclusion,	the destruction of rainforests	follows a lot of enormous problems: the greenhouse effect, the loss of medicinal plants, the reduction of food products and the disappearance of natural places.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

41.

If	We	do not want to face these problems,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

42.

we	should save rainforest
Topical	Rheme

43.

before	It	will be too late.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

(2) Intira's text: (average)

1.

Now	rainforest is being destroyed too much from people [[who want its benefits]].
Topical	Rheme

2.

They	have never known
Topical	Rheme

3.

that	There	are a lot of bad effects
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

if	Rainforest	disappears.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

Firstly,	animal and plant species	will become extinct.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

6.

There	are many kinds of plants and animals in rainforest.
Topical	Rheme

7.

Animals	can survive
Topical	Rheme

8.

because	trees	give them food and home.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

If	trees	are cut down,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

animals	will die because of lack of food and place to live.
Topical	Rheme

11.

Then	Animals	will lose.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

For example,	presently	people hardly see Orangutan, Aye-aye, and Lumur
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

because	They	have no place for surviving.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

Secondly,	forest people [[who know about medicines and plants]]	will die.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

15.

These people	cannot survive without forest
Topical	Rheme

16.

because	It	is their home.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

They	survive themselves by eating fruits, hunting small animals, and growing crops.
Topical	Rheme

18.

They	know //the way to treat themselves from diseases //
Topical	Rheme

19.

because	They	stay in forest for their whole life.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

They	can learn which herb uses for what.
Topical	Rheme

21.

For example,	they	use the rosy periwinkle to treat leukaemia, the calabar bean for eye disorders, and papaya seeds for anti-fungal.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

Without rainforest,	they	will die.
Topical	Rheme	

23.

Their knowledges of medicine and plant	will be gone with them, too.	
Topical	Rheme	

24.

Thirdly,	soil erosion	will occur
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

Because	there	are no trees to absorb the water when the rain falls.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

Rainforest	can relieve soil erosion
Topical	Rheme

27.

Because	trees' leaves	can make the rain pour on the soil softly
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

And	the roots	make the water flows slowly.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

Conversely,	if	trees	are cut down,
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

the rain	can not be absorbed
Topical	Rheme

31.

And	the topsoil	will be destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

After	topsoil	is broken,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

33.

It	will be hard for trees to grow
Topical	Rheme

34.

Because	there	are a lot of nutrients on topsoil.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

35.

When	trees	lack of nutrients
Textual	Topical	Rheme

36.

They	will die.
Topical	Rheme

37.

Finally,	the earth's climate	will change.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

38.

As	rainforest	is destroyed,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

39.

There	are no trees to absorb Carbon dioxide (CO ₂) [[which releases from human activities, especially, from burning material from wood and garbages]].	
Topical	Rheme	

40.

When	this toxic gas	rise up to the atmosphere,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

41.

Ozone	will be decreased <<(Ozone can protect people from sun's heat)>>.	
Topical	Rheme	

42.

So	sun's light	can shine directly to the earth
Textual	Topical	Rheme

43.

And	the heat	will be kept in the earth so much.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

44.

This process	is called	"greenhouse effect".
Topical	Rheme	

45.

As	the temperature	is higher,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

46.

Some ice-covered areas	will melt such as Antarctic and Alaska.	
Topical	Rheme	

47.

Then	sea levels	will rise and flood
Textual	Topical	Rheme

48.

Further	the earth	will become too hot.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

49.

It	can make people die
Textual	Rheme

50.

because	their skins	are destroyed by ultraviolet (UV).
Textual	Topical	Rheme

51.

And	later	their skin	become to cancer [[which is hard to treat]].
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

52.

In conclusion,	the loss of rainforest	affects human beings [[who live in the earth]] directly.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

53.

They	will lose their lifes and their properties.	
Topical	Rheme	

54.

As long as	human being	can see rainforest,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

55.

it	is good sign [[that their life will go on]].	
Topical	Rheme	

56.

In contrary,	if	rainforest	disappears
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

57.

human being	will have no future.
Topical	Rheme

58.

Thus,	if	you	want to live longer,
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

59.

save	it.
Topical	Rheme

(3) Sakda's text: (above average)

1.

Rainforests, <<the bright green band around the equator in our school atlases>>,	are now facing a frightening threat.
Topical	Rheme

2.

People in the regions	are cutting down too many trees for short-term financial gain.
Topical	Rheme

3.

If	the deforestation rate	increases continuously,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

the terrifying effects	will happen.
Topical	Rheme

5.

The destruction of rainforests	causes the detestable extinction of plant and animal species.
Topical	Rheme

6.

Rainforests, <<which cover only 6 percent of the Earth's surface>>,	are home to 70 per cent, and possibly as much as 90 per cent, of all the Earth's species.
Topical	Rheme

7.

As	rainforests	disappear,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

many animals, << -- such as many of Amazon's parrots, the red-eyed tree frog and the Birdwing butterfly -- >>	are also gone
Topical	Rheme

9.

because	they	lose their habitats and usual environments.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

The loss of rainforests	means the disappearance of tribal people [[who live there]].
Topical	Rheme

11.

They	earn their living by hunting animals and gathering fruits.	
Topical	Rheme	

12.

If	rainforests	are gone
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

they	are also gone
Topical	Rheme

14.

because	there	would be nowhere for them to live
Textual	Topical	Rheme

15.

and	(^there)	(would be nowhere for them) to find their usual diets.
Textual	(^Topical)	Rheme

16.

With them	the knowledge of medicinal value of plant [[which have passed from generation to generation more than ten centuries ago]]	have gone as well.
Topical	Rheme	

17.

This	means the tribe and the world lose thousands of years of irreplaceable knowledge about medicinal plants.	
Topical	Rheme	

18.

Another	important benefit of rainforests	being the major part in climate control.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

The forests	give us fresh air,
Topical	Rheme

20.

which	is needed to balance the worlds' atmosphere
Topical	Rheme

21.

and	(^which)	play important role of season change in all parts of world.
Textual	(^Topical)	Rheme

22.

Deforestation	contributes to several problems: convection current and wind patterns distortion, and unpunctual rainfall.	
Topical	Rheme	

23.

Also,	it	increases the amount of carbon dioxide, << the greenhouse gas>>, in the atmosphere.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

The greenhouse gas	causes the greenhouse effect, increasing the global warming about 1 – 3.5°C (2-6° F) each year.	
Topical	Rheme	

25.

The consequence	is the polar ice will melt [[that becomes a big problem in the next century.]]	
Topical	Rheme	

26.

As a result,	higher sea level, a lot of new diseases and coasts flood	would happen
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

if	the destruction	still go on.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

In conclusion,	the loss of rainforests	is the loss of incalculable diversity and enormous potential benefits.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

If	people	let this witless destruction continue,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

those horrifying damages	would happen.
Topical	Rheme

31.

We	should, therefore save our rainforests.
Topical	Rheme

(5) Wittaya's text: (above average)

1.

All around the world	rainforests are being cut down continuously.	
Topical	Rheme	

2.

As a result,	human beings	are all facing worldwide problems such as soil erosion, green effect, and animal extinction.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

3.

We	should save our rainforests
Topical	Rheme

4.

because	the deforestation	causes bad phenomenal outcomes.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

Soil erosion	is one of disastrous problems.
Topical	Rheme

6.

It	takes place as a direct result of destroying the rainforests.
Topical	Rheme

7.

Where	rainforests	have been cleared,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

erosion	often occurs.
Topical	Rheme

9.

Without trees,	rain could not be absorbed
Topical	Rheme

10.

so	it	drains off the ground easily, gradually washing away the topsoil.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

The soil, which eroded from the land,	silts up the river and leads to flooding.
Topical	Rheme

12.

In India <<due to the rainforest destruction high in the Himalayan mountains>>,	sever flooding annually takes place in the river deltas.
Topical	Rheme

13.

Rainforest destruction	causes the greenhouse effect.
Topical	Rheme

14.

In this industrial age,	large quantity of carbon dioxide which is a major cause of greenhouse effect is released into the atmosphere everyday.
Topical	Rheme

15.

Meanwhile,	the plants in rainforests	absorb carbon dioxide as part of a complex food making process called “photosynthesis”.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

16.

Nevertheless,	as	we	cut down rainforests,
Textual	Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

we	reduce the plants that lower carbon dioxide in the air and lead to the greenhouse effect.
Topical	Rheme

18.

The greenhouse effect	causes the climatic changes that could be disastrous.
Topical	Rheme

19.

The consequences	include increased flooding, drought, famine, hotter weather, and the melting of ice-covered areas of the earth.
Topical	Rheme

20.

Cutting down rainforests	destroys a large number of animal species.
Topical	Rheme

21.

Since	rainforests	are cut down,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

animals	lose their only homes [[which they are used to food and temperature]].	
	Rheme	

23.

Therefore,	it	's quite impossible for them to survive
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

after	their homes	have been destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

As a matter of fact,	most of the world's 30 million known species	are in the rainforest areas.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

And,	many of them	are dying
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

and	some of them	are becoming extinct such as South Asian Tiger and Dove Langur, Philippine Monkey-eating Eagle, and Amazonian Mantee.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

As	we	can see;
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

soil erosion, greenhouse effect, and animal extinction	are disastrous problems [[that really should be prevented]].	
Topical	Rheme	

30.

And,	the best way to prevent the problems	is to prevent their cause which, as we know, is the rainforest destruction.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

31.

save	rainforests,
Topical	Rheme

32.

and	we	save the world.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

(5) Uma's text: (below average)

1.

Rainforests	are profitable for our life directly and indirectly.
Topical	Rheme

2.

It	provides us home, medicine and regulating climate.
Topical	Rheme

3.

Nowadays	the world changed
Topical	Rheme

4.

because	Rainforests	are destroyed by human beings,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

they	burn and cut them down.
Topical	Rheme

6.

If	a lot of trees	are destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

7.

There	will be many problems.
Topical	Rheme

8.

We	should save them.
Topical	Rheme

9.

Firstly,	rainforests around the world	provide home for forest people: The Pygmies of Africa, the Penan of Malaysia, and the Efe of Zaire.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

They	have lived in the forest for a long time.
Topical	Rheme

11.

These people	survive by hunting and gathering.
Topical	Rheme

12.

