Theme and cohesion in the writing of English expository texts by Chinese tertiary EFL learners

Ruiyun Xu

University of Wollongong

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Theme and Cohesion in the Writing of English Expository Texts by Chinese Tertiary EFL Learners

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

from

UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

by

Ruiyun Xu
BA (Hons), MA (Hons)

Faculty of Education, November 2000
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Abstract

This study, by using Halliday's systemic functional grammar (in particular, the textual function), investigates how Chinese EFL writers manipulate the flow of information; to what extent their control of English information structure and cohesion are affected by the Chinese language; to what extent cultural differences are involved in the students' use of textual resources (information structure and cohesion); and how these factors affect the degree of discourse coherence in writing on different topic titles (i.e. register).

In order to conduct this research, around 141 samples of Chinese EFL students' (aged 20–21, second-year science-major tertiary-levelled) English expository texts were collected with the assistance of university English teachers working in China. A small number of Australian native students' texts were also collected and used as the base line to judge whether the Chinese students' performance problems are categorised as the first language transfer or only as belonging to linguistic developmental processes. Two native Australian volunteers who have TESOL background helped to judge the degree of acceptability of these texts based on their intuition. Then textual analysis was done on these samples.

It is found that successful EFL writers were more concerned about the choice of thematisation at a global level and were better at employing cohesive devices, whereas unsuccessful writers may only focus on the local sentence structure in patterning the information and are more likely to misuse cohesive devices. This suggests that the performance problems would be regarded as the natural features in the process of learning a foreign language rather than that of language transfer. In other words, it seems that what is emphasised foregrounded in English language instruction in China is a major contribution to the performance of the EFL students' writing.
Statement

I, Ruiyun Xu, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Faculty of Education, University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

Ruiyun Xu

8 November 2000
Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Aim/Purpose of this Study

This study will investigate the writing of expository texts by tertiary students of English in China. More specifically, it will examine how these Chinese students utilise information organisation patterns in their English expository writing. The term "English as a foreign language" (EFL) is used in this research, meaning that English is taught as a school subject in order to give students a competence in this language. The Chinese students who participated in this research are defined as "EFL" learners.

English composition writing is one of the most important aspects of English language learning for Chinese EFL tertiary students, as it is compulsory for all university students to meet the requirement of English writing as specified by the National Syllabus of Higher Education in China. Previous research (Yan, 1992; Zhang, 1996; Cai, 1996) has demonstrated that Chinese students, when learning English, usually find composition writing difficult to handle. Even those who are competent in the use of English grammar and vocabulary still have problems with the organisation of discourse when they write English essays. Many studies of Chinese EFL students' composition (Zhao, 1995; Li, 1995; Young, 1982; Yu & Atkinson, 1988) reveal that a large number of students lack communicative competence in their English essays. In the case of expository writing, it is recognised that students find it difficult to argue, discuss or explain competently. In order to improve students' writing of expository texts, a better understanding is needed of what is involved in the English writing of Chinese students.

Significant insights into text-level composition are provided by Halliday's systemic functional theory. In particular, the notion of information structure and cohesion can be drawn on in analysing the degree of coherence of a text.
Using Halliday's framework (1985a/1994), this research will seek answers to the following general questions:

(1) How effectively do Chinese students manipulate the flow of information in writing expository texts?

(2) How is the Chinese students' control of English information structure and cohesion affected by their mother tongue (i.e. Chinese)?

These two general questions will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

This study will also consider some cultural issues drawn on from these students' use of textual resources, that is, in using information structure and cohesion. To what extent are cultural differences involved in the students' use of textual resources, that is, in using information structure and cohesion? These issues will be discussed in more depth later in this chapter.

1.2 Background to this Study

1.2.1 EFL writing instruction in China

English language teaching occupies a prominent role in Chinese education. The Chinese view English primarily as a necessary tool which can facilitate access to modern scientific and technological advances and secondarily as a vehicle to promote commerce and understanding between China and countries where English is a major language.

Chinese students begin to learn English when they enter high school and continue throughout the whole six years in high school and on throughout their tertiary education. Most undergraduate study in universities lasts four years (full-time) with the exception of a few key universities and medical schools whose learning period is five years.

EFL tertiary students can be classified into three groups: (1) those who are specialised in English language (1%); (2) those who major in social science (10-
and (3) those who major in science (85%). The first group would have English as its language of instruction while learning subjects such as the literature and history of English-speaking countries (mostly American and British literature) and the introduction to Western economies. The second and third groups learn English as a compulsory subject and use the same national unified textbooks in the first two years of study. Therefore there is not much difference in terms of English curriculum between these two groups in their earlier years of studying English in the universities. Since the first and second groups do not represent many students, they cannot be used to generalise to most of the Chinese EFL student population. The present study will therefore only focus on the third group. Since it takes up 85% of the whole EFL tertiary student population, this group would have more representative significance and the finding would be more generalisable.

Facing the ever-growing importance of English teaching in Chinese education, English instructors and linguists have tried different techniques and practical materials in order to make English teaching more efficient and economical. An abundance of publications dealing with various aspects of English teaching has been produced and English instructors in China have been faced with different ideas, teaching techniques and materials. Generally, "what to teach" and "how to teach" have been constantly the two challenging issues in the field of English teaching and linguistics in China. These two issues have been addressed in "The College English Teaching Program" (CETP).

CETP program was prepared by a group of experienced English instructors and linguists in 1985 after they studied different modern linguistic theories and summed up the experience of English teaching in the past three decades in China. In 1987 a series of nationally standardised textbooks was published based on the policies of this program.

According to CETP, the teaching program aims at improving tertiary students' communicative ability in reading, writing, listening and speaking with a good command of English grammar. In response to CETP, a new English teaching
curriculum was designed by each university. What is common in all universities is that, in the first two years of undergraduate study, students will take four to six fifty-minute periods of English class per week and learn general English by following the national unified textbooks. They will have English intensive and extensive reading, English grammar, listening and speaking in class. Learning with the focus of these macroskills is termed "general English" in China. The word "general" is used in contrast to "specialised". This indicates that all science students will have to use the same text books regardless of their specialisation: whether they are computer-majored or engineering-majored.

After two years' learning, the students are regarded as English learners at intermediate levels in that they have gone over all the basic English grammatical rules and are assumed to have the ability to communicate in English, e.g. reading, writing and speaking. From the third year on until they finish their tertiary education, the students, in addition to the general English, will also learn ESP — the subject-based English which relates to their academic specialisation. For example, engineering students will learn engineering English, and computer-majors will read English texts on computer science. All ESP readings are original English texts adapted from either science books or journals published in English speaking countries (mainly in UK and USA).

However, before second-year students move on to their third academic year of English study, they are required to sit for a nation-wide tertiary English proficiency test, "College English Band Four Examination". This English examination started in 1988 for the assessment of English learning achievement as well as a means of evaluating CETP. Nowadays this test is held twice a year.

The participants are tested in five aspects of English language (excluding speaking) — listening, reading, grammar, vocabulary and writing. Writing as a tested item takes up 15% of the marks. If a participant passes the CETP test, he/she will receive a university certificate of English proficiency which is counted as one of the important credits in looking for a job after completing tertiary study. To this end,
CETP has become a guideline for English teaching in China and it seems that it will not be changed in the near future.

Among all the English language skills which are to be taught in a science major at tertiary level, Chinese EFL classes emphasise improving English reading ability on the premise that English reading ability is more practical in use than others, given that most science-major graduates will need to read a lot of literature on science and technology in their employment. Responding to this philosophy, much of the teaching material is designed primarily towards the teaching of reading comprehension, with writing treated as an adjunct activity.

One dominant type of reading class is English intensive reading (EIR). In EIR class, the teacher usually guides his/her students through a text slowly: He/She explains new words and phrases as he/she goes, and analyses the grammatical structure if the sentence is long. The students, after understanding all the sentences in the text, will be expected to know how to make English sentences by using some "useful" English idioms. Or they may be asked to answer the questions based on the texts they have just read and to write down the answers in English. All the written work is related to the sentence level. For EFL students, a sentence-level emphasis on discrete points of grammar and vocabulary leaves little time for the study of language as communication in any kind of practical context. In addition, vocabulary learning is considered to be the preliminary and crucial step in EFL communication by many EFL teachers in China. This concept is reflected in most EFL textbooks at all levels published in China with each text accompanied by a vocabulary list with word-by-word Chinese translation. All words on each list are usually new to students, and learning them first is thought to be the most important step to understand the text. Therefore, before students read the text, they are expected to be familiar with all the vocabulary on the list.

Another English teaching strategy which is highly valued is the memorisation of each English text (or sometimes paragraphs) after the teacher completes the text explanation. This process dates from the Chinese tradition that believes that texts
learned by heart will be internalised in the readers' mind so that the readers later will automatically know how to speak and write in English. The more texts students can memorise, the better communicative competence they will eventually develop.

Obviously, this reading-orientation leads to a lack of equally well-developed writing skills. Students do not have a class which is specifically designed to teach them how to write an English essay in the curriculum. Only when it is time for second-year students to register for the College English Band Four Examination (usually a couple of months ahead), each school will organise some English writing workshops as remedial classes (usually once every week). Each class normally lasts two or three hours with a 10 or 15-minute break between classes. The workshops aim at preparing the students for some essay writing strategies and skills. Each workshop has to host a large group of students (ranging from 50–100 students in each workshop) who will be given some handouts prepared by the teacher on the steps and strategies of writing as well as some so-called ideal models of different genres.

With regard to classroom activities in the workshop, students would first concentrate on the teacher-centred lecture about models on different topics. In explaining the ideal model texts to students, the teacher tends to start from word choice to sentence structure, then to paragraph patterning, finally to text organisation. This teaching process is described in Chinese as 'coaching beginning swimmers to start from shallow to deep water'.

When the teacher completes his/her lecture, the students, by following the models, will practise writing in a simulated examination: They will write around 100 words on an assigned topic in half-an hour's time. While writing, they are not supposed to discuss the topic with their peers, nor are they allowed to consult a dictionary. At this moment, the teacher acts as a supervisor. He/she would not answer any questions raised by students concerning the writing. Meanwhile, the students are told to follow these principles in their writing:
• relevance to the topic;
• clarity of the ideas;
• control of the form and vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, grammar and sentence structure;
• control of the length.

In reality, these principles are still vague to students even though some examples have been shown in class. One of the flaws in these workshops is, because of the large size of the classes and a limited number of writing teachers, the teachers cannot collect all students' compositions and invest much time correcting them each time. (An EFL teacher in China usually has a large teaching load per week.) Therefore, students have no way of getting much feedback about the quality of their writing.

Apart from studying at writing workshops, students can read books on how to improve their writing. In recent years, many manuals on how to improve English writing have been published and are available at the university libraries or bookshops. Like the instructions given at the writing workshops, quite a number of books start with instructing the students how to choose and use the correct words, followed by how to write different types of grammatically complete sentences containing subjects and predicates, then writing by the paragraph and finally end by talking about the whole text (e.g. Ding et al., 1994; Ren & Li, 1995; Zhang & Wang, 1995). Some books (e.g. Zhang, 1996; Cai, 1996) start with focusing on the sentence level. Few (e.g. Wang, 1991) start with the paragraph level.

1.2.2 Chinese writing philosophy

If we read the literature regarding Chinese rhetoric patterns in writing instruction, we find that the Chinese rhetorical pedagogy on sentence-level structures contrasts with the English emphasis on the text level. Chinese writing pedagogy emphasises the movement from lower to higher discourse levels or from
smaller to larger elements. Word and sentence level structures are regarded as the
basis of the whole organisation of a composition. This point of view is shown by
the definition of Chinese composition as well as the suggestions for the revision
process in Yu's Chinese grammar book (1955). A composition is defined as "a
group of well organised words that has a beginning and an end" (p. 30, the
researcher's translation). A word is the smallest element that helps the writer make
up a composition, and has the greatest importance in deciding the writer's meaning.

In editing papers, Chinese writers also pay a great deal of attention to word
choices and sentence structures. Usually the overall rhetorical structure is not
examined until the writer has made sure that the words and sentences are well
written (Tan et al., 1996). Liu (1983, in Shih's translation: 349) also suggests that
the writer judge the organisation of a paper from sentence level. "If there is any
sentence that can be deleted, we know the writing is loose; and when not a word can
be moved, we know the writing is well-knit". Thus, word and sentence level
structure are regarded as the most important levels in Chinese writing.

When writing is evaluated or examined, it is general practice for writers to
check from individual words and sentences to the discourse structure. In other
words, in Chinese writing theory, the entire organisation should not be examined
until each paragraph has been examined. The paragraph (defined as an expanded
sentence in Chinese writing) should not be examined until each sentence expresses
the ideas well and all sentences are related well to one another (Tan et al., 1996).
This Chinese writing revision process is opposite to that of English writing which is
expected to start from examining the overall structure of the text, moving slowly to
the structure of each paragraph and later to the sentence level and lexical choices
(Bauman, 1992; Rooks, 1988; Reid, 1988; Nash & Stacey, 1997).

Therefore, according to the Chinese scholars, word and sentence level
structures in Chinese writing are the most important frame which helps the writer
build the higher level structure of a paper. That is to say, the essay is judged as a
good one if the words and sentences are appropriately used.
It appears that the instruction practices of EFL writing in China (as emphasised in writing workshops and writing books) follows similar instruction practices of writing in Chinese: word \( ^{\wedge} \) sentence \( ^{\wedge} \) paragraph \( ^{\wedge} \) text where "\(^{\wedge}\)" indicates the sequence. This process of composing texts may cause problems at the discourse level in English writing where wording is required to be related to the context and co-text.

Nowadays very few universities in China offer Chinese writing courses to science-major students since students are expected to develop Chinese writing skills in primary and high schools. However, science-major students in universities are required to write science reports and expository essays which are related to their subjects. With regard to expository essays, they are connected with the students' "philosophy" course, a one-year compulsory subject which focuses on Marx's dialectical materialism and also introduces other main schools of philosophies in the world.

Having discussed the Chinese approach to writing pedagogy, the researcher will move to the western approach in the next section.

1.3 English Writing Pedagogy and Assessment

Prior to the late 1960s, English writing pedagogy in the west resembled those described above in China today.

Kaplan (1966) studied 600 expository texts written by ESL writers from different language groups. This work is generally considered to be the beginning at a new stage of ESL writing research because it was the first major attempt to study different rhetorical patterns in the writing of L2 students from different L1 groups (Connor, 1996). This line of research has become known as contrastive rhetoric. (Contrastive rhetoric is one of many influences.) Contrastive rhetoric studies have investigated L1–L2 transfer by examining ESL essays only and are based on the premise that there exist cultural rhetoric conventions. Contrastive rhetoric later drew
on discourse analysis and text linguistic research to explore how student writing could be analysed at the discourse level as a way of understanding the varying patterns of organisational preferences in student writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

Discourse analysis/text analysis, together with cognitive psychology, has been drawn on in applied linguistics as new fields to explore ways in which L2 texts are constructed, how these texts differ from texts constructed by L1 students and how and why these texts differ among L2 students representing different linguistic communities.

Following Kaplan's original work, a number of applied linguists (Kroll, 1990; Edelsky et al., 1991; Johnson & Roen, 1989; Raimes, 1991; Reid, 1993) have undertaken research in cognitive psychology and text linguistics/discourse analysis. The influence of one's first language (L1) on one's second language (L2) at the discourse level has begun to be explored. The work has contributed to a more general expansion of discourse analysis studies on L2 student writing. Recent research along these lines includes the study of cohesion and coherence and macrostructure (Hinds, 1987, 1990; Clyne, 1987; Eggington, 1987; Connor, 1987; Söter, 1988).

As far as research at the discourse/text level is concerned, it means looking at the students' composition at the whole textual level. For this reason, the two terms (i.e. discourse analysis and text analysis) have been used interchangeably in the literature (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). However, recent publications treat text linguistics as written, not spoken discourse as an analysis that extends beyond the sentence level and considers the communicative constraints of the situation (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). My research will employ text analysis as the technical term rather than discourse analysis.
1.4 Systemic Functional Theory and ESL/EFL Writing

There are several schools of text linguistics. In this study Halliday's systemic linguistics will be employed because it takes context into consideration. Halliday (1975) argues that first language learning is learning how to mean. We could therefore characterise the second language learning as learning how to mean differently. According to Lock (1996: 268), "differently" has two meanings: first, it refers to how to use different wordings to express meanings; secondly, it refers to how to mean appropriately in different cultural contexts.

From a systemic perspective, learning writing in a second language "involves gaining progressive control over the systems of choices in the new language; learning which choices to select to make which meanings in which contexts; and mapping the configurations of grammatical functions realising the choices on to one another in structures" (Lock, 1996: 268)

1.5 Rationale for the Present Study

Despite many advantages of a systemic functional approach, studies of second language learning based on a meaning-based or functional view of grammar are still in the early stages (Lock, 1996). With regard to the research into ESL/EFL writing, up till now very limited empirical studies have been conducted in contexts other than the USA, Australia, Canada and the UK (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). This assumes that writing in second language contexts in countries where English is not dominant has been paid relatively little attention. It is obvious that different countries have different needs and expectations for students learning to write in English. For this reason, it is important for researchers in second language writing to know the situations in order to understand how the second language writing is carried on in specific context. Halliday's notion on text and context is more relevant to this research because the purpose of this study is to examine how students who were
brought up in Chinese culture makes choices in order to communicate their meaning by using another language.

This study will examine how Chinese EFL students realise their experience on some specific topics in English exposition. In particular, the research will study the textual component of 141 Chinese EFL university science-major students' texts and identify how these students are using the textual component of English grammar. According to functional grammar, the textual component consists of features associated with the two groups of resources: the structural and the cohesive.

The first aspect is subdivided into two areas: information structure (involving given information and new information) and thematic structure (involving Theme and Rheme). The second aspect is divided into four areas: conjunction, lexical cohesion, ellipsis and substitution, and reference.

With regard to the structural resources, according to Halliday (1985), Theme is the element which comes first in the clause and concerns what the clause is about. Rheme is the element that follows Theme in that clause. Theme typically contains given information (Given) which has been known from the context whereas Rheme typically contains new information (New). A text is realised in the interactions between Themes and Rhemes.

In addition to the structural component, the other important aspect is cohesive devices, which are combined with structural elements to give a sense of continuity of discourse or text, that is, the textual function of the language. In order to study discourse, we have to take cohesion into account as an important aspect in analysing texts.

Cohesion in this study is defined as "relations of meaning that exist within the text and define it as a text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 4). A stretch of language which is coherent and makes sense is said to have "texture" (p. 2). Texture is a technical term used to refer to the fact that the lexi-co-grammatical units representing a text hang together — that there exists linguistic cohesion within the passage (Hasan, 1977: 228). Texture is the quality of being a text instead of a series of
unconnected sentences (Bloor & Bloor, 1995), that is, coherence. Cohesion is the use of explicit devices to indicate relations within and between sentences. Cohesive devices are words or phrases that act as signals to the reader in order to help the reader make connections with what has already been stated or will be stated. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 8), the notion of cohesion is "a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it".

Structural resources and cohesive resources combined form a whole picture of the textual component of grammar. It is beneficial for ESL/EFL instructors to study the textual component so that they can help their students develop their pragmatic competence in writing. The students should be encouraged to learn how to fulfil the expectations of native-speaking readers by using both linguistic and rhetorical patterns.

1.6 Significance of the Present Study

In this study, the researcher will explore the pattern of Theme/Rheme and cohesive devices across the Chinese EFL texts and how these elements contribute to the quality of a text. The outcome of this research undoubtedly will have an important implication for the pedagogy of EFL writing in China. Fries (1995a) shows how a text loses in coherence if its thematic patterning is destroyed. In addition, an incomplete understanding of the meaning of both Theme/Rheme and focus of new information often leads to unintended emphases, making it difficult for the reader to understand the point being made (Ghadessy, 1993/1995a; Berry, 1995). With reference to EFL/ESL situation, research found that EFL/ESL students often produce such texts which appear disconnected because there is no clear information structure (Christie, 1989; Mauranen, 1996; Hawes & Thomas, 1997). It is important for ESL/EFL writers to have the knowledge for choosing more
appropriate Theme/Rheme progression patterns relevant to the specific topic within a genre (Christie, 1989).

In regard to cohesion, some language studies show that a cohesive text does not necessarily guarantee success of a text (Witte & Faigley, 1981, Tierney & Mosenthal, 1983 for the research of English as the first language; Scarcella, 1984; Connor, 1984 and Jones, 1984 for the research of English as the second language). Halliday and Hasan (1976: 18-28) also point out that a writer can construct a passage which is "coherent" in a situational and semantic sense for a reader, but lacks intersentence cohesion. A writer can also construct a cohesive passage which lacks continuity of meaning in situation and topic for a reader. In spite of these viewpoints, much research argues that having knowledge of how to use appropriate cohesive devices should be considered one of the important aspect in ESL/EFL writing for the reason that ESL/EFL writers may employ the cohesive devices in a way that confuses native-speaking readers, thus hindering the reader from decoding the meaning (Johnson, 1992; Reid, 1992; Kuo, 1995; Xu & Winser, 1997).

The application of this research will improve writing instruction, hence fully prepare tertiary students for university EFL programs in China. It will help Chinese EFL instructors to be aware of the problems and difficulties of Chinese students so that teaching is to be adjusted to the needs of students. And it will also contribute to the theoretical study of functional grammar by extending our understanding of the use of textual resources in Chinese EFL texts.

1.7 Research Questions in this Study

As stated earlier, this study will examine Chinese tertiary EFL writers' texts by analysing both Theme/Rheme structure and cohesive elements. In this sense, the specific research questions are as follows.
On Theme

1) How are Themes at various ranks realised in Chinese EFL writing (i.e. Themes at the sentence level; hyper-themes at the generic stage level and macro-theme at the text level)? In particular, what are some of the typical characteristics of Theme choice in different English proficiency groups (successful writers vs unsuccessful writers)? That is, how does Theme choice correlate to English proficiency levels?

2) Do different topics affect the choice of Theme/Rheme progression patterns of texts?

3) How does the failure in the interaction between Theme and Rheme structure lead to the misinterpretation of meaning?

4) To what extent do Theme/Rheme choices correlate to the topic of texts (i.e. the field)?

5) Within a Chinese EFL text, do different generic stages affect the choice of Theme/Rheme progression patterns?

On Cohesion

1) What are some of the typical kinds of cohesive devices used in different English proficiency groups? In particular, how does the use of these devices correlate to the writer's English proficiency level?

2) What are the typical problems in using cohesive devices in these EFL texts?

In General

1) Are the problems in rhetorical organisation of Chinese EFL texts associated with the conventions in Chinese writing?

2) Are these problems caused by instructional emphasis in EFL teaching?
1.8 Limitations of this Study

Like most other research, this study also has some limitations.

1) Due to the special condition of text sample collection, it is impossible for the researcher to interview all the EFL writers for their further clarification of the meaning or writing process. Therefore, there are occasions on which that the researcher worked on interpreting the meaning of the wording.

2) Regarding the type of expository genre, only analytical type of texts were used to test the Australian students due to the fact that Australian students did not have the experience about the problem discussed in the hortatory text which was used to test their Chinese counterparts. Only a limited number of Australian students' texts were collected for analysis. Not all topic titles which were used to test the Chinese EFL students were chosen by the Australian students. Therefore, it is impossible to use Australian texts as reference while analysing the Chinese EFL texts on every topic title.

3) Due to the special condition of data collection in the Chinese universities, there is no possibility of collecting some Chinese texts written by these Chinese EFL students as another control group in this research.

1.9 Outline of Thesis Chapters

The following chapters will be arranged in the following order: Chapters 2 and 3 review some relevant literature involving theories and some previous empirical studies. Chapter 4 will introduce the methodology. Chapters 5 and 6 will illustrate the thematic and cohesive analysis respectively. Chapter 7 is the discussion section, followed by Chapter 8, the conclusion of the study.
Chapter 2

Theoretical Framework of the Study

2.1 Introduction

As introduced in Chapter 1, this study will use Halliday's functional grammar to analyse the Chinese EFL students' expository texts. Chapter 2 will start by introducing Halliday's theory on text and context: This theory is a prerequisite for this study since the researcher will explore how EFL students use language to realise their meanings in the Chinese context. Then this chapter will focus on one specific function of language: the textual meaning, because it is used as the theoretical framework in this study. Some relevant research in this area will be reviewed.

2.2 Introduction to a Systemic Linguistic Approach to Language

Systemic functional grammar emphasises the functions of language within our lives. Developed by Michael Halliday and colleagues, this model sees language as a set of systems, each of which offers the speaker/writer a choice of ways of expressing meanings. The function of language is modelled through three metafunctions (Halliday, 1985a; 1994: 179): 'the ideational function' (clause as representation); 'the interpersonal function' (clause as exchange) and 'the textual function' (clause as message).

Most EFL researchers take 'text' as their starting point. In systemic grammar, 'text' is constituted by "any instance of language that is operational, as distinct from citational (like sentences in a grammar book, or words listed in a dictionary)" (Halliday, 1975: 123). Thus, the term 'text' refers to "any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole" (Halliday & Hasan,
1976: 1). In this sense, a text could be as short as one sentence or as long as a novel. A text is different from a 'non-text' in terms of the property of 'texture', which is determined by two factors: their internal cohesiveness, and their consistency with respect to the context of situation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 23). (Cohesiveness will be illustrated later in this chapter.)

Another important concept in relation to text is 'context'. According to Halliday (1985b: 5), there is text and there is other text that accompanies it: text that is 'with', namely the con-text. The notion of 'context' does not confine itself to the boundary of language because it includes the environment in which a text is being used — the non-verbal proceedings. To understand texts, we cannot merely focus on language, we have to look at language use in context. Systemicists, by describing the relationship between text and context, study both what dimensions and in what ways context influences language (Halliday, 1994).

The immediate context is that situation in which the language is being used. The form of the language a person uses is influenced by that particular situation, that is, context of situation. In this sense, systemic functional grammar enables us to explain how meanings are made through the use of language in context of situation (Halliday, 1985a; 1994). However, every situation is also part of the culture in which the language user lives. This 'culture' involves shared meanings as well as those aspects which are taken for granted within a culture. This broad sphere of context is context of culture. It is expected that people in different cultures may use language differently. (The two notions, i.e. context of situation and context of culture, will be detailed in Section 2.2.1 and Section 2.2.2 respectively).

In fact, these two types of context are not new as they were both derived from the work of the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski in the 1920s when he was studying the primitive culture of the Trobriand Islanders. In an attempt to describe the daily life and events of these people, Malinowski found that it was impossible to make sense of literal, or word-for-word translations from their language into
English. To some degree, he believed that this indicated the need for researchers to understand the context of culture in which the language was being used, because language is "regarded as a mode of action, rather than as a countersign of thought" (Malinowski, 1923: 297; cited in Butler, 1985). That is to say, language could only be intelligible when it is placed within its context of situation.

Although he did much work on identifying the fundamental semantic role of the context of situation and the context of culture, Malinowski did not formulate more precisely the nature of these two contexts, nor did he make any link to the functional organisation of language. His work was not systematic enough to provide a framework for analysing the language of speech events so as to reveal the relation of language to the features of context (Hasan, 1995). Later scholars have argued that context is critical to meaning in any linguistic event in any language.

Following Malinowski, the linguist J. R. Firth (1935; 1950; cited in Halliday, 1985b) emphasised the importance of the cultural dimensions, taking over Malinowski's notion of the context of situation and building it into his own linguistic theory. Thus, whereas Malinowski had viewed context of situation in concrete terms, Firth considered it as "an abstract schematic construct, a group of related categories at a different level from grammatical categories but rather of the same abstract nature" (Firth, 1950: 182; cited in Butler, 1985), which was intended "for application especially to typical repetitive events in the social process" (1957: 176; cited in Butler, 1985). He developed a more general theory of cultural context and context of situation and extended the notion of context of situation to the more general issue by arguing that given a description of a context, we can predict what language will be used. Firth suggested that there are three categories in the context of situation which allow us to make such predictions (Firth, 1950: 182; cited in Butler, 1985: 5):

(1) the relevant features of participants: persons, personalities
   (i) the verbal action of the participants
(ii) the non-verbal action of participants

2) the relevant objects

3) the effect of the verbal action.

Firth's limitation is that he believed that the three situational variables in the context of situation were the whole story of register theory.

Based on Malinowski and Firth's work, Halliday studied context of situation. He redefined the three variables as 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode', and further developed Firth's work in that he explored why the three variables exist. Halliday then argued that the answer lies in the nature of language itself because the three variables are the three kinds of meanings that language has evolved to express (Halliday, 1985a).

2.2.1 Register

Register theory aims to "uncover the general principles which govern the variation types, so that we can begin to understand what situational factors determine what linguistic features" (Halliday, 1978: 32). In other words, register is involved with the relationship between language function, determined by situational or social factors, and language form (Halliday, 1985b).

The term 'register' was first used by Reid in 1956 and later developed by Ure (Ure & Ellis, 1977). Halliday et al. (1964: 77) describe register as "a variety according to use in the sense that each speaker has a range of varieties and chooses between them at different times", to distinguish the term from dialect, which is "a variety according to user, in the sense that each speaker uses one variety and uses it all the time".

Hence, this concept of register has been considered by Halliday and other systemic linguists as bound to a particular discursive situation. "When we observe language activity in the various contexts in which it takes place, we find differences in the type of language selected as appropriate to different types of situation"
(Halliday et al., 1964: 87). A register is constituted by "the linguistic features — with particular values of the field, mode and tenor" (Halliday, 1976: 22). These early definitions of register indicate that Halliday takes text as the departure point and relates it to the context of situation.