But	now	the invaders have destroyed the rainforests
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

so	their homes	have been destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

They	have suffered
Topical	Rheme

15.

and	(they)	(have) died from epidemics of diseases
Textual	Topical	Rheme

16.

and	(they)	(have) become homeless.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

Secondly,	the plants of the rainforests	provide medicines.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

People	have used chemical compounds of many plant species as drugs and medicines such as the rosy periwinkle of Madagascar for leukaemia, the papaya of Latin America for stomach illnesses, the calabar bean of West Africa for eye disorders, and the cinchona of South America for malaria.	
Topical	Rheme	

19.

Finally,	rainforests	play a major role in regulating the climate.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

When	it	rains,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

many trees in the rainforests	absorb plenty of water by their roots
Topical	Rheme

22.

and	some of water	is released into the air by their leave, including the sources of water: river, pond and stream evaporated.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

They	condense into clouds
Topical	Rheme

24.

but	the air	cannot support the heavy clouds.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

They	refine into water
Topical	Rheme

26.

and	(they)	return rains again.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

These	are the reasons [[why we should conserve the rainforests]].
Topical	Rheme

28.

So	we	should stop demolishing them
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

and	(we)	(should) conserve natural resources forever.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

(6) Kanya's text (below average):

1.

Rainforest	is a forrest [[which has high rainfall all year]].
Topical	Rheme

2.

It	is mainly found in the tropical areas such as in South America, South Africa and too much of Southeast Asia.
Topical	Rheme

3.

Nowadays	rainforests are cut down rapidly
Topical	Rheme

4.

and	this	brings the chain reaction to the earth
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

When	Rainforests	are destroyed,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

6.

green house effect	will occur.
Topical	Rheme

7.

Plants	can decrease the greenhouse effect gases by photosynthesis.
Topical	Rheme

8.

They	absorb Cabondioxide
Topical	Rheme

9.

and	(^they)	release oxigen into the air.
Textual	(^Topical)	Rheme

10.

There	are many result from green house effect.
Topical	Rheme

11.

Every part of the earth	get this problem.
Topical	Rheme

12.

In Thailand	there are less rainfall
Topical	Rheme

13.

so	the temperature	are increased.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

it	brings drought and flood
Topical	Rheme

15.

both of them	destroyed the product of Agriculture.
Topical	Rheme

16.

On the Antarctic part,	the ice was melt.
Topical	Rheme

17.

It	is the flood
Topical	Rheme

18.

and	drought	occur in the United states.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

There	are flooding in Bangladesh
Topical	Rheme

20.

Moreover	World Health Organization	said
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

that	it	will bring epidemics such as Malaria, Yellow Fever and Hemorrhagic fever.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

In addition,	Rainforests	are home of many species of plants and animals.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

Right now	they become extinct
Topical	Rheme

24.

because	their habitats	are destroyed.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

For example	the researchers	estimate
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

that	at least 12 percent of bird species in Amazon basin and 15 percent of plants in Central and South America	are extinct
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

However,	we	should have a responsibility for ourselves to protect Rainforest.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

There	are many advantages from its.
Topical	Rheme

29.

So	we	should save its for our future world.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

Topic 3: Should smoking be banned in public places?

(1) Gaew's text: (average)

1.

Presently,	Many countries	issue a ban against smorking.
Topical	Rheme	

2.

They	has a legal about smoking [[that smoking is totally prohibited in public places such as building, on any campus and within public transport]].	
Topical	Rheme	

3.

Yet	There	are many people [[who continue to smoke in these places]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

By doing that	it affects to the health of smokers and non-smokers,	
Topical	Rheme	

5.

and	It	also cause a fire
Textual	Topical	Rheme

6.

Smoking	is the largest cause of death,	
Topical	Rheme	

7.

for example,	in Australia	there are 23,000 Australians die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

Increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, irritation of allergies and staing of teeth and fingers in short – term effects and shortness of breath, stomach ulcers and a cancer of lung in long term effects	are examples of diseases by smoking.	
Topical	Rheme	

9.

Besides	Smoking	cause lacking competence of sex in male and female.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

Smoking	makes the reduction in sperm in a male and reduction in hormones in female.	
Topical	Rheme	

11.

Moreover	smoking during pregnancy	is linked to babies being born under weight and miscarraige.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

Furthermore,	smoking	is harmful to non-smokers.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

People [[who are around smokers]]	will breath a main stream and exhaled smoke,	
Topical	Rheme	

14.

and	It	affects thier health.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

15.

There	are many diseases causing by passive smorking, for instance, increased risk of coronary heart disease and a cancer of lung.	
Topical	Rheme	

16.

The scientists	believe
Topical	Rheme

17.

that	passive smorking	may be cause of 40,000 lung cancers death in the U.K.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

In case of Mrs. Marlene Sharp [[who has never smoked]]	is example for this opinion.
Topical	Rheme

19.

She	Works in a pub more than 20 years
Topical	Rheme

20.

and	she	pours beers for her customers while they are smoking.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

Finally	she	has a cancer.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

Smoking	can cause of fire, especially in crowded places like a pub or a disco.	
Topical	Rheme	

23.

In 1980,	the Board of Fire Commissioners of NSW found	
Topical	Rheme	

24.

that	discarded cigarettes on matches	caused about 13,600 fires and including 900 building fires.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

These things	occur the careless of smokers	
Topical	Rheme	

26.

because	they	did not put out fire before throw it off.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

In conclusion,	smoking	affects the health of smokers and the health of people around them,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

besides	it	causes a fire risk.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

if	whoever	knows these dangers of smoking
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

and	(^whoever)	continue this dangerous habit,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

31.

they	should be banned
Topical	Rheme

32.

and	smorking in public places	should be banned also.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

(2) Intira's text: (average)

1.

One person	can kill the other person [[who sit down around him]] by smoking.	
Topical	Rheme	

2.

When	those people	smell that smoke,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

3.

there	are many bad effects happening to them.	
Topical	Rheme	

4.

Firstly,	the cigarette smoke	will destroy their lifes.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

When	people	breath in with cigarette smoke,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

6.

it	will pass to their hearts, their lungs, and their livers	
Topical	Rheme	

7.

because	these organs	work about breathing.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

8.

Some part of smoke	are kept in these organs.	
Topical	Rheme	

9.

It	affects to their health	
Topical	Rheme	

10.

because	this smoke	cause to throat hurt, and lung cancer.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

Secondly,	the mothers [[who have pernancy]]	will abort.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

May be	Their children	are born ahead of time,
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

13.

or	their children	become disable.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

After	those women	breath the cigarette smoke in,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

15.

their children	will get it, too.
Topical	Rheme

16.

It	can kill them easily because of their soft bodies.
Topical	Rheme

17.

And	they	have nothing to protect themselves.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

Thirdly,	the number of baby	will be decreased.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

It	is because sex competence of father degenerate.
Topical	Rheme

20.

It	concerns with sperm.
Topical	Rheme

21.

If	Sperms	are decreased in number
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

If	Sperms	are decreased in number
Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

it	will be hard for sperms getting into the ovaries.
Topical	Rheme

24.

So,	the babies	will not happen.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

Finally,	the husband	will have new wife.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

26.

Cigarette smoke	makes woman get the cancer at their womb.
Topical	Rheme

27.

When	Husband and wife	have sex,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

the blood	will bleed
Topical	Rheme

29.

and	(the wife)	get pain.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

These	make husband unhappy.
Topical	Rheme

31.

The way to solve the problem	is finding new wife.
Topical	Rheme

32.

Cigarette smoke	can destroy both smoker and non-smoker extremly.
Topical	Rheme

33.

Its effects	does not happen suddenly,
Topical	Rheme

34.

but	It	correct in long term
Textual	Topical	Rheme

35.

until	the body	get damage and die
Textual	Topical	Rheme

36.

When	this time	come,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

37.

it	must be late to stop smoking.
Topical	Rheme

(3) Sakda's Text: (above average)

1.

Recently,	smokers are segregated in offices, factories, pubs, restaurants and other public areas.
Topical	Rheme

2.

Some smokers	Protest
Topical	Rheme

3.

that	they	should be free in the way of doing what they want.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

Since	smoking	causes considerable problems linked with disturbing non-smokers, affecting sexuality, and causing health damage,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

it	should be banned in public places.
Topical	Rheme

6.

It	is very unpleasant for non-smokers to sit in the places [[where it is filled with smoke]].
Topical	Rheme

7.

Such places	are restaurants, cinemas, public transports, and other public enclosed areas.
Topical	Rheme

8.

In those crowded places,	smoking can be a serious fire risk, especially to the non-smokers [[who are always in there]].
Topical	Rheme

9.

Mrs. Marlene Sharp,	for example, a 58-year-old woman worked in pubs for more than 20 years.
Topical	Rheme

10.

She	is never a cigarette smoker,
Topical	Rheme

11.

But	she	has cancer of larynx now.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

It	is prejudicial for non-smokers to be asked to risk their health.	
Topical	Rheme	

13.

Besides,	smoking	also has an effect on ability in producing babies.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

For men,	it affects their sexual abilities:	
Topical	Rheme	

15.

(^ it)	decreased sperm amount;	
Topical	Rheme	

16.

and	(^it)	weaken sperm endurance.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

17.

If	they	are continue smoking
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

the ability to have children	will decrease as well.	
Topical	Rheme	

19.

For women,	smoking	affects directly their ovaries.
Topical	Rheme	

20.

There	will be problem with hormone producing and natural beauty.	
Topical	Rheme	

21.

If	women	smoke herself,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

22.

The hormone amount	will decrease
Topical	Rheme

23.

and	their beauties	are less too.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

if	the pregnancies	smoke,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

there	will be problems such as babies being born earlier or underweight, abortion, and childhood respiratory illness.
Topical	Rheme

26.

Moreover,	smoking	can damage the healths of both smoker and non-smokers.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

Recent research	reveals
Topical	Rheme

28.

that	non-smokers	may face a 30 percent higher risk of lung cancer.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

29.

In Australia,	for example, 23,000 people die each year as a result of diseases caused by smoking.
Topical	Rheme

30.

It	is considered the largest preventable cause of death in Australia nowadays.
Topical	Rheme

31.

Those causes	may be from the long-term effects such as shortness of breath, cough, and respiratory infections, chronic bronchitis, and cancer of lung, larynx, kidney and other parts of body.
Topical	Rheme

32.

Even	short-term effects, such as increased heart rate, blood pressure, level of carbon dioxide, and hair and clothe smell, and decreased urine formation,	can cause irritating problem
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

33.

If	we	are in the places [[where are filled with cigarette smoke]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

34.

In conclusion,	smoking	should be banned in public places
Textual	Topical	Rheme

35.

because	it	causes a lot of problems
Textual	Topical	Rheme

36.

that	we	are already known
Textual	Topical	Rheme

37.

Since	smoking	can harm both smokers and non-smokers, men and women, and even unborn babies,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

38.

It	should not be supported at all.
Topical	Rheme

(4) Wittaya's Texts: (above average)

1.

Cigarette	is a legal habit-forming drug [[which is normally used all around the world]].	
Topical	Rheme	

2.

It;	however, directly cause both physical and mental results to the smokers and people around them.	
Topical	Rheme	

3.

In addition,	it	indirectly causes some problems to the society, too.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

Cigarette	should be banned in public places	
Topical	Rheme	

5.

because	it	causes many considerably bad effects.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

6.

Smoking	fatally affects physical health of both smokers and also people around them when they smoke in public places.	
Topical	Rheme	

7.

The smokers,	<<as they smoke,>> are destroying their own and other people's health	
Topical	Rheme	

8.

because	smoking	Causes bad effects to the bodies in many ways.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

For example,	it	increases heart rate, blood pressure, production of stomach acid, levels of carbon dioxide, hand tremor
Textual	Topical	Rheme

10.

and	it	also decreases physical endurance and sensation of taste and smell.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

As a matter of fact,	non-smokers	may face a 30 percent higher risk of lung cancer simply by breathing in other people's smoke.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

12.

So,	there	is possibility for both smokers and non-smokers to die for smoke inhalation.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

Also,	smoking	causes mental effects especially for those [[who are non-smokers]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

In general public places, such as workplaces and theatres,	some smokers, <<knowing that they are unpleasantly annoying other people>>, shamelessly smoke.
Topical	Rheme

15.

Non-smokers, <<aware of the bad effects to their health>>,	have to breathe in such a bad smelled smoke.
Topical	Rheme

16.

For them,	it is a mental pressure.
Topical	Rheme

17.

They	cannot make the best of things
Topical	Rheme

18.

if	they	have to be in such a place.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

19.

And	for the smokers,	smoking may decrease their sexual desire.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

In addition,	smoking	affects the society in many bad ways
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

In Australia,	in 1981, a total of 8.4 million working days were lost from absenteeism due to smoke-related illness.
Topical	Rheme

22.

In NSW,	it was found in 1980
Topical	Rheme

23.

that	cigarettes or matches	caused a total of 13,600 fires.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

24.

Furthermore,	smoking	causes worse environment.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

Besides the smoke [[which is an air pollutant]],	it increases litter
Topical	Rheme

26.

because	cigarette pockets, an cigarette butts	are not consumable.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

As	we	can see,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

28.

cigarette smoking	causes many considerably bad effects to both people and society.
Topical	Rheme

29.

To stop all problems mentioned above,	there	is only one way [[that is to ban smoking in public places]].
Topical	Rheme	

Stop smoking in public places,
{Non-Finite Clause}

30.

we	can make better places and health.
Topical	Rheme

(5) Uma's text: (below average)

1.

Nowadays	our world have many problems such as economic and social.
Topical	Rheme

2.

These	are involved with human.
Topical	Rheme

3.

They	made tension
Topical	Rheme

4.

and	each person	can relax them by movie, shopping and sport.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

5.

Many people	relax by smoking.
Topical	Rheme

6.

The numbers of smoker	is increasing
Topical	Rheme

7.

that	made the problem to smoker and non-smoker.
Topical	Rheme

8.

So	we	should banned them.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

Smoke	made hair and clothes smell,
Topical	Rheme

10.

(Smoke)	(made) eyes water,
Topical	Rheme

11.

(Smoke)	(made) throat dry,
Topical	Rheme

12.

and	(smoke)	(made) bad-smelling of breath.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

13.

These	are diseases caused by smoking [[Short - Term Effects: increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, increased hand tremor, increased levels of carbon dioxide, decreased urine formation and irritation of allergies. Long-term Effects: chronic bronchitis, shortness of breath, cough and respiratory infections, and cancer of lung , mouth]].	
Topical	Rheme	

14.

Smoking	trouble people [[who is side especially areas in public places: shopping arcades, cinemas, restaurants, hospitals, and transports]].	
Topical	Rheme	

15.

Should be	arranged	the place for smoking
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

The effect of smoking to health for these people: older before should be, made babies being born underweight and abort.	
Non-finite Clause	

16.

These	are harmful of smoking,
Topical	Rheme

17.

we	can see.
Topical	Rheme

18.

It	is good for health
Topical	Rheme

19.

if	you	avoid and faraway from this,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

20.

if	you	can not do
Textual	Topical	Rheme

21.

you	should be prevented in crowded places.
Topical	Rheme

22.

Don't	forgot	non-smoker who effect also.
Interpersonal	Topical	Rheme

23.

Smoking	should be banned in public places;
Topical	Rheme

24.

we	should supported non-smoking,
Topical	Rheme

25.

(we)	(should be) against smoking
Topical	Rheme

26.

and	(we)	(should) show the people to harmful of smoking
Textual	Topical	Rheme

(6) Kanya's Texts (below average):

1.

Nowadays,	when you look around in the society,
Topical	Rheme

2.

you	will see some action that many people usually do it.
Topical	Rheme

3.

Even though	they	are a man, woman, old and young.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

4.

This action	is smoking.
Topical	Rheme

5.

There	are many bad effect from smoking
Topical	Rheme

6.

but	many people	still smoking.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

7.

Smoking in public place such as hospital, school, restaurant and department store	build annoyance to every body in that place.
Topical	Rheme

8.

If	you	are not smoker
Textual	Topical	Rheme

9.

you	will not like it
Topical	Rheme

10.

because	there	are bad smell from smoking.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

11.

The main effect from smoking	is destroying your health and people beside you.
Topical	Rheme

12.

It	is the cause of many d- [[which seperated into term]].	
Topical	Rheme	

13.

Firstly,	it	is a short term effects,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

14.

smoking	could increase heart rate, blood pressure, the production of stomach acid, level of cobon dioxide and hand tremor.	
Topical	Rheme	

15.

Decrease	sensation of tastes, appetie and smell.	
Topical	Rheme	

16.

Decrease	physical endurance and production of bad breath.	
Topical	Rheme	

17.

Secondly,	it	is a long term effects,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

18.

Smoking	is the cause of the narrowing and respiratory infections, chronic bronchitis, cancer of lung, laryny, kidney and stomach ulcers.	
Topical	Rheme	

19.

The others effect	is, to reduce sextual competence.	
Topical	Rheme	

20.

It	hard to have baby.	
Topical	Rheme	

21.

For women	smoking can decrease your beauty,	
Topical	Rheme	

22.

If	you	smoke during pregnancy is linked to babies being born under weight.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

23.

The research	show that smoker have higher accident rates than non smokers.	
Topical	Rheme	

24.

Moreover,	smoker	get a lot of effect from smoking
Textual	Topical	Rheme

25.

non-smokers	will get it too.
Topical	Rheme

26.

Even though	they	don't smoking,
Textual	Topical	Rheme

27.

it	doesn't fair for them.
Topical	Rheme

28.

The research	find that may be non-smoker will get an effect from smoking more than the smoker.	
Topical	Rheme	

29.

When	the smoker	smoking
Textual	Topical	Rheme

30.

they	will blow the smoke out side
Topical	Rheme

31.

but	non smoker	in hale that smok
Textual	Topical	Rheme

32.

and	(^ non smoker)	can't blow it.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

33.

So	they	will get a smok more than smoker.
Textual	Topical	Rheme

34.

Although,	smoking	should be banned in public place
Textual	Topical	Rheme

35.

because	it	bring a lot of bad effect to people [[who is the smoker or non smoker]].
Textual	Topical	Rheme

36.

It	(^is) hard to find the advantages from smoking.
Topical	Rheme

APPENDIX 6

Additional Texts

This section contains samples of additional six students' texts – two students from each of the three groups (i.e. the 'above average', 'average' and 'below average') for each of the three topics, and their original texts.

Topic 1: Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?

(1) Tipa's Text (average):

1. If there are people ask me
2. that I know the word uniform or not,
3. certainly, I answer him or her
4. that I know.
5. As I notice many places in Thailand,
6. factories, schools, institutes, universities have the rule "Every people must wear the uniform".
7. I don't know
8. that most of people agree with it or not.
9. For me, it depends on place, appropriation and many things in each place.
Since beginning the second term of this educated year {Minor Clause}
10. There is something that make students of Khon Kaen University shocked,
11. it is a rule about uniform of university.

12. Sure me is one person who was shocked about this rule
13. because the rule which I listened is very very strick.
14. I don't want to believe
15. that this is university
16. but [this] is school.
17. Before I studied here,
18. most of people told me
19. that when you studied at university
20. nobody is fussy about your clothes.
21. However, now it is very contrast with the thing that I have listened.
22. On the other hand, I know
23. that there is this rule because of tidiness.
24. I will accept this rule
25. if it is not as strick as the rule that I have listened.
26. However, I accept
27. that students should wear uniform,
28. I accept it.
29. I think
30. the university should interest the education or other thing that raise the level of university more uniform.
31. I think
32. should forbid the private suit and screened shirt
33. if you want tidiness.
34. This only is one example.
35. I think

36. before the university does something,
37. you should ask the idea from students.
38. Do you remember there is one statement “No dictatorship in Thailand”.
39. But now it is contrast in Khon Kaen University.
40. I want to say something.
41. “Something is much more is not good.

(2) Anchana's Text (average):

1. Wearing uniform to the classroom is very typical for Thai students.
2. Many thais think
3. it is polite to wear the white shirt and black skirt for women to school
4. while the men have to wear the white shirt and black trousers.
5. As for me I think
6. wearing uniform is good idea
7. but we shouldn't be serious too much about styles.
8. I mean the person's styles such as wearing a mini-skirt, fashionable shoes and so on.
9. However dressing is not influenced to study.
10. It can't make your study better and worse.
11. It mainly depends on yourself.
12. How diligent you are.
13. Therefore the university may more focus on the development of education's system than dressing.
14. No one doesn't wear the uniform
15. even though there are only a few things against the rules.