Halliday's later definition is intended to emphasise semantic patterns and context: "Register is the set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specified conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realisation of these meanings" (Halliday, 1978: 23). Register is determined by what is taking place, who is taking part and what part the language is playing (Halliday, 1978: 31). Halliday also places an emphasis on the broader social context. That is, "a register can be defined as the configuration of semantic resources that the member of a culture typically associates with situation type. It is the meaning potential that is accessible in a given social context" (Halliday, 1978: 111). Moreover, Halliday argues that, although register may be recognised by its formal (i.e. linguistic) characteristics, its structure is semantic.

Halliday (1985b: 12) categorises the context of situation into three contextual categories of "field of discourse", "tenor of discourse" and "mode of discourse".

(1) The field of discourse refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?

(2) The tenor of discourse refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved?

(3) The mode of discourse refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of the text, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?), and also the rhetoric mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, according to Halliday (1985a/1994), language has three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. In the
realisation of the text and its context of situation, Halliday concludes that 'field' is expressed through the ideational function in the semantics, realised through transitivity patterns in language. 'Tenor' is expressed through the interpersonal function in the semantics, realised through mood. 'Mode' is expressed through the textual function in the semantics, realised through the system of Theme. Figure 2.1 (Martin, 1993) indicates this realisation between language and context of situation.

Figure 2.1 A Metafunctionally Diversified View of Language and Social Context (Martin, 1993: 146)

In relation to this study, the researcher will judge whether the linguistic choices made in the Chinese EFL texts are appropriate to the specific context, i.e. the topic title.

Context of situation is crucial in understanding text since it looks at the more specific dimension of the situation in which the text occurs. However, it is not the whole story. It is also important to study context of culture — a more general dimension of the context.
2.2.2 Context of culture: genre

In comparison with context of situation, an immediate context of language, context of culture is "a broader background against which the text has to be interpreted" (Halliday, 1985b: 46). Every situation is part of the culture we live in. The context of culture involves shared meanings and assumptions. It is the cultural context which permits us to make sense of a text. In systemic functional linguistics, most of research on context of culture have been conducted in terms of 'genre' (Hasan, 1977; Martin, 1985a; Ventola, 1984).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, learning a second language has much to do with learning how to mean differently from the first language. According to Halliday (1985b: 46), this learning is in fact learning to "make the right predictions", "to use the context in this predictive way".

The notion of 'genre' has been developed within a systemic functional approach to describe how people use language to achieve culturally appropriate goals. For Martin in particular, this means characterising social context in terms of a system of genres. According to Martin (1984: 25), "A genre is a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers are engaged as members of a culture".

Australian systemic linguists began to explore genre in the early 1980s because they were dissatisfied with the results of process approaches to teaching writing in primary schools and an over-emphasis on narrative texts in much of this work (Cope et al., 1993). Thus, analyses based on the systemic functional perspective on genre focus primarily on writing in schools and on the analysis of factual texts such as recounts, procedures, reports, descriptions, explanations and expositions (Martin, 1985a; Derewianka, 1990; Christie, 1990). Systemic functional genre analysts have also examined other genres such as service encounters (Hasan, 1977, 1985a; Ventola 1984), writing in academic settings (Drury & Gollin, 1986; Jones et al., 1989), scientific writing (Conduit & Modesto, 1990; Halliday & Martin, 1993) and genres
such as recipes, letters, book and film reviews (Hammond et al., 1992). These analysts have largely examined texts either through the notion of 'the schematic structure', that is, the "beginning, middle and end structures of texts" (Martin, 1985a: 86) or through the notion of 'the generic structure potential' — the range of textual structures available within a genre (Hasan, 1985a).

'Schematic structure' refers to the staged organisation of the genre. Martin (1985b) gives the following definition:

Schematic structure represents the positive contribution genre makes to a text: a way of getting from A to B in the way a given culture accomplishes whatever the genre in question is functioning to do in that culture.

(1985b: 251)

Martin argues that genres need to have stages due to the fact that a complete meaning cannot be made at one time. Each stage in the genre will contribute a part of the overall meaning that must be made for the generic purpose to be fulfilled. To this end, Martin uses constituent structures to describe the 'beginning', 'middle' and 'end' of a text, and looks at how each of the structures functions in order to realise the genre.

Unlike Martin, Hasan describes 'the generic structure potential' of a genre as being a description of "the total range of textual structures available within a genre" (Hasan, 1985a: 79). In order to do this, a model of generic structure potential must specify those elements whose presence appears obligatory to the particular genre, and those elements which appear optional for the particular genre, as well as the ordering of elements in relation to each other, including the possibility of recursion. Therefore, the analysis should demonstrate what elements must occur, where elements can occur, and how often elements can occur.

In this study, the researcher will follow Martin's framework to analyse the Chinese EFL students' texts. Since the purpose of this study is to explore how the textual resources are used in the EFL Chinese texts, using Martin's model will enable the researcher to examine explicitly how semantic choices are made in each generic
stage and to what degree each generic stage contributes to the whole text. Thus, this model appears to be easier to manipulate. By contrast, Hasan's model appears to be difficult for the researcher to apply since it is hard for her to find convincing criteria to judge which element in a text is 'obligatory' and which one is 'optional'.

In academic settings, certain genres have received more attention because they are more relevant to educational contexts in which a functional approach has been applied such as report, recount, procedure, exposition and explanation (Martin, 1984, 1991, 1992a). In regard to the present study, expository texts written by Chinese EFL tertiary students will be examined since exposition is regarded as one of the most practical types of genre in Chinese academic settings. Martin's notion of exposition will be drawn upon in the analysis of these texts.

According to Martin (1985a: 15), exposition is an argument why a thesis has been proposed. Martin refers to the judgement in exposition as thesis, and to the reasons supporting it as arguments. In exposition, more than one argument can be presented to support a judgement. He categorises two different expository types: (1) analytical exposition; (2) hortatory exposition.

The function of analytical exposition persuades the reader that the thesis is well formulated, whereas hortatory exposition persuades the reader to do what the thesis recommends. Given that the function of exposition is to interpret and explain, the fundamental part of this genre is reasoning (Martin, 1985a). Therefore, realising cause and effect is important.

In addition to generic structure, systemic linguists have also examined relevant linguistic features of particular genres such as lexico-grammatical patterning and patterns of cohesion such as lexical cohesion, reference and conjunction within the context of particular genres (Rothery, 1984, 1989; Christie, 1989; Martin & Peters, 1985; Ventola, 1984; Martin, 1985a).

It is well understood that different cultural groups tend to organise and develop ideas differently when writing texts. This difference will in turn persist when users
of these languages and cultures learn to write in another language. What are believed
to be norms of a particular genre in one culture may not be the case in another
culture. This has obvious implications for the present study and will be revisited in
greater detail in Chapter 3.

2.2.3 Genre and register

As indicated above, we need to consider both genre (context of culture) and
register (context of situation) in order to understand how people use language
because they are at two different levels of abstraction.

In attempting to specify the dimensions of the situation in which a text is
developing, it is necessary to work out from the language being used what the
register of the text is. On the other hand, genre — a more general and abstract notion
— provides us with the general framework which gives purpose to interactions of the
particular types, adaptable to the many specific contexts of situation in which they get
used. The relationship between the three components — language, register and genre
— is illustrated in Figure 2.2 (Martin, 1997).
The relationship between the three can be described as follows: Genre (context of culture) is one of the two levels of context and it is more general and more abstract than register (context of situation). Genre is realised through language and the process of realising genre in language is carried out through the realisation of register.

2.3 The Textual Metafunction of Language

As mentioned previously in this chapter, systemicists see language as organised according to three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual, each playing a particular part in the construction of meaning. This study will focus on the textual metafunction, while recognising the interrelatedness of all three metafunctions.
The textual metafunction is described by Halliday (1974: 95–97) as the "enabling" metafunction. It is the level of organisation of the clause which enables the clause to be arranged in ways which make it effective to its purpose and its context. The textual metafunction is concerned with the way in which information is structured in communication. It does not contribute to new content nor alter the interpersonal dimension of the clause.

With regard to writing, for example, if we explain something to another person, we generally try to organise what we want to say in a way that will make it easier for the reader to understand. A stretch of language which is coherent and "makes sense" is said to have "texture" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 2–3). Texture is simply the quality of being a text, a combination of cohesion and coherence — both necessary for a text "to make sense" rather than a set of unconnected bits of language such as one might find in a collection of independent sentences used as exercises in a language textbook. As introduced in Chapter 1, according to functional linguists, the textual component of the grammar of English (and hence texture) consists of the features associated with two groups of resources: the structural and cohesive.

2.3.1 Information structure and thematic structure

All clauses are organised in terms of flow of information which we use in both spoken and written language. In Hallidayan grammar, there are two parallel and interrelated systems of analysis that concern the structure of a clause. The first of these is called 'information structure', involving constituents that are labelled 'Given' and 'New'. The second is called 'thematic structure', involving constituents that are labelled 'Theme' and 'Rheme'. (Since this study only focuses on the issue of writing, phonological realisation of information structure will be omitted here.)

In order for a person to understand what someone says, he/she must be able to use his/her knowledge, beliefs and expectations as the supportive framework and use it to decode the speech. As a result of this process, interlocutors, to a greater or
lesser degree, can understand each other. This means that in order to communicate effectively, the speaker must bring to the hearer's attention some element of shared or mutual knowledge. This shared information is usually located at the beginning of a clause and is labelled 'Given'. A clause also includes information that is the point of the speaker's message, the information that is considered 'New'. The two elements together make up the information component.

Given  ____________  New

The second system of analysis involved in the textual component is thematic structure. Like information structure, it operates at the clausal level in written text.

The notion of Theme represents the point of departure in a clause. Halliday describes it in the following terms:

The English clause consists of a "Theme" and a "Rheme" ... (the Theme) is as it were the peg on which the message is hung ... The Theme of the clause is the element which, in English, is put in first position; ...

(1970: 161)

The Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that with which the clause is concerned. ... As a general guide, the Theme can be identified as that element which comes in first position in the clause. ... The Theme is one element in a particular structural configuration which, taken as a whole, organises the clause as a message. ... A message consists of a Theme combined with a Rheme.

(1985a: 38)

Theme is followed by Rheme, which is explained as being the rest of the message.

Theme  ________________  Rheme

Textual meaning in English is expressed largely through the ordering of constituents of the clause, which is based on the interaction of the information structure and thematic structure illustrated above. Therefore, what information is chosen as being placed in the initial position and what in the second position will
realise the textual meaning. The system of Theme is shown in Figure 2.3 (Eggins, 1994: 274).

As this network shows, Theme has three major systems: choice of types of Themes, choice of marked Theme, and choice of predicated or unpredicated Theme.

There are three types of Themes: 'topical Theme' which is related to the experiential meaning of the discourse; 'interpersonal Theme' which indicates the attitudes of the speaker or writer; and 'textual Theme' which links a clause to the rest of discourse (Halliday, 1985a).
Theme markedness depends on the conflation (mapping together) of the Theme constituent with different Mood and Transitivity constituents (Eggins, 1994). The term 'unmarked' means most typical, whereas 'marked' means atypical. Theme markedness has to do with the relationship between the Mood and Theme structures of the clause, that is, how the constituent as Theme confflates with the constituent in mood structure. Unmarked Theme is the Theme that conflates with the mood structure constituent which normally occurs in the first position in clauses of that mood class. For example, the Theme is regarded as unmarked when it plays one of the following roles: (1) subject (in a declarative clause); (2) finite (in an interrogative); (3) predicator (in an imperative); (4) WH-element (in a wh-interrogative). Theme predication involves introducing what is technically a second clause by using an additional clausal element, it is or it was, which has its own Mood system. A Theme which does not play one of these parts in a clause is a marked Theme. (For examples of the different types of Themes, see Eggins, 1994).

The notion of 'Theme' has been variously defined. Although Halliday's descriptions of Theme are mainly concerned with the clausal level, he makes it quite clear elsewhere in his writings (1967: 199; 1976: 56) that thematic structures exist at all ranks in English. Fries (1983: 135) defines Theme as "what is chosen to stand in the initial position of a clause". Other researchers tend to apply the "Theme — Rheme" discussions to a number of levels both above and below that of the clause, including the levels of group and clause complex (cf. Halliday, 1985a).

2.3.2 Conflation of Theme/Rheme and Given/New

Much of the systemic work on discourse and the textual dimension of language has been influenced by the work of Prague School scholars. Initiated by Mathesius in the 1920s and developed by many other Czech linguists such as Firbas and Danes* in the 1950s and 1960s, the Prague linguists were the first to show how the

* In this thesis, the name "DaneY" will be spelt as "Danes".
presentation of information in whole texts needed to be studied along with the formal structures of sentences, such as subject-predicate relations (Sgall, 1987). Their greatest contribution to text linguistics was the study of Theme and Rheme, which concerns the pattern of information flow in sentences and the relation of the pattern to text coherence. Theme is what the sentence is about; Rheme is what is said about the Theme.

In relation to Theme and Rheme, the Prague linguists use terms such as 'old' or 'given' information (referring to what the speaker/writer thinks the listener/reader already knows) vs. 'new' information (which the speaker/writer thinks the listener/reader does not know) or 'topic' vs. 'comment'. The concept is described as "functional sentence perspective" by Firbas. Mathesius (1939, cited in Fries, 1995b: 1) ascribes two distinct functions to Theme by describing it as (1) "information which is known or at least obvious in the given situation" and (2) "information from which the speaker proceeds".

Fries (1981/1983) refers to Mathesius' view of Theme's function as the 'combining approach', which he contrasts with Halliday's definition of Theme (referred to as 'the splitting approach'). Halliday's formulation only takes Mathesius' second function for Theme, separating it from the first. In the functional sentence perspective Mathesius' first function is ascribed not to Theme but to the element Given. However, according to Halliday, a constituent with the function of Theme does not necessarily have the function of Given. Instead, Themes may be conflated with New. Information structure and thematic structure "impose different bipartite structures" (Fries, 1995b: 3).

Nevertheless, in most sentences in English, new information is placed at the end of the sentence. In many cases, the new information of one clause will become the old information of the next clause. (Fries, 1981/1983; Bloor & Bloor, 1995). This contributes significantly towards the information dynamics of texts. The present
study will follow Halliday’s thematic labelling and treat Theme/Rheme and Given/New as separate structures.

As far as the studies of Themes are concerned, units which have been looked at so far include the clause (Halliday, 1985a; Francis, 1989), sentence (Prague linguists such as Firbas, 1972, 1986; Danes, 1974) and the independent conjoinable clause complex, or t-unit (Fries, 1981/1983, 1992, 1995a, 1995c). In this study, Fries’ model (i.e. t-unit) will be used to code the Chinese EFL texts. More details of t-unit will be given in Chapter 4.

2.3.3 Models in analysing thematic structures

2.3.3.1 Thematic progression

Another contribution of the Prague school is the concept of thematic progression (Danes, 1974). Danes introduced the notion of thematic progression in order to look at how text development is related to the sequencing of Themes and Rhemes of the text. According to Danes (1974: 109), the choice of Themes of each message in a text is not a matter of chance — is not random and without structural connection to the text. Rather the choice of Themes is patterned. Danes identifies three main types of thematic progression which may be used in various combinations in any texts, as shown in Figure 2.4.
The first pattern of thematic progression in Figure 2.4 is called 'linear thematic progression', in which the content of Theme 2 derives from the content of the previous Rheme (Rheme 1), then the content of Theme 3 derives from Rheme 2 etc. The second type of thematic progression is 'Theme iteration'. In Theme iteration, the Theme remains the same in different clauses with different Rhemes. The third type of
thematic progression is called a progression with 'derived Themes'. In this case, the whole passage concerns a general notion, and the Themes of the various constituent clauses all come from that general notion, but are not identical to one another. Danes' framework has been applied in text analysis by a number of systemicists such as Hawes and Thomas (1997), Mauranen (1993), and Downing (1995).

2.3.3.2 Method of development

In addition to Danes' model (i.e. 'thematic progression'), another model in analysing texts is 'method of development'. Fries (1981/1983) introduces the term 'method of development' to name the kind of information flow coded through first position in the English clause:

(a) the lexical material placed initially within each sentence of a paragraph (i.e. the Themes of each sentence of a paragraph) indicates the point of departure of the message expressed by that sentence, and (b) the information contained within the Themes of all of the sentences of a paragraph creates the method of development of that paragraph (Fries, 1983: 135).

Fries' research (1981/1983) is influenced by Halliday (1967) in his discussion of the way in which Theme can be used to analyse the text.

The thematic organisation of the clause (and the clause complex, where relevant) expresses, and so reveals, the method of development of the text... Paragraph by paragraph the development proceeds as follows: ...

(Halliday exemplifies the development of a text). This is the thematic line, from which we know where the text is going.

(Halliday, 1985a: 67 — Thematic interpretation of a text)

From this display we can see clearly what has been called the "method of development" of the text. The whole of the first clause is thematic in the discourse: it is the "topic sentence of the paragraph", to use the terminology of composition theory...

(Halliday 1985a: 367 — Appendix I)

Fries' research on Theme and thematic structure is also related to genres. This can be classified under his four hypotheses (1981/1983, 1992).
Hypothesis 1: *Thematic progression correlates with the structure of a text.*

According to Fries (1983), different discourse genres (i.e. narrative, descriptive, argumentative and so on) have different patterns of thematic progression. For example, an argumentative text such as a scholarly article is characterised by high proportions of cross-reference from the Rheme of one sentence to the Theme of the next. Other studies supporting his hypothesis are Francis' (1990) comparison of Themes in news reports, editorials and letters of complaints; and Maynard's (1985) study of patterns of thematic progression in casual conversation.

Hypothesis 2: *Thematic content correlates with the method of development of a text.*

This argument deals with the lexicosemantic content of themes. Fries (1983) found that there are three approaches to the 'genre' of description corresponding to the methods of development of texts under investigation (p. 129).

Hypothesis 3: *Thematic content correlates with genre/register.*

Ghadessy's study (1993) on the grammatical and lexical semantic properties of Theme in a number of written sports commentaries confirms Fries' third hypothesis. He compares and contrasts this with a number of other studies on thematic development in registers/genres where structural elements of different kinds are selected for Themes. His findings indicate that the Themes in the analysed texts show an organisation based on the major text participants and temporal location elements in the schematic structure given by van Dijk (Ghadessy, 1993) for a situational action model. Other studies supporting Fries' third hypothesis are Nie's (1991) study of relationship between thematic selections, process types and genre in two different text types (i.e. a guide book and a story) as well as Francis' (1990) comparison of the Themes in news reports, and letters of complaints.
Hypothesis 4: *Thematic content correlates with different generic structures within a text.*

Fries (1993), while investigating a text ("Balloon and Air"), found that there is a correlation between the choice of Theme and the generic structure of the text. This text was found to be not a simple narrative, but clearly structured in a 'situation-problem-solution-evaluation' manner. Another study supporting this hypothesis is Wang's (1992) study of five-page sections of six plays by Sam Sheppard which indicated a difference between the thematic content of the 'scene' text and thematic content of the 'line' text.

Ghadessy (1995b) analysed the thematic organisation of several narratives written by primary school students in Singapore in terms of grammatical and lexicosemantic properties of selected Themes. He argues that the Theme selection determines the method of development of the texts and based on this selection, different types of development are generated. His research also suggests that language teachers should have a knowledge of thematic development and that thematic organisation is a potential resource that is useful at all levels of language teaching.

2.3.3.3 Martin's research on Themes

Martin also takes the notion of Theme beyond the clause. His research (1992a, 1992b, 1995) extends and elaborates Halliday's (1985a) concept of thematic organisation as not being restricted to clause level, but rather existing throughout the whole text.

Martin (1992a, 1992b) suggests that Themes can be thought to be concentric layers of structure in a text, each layer predicting a subset of the next layer. This view came from Danes' (1974) concept of hyper-Theme, the Theme which is "to embrace an introductory clause or group of clauses which is established to predict a particular pattern of interaction among strings, chains and Theme selection in following sentences" (Martin, 1992a: 437). In this sense, hyper-Theme can be seen
as correlating with the topic sentence of the paragraph in composition theory. Martin also extends the concept of Theme as a discourse strategy to a wider category: macro-Theme which may correlate with the introductory paragraph of the whole article in composition theory. Martin believes that this analysis can be extended indefinitely according to the number of layers of thematic structure that a text reflects. He summarises the relevant proportionalities of the three proposed layers of Themes as follows (1992a: 437):

- macro-Theme: text
- hyper-Theme: paragraph
- Theme: clause

However, we would not always expect that all texts will respond to this structure except those texts written by very skilled professional writers. Nevertheless, the absence of the predicted patterns might be regarded as a lack of coherence (Downing, 1995). In relation to the present study, Downing's consideration might be important because EFL writers may break the accepted organisation rules of English text due to poor proficiency in English writing, thus leading to interpretation difficulties for native readers.

All the above-mentioned research suggests that it is necessary to relate the thematic choices to detailed descriptions of texts so that we can explain why choices are made and what effects they have on our interpretations.

2.3.3.4 Information structure and thematic structure in Chinese

In addition to the research on Themes in English language, systemic theory predicts that every language has grammatical functions which serve as the point of departure for the clause as message and we would assume that the function of Themes across languages is similar. However, the ways in which Theme is chosen in particular languages may be different (Fries, 1995b). As the present study involves Chinese students making thematic choices, it is necessary for the researcher
to have some idea about information structure and thematic structure in the Chinese language.

In Chinese grammar, what element in the clause can be identified as 'subject' has been debated for years by two main schools: (1) those who believed that 'subject' is 'topic'; (2) those who recognise 'subject' and 'topic' as two different notions.

In the former case, 'subject' is a broad notion. According to Zhu (1981), the relation of subject and predicate is explained as follows: "What the speaker chooses as 'subject' is the 'topic' he is most interested in. The predicate is then a statement about the 'topic' chosen" (p. 96). Chao (1968) characterises the "grammatic meaning" of subject and predicate in Chinese as "topic and comment, rather than actor and action" (p. 69). Chao explains that "the subject is literally the subject matter to talk about and the predicate is what the speaker comments on when a subject is presented to be talked about" (p. 69).

In contrast to the "subject only view", Li and Thompson (1981) consider 'subject' and 'topic' as different notions because 'subject' is the noun phrase that has a "doing" or "being" relationship with the verb (p. 87) and the topic is "what the sentence is about" (p. 87). Like Chao (1968), Li and Thompson's (1976, 1981) research on Chinese and English grammar also demonstrates that Chinese is a topic-prominent language while English is a subject-prominent language. Their study (1981) shows that one striking feature of Chinese sentence structure that sets Chinese apart from many other languages is that in addition to the grammatical relations of subject and direct object, the description of Chinese must also include the element 'topic'. Compared with 'subject-predicate' English, the canonical sentence form in Chinese is more topic-comment.

In general, the topic of a sentence is what the sentence is about (Li & Thompson, 1981). It always comes first in the sentence and it always refers to
something about which the speaker/writer assumes the hearer/reader has some knowledge (which is seen as Given in systemic functional perspective).

Topic is different from the subject in that subject must always have a direct semantic relationship with the verb as the one that performs the action or exists in the state restricted by the verb. As stated earlier in this chapter, subject in a clause is identified as unmarked Theme. Since topic does not need this kind of relationship with the verb, it maps with marked Theme. In Chinese, the concept of subject seems less significant whereas the concept of topic is crucial in explaining the structure of ordinary sentences.

Rutherford (1983) regards this difference between the two languages as central to understanding Chinese-English interlanguage. He argues that, when Chinese speakers learn English, they tend to manifest their deeply-ingrained preference for topic-comment discourse organisation by favouring certain English syntactic structures, and by producing unique error types and so on. As stated earlier, in 'topic-prominent' languages (such as Chinese), the basic sentence type is 'topic-comment' (Li & Thompson, 1981). This is different from 'subject-prominent' languages (such as English) in which the grammatical relation 'subject-predicate' plays a major role. In terms of thematic structures in 'topic-prominent' languages, since topic (as Theme) does not conflate with subject, marked Themes would be commonly used.

Fang et al. (1995), in their study of the grammar of the clause in Chinese, suggest that semantic characterisation of Theme in Chinese and its recognition criteria are similar to those in English. That is, Theme normally comes first in the clause, and may be marked off from the Rheme by a pause and /or textual particle such as a, ba, me, ne in spoken Chinese. This finding suggests that Chinese appear to be aware of how to pattern Themes in speech (by either using a pause or some particles). They also checked the patterns of thematic progression to the clustering of clauses in a text and suggest that most probably a unit intermediate between the clause complex and
the text could be established by reference to patterns of thematic selection. In relation to the present study, it would be important then to investigate how Chinese EFL students manipulate Themes in their English expository writing. The result would suggest that context is important in relation to the use of Themes.

Regarding the sequence of different types of Theme within one clause, Hu's (1994) study of some Chinese texts (most of which are of narrative genre) found that ordering in multiple Themes may not follow that of English multiple Themes (Textual ^ Interpersonal ^ Ideational). Instead Chinese multiple Themes are more likely to follow the "Interpersonal ^ Textual ^ Ideational" order. Hu's research is open to criticism because only a limited number of texts was studied. Nevertheless, to some extent, this research suggests that, in order to understand the nature of multiple Themes in text in a particular language, researchers need to study texts in different genres of that language. Given that texts differ according to different contexts, it is anticipated that different contexts may decide the use of language. The present study intends to find how multiple Themes are ordered in the Chinese EFL expository texts.

With regard to the research so far undertaken on the structural component, it is evident that all these studies aim at examining the Chinese language itself. Few have related to Chinese ESL/EFL texts. This is one of the reasons why the present study is significant.

2.3.4 Cohesion

In addition to the structural component of the grammar of text, we need to consider the text-forming resources of cohesion. Cohesive relations extend over the whole text, serving to bind ideas together into a whole.

As introduced in Chapter 1, 'texture' is something that makes a stretch of language a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), 'texture' is involved with
two dimensions of the text: (1) internal properties which are described as 'cohesion';
(2) contextual properties which are described as 'coherence'.

2.3.4.1 The concept of cohesion

As mentioned in Chapter 1, cohesion, in this study, is defined as the linguistic
features which help to make a sequence of sentences a text, i.e. to give it 'texture'
(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 7). Cohesive devices are words or phrases that act as
signals to the reader in order to help him/her make connections with what has
already been stated or soon will be stated. As Halliday and Hasan explain (1976):

Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the
discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the
other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by
recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and
the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at
least potentially integrated into a text (1976: 4).

In cohesion, the relationship between the presupposing and presupposed is
called a tie. Such relationships include within-sentence, inter-sentence and cross-
section lexical or structural interdependency. However, the notion of cohesion is not
just a syntactic but also a semantic one. It is "a semantic relation between an element
in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it" (Halliday
& Hasan, 1976: 8).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify five general categories of cohesive devices
in texts: (1) reference; (2) ellipsis; (3) substitution; (4) conjunction; and (5) lexical
cohesion. Each of the five types of cohesive devices is defined and exemplified
below.

(1) Reference

"Instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, they (reference
items) make reference to something else for their interpretation" (Halliday & Hasan,
1976: 31). Reference items must be given meaning through the tie upon which they are dependent. There are three types of reference items:

a. Pronominals

E.g. I bought some apples. They are delicious.

b. Demonstratives and definite article

E.g. We saw a movie last night. The/This/That movie was boring.

c. Comparatives

E.g. Last year many students enrolled in TESOL. This year more students are expected to enrol in this course.

(2) Conjunction

"Conjunctive elements are cohesive, not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of their components in discourse" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 226).

There are four major conjunct types, each of which contains a number of subtypes:

a. Additive

This type of conjunct adds something to what has been stated.

E.g. We enjoyed the beautiful scenery of the riverbanks when we took the boat-trip. And we also enjoyed the delicious meal on the boat.

b. Adversative

This type expresses the adverse of the previous sentence(s).

E.g. It looked fine in the morning. However, it was cloudy in the afternoon.

c. Causal

This type expresses the causal relationship between or among sentences.

E.g. The blouse did not fit Sarah any more. So she gave it to her sister.

d. Temporal

Temporal conjunction concerns time.
E.g. *First* Jane peeled the apples. *Then* she sliced them with a knife. (Only four major types of conjunction are explained above. For details, see Halliday & Hasan, 1976.)

(3) **Lexical cohesion**

Lexical cohesion depends entirely upon the choice of vocabulary which offers a semantic relationship between the cohesive item and the tie which presupposes it. There are five types of lexical cohesion.

a. **Same item**

E.g. I borrowed a book and a magazine from the library. The *book* was written by Jane Austin.

b. **Synonym or near synonym**

E.g. All students must take the English proficiency test next week. Those who pass the *exam* will promote to the advanced class.

c. **Superordinate**

E.g. It was my first time to visit Australia. I was impressed by the beautiful beaches of this *country*.

d. **General term**

A general term is more general than a superordinate; the two differ only in degree of generality.

E.g. My car broke down again. I can't stand the *thing* any more.

e. **Collocation**

Collocation refers to the association of two lexical items which generally appear together or are linked in the same way.

E.g. It is *warm* today. The snow has started to *melt*.

(4) **Substitution**

It is a grammatical relation in which one linguistic item substitutes for a longer one.

E.g. I do not like this white shirt. Neither *does* she.

*(does substitutes for like this white shirt)*
(5) Ellipsis

It is similar to substitution, but is substitution by zero.

E.g. Who is the winner of this race? I don't know ___.
(The underlined space refers to the omitted part, that is, "who the winner of the race is")

2.3.4.2 The concept of coherence

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 23) define coherence as "the way a group of clauses or sentences relate to the context". Coherence is not based on surface links. Instead it relies on the links derived from thematic development, organisation of information or communicative purpose of a particular text. Martin (1992a) points out, given that we can recognise two levels of context (context of culture as realised by genre and context of situation as realised by register), we can recognise two types of coherence: situational (registerial) coherence and generic coherence. According to Eggins (1994), a text is situationally coherent when all clauses are relevant to that specific situation in relation to field, tenor and mode. Similarly, a text is generically coherent if it can be identified "as an example of a particular genre". That is to say, each part in the schematic structure will realise "one element in the unfolding, staged organisation of the language event" (p. 87).

2.3.4.3 Research on the relationship between cohesion and coherence in English as the first language

Cohesion and its relation to coherence has been the subject of a great deal of research because of the possibilities in teaching and evaluating the quality of writing. Halliday and Hasan (1976) regard coherence as being related to cohesion. Their most important pioneer work in the area of cohesion includes a complete account of cohesive ties in English by dealing with aspects of text and cohesion from a social semiotic perspective. Other linguists have also contributed to research to this area.
Hoey (1983, 1991) develops Halliday and Hasan's account to investigate how cohesive features combine to contribute to coherence in a text. In his early work, he looks at cohesion in relation to some important patterns of rhetorical organisation. In his later work, he looks at cohesive chains and the significance of repetition.

Hasan (1984: 183) considers that coherence involves the idea of unity and "that the patterns of language manifest – or realise – the existence of semantic bonds" Hasan (1985b) describes the relative coherence of three sample texts and points out that the one that is less coherent than the other two has several unconnected grammatical subjects. That is, the text lacks topic unity. Halliday (1992) demonstrates how the grammar of English works in creating coherence in text and how lexical and grammatical choice can "give the text its distinctive feature" (p. 356).

Much of the work mentioned above is involved with the question of how far cohesive elements can account for coherence in discourse, and how far straight linguistic description can help us understand it. There are some criticisms of Halliday and Hasan's model of cohesion by some linguists including Morgan and Sellner (1980), Carrell (1982), and Brown and Yule (1983). These researchers all hold the view that cohesion does not mean coherence. Hartnett (1986) also finds that the mere presence of cohesive ties does not necessarily lead to successful writing because the incidence of the ties of all types which are poorly constructed seems to relate to the overall quality of the text. She notes that few linguists have attempted to analyse how cohesion contributes to coherence and argues that researchers should reconsider the value of linking overall writing quality to the quality of cohesive devices. Tierney and Mosenthal's research (1983) on twelfth grade students' essays finds that there is no relationship between cohesion and coherence.

Nevertheless, Halliday and Hasan do not claim that an analysis of cohesion by itself can lead to an evaluation of the effectiveness of texts. Instead Halliday and Hasan (1976: 18–28) point out that a writer can construct a passage which is coherent in a situational and semantic sense for a reader, but lacks intersentence
cohesion. A writer can also construct a cohesive passage which lacks continuity of meaning in situation and topic for a reader. Those readers who are not able to find an interpretation, either in the intersentence cohesive cues or in the situational elements, unconsciously construct a 'context of situation' for the passage based on their own background. Hasan (1985b) concludes that cohesion is an essential feature of a text, but not the only factor contributing to coherence.

However, some first language researchers (Witte & Faigley, 1981; Tierney & Mosenthal, 1983; McCulley, 1985) after studying the relationship between the cohesiveness of student writing and its overall quality and/or coherence, found that some of the cohesion frequencies seem to be related to writing quality. Witte and Faigley (1981) investigated the relationship between patterns of cohesiveness and quality of writing. Their research shows that coherence is partly based on the interconnections with the text and partly in the mind of the reader who relates the text to its extra-textual situation.

It seems that most scholars agree that cohesive texts are not necessarily also coherent texts. This is because cohesion is realised by lexically and grammatically overt intersentential relationships, whereas coherence is based on semantic relationships. Both are realised through the lexicogrammar. These two aspects of writing interact somewhat, and yet a text need not be coherent to be cohesive. Therefore, coherence is determined by many factors with cohesion as one of the factors that contributes to it.

2.3.4.4 Research into cohesion and coherence in ESL writing and Chinese learners of English

There has been a great deal of research into cohesion and coherence in ESL writing. Scarcella (1984), for example, examined patterns of cohesion in the ESL academic writing of different language groups studying at a college in the US and found that the Korean students in her study were different in using cohesion when
compared with native English speakers. Many researchers show that ESL writers usually have difficulty in choosing the appropriate cohesive devices to help build up the ties, thus making it difficult for native English speakers to decode the meaning (Johnson, 1992; Reid, 1992; Kuo, 1995).

Connor (1984) studied the relationship between cohesion and coherence in the writing of native American English speakers vs. Japanese and Spanish ESL college-level subjects in the US. She found that the number of cohesive devices used — whether a text employs many or few such devices (that is, general cohesion density) — was not a discriminating factor between native speakers and ESL writers. However, she also found ESL writers in her study lacked the variety of lexical cohesive devices used by the native speakers.

Of greater relevance to the present study, some researchers have also studied Chinese speakers in terms of cohesion and coherence.

Tsao's (1978, 1980) comparative research between Chinese and English cohesion shows that in the area of reference, in many contexts English tends to use a pronominal tie to indicate coreferentiality while Chinese is much more tolerant of ellipsis. Li and Thompson (1981) also note that because of the tolerance of pronominal ellipsis, Chinese learners of English are likely to use zero-pronouns in many contexts. Such an absence of pronominals in texts may violate the writing principle of native English speakers, and could cause comprehension difficulties for native readers. This will be discussed in later chapters.

Jones' (1984) research shows that Chinese speakers, even at the advanced level, have difficulty in producing appropriate cohesive items, especially in the reference and adversative conjunct categories. These misuses interfere with native English readers' processing of text. However, Jones (1984) does not specify whether these mistaken patterns of Chinese students can be accounted for by transfer of the mother tongue or developmental interlanguage. This issue also needs to be examined further.
In relation to the use of conjunction, Wang (1955) points out that Chinese tends to use parataxis, that is, clause complexes in which each clause is independent of each other. In this case, conjunctions between clauses are not important. What is crucial is the ordering of clauses: what occurs first precedes what happens later. However, English uses hypotaxis; that is, clause complexes in which one clause is dependent upon the other. For this reason, hypotactic clauses are often linked by conjunctions. Tsao (1980) also compared the use of clausal conjunctions in the two languages and found a general correspondence — where in English a clausal conjunction is necessary, it is often optional in Chinese, and where it is optional in English, it is often non-existent in Chinese. However, McDonald (personal comment, 2000) observes that Chinese does not exclusively use parataxis or English hypotaxis, the proportions in each language are different and parataxis in Chinese will often (but not always) be used to translate hypotaxis in English. In regard to this study, it is hypothesised that Chinese EFL students may transfer their use of conjunctions to their English writing which means they would use few conjunctions.

Tsao (1980) claims that while in English a distinction between conjunctions like although and adverbial connectives like however can be maintained, no such distinction can be found in Chinese. This difference between English and Chinese exists due to the fact that Chinese makes no distinction between finite and non-finite clauses. All these dissimilarities between Chinese and English may account for many errors in the use of conjunctions in Chinese EFL writing.

Studies of coherence and of the use of cohesive devices have indicated that the organisation and the signalling cues that enable participants to make relevant connections between and among the ideas, sentences and paragraphs, are culture and modality specific (Gumperz et al., 1984). That is, speakers and writers whose native language is not English may use organisational and cohesive devices differently than native speakers do. In this sense, it is important for ESL/EFL researchers to examine ESL/EFL texts in terms of how non-native speakers use cohesion to help bind
clauses together and to what degree these devices help realise or break the coherence of text.

2.4 Summary

This chapter has provided a general overview of Halliday's functional grammar with particular emphasis on its textual metafunction which serves as the theoretical framework of the present study. It has also reviewed the relevant research previously done on this area. It is clear that, although some linguists have made a contribution to textual analyses of the structural components on Chinese ESL/EFL writing, not much research has been conducted systematically. As far as studies on information structures are concerned, few have been designed for ESL/EFL pedagogical purposes. As for cohesion, although some researchers attempted to explore this area, their research was undertaken on the basis of comparing Chinese ESL students' reading performance and that of native speakers from a psycholinguistic perspective. So far, not much research on Chinese EFL writing has been done by using functional grammar as the framework. In order to fill in this research gap, the present research aims at examining Chinese EFL students' texts from a systemic functional point of view and exploring how these writers exercise their ability to choose each linguistic item to realise its meaning in a specific context.

Chapter 3 will review research on text analysis in contrastive rhetoric. This research is important as a content for this study because it is one of the main sources of research on the differences between ESL writing and that of native English speakers. The findings from the contrastive rhetoric research have been an important influence in the formulation of some of the research questions which have guided the present study.
Chapter 3

Relevant Rhetoric Research

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 introduces the major issue of functional grammar – text and context. In particular, it focuses on the textual meta-function of language since this is the theoretical framework in the present study. As pinpointed in Chapters 1 and 2, systemic functional linguists argue that text and context are interrelated. Wherever there is a text, there is a social context accompanying it (including context of situation and context of culture). Chapter 3 will review some contrastive rhetoric research on Chinese ESL/EFL learners and will introduce the tradition of Chinese text. These two issues will be helpful to understand the Chinese context.

To meet this purpose, Chapter 3 starts with a brief introduction of contrastive analysis with an emphasis on its research on the Chinese language. Then it focuses on introducing the nature of Chinese rhetoric patterns.

3.2 Contrastive Rhetoric Research

In Connor's research (1996), writing was generally neglected by researchers for many years as an area of investigation due to the fact that teaching emphasised spoken language under the influence of audiolingual methodology. It is only in the past twenty years that more and more applied linguistic researchers started to explore this area. There are many reasons why applied linguists have become interested in the study of writing: "the increased understanding of language learners' needs to read and write in the target language; the enhanced interdisciplinary approach to studying second language acquisition through educational, rhetorical, and anthropological methods and new trends in linguistics" (Connor, 1996: 5).
In second language learning research, contrastive rhetoric became popular in the 1970s. According to Connor (1996), "contrastive rhetoric is an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers, and by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them" (p. 5).

Robert Kaplan's research (1966) on 600 L2 students' writing is one of the pioneering studies in contrastive rhetoric. His article "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education" outlines his contrastive rhetoric hypothesis and tests it with reference to ESL student essays.

Kaplan believes that rhetoric and patterns of thought are interrelated to each other and culture specific: "Sequence of thought and grammar are related in a given language" (1966: 4). Kaplan argues that ESL students should be taught to understand the rhetorical difference between English and their native languages. Otherwise, this difference will interfere with their English writing. In fact, this presumption is strongly influenced by the Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis which emphasises the importance of language in a culture by arguing that how a society perceives reality is determined by the language of that culture (Bloom, 1981).

With regard to expository genres, Kaplan (1966) describes the structure of English texts as linear, because a paragraph in English typically begins with a topical statement supported by examples that are related to the central theme. In contrast, paragraphs in other languages are said to have different typical structures. For example, essays written in Chinese language are supposed to use an indirect approach and come to the point only at the end. Kaplan also showed examples of paragraph development in other cultures, such as Semitic languages and Romance languages. Figure 3.1 diagrams rhetoric structures in different cultures (Kaplan, 1966).
Since this study will discuss only two of these patterns, the English and the Oriental (including Chinese), the researcher has only focused on these two rhetoric types. As shown in Figure 3.1, the English pattern is a straight line indicating that expository writing follows a direct and linear organisation. It usually begins with a topic sentence, followed by supporting paragraphs and ending with a conclusion. Generally speaking, all ideas will support the thesis, thus making the whole text a coherent unit.

In contrast, the Oriental pattern is like a spiral circling around the central point. There is no topic sentence at the beginning of the text. In Kaplan's words (1966):

\[\text{The circle or gyre turns around the subject and shows it from a variety of tangential views, but the subject is never looked at directly. Things are developed in terms of what they are not, rather than in terms of what they are (1966: 7).}\]

This can be described as indirectness because one has to read between the lines and infer the implications in order to understand the writing.

However, many researchers have argued forcefully that Kaplan's diagrams (Figure 3.1) cannot be followed as a model to represent a theory of contrastive rhetoric (Hinds, 1983; Mohan & Lo, 1985) because the diagrams and his hypothesis have been interpreted too simplistically and too literally. It is not reasonable that Kaplan's diagrams are taken to mean that a writing pattern reflects a thinking pattern. In other words, the Chinese write in circles, therefore, they must think in circles.
In 1972 Kaplan published a book on contrastive rhetoric, "The Anatomy of Rhetoric: Prolegomena to a Functional Theory of Rhetoric". In this book, he proposes that the paragraph should be considered a unit of analysis and language is understood in a context larger than a sentence. He criticised structuralist theory which takes a sentence as the basic unit of syntax, and the Aristotelian concept of discourse, "in which the word itself was the basic unit" (Kaplan, 1972: 2). According to Kaplan, these concepts lead to sentence-based text analyses. He was thus one of the earliest linguists to introduce analyses of ESL texts at the textual level (Connor, 1996).

3.2.1 Kaplan's argument about the Chinese expository essay

Kaplan's 1966 research on 600 ESL students (110 of whom were Chinese) studying in USA proposed that Chinese and other "Oriental" writing is indirect. The organisation of a Chinese expository essay is different from that of its Anglo-European counterpart, which is expected to follow a linear development. In his book (1972), Kaplan argued that the indirectness was influenced by the traditional Chinese essay form, the 'eight-legged essay'. (It was used as a standard model of the civil service examination from the fifteen century and was discontinued in early twentieth century.) The 'eight-legged essay' will be detailed later in this chapter.

However, there are several criticisms of Kaplan's hypothesis on Chinese ESL texts. Tsao (1983) summarises several weaknesses in Kaplan's conclusion about Chinese ESL writers. One of these is that the judgement of whether the four cited essays written by his Chinese subjects are of eight-legged type or not was made by himself instead of being done by some independent judges. Therefore, his conclusion may be biased by his preconception about Chinese ESL writers so that he may always focus on what he wants to find. Kaplan also did not explain how he chose these four essays and there is no explanation about other essays which do not fit into the eight-legged category. Other scholars (Mohan & Lo, 1985; Kirkpatrick,
1997) point out that it is hard to follow Kaplan's Chinese ESL writers' rhetoric transfer from their mother tongue because the eight-legged essay had been discontinued a long time ago and many Chinese people never learn this rhetoric form.

3.2.2 Research on Chinese ESL writing

Following Kaplan's pioneering study of Chinese ESL writers, many scholars have contributed to this area, arguing either for or against his hypothesis.

Mohan and Lo (1985) surveyed teachers of native Chinese ESL students in both Hong Kong and British Colombia, and claim that the organisational pattern of Chinese writing does not differ significantly from that of English. They criticise Kaplan's claim of the importance of indirectness in Chinese and the influence of the eight-legged essay. They argue that both classical and modern Chinese favour directness rather than indirectness. However, one limitation in their study is that their research is only restricted to the Chinese subjects living in the countries or territories where English is spoken as the main or official language. Therefore, given that the subjects were instructed in English at schools, the way they write in Chinese may be influenced by their English literacy.

Ron Scollon (1991) agrees with Kaplan's viewpoint of indirectness in Chinese writing on one hand. On the other hand, however, he disagrees with Kaplan's contention that the indirectness results from the influence of eight-legged essays. Ron Scollon believes that indirectness in Chinese writing is caused by a different view of self in Chinese culture from the Western concept of selfness. According to him, the Chinese concept of self is centred on the relationship among people which is influenced by Confucian philosophy of self: (1) affection between parent and child; (2) righteousness between rulers and ruled; (3) differentiation between elder and younger; and (4) trust between friends and friends. Having such a concept of self makes it hard for Chinese writing to be direct. This is different from the Western
concept of writing which values the individual's experience and viewpoints. Therefore, it is likely that Chinese students would write in an indirect way (Ron Scollon, 1991).

Matalene (1985), after studying sample essays written by Chinese EFL students in China, found that arguments are often delayed. The students tend to quote proverbs, sayings, authorities' words and history-related narratives, which seem unconnected and lacking argumentative coherence to Western readers.

Cai (1993) also did research on the reason why Chinese students are indirect in writing. He found that Chinese students tend to avoid free expression of personal views and feelings. Instead they like to use quotations of poetry and references to the past. According to Cai, quoting from old texts is considered cultured as well as respectful of authorities. To accept traditional values and social norms is considered polite behaviour.

To summarise, whatever conclusions these researchers on Chinese writing have obtained from their studies, they all reject the overly simplistic explanation offered by Kaplan in his early writings about the effect of the eight-legged essays on Chinese ESL writers. Researchers who work on contrasts between English and Chinese generally agree that this is a complicated issue. So far, contrastive rhetoric studies have discovered differences between Chinese and English writing. These differences can be explained by a number of sociopolitical and cultural factors. It is believed that the organisation of the eight-legged essay by itself is not the reason for the seemingly indirect writing of Chinese writers. Instead, explanations that consider cultural orientations toward self, others, society, and social interaction are taken into account.
3.3 The Chinese Concept of Writing

In Chinese culture, writing has a high social status. For centuries, it was strictly enforced that the selection of officials in the civil service examination was mainly based on the writing of a stereotyped essay. Other than this, writing is also used as a tool to give moral messages and to express the social harmony in society. Traditionally, there has been no value for critical writing (Ron Scollon, 1991).

3.3.1 Two common Chinese expository patterns

It is understood that in any culture good writing must be well-organised. But in different cultures, the preferred patterns and ways of describing text organisation may be different. The cultural explanation maintains that organisational structures are strongly influenced, if not determined, by the cultural background of the writer (Bickner & Peyasantiwong, 1988; Leki, 1992; Matalene, 1985; Purves, 1988; Söter, 1988).

Regarding the Chinese writer, there are two basic rhetoric organisation patterns which are considered to influence Chinese ESL/EFL writing: bā guì wén (the eight-legged essay) and qi-chéng-zhuān-hé-jié structure (beginning-transition-turn-synthesis-end). The following section will introduce generic structures of these two patterns.

3.3.1.1 Bā Guì Wén (Eight-legged essay)

Bā Guì Wén (the eight-legged essays) is an expository style which was used to test candidates in Chinese civil servant examinations in Ming (1368–1644) and Qing (1644–1911) dynasties.

According to Kirkpatrick (1997), Bā Guì Wén consists of eight generic stages: (1) Pì Tí ('opening the title'); (2) Chéng Tí ('receiving the title'); (3) Qì Jiǎng ('starting discourse'); (4) Qì Gǔ ('beginning to give evidence'); (5) Xiǎo Gǔ
('preparing for the main theme of the essay'); (6) Zhōng Gǔ ('major part of the essay'); (7) Hòu Gǔ ('later part of the evidence') and (8) Dà Jié ('big conclusion').

The title of a Bā Gǔ Wén (eight-legged essay) is normally a phrase or a statement made by Confucius. The first stage (Po Ti - 'opening the title') and the second stage (Chéng Ti - 'receiving the title') are short. In the first stage, the writer has to show the source of the title followed by the second stage to explain why Confucius made this statement.

From the third stage Qǐ Jiāng ('starting discourse'), the writer uses his/her own words rather than quoting Confucius' words. This stage is in fact the real beginning of the essay. The fourth stage Qǐ Gǔ ('beginning to provide the evidence') contains some philosophical content of the essay. However, the writer is not expected to elaborate this.

The fifth stage Xiǎo Gǔ ('minor part of the evidence'), the sixth stage Zhōng Gǔ ('major part of the evidence') and the seventh part Hòu Gǔ ('later part of the evidence') are the core of the essay. The fifth stage prepares the reader for the main points of the essay. This stage serves as the preparation for the main theme of the essay which is realised in a parallel structure. In the sixth stage, the writer provides the main points that he/she wants to express followed by the seventh stage which is supposed to develop the main points raised in the sixth stage.

The eighth stage Dà Jié ('big conclusion') will conclude the essay. According to Tang (1980), the writer is supposed to express his/her viewpoints in this stage. Therefore, one remarkable feature of the eight-legged essay is the inductive reasoning involved.

3.3.1.2 Qǐ-chéng-zhuǎn-hé–jié

The second expository writing pattern consists of five generic stages: Qǐ ('beginning'), chéng ('transition'), zhuǎn ('turning'), hé ('synthesis') and jié ('end').
Qi ('the beginning') can be realised in different ways. Some of the major types include "opening the door and seeing the mountain" (direct method), "pulling up the headrope of a fishing net and opening the meshes" (from generalisation to specific aspects), "entering the theme with a specific incident or a fable or a verse line", etc. (Zhang, 1983: 84–5; Liu's translation, 1990a). For this reason, the Qi section is not treated as the topic sentence.

Chéng ('transition') whose function is to develop Qi ('the beginning') may be completed in a paragraph, or a sentence or a conjunction. Yu (1985: 645; Liu's translation, 1990a) illustrates that one unique technique in terms of the transition part in Chinese exposition is the use of the 'hidden line'. This 'hidden line' will appear once before it is mentioned later in the writing (Yu, 1985; Liu, 1993; Li, 1995; Tan et al., 1996). The function of using this technique is to arouse readers' interest and keep readers alert and expectant for some important points to emerge. In Chinese rhetoric, the use of hidden line is considered to be "a cohesive link to contribute to making the piece of discourse an interwoven whole" (Liu, 1990a: 40).

Zhuan ('turn') is the most important part in the organisation. It normally involves some kind of change—a change of point of view, a change of place or time or a change of topic. Yu (1985: 646–649; Liu's translation, 1990a) argues that, in terms of development pattern, "flatness" is not appreciated in Chinese writing. Instead it favours this philosophy: "Writing is like enjoying the view of mountains". Therefore, "it should contain many twists, turns and ups and downs". Tsao (1983) maintains that the fact that Chinese writers place much emphasis on this part indicates that Chinese speakers may not like structure that is too direct. This is different from English texts in which "directness" is encouraged.

Hé ('synthesis') brings all points together and summarises them. Jié ('the end') is the conclusion. Hé and jié can be realised by the same stage. They may be the same thing which is equivalent to the conclusion in English writing. Zhang (1983) observes that an essay can be concluded in the following ways: "winding up
the whole text and bringing out the main theme", "encouraging or urging the readers", "being philosophical and plunging the readers into thinking", "with delicate implied meaning which makes the reader enjoy it like savouring an olive", and "abrupt ending like stopping a galloping horse", etc. (p. 86; Liu's translation, 1990a).

3.3.2 The influence of these two patterns

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, many scholars of Chinese do not agree with Kaplan's viewpoint that the eight-legged essay still influences Chinese writing. These scholars maintain that most Chinese know nothing about the eight-legged essay due to the fact that it was discontinued in the May Fourth Movement in 1919—a literary revolution initiated by some advanced Chinese intellectuals who intended to reform society. This reform included calling for the removal of imperial regimes and the eight-legged style. From then on, Chinese people have been influenced by Western thought. Therefore, the eight-legged essay does not exert much influence on contemporary style in Chinese writing.

In contrast to the eight-legged essay, many researchers agree that the second type of essay, \[QY\]-\[chéng-zhuăn-hé-jié\], can be regarded as one of the popular patterns that are used in contemporary Chinese writing (Liu, 1990; Hinds, 1987; Yu, 1985; Liu, 1990a; Kirkpatric, 1997) which may influence Chinese ESL/EFL writing.

3.4 The Organisational Principles of Expository Writing in Chinese Text-books

Having looked at two major patterns of expository writings from Chinese history, we will now examine how Chinese text-books explain text structure in writing. Chinese writing, like its English counterpart, is also typically organised in a beginning-body-conclusion structure (Yu, 1985; Hu, 1992; Liu, 1990a). One important principle of writing organisation is "phoenix head, pig belly and leopard
important principle of writing organisation is "phoenix head, pig belly and leopard tail", which means beautiful opening, extensive body and powerful ending (Yu, 1985: 645; Liu, 1990a: 148–149). These three generic stages are described below.

3.4.1 How to start a text

Many Chinese text-books (Tan et al., 1996; Zhang, 1995; Li, 1995) instruct students to put the thesis at the beginning of the text. Tan et al. (1996), examining all the expository model texts in Chinese text-books compiled for high school students, found that there are two main types of thesis: (1) using the title of the essay as the thesis; (2) formulating the thesis by summarising given information. In the former case, the writer is expected to focus on keywords of the thesis from a specific angle and then develop it. In the latter case, normally the title only gives the area which may be very broad and extensive, for example, under the titles "Habits", "Education and Future" etc. Therefore, the writer should narrow down the topic and focus on one aspect after carefully considering all the given information or knowledge he/she has.

It is possible that some titles even have symbolic meaning by using some metaphor. In this case, one should set up the thesis based on interpreting the implication of this symbolic meaning. For example, the title "Destroying a tree is easier than growing it", a thesis title in the Chinese examination as one tested subject in the University Entrance Examination in 1981, it would be natural for a student to compose by simply accepting the literal meaning of the title, like "everyone should be responsible to protect trees". However, based on the markers' criteria, this is not enough. According to Tan et al. (1996), the text is expected to develop from its literal meaning to the implied meaning. For example, a tree can be seen as 'the communist country'. It took the Communist Party great efforts to win the leadership. In the process of leading its people to build the country into a modernised and more civilised society, it will encounter many bourgeois ideologies which will counteract
communism and even try to replace the communist policy. If people are not aware of the existence of evil thought, they may follow the wrong policy, which will result in the destruction of the communist regime.

In addition to the two above-mentioned methods suggested by Tan et al. (1996), Li (1995) also suggests that a good start can be a rhetorical question which will attract the reader to find the answer; it can quote an idiom, a proverb or even a poem. It can also be an introductory element about the topic. Whichever method is used, a good start will provide a strong basis for the developing text and will stimulate the reader's interest (Li, 1995).

This preference for putting the thesis earlier in the essay accords with the expectation of the native English reader (see Martin, 1985a).

3.4.2 How to develop a text – build the body

When the thesis is put forward, evidence needs to be provided. Since Chinese writing favours "a big belly", the body part should give many details. Tan et al (1996) summarise some techniques to be used:

1. To exemplify by using anecdotes or statistical figures obtained from the book or newspapers. Exemplification allows for accuracy and reliability of evidence, hence the writer is expected to inform the reader of the source of the citation.

2. Theoretical evidence which includes scientific definitions and principles, mottos, idioms or even sayings by the sage. The writer should only choose those which can contribute to his/her point. Therefore, the data chosen should relate to the real world experience. The writer should completely comprehend the meaning of the quotation and should not abuse it.

Like English exposition, reasoning is also one of the most important elements in Chinese essays. The methods used are not much different from that of English composition: inductive (from individual instances to general conclusion) and deductive (from determined generalisation to conclusion about a particular instance).
In realising the reasoning, several devices can be employed such as contrast, comparison, analogy, cause-effect and parallelism (Tan et al., 1996).

As mentioned earlier in 3.3.1.2, in Yu's (1985) description, reading a Chinese essay is like enjoying a mountain view: The writing is supposed to be full of twists, ups and downs. Therefore, flat structure and plain language should be avoided. For this reason, compared with the English counterpart whose language tends to be plain, it is common to use some figure of speech in Chinese text such as simile, metaphor and personification. Martin (1985a) observes that in English expository texts, it is usual to use metaphor whereas it is not acceptable to use the other two devices.

3.4.3 How to write a conclusion

A conclusion can be very flexible. The most common advice for writing a concluding part is to summarise or reiterate the main point of the text, that is, head-tail coherence. This will repeat the main point (provided at the beginning) at the end (Wang & Yang, 1988) in order to emphasise the content and deepen the reader's impression. This is similar to the end of most English essays. The other device aimed at strengthening the force of the composition is called the implicit and suggestive conclusion (Yang et al., 1958). In reaching this goal, the writer will make the conclusion "concise, suggestive and implicit; in other words, it should stop suddenly" (p. 299). It is believed that this kind of implicit conclusion may arouse the reader's interest in a way that the writing leaves some room for the reader to exert his/her imagination — an interaction between reader and writer. Therefore, the reader will be deeply impressed with what he/she reads. Obviously, this concise conclusion may be difficult for native English readers to interpret.

3.4.4 Comment on Chinese text-books

Judging from the above-mentioned patterns regarding 'beginning', 'body' and 'conclusion' respectively advised by Chinese text-books, it is clear that theoretically,
most of the instructed rhetoric patterns of the Chinese text are similar to those of the English text regarding directness with the exception of some traditional techniques. This similarity, to a great extent, shows the influence of English rhetoric on Chinese literary forms. However, in practice, it is possible that sometimes what is direct to a Chinese reader may be regarded as indirect to an English reader especially in the case of Chinese EFL texts.

3.5 Summary

This chapter started by introducing contrastive rhetoric research and its influence on the study of Chinese ESL writers. Then the traditional text patterns of Chinese exposition was reviewed. Finally, the accepted patterns of Chinese texts nowadays was described by examining the Chinese text-books. This information will be helpful in understanding Chinese EFL texts in carrying out text analysis in later chapters. Chapter 4 will explain the methodology to be used in this research.
Chapter 4

Research Design and Analytical Framework of the Project

4.1 Introduction

In Chapters 2 and 3, the researcher reviewed some theoretical background which is related to this study. In Chapter 4, the researcher will turn to the discussion of natural data — Chinese EFL texts. Chapter 4 will introduce the characteristics of the natural data which will be discussed in the remainder of this thesis. Details include the nature of the data, the participants and the methodologies for the research.

4.2 Sources of Data

Two types of data were collected in this study: primary data and supplementary data. The former data are the English texts written by Chinese EFL students at universities in China, which was to be analysed for the degree of coherence in terms of Theme/Rheme and cohesive devices. The supplementary data include English texts written by native English speakers studying at a university in Australia. Although the supplementary texts are limited in number, they are central to the main purpose of this study. As a non-native speaker of English, the researcher felt a need to have available samples of similar texts written by native speakers to provide a reference point. The texts have not, however, been used for detailed comparative analysis.