(3) Suwanan's Text (above average):

1. The first time [[that I wore a uniform in my primary school]], I was very proud of it
2. It made me think
3. that I was a lucky girl.
4. There are many children want to wear it
5. but they have no chance.
6. They want to go to school with uniform like other children
7. but they can't.
8. They have no money.
9. They come from poor families.
10. I think
11. I have good luck to have a chance to wear uniform
12. and go to school with grace.
13. Uniform makes people polite.
14. It's a good thing and suitable for students.
15. It makes me proud whenever I wear.
16. Wearing uniform go to the classroom is paying respect to teachers and institution.
17. A person who does not wear a uniform will be gazed
18. as if he/she is a stranger.
19. He/She wears private cloth
20. while other wear uniform.
21. He/she may think

22. that it make him/her comfort.
23. I agree
24. that private cloth make us feel fine
25. but while we are studying at school or university
26. we should wear it.
27. Private suit is impolite in school.
28. Uniform makes all of student are unity.
29. They feel
30. they are the same as others when they wear.
31. No one want to be a stranger,
32. so we have to do something like the others.
33. The most important, we should not destroy our institution by doing something break its rule.
34. We should do anything to keep our institution
35. and keep it continue.

(4) Aree's Text (above average):

1. Thailand is a city [[that has many rules about dressing]].
2. Thai people must to know about the situation
3. and dress up in appropriate clothes.
4. For example when we go to the funeral,
5. we should to dress up with a white back cloth, as same as the uniform of students.
6. Since I was young
7. I can remember
8. that I always wear a uniform
9. and always dress it correctly.
10. I had think that why?
11. It is just a cloth,
12. it is not has any effect for my study or my grade.
13. Although I did not wear uniform,
14. I can study well.
15. It is not concern each other.
16. Many countries in Europe and America the students did not wear uniform
17. but they can graduate with an efficant.
18. But now I change my opinion,
19. I think
20. it is a good way to wear uniform because of many factor such as it look polite and reduce the different between the students

21. because each students have not equal their own economic,
someone rich {Minor Clause}
22. and can have a beautiful decorate
but someone poor {Minor Clause}
23. and cannot have a change to buy expensive or band things.
24. These problems can make the students envy each other and try to be
equal.
25. So I think
26. it is good to wear uniform.
27. But I think
28. the students in the university, they are adults,
29. they have their own thinking,
30. they are ready to go to work.
31. It is not correct to force them to wear uniform.
32. I do not mean
33. that they do not wear uniform
but just a form {Minor Clause}
34. and they can have free style such as they can wear short skirt or
colored their hair
35. but they are still in the frame of uniform.
36. The teacher do not force them in the style.

(5) Suda's Text (below average):

1. Wearing uniform in the classroom is important and necessary in Thai's schools or universities because of the rule which the government had ordered to use this rule for a long time.
2. This is a good rule about having unity in our school
but sometime it more stricky such as in the universities, {Minor Clause}
3. they tell
4. every students should dress uniform by white shirt, black skirt, black shoes or white shoes, black trouser,
5. this is all right for primary and secondary school where the students are children and young
6. but it is not suitable to have stricky rule for students at university
7. because this students is adult,
8. they can decide what they do or don't.
9. So wearing uniform in university is a little rule
10. that is less important than having education.
11. In my opinion, wearing unifrom in university is good
if not stricky. {Minor Clause}
12. Wearing white shirt, black or blue or polite color skirt and touser is enough,
13. or wearing with polite dresses are good looking for the student in universities.
14. We should concern about learning, teaching and having education instead wearing uniform,

15. I don't mean
16. that we can dress every dresses we want
17. but I mean
18. we should wear the polite dresses in our classroom
19. and take care of our education.

(6) Chutida's Text (below average):

1. In Thailand, many students must wear uniform to go to the school
2. since they were 3 years old.
3. Mostly of them must wear the same uniform
4. although they don't stay in the same school.
5. However, when I studied in primary school or secondary school or high school,
6. I didn't wear the uniform look like the another school.
7. I thought
8. if anyone looked at my uniform,
9. he can know //what school I studied//.
10. I think
11. it is good idea to show my uniform.
12. When I studied in the university at the first year.
13. I found everybody in every university has the same uniform.
14. I think
15. it is good idea.
16. But sometime I saw
17. somebody wear the T-shirt and jean to go to the classroom;
18. I think
19. it is not good
20. because I think
21. everybody must respect his or her teacher.
22. In Thai culture, I think

23. you must wear the uniform when you go to the classroom
24. because it is one way to respect your teacher.
25. However, somebody said
26. in the west, the students can wear the shirt or T-shirt and jean to go to the classroom.
27. I think
28. it is the west culture
29. and their coun(try) is cold.
30. I think
31. they wear jean to help their body's temperature.
32. But now, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences want me to change my uniform to correct the law.
33. But it made us to be trouble
34. because many people have the wrong uniform.
35. I think
36. if I wear the white shirt and black shirt,
37. for me it is good.
38. However, I don't know why the teachers make this law to control us.
39. For me, I think
40. I should were the uniform to go to the classroom
41. but I think
42. the teachers shouldn't control the style of uniform
43. because I know
44. what is good

Topic 2: Should rainforests be saved?

(1) Tipa's Text (average):

1. Rainforests are the important resources for human beings.
2. We get a lot of advantages from them,
3. but some people do not care.
4. Therefore, rainforest destruction occurs at the high rate.
5. This leads to many problems.
6. The local water cycle is affected
7. when plenty of trees are cut down.
8. Trees' roots absorb rainfall and ground water.
9. Then, the water is released through the leaves into the atmosphere.
10. After that, it falls again.
11. If the trees are destroyed,
12. drought will occur.
13. If there are no trees,
14. soil erosion will happen.
15. As there are no giant trees' roots to absorb the rainfall,
16. the rain blows away topsoil which is full of nutrients to the river.
17. For this reason, there is a lot of silt in the river.
18. If there is a rainstorm,
19. floods may happen
20. because the river is full of silt.
21. The cause of "the Greenhouse Effect" is destruction of trees.
22. Many human activities such as the burning of rainforests to get more land for cultivation, and wild fires increase the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.
23. As carbon dioxide rises into the atmosphere,
24. it will trap the earth's heat.
25. This process is called "the Greenhouse Effect".
26. If it occurs,
27. the temperature will be higher.
28. Further, there might be floods
29. because the high temperature makes the ice-covered areas of world melt.
30. If the deforestation occurs,
31. the plants that are the source of important medicine components will disappear.
32. We can find many plants that contain the medicine components from the rainforest, for example, the rosy periwinkle for leukaemia, the calabar for eye disorders, and the cinchona tree for malaria.
33. If the trees are cut down,
34. it means these medicinal plants will be gone as well

35. Because they hardly grow in the dry land.
36. There are many kinds of animals that have become extinct,
37. and more of them will become extinct in the future because the loss of rainforests.
38. They are killed for food,
and sometimes, for some people who want to keep their whelps as pets, such as bears, deer, elephants, tigers, and monkeys.
39. Besides, the forest which is the habitat of animals is being destroyed.
40. This leads to food shortages which results in animals' starvation.
41. When the starvation happens,
42. they become extinct.
43. In conclusion, we will face many serious problems
44. if we still destroy rainforests.
45. Consequently, we should save them with all our strength.

(2) Anchana's text (average):

1. Rain forests have a significant role in maintaining ecosystem in our world,
2. although they occupy only seven percent of the Earth's land surface.
3. Nowadays our natural resources are being destroyed at a dangerous rate.
4. They should be of our immediate concern
5. since they are our priceless resources.
6. Rain forests are important to people
7. as they provide us with potential medicines.
8. At least a quarter of the world's most important medicine are based on rainforest plants: the rosy periwinkle of Madagascar for leukaemia and the calabar bean of west Africa for eye disorders.
9. Some species of trees found in the Amazon and Australia contain substance which can possibly cure AIDS.
10. As you can see,
11. many useful medicines are mostly derived from rainforest;
12. therefore, we ought to preserve them.
13. Otherwise, there might be no medicines for us to fight many new and incurable diseases in the future.
14. An amazing number of food and drinks, which we consume in our everyday life, come from rain forest plants: coffee, banana, cacao, avocados, rice, tea and nutmeg.
15. If we still cut down many trees,
16. people may have neither food nor drinks to consume any longer.
17. Rain forest are necessary for keeping the equilibrium of rainfall cycle.
18. If huge areas of rain forests are destroyed,
19. the local rainfall cycle in (is) affected which may cause serious droughts.
20. Since they have the main character to produce the rain.
21. It starts when the huge trees, absorb a great deal of water into their roots,
22. Later the water will be released as a vapour through the trees' leaves.
23. The evaporated water will condense into clouds in the atmosphere to fall as rain.
24. If keeping this equilibrium is well taken care,
25. we will have to face with any droughts.
26. Rain forest can also prevent our world from the greenhouse effect.
27. Many human activities: the burning of tropical rain forests significantly increases the amount of gas called carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other greenhouse gases in our atmosphere which make our earth's climate change.

28. As CO₂ rises into the atmosphere,
29. it traps the earth's heat
30. and also let less heat energy escape back into the atmosphere.
31. If many green plants in our rain forests, which are mainly
responsible for absorbing CO₂ as part of making process called
photosynthesis, are constantly being destroyed,
32. the temperature will continue to rise
33. and the summer will be longer and hotter.
34. In conclusion, rain forests are very necessary
35. because they are our priceless natural resources:
providing us with medicines and food and drinks, {Non-finite
Clause}
keeping the equilibrium of the rainfall {Non-finite Clause}
and protecting our world from the greenhouse effect {Non-finite
Clause}
36. Therefore we should not ignore them any longer.
37. Otherwise, it will be too late to save them.