In addition, the supplementary data also include two Australian informants' comments about each text. The researcher used these comments as a guidance for coherence in the texts. This issue will be detailed later in this chapter.
4.2.1 Primary data collection

4.2.1.1 Participants

The population studied here consists of second-year students (aged 19–20) who were admitted in 1994 to science-oriented departments at Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, North Transportation University, Beijing Institute of Technology and Beijing Polytechnic University. All these four universities are comprehensive institutions that specialise in preparing under-graduates for careers in applied technical and professional fields.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, science-major students comprise 85% of the total population in Chinese universities. These four universities are ranked as key Chinese universities. This study has not included any of the few 'élite' schools in China like Peking University and Qinghua University because they have a reputation for having made successful use of English as a true medium of instruction, where students are of above average academic ability. The schools chosen are representative of English teaching standards in China and participants are representative of the school populations.

The participants were enrolled in various departments at these universities: civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electronic engineering, environmental chemistry engineering, metal material science, heating engineering, automation, applied physics, applied chemistry and computer science.

These students were allocated into different English groups according to their proficiency level on the basis of the placement test result they were given when they began their tertiary study. The groups were classified into three categories: advanced, average and less advanced. Accordingly, students from different departments may be allocated to the same English class and use the same English textbooks.

In advanced classes, because of the students' higher proficiency in English and mastery of English grammar, lecturers tend to employ other material (listening/reading) to complement the national-unified textbooks. In less advanced classes, because students are poor in English grammar, lecturers have to spend a great deal of
time on remedial teaching in addition to focusing on textbooks. As far as the average classes are concerned, students are more proficient in general English than those in less advanced classes, but not as proficient as those in advanced classes. Therefore, lecturers tend to focus on the textbooks.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, all universities developed curricula under the guidance of the National English Teaching Syllabus complied by the National Higher Education Committee in 1986. According to this syllabus, a student after two years of English study at the tertiary institution will be able to write a 100-word composition in 30 minutes' time in the following genres: narration, description, exposition, personal letters and business letters. The composition should be grammatically correct and express the message clearly.

The participants were given opportunities to practise English writing in writing workshops (see next section) where students from different English proficiency classes were mixed with each other due to the fact that this type of learning was not compulsory. The purpose for practising the writing of compositions is to meet the expectations of reader-teachers in an examination situation. Students were required to write a 100-word composition on a given topic under pressure and supervision in a specified time length (30 minutes' time). Nevertheless, this situation was considered by the researcher to be naturalistic in the sense that it was a regular part of student activities and probably typical of the most normal conditions under which university students in workshops must write.

4.2.1.2 The setting for data collection

The data were collected in the English writing workshops in these universities. As described in Chapter 1, Chinese universities do not offer English writing classes for non-English major students in English curricula. However, students' writing ability is tested in the College English Proficiency Test (CEPT). To compensate for this instructional lack, two or three months before CEPT is taken, all universities will organise free English writing workshops where students are taught some principles
and guidelines as to how to write English compositions in genres suggested by the National English Teaching Syllabus. Although not all of these genres are to be tested each time, writing workshop organisers believe that students are entitled to know how to compose them.

This research focuses only on expository writing in the workshops. The data collection involved two randomly chosen workshops in each of the four universities. Each workshop hosted more than 200 students. In total there were 1766 students (252 females) who participated in these workshops. For each workshop the researcher had the organiser choose two in-class simulated writing tests. That is, each time students were asked to write on a topic selected by the tutor (with the exception of the topic title "Making our cities greener") and submit their writing to the tutor in half an hour to be reviewed by the tutors. They were also told that their writing was not going to be graded with a mark. Therefore, students did not have this extra pressure while writing. They were not given any individual assistance, nor were they allowed to consult dictionaries. When the time limit expired, all students stopped, no matter whether the writing was finished or not. In each workshop, after the tutor collected the test sheets, he/she randomly chose around 20 texts, photocopied them and sent them to the researcher by post.

In all, 160 texts were received, of which 19 were later eliminated from this study. Five out of 19 were found from their student numbers written on their test sheets that they either belonged to the third-year undergraduate group who probably failed in CEPT last year or belonged to the first year group who may have had the intention to prepare for the test in advance. For those who had failed in the previous test, they had to prepare for their second try in order to get the CEPT certificate for better employment chances in the future. That is the reason why these "unexpected guests" participated in this workshop study. The rest of the 14 texts were incomplete and far too short to be analysed in the research (varying from 2 to 4 sentences). Unlike other incomplete texts which were still to be used for analysis, these 14 samples failed to develop any argument on the topic. It is interesting that all these 14
texts are from the same workshop and the topic to be written on is "Reading Does Not Help Much". In the end, a sample of 141 texts remained. The titles and types of the texts are illustrated in Table 4.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title of Texts</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Text Type</th>
<th>No. of texts</th>
<th>Total No. of each text type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?</td>
<td>Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Total number of analytical type is 67.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Reading does not help much</td>
<td>Beijing Polytechnic University</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Knowledge is the most valuable</td>
<td>Beijing North Transportation University</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 One should study hard?</td>
<td>Beijing Institute of Technology</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Making our cities greener</td>
<td>All the four universities above</td>
<td>Hortatory</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>Total number of hortatory type is 74.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1  Titles and Types of Sample Texts in the Primary Data

4.2.1.3  Ethical considerations

Before students started writing, they had been told that some of the writing may be chosen for research purposes. However, if any of them did not wish that their writing would be used, they could specify this request on the writing sheets. By doing this, it was guaranteed that each sample text collected in this study has been approved by the individual writer.
4.2.1.4 The nature of data

The data corpus comprised two types of expository text form: 1) analytical — persuading someone to accept your beliefs; 2) hortatory — persuading that action must be taken (See Martin, 1985a for details). All workshops dealt with these two types of expository text form.

For the analytical type, each workshop of the four universities chose its own topic. There are four topics in total:

1. As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important? (by Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications)
2. Reading does not help. (by Beijing Polytechnic University)
3. Knowledge is the most valuable. (by North Transportation University)
4. One should study hard? (by Beijing Institute of Technology)

As far as hortatory texts are concerned, the topic for the remaining four workshops of each of the universities was the same: "Making our cities greener". The reason why the four workshops chose this topic is probably because this topic was tested in the CEPT several years ago. Tutors in all workshops often tend to have students practise this type of "genuine topic" because writing on this topic would raise the awareness of students of a real test item.

The text form consisted of two formats of prompts which are usually used in designing these writing tasks for students.

1. A "bare" prompt in which the topic is designed in direct and simple ways. It is thus up to the test-takers to decide the dimension of the writing. In this study, all the analytical topics chosen belong to this type because students were not given any directions or suggestions other than the title itself.

2. A "framed" prompt in which type the test-taker is given a set situation and the task is presented based on this frame. For example, the topic for the hortatory text in the study falls into this type: "Making our cities greener". That is, in addition to the title, some suggestions were provided.
In addition to the topic "Making our cities greener", students were also given the following information: "What is the problem in our country? What shall we do in order to improve the situation?"

What all of the topics for the tests have in common is that they call for academic expository writing which is 'non-content-based'. That is, these topics neither require nor presuppose any specific content knowledge on the part of the participants (Kroll, 1991). The content for a prompt for these data seems self-evident. It is generally accepted that, when there is no preliminary reading material preceding the prompt, the ideas in the prompt should be within the experience of the student-writers. Research (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1984a; 1984b; 1987) has shown that student-writers perform most successfully when the writing topics are related to their background knowledge. That is, students write best about what is familiar (Carson & Kuehn, 1992; McKay, 1989; Peyton et al., 1990). For this reason, it is suggested that prompt designers should select content for writing tasks based on a body of knowledge to which all writers have equal access (Horowitz, 1991). In a timed writing situation, if candidates are not familiar with the subject matter and have to struggle to find a way to respond to the prompt, then it is possible that the writing skills they reflect might not be representative of writing skills they possess. They could potentially demonstrate better when they write on a more familiar topic.

4.2.2 Supplementary data collection

Since English is not the researcher's first language, it may have been difficult for her to judge objectively to what degree these Chinese EFL texts are seen to be successful and coherent. For this reason, it is beneficial to have some native English speakers write the same topics in a similar test situation and see how they perform in their writing. These texts act as a useful reference for the researcher to refer to while doing text analysis on the Chinese EFL students' texts.
4.2.2.1 Participants

Sixteen Australian students (10 male and 6 female) undertaking postgraduate studies in humanities at the University of Wollongong, Australia, volunteered to participate in this study.

4.2.2.2 The setting for data collection

The participants were seated in a lecture room and were given a list of expository text topics on the white-board from which they were required to choose one and finish the writing in half an hour under supervision. Like their Chinese counterparts, they were not allowed to use dictionaries.

4.2.2.3 The nature of the data

Basically all the topics were the same as those given to the Chinese participants with exception to the "greenery" topic. As discussed earlier in this chapter, it is preferable that students write on a topic which is very familiar to them. In Australia, there does not exist a "greenery" problem to the same extent as in China. Therefore, Australians could be confused by this topic and have no idea how to develop it. As far as the text type is concerned, only analytical expository texts were tested on the Australian students.

With respect to the rest of the topics, only "Reading does not help much" remained in the original form. The other three were amended by changing some of the wording so to as to better fit into the experience of the Australian students.

As far as the titles in the original form are concerned, most of them are both broad and lacking in focus, for example, the titles "One should study hard" and "Knowledge is the most valuable". However, they did not seem to confuse the Chinese students. Chinese students, while composing, automatically narrowed down the topics and focused on some specific aspects of the issues. They were also allowed to change the orientation of the title by changing a key word in the title or adding some words to it. For example, one Chinese EFL student writer in this study
while writing on "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?", changed the orientation by giving a subtitle, "Economics is more important than politics" and developed this subtitle. The strategy that the Chinese EFL students employed for handling the English writing topics or titles may be traced back to Chinese writing classes where it is quite common that Chinese teachers assign students a general topic and it is up to the students to talk about it from different aspects in order to give the author a balanced point of view, or narrow down the general topic and focus on one particular aspect (Tan et al., 1996). Therefore, it may be understood that, to many Chinese writing instructors, a composition title can be regarded as a catalyst to stimulate students to work out what they are interested in writing.

In comparison to their Chinese counterparts, Australian students would feel it difficult to write on such broad topics. Therefore, it was necessary to reword the titles. The two titles "One should study hard" and "Knowledge is the most valuable" were respectively changed to "Students should study hard so as to get ahead in life" and "Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world". The last title, "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics is important?" was changed to "As an Australian citizen, do you think politics is important?". The titles in supplementary data are illustrated in Table 4.2. It is clear that all these Australian student texts are of the analytical type.
Table 4.2 Titles and Sample Text Types in Supplementary Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title of Texts (Supplementary data)</th>
<th>Text Type</th>
<th>No. of Texts Collected</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Reading does not help much</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Students should study hard so as to get ahead in life</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 As an Australian citizen, do you think politics important?</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3 Grading the Chinese EFL students' texts

In order to preserve the anonymity of the writers, the texts were identified by a code with one letter and one number (e.g. S10, P2, K1 and etc.). All texts were typed with spelling errors corrected, but with all syntax and punctuation left intact.

Each text was read and awarded a judgement independently by two native English speaking volunteers. Both markers had been English writing teachers for many years and also had at least two years' experience in teaching ESL students at the tertiary level. They were currently studying for postgraduate degrees at the Faculty of Education, University of Wollongong. They were asked to grade the texts "successful" or "unsuccessful" according to their perception of coherence. After completing this ranking work, they returned all the graded texts to the researcher. She then compared the ranking of the texts according to the informants with the ranking according to the Theme/Rheme and cohesive analyses.
Since the researcher's first language is not English, it was important to have the native English speakers evaluate the texts. The aim of obtaining the informants' judgement was to ascertain if the text analysis could provide a possible explanation of the informants' perception. The researcher wanted to see how the native speakers' preliminary intuitive response to each text would correlate with the text analysis; that is to say, to what degree their judgement would confirm the findings of text analysis.

The main grading criteria were whether the students could understand the topic and could express their ideas coherently and effectively. Account was also taken of the relevance and organisation of the subject matter and the appropriateness of the style. The informants were asked to judge the level of coherence in each text by using their gut intuition, for it is held that readers have an intuitive understanding of the meaning of coherence. As introduced in Chapter 1, by coherence, the researcher uses Halliday and Hasan's definition, that is, having 'texture' — when all clauses in a text hang together in relation to social context (Hasan, 1976).

The informants were required not to give too much weight to grammatical mistakes that did not affect the understanding of the arguments (e.g. 'he study' instead of 'he studies'). However, poor grammar that makes nonsense of what the students write was to be taken fully into account. In short, 'writing coherently' was the basic requirement for an average grade.

A grading scheme was devised that involved the informants placing the texts into categories. There were two categories for the markers to place each text: successful and unsuccessful.

The compositions were returned to the researcher after marking after which the texts were analysed.

A successful text and an unsuccessful text for each text type are presented in Tables 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7.
4.2.3.1 Text type 1

"Knowledge is the Most Valuable"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Text</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At present more and more people are indulging in earning money. They think money is everything. If you have enough money, you can own the whole world. But I am opposite to this extreme idea. Money is important, but money is not everything. On the contrary, knowledge is something that is more valuable than money. Firstly, if you have knowledge, you can change the world. As is the saying, knowledge is power. This old saying has been proved through the practice of the people. Secondly, without knowledge, one will become nothing but an idiot. Knowledge can make you skilled, experienced and perfect. And you can have anything you like with your knowledge. So if I was asked to choose between money and knowledge, I will be surely choose the more valuable thing – knowledge. Thirdly, knowledge is something which, once you process, you will have it all your life. Money can be stolen, but nobody can take knowledge.</td>
<td>Since the formation of language and the invention of verb, knowledge has been accumulated rapidly. Throughout history, it has been proved to be the most valuable thing. With knowledge, today we can think, talk, read and we have joys and sorrows. Without it, we might also be happy or sad, but in some sense, we would do it randomly, say we would be objective and ignorant. Today, we all have seen the importance of knowledge, but now what is the important is to use knowledge properly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

– From Text K15
– From Text K10

Table 4.3 Successful and Unsuccessful Text Samples on "Knowledge is the Most Valuable"
4.2.3.2 Text type 2

"As a Chinese Citizen, Do You Think Politics Important?"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Text</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Politics is an important thing in all the world. But I think in China it went too far especially in the past. Politics has been put above all the other things. No one dares to say that he thinks politics is of no use or unimportant. During the past 15 years, with the policy of reform and opening, Chinese people put more attention to the economics than politics. I, as one of the Chinese citizen, think it's a good thing. For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better life. The improvement of the life quality betakes the progress of a country. We have wasted too many years in talking politics. Now how can we still do that again?</td>
<td>If you don't want to become a politician, politics is less important to you. You needn't know everything about politics. But on the other hand, since you are a Chinese citizen, you can't separate yourself from politics. Some important events taking place in our country or abroad should be known. If you are a student and only study every day, you'll become a bookworm and know nothing else except study.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- From Text P10

- From Text P16

Table 4.4 Successful and Unsuccessful Text Samples on "As a Chinese Citizen, Do You Think Politics Important?"
### 4.2.3.3 Text type 3

"Reading Does Not Help Much"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Text</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nobody can say that reading does not help much. People who cannot read have very little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world. This knowledge has accumulated over the centuries largely than to the ability of humans to write, and then to read the information. It can be &quot;pure&quot; science or abstract, theoretical knowledge, or it can be a much more practical day-to-day knowledge like a recorder to tell what time the next train leaves. People can also gain much knowledge about emotions and how to &quot;get along&quot; with their fellows. Much of this sort of understanding of how other people experience the world can be gained from the reading of literature. By reading literature people can experience situations and emotions at second hand. That is, they can feel the sadness of families separated by war even if they have never experienced this themselves. As well as this ability to experience things of course much factual knowledge, such as how to build a house, or a bomb, can be gained from reading. So it cannot be said that reading does not help much.</td>
<td>Reading, as most people think, is a helpful way by which we can find a wonderful world that we have never experienced, and also we can learn much valuable things. However, I don't think reading is always helpful. It's sometimes dangerous and harmful, especially to juveniles who haven't enough ability to judge the right or wrong. Every book has its limitness. Most juveniles see every book as good and right. Some idea in book sounds wonderful but useless. The world is varying, but the idea of a book is stagnate once it formed. It always bring reader into ideal imagination and disappointment to the reality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| From Text R3 | From Text R1 |

### Table 4.5 Successful and Unsuccessful Text Samples on "Reading Does Not Help Much"
### 4.2.3.4 Text type 4

"One Should Study Hard?"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Text</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When we regard a student as a good one, we often say &quot;he studies hard&quot;.</td>
<td>Yes. One should study all his life. The world is changing with great speed during this substance. Many new things will be coming. As human beings, we must study these new things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should we just study hard? I don't think so. Every day we learn something.</td>
<td>Studying hard, we will keep up with the situation. Besides we may feel empty, and our lives will be vague. So I say, studying is unquestionably so essential to us all as eating and sleeping. We are human beings which means all of us should be and must be different from other beasts. If we don't study hard, only eating and sleeping and playing, how can we be separate from them?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No matter how hard we study, we only grasp a small amount of knowledge</td>
<td>Somebody say one should study hard only in school and in childhood. It is not true. We should study hard all our lives. We have the duties to change the world into a more beautiful garden, we will face many many problems to solute. If we do not study hard all our lives, it must be a defeat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>among the knowledge available. I believe that one should first know what</td>
<td>Let's study hard for more beautiful tomorrow. It will be interesting very much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aspects he should study. When he studies, he focuses on these aspects.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondly, he should grasp the method to study. Different aspects of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge should be studied in different methods. There is no common</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>method to learn different aspects of knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So I think one should first know what to study, how to study, and then</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to study hard.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

– From Text S4                                                               – From Text S9

| Table 4.6 Successful and Unsuccessful Text Samples on                      |
| "One Should Study Hard?"                                                   |

"One Should Study Hard?"
4.2.3.5 Text type 5
"Making Our Cities Greener"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Text</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Today in our cities, the area covered with trees is small. In the centre of the city, few trees can be found. In order to build factories, shopping centres and other buildings, trees are cut to make room for them.</td>
<td>The environments of our cities are becoming very bad. There are so many buildings, people, car and so on. It makes our cities so crowded and polluted now, but our city greenery is so poor that many people think our cities are dirty, and it makes many people's health very poor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are many benefits in planting trees. Trees can clean the air, can make our cities more beautiful and make the climate better. To clean the air of our cities polluted by the modern industry, make our living in cities more comfortable, it is important to make our cities greener.</td>
<td>In order to make our cities clean and beautiful, we must make our cities greener. It not only clean the air, makes our cities beautiful, but also it can make our climate comfortable and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do we make our cities greener? First, make all people realise the importance of trees and not to destroy them. Secondly, carry out the current to plant trees. The more trees we plant, the more benefit we will gain.</td>
<td>If we want to make our cities greener, we should plant a lot of trees, grass and flowers. We should protect the beautiful environment. So, our life will be happier.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

– From Text G10                                                                                                                                   – From Text G41

Table 4.7 Successful and Unsuccessful Text Samples on "Making Our Cities Greener"

4.3 Text Analysis and Procedures

As mentioned in Chapter 1, text analysis has many practical applications for ESL/EFL classroom situation teaching: on the one hand it can assist teachers in selecting appropriate texts for teaching and assessing student writing; and on the other hand it can assist students in understanding how language functions to construct texts appropriate to particular contexts.
Analysing a text means studying its language closely so that its structure and patterns of meaning can be identified (Bloor & Bloor, 1995). This can also be called deconstructing a text. As argued in Chapter 1, systemic-functional linguistics is useful for text analysis because it is a theory of language which provides tools for looking systematically at the language of a text, making explicit the relations between meanings constructed at clause level and meanings at the 'larger' levels (paragraph and text) which in turn can be systematically related to specified elements of the context.

The value of text analysis, particularly with ESL/EFL students, is that it involves bringing educators to a conscious awareness of relations which are otherwise unconscious and therefore implicit and inaccessible to someone new to the culture (Bloor & Bloor, 1995).

4.3.1 Context of situation of text

In Chapter 1, the notion of "context of situation" and the notion of "function of language" were introduced. In systemic functional grammar, context of situation can be interpreted by means of a conceptual framework using the terms "field", "tenor" and "mode". By the same token, function of language can be identified as the functional components of the semantic system of a language: (1) ideational, (2) interpersonal and (3) textual. The systemic relationship between context of situation and functions of language is: the field is reflected in the ideational meanings of the text, the tenor in the interpersonal meanings of the text and the mode in the textual meanings (Halliday, 1985b).

In this research, the primary data collected range across five topics. In other words, the texts studied here are of five different contexts of situation, differing primarily in terms of the field variable. Below is the description of context of situation to each title.
Text I  As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?
Field: The Chinese community member's attitude towards politics.

Text II Reading does not help much
Field: Reading as an activity and its usefulness.

Text III Knowledge is the most valuable
Field: The knowledge that a person possesses is the most valuable possession in the world.

Text IV One should study hard?
Field: Personal points of view about whether or not one should study hard.

Text V Making our cities greener
Field: The current situation of "greenness" in the cities; the advantages of making the cities greener; the steps people should take in order to "green" the cities.

All these five topics share the 'tenor' and 'mode'.

Tenor: Students' assignment at the university, both interactive and informative; reader unseen; the reader/writer relationship is that of the teacher/student.

Mode: Written to be read; monologue; persuasive with rational argument.

From the above, it is clear that although each of the five titles has its own specific field, they share a lot in tenor and mode. Since the research focus in this study is on mode which is realised in the textual meaning (i.e. Theme/Rheme structure and cohesive structure of the text), field and tenor will be ignored.

4.3.2 Schematic structure

Another important analytical category in this research is generic structure. Introduced in Chapter 2, the term 'genre' has been used in discourse to refer to different types of texts (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Hasan, 1977). In this study, generic structures in the students' texts were examined to see if the writers fulfilled
the expectation of each stage in relation to information structure (realised in Theme/Rheme structure) and cohesion. The examination of this category can tell whether the text is coherent at the global level. Chapter 2 presented two different models in terms of the genre-based approach in systemic functional research: schematic structure (Martin & Rothery, 1980; Martin, 1985a; Christie, 1984; Hammond, 1987) and the generic structure potential (GSP) (Hasan, 1977; 1984; 1985a; 1996c). In this study, I will examine how the Chinese EFL writers realised the generic stages in expository genre using J. R. Martin's 'schematic structure' model as mentioned in Chapter 2.

4.3.3 Theme/Rheme analysis and cohesive analysis

As mentioned in Chapter 1, two types of qualitative analyses on the sample data were conducted: Theme/Rheme and cohesive. They will be described in the remainder of this chapter. The reason why these two categories of meaning making potential were chosen is that they realise the textual metafunction of the text according to Halliday (1985a; 1994, etc).

4.3.3.1 Theme/Rheme analysis

As described in Chapter 1, Theme is the beginning part of a clause. It orients the reader/listener to "what the clause is going to be about" (Halliday, 1985a: 39). The rest of clause (following the Theme) is Rheme. Normally, Theme conflates with Given information whereas Rheme conflates with New information.

In order to do Theme/Rheme analysis, the researcher had to start by coding the texts into Themes and Rhemes. The coding into Theme/Rheme depends on which theoretical model is subscribed to. There are disagreements in coding Themes. Halliday (1985a) examined Theme/Rheme at the sentence level, whereas Martin (1992a; 1992b) explored Theme/Rheme at the clause level. In this research, there is a need for a unit smaller than sentence, but larger than clause, for the reason that too much attention to the details of clauses may result in ignoring the whole text as a unit;
on the other hand, given that the EFL students in this study are not skilful English writers, the sentences they composed are often loosely structured. Therefore, focusing on sentences may neglect some important details within the sentence structure. Following Fries' (1981/1983) coding model, t-units (first introduced by Hunt; for detail, see Hunt, 1965) were used. A t-unit "consists of an independent clause together with all hypotactically related clauses and words that are dependent on that independent clause" (Fries, 1995a: 49). Here are some examples of t-units.

Example 4.1

1) I don't think one should necessarily study hard. (one t-unit)

2) Only when you study hard and when you try your best, you can find capability and be successful (one t-unit)

3) One must study hard/ and you can be successful. (two units)

(From the researcher's data)

Another issue in coding the Theme is how the researcher would define Theme. Halliday (1985a), Martin (1992a) and Fries (1981/1983; 1995a; 1995c) all define the Theme as what the message is about and include the first ideational element in their coding units. However, Berry (1995) in her research on children's writing extended Theme to include anything preceding the verb in the clause. In Hawes and Thomas' study (1997), Theme was also extended to include the grammatical subject. Basically, their coding of Theme is the same as Berry's. Here, Halliday, Martin and Fries' definition of Theme is followed — everything up to and including the first ideational element.

Based on Halliday's research (1985a), Theme involves three major systems: 1) choice of type of Theme (single/multiple); 2) choice of marked or unmarked Theme; and 3) choice of predicated or unpredicated Theme.

Here are some examples of Themes. All examples are taken from students' sample texts. The underlined part is the Theme.
(TE: textual Theme; TOP: topical Theme; INT: interpersonal Theme).

1. Choice of types of Theme

(1) Single Theme: when there is only one topical Theme in a t-unit.

Topical Themes can be realised by participants or circumstances. The following three sentences in Example 4.2 all use single Theme.

Example 4.2

a. City greenness is very good. (Participant)

b. Everywhere you can see green trees, green grass. (Circumstance)

c. In the past one hundred years our society has developed very much. (Circumstance)

(2) Multiple-Theme: when there is more than one type of Theme in a t-unit.

Multiple-Theme is either the coexistence of textual Theme and topical Theme, or the co-existence of interpersonal Theme and topical Theme, or the co-existence of all three. Example 4.3 presents some examples of using multi-Themes.

Example 4.3

a. But politics can be dangerous if it is misused. (textual + topical)

b. However, personally I don't like politics. (textual + interpersonal + topical)

c. Surely, our cities will become greener than before. (interpersonal + topical)

2. Choice of unmarked or marked Theme

(1) Unmarked Theme

When topical Theme conflates with the subject of the declarative, or with wh-interrogative (who/what), or finite interrogative (do/be) or process (imperative), the Theme is unmarked. The following four sentences in Example 4.4 all employ unmarked Theme.
Example 4.4

a. Politics enters every corner of your life, although sometimes you weren't aware of it.

b. What is the most valuable to us?

c. Is politics important?

d. Plant as many trees as we can.

(2) Marked Theme

When Theme does not map with either of the above elements, the Theme is marked. Sentences in Example 4.5 all use marked Theme.

Example 4.5

I. When circumstances are used as Themes, for example,

a. This year people have planted more trees and flowers than before. Marked

II. In a complex sentence where the dependent clause is placed first, the whole dependent structure is taken as a marked Theme. For example,

b. If we can use it (politics) rightly, we will be proud of our country.

c. Since politics is important, does it mean that all the politics are right?

d. Because you can leave away from politics, politics does not want to leave you.

III. In an existential structure, for example,

e. There are many bad politicians in the Chinese history.

f. There are several reasons supporting my opinion.

3. Choice of predicated or unpredicated Theme

It is common for students to use predicated Themes. A predicated Theme results from a cleft sentence construction in which the sentence begins with "It is..." and contains a projective beginning with "that". Example 4.6 presents two examples.
Example 4.6

a. It is quite clear that none of us can study all the materials and knowledge of the different disciplines.

b. It is the trees or other plants that absorb the CO₂ and give off O₂ which people depend on.

After the Theme in each t-unit was coded into the above categories, how the information is structured in Themes of different ranks was examined: local Theme at the t-unit level (including Rheme), hyper-Theme at the paragraph level and macro-Theme at text level if available (proposed by J. R. Martin, 1992a and 1995); how Theme and Rheme are patterned in realising the generic stages (schematic structures). Then how each local Theme and Rheme (at the t-unit level) are related to the preceding discourse is explored, that is, thematic progression of the text as put forth by Danes (1974).

Fries' model — 'method of development' — is also commonly used to examine how each text develops with respect to Themes, and his framework would give the reader a synoptic view of the whole text. However, Fries' method of development is Theme-biased. One problem is that the reader often cannot judge whether it is a good text just by looking at Themes. Especially when the researcher studies ESL/EFL student texts, there are cases when the Themes of the text are coherent to the topic. However, if he/she looks at the Rhemes, the text is often no more than a list. This problem will not be revealed if the researcher only isolates all the Themes and considers them together. It is necessary to look at the entire text and the way in which both Themes and Rhemes interact together to organise the information. Compared with Fries' model, Danes' 'thematic progression' model would be more suitable to meet this need. However, Danes' model still places more emphasis on Themes. For the purpose of this study, it is appropriate to modify this model by focusing on both Themes and Rhemes, that is, 'Theme/Rheme progression model'. By using this model, the progression of Themes and Rhemes in a text
between and among t-units is presented. This may be useful in explaining both successful and unsuccessful information structure choices because this model relates Themes and Rhemes to one another as the text unfolds.

The sequence of the analysis in this study is, after Theme and Rheme have been identified in each t-unit of both Chinese and Australian student texts, to examine the information in Themes and Rhemes of different ranks (i.e. Theme, hyper-theme and macro-theme). The third step is to find out if there are any particular progression patterns favoured by the Chinese and Australian students in their texts. The fourth step is to analyse the similarities and differences between successful and unsuccessful groups in the Chinese EFL texts. The fifth step is to compare the findings in Chinese EFL texts to those in Australian texts. Figure 4.1 illustrates the whole procedure for Theme/Rheme analysis.
Theme/Rheme Analysis

Step 1: Coding t-units in the texts and identifying Theme and Rheme in t-unit.