(3) Suwanan's Text (above average):

1. Rainforests are importance for all creatures.
2. If rainforests are destroyed,
3. there will be bad effects occur as below.
4. Firstly, cutting the trees down causes plants and animals have become extinct.
5. If the trees are destroyed,
6. many kinds of plants and animals are in danger.
7. There are many plant and animal species live in the forests which give abundant food for their living.
8. Forests provide good preys for animals and good soil for plants to grow.
9. Since the destruction of forests, {Non-Finite Clause} many plant and animal species are vanished and in danger such as orangutan in South Asia, monkey-eating eagle in Philippines and tiger in South Asia.
10. Secondly, destroying many trees cause greenhouse effect.
11. The sun sends the heat through Ozone layer to the earth's surface.
12. But the heat is sent back into the atmosphere because rainforests destruction.
13. For the reason that the trees use carbon dioxide (CO₂) gas in photosynthesis,
14. if there are no trees,
15. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) gas will be increased in the atmosphere.
16. The sun's heat is trapped there.
17. As the heat can not escape from the earth,
18. the temperature rises.
19. The consequences of higher temperature are the melting of ice which cover the earth,
20. the rising of sea levels and the summer will be hotter and longer.
21. Thirdly, destruction many trees can causes of soil problem.
22. Having no trees to cover the ground is not good for soil surface.
23. It can be damaged easily
24. because there is nothing to protect.
25. Rain washes the nutrients of soil away
26. and it is not good for plants to grow.
27. Finally, the destruction of rainforests causes the disappearance of native people.
28. Rainforests are not only important for plants and animals,
29. they are also essential for tribal people who have lived there for many years from generation to generation.
30. Rainforests people have lived on farming, fishing and hunting.
31. If their homelands are attacked,
32. they have no places to live.
33. Moreover, rainforests people have knowledge about medicinal plants which are useful for curing some illnesses.

34. For examples, the calabar bean of West Africa is used to cure eye disorders,
35. the papaya of Latin America is used to treat stomach illnesses,
36. and Quinine which gets from the bark of cinchona tree, is used to fight malaria.
37. If these native people are killed or lost,
38. the world will lose some knowledge about medicinal plants too.
39. Creatures can not survive without rainforests.
40. It is time for us to stop destroying rainforests in order to save and keep it forever.

(4) Aree's Text (above average):

1. Rainforest has a lot of benefits for human beings and creatures.
2. For example, it is a house of animals and rainforest people, a source of rainforest medicines and good.
3. But now our rainforest is in danger from rainforest destruction.
4. Many large areas of rainforest around the world are being destroyed.
5. So it is the time to solve this problem
6. because it causes many problems which affect everyone.
7. Firstly, if rainforest is destroyed,
8. the water cycle will be affected.
9. Tree is an important thing for the water cycle
10. because its roots are used in storing water before releasing as a vapour through the leaves
11. and condenses into clouds
12. and fall again as rain.
13. This process called transpiration.
14. If the tree is destroyed,
15. this process can not occur.
16. The shortage of rain will follow.
17. Further, the problems which can happen later are droughts and floods
18. because there is no rainforest to store water.
19. Secondly, cutting down rainforest causes the greenhouse effect.
20. When the rainforest is cut down and burned to clear land,
21. Carbon dioxide gas is released into the air.
22. As this gas rises into the atmosphere,
23. it traps the earth's heat.
24. This causes the temperature of our world rises.
25. At higher temperatures, it causes ice-covered areas of the earth could melt
26. and sea levels could rise.
27. The season will be changeable.
28. In addition, the topsoil will be damaged.
29. If there is no rainforest to protect the topsoil,
30. it will be damaged
31. because it will lack nutrition
32. and is not suitable to grow plants.
33. Finally, a large number of plants and animals are destroyed.
34. These plants and animals get used to the environment in rainforests.
35. When rainforest is cut down,
36. plants and animals are also destroyed.
37. They will lack of homes and food.
38. It is impossible for them to adapt themselves for survival in another place.
39. Nowadays many kinds of animals are killed for selling.

40. Many kinds of them already extinct such as dave langur,
jentink's dulker and manatee.
41. In addition, rainforest people will also extinct.
42. They spend all their lives in rainforest.
43. They know many useful things
44. and have a good knowledge about medicinal rainforest.
45. If these people are destroyed,
46. we will lose the knowledge about rainforest medicines.
47. In conclusion, everyone knows
48. the rainforest is very important to our life,
49. the destruction of rainforest causes many problems: greenhouse
effect, floods, draughts, plants, animals and rainforest people
extinction.

(5) Suda's Text (below average):

1. Rainforests are located at tropical areas such as South East Asia, Africa, South America.
2. They give many great importance such as food, medicine and house for every life on the earth.
3. When people use a lot of rain forests' s resource,
4. they will cut many trees down.
5. So rain forests are disappeared
6. and many problem are become.
7. "Greenhouse Effect" is the most environment problem
8. that we well know
9. It cause by people cut down rainforests
10. and burn them to clean land.
11. Thus, trees will release carbon dioxide into the air
12. and it rise into the atmosphere.
13. It traps the earth's heat.
14. The weather will be hotter.
15. This are cause of heat wave and drought.
16. Finally rainforests become deciduous forests.
17. Moreover, when the temperature is warm.
18. It can make ice shelves melt
19. and the level of sea water will higher.
20. So many animals and human who survival around there will be injure,
21. for example: the Antarctica shelves which cover 15 million square kms. have melt every day because of impact of climate change on the Antarctic continent.
22. It make the ice which surround around the continent's ground are disintegrated along the coastline of northern penisula.
23. It has brought down the masses of breeding Adelie penguins from 15,200 pairs to remain 9,200 pairs.
24. So many penguines become extinct.
25. New scientist have predicted:
26. if the carbon dioxide continue to rise of 21st century,
27. it will warm the ocean for at least serveral more centuries.
28. This will be possible dire consequences.
29. In conclusion, we know
30. that rainforests give many important resource for us.
31. Nowadays they will be losing.
32. So we should cooperate to save this valueable resources together.

(6) Chutida's Text (below average):

1. Rainforests are the main food sources for human-beings and animals.
2. However, they are cutting down which is the cause of green house effect.
3. The forests have the food from plants and animals, such as, banana, orange, seed and nut.
4. They have many nutritions: protein, cabohydrate, fat, vitamins and minerals.
5. They are the most important for forest-people
6. because if we destroy the rainforest,
7. we will destroy their foods and their shelters.
8. Green house effect is the crisis which the earth is hotter because of human activities, especially the burning of tropical rainforest,
9. increase amount of carbondioxide (CO2) and other green house effect gases.
10. In normal, the sun send the heat and energy to the earth.
11. It can make the earth to be warm surface.
12. After that, the earth can send the heat back to the atmosphere.
13. But nowadays, it allow less heat and energy to escape back to the earth.
14. As a result, the temperatures in the air and on the ground are hotter
15. and ice covered area of the earth could melt
16. and sea levels could rise.
17. In conclusion, rainforests give a lot of benefits for us.
18. But now, the number of them decrease.
19. As you can see,
20. we should save our rainforest.

Topic 3: Should smoking be banned in public places?

(1) Tipa's Text (average):

1. People ail easily because of smoking.
2. It has disadvantages, for example, to have short-term and long-term effects, and to annoy other people.
3. Smoking is harmful not just to smokers but to non-smokers too.
4. Non-smokers may get a chance to ail by other people's cigarette smoke.
5. Although you are not smoke
6. if you work in a very smoky environment,
7. you have higher risk to be lung cancer than other people.
8. Consequently, you breath in other people's smoke every day.
9. Not only lung cancer but also other ailments that you can be, for example, narrowing of blood vessels, in heart and brain, shortness of breath, and cough and respiratory infections.
10. If you get cigarette's smoke during pregnancy,
11. it affects to your baby.
12. Cigarette's smoke is harmful to your baby.
13. It could effect to his health.
14. He may be heart attack
15. since he is born.
16. Cigarette's smoke annoy to other people.
17. Some non-smokers can not stand the cigarette's smoke because of their allergies.
18. Smoke makes their eyes water and their throat dry.
19. Some people can not breath in
20. if there is person smokes near them.
21. Non-smokers may ill by smokers' selfishness,
22. smoke everywhere they want without thinking that wherever they should and should not.
23. Nobody wants to work at the place that fulls of smoke.
24. If he can choose,
25. he may not stay there.
26. On the other hand, if he can not choose,
27. how should he do?
28. Smoking makes smokers has bad characters.
29. If you want to contact with someone
30. and you see
31. that he smokes all the time,
32. how do you feel?
33. Smoker may has bad breath, staining of teeth and fingers, and increase hand tremor.
34. Nobody do not want to talk with these people because of their bad characters.
35. Moreover they destroy the air along with their health.
36. In conclusion, you will know
37. that smoke has disadvantages.

- | | |
|-----|---|
| 38. | It is not unfair for non-smokers |
| 39. | if we allow smokers can smoke everywhere they want. |
| 40. | It should have the smoking areas for smokers |
| 41. | and not allow them to smoke in public places. |

(2) Anchana's Text (average):

1. Smoking can damage the health
2. and cause a lot of dangerous diseases.
3. Large number of people continue to smoke in many public areas
4. in spite of the fact that there are many warning signs.
5. These habits can be harmful not only the smokers but also non-smokers.
6. If smoking is not strictly banned in public places
7. many people, especially the non-smokers will affect many aspects; eg many serious diseases, a serious fire and especially for many pregnant women who are exposed to other people's smoking can damage their babies too.
8. There are many diseases caused by smoking.
9. Scientists show that many people who keep exposing to other people's cigarettes smoke for a long time may face a 30 percent of risk of lung cancer and other hard diseases, such as chronic bronchitis, cancer of larynx, kidney, bladder, mouth and stomach ulcer.
10. These diseases show that it has a terrible effect to us, even only passive smoking.
11. Another effect of smoking is a serious fire, especially in crowded areas like discos, pubs and also gas station.
12. It happens when some smokers drop the rest of the cigarette and then it may be cause a serious fire.
13. Accident can happen every time,
14. if we still keep smoking.
15. So it is an unuseful thing for us.
16. The exposure to other people's smoke during pregnancy is linked to babies born underweight.
17. There are another danger effects to babies, eg being handicap and even be died.
18. It means some pregnant women get accidentally abortion, too.
19. This is very big problem of smoking which damage a pure baby.
20. In conclusion the three aspects of smoking can demonstrate that smoking causes such serious problems to many non-smoker;
21. therefore it should be certainly banned.

(3) Suwanan's Text (above average):

1. Presently, smoking in public places around the world is being banned.
2. Many signs of "No smoking" are pinned up in everywhere such as cinemas and restaurants.
3. This action shows that nowhere wants cigarette smoking anymore.
4. Many people want to eliminate it
5. because it has only the disadvantages which make everyone suffer.
6. Cigarette smoking can damage people's health.
7. Everytime that smokers light the cigarettes
8. and inhale the smoke.
9. It means that they are shortening their lives.
10. In cigarette, there are two substances: nicotine and tar which cause many kinds of cancer such as cancer of lung, kidney, larynx, oesophagus, bladder and mouth.
11. Beside, smoking can increase heart rate, blood pressure and levels of carbon dioxide.
12. Smoke of cigarette is also harmful health of non-smokers.
13. Although these people do not smoke,
14. they are also affected by the cigarette smoking as same as the smokers.
15. When the people exhale the smoke,
16. the people around them will inhale it into their lungs.
17. This smoke can make these people harmful, especially the pregnant women and the babies in their bellies.
18. If their mothers receive too much smoke,
19. the babies will be born ahead of time or underweight.
20. Furthermore, they may be delivered prematurely.
21. Fires are caused by cigarette smoking.
22. Many buildings and forests must be destroyed by fires.
23. When the people smoke,
24. they will throw the stumps on the floor without extinguishing them.
25. So, they cause many fires which destroy a lot of lives and properties.
26. In conclusion, cigarette smoking does not have any advantage for the smokers and the other people around them.
27. It causes people's health problems which shorten their lives.
28. In addition, many people have to lose both of lives and properties because of fires which are made by cigarette smoking.
29. Therefore, if we want to save our lives and properties,
30. we should ban smoking in public places.

(4) Aree's Text (above average):

1. Nowadays, many people addicted smoking more and more.
2. Smoking is not only harm to those smokers
but also affecting to non-smokers. {Non-finite Clause}
3. Eventhough, many public places already have specific areas for
smoking,
4. but it also risk of health problems by breathing in other people's
smoke.
5. So it should be the strict rule for smokers in public places.
6. Smoking disturbs working in public places.
7. Usually, many public places such as pubs, discos and hotels are
fill with smoky environment.
8. The worker will be affected from smoking
9. such as makes their hair and clothes smell, their eyes water and
their throat dry.
10. Further, it also give them cancer
11. because they have to work in these smoky places for a long time
12. and the other people's cigarratte smoke are amassed in their
bodies more and more.
13. Cancer is the one dangerous from smoking.
14. Both smokers and non-smokers die as a result of cancer caused
by smoking.
15. For examples about 40,000 people die from lung cancer in UK.
16. And non-smokers may face a 30 percent higher risk of lung
cancer from the other people's cigarette smoke.
17. In addition, smoking has direct effect to the pregnant women
and is linked to their babies.
18. Smoking causes the babies' weight,
19. they will being born underweight and being bad health.
20. We can notice from difference in birthweight between exposed
and unexposed women.
21. Finally, smoking affected sexual efficiency.
22. Somebody thinks
23. that smoking can reduce unusual the sexual intercourse.
24. But in fact, smoking causes many problems in sexuality.
25. It has a direct effect to the ovary in women
26. and reduce an efficant of sperm in men.
27. It is very hard to being pregnant.
28. In conclusion, smoking has many disadvantages:
29. disturb working in public places,
30. causes lung cancer,
31. causes direct effect to pregnant women
32. and affected sexual efficiency.
33. So it is time to campaign that smoking be banned in public
places.
34. Every people will not risk of smoking.

(5) Suda's Text (below average):

1. Smoking damages either smokers and non-smokers.
2. It cause to the health problem and social problem.
3. Smoking in public place such as cinema, restaurant, pub and office effect to both smoker and non-smokers.
When they inhaling smoke, {Non-finite Clause}
4. the chemical compound which in cigarette will keep into their body.
5. It can make many disease such as cancer of lung, chronic bronchities and the narrowing of bood vessels in heart and brain.
6. These are long term effect which make the patients are serious
7. and they must spend more time to treat them.
8. Some disease can't treat,
9. eventually, the patients will die.
10. Beside it is effected to woman who pregant.
11. Mother who smoke during pregnancy or breath the smoke from smokers can effect to their babies being born underweigh.
12. Also smoker parents may increase the respiratory illness to their children.
13. They become unhealthy children.
14. Moreover smoking is cause to social problem:
15. when smokers are carless,
16. he or she discarded cigarettes into the fuel stock such as dustbin, or leafes,
17. they will be fire
18. and damage many people to lose their house.
19. In conclusion, although there are the places for smokers,
20. it is not enough to gard against the danger.
21. Many non-smokers are still risk the bad effect from smoking.
22. So we should segregate the smoker in the public places.

(6) Chutida's Text (below average):

1. Cigarette can make danger for us, no matter smoker or non-smoker.
2. Do you think,
3. should we ban it?
4. Cigarette must harm for you,
5. such as if you are smoking,
6. cigarette will made your hair, body and cloth smell.
7. And it also makes your eyes water and your throat dry.
8. However, they are only the first step of danger.
9. Smoking effect has the short-term and long-term.
10. Short-term effect is increased blood pressure, increased production of stomach acid and increased level of carbondioxide, causing dizziness.
11. And the long-term effect is cancer of lung/ laryne/ kidney/ oesophagus/ bladder/ mouth, narrowing/ hardening of blood and vessels in heart or brain.
12. Smoking has the effect to sex power.
13. Sex power is not only the feeling or sexual intercourse
14. but it's also propagation.
15. It means you should decrease your ability to give birth to a child
16. because it reduces the number of spermatic fluid to be less
17. and it has after effect to ovary.
18. Ovary is very important for sex,
19. especially it can make the egg to mate with spermatic fluid.
20. Moreover, it is hard hit a child within the body: have a abortion, be born before expected and be born underweight.
21. People who around the smokers can be danger
22. because they breath the cigarette smoke.
23. Nowaday 30% of non-smoker risk to be cancer.
24. In addition, smoking can make cancer out of with spermatic fluid
25. and if they always go to in the vagina,
26. the uterus can be cancer.
27. Although female doesn't smoke.
28. In conclusion, we can see
29. cigarette has many disadvantages.
30. It doesn't have benefits.
31. So, we should ban it.

Topic 1: Should students wear uniforms to the classroom?

(1) Suwanna's text ('above average' group):

Should students wear uniform to the classroom?

The first time that I wore a uniform in my primary school, I was very proud of it. It made me think that I was a lucky girl. There are many children want to wear it but they have no chance. They want to go to school with uniform like other children but they can't. They have no money. They come from poor families. I think I have good luck to have a chance to wear uniform and go to school with grace.

Uniform makes people polite. It's a good thing and suitable for students. It makes me proud whenever I wear. Wearing uniform go to the classroom is paying respect to teachers and institution.

A person who does not wear a uniform will be gazed as if he/she is a stranger. He/She wears private cloth while other wear uniform. He/She may think that it make him/her comfort. I agree that private cloth make us feel fine but while we are studying at school or university we should wear it. Private suit is ∴ impolite in school.

Uniform makes all of student are unity. They feel they are the same as others when they wear. No one want to be a stranger, so we have to do something like the others.

The most important, we should not destroy our institution by doing something break its rule. We should do anything to keep our institution and keep it continue.

(2) Aree's text ('above average' group):

Should students wear uniform to the classroom

Thailand is a city that has many rules about dressing. Thai people must to know about the situation and dress up in appropriate clothes. For example when we go to the funeral, we should to dress up with a white-back clothes. It is the same as the uniform of students. Since I was young I can remember that I always wear a uniform and always dress it correctly. I had think that why? It is just a cloth, it is not has any effect for my study or my grade. Although I did not wear uniform, I can study well. It is not concern each other. Many countries in Europe and America, the students did not wear uniform but they can graduate with an efficient. But now I change my opinion, I think it is a good way to wear uniform because of many factor, such as it look polite and reduce the different between the students because each students have not equal their own economic, someone rich and can have a beautiful decorate but someone poor and cannot have a chance to buy expensive or brand things. These problem can make the students envy each other and try to be equal. So I think it is good to wear uniform.

But I think the students in the university, they are adults, they have their own thinking, they are ready to go to work. It is not correct to force them to wear uniform. I don't mean that they don't wear uniform, but just a form and they can have free style such as they can wear short skirt or colored their hair but they are still in the frame of uniform. The teacher is not force them in the style.

My friend is in faculty of management, she don't agree with this idea. She tell me that her faculty teach to be a modern woman because they should work ~~in~~ with many people such as in majoring in hotel and travelling or majoring in financial. Their teacher teach them to make up and take care themselves to always beautiful. So when the university rules this, they don't think so.

For me, I can do it, it is not hard or complicate for me but I don't think so anymore. but I think if all the students wear up if from it seems look like a prisoner in the prison.

(3) Tipa's text ('average' group):

Should Students Wear Uniform to The Classroom?

If there are people ask me that I know the word uniform or not, certainly I answer him or her that I know. As I notice many places in Thailand, ^{universities} ~~colleges, schools, institutes,~~ that have the rule "Every people must wear the uniform." I ~~accept~~ know that most of people agree with it or not. For me, it depends on place, appropriation and many things in each place.

Since beginning the second term of this educated year. There is something that make students of Khon Kaen University shocked, it is a ^{new} ~~new~~ rule about uniform of university. Sure me is one person who was shocked about this rule. ~~because~~ the rule which I listened is very very strict. I don't want to believe that this is university but is ~~the~~ school. Before I studied here, most of people told me that when you studied at university nobody is fussy about your clothes. However, ~~now~~ now it is very contrast with the thing that I have listened. On the other hand, I know that ~~this~~ ~~rule~~ there is this rule because of tidiness. I will accept this rule if it is not as ^{strict} ~~tidy~~ as the rule that I ~~have~~ ^{have} listened. However, I accept that students should wear uniform, I accept it. I think the university should interest the education or ~~some~~ ^{other} thing that ~~make~~ raise the level of university more uniform. I think should forbid the private suit and screened shirt if you want tidiness.

This is only is one example. ~~from~~ I think before the university does something, you should ask the idea from students. Do you remember there is one statement "No dictatorship in Thailand" But now it is contrast in Khon Kaen University. I want to say something. [!] Something is much more is not good.

(4) Anchana's text ('average' group):

Wearing uniform to the classroom is very typical for Thai students. Many thais think it is polite to wear the white shirt and black skirt for women to school while the men have to wear the white shirt and black trousers.

As for me I think wearing uniform is good idea but we should not be serious too much about styles. I mean the person's styles such as wearing a mini-skirt, fashionable shoes and so on. However dressing is not influenced to study. It can't make your study better and worse. It mainly depends on yourself. How diligent you are.