Step 2: Examining the information in Theme and Rheme of different ranks according to the generic stage.

Step 3: Identifying the favoured patterns in Theme/Rheme progression.

Step 4: Analysing similarities and dissimilarities between successful and unsuccessful groups in Chinese EFL texts.

Step 5: Relating the findings in Chinese EFL texts to those in Australian texts.

Figure 4.1 Procedures for Theme/Rheme Analysis

4.3.3.2 Cohesive analysis

As described in Chapters 1 and 2, Halliday's (1985a) textual metafunction includes both the structural systems of Theme/Rheme and the non-structural system of cohesion. Both contribute to the level of coherence of a text. To fully examine the coherence of a text, the cohesive devices being utilised within a text should also be examined.

Alongside the examination of the thematic progression of a text, it is necessary to study the cohesive ties that occur in Themes and Rhemes in a text and how they
form effective cohesive chains that contribute to the development of the text. The following section will elaborate on the cohesive analysis employed in this study.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, cohesive devices are described as explicit cues to indicate relations within and between sentences. The analysis of cohesion, adapted from Halliday and Hasan (1976), is based on the concept of the text as a semantic unit which is dependent on the cohesion between its elements. In order to analyse a text in terms of its cohesive properties and give a systematic account of its patterns of cohesion, Halliday and Hasan's (1976) preliminary research in this area describes in detail the resources that a native English speaker employs from the system for indicating the semantic relations in his/her speaking and writing. Table 4.8 (Hasan, 1984) summarises the cohesive devices of the English language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. REFERENCE</th>
<th>IV. CONJUNCTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. pronominal</td>
<td>1. cohesive conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. definite article</td>
<td>a. additive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. demonstrative</td>
<td>b. adversative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. comparative</td>
<td>c. temporal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. causal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. SUBSTITUTION &amp; ELLIPSIS</td>
<td>2. continuative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. nominal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. verbal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. clausal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. LEXICAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. reiteration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. repetition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. synonymy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. super-ordinate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. general word</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. collocation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 Summary of Cohesive Devices in the System of English Language (Hasan, 1984: 185)

Halliday and Hasan (1976) use the term tie to refer to an instance of a cohesive relation between sentences.
With \textit{reference}, the meaning of a linguistic item is specified and interpreted through its referent in the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) summarised two types of reference – exophora and endophora, as shown in Figure 4.2.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{reference.png}
\caption{Reference} 
\label{fig:reference} 
\end{figure}

Exophora means that reference can be retrieved from the context (either knowledge or experience) shared by the speaker (or writer) and listener (or reader). By contrast, endophoric reference can be retrieved from the text. It consists of anaphora and cataphora. Anaphoric reference means that the reference appears at an earlier point in the text, whereas cataphoric reference appears later in the text.

Eggins (1994) observes another type of endophoric reference: esophoric reference. That is, the referent that appears in the phrase following the presuming referent item (within the same nominal group/noun phrase, rather than a separate clause). However, with reference to this study, there are few cases of using this type of reference.

Where the interpretation involves identification with a referent, ties include pronouns and demonstratives. The relationship of situational identity of reference is known as co-referentiality.
In the case where interpretation of a linguistic item is through comparison with a referent, comparative and superlative forms of adjectives as well as other comparative items preceding nouns (e.g., *the same, a similar, another* and *a different*) are counted as ties, thus forming the relationship of co-classification.

Example 4.7 presents an example of using reference in one of the Chinese EFL students' texts in this study.

**Example 4.7**

(1) At present some college students think it is not necessary to study hard. Their only target is to pass the test and they spend a lot of time amusing themselves.  

   (Pronominal)

(2) Beijing is a beautiful city. On the roadside of the city, you can see many trees.  

   (Article)

(3) Some parts of Beijing is seriously polluted. Living in this city, people can hardly breathe in the fresh air.  

   (Demonstrative)

(4) Today more people realise that it is important to everyone to make our cities greener.  

   (Comparative)

*Substitution* is "the replacement of one item by another". *Ellipsis* means "the omission of an item" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 88). Examples 4.8 and 4.9 present
an example of each case respectively. Both examples were chosen from the Chinese EFL students' texts.

Example 4.8

(1) Some people believe that reading does not help much. I don't think so.
   (Substitution – "so" replacing "reading does not help much").

Example 4.9

(2) Can money do everything? No, it can't _____.
   (The underlined space refers to the elliptical part "do anything").

Conjunction is cohesive by its semantic relation between two clauses in a text. Conjunctive ties are connecting words between sentences (e.g. and, however, consequently, of course). The relationships formed by conjunctive ties vary. For example, a causal conjunctive tie will form a causal relationship. Halliday and Hasan (1976) also explain that there are occasions when some items function in the same way as conjunctives do, however, they do not seem to fall into any of the four categories identified above. Halliday and Hasan refer to them as continuatives, which usually express an internal relation in contrast to the above conjunctives (that is, additive, adversative, temporal and causal) which express an external one. Since these continuatives generally appear in spoken English, they will not be included in this research. Example 4.10 presents some examples of conjunction.

Example 4.10

(1) In our country, the rare of green is very low, probably 12 percent, and the distribution of green-land is rather unaverage. (Additive)

(2) Nowadays, our city has a lot of trees and grass and many gardens are made, but it is still too poor. (Adversative)

(3) First, care for the trees and flowers. Second, do not spit and throw rubbish everywhere. Last, make our house green. (Temporal)

(4) So you can see that trees can make our city life more pleasant and attractive. (Causal)

(The researcher's data)
Lexical cohesion achieves a cohesive effect through the choice of lexical items. Under this broad term are the two general types: reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration means "the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent" (Halliday & Hasan 1976, pp. 318–319). The relationships of reiteration forms are either co-referentiality or co-extension.

Collocation occurs when a word is associated with another word (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). It can establish either co-classification or co-extension ties.

Some examples of lexical cohesion chosen from the students’ texts are presented in Example 4.11.

Example 4.11

[1] Reiteration

(1) Knowledge is the most important thing for human being. Without knowledge, we would still be in forest and live like animals.

(Repetition)

(2) To study hard is important for university students. When you are young, it is quick for you to learn something new.

(Synonymy: "learn" is the synonym of "study")

(3) In the past there were few trees in our city, Beijing. Now this place has changed a lot.

(General word: "place" is a general word which includes "city")

[2] Collocation

(1) I think politics is important to everyone in the world. Everyone is living in a society, is disciplined by the law, moral rules and other things.

In the cohesive analysis, each text is coded into clauses. This coding system is different from that of thematic analysis in which the coding unit is in terms of t-unit. After the texts are coded into clauses, the second step is to identify different types of cohesive devices (i.e. conjunctions, reference, lexical cohesion, substitution and ellipsis) and to examine conjunctive relations, lexical strings, reference chains as well as substitution and ellipsis. The third step is to identify the favoured cohesive
patterns in Chinese EFL texts. The fourth step is to refer the finding of cohesive analysis in Chinese EFL texts to that of native texts. The procedure for doing cohesive analysis in this study is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

**Figure 4.3 Procedure for Cohesive Analysis**

### 4.4 Summary

This chapter describes data collection, the procedure and justification of text analysis to be used in the present study: Theme/Rheme analysis and cohesive analysis. Chapters 5 and 6 will undertake a Theme/Rheme analysis and cohesive analysis of the sample texts respectively.
Chapter 5

Theme/Rheme Analysis of Texts

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will analyse how Theme and Rheme choices affect the coherence of the EFL and native English students' texts. The texts examined are the collected examples of analytical texts from both Australian and Chinese students and hortatory texts from the Chinese students only.

Following the judgement by the two independent informants on the quality of each text, the texts were analysed in terms of Theme/Rheme progression patterns, modified from Danes' (1974) model.

5.2 Theme/Rheme Analysis

As described in Chapter 4, Danes' thematic progression model looks at the degree of communicative dynamics by studying the interaction between Theme and Rheme at the level of the sentence. The communicative dynamic means "the extent to which the sentence element contributes to the development of the communication" (Firbas, 1974: 270). Danes (1974) observes that three major thematic progression patterns (i.e. linear pattern, constant pattern and derived patterns) can be found in most English texts. Given that the Chinese EFL students are not expert in writing English, they may use other progression patterns which may be considered as infrequently used patterns by Danes (1974) such as 'Rheme A – Rheme B' and 'Theme A – Rheme B'. For the purpose of best describing the Chinese EFL texts in this study, Danes' 'thematic progression model', with its greater emphasis on Theme, has been modified to a 'Theme/Rheme progression analysis'. That is to say, in addition to following Danes' models, this study will also analyse how Rheme works.

Mauranen's research (1993) indicates one problem with Danes' model: there is
no clear explanation about what can be considered as a connecting relationship between Themes, or Themes and Rhemes. According to Mauranen (1993), there would be a danger for the analyst while reading the text to take the relationship between the two elements "arbitrarily" (p. 103). To solve this problem, lexical cohesion chains and reference chains (Halliday & Hasan 1976; Hasan, 1984) were used to judge the connection between the Theme and the Rheme or between the Themes in this study. Lexical cohesion includes 'reiteration' (i.e. 'repetition', 'synonymy', 'meronymy' and 'hyponymy') and 'collocation'. Reference includes 'demonstrative', 'pronominal', 'definite article' and 'comparative'.

In this study, before a detailed analysis, each text was numbered into t-units following Fries' coding system (see Chapter 4 for examples). For ease of reference, a 'sentence' is used to refer to a t-unit in the analysis although it is recognised that they are not always the same. Themes were identified into three different categories based on Halliday's framework (1985a): 'topical' (coinciding with experiential/ideational), 'interpersonal' and 'textual'. All Themes were studied except for Themes in embedded clauses and Themes in minor clauses (that is, clauses without a finite verb). The Theme/Rheme progression model was then applied in analysing text structures in the sample texts.

The two independent informants who evaluated the Chinese EFL texts arrived at the same general conclusion. Firstly, they found it is easy enough to follow the ideas because there were few items in the texts; secondly, these EFL essays were full of simplistic, unsupported and repetitive arguments, most of which were couched in simple and unsophisticated structures. Despite these defects, the two informants did find a few essays which were comparatively better-written. Following the informants' suggestion, the texts on each topic were organised into two groups: successful and unsuccessful. Among the 141 EFL texts, 32 texts were categorised as successful texts and the rest as unsuccessful ones.

The following part of this chapter, by presenting some of the sample texts, will compare particular features of the successful and the unsuccessful texts on each
topic, each text followed by the Theme/Rheme analysis for the purpose of examining how the information is structured.

Before presenting the analysis of the Chinese students' texts, the criteria for judging these sample texts have to be clarified. In analysing the EFL analytical texts, the criteria include features found in the Australian student texts, two independent markers' judgement and the researcher's Theme/Rheme analysis. The Australian students' texts are discussed prior to the Chinese students' texts since these native speakers' texts are used as a base line. In analysing hortatory texts, since there is no native speaker's text available, the criteria include only the two informants' assessment and the researcher's Theme/Rheme analysis.

### 5.3 Theme/Rheme Analysis of Analytical Texts

The purpose of analytical exposition is, by presenting the evidence, to convince the reader that something is reasonable. In this case, three basic generic stages are generally expected: thesis, evidence and conclusion.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, a limited number of Australian students' texts were collected. For this reason, it is impossible for the researcher to make a substantial comparative study between the Chinese EFL texts and the Australian students' texts, the native Australian speakers' texts serving primarily as a point of reference in discussing the Chinese students' texts.

All the Australian texts were read by the two informants. It was found that not all Australian texts were successful in terms of text organisation. In this case, only the successful Australian texts were used as the criteria to judge the Chinese students' texts. Because of the limited space of this chapter, details of analysis are only included for certain texts.

The features found in the successful Australian texts include well-organised generic stages which contribute to the development of the topic, and closely-related information at the sentence level (i.e. t-unit) within each generic stage, thus contributing to the development of that particular stage. In addition, in the successful
Australian texts, the abstract notions are defined and then well-elaborated and there are transitional elements to prepare the reader to move from one point to the other. The Australian texts which do not meet these criteria are more likely to be unsuccessful texts. The problems appearing in unsuccessful Australian texts are quite similar to the unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts.

These features make the texts easy to comprehend. It is anticipated that only successful Chinese texts may entail some of the features that are found in the Australian successful texts.

The following section will review some sample texts on each title. The presentation will be organised in the following sequence: on each topic title, the baseline Australian successful texts precede the successful Chinese EFL texts followed by the unsuccessful texts. After the presentation of each text, there are the comments made by the informants about that particular text. An interpretive summary will follow the analysis of the three texts.

As far as presenting some Chinese EFL sample texts is concerned, the choice is made based on the typicality of their features. Because of the space limitation, only a few sample analyses were presented. More examples can be found in Appendix II.

5.3.1 "Knowledge is most valuable"

Five Australian texts were collected on this topic title. Four were evaluated as successful texts by the informants. Two successful texts (i.e. Texts AK1 and AK4) were chosen as examples because each of them has the features of being identified as a successful text discussed in Section 5.3. The analyses of Texts AK2 and AK5 are in Appendix I. The significant features about Theme/Rheme progression patterns in each text presented will be discussed in Section 5.3.1.4.

5.3.1.1 The Australian students' texts

Example 1: Text AK1

1/ Knowledge is one of the most valuable possessions that a student can
1/ It is with knowledge that she can interact in her world, grow and achieve greatness. 2/ However, knowledge is a hollow thing without wisdom, without joy and without inspiration. 4/ Knowledge is lonely without the companionship of motivation and of purpose.

5/ What is the most valuable possession in the world is to have the integrity and the strength of spirit to seek knowledge and wisdom through the deep inspiration which comes from knowing what one's purpose truly is. 6/ A single quality can not be set aside and hailed as the most valuable possession; 7/ a myriad of human qualities must exist and work together to achieve harmony and be truly valuable.

Text AK1 is a two-paragraph text with 7 t-units. In general, this text is organised on the basis of revising the title as "Knowledge is one of the most valuable possessions, but not the only valuable possession". It is organised into four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Sentences 1–4); (2) 'thesis' (Sentence 5); (3) 'evidence' (Sentences 3–4); and (4) 'conclusion' (Sentences 6–7). The division of 'generic stages' is based on Martin's 'schematic structures' in English text (1985a), in which the division of a stage is decided by a specific function. In this text, the introducing stage (i.e. Sentences 1–4) also merges with the evidence stage (Sentences 3–4). The informants believed that each stage is clearly developed and related to each other. In this sense, the text is well-structured.

Theme/Theme Progression

(Bold only = topical Theme; underlined bold = marked topical Theme; italic = textual Theme; underlined = interpersonal Theme; S = sentence)

1/ **Knowledge** is one of the most valuable possessions that a student can attain.

2/ **It is with knowledge** that she can interact in her world, grow and achieve greatness.

3/ **However, knowledge** is a hollow thing without wisdom, without joy and without inspiration.

4/ **Knowledge** is lonely without the companionship of motivation and of purpose.

S1, taking Knowledge as the departure of this paragraph, makes it clear that 'knowledge is one of the most important possessions for a student to access'. This shows that the writer agreed with the title from the standpoint of a student. S2 thematises a cleft structure **It is with knowledge.** The purpose of using this structure
is to give with knowledge an emphatic status. S2 elaborates on S1 in explaining in what way knowledge is important for a student. Theme 1 and Theme 2 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. She in Rheme 2 refers back to Rheme 1 a student, Therefore, Rheme 1 and Rheme 2 are related to each other. In S3, the textual Theme However signals a contrast in meaning between the preceding and the following information. S3 evaluates "knowledge" as a hollow thing if there is no wisdom, joy and inspiration. S4, as an extension to S3, states that knowledge is lonely without the companionship of motivation and of purpose. All sentences in Paragraph 1 thematise knowledge, forming a constant thematic progression pattern.

5/ What is the most valuable possession in the world is to have the integrity and the strength of spirit to seek knowledge and wisdom through the deep inspiration which comes from knowing what one's purpose truly is.

6/ A single quality can not be set aside and hailed as the most valuable possession;

7/ a myriad of human qualities must exist and work together to achieve harmony and be truly valuable.

Ss5–7 constitute Paragraph 2. S5 is a 'thematic equative' structure. According to Halliday (1985a), this structure is presented in the form 'Theme A = Rheme A' ('=' is expressed by the predictor 'be'). In fact, this is a type of identifying sentence. Regarding the Theme, it is realised in a Wh– structure which represents the 'missing information' to be filled in. It is followed by the Rheme which fills in this information gap. By using this Wh–structure, the writer highlights this information gap to be filled in. Rheme 5 completes the gap about what is the most valuable possession in the world in Theme 5 — to have the integrity and strength of spirit to seek knowledge and wisdom through the deep inspiration which comes from knowing what one's purpose truly is. In this case, S5 functions as the macro-theme of this text. Rheme 5 corresponds to Rhemes 3–4 in that Rheme 5 includes all the content of Rheme 3–4 and forms a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern. (‘-’ means 'be related to'.) Ss6–7 provide the comment about S5. In Theme 6, quality is related to all the qualities mentioned in Rheme 5; the lexeme single seems to contrast with all
the items in Rheme 5. Hence, Rheme 5 and Theme 6 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Theme 7 a myriad of human qualities also contrasts with a single quality in Theme 6 in that myriad and single form the relationship of antonymy. Themes 6–7 also form the relationship of co-referentiality through the repetition of quality. Therefore, they are in a constant thematic progression pattern. Ss6–7 argue that 'knowledge' alone cannot be considered to be the most valuable possession. Instead, the most valuable possession should be a combination of many qualities working together.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text AK1 are diagrammed in Figure 5.1.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text AK1

In Figure 5.1 the arrows (each indicating a connection with the two sentences, i.e. t-units) are closely linked to each one either through 'Theme A – Theme B' relations (i.e. constant patterns), or 'Rheme A – Theme B' connection (i.e. linear patterns; there is only one employment, that is 'Rheme 5 – Theme 6'). Both patterns are considered to be frequently used in English texts (Danes, 1974). Another type of progression patterns used in Texts AK1 is 'Rheme A – Rheme B' (i.e. 'Rheme 4 – Rheme 5' and also 'Rheme 3 – Rheme 5'). Most of the Themes are knowledge, which is directly related to the topic title.

Example 2: Text AK4

1/ Success in life is often gauged by the number of possessions one acquires. 2/ If it is granted that knowledge and understanding can be possessed like, for example, a car, then knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world. 3/ From a practical point of view, the knowledgeable person is capable of amassing goods because he/she is knowledgeable. 4/ However, from an intellectual point of view, the knowledgeable person, the sage individual will realise that happiness, contentedness and satisfaction in life does not follow from wealth and the accumulation of goods. 5/ Knowledge itself is the source for contentedness, 6/ and the successful life can be gauged by the knowledge acquired over life. 7/ The highest gift therefore is the gift of knowledge, 8/ and this is the basis upon which teaching is founded.

Text AK4 is a one-paragraph text with 8 t-units. It contains four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Sentence 1); (2) 'thesis' (Sentence 2); (3) 'evidence' (Sentences 3–6); and (4) 'conclusion' (Sentences 7–8). According to the informants, this text is well-expressed in that it supports the thesis from two standpoints: practical and intellectual.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Success in life is often gauged by the number of possessions one acquires.

2/ If it is granted that knowledge and understanding can be possessed like, for example, a car, then knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world.

3/ From a practical point of view, the knowledgeable person is capable of amassing goods because he/she is knowledgeable.
4/ However, from an intellectual point of view, the knowledgeable person, the sage individual will realise that happiness, contentedness and satisfaction in life does not follow from wealth and the accumulation of goods.

5/ Knowledge itself is the source for contentedness,

6/ and the successful life can be gauged by the knowledge acquired over life.

7/ The highest gift therefore is the gift of knowledge,

8/ and this is the basis upon which teaching is founded.

S1, by thematising Success in life as the departure of this sentence, expects the Rheme to explain it, (by the number of possessions one acquires). In S2, Theme 2 is realised in a conditional circumstance where "knowledge" is compared to a property like a car. Theme 2 sets up a context for the interpretation of Rheme 2, that is, knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world. The lexeme possessed is a repetition of possession in Rheme 1, hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. S2 is the macro-theme of this text since Rheme 2 is the repetition of the title. The following part of the text is expected to contribute the evidence to the macro-theme.

Theme 3 employs a circumstance of angle From a practical point of view setting up a context for Rheme 3. Rheme 3 shows that a person with knowledge can fulfil the material satisfaction (amass goods). The knowledgeable person in Rheme 3 is related to knowledge in Rheme 2. Hence, Rheme 2 and Rheme 3 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. In S4, the textual Theme However signals an adversative meaning. The topical Theme of S4 also uses a circumstance of angle (from an intellectual point of view) which contrasts with Theme 3. In this sense, the two notions form the relationship of antonymy, hence, Themes 3–4 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. The knowledgeable person in Rheme 4 is the repetition of the same item in Rheme 3, therefore, Rheme 3 and Rheme 4 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. S5, by thematising Knowledge, is an elaboration of Rheme 4. Knowledge is related to knowledgeable in Rheme 4. That is, Rheme 4 and Theme 5 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Contentedness in Rheme 5 is
the repetition of the same item in Rheme 4, therefore, Rheme 4 and Rheme 5 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. In S6, the textual Theme \textit{and} signals an extension to S5. Taking \textit{Successful life} as the departure, the whole of S6 can be traced back to S1. However, the difference between S1 and S6 is that S6 specifies that success in life is gauged by "knowledge" in contrast with the statement in S1 that knowledge is gauged by "a number of possessions".

Obviously, the evidence following S1 leads the reader to S6. Therefore, the text is reasoned from general to specific points. Regarding the topic of "knowledge", it becomes Rhemes in Ss6–7. Theme 7 is realised in New \textit{the highest gift} followed by an identifier of \textit{the gift of knowledge} in Rheme 7. Both Rheme 6 and Rheme 7 employ \textit{knowledge}, hence, they are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. In S8, the textual Theme signals an additional information to S7. The demonstrative reference \textit{this} refers back to Rheme 7 \textit{the gift of knowledge}. Theme 8 and Rheme 7 are in a linear thematic progression pattern.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text AK4 are diagrammed in Figure 5.2.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{theme-rheme-patterns.png}
\caption{Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text AK4}
\end{figure}
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text AK4

This thickly-arrowed text indicates that the sentences are closely linked to each other and each generic stage is also related to each other. Two frequently used progression patterns are 'Rheme A - Rheme B' patterns and linear thematic progression patterns. The writer thematised success in life, knowledge and some marked Themes. All of them are related to the topic title. As far as the Rhemes are concerned, although there is a high frequency of using the item knowledge, the writer always added some new elements which work together with knowledge rather than merely repeating the same item. That is to say, Rheme conflates with certain amount of New. This is regarded as a typical English text (Halliday, 1985a; Fries, 1995c).

(The rest of this section will present the thematic analysis of Chinese students' texts on this topic including both successful and unsuccessful texts.)

Chinese EFL students' texts on "Knowledge is the most valuable"

Twenty EFL texts on this topic were collected. Five were considered successful by the informants. Three successful (i.e. Texts K6, K7 and K8) and three unsuccessful texts (i.e. Texts K1, K2 and K4) are exemplary because of their representative features. Analyses of Texts K15 and K20 (two successful texts) and Text K9 (an unsuccessful text) on this topic title are in Appendix II.

5.3.1.2 Successful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text K6

1/ Nowadays, almost everyone focus on money, even in the universities. 2/ The students think much more to earn money than how to know much knowledge. 3/ Although each one know it is wrong, it is very popular. 4/ Here, I will say, only knowledge is the most valuable. 5/ Even if you own much money, but they can be taken away from you easily, 6/ they only belong to you contemporarily. 7/ But knowledge, once you own it, you will own it forever. 8/ Nobody can take it away from you. 9/ When you own much knowledge, you will feel that you are the happiest person in the world. 10/ Can money do this? 11/No, it can't.
Text K6 is a one-paragraph text consisting of 11 t-units. It has four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Sentences 1–3); (2) 'thesis' (Sentence 4); (3) 'evidence' (Sentences 5–9); and (4) 'conclusion' (Sentences 10–11). The informants considered this text as a successful one because all generic stages are clearly marked and well-elaborated. The writer contrasts "money" with "knowledge" as development lines in the text.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Nowadays, almost everyone focus on money, even in the universities.

2/ The students think much more to earn money than how to know much knowledge.

3/ Although each one know it is wrong, it is very popular.

4/ Here, I will say, only knowledge is the most valuable.

Sentences (Ss) 1–3 deal with background information about universities and university students — the introductory stage. In S1 the marked Theme Nowadays (a temporal circumstance) sets up a time frame as the departure for the text, not just for the local Rheme. The students in Theme 2 constructs an expectancy relation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) with Rheme 1 the universities. Since the entity the students can be expected by the reader after being introduced to the entity the universities in S1, the students which is Given in S2 becomes the topic of the clause followed by the focus of the information think much more of money than how to know much knowledge. Rheme 1 and Theme 2 form a linear thematic progression pattern. In S3, the Theme Although each one know it is wrong is a circumstance of concession establishing a context for Rheme 3. It refers anaphorically to the whole of S2, that is, Theme 2 and Rheme 2 work together as the Given in S3. It may be understood as such: the first three sentences serve an orienting purpose by introducing the background of the topic to be discussed.

S4 shifts the direction by presenting a contrastive element, knowledge. The thematised conjunctive Here signals the move from one opinion to another. This
move also indicates the shift of generic stages (i.e. from the introductory stage to the evidence one). In S4, *I will say* is a clause which functions as the interpersonal Theme. The thematised *I* shows that this text is personal — the writer may not wish to put the distance between the him/her and the reader. The topical Theme of S4 takes *knowledge* as the departure which should be regarded as Given because it can be recoverable in Rheme 2. S4 is the macro-theme (the topic sentence of traditional composition teaching) of the text because it repeats the topic title. According to Martin (1992a), macro-theme is the Theme of the whole text. S4 as the macro-theme expects support from the following parts of the text. Concerning the thematic progression, the topical Theme in S4 *knowledge* is related to *it* in Theme 3, forming a linear thematic pattern. It is worth mentioning that *it* in Theme 3 refers anaphorically to the whole of S2 and *knowledge* is just one of the contrastive elements, thus probably weakening the semantic relationship between Themes 3 and 4. However, because *knowledge* in Rheme 2 turns up in a contrastive relationship with *money* and will undoubtedly impress the reader, he/she would follow the topic of this contrastive notion *it* to Theme 3. Theme 4 is the element derived from Theme 3. In consequence, there is no break in the information flow.

5/ **Even if you own much money**, but they can be taken away from you easily,

6/ **they** only belong to you contemporary.

In S5 a marked Theme is employed, functioning as an emphasis of the condition for the Rheme. Despite the fact that there is a grammatical mistake in Rheme 5, *they* for "it" (this type of grammatical mistakes will be discussed in Chapter 7), the reader is still able to interpret *they* as "money". The topic of "money" continues in S6 as the Theme. Therefore, Themes 5–6 are related in a constant thematic pattern. In addition, since *be taken away* in Rheme 5 and *belong* in Rheme 6 have the relationship of antonymy, they are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.
7/ But **knowledge**, once you own it, you will own it forever.

8/ **Nobody** can take it away from you.

From S7 the topic changes from "money" in S6 to "knowledge" in the Theme. This so-called 'Theme jump' would not confuse the reader because both "money" and "knowledge" as topics have been introduced and become Given. As far as the topical Theme of S7 knowledge is concerned, it stands outside the clause without playing any part of participant or circumstance in a sentence and later is picked up by the reference *it*. That is, to reintroduce the topic.

S8 changes to *nobody* as the departure of the sentence although it still talks about "knowledge". As a consequence, this change of departure breaks the continuity of the topic, with the possibility of distracting the reader's attention of focus. However, according to the informants, this change to *nobody* in fact is better than the possible alternative below (the underlined sentence), in which "knowledge" maintains as the topic:

*It (knowledge) cannot be taken away.*

This is because the use of "nobody" exerts a contrastive meaning to the previous sentence. *It* in Rheme 8 refers back to *knowledge* in Theme 7, hence, Theme 7 and Rheme 8 are in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. With the reference to Rhemes 7 and 8, *own* in Rheme 7 and *take away* in Rheme 8 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

9/ **When you own much knowledge**, you will feel that you are the happiest person in the world.

The marked Theme in S9 provides the situation for the following part (Rheme) to develop. *Knowledge* becomes the departure of the message again. *Knowledge* in Theme 9 is related to *it* in Rheme 8 (which refers back to *knowledge* in Theme 7), therefore, Rheme 8 and Theme 9 are a linear thematic progression pattern.

10/ **Can money** does this?

S10 is structured in the interrogative form (a rhetorical question) which is
popular in Chinese expository writing. It is generally accepted as an effective way to show the writer's intended purpose of the text. Another advantage in using the rhetorical question is to arouse the reader's interest. As far as S10 (together with S11) is concerned, it is possible that by using this interrogative clause, the writer intended to reorient the reader that 'Knowledge is more valuable than money' as he/she also contrasted 'money' with 'knowledge' (the demonstrative pronoun this refers anaphorically to the whole of S9). This in Rheme 10 refers back to Rheme 9 (you will feel that you are the happiest person in the world).

11/ No, it can't.

S11, an elliptical structure gives the answer to S11. The Theme it refers back to Theme 10 money; therefore, Theme 10 and Theme 11 form a constant thematic progression pattern. Although Rheme 11 is an elliptical structure, the omitted part can be traced back to the same as Rheme 10. In this case, Rheme 11 is in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K6 are diagrammed in Figure 5.3.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text K6

This text contrasts "money" with "knowledge", the two items taking turns being used as Themes. For this reason, constant thematic patterns are not commonly used in the text. In response to the Themes which frequently thematise money and knowledge, the Rhemes are more likely to interact with each other in creating a relationships of antonymy. As observed in Diagram 5.3, 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns are frequently used. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants'
judgement that this is a successful text.

Example 2: Text K7

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable. 2/ Since we were born, we have been increasing our knowledge in various ways. 3/ When we go to school, we got knowledge about the science. 4/ When we travel, we get knowledge about the nature. 5/ In our daily life, we get knowledge about how to do cooking, washing and so on. 6/ We cannot live without knowledge. 7/ You can imagine a man without knowledge, 8/ he can do nothing. 9/ The society will not develop without knowledge. 10/ Only when we get more and more knowledge, our living level will be enhanced. 11/ Our society will paving its way to a higher point. 12/ So we should try our best to acquire more knowledge in order to serve the people and country heartedly.

Like Text K6, Text K7 is a one-passage text including 12 t-units. Unlike K6, it does not have an introductory stage. Text K7 places the thesis (i.e. the repetition of the title) at the beginning (Sentence 1), followed by the evidence to support it (Sentences 2–11). The text ends with a conclusion (Sentence 12).

This text was regarded as a successful text by the two informants. One significant feature that makes it a successful text is that the writer explained clearly why knowledge is important by using well-chosen evidence. The evidence includes exemplifying the different ways that people acquire knowledge in their daily life, and contrasting the man without knowledge with those with it. The writer also used a transitional sentence (i.e. Sentence 6) to move the text from the first piece of evidence to the second one.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable.

2/ Since we were born, we have been increasing our knowledge in various ways.

3/ When we go to school, we got knowledge about the science.

4/ When we travel, we get knowledge about the nature.

5/ In our daily life, we get knowledge about how to do cooking, washing and so on.

Following S1 (the macro-theme), S2 works as a hyper-theme (a derived Theme from the macro-theme), especially Rheme 2 (in various ways) foreshadows the
following information. Ss3–5 fulfil this expectation. Themes 2–5 are all marked and coincide with the Given (although each of them is unrecoverable from the text so far; we can assume them after reading S2 by using our extralinguistic knowledge). Using the marked Themes, Themes 2–4 set up a temporal frame in sequence for the rest (Rheme) to develop. One common feature emerging among Themes 2–5 is that they all thematised we (or our in Theme 5), a type of 'generalised exophoric reference' implying "a particular group of individuals with which the speaker wishes to identify him/herself" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 53). Halliday and Hasan argue that exophoric reference does not make commitment to the cohesion of a text. Therefore, Themes 2–5's employment of we does not form a constant progression pattern. Themes 3–5 are derived from S2, each contributing to this hyper-theme. The only semantic linking among Themes 3–5 is the use of parallel structures and temporality-progression probably for the purpose of getting some kind of dramatic effects in order to attract the reader. With regard to Rhemes 2–5, they are related to one another by knowledge (knowledge can be taken for granted as the Given because it turns up in Theme 1).

6/ We cannot live without knowledge.

7/ You can imagine a man without knowledge,

8/ he can do nothing.

9/ The society will not develop without knowledge.

S6 (still keeping with the exophoric reference we) as a conclusion to Ss2–5 seems reasonable. The problem emerges in Rhemes 7–8 which mostly have the same content as Rheme 6. In English, normally the function of the Rheme is to provide the core of the message and to signal what is New. Therefore, Rhemes 7–8 do not make much commitment in providing additional information. Theme 7 shifts we (which runs from Themes 2–6) to you, another type of 'generalised exophoric reference' which is used to refer to "any human individual" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 53). The only difference between we and you is that the latter does not include the writer.

In S9, the society (which is New) is thematised, thus indicating a shift from
he. Since Theme 8 he and Theme 9 the society form a relationship of expectancy, they make a constant pattern.

10/ Only when we get more and more knowledge, our living level will be enhanced.

11/ Our society will paving its way to a higher point.

The marked Theme 10 (picking up the message of Rheme 9 by using the same lexeme knowledge), sets up a condition for its Rheme which is activated by adding some New. The interpersonal Theme Only in S10 is a focussing adjunct whose function is to give a personal evaluation of the temporal clause. In fact, the whole of S10 is like a hyper-theme which expects the following sentences to make elaboration by giving some examples. However, S11, instead of contributing to the elaboration, gives another New. Although Rheme 10 and Theme 11 are related to each other by using the same possessive pronoun (i.e. our), this does not help form a semantic tie to connect Ss10 and 11. It is clear that between Ss10 and 11 (they both belong to the evidence stage in the generic structure), there should exist a stage/element that will serve obligatorily the function of interpretation (Hasan, 1985a). The lack of this obligatory element makes the text very demanding on the reader. It requires some relevant information which keeps continuity with S10, then followed by a transition gradually leading the reader to S11.

12/ So we should try our best to acquire more knowledge in order to serve the people and country heartedly.

S12 is the reorienting element serving as the conclusion of the whole text. The conjunctive So (which is not properly chosen) signals the logical relations between the preceding part and the following one. Like most of the Themes in this text, we is thematised again. The message in Rheme 12 is two-fold: (1) to gain as much knowledge as we can; (2) to serve the people and country whole-heartedly. The preceding one can be anticipated by the reader, given the macro-theme "Knowledge is valuable", whereas the latter one might bemuse the native speaker. This expression
undoubtedly reflects the moral instruction at Chinese schools: students are taught to take the responsibility of building the country into a prosperous and modernised one. In order to serve the country in the future, one should gain knowledge. The more knowledge one acquires, the more contribution he/she will make. It is natural that the writer of Text K7 should internalise this ideology and exercise it in this writing for the purpose of meeting the requirement of combining one's own experience into the text.

It is observed that only the topical Themes 1 (Knowledge) and 10 (Only when we get more and more knowledge) are explicitly related to the topic title (the macro-theme as well), whereas the rest of Themes are not directly associated with it. Instead, they set up a circumstance for the Rheme to develop. The choice of the Rhemes is more directly related to the topic title. As far as Themes are concerned, they are the departure of the New and are normally based on the Given. It is up to the writer to choose an angle to formulate the Theme. For this reason, Themes are not necessarily always associated to the macro-theme (Mauranen, 1995). With respect to this text, the development of the text is connected with the establishment of different time frames which are realised in marked Themes (temporal circumstances), i.e. Themes 2–5 and 10. They build up different contexts for the Rhemes to contribute to the macro-theme.

The frequent use of we (or our in Theme 5) shows that the text is personal. According to Martin (1985a), it would not be appropriate for an expository text to be personal. However, as far as this text is concerned, since it is not a formal university essay and the title itself may also stimulate the writer to use the personal pronoun (such as "we/I/you"), it is reasonable for the writer to employ we in the text.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K7 are diagrammed in Figure 5.4.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text K7

Following the macro-theme (i.e. the thesis), the writer employed three derived Themes (each thematising a temporal circumstance) to exemplify the different ways of acquiring knowledge. The rest of the text mostly used both linear and constant
thematic progression patterns. As observed in Figure 5.4, the arrows appear between each two adjacent sentences. There is no interruption in terms of the flow of information. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

Example 3: Text K8

1/ When we are born, we know nothing 2/ and little by little, we learn something about the outside world, the society and even ourselves. 3/ This is knowledge.
4/ Knowledge is the most valuable thing we possess. 5/ The biggest difference between man and animal is that man can think and know knowledge while animal doesn't. 6/ Without knowledge, mankind would not develop or even survive.
(Much space here)
7/ For everyone of us, knowledge is valuable. 8/ "Knowledge is strength". 9/ The man who has knowledge is more competent and powerful.

Text K8 is a three-paragraph text with 9 t-units. It contains four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Paragraph 1); (2) 'thesis' (Paragraph 2); (3) 'evidence' (Paragraph 2); and (4) 'conclusion' (Paragraph 3). It was evaluated as a successful text by the two informants. Judging from the large space between Paragraph 2 (thesis and evidence) and Paragraph 3 (conclusion), the writer was aware of planning the generic stages while writing. (It is apparent that the writer intended to give more details in the evidence stage.)

Text K8 starts by exemplifying what knowledge is (the introduction). Both informants considered the introducing stage to be well-organised. The evidence stage is reasoned on the difference between man and animal. Although it does not clarify much due to the limitation of time, it is easy for the reader to predict what this writer intended to write at this stage. Regarding the concluding stage, it is effective by emphasising the importance of "knowledge" in every sentence.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **When we are born**, we know nothing

2/ **and little by little**, we learn something about the outside world, the society and even ourselves.
3/ This is knowledge.

Ss 1–3 provide the introduction to the whole text (an orientation). Theme 1 thematising a temporal circumstance (a marked Theme), sets up a time framework as the starting point for the following. In S2, following the textual Theme and which signals an addition of meaning to S1, the interpersonal Theme little by little shows a 'gradation' of human development after birth which is chronologically related to Theme 1. In this case, this writer's exploration of Themes looks sophisticated compared with most of the other Chinese students in this study. Both Ss1–2 thematising we, constitute a constant thematic pattern of progression. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that we as an exophoric reference does not contain much cohesive content in discourse. As far as this text is concerned, the "weak" connection between Ss1 and 2 by thematising we in both sentences is compensated by a "strong" link between Rhemes 1 and 2 (We) learn something in Rheme 2 contrasts with We knew nothing in Rheme 1, forming the relation of antonymy. Therefore, Rhemes 1–2 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern.

Theme 3 This picks up the message in Rheme 2, forming a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 3 introduces the notion of knowledge. Therefore, Ss2–3 define the abstract notion of "knowledge". According to the informants, this introductory stage was effectively employed as the writer introduced the abstract term, then defined it at the beginning. This would help the reader to set the boundary of interpreting the message.

4/ Knowledge is the most valuable thing we possess.

5/ The biggest difference between man and animal is that man can think and know knowledge while animal doesn't.

6/ Without knowledge, mankind would not develop or even survive.

Ss4–6 make up the second paragraph. They help develop the text by setting up two contrastive meanings: "with knowledge" vs "without knowledge"; and the difference between "man" and "animal". S4 is the macro-theme since it repeats the
topic title. Theme 4 picks up on with the notion of "knowledge" introduced in Rheme 3, thus making the transition from Paragraph 1 to 2 very natural. In addition to quoting the title, the writer also fleshed out the title by adding ... thing we possess. This rewording fulfils the expectation of the native English speaker. It has been mentioned in Chapter 4 that in Chinese writing practice, it is very common that the title is regarded as a topic which is hinted rather than being spelt out. For this reason, the title can be very broad. It is the writer's responsibility to narrow down the topic or to give a broad and general point of view. Good Chinese writers normally know how to grasp the main point of the topic and focus on one or some particular parts (Tan et al., 1996). Text K8 seems to reflect this Chinese writing expectation of narrowing down a broad topic.

Ss5–6 are expected to give evidence to support the macro-theme, S4. Here a derived Theme progression pattern is used. In Theme 5, although the topic shifts from knowledge to The big difference between man and animal, yet man can be thought to correspond to we in Rheme 4, forming a linear thematic pattern of progression. The New in Rheme 5 contrasts man with animals. Rheme 5 corresponds to Theme 4 as they both employ knowledge; hence, they form a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. Theme 6 (Without knowledge) in turn, corresponding to Man can think and know knowledge by forming the relation of antonymy, is another employment of the linear thematic progression. Ss5–6 are interrelated in this case and both relate to the macro-theme. Paragraph 2 ends with S6 (Without knowledge, mankind would not develop or even survive). This seems to foreshadow the next step: the writer may take S6 as a new hyper-theme and should develop it. Judging from the writer's handwritten text, the researcher found that the writer probably did want to do this because he left the extra space after S6 on the sheet indicating that he might want to return to this later after the third paragraph was finished. It is thus obvious that the writer manipulated the text at the global level. That is, before he started writing, he had some idea about how to structure the different generic stages.
7/ For everyone of us, knowledge is valuable.

8/ "Knowledge is strength".

9/ The man who has knowledge is more competent and powerful.

The third paragraph including Ss7–9 is the conclusion. In S7, For everyone of us is an interpersonal Theme. It also functions as a transition from one move to another and arouses the attention of the reader to 'what knowledge means to people'. This use of the Theme is relevant to a conclusion. The topical Theme of S7 knowledge together with Rheme 7 is valuable reorients the reader by repeating most of the title (the macro-theme). S8 is a quotation from Frances Bacon's words. It is common for Chinese writers to borrow proverbs or sayings as a source of evidence to support the argument. (This issue will be discussed in Chapter 7.) Theme 8 thematises knowledge, which is also Theme 7; therefore, Themes 7–8 form a constant thematic progression pattern.

S9 elaborates on S8, an abstract concept and makes it more intelligible. Theme 9 maintains knowledge (the same as Theme 8) and they form a constant thematic progression pattern. Moreover, Theme 9 (The man who has knowledge) does not merely repeat Theme 8. Instead, it provides more information by adding the man (as the headword) and putting knowledge in the modification location. By the man who has knowledge, the writer relates Paragraph 3 back to Paragraph 2. Rheme 9 is related to Rheme 8 in that the latter elaborates on the former. This use of Themes and Rhemes shows that the writer had effectively chosen Themes and Rhemes and exploited the relationship between Themes and Rhemes. It seems that Ss7–9 constitute a good conclusion.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K8 are diagrammed in Figure 5.5.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text K8

As displayed in Figure 5.5, there are strong connections between the generic stages and the adjacent sentences in terms of Themes or Rhemes. The text develops mainly depending on the linear thematic progression patterns except for the concluding stage. Using linear thematic patterns suggests interactions between Given and New since the Rheme of Sentence A (as New) becomes the Theme of Sentence B (as Given). As far as the concluding stage is concerned (Ss7-9), the writer thematised knowledge in each sentence. That is, constant thematic patterns are used. In using constant patterns in this stage, the writer did not only repeat "knowledge" in all the three Themes. In Theme 9, he/she thematised The man who has knowledge,
thus relating to what has been discussed earlier in this text. In addition, there are occasions when 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns are employed. As mentioned in the analysis section, the use of this pattern is effective in this text.

The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

5.3.1.3 Unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text K1

1/ As the development of technology and the improvement of the society, knowledge is becoming more and more important for human. 2/ We have several points to be stated as followed. 3/ First, we all know that human being need materials to support living with combination with the nature. 4/ Then how to live better and give the suitable solutions to many unsolved problems about living is the power to push people to study hard and gain more knowledge to give the answers to the problems. 5/ Second, the secret of nature attracts us to study it. 6/ At last, knowledge can help us do what we imagine the things that seem having no possibility to appear. 7/ As whole, knowledge is the most valuable in the human life.

Text K1 was regarded as an unsuccessful text by the two informants. It is a 5-paragraph text with 7 t-units. It contains three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Paragraph 1); (2) 'evidence' (Paragraphs 2, 3 and 4); and (3) 'conclusion' (Paragraph 5). The problem with this text, according to the informants, is that the evidence does not provide sufficient support for the thesis. In particular, Evidence 2 (Paragraph 3) and Evidence 3 (Paragraph 4) lack clarity. In this case, it seems that a great gap needs to be filled in before the conclusion can be made as such.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ As the development of technology and the improvement of the society, knowledge is becoming more and more important for human.

2/ We have several points to be stated as followed.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–2), starting with a causal circumstance as the departure, provides the following text with a situation followed by Rheme 1 introducing the
topic of "knowledge". Theme 2 uses *we*, a personal pronoun showing that the text is personal. Rheme 2 is a heavy-handed attempt at foreshadowing: *(We have several points to be stated as followed)* rather than supply any new information about the topic "knowledge". Rheme 2 is related to Rheme 1, hence, the two items are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

3/ *First, we all know* that **human being** need materials to support living with combination with the nature.

4/ *Then how to live better and give the suitable solutions to many unsolved problems about living* is the power to push people to study hard and gain more knowledge to give the answers to the problems.

Ss3–4 constitute the second paragraph. The textual Theme in S3 *First* predicts that the following arguments are organised sequentially. The topical Theme of S3 is **human beings** and the Rheme (New) focuses the reader's attention on "material that human beings needs in coping with nature". Theme 4 signals a departure from **human beings** in Theme 3 to *how to live better and give solution to the problems*. The use of the textual Theme, *Then* (as a temporal conjunction in relation to the sequence), in S4 does not help interpret S4 with respect to S3. Even though Theme 4 contains *live* which on the surface may relate to *living* in Rheme 3, semantically the two items do not make a co-reference tie. Since it is hard to relate S4 to S3, some confusion occurs.

5/ *Second, the secret of nature* attracts us to study it.

Paragraph 3 (S5) contains only one sentence, aiming at giving further supportive evidence to S2. Following Paragraph 2 (i.e. Ss3–4), S5 continues the sequence, *Secondly*, hence it relates the present topic to what has gone before. Theme 5 takes *the secret of nature* as its departure. Nevertheless, S5 is too cryptic to be held as a paragraph. It stands like a hyper-theme which needs some more information to elaborate or exemplify.

6/ *At last, knowledge* can help us do what we imagine the things that seem having no possibility to appear.
The same problem also occurs in Paragraph 4 (S6). Although the text keeps the sequence by using *At last* ("Finally" would be more appropriate) and uses the text topic *knowledge* as Theme 6, Rheme 6 needs clarification.

*7/ As whole, knowledge is the most valuable in the human life.*

Paragraph 5 (S7) is the conclusion. It mostly repeats the title followed by a circumstance boundary *in the human life*. However, the evidence provided in this text would hardly lead the reader to this conclusion. It is difficult for the reader to follow the flow of the text. It is too demanding on the reader in interpretation.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K1 are diagrammed in Figure 5.6.

![Diagram of Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text K1](image)

**Figure 5.6** Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text K1

**Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text K1**

In Figure 5.6, the development of this text, to a great degree, depends on the three derived thematic progressions. However, the problem lies in that the three
derived patterns were not well-developed. Taking Hyper-theme 1 as an example (i.e. S3), S4 is supposed to support this hyper-theme. However, it does not create any relations with the hyper-theme. Under Hyper-themes 2 and 3 (both are the evidence stage), there are no other sentences to support them. Therefore, lack of distribution of Theme/Rheme relations makes this text a poor one. This analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.

Example 2: Text K2

1/ What is the most valuable? 2/ There are various answers. 3/ In modern times, more people think that money is the most valuable. 4/ According to them, the more money they have, the better. 5/ And there are other people who think health is the most important.

6/ But in my opinion, knowledge is the most valuable. 7/ Knowledge is extracted from the life and accumulated continuously by human beings. 8/ It can instruct your action, your thought and you living way. 9/ And it also can give you pleasure when you are retiring or alone; 10/ it can give you abilities especially when you are in business or deal with something.

11/ I think knowledge is the most valuable. 12/ To live to the old, to learn to the old.

Text K2 is a three-paragraph text with 12 t-units. It has four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Sentences 1–5); (2) 'thesis' (Sentence 6); (3) 'evidence' (Sentences 7–10); and (4) 'conclusion' (Sentences 11–12). Although this text is evaluated as an unsuccessful text, both informants maintained that Text K2 is better than Text K1 in that the evidence stage in Text K2 gives more information compared with that of Text K1. However, the weakness in Text K2 is that almost every sentence gives totally new information without any elaboration.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **What** is the most valuable?

2/ **There** are various answers.

3/ **In modern times**, more people think that money is the most valuable.

4/ **According to them**, the more money they have, the better.

5/ **And there are other people** who think health is the most important.
Paragraph 1 (containing Ss1–5) begins with a rhetorical question serving to raise the reader's awareness about the topic under discussion. It is common to use this device in Chinese expository texts. The rhetorical question will stimulate the reader to find the answer to the question after reading. Following S1 (which thematises an interrogative element What- structure signalling missing information), the marked Theme There in S2 is an empty entity which usually can be open to receive more than one choice in the Rheme. Here, in response to the question raised, one appropriate choice is answers (in Rheme 2). Since Rheme 2 mentions various (in front of answers), the following several sentences are expected to meet this need.

Theme 3 sets up a time framework as a departure of Rheme 3 as well as the Ss4–5, In modern times. Rheme 3 exemplifies one of the answers: 'Money is the most valuable thing for more people' (many is better than more since there is no reference compared with people). S4 elaborates S3 with them as Theme 4 picked up from Rheme 3 (more people). Theme 5 gives the second example regarding various answers in Rheme 2. The textual Theme and indicates the addition of the information. The topical Theme of S5 is an empty marked There which expects the Rheme to give a new topic. Rheme 5 introduces another group of people with a different point of view: "those who think health is important". This example would not be considered well-chosen because everyone would agree with it; therefore, it does not bring out any argument.

6/ But in my opinion, knowledge is the most valuable.

7/ Knowledge is extracted from the life and accumulated continuously by human beings.

8/ It can instruct your action, your thought and you living way.

9/ And it also can give you pleasure when you are retiring or alone;

10/ it can give you abilities especially when you are in business or deal with something.

Paragraph 2 (Ss6–10) starts with the writer's answer. It will be taken for granted as the macro-theme as it is the repetition of the title. Theme 6, a multiple
Theme, employs a textual Theme (*but*, introducing a contrastive point), an interpersonal Theme (*in my opinion*, emphasising the reader's involvement in the topic) and a topical Theme (*knowledge*, introducing a new topic notion). Theme 7 keeps the topic of Theme 6 by repetition, followed by Themes 8–10. Hence, Themes in Paragraph 2 are in constant patterns. However, if we check the Rheme of each sentence, we would say this paragraph is not dynamically communicated. The problem lies in the fact that each Rheme introduces the New and it is expected to have interaction among all this New and have some interactions with Themes (realised in Given in this stage). This stage does not satisfy this need. Rather, it runs like a list of new information. It is hard for the reader to link all the messages. Therefore, the text is not very reader-oriented.

11/ I think **knowledge** is the most valuable.

12/ **To live to the old**, to learn to the old.

Paragraph 3 (Ss11–12) as a conclusion, has a reorienting purpose. S11 repeats the title with the thematisation of *knowledge*. S12 quotes a saying, **To live to the old, to learn to the old** which implies 'Never stop gaining the knowledge'. This use of a saying is regarded as very powerful evidence in the argumentation in Chinese writing. However, the two informants were confused with this use because they did not think that it was necessary to use it here.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K2 are diagrammed in Figure 5.7.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text K2

In Figure 5.7, constant thematic patterns are frequently used. In the evidence stage, all sentences employ constant patterns, that is, all themes are realised by using knowledge or it (which refers to "knowledge"). However, there is no relation among the Rhemes in this stage. This overuse of constant thematic patterns shows that all the time Rhemes give New, whereas all New come from the same starting point (i.e. "knowledge"). Therefore, it is not a successful text. This Theme/Rheme analysis
Example 3: Text K4

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable thing of course. 2/ Because history has already told us.
3/ Human beings have lived in the Earth for several million years.
4/ They lived a primitive living until thousands of years ago, when steel tools had appeared. 5/ For the last thousand of years, they hadn't developed so much. 6/ The most quickest development began at about hundred years ago, with the development of mathematics and the other science in Europe. 7/ In the last one hundred years, our society has developed very much, because scientific method has been used in industry and agriculture.
8/ In the progress of developing of our society, science plays a great part.

Text K4 is a three-paragraph text with 8 t-units. It contains three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentences 1–2); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 3–7); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentence 8).

This text was regarded as an unsuccessful text because it confuses the informants by exemplifying some achievement in science and technology in history, which does not seem to be related to the title. That is to say, all the historical evidences are irrelevant to the text development. And there is no explanation about the connection between these two notions ("science" and "technology") and knowledge. Moreover, the text uses more narration than exposition.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable thing of course.
2/ Because history has already told us.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–2) is the macro-theme in repeating the title. In addition, of course is used at the end of Rheme 1 for emphasis, meaning "I certainly accept this idea". S2 is a sentence fragment. In written English this type of structure would not be allowed to stand alone, whereas in both written and spoken Chinese it is frequently used as an independent structure. Concerning this study, I would regard a sentence fragment as a t-unit because many Chinese EFL texts use this type of structure in a way which is semantically similar to an independent clause complex: a
sentence fragment (with an explicit conjunction) is generally used to provide reasons for the fact which is just mentioned. The textual Theme *because* (linking the cause) in S2 relates to S1. The topical Theme of S2 *history* as the departure indicates that the reasoning will be conducted based on history. Rheme 2 (*...has told us*) is an elliptical structure: The omitted part is supposed to be S1 (*Knowledge is the most valuable*). In this sense, Rheme 2 is related to S1.

3/ **Human beings** have lived in the Earth for several million years.

4/ **They** lived a primitive living until thousands of years ago, when steel tools had appeared.

5/ **For the last thousand of years**, they hadn't developed so much.

6/ **The most quickest development** began at about hundred years ago, with the development of mathematics and the other science in Europe.

7/ **In the last one hundred years**, our society has developed very much, because scientific method has been used in industry and agriculture.

Paragraph 2 (Ss3–7) provides the supportive evidence for the macro-theme. Theme 3 is realised by *human beings* which can be predicted from Theme 2 *history*. The two lexical items form a semantic tie (collocation); therefore, Rheme 2 and Theme 3 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Theme 4 keeps "human beings" as the topic by thematising *They* (anaphorically referred to *human beings* in Theme 3). Themes 3 and 4 are in a constant thematic progression. Rheme 4 gives New *lived a primitive living until thousands of years ago, when steel tool had developed*. This also corresponds to Rheme 3 (*... have lived in the Earth for several million years*). Rhemes 3–4 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern. Theme 5 introduces a new time frame as the departure *For the last thousand of years* followed by the New *they hadn't developed so much*. Literally, Theme 5 may associate with Rheme 4 in terms of the temporal expression, *thousand of years*, forming a semantic tie of repetition. However, the information does not develop like that. In fact, the two spatial expressions do not interact with each other. *They* in Rheme 5 is related to Theme 4 (*They*). Theme 4 and Rheme 5 are in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.
S5 does not satisfy the reader's requirement because it does not provide the reason why people did not develop very much.

Theme 6 shifts the topic from "human beings" to "the development". Despite the fact that development in Theme 6 can be recoverable from developed in Rheme 5 (both Rheme 5 and Theme 6 form a linear thematic pattern), it seems that before we come to Theme 6, several moves should be supplied to bridge from S5. Rheme 6 also introduces New (mathematics and science in Europe), however, there is no indication of any interrelationships among these pieces of information. The same weakness applies to S7 with another time span In the last one hundred years as the departure. Rheme 7 talks about the development of our society as the consequence of the application of scientific methods in industry and agriculture. Again, it is impossible to follow the information flow.

8/ In the progress of developing of our society, science plays a great part.

Paragraph 3 (S8), instead of serving the reorienting purpose as expected, confuses the reader by talking about "science" instead of "knowledge" in the Rheme in response to the Theme In the progress of developing of our society. Theme 8 is related to Rheme 7 because they both employ developed/developing. Both form a linear thematic pattern.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K4 are diagrammed in Figure 5.8.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text K4

There are arrows to connect adjacent sentences in Text K4 as observed in Figure 5.8 which indicates that there are relations between adjacent sentences. However, the items which can relate one sentence to others are limited: The item human being (starting from Theme 3) links several sentences in the first half of the text. Another link is forged through the item develop/developing/development which covers the second half of the text. Even if these two items relate all sentences to each other throughout the text, there are many information gaps to fill in within each connection, that is to say, there is not much interaction between Given and New. In this case, although sentences are connected by using a single item, the text on a whole may still not be a satisfactory one. A successful text requires an integrity of
many interactions between Given and New. A single match with the lexical items may not necessarily lead to a successful text.

5.3.1.4 Interpretive summary of the texts on "Knowledge is the most valuable"

In the successful Australian students' texts on this topic, they all relate "knowledge" to another notion rather than talk about "knowledge" itself. For example, Text AK4 associates "knowledge" with "success in life". Text AK1 argues that merely having knowledge is not enough, while Text AK5's point of view is that knowledge is important in "developing a person's cognitive and personal abilities" (in Appendix I). Text AK2 (in Appendix I) contrasts those who have knowledge with those who do not. All generic stages (which mostly are 'thesis', 'evidence' and 'conclusion') in successful Australian texts are well-realised in that there are not many information gaps. Concerning Themes and Rhemes, the choices are relevant to the text development.

With regard to the Chinese EFL texts on this topic, most of the successful texts are also organised in making a contrast between knowledge and another notion. For example, both Text K6 and Text K15 (in Appendix II) contrast "knowledge" with "money" while Text K7 contrasts the difference between "men with knowledge" with "those without knowledge". Text K8 explains the difference between "man" and "animal". The patterning of information (i.e. by making contrasts) is similar to that of the native speakers' texts. As far as Text K20 (in Appendix II) is concerned, by using some examples, the text comes to the conclusion that "knowledge is power". It also points out that in modern society, how capable a person is will be gauged by how much knowledge he owns.

For the successful Chinese EFL texts on this topic, there are some features in common. All of them employ an effective orienting section — the introductory stage (with the exception of Text K7) for the purpose of either setting up a context for the macro-theme such as Text K6 and Text K15 or explaining the abstract notion of
"knowledge" (K8) by exemplifying. In the former case, the context predicts that the macro-theme will provide an adversative meaning. However, in the latter case, the macro-theme is inferred from the specific examples given. As for Text K7, it provides the macro-theme at the beginning of the text (in Sentence 1 — Knowledge is the most valuable) followed by the examples which elaborate chronologically in relation to how people acquire knowledge and the reason why it is important.

In the 'evidence' stage (i.e. providing the supportive evidence), as mentioned earlier, most of the successful texts pursue a line of reasoning based on contrastive meaning except Text K20. Themes in this text were mostly realised in employing the items involving "knowledge" and "people".

Regarding the concluding stage, the successful EFL texts tended to use more effective conclusions in order to reorient the reader. For example, the last two sentences in Text K6 are: 9/ When you own much knowledge, you will feel that you are the happiest person in the world. 10/ Can money do this? No, it can't. The last two sentences in Text K15 are: 16/ Money can be stolen, 17/ but nobody can take knowledge. In relation to the realisation of Theme, Text K6 thematises temporal circumstances (When you own much knowledge) for the Rhemes to respond in terms of acquiring knowledge, and Text K15 uses Money (Theme 16) and nobody (Theme 17).

Sentence 17 does not thematise knowledge, the notion which contrasts with that of "money" as argued through this text. As a result, the thematic progression pattern between Sentence 16 and Sentence 17 is that of 'Theme 16 – Rheme 17', a pattern which is considered to be rare in English texts (Danes, 1974). Nevertheless, the two informants believed that in fact the use of nobody as Theme 17 exerts stronger effects than using "knowledge". By using nobody, the writer meant that "knowledge" cannot be taken away by any means. This is a useful reminder of the fact that we cannot always simply mechanically apply an analytical framework to determine the meaning in the text.

As for Text K7 and Text K8, each uses a textual Theme to show the conclusion
explicitly (i.e. So and For everyone of us respectively). In the former case, the conclusion is realised in an hortatory statement of what "we" are supposed to do — 'to acquire more knowledge for the sake of our people and country'. This statement is associated with the previous sentence in that people/country is related to society. In the latter case, the writer repeats the title for the purpose of reorientation, followed by the two sentences as the enhancement. This conclusion can be inferred from the evidence given above.

As far as Text K20 is concerned, it merges all stages together. Although there is no explicit sentence which functions as the macro-theme, the reader can perceive it through the source of information given.

With reference to the unsuccessful texts, they also have something in common.

First, the use of the introductory stage is not effective. This includes the fact that the argument is not related to the introductory part. For example, the introductory stage in Text K1 introduces the notion of the development of technology which seems to expect that the evidence stage will talk about the relationship between this notion and "knowledge", which is not fulfilled later. In Text K2, the introductory stage mentions two different answers to the topic question. The first answer (about "money") seems relevant since it forms a contrastive meaning with "knowledge", whereas the second answer (about "health") is not related to "knowledge".

Secondly, the 'evidence' stage is not well-structured. Although some texts provide some hyper-themes in succession by using first, second such as in Text K1 and Text K9 (See Appendix II), the problem is either that the hyper-theme is not reinforced with sufficient elaboration, or the 'evidence' sentences are not connected with each other. The use of Themes is hard to predict. Even if in some cases where Themes remain the same (which indicates that all the information comes from the same departure), the fact that the Rhemes always change unexpectedly makes this stretch of text a list of unconnected messages rather than a dynamically developed text. Therefore, it is hard for the reader to follow the message (such as in Text K2).
In Text K4, the use of historical background as a source of information does not contribute to the macro-theme effectively.

As for the concluding stage in the unsuccessful texts, the writers either repeated the title (i.e. Text K1 and Text K9), or changed the focus of the text (i.e. Text K4, in which the topic changes from "knowledge" to "science"). In Text K2, the conclusion is realised by repeating the title first, then citing a proverb as the enhancement (*To live to the old, to learn to the old*) which is not relevant to the context.

Although both successful and unsuccessful texts have some cases of topic inconsistency, this problem is manifested in different ways. In the successful texts, it mostly happens when texts follow a pattern of contrastive reasoning (the text alternates two topic entities as the Themes simultaneously). Although structurally the information is not consistent with the same topic entity, the reader can process the contrastive meaning. Hence, this will not cause a break in the information flow. However, in unsuccessful texts, the topic inconsistencies are more likely to cause breaks of the information flow, such as the failure to fulfil the commitment of elaboration on the hyper-theme and the abrupt shift of the Themes or even frequent occurrences of New.

5.3.2 "As an Australian/Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?"

5.3.2.1 The Australian students' texts

Ten Australian texts were collected on this topic title. Seven were evaluated as successful texts by the informants. Three successful texts (i.e. Texts AP1, AP7 and AP9) were chosen as examples. The significant features about Theme/Rheme progression patterns in each text presented will be discussed in Section 5.3.2.4. The analyses of Text AP4 and AP8 are in Appendix I.
Example 1: Text AP1

1/ In recent times the average Australian citizen has come to take a keen interest in politics. 2/ Although there is a tendency for some Australians to appear blasé about many political issues, a recent change of government in Australia has changed this attitude.

3/ The average Australian has become increasingly concerned about the effect of politics on everyday life. 4/ A large member of Illawarra citizens have felt the effects of unemployment with recent economic cuts. 5/ This has in turn affected the housing situation with a recent downturn in home sale in the Illawarra.

6/ Local issues such as the reopening of ERS have resulted in a great deal of political activity amongst the average Australian citizen.

7/ Politics has become increasingly important to Australian citizen as they have come to the realisation that their opinions cannot and that issues at a federal level have significant effects on the citizen in a local level.

Text AP1 is a four-paragraph text with 7 t-units. It contains four generic stages in the following sequence: (1) 'introduction' (Sentences 1–2); (2) 'evidence' (Sentence 3–6); (3) 'thesis' (Sentence 7); and 'conclusion' (Sentence 7). In this text, the thesis conflates with the conclusion. The informants judged this text to be a successful one because it clearly explains the reason why Australians are interested in politics by giving some examples.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ In recent times the average Australian citizen has come to take a keen interest in politics.

2/ Although there is a tendency for some Australians to appear blasé about many political issues, a recent change of government in Australia has changed this attitude.

Ss1–2 constitute Paragraph 1. Following the time frame set up by Theme 1 In recent times, Rheme 1 introduces the idea that Australians began to be interested in politics. Theme 2 (a concession circumstance) on one hand shows a contrast with Rheme 1, on the other hand establishes a context for Rheme 2 to follow. Theme 2 is related to Rheme 1 by using repetition of Australians and politics; the lexeme blasé in Theme 2 is the antonym of interest in Rheme 1, hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear progression pattern. Rheme 2 maps with New. Undoubtedly, Rheme 2 foreshadows the expectation for the following paragraph to elaborate on the nature of the change. Rheme 2 is also related to Rheme 1: Australia in Rheme 2 is in
collocation with *Australian citizen* in Rheme 1. Therefore, they form a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern.

3/ **The average Australian** has become increasingly concerned about the effect of politics on everyday life.

4/ **A large member** [sik] of Illawarra citizens have felt the effects of unemployment with recent economic cuts.

5/ **This** has in turn affected the housing situation with a recent downturn in home sale in the Illawarra.

In Paragraph 2 (Ss3–5), Theme 3, maintains the topic of "the Australian citizen" in Paragraph 1, taking The average Australian as the departure of this sentence as well as that of the whole paragraph followed by the New — what aspect of politics the average Australian is concerned about (*the effect of politics on everyday life*). This new information needs clarification from the following sentence. By using Australian, Theme 3 is related to both Theme 2 (forming a constant thematic pattern) and Rheme 2 (forming a linear thematic pattern). S3, elaborating on S1, is the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2. Theme 4 also keeps continuity of the topic of "Australians" by taking Illawarra citizens as the departure (the reader can assume that Illawarra is a place in Australia). Theme 4 is closely related to Theme 3 as Illawarra citizens (Theme 4) is the hyponym of the average Australian in Theme 3; hence, Theme 3 and Theme 4 are in a constant progression pattern. Rheme 3 and Rheme 4 are also semantically related in that Rheme 4 elaborates on Rheme 3 (*the effect of politics on everyday life*). The use of a demonstrative reference This in Theme 5 refers back to *the effects of unemployment with recent economic cuts* in Rheme 4, therefore, Theme 5 and Rheme 4 are in a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 5 is realised in New by describing the consequence of economic problems mentioned in Rheme 4. Both Rheme 5 and Theme 4 use Illawarra; hence, they are in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

6/ **Local issues such as the reopening of ERS** have resulted in a great deal of political activity amongst the average Australian citizen.
The third paragraph (S6) provides another source of evidence to support why Australians are more concerned about politics now. Theme 6 conflates with the New by employing *Local issues such as the opening of ERS* as the departure of this paragraph and shifts the focus on "Illawarra citizens". As far as the content in Theme 6 is concerned, the meaning of the initial *ERS* is difficult to interpret. The writer is expected to give its full name. Rheme 6 (mapping with New) describes the consequence of reopening ERS — *have resulted in a great deal of political activity amongst the average Australian citizen.*

*Politics* has become increasingly important to Australian citizen as they have come to the realisation that their opinions cannot and that issues at a federal level have significant effects on the citizen in a local level.

Paragraph 4 (S7) is a conclusion to this text. *Politics* is used as Theme 7 followed by a judgement of politics in the Rheme *has become increasingly important to Australian citizen*. The first part of S7 is the macro-theme of the text (*Politics has become increasingly important to Australian citizens*). With regard to Rheme 7 (which is very long), after giving the judgement of "politics" (the first half of the sentence), it continues to provide the reason why Australians think politics is important (the second half of the sentence). The reasoning part is realised by concluding whole evidence given above: *they have come to the realisation that their opinions cannot and that issues at a federal level have significant effects on the citizen in a local level.*

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text AP1 are diagrammed in Figure 5.9.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text AP1

In Figure 5.9, the text is thickly-arrowed, which suggests the strong connections throughout the text. It is also indicated that each generic stage is linked with the other stage. The items involving "Australian citizens" and "politics" frequently appear in Themes and Rhemes. Choosing these items as Themes and Rhemes is relevant to the field (i.e. the topic title).

In this text, three commonly used progression patterns are: 'constant thematic patterns', 'linear thematic patterns' and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns. The first two patterns are regarded as common patterns in English text (Danes, 1974; Fries, 1981/1983, 1995a). As far as the third pattern is concerned ('Rheme A – Rheme B'), the writer used this pattern three times ('Rheme 1 – Rheme 2', 'Rheme 3 – Rheme 4' and 'Rheme 6 – Rheme 7'). As displayed in Figure 5.9, Rhemes 1 and 2 are in the introductory stage, and Rhemes 3 and 4 are in the 'evidence' stage. One common
feature in these two instances of a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern is that Rheme B helps elaborate on Rheme A within that particular generic stage. Regarding the third instance of using 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern in this text ('Rheme 6 – Rheme 7'), since the two Rhemes are in the different stages (Rheme 6 is in the 'evidence' stage and Rheme 7 in the 'thesis and concluding' stage), the use of this pattern helps connect the two stages. Despite the fact that the 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern is regarded as one of the infrequently used patterns in English texts (Danes, 1974), in this particular text, the choice of using this pattern is considered appropriate.

The above analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

Example 2: Text AP7

1/ What is meant by politics? 2/ If politics is discussion and dialogue to form a democratic government, then I would consider it most important. 3/ Politics looks at different aspects of government and by discussion endeavour to arrive at a proposition. 4/ Often politics discuss a proposition as to why or why not it should become a government policy. 5/ The alternative would possibly be a dictator type government. 6/ Do they have politics, the politics could be where a dictator tries to force, persuade or con people to accept and run with what he decides. 7/ There are many Australians that would consider politics a waste of time because they have little faith in the politicians. 8/ However, any serious thinking would see politics necessary for a stable government.

Text AP7 is a four-paragraph text with 8 t-units. It contains three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentences 1–2); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 3–6); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentences 7–8). Text AP7 was considered as a successful text by the informants because it clearly defines "politics" in both democratic and dictator types of government and it also explains how Australians value "politics", thus convincing the reader that politics is important.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ What is meant by politics?

2/ If politics is discussion and dialogue to form a democratic government, then I would consider it most important.
Paragraph 1 (Ss1–2) serves the thesis stage. It starts with a rhetorical question thematising What as the missing information. With this question, the writer orients the reader to getting the definition of an abstract notion — "politics". S2, thematising a conditional circumstance If politics is discussion and dialogue to form a democratic government, sets up a context for Rheme 2 to give the answer to the title question. S2 is the macro-theme of this text and it foreshadows the following paragraph to centre on what "politics" means. Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear thematic pattern as they both use "politics".

3/ Politics looks at different aspects of government and by discussion endeavours to arrive at a proposition.

4/ Often politics discuss a proposition as to why or why not it should become a government policy.

Paragraph 2 (Ss3–4), following Theme 2, profiles what a democratic government means in relation to politics. Both topical Themes of Ss3–4 employ politics as the departure. Hence, Theme 3 and Theme 4 are in a constant thematic pattern. Rheme 3 as the New expresses the responsibility of "politics" — to make a "proposal". In S4, the interpersonal Theme of S4 Often indicates a frequency. Rheme 4, maintaining the topic of "proposition" mentioned in Rheme 3, elaborates on it. For this reason, Rheme 3 and Rheme 4 also interact with each other by centring on the notion of "proposition".

5/ The alternative would possibly be a dictator type government.

6/ Do they have politics, the politics could be where a dictator tries to for, persuade or con people to accept and run with what he decides.

Paragraph 3 (Ss5–6) continues with the argument about "politics". S5 responds to S2 in that the former refers to a "dictator" government and the latter a "democratic" government. Theme 5, mapping with New The alternative, makes a contrast with the previous paragraph — the democratic politics. It is followed by the Rheme — an identification of a dictator type government. Rheme 5 is related to Rheme 4 as they both use government. They are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B'
progression pattern. S6 elaborates on Rheme 5 about the nature of a dictator type of
government. Theme 6 is a conditional circumstance *Do they have politics. They*
refers back to a dictator type government in Rheme 5. Hence, Rheme 5 and Theme 6
are in a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 6 (New) provides the consequence of the
circumstance which is set up in Theme 6 (the politics could be where a dictatorship
could be where a dictator tries to for, persuade or con people to accept and runs with
what he decides) and expresses what politics means in a dictator type of
government.

7/ **There are many Australians** that would consider politics a waste
of time because they have little faith in the politicians.

8/ **However, any serious thinking** would see politics necessary for a
stable government.

Paragraph 4 (Ss7–8) is a concluding paragraph. Theme 7, an existential
structure *There are many Australians*, introduces *Australians* as the departure of S8.
Rheme 7 expresses how Australians value politics and gives the reason (consider
politics a waste of time because they have little faith in the politicians). Both Rheme 6
and Rheme 7 use politics (Rheme 7 also uses politicians) and are in a 'Rheme A –
Rheme B' pattern. In S8, the textual Theme *However* signals a contrast with S7. S8
argues that politics is important. The topical theme of S8 any serious thinking is
related to Rheme 7 consider in the relationship of synonymy. Therefore, Rheme 7
and Theme 8 are in a linear progression pattern. In addition, Rheme 7 and Rheme 8
are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern by using politics.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text AP7 are diagrammed in Figure
5.10.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text AP7

In Figure 5.10, all sentences are connected by arrows. Linear thematic patterns and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns are frequently used. There are also connections between the generic stages. Politics and government appear frequently as Themes and Rhemes. There are no information gaps in relation to adjacent sentences. This analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

Example 3: Text AP9

1/ Politics is important within modern societies at 3 levels: the federal, state/provincial and municipal. 2/ At the municipal level, interest groups promote their concerns through councils, committees and city government. 3/ The focus of their purpose is on matters like building codes, city laws and orders, property taxes and the like. 4/ At the state level, politics and state government concern themselves with broader
issues like inter-city transportation (roads), environmental issues, public health and the like. 5/ In continuing with the ever widening political focus, the federal government and its political bodies, are in charge of national defence, international diplomacy and similar broad issues. 6/ At all these levels, political figures are frequently elected 7/ and within this process, the lobbying for political advantage, lies the heart of whatever politics.

Text AP9 is a one-passage text with 7 t-units. It has three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–5); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentences 6–7). The text was regarded as a successful one by the informants as it explains the reasons why politics is important by introducing the functions of each of the three levels. The text is reader-minded: It fulfils the expectation of the reader by using a transitional element to connect the previous information to the new one.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Politics is important within modern societies at 3 levels: the federal, state/provincial and municipal.

2/ At the municipal level, interest groups promote their concerns through councils, committees and city government.

3/ The focus of their purpose is on matters like building codes, city laws and orders, property taxes and the like.

S1, taking Politics as the departure of this sentence as well as that of this text, is the macro-theme since it answers the title question. Rheme 1, by providing the writer's position of the importance of politics at three levels (the federal, state/provincial and municipal), anticipates the following discourse to elaborate each level respectively. In this case, derived Themes from the macro-theme are predicted.

S2, as the first derived Theme of the macro-theme, explains the function of politics at the municipal level which is promised in Rheme 1. Theme 2 (Given), repeating At the municipal level in Rheme 1 (the circumstance of angle), builds up a context for Rheme 2. Hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear progression pattern. Rheme 2, conflating with New, introduces the topic of how the municipal government exercises politics. S3 elaborates on S2 by specifying the government's task. Their in Theme 3 refers back to interest groups in Rheme 2. The two are in a linear progression pattern.
4/ **At the state level**, politics and state government concern themselves with broader issues like inter-city transportation (roads), environmental issues, public health and the like.

5/ **In continuing with the ever widening political focus**, the federal government and its political bodies, are in charge of national defence, international diplomacy and similar broad issues.

Theme 4, by employing a new circumstance of angle *At the state level*, shifts the focus on the function of the municipal government. S4 as the second derived Theme of the text, introduces the function of the state government. Rheme 4 is semantically related to Rhemes 2–3 by means of some lexical items. *State government* in Rheme 4 contrasts with *city government* in Rheme 2. *Issues* in Rheme 4 forms the relationship of synonymy with *matters* in Rheme 3.

S5 is the third derived Theme from the macro-theme, elaborating on politics at the federal level. Theme 5 uses a circumstance of accompaniment to link the following discourse with the previous information *In continuing with the ever widening political focus*. Rheme 5, mapping with the New, introduces the function of the federal government.

6/ **At all these levels**, political figures are frequently elected

7/ *and within this process*, the lobbying for political advantage, lies the heart of whatever politics.

Ss6–7 are the concluding stage of this text. Theme 6 *At all these levels*, referring back to Themes 2, 4 and 5, provides a framework for the interpretation of Rheme 6 about the common features among these three levels. Rheme 6 is realised by introducing the notion that "political figures" are selected at all these levels. In S7, the textual Theme *and* signals an extension to S6; the topical Theme *within this process* encapsulates the whole of S6 followed by Rheme 7 which gives an appraisal for the advantages of these political processes.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text AP9 are diagrammed in Figure 5.11.
Since this text elaborates "politics" at the three levels, the use of derived thematic patterns is relevant. Despite the fact that there is not any employment of other sentences to support Derived Theme II (Sentence 4) and Derived Theme III (Sentence 5), each of these two derived Themes provides sufficient information for clarification. Most of the Themes are realised in the circumstances which introduce different levels of "politics". Themes are all related to the topic of "politics". The three derived Themes are inter-connected with each other in terms of different

**Figure 5.11 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns of Text AP9**

**Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text AK9**

Since this text elaborates "politics" at the three levels, the use of derived thematic patterns is relevant. Despite the fact that there is not any employment of other sentences to support Derived Theme II (Sentence 4) and Derived Theme III (Sentence 5), each of these two derived Themes provides sufficient information for clarification. Most of the Themes are realised in the circumstances which introduce different levels of "politics". Themes are all related to the topic of "politics". The three derived Themes are inter-connected with each other in terms of different
'levels' of politics. By the same token, the Rhemes correlate with each other by explaining different functions of the three levels of politics. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

5.3.2.2 Successful Chinese EFL texts

Twenty-one texts were collected on this topic title. Five texts were evaluated as successful texts. In this section, two successful texts (Texts P7 and P10) and three unsuccessful texts (Texts P1, P5 and P9) are exemplary. Details of the analysis of Text P2 are presented in Appendix II.

Example 1: Text P7

1/ 'Politics' is too familiar to us Chinese as a term. 2/ Before we consider it so important that it is placed at the first place even ahead of economic 3/ and many shortcomings appear, 4/ and (over) the course of time more and more people think politics not important as a result of conflicts among people in political campaigns. 5/ Is politics important for us Chinese or not? 6/ The answer is positive.
7/ The politics' task is to organise the society, manage the society and serve the society. 8/ Without politics, a society will not work or exist, 9/ China is not an exception. 10/ There are so many Chinese people up to 1, 200, 000, 000, 11/ without a series of rales and an organiser the consequence is beyond our imagination. 12/ Yes, there is no doubt about that we Chinese need politics 13/ and our task is to endeavour to get a good politics.

This text is divided into five paragraphs with 13 t-units. It has four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Sentences 1–4); (2) 'thesis' (Sentences 5–6); (3) 'evidence' (Sentences 7–11); and (4) 'conclusion' (Sentences 12–13). The text was regarded as a successful one by the informants because the thesis is appropriately supported. The conclusion is also effective as it not only reinforces the thesis, but also pushes the text further by mentioning the task for the Chinese people.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ 'Politics' is too familiar to us Chinese as a term.

2/ Before we consider it so important that it is placed at the first place even ahead of economic
even ahead of economic

3/ and many shortcomings appear,

4/ and (over) the course of time more and more people think politics not important as a result of conflict among people in the political campaigns.

Ss1–4 form Paragraph 1. S1 takes Politics, a participant, as the departure. The writer even put Politics in a single quotation mark perhaps for the purpose of highlighting this term. In Rheme 1, the writer used too instead of "very" because in Chinese translation these two adverbs are interchangeable. Theme 2, by thematising a temporal circumstance before (which means "in the past"), sets up a frame for Rheme 2 to follow. Rheme 2 explains why Chinese people are so familiar with politics. It in Rheme 2 refers anaphorically to politics in Rheme 1, the two items forming a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. We in Rheme 2 refers to us Chinese in Rheme 1; the two items are also in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. In addition, important in Rheme 2 repeats the same lexeme of the title, the macro-theme. Basically, S2 gives the answer to the topic question in the title from the standpoint of the past.

In S3, the textual Theme and signals that the following sentence will add some meaning to the previous information. The whole of S3 is New. Nevertheless, logically it is the consequence of S2. S3 (and many shortcomings appear) anticipates the following sentences to exemplify some of the "shortcomings", which would require some derived Themes to contribute it. S4 gives another totally New information. Like Theme 2, Theme 4 is also realised by a temporal circumstance (i.e. over the course of time), setting another time frame for the following Rheme. This temporal circumstance seems to relate to Theme 2 before: It is possible that Theme 4 over the course of time refers to the period of time — from "before" (in the past) to the present. As a result of conflict among people in the political campaigns in Rheme 4 is in fact an example of shortcomings foreshadowed in Theme 3. In this case, Rheme 4 and Theme 3 are related to each other, forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. Rheme 4 makes two co-reference relations with either the
preceding sentences or the title: politics repeats that of Theme 1 and the title; important repeats that of Rheme 2 and the title. People in Rheme 4 forms the relationship of 'general and specific' with Chinese in Rheme 1 and more and more has a comparative reference to Chinese too. Rheme 4 gives the second answer to the topic question in contrast to the previous one (in the past Chinese people thought that politics was important) in Rheme 2. As part of New in Rheme 4, the writer introduced a new topic the conflict among people during the political campaigns. Although the writer did not give any further explanation to this in the following sentence, it is possible that the reader can predict what might happen in the political campaign based on his/her world knowledge.

5/ Is politics important for us Chinese or not?

Paragraph 2 only has one sentence in the interrogative form (a rhetorical question).

6/ The answer is positive.

S6 (Paragraph 3) gives the answer to the rhetorical question raised in S5 (Paragraph 2). Together Ss5–6 work as a transitional element from the introductory stage (Paragraph 1) to the evidence stage. In addition, the two sentences function as the macro-theme (the thesis) of the text. Theme 5, maintaining the topic about "politics", is realised in a polar question requiring a "yes/no" answer. Theme 6, using The answer (which is related to the "question" in the relationship of expectancy), responds directly to Theme 5. Therefore, Themes 5–6 are in a constant thematic progression pattern.

7/ The politics' task is to organise the society, manage the society and serve the society.

8/ Without politics, a society will not work or exist,

9/ China is not an exception.

10/ There are so many Chinese people up to 1, 200, 000, 000,

11/ without a series of rules and an organiser the consequence is
beyond our imagination.

Paragraph 4 (Ss7–11) provides supportive evidence to reinforce the macro-theme. Theme 7, taking The politics' task, a mapping of both Given (the notion of "politics") and New (the notion of "task") as the departure, expects the following part (Rheme) to answer "about what". Rheme 7 fulfils this commitment by defining the dimension of "the politics' task" (is to organise the society, manage the society and serve the society). Theme 8 is realised in a circumstance of accompaniment Without politics, building up another frame for the following New, Rheme 8 (a society will not work or exist). Following Theme 7, Theme 8 continues the focus of "politics"; therefore, Themes 7–8 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. Rheme 8 interacts with Rheme 7 (repeating society), both explaining the relationship between "politics" and "society".

Theme 9 shifts to China as the topic. China is related to society in Rheme 8, forming the relationship of expectancy (collocation). The two items are in a linear thematic progression. Theme 10, thematising the marked Theme There, indicates that a topic will follow. Rheme 10 (... are so many Chinese people up to 1, 200, 000, 000) picks up the same topic as Theme 9, followed by introducing one great problem that China is facing — a big population. Chinese people in Rheme 10 and China in Theme 9 are in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

Theme 11 Without a series of rules and an organiser, a circumstance of accompaniment, is based on Rheme 10 although it does not directly form any cohesive relations. Semantically, Theme 11 is related to Rheme 10 which can be interpreted as follows: in the situation that China has such a big population, if there were no rules nor an organiser... . On the other hand, rules and organiser can both be derived from Rheme 7 (organise the society, manage the society) which has become Given so far. Again, the reader can understand Rheme 11 with respect to his/her world knowledge.

12/ Yes, there is no doubt about that we Chinese need politics
13/ and our task is to endeavour to get a good politics.

Ss12-13 (Paragraph 5) constitute the concluding stage. S12 employs an interpersonal Theme Yes for the purpose of reorienting the reader to the positive answer to the question raised earlier. The topical Theme in S12, employing an existential structure, functions as a confirmation of the answer. Rheme 12 emphasises the writer's point of view. Unlike most of the texts on this topic, the writer did not repeat the title. Instead, he/she even added more content to the concluding paragraph — The Chinese citizens should work hard for a good "politics" (S12). In S13, the textual Theme and signals an additional meaning to S12. Our in Theme 13 refers anaphorically to we Chinese in Rheme 12, building a linear thematic pattern. The topical Theme of S13 (our task) as the departure sets up the expectation of the Rheme, that is, to express the responsibility of Chinese citizens with regard to this issue (i.e. politics). Rheme 13 interacts with Rheme 12 by following the same topic "politics", forming a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text P7 are diagrammed in Figure 5.12.
Figure 5.12 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text P7
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text P7

As displayed in Figure 5.12, each generic stage is related to each other. Most Themes/Rhemes are realised in either China/Chinese, or society, or the items involving "politics" which are linked to the topic. Mostly, the sentences are connected to one another. The exception is between Sentence 3 and Sentence 4: there is no lexical relation between these sentences on the surface; (As observed in Figure 5.12, no arrow occurs between the two sentences.) however, the reader can comprehend the logical relation (i.e. the cause-effect) between them in the context. Because of this, the writing is still effective. Concerning the progression patterns in this text, linear thematic progression patterns are most frequently used followed by 'Theme A – Rheme B' and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns. This Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that Text P7 is a successful text.

Example 2: Text P10

Subtitle: "Economics Is More Important Than Politics"

1/ Politics is an important thing in all the world. 2/ But I think in China it went too far especially in the past. 3/ Politics has been put above all the other things. 4/ No one dares to say that he thinks politics is of no use or unimportant.
5/ During the past 15 years, with the policy of reform and opening, Chinese people pay more attention to the economy than politics. 6/ I, as one of Chinese citizens, think it's a good thing. 7/ For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better life. 8/ The improvement of the life quality reflects the progress of a country.
9/ We have wasted too many years in talking politics. 10/ Now how can we still do that again?

Text P10 is divided into three paragraphs (with 10 t-units). It has four generic stages: (1) 'introduction' (Sentences 1–5); (2) 'thesis' (Sentence 5–6); (3) 'evidence' (Sentences 7–8); and (4) 'conclusion' (Sentences 9–10). The title, derived from the original one, was regarded as the answer to the question being asked (i.e. the original topic — As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?). The text was considered successful by the informants because the evidence well supports the topic title.
Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Politics is an important thing in all the world.

2/ But I think in China it went too far especially in the past.

3/ Politics has been put above all the other things.

4/ No one dares to say that he thinks politics is of no use or unimportant.