Therefore the university may more focus on the development of education's system than dressing. No one does not wear the uniform even though there are only a few things against the rules.

(5) Suda's text ('below average' group):

Should students wear uniform to the classroom?

Wearing uniform in the classroom is important and necessary in Thai's schools or universities because of ^{the} rule which the government had ordered to use this rule for a long time. This is a good rule about having unity in our school but sometime it more stricky such as in the universities, they tell every students should dress uniform by white shirt, ~~black~~ black shirt, black shoes or white shoes, black trouser, this is alright for primary and secondary school where the students are children and young but it is not suitable to have stricky rule for students at university because this students is adult, they ~~have~~ can decide what they ~~do~~ ^{do} don't. So wearing uniform in university is a little rule that is less important than having education.

In my opinion, wearing uniform in university is good if not stricky. ~~Wearing black shirt~~ Wearing white shirt, black or blue or polite color shirt and trouser is enough, or wearing with polite dresses are good looking for the student in universities. We should concern about learning, teaching and having education instead wearing uniform, I don't mean that we can dress every dresses we want but I mean we should wear the polite dresses in our classroom and take care of our education.

(6) Chutida's text ('below average' group):

Should students wear uniform to the classroom?

In Thailand, many students must wear uniform to go to the school since they were 3 years old. ~~Almost~~ Mostly of them must wear the same uniform although they don't study in the same school.

However, when I studied in primary school or secondary school or high school, I didn't wear the uniform look like the another school. I thought if anyone looked at my uniform, he can know what school I studied. I think it is good idea to show my uniform.

When I studied in the university at the first year. I found everybody in every university has the same uniform. I think it is good idea. But sometime I saw somebody wear the T-shirt and jeans to go to the classroom; I think it is not good because I think everybody must respect his or her teacher.

In that culture, I think you must wear the uniform when you go to the classroom because it is one way to respect your teacher. However, somebody said in ^{the} West, the students can wear ^{the} shirt or T-shirt and jeans to go to the classroom. I think it is the West culture and their count is cold. I think they wear jeans to help their ^{body's} temperature.

But now, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences want me to change my uniform to correct the law. But it made us to ^{be} trouble. because many people have the wrong uniform. - I think if I wear the white shirt and black skirt, for me it is good. However, I don't know why the teachers make this law to control us.

For me, I think I should wear the uniform to go to the classroom but I think the teachers shouldn't control the style of uniform because I know what is good and what is bad. Do you think about it?

Topic 2: Should rainforests be saved?

(1) Suwanna's text ('above average' group):

Disadvantages of rainforests destruction

Rainforests are importance for all creatures. If rainforests are destroyed, there will be bad effects occur as below.

Firstly, cutting the trees down causes plants and animals have become extinct. If the trees are destroyed, many kinds of plants and animals are in danger. There are many plant and animal species live in the forests which give abundant food for their living. Forests provide good preys for animals and good soil for plants to grow. Since the destruction of forests, many plant and animal species are vanished and in danger such as Orangutan in South Asia, monkey-eating eagle in Philippines and tiger in South Asia.

Secondly, destroying many trees cause greenhouse effect.

The sun sends the heat through Ozone layer to the earth's surface. But the heat is sent back into the atmosphere because rainforests destruction.

For the reason that the trees use carbon dioxide (CO_2) gas in photosynthesis,

if there are no trees, Carbon dioxide (CO_2) gas will be increased in the atmosphere. The sun's heat is trapped there. As the heat can not escape

from the earth, the temperature rises. The consequences of higher temperature

are the melting of ice which cover the earth, the rising of sea levels and the summer will be hotter and longer.

Thirdly, destruction many trees can causes of soil problem. Having no trees to cover the ground is not good for soil surface. It can be damaged easily because there is nothing to protect. Rain washes the nutrients of soil away and it is not good for plants to grow.

Finally, the destruction of rainforests causes the disappearance of native people. Rainforests are not only important for plants and animals, they are also essential for tribal people who have lived there for many years from generation to generation. Rainforests people have lived on farming, fishing and hunting. If their homelands are attacked, they have no places to live. Moreover, rainforests people have knowledge about medicinal plants which are useful for curing some illnesses. For examples, the calabar bean of West Africa is used to cure eye disorders, the papaya of Latin America is used to treat stomach illnesses, and Quinine^{which} gets from the bark of cinchona tree, is used to fight malaria. If these native people are killed or lost, the world will lose some knowledge about medicinal plants too.

Creatures can not survive without rainforests. It is time for us to stop destroying rainforests in order to save and keep it forever.

(2) Aree's text ('above average' group):

The result of rainforest destruction

Rainforest has a lot of benefits for human beings and creatures.

For example, it is a home of animals and rainforest people, a source of rainforest medicines and food. But now our rainforest is in danger from rainforest destruction. Many large areas of rainforest around the world are being destroyed. So it is the time to solve this problem because it causes many problems which affect everyone.

Firstly, if rainforest is destroyed, the water cycle will be affected. Tree is an important thing for the water cycle because its roots are used in storing water before releasing as a vapour through the leaves and condenses into clouds and fall again as rain. This process called transpiration. If the tree is destroyed, this process can not occur. The shortage of rain will follow. Further, the problems which can happen later are droughts and floods because there is no rainforest to store water.

Secondly, cutting down rainforest causes the greenhouse effect.

When the rainforest is cut down and burned to clear the land, carbon dioxide gas is released into the air. As this gas

rises into the atmosphere, it traps the earth's heat. This causes the temperature of our world rises. At higher temperatures, it causes ice-covered areas of the earth could melt and sea levels could rise. The season will be changeable.

In addition, the topsoil will be damaged. If there is no rainforest to protect the topsoil, it will be damaged because it will lack nutrition and is not suitable to grow plants.

Finally, a large number of plants and animals are destroyed.

These plants and animals get used to the environment in rainforests.

When rainforest is cut down, plants and animals are also destroyed.

They will lack of homes and food. It is impossible for them to adapt themselves for survival in another place. Nowadays many kinds of animals are killed for selling. Many kinds of them already extinct such as dave langur, jentink's dvlker and manatee.

In addition, rainforest people will also extinct. They spend all their lives in rainforest. They know many useful things and have a good knowledge about medicinal rainforest. If these people are destroyed, we will lose the knowledge about rainforest medicines.

In conclusion, everyone knows the rainforest is very important
to our life, the destruction of rainforest causes many problems:
greenhouse effect, floods, draughts, plants, animals and rainforest people
extinction. So we should save it and warn our next generation
to save it so well.

(3) Tipa's text ('average' group):

Why Should We Save the Rainforests?

Rainforests are the important resources for human beings. We get a lot of advantages from them, but some people do not care. Therefore, rainforest destruction occurs at the high rate. This leads to many problems.

The local water cycle is affected when plenty of trees are cut down. Trees' roots absorb rainfall and ground water. Then, the water is released through the leaves into the atmosphere. After that, it falls again. If the trees are destroyed, drought will occur.

If there are no trees, soil erosion will happen. As there are no giant trees' roots to absorb the rainfall, the rain blows away topsoil which is full of nutrients to the river. For this reason, there is a lot of silt in the river. If there is a rainstorm, floods may happen because the river is full of silt.

The cause of "the Greenhouse Effect" is destruction of trees. Many human activities such as the burning of rainforests to get more land for cultivation, and wild fires increase the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. As carbon dioxide rises into the atmosphere, it will trap the earth's heat. This process is called "the Greenhouse Effect". If it occurs, the temperature will be higher. Further, there might be floods because the high temperature makes the ice-covered areas of the world melt.

If the deforestation occurs, the plants that are the source of important medicine components will disappear. We can find many plants that contain the medicine components from the rainforest, for example, the rosy periwinkle for leukaemia, the calabar for eye disorders, and the cinchona tree for malaria. If the trees are cut down, it means these medical plants will be gone as well because they hardly grow in the dry land.

There are many kinds of animals that have become extinct, and more of them will become extinct in the future because the loss of rainforests. They are killed for food, and sometimes, for some people who want to keep their whelps as pets, such as bears, deer, elephants, tigers, and monkeys. Besides, the forest which is the habitat of animals is being destroyed. This leads to food shortages which result in animals' starvation. When the starvation happens, they become extinct.

In conclusion, we will face many serious problems if we still destroy rainforests. Consequently, we should save them with all our strength.

(4) Anchana's text ('average' group):

Should We Conserve Rain forests?

Rain forests have a significant role in maintaining ecosystem in our world, although they occupy only seven percent of the Earth's land surface. Nowadays our natural resources are being destroyed at a dangerous rate. They should be of our immediate concern since they are our priceless resources.

Rain forests are important to people as they provide us with potential medicines. At least a quarter of the world's most important medicines are based on rain forest plants : the rosy periwinkle of Madagascar for leukaemia and the calabar bean of west Africa for eye disorders. Some species of trees found in the Amazon and Australia contain substance which can possibly cure AIDS. As you can see, many useful medicines are mostly derived from rain forest; therefore, we ought to preserve them. Otherwise, there might be no medicines for us to fight many new and incurable diseases in the future.

An amazing number of food and drinks, which we consume in our everyday life, come from rain forest plants : coffee , banana, cacao, avocados, rice, tea and nutmeg. If we still cut down many trees, people may have neither food nor drinks to consume any longer

Rain forest are necessary for keeping the equilibrium of rainfall cycle . If huge areas of rain forests are destroyed, the local rainfall cycle in affected which may cause serious droughts. Since they have the main character to produce the rain. It starts when the huge trees, absorb a great deal of water into their roots, Later the water will be released as a vapour through the trees' leaves. The evaporated water will condense into clouds in the atmosphere to fall as rain. If keeping this equilibrium is well taken care, we will have to face with any droughts.

Rain forest can also prevent our world from the greenhouse effect. Many human activities : the burning of tropical rain forests significantly increases the amount of gas called carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other greenhouse gases in our atmosphere which make our earth's climate change. As CO₂ rises into the atmosphere, it traps the earth's heat and also let less heat energy escape back into the atmosphere. If many green plants in our rain forests, which are mainly responsible for absorbing CO₂ as part of

making process called photosynthesis, are constantly being destroyed, the temperature will continue to rise and the summer will be longer and hotter.