Ss1–4 form Paragraph 1. S1 takes Politics as the departure. Rheme 1 is realised by a relational process is followed by a generalised entity, an important thing in all the world. The textual Theme in S2, the conjunction but, signals an adversative connection between the following sentence and the preceding one. The interpersonal Theme (I think) shows the writer's involvement in this discussion, thus making the text personal. The topical Theme in S2 shifts from politics in Theme 1 to in China, a spatial circumstance used as setting up the situation for the following events. The topical Theme in S2 (in China) picks up its counterpart in all the world in Rheme 1, thereby forming a linear thematic pattern of progression. (The relationship between in China and in all the world is that of 'part and whole' — in the relationship of meronymy). It in Rheme 2 refers anaphorically to politics in Theme 1. Hence, Theme 1 and Rheme 2 are in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. Rheme 2, by talking about what happened to China in the past, fulfils the expectation of the adversative meaning. Since Rheme 2 uses went too far, a metaphor to explain the Chinese situation, the interpretation can be very ambiguous. The writer clarifies S2 in Ss3–4. In S3, Politics becomes the topical Theme again and forms a linear thematic pattern with it (referring to politics) in Rheme 2. The New placed in Rheme 3 explains the meaning of Rheme 2. S4 changes the topical Theme back to "people" (No one is related to Theme 2 in China, meaning "no Chinese citizen"). Politics in Rheme 4 forms a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern with politics in Theme 3. Another word in Rheme 4 unimportant relates back to Rheme 1 important, forming the relationship of antonymy. Obviously, S4, talking about the consequence of S3, makes a contribution to S3.
5/ During the past 15 years, with the policy of reform and opening, Chinese people pay more attention to the economy than politics.

6/ I, as one of Chinese citizens, think it's a good thing.

7/ For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better life.

8/ The improvement of the life quality reflects the progress of a country.

Paragraph 2 (Ss5–8) is a description of the Chinese situation in recent times. The topical Theme in S5, a temporal circumstance During the past 15 years associates itself with its counterpart in the past in Rheme 2. Therefore, the reader is oriented from the past to the present. Rheme 5 maps with New, with the policy of reform and opening, Chinese people pay more attention to the economy than politics. Rheme 5 interacts with Paragraph 1 — the mentality change of Chinese people from the past — by contrasting the current situation to the past. In Rheme 5, Chinese people is related to No one (meaning "no Chinese people") in Theme 4, forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern; politics is the repetition of the same item in Rheme 4, forming a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

S6 is the writer's judgement of S5. S6 employs a rather complicated Theme, the interpolation of a circumstance of role in the Theme. According to Thompson (1996), interpolation is a common linguistic phenomenon. In S6, if the interpolation was not interrupting, the Theme sequence would be arranged as such: "As one of Chinese citizens, I think...", in which case the circumstance of role would become the departure of the whole sentence and I the Rheme. However, since I is placed prior to As one of Chinese citizens, I is the Theme. And given that As one of Chinese citizens is used to modify I, it is regarded as part of the Theme showing the writer's self-identity as one of the Chinese citizens. As the consequence of this sequence, the focus of the S6 is I, indicating the following point is very personal. Chinese citizen in Theme 6 is related to Chinese people in Rheme 5, the two elements in a linear thematic pattern. It in Rheme 6 refers anaphorically to Rheme 5 (in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern) followed by the writer's appraisal
of S5.

S6 functions as the macro-theme of this text (*I, as one of Chinese citizens, think it's a good thing*). S7 gives the reason why the writer thinks this way (*For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better life*). S7, by starting with a clause connective *for* (the textual Theme), is only a sentence fragment. As mentioned in the earlier section in this chapter, this type of structure is not supposed to exist independently as a sentence in English. However, in Chinese it is common to treat this element as a sentence. In this sense, the use of this sentence fragment is likely to be affected by the writer's first language structure. The interpersonal Theme in S7 *I think* emphasises the writer's involvement in this topic. So far the writer has used *I think* three times, a personal expression which is generally discouraged in English exposition. According to Martin (1985a), in exposition the writer is expected to distance him/herself from the writing, thus making the text impersonal. However, in this text, what the writer does violates the expectation of English exposition. This frequent use of *I think* could partly be associated with the text title, *Do you think politics important?* which are likely to induce the reader to give the answer such as "I think...", thereby increasing the possibility of using the personal expression.

*Wherever in the world* in S7 (a spatial circumstance) is the topical Theme setting up the framework for the following part. *World* is linked to *Chinese citizens* in Theme 6 in a relationship of expectancy. The two items form a linear thematic pattern. In Rheme 7, *important* links back to the title, forming a relationship of co-reference. *Most*, a comparative reference also links to *important* in the title. *Nation* associates with *Chinese citizens* in Theme 6, the two items forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. And *led his people a better life* relates to *economy* in Rheme 5. Theme 8 takes the participant *The improvement of the life quality* as the topical Theme, following the idea of Rheme 7 and forming the relationship of semantic synonymy (*a better life vs. the improvement of the life*). Hence, the two items are in a linear thematic pattern. Again, *country* in Theme 8 has the relationship
of synonymy with *nation* in Rheme 7, also forming a linear thematic pattern. One noteworthy feature of Theme 8 is that the writer uses a nominalisation (*the improvement of the life quality*) — a more sophisticated usage which is rare in the corpus of Chinese EFL texts collected in this research.

9/ We have wasted too many years in talking politics.

10/ Now how can we still do that again?

Paragraph 3 (Ss9–10) is the conclusion. S9 employs *we*, a personal pronoun (including the writer him/herself) referring to "Chinese people" as the topical Theme followed by Rheme functioning as a comment on the Theme with reference to Paragraph 1. S10 starts with a temporal circumstance *Now* as the topical Theme which is in contrast to *too many years* in Rheme 9. Therefore, they form a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 10 is realised in an interrogative clause, *how can we still do that again?*. According to the two informants, this use of the interrogative clause in this situation is not a felicitous choice. Despite the fact that S10 is strongly related to S9, S10 does not bring a strong and clear conclusion to the discussion. However, in Chinese language, the employment of an interrogative clause can be a very strong rhetorical device helping to support the argument, the consequence of which is thought to cause dramatic effect. One expectation of using this device is appealing for the reader's commitment to the discussion. With S10 for example, the reader is expected to assume what the writer means and to find the answer him/herself after reading the whole text. Therefore this type of writing is more reader-responsible rather than writer-responsible (see Hinds, 1987 for more details about this wording). It is probable that the writer was affected by the Chinese rhetoric structuring in using this rhetorical question.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text P10 are displayed in Figure 5.13.
Figure 5.13 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text P10

Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text P10

In Figure 5.13, the generic stages are linked to one another by using politics. Thickly-scattered arrows suggest that there are strong connections among the sentences within the text. The frequently used progression patterns are 'constant' thematic, 'linear' thematic, 'Rheme A – Rheme B' and 'Theme A – Rheme B' patterns. Most of the connections are centred on politics, Chinese/China and life which are closely related to the text topic "Economics is more important than
politics". The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

5.3.2.3 Unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text P1

1/ As you know, we are Chinese. 2/ So I think politics important. 3/ First, the people's republic of China was built by politics. 4/ It depends on power. 5/ As long as our country is controlled by power, it can be developing and rich. 6/ Because our country is so large and has so many people. 7/ If they weren't controlled, China would be like the sands. 8/ Second, politics in China are a kind of weapon. 9/ When we have them, we can do many things we want. 10/ We can use it to survive an enterprise, to do some things benefit for people. 11/ So I think in China politics is important. 12/ If we can use it rightly, we will be proud of our country.

Text P1 has four paragraphs including 12 t-units. It contains three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–10); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentences 11–12). The text was graded as unsuccessful because some points made in the 'evidence' stage are not elaborated, hence, the informants were not convinced by the argument.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ As you know, we are Chinese.

2/ So I think politics important.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–2) gives the answer to the topical question — "Politics is important to Chinese citizens". The interpersonal Theme in S1, As you know, signals that the following information in the Rheme is Given. In fact, S1 does not make an effective beginning since it gives no new message other than repeating the title. In S2, the textual Theme So expresses the cause-effect relationship with S1, which could be interpreted that Chinese people's life must perforce be strongly involved in politics. It is apparent that Ss1–2 together give the answer to the title question. They both create the macro-theme of the text: "As a Chinese citizen, I think
politics important".

The following paragraphs are expected to support the macro-theme. For this purpose, there is a possibility that derived Themes progression would be employed.

3/ First, the people's republic of China was built by politics.

4/ It depends on power.

5/ As long as our country is controlled by power, it can be developing and rich.

6/ Because our country is so large and has so many people.

7/ If they weren't controlled, China would be like the sands.

Paragraph 2 (Ss3–7) starts with evidence signalled by First, a textual Theme in S3. The topical Theme the People's Republic of China (the Given) is the focus of the sentence. Rheme 3 maps with New. Generally speaking, the message given in S3 is so broad and abstract that the reader has not so far got the point about what politics means. Therefore, there is an expectation that the following sentences will develop the message of Rheme 3. However, Theme 4 only keeps the continuity of Theme 3 by using it to refer anaphorically to China. Themes 3–4 are in a constant thematic pattern. Rheme 4 introduces a new concept power. Theme 5, a conditional circumstance which contains the content of both Theme 4 and Rheme 4, sets up a framework for the following Rheme to fulfil the expectation in this situation. Rheme 5 realises it in it can be developing and rich. S6 is a fragment which should not stand alone as a sentence in English as mentioned earlier in this chapter.

S6, together with S7, clarifies S5 by giving the reasons. The textual Theme Because signals a cause-effect relationship between the preceding and the following sentences. The topical Theme in S6 our country is the repetition of the same item in Theme 5, hence, the two items are in a constant thematic pattern. Rheme 6 is followed by the problem faced in China (as New). Theme 7 is a conditional circumstance, setting up another frame. As part of the topical Theme in S7, they refers anaphorically to many people in Rheme 7; the two items are in a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 7 (New) is realised by expressing a proposed state ("China would be
like the drifting sands") under the situation set up by Theme 7. *Be like (drifting) sand* is an idiom in the Chinese language, meaning "out of control and in disorder". According to Martin (1985a), it is not appropriate in exposition to use this sort of metaphorical expression which is popular in literature. However, it is common in Chinese exposition to use such devices which are thought to add some flavour and freshness to avoid plain and boring writing (Liu, 1993; Li, 1995).

As far as Themes are concerned in Paragraph 2, they are all realised by *China/people*. This means that each sentence departs from the same point. The text topic "politics" is mentioned only once (as New in Rheme 3). And later in this paragraph, it is replaced by "power". The change may be interpreted thus: politics means power. If this is the case, the writer was supposed to explicitly state it, thereby alerting the reader to this interpretation.

8/ Second, *politics in China* are a kind of weapon.

9/ **When we have them**, we can do many things we want.

10/ *We* can use it to survive an enterprise, to do some things benefit for *people*.

Paragraph 3 provides the second evidence in support of the macro-theme. S8 uses *politics* (the topical Theme) as its point of departure. The Rheme (New) regards politics as *weapon* (meaning "measures"). Theme 9 sets up a time frame by using a temporal clause (a marked Theme). *Them* ("it" should be used instead) in Theme 9 refers anaphorically to *weapon* in Rheme 8. Theme 9 and Rheme 8 are in a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 9 *we can do many things we want* expects the following part to exemplify. S10 satisfies this requirement by giving two examples (i.e. *to survive an enterprise* and *to do some things benefit for people*). However, the message given in Paragraph 3 is obscure in the sense that there is no explanation as to how politics (as a weapon) can help to do all the things mentioned. Theme 10 keeps the continuity of *we*, forming a linear thematic pattern with Rheme 9.

11/ So *I think in China* politics is important.

12/ **If we can use it rightly**, we will be proud of our country.
In Paragraph 4 (Ss11-12), S11 repeats S2. What makes it different is that the textual Theme So ("therefore" would be better) in S11 means that "given all these facts mentioned above, I now draw such a conclusion...". Hence, it relates the following part to the whole of the preceding text; however, So in S2 only shows the relation between the S1 and S2. In S12, the Theme employs a conditional clause with it referring anaphorically to politics in Rheme 11. Therefore, they form a linear thematic pattern. However, as the accomplishment of the expectation of Theme 12, Rheme 12 looks somewhat preemptive. There appears to be some information provided before this idea. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text P1 are diagrammed in Figure 5.14.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text P1

In Figure 5.14, arrows cover the whole text, which indicate that all sentences are linked. However, there are cases when information gaps occur between the adjacent sentences. As analysed earlier, some points are not clearly explained such as the relationship between "power" and "politics" and the link between "weapon" and "politics". All these may confuse the reader. The analysis also suggests that a 'single item' connection between the adjacent sentences does not necessarily lead to a successful text. If there occurs unintelligible meaning arising from other items within the adjacent sentences, the text would not be a successful one. For example, in 'Evidence 1' (Sentences 3–7), the writer argues that China will develop and be rich if it is controlled by power (Sentence 5). Although there are some links between the sentences throughout this generic stage, the writer did not clarify the reasons why 'power can make China develop and rich'.

Example 2: Text P5

1/ Of course, I should say that politics is important. 2/ During the history, many politicians made themselves famous. 3/ They have been paving the society forwards. 4/ Some of them fought for freedom, or wealth, of the public.
5/ But, there have been also some bad politicians who do everything just for themselves. 6/ They dominated. 7/ They don't possess virtues any more. 8/ Their characters are debased by their evil actions. 9/ Of course, these people should be gotten rid of the politicians. 10/ And they are just a few, I think.
11/ So I think politics is important, though there are some bad politicians exist.

Text P5 is a three-paragraph text with 11 t-units. It contains three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–10); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentence 11). In this text, what the evidence shows is only the flaws of the politicians and does not support the thesis (i.e. "Politics is important for a Chinese citizen"), nor does the text come to the conclusion that "Politics is important".
Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Of course, I should say that politics is important.

2/ During the history, many politicians made themselves famous.

3/ They have been paving the society forwards.

4/ Some of them fought for freedom, or wealth, of the public.

Paragraph 1 is constituted by Ss1–4. S1 starts with an interpersonal Theme Of course, indicating that this is a point that was accept by the writer. This conjunctive adjunct is not appropriate to be used in the context of expository writing since it is a spoken form. The interpersonal Theme, I should say, signals the intrusion of the writer. Taking politics as the departure, S1 provides the answer to the title question. Therefore, S1 is the macro-theme (the thesis) of this text. Theme 2, During the history (a temporal circumstance), sets up a time frame for the rest of the text. Rheme 2 conflates with New, shifting the focus from an abstract topic politics (in Theme 1) to politicians. Although politician relates closely to politics (forming a relationship of co-reference), the selection of politicians does not seem to be pertinent to the macro-theme. Ss3–4 contribute to R2 by elaborating how the politicians have made themselves famous (Rheme 2). The personal reference, They, in Theme 3, taking up many politicians in Rheme 2 (a linear progression pattern), now becomes Given whereas Rheme 3 is realised by New have been paving the society forwards. Theme 4 still keeps the topic of "politician" since them refers anaphorically to politician in Rheme 2. Themes 3–4 are in a constant thematic progression pattern.

5/ But, there have been also some bad politicians who do everything just for themselves.

6/ They dominated.

7/ They don't possess virtues any more.

8/ Their characters are debased by their evil actions.

9/ Of course, these people should be gotten rid of the politicians.

10/ And they are just a few, I think.
Ss5–10 constitute Paragraph 2. The textual Theme *but* (a conjunction) in S5 marks the beginning of Paragraph 2, signalling an adversative relationship between what has gone before and what is going to be stated. S5 introduces the features of bad politicians in contrast with those of good ones in Paragraph 1. The topical Theme, *some bad politicians*, is in an existent form (a marked Theme), thus making it prominent. It is obvious that Paragraph 2 is the continuation of Paragraph 1 and does not contribute to the expectation of the macro-theme which requires the explanation of why politics is important.

Both Themes 6–7, maintain the same Theme as Theme 5 (*they* in Themes 6–7 refers anaphorically to *bad politicians* in Theme 5), form a linear thematic progression pattern. Theme 8 is also related to *bad politician* by exercising the possessive pronoun *their*. In order to see how each Theme contributes to the text development, it is necessary to check how each Rheme helps to develop dynamic communication. To do this, it is necessary to see whether the information (mostly New) in the Rhemes interacts with other Rhemes or with the adjacent Themes. As far as Rhemes 5–8 are concerned, each Rheme does not interact with other Themes. This indicates that all these sentences make sense at the sentence level. However, if placed together, they run like a series of unconnected sentences which do not make a text.

S9 uses *Of course* (the interpersonal Theme) which is not appropriate in a written text, meaning "I agree with the following comment". Again, the topical Theme *these people* forms a co-reference with *bad politicians* in Theme 5, the departure of Paragraph 2. S9 functions as a justification for Ss5–8. So far Paragraph 2 has proceeded to talk about the unpleasant characteristics of bad politicians. This information flow ends in S10. The textual Theme *And* gives an additional meaning to the preceding sentences. However, S10 intends to express a concessional meaning: In spite of the existence of bad politicians, there are only a few. In this case, the use of *and* will confuse the reader. Nevertheless, the topical Theme in S10 is still realised by *they* referring to *bad politicians*. Moreover, the placement of *I*
think is a weak way of making a conclusion. Both Theme 9 (these people) and Theme 10 (They) keep the continuity of "bad politicians" and form a linear thematic progression pattern with the previous sentences in this paragraph.

11/ So I think politics is important, though there are some bad politicians exist.

Paragraph 3 has only one sentence as the conclusion of the whole text. So, the textual Theme signals that "given all the facts above, I think...". The main clause (the first half of S11) reorientates the reader by repeating the proposed macro-theme, followed by the emphasis on the existence of bad politicians.

It is hard to see how the writer draws such a conclusion from the evidence he/she has presented. The ideological message is about the politicians (both good and bad) in history which is also used as the development line. It does not inform the reader whether politics is important or unimportant to a Chinese citizen.

Compared with other Chinese EFL texts on the "politics" title, this text was written from a different angle: It talks about "politicians". One possible explanation about the angle is that for generations, many Chinese people believe that politics should be the business of politicians. It has nothing to do with civilians. Instead, they should obey whoever is in power. They would be lucky if a good politician presides over the nation. This student writer probably is one of those who have this belief.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text P5 are diagrammed in Figure 5.15.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text P5

As illustrated in Figure 5.15, one significant feature in this text is the overuse of constant thematic progression patterns, that is, all sentences depart from the same standpoint followed by the New in each Rheme respectively. There is not much interaction between Given and New. As a result, this may exhaust the choice of the Rheme. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is
an unsuccessful text.

Example 3: Text P9

1/ Politics is of great importance.
2/ First, if there is not politics, there will not be democracy either. 3/ Everyone does what he likes, 4/ and the society will be in disorder.
5/ Second, to study politics can help us know a lot about how to be a true man in the society. 6/ From politics we’ll know we should convince that socialist will overcome finally. 7/ With this wonderful idea we can make sure of our aims to build our country and contribute ourselves to the modernisations.
8/ So everyone of us should pay attention to politics, and do as what we learn.

Text P9 consists of eight t-units and has three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–7); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentence 8). It was regarded as an unsuccessful text by the informants. The disadvantage in this text lies in the evidence stage: The first source of evidence intends to involve the relationship between 'polities' and 'democracy'. However, the writer did not clarify this view-point. The informants felt it difficult to make sense of the argument of the text. In the second source of evidence, the writer changed the topic focus from "politics" to "study politics", which is not expected from the topic title, thus confusing the informants further.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Politics is of great importance.

The first paragraph (S1) orients the reader simply by giving a positive answer to the title question with the text topic politics as the Theme. S1 is the macro-theme in this text.

Each of Paragraphs 2–3 (i.e. Ss2–7) gives a particular source of evidence to support the macro-theme. The two evidence parts are linked to each other by using the sequence conjunctives First and Secondly.

2/ First, if there is not politics, there will not be democracy either.
3/ Everyone does what he likes,
4/ and the society will be in disorder.

Paragraph 2 contains Ss2–4. S2 starts with the textual Theme First, followed by a marked topical theme which is realised by a conditional clause if there is not politics (Grammatically this structure should be an unreal conditional). Here, the text topic, "politics", remains the focus in S2. Nevertheless, unlike Theme 1 which takes "politics" as a participant, Theme 2 places this item in a conditional clause (which is also in an existential sentence), thus making it more prominent. S2, by using a marked Theme, sets up a presumed situation for the following Rheme to respond to. Rheme 2 also uses an existential clause and introduces a new notion, democracy. In Ss3–4, the writer intended to clarify the abstract notion of "democracy". As far as the structure of Ss3–4 is concerned, each of them is realised in an independent clause, with an additional conjunctive and to link them. In fact, as far as the relationship between S3 and S4 is concerned, S3 provides a condition for S4, which in turn is supposed to give the consequence. In this case, the use of and to connect the two sentences is not appropriate. The lack of an explicit conditional conjunction here makes the two sentences illogical, thus confusing the reader. However, this kind of expression (i.e. omitting subordinate connectives in a clause complex) is common in Chinese language since it more depends on the sequence than grammatical devices. It is likely that the use of this structure is affected by the Chinese language transfer.

Regarding Ss3–4, it is recommended that the two combined together make a conditional sentence as such: "Suppose (if) everyone did whatever he/she likes, the society would be in disorder".

In China, due to the fact that the Communist propaganda about 'democracy' in western society is often biased, many people have the impression that 'democracy' means one has freedom to do and say anything he/she likes without consideration of other people. Ss3–4 express this concept. In fact, both sentences suggest that the writer is associating 'democracy' with 'anarchy'. S4 starts with a textual Theme and, signalling to give an additional meaning to S3. The whole of S4 functions as the consequence of S3.
5/ **Second, to study politics** can help us know a lot about how to be a true man in the society.

6/ **From politics** we'll know we should convince that socialist will overcome finally.

7/ **With this wonderful idea** we can make sure of our aims to build our country and contribute ourselves to the modernisations.

Ss5–7 constitute Paragraph 3. The textual Theme in S5 **Secondly** signals that the evidence stage continues, whereas the topical Theme **study politics** is the New to the reader. It is a term frequently used in Chinese situations, referring to the activities which involve being well-informed about current affairs domestically and globally as well as the updated Communist Party's policies. These activities generally include reading newspapers editorials, listening to the news and attending the political study workshops. The Communist government expects that a citizen should care for "politics", which actually means "in support of the government rather than being critical". Basically, this kind of "caring for politics" is different from the western approach to the same issue. To westerners, this means to what degree the citizen's involvement will influence the government in making policies. In China, political studies are offered by all schools and are regarded as an important part of moral education; therefore, these activities are compulsory. For this reason, to evaluate a student's performance at school is not only to check his/her academic achievement but also to see if he/she Participates attentively in the political studies. This philosophy is based on Mao's doctrine: a student should progress in a balanced way, both academically and morally. With reference to this text, the writer did emphasise the importance of 'studying politics'.

To return then to S5 in Paragraph 3, in Rheme 5, **how to be a true man in the society** means "how to behave oneself properly in society". **Politics** in Theme 6 still refers to "to study politics", maintaining the same topic as Theme 5. Hence, Themes 5–6 are in a constant thematic pattern. Rheme 6 introduces a new concept — the communist ideology, **socialist will overcome**, which does not seem to fit with the expectation of the topic. Nevertheless, Theme 7 takes up Rheme 6, forming a linear
thematic pattern with Rheme 6. Rheme 7 (mapping with the New) also hardly associates with the topic, like the New in Rheme 6. In fact, the content in both Rhemes 6 and 7 expresses what the student was taught in the political studies: Socialism will replace capitalism eventually and one of the goals in a socialist country is to build it into a modernised society. In addition, moral education in Chinese institutions always emphasises that a student should bear the responsibilities of the nation and make one's own contribution in the future. In this sense, Rheme 7 associates with Rheme 6.

8/ So **everyone of us** should pay attention to politics, and do as what we learn.

S8 (Paragraph 4) provides a conclusion. The textual Theme *So* signals the connection with what has gone before in the text, meaning "based on what has been said". The topical Theme *everyone of us* as the departure shows the topic is involved with what we do. The Rheme, by using *should*, implies that the information would be a strong demand. *Pay attention to politics* in fact means "care for politics". *Do as we learn* means "do as we are taught". Undoubtedly, the last sentence, as a conclusion of the whole text, expresses the writer's attitude towards politics — As a Chinese citizen, he/she should help keep the harmony of society and do as the government expects.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text P9 are diagrammed in Figure 5.16.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text P9

In Figure 5.16, there are few arrows in the first evidence stage, which indicates that there are not many connections between sentences within this stage. With regard to the second evidence stage, although there are some connections between the sentences, the choice of Themes and Rhemes (such as To study politics and socialists) is not relevant to the text context. Therefore, the evidence does not effectively contribute to the text development. This Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.
5.3.2.4 Interpretive summary of the texts on "As a Chinese/Australian citizen, do you think politics important?"

Unlike the preceding topic, "Knowledge is the most valuable" (a declarative sentence type which requires some supportive evidence to contribute to the statement), the "politics" topic is in interrogative form which expects a polarity judgement as well as argumentation. According to the two informants, more ideas were found in this group of texts and some writers even attempted to present arguments. However, poor expression is still a significant problem. In particular, wrong lexical choices (some very comic) and poor grammar often tended to distract the informants from perceiving the message.

Writing on this topic, the Australian students tended to focus on one specific aspect of the abstract notion of "politics". For example, Text AP1 concentrates on the effect of "politics" on everyday life; Text AP7 on the importance of "democratic politics" in comparison with "dictator politics". Text AP4 (in Appendix I) gives a definition of "politics" so as to limit the boundary of this broad issue to be discussed. As for Text AP9, it describes "politics" on different levels and how each level serves its specific purposes. All these terms are chosen as either Themes or Rhemes in the Australian students' texts.

By contrast, most Chinese EFL students talked about "politics" broadly and tried to involve different aspects that concern "politics". As a consequence, texts are out of focus and no aspect is clearly elaborated. The two successful texts (Text P7 and Text P10) appear similar to those of the native speakers, in that Text P7 contrasts the situation in the "past" with that of the "present" in China, while Text 10 contrasts "economy" with "politics". Both texts narrow down the broad issue and focus on one specific aspect of politics like their Australian counterparts.

One Australian student's text (Text AP8 in Appendix I), like one of Chinese texts (Text P5, an unsuccessful text), also organises the information on "politicians".
However, Text P5 only states the fact that there are good and bad politicians in history. There is no mention of how these politicians affect society. Unlike Text P5, Text AP8 (the Australian text) makes the point that the laws are always made by politicians who know nothing about politics while the majority are indifferent to politics. Text AP8 is thus more effective in relation to the topic than Text P5.

With regard to the generic stages in the successful Australian texts, the evidence supports the thesis (the macro-theme), and the conclusion is effective in that it usually summarises the evidence stage. Within each stage, the choice of Theme/Rheme is also relevant to the text expectation. There are fewer interruptions in terms of the interaction between Given and New.

The two successful EFL texts (Text P7 and Text P10) bear similarity with the successful Australian texts in relation to meeting the requirements of each generic stage. Both the texts were reader-responsible as they both provide an introductory stage to orient the reader to the specific situation of China. The 'evidence' stage contributes to the macro-theme (i.e. thesis) by concentrating on the particular context in China. As far as the conclusion is concerned, both Text P7 and Text P10 relate back to the introductory paragraph and also push forward in the light of reorientation. Most of the Themes are related to the topic and relevant to that specific generic stage. To summarise, all information structures are organised effectively in each generic stage.

In the unsuccessful EFL texts, however, one common feature is that the macro-theme is placed at the beginning which is the direct answer to the topic question. There is no orienting element for the macro-theme except Text P1 and Text P2 (in Appendix II). Nevertheless, the orienting element in Text P1 is not effective (As you know, we are Chinese) in that it does not provide any new information in this sentence. For all the unsuccessful texts, the main problem lies in the evidence stage in that the evidence employed is either not clearly elaborated or is not relevant to the macro-theme. In the former case such as in Text P1 and Text P2, most of the sentences in this stage were arranged like a list of New, each requiring clarification.
However, the texts do not fulfil this requirement. In the latter case as in Text P5 and Text P9, the fact that the evidence is not appropriately chosen makes the macro-theme unsupported. With regard to the conclusion, although all the unsuccessful writers use the textual Theme So in an attempt to indicate a cause-effect relationship between the evidence and the conclusion, and all the concluding stages restate the macro-theme, the fact that the evidence is not well-organised does not convince the reader of the conclusion.

In terms of Themes employed in the unsuccessful texts, although Themes in Text P1 and Text P2 (in Appendix II) apparently have links with the "politics" topic (that is, country, China/Chinese and politics), their interactions with Rhemes do not make dynamic texts as they are supposed to. Take Text P2 for example, politics as Theme goes through the whole text. However, given that the Rhemes always provide New, there is not much connection between Given and New. The problem in Text P5 is the thematisation of politicians. Despite the fact that the writer may consider "politics" as an issue which only concerns "politicians", and the text does not involve other concepts such as "Chinese citizens" and "politics", both are expected in the topic title. In the case of Text P9, the text confuses the reader by thematising politics and study politics without clarifying the cultural implications in the Chinese context.

5.3.3 "Reading does not help much"

As introduced in Chapter 4, there is no Australian text as a reference in analysing the Chinese texts on this title because no Australian students chose to write on this topic. Also mentioned in Chapter 4, only six sample texts were collected on this topic. ("R" refers to this title in the analysis.) Compared with the texts on other topics, the informants were convinced that texts on this title were generally better written with the exception of Text R2 and Text R4 which were graded as "unsuccessful". In this section, the analysis of two successful texts (Text R3 and
Text R5) and one unsuccessful text (Text R4) are presented. The analyses of Text R1 and Text R6 are found in Appendix II.

5.3.3.1 Successful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text R3

1/ Nobody can say that reading does not help much. 2/ People who cannot read have very little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world. 3/ This knowledge has accumulated over the centuries largely thanks to the ability of humans to write, and then to read the information. 4/ The knowledge we can gain from reading can be in any area or subject known to humanity. 5/ It can be "pure" science or abstract, theoretical knowledge, 6/ or it can be a much more practical day-to-day knowledge like a recipe or what time the next bus to town leaves. 7/ People can also gain much knowledge about emotions and how to "get along" with their fellows. 