In conclusion, rain forests are very necessary because they are our priceless natural resources : providing us with medicines and food and drinks, keeping the equilibrium of the rainfall and protecting our world from the greenhouse effect. Therefore we should not ignore them any longer. Otherwise, it will be too late to save them.

(5) Suda's text ('below average' group):

Why should we save rain forest.

Rain forests are located at tropical areas such as South East Asia , Africa , South America. They give many great importance such as food , medicine and house for every life on the earth. When people use a lot of rain forests 's resource , they will cut many trees down . So rain forests are disappeared and many problem are become .

"Greenhouse Effect" is the most environment problem that we well know .

It cause by people cut down rainforests and burn them to clean land. Thus , trees will release carbon dioxide into the air and it rise into the atmosphere .

It traps the earth's heat . The weather will be hotter . This is cause of heat wave and drought . Finally rain forests become deciduous forests .

Moreover , when the temperature is warm . It can make ice shelves melt and the level of sea water will higher . So many animals and human who survival around there will be injure , for example : the Antarctica shelves which cover 1.5 million square kms. have melt every day because of impact of climate change on the Antarctic continent . It make the ice which surround around the

continent's ground are disintegrated along the eastline of northern peninsula.

It has brought down the masses of breeding Adelie penguins from 18,200 pairs to remain 9,200 pairs. So many penguins become extinct.

New scientist have predicted : if the carbon dioxide continue rise of 21st century , it will warm the ocean for at least several more centuries . This will be possible dire consequences .

In conclusion , we know that rain forests give many important resource for us . Nowadays they will be losing . So we should cooperate to save this valueable resources together .

(6) Chutida's text ('below average' group):

Why should we save the rainforest?

Rainforests are the main food sources for human-beings and animals. However, they are cutting down which is the cause of green house effect.

The forests have the food from plants and animals, such as banana, orange, seed and nut. They have many nutrients: protein, carbohydrate, fat, vitamins and minerals. They are the most important for forest-people because if we destroy the rainforest, we will destroy their foods and their shelters.

Green house effect is the crisis which the earth is better because of human activities, especially the burning of tropical rainforest, increase amount of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other green house effect gases. In normal, the sun send the heat and energy to the earth, it can make the earth to be warm surface. After that, the earth can send the heat back to the atmosphere. But nowadays, it allow less heat and energy to escape back to the earth. As a result, the temperatures in the air and on the ground are hotter and ice-covered area of the earth could melt and sea levels could rise.

In conclusion, rainforests give a lot of benefits for us. But now, the number of them decrease. As you can see, we should save our rainforest.

Topic 3: Should smoking be banned in public places?

(1) Suwanna's text ('above average' group):

Should smoking be banned in public places?

Presently, smoking in public places around the world is being banned

Many signs of "No smoking" are pinned up in everywhere such as cinemas and restaurants. This action shows that nowhere wants cigarette smoking anymore. Many people want to eliminate it because it has only the disadvantages which make everyone suffer.

Cigarette smoking can damage people's health. Everywhere that smokers light the cigarettes and inhale the smoke. It means that they are shortening their lives. In cigarette there are two substances: nicotine and tar which cause many kinds of cancer such as cancer of lung, kidney, larynx, oesophagus, bladder and more. Beside, smoking can increase heart rate, blood pressure and levels of carbon dioxide.

Smoke of cigarette is also harmful health of non-smokers. Although these people do not smoke, they are also affected by the cigarette smoking. ^{as same as} When the people exhale the smoke, the people around them will inhale it into their lung. This smoke can make these people harmful especially the pregnant women and the babies in their bellies. If their mothers receive too much smoke, the babies will be born ahead of time or

underweight. Furthermore, they may be delivered prematurely.

Fires are caused by cigarette smoking. Many buildings and forest must be destroyed by fires. When the people smoke, they will throw the stumps on the floor without extinguishing them. So, they cause many fires which destroy a lot of lives and properties.

In conclusion, cigarette smoking does not have any advantage for the smokers and the other people around them. It causes people's health problems which shorten their lives. In addition, many people have to lose both of lives and properties because of fires which are made by cigarette smoking. Therefore, if we want to save our lives and properties, we should ban smoking in public places.

Finally, smoking affected sexual efficiency.
Somebody thinks that smoking can reduce ~~unusua~~ the sexual intercourse. But in fact, smoking causes many problems in sexuality. It has a ~~directly~~ effect to the ovary in women and reduce an efficiency of sperm in men. ^{It is very hard to being pregnant.} ~~These can cause hard to be pregnant.~~

In conclusion, smoking has many disadvantages: disturb working in public places, causes lung cancer, causes direct effect to pregnant women and affected sexual efficiency. So it is ~~the~~ time to campaign that smoking be banned in public places. Every people will ~~safe from~~ not risk of smoking.

(3) Tipa's text ('average' group):

Should Smoking Be Banned in Public Places?

People ail easily because of smoking. It has disadvantages, for example, to have short-term and long-term effects, and to annoy other people. Smoking is harmful not just to smokers but to non-smokers too.

Non-smokers may get a chance to ail by other people's cigarette smoke. Although you are not smoke if you work in a very smoky environment, you have higher risk to be lung cancer other people. Consequently, you breath in other people's smoke every day. Not only lung cancer but also other ailments that you can be, for example, narrowing of blood vessels in heart and brain, shortness of breath, and cough and respiratory infections.

If you got cigarette's smoke during pregnancy, it affects to your baby. Cigarette's smoke is harmful to your baby. It could effect to his health. He may be heart attack's since ~~the~~ is born.

Cigarette's smoke annoy to other people. Some non-smokers can not stand the cigarette smoke because of their allergies. Smoke makes their eyes water and their throat dry. Some people can not breath in if there is person smokes near them. Non-smokers may ill by smokers selfishness, smoke everywhere they want without thinking that wherever they should and should Nobody wants to work at the place that fulls of smoke. If he can choose, he m not stay there. On the other hand, if he can not choose, how should he do?

Smoking makes smokers has bad characters. If you want to contact with someone or you see that he ~~is~~ smokes all the time, how do you feel? Smoker may has bad breath, stain of teeth and fingers, and increase hand tremor. Nobody ~~can~~ do not want to talk with these people because of his ~~their~~ bad characters. Moreover they ~~is~~ destroy the air along with their health

In conclusion, you will ~~see~~ know that ~~there~~ smoke has ~~more~~ disadvantages. It is not unfair for non-smokers if ~~people~~ we allow smokers can smoke everywhere they want. ~~It~~ It should have the ~~is~~ areas for smokers, and not allow them to smoke in public places.

(4) Anchana's text ('average' group):

Should Smoking Be Banned in Public Places?

Smoking can damage the health and cause a lot of dangerous diseases. Large number of people continue to smoke in many public areas in spite of the fact that there are many warning signs. These habits can be harmful not only the smokers but also non-smokers. If smoking is not strictly banned in public places, many people, especially the non-smokers will affect many aspects, eg many serious diseases, a serious fire and especially for many pregnant who are exposed to other people's smoking can damage their babies, too.

There are many diseases caused by smoking. Scientists show that many people who keep exposing to other people's cigarettes smoke for a long time. may face a 30 percent of risk of lung cancer and other hard diseases, such as chronic bronchitis, cancer of larynx, kidney, bladder, mouth and stomach ulcer. These diseases show that it has a terrible-effect to us, even only passive smoking.

Another effect of smoking is a serious fire, especially in crowded areas like discos, pubs and also gas station.

It happens when some smokers drop the rest of the cigarette and then it may be cause a serious fire. Accident can happen every time, if we still keep smoking. So it is an unuseful, for us. thing

The exposure to other people's smoke during pregnancy is linked to babies born underweight. There are another danger effects to babies, eg being handicap and even died. It means some pregnant women get accidentally abortion, too. This is very big problem of smoking which damage a pure baby.

In conclusion the three aspects of smoking can demonstrate that smoking causes such serious problems to either smokers or many non-smokers; therefore it should be certainly banned.

(5) Suda's text ('below average' group):

Should smoking be banned in public places.

Smoking dammages either smokers and non-smokers. It cause to the health problem and social problem.

Smoking in public place such as cinema, restaurant, pub and office effect to both smokers and non-smokers. When they inhaling smoke, the chemical compound which in cigarette will keep into their body. It can make many disease such as cancer of lung, chronic bronchitis and the narrowing of blood vessels in heart and brain. These are long term effect which make the patients are serious and they must spend more time to treat them. Some disease can't treat, eventually, the patients will die.

Beside it is effected to woman who pregant. Mother who smoke during pregnancy or breath the smoke from smokers can effects to their babies being born underweigh. Also smoker parents may increase the respiratory illness to their children. They become unhealthy children.

Moreover smoking is cause to social problem: when smokers are careless, he or she discarded cigarettes into the fuel stack such as dustbin, or leafes, they will be fire and damage many people to keep their home. In conclusion, although there are the places for smokers, it's not enough to guard against the danger. Many non-smokers are still risk the bad effect from smoke. So we should segregate the smokers in the public places.

(6) Chutida's text ('below average' group):

Should smoking be banned?

Cigarette can make danger for us, no matter smoker or non-smoker. Do you think, should we ban it?

Cigarette must harm for you, such as if you are smoking, cigarette will make your hair, body and cloth smell. And it also makes your eyes water and your throat dry. However, they are only the first step of danger. Smoking effect has the short-term and long-term. Short-term effect is increased blood pressure, increased production of stomach acid and increased level of carbon dioxide, causing dizziness. And the long-term effect is cancer of lung, larynx, kidney, esophagus, bladder, mouth, narrowing, hardening of blood and vessels in heart or brain.

Smoking has the effect to sex power. Sex power is not the feeling or sexual intercourse but it's also propagation. It means you should decrease your ability to give birth to a child because it reduces the number of spermatic fluid to be less and it has aftereffect to ovary. Ovary is very important for sex, especially it can make the egg to mate with spermatic fluid. Moreover, it is hard hit a child with the body; have an abortion, be born before expected and be born underweight.

People who around the smokers can be danger because they breathe the cigarette smoke. Nowadays 50% of non-smoker risk to be cancer. In addition, smoking can make cancer out of spermatic fluid and it always go to in the vagina, the uterus can be danger. Although female doesn't smoke.

In conclusion, we can see cigarette has many disadvantages. It doesn't have benefits, so we should ban it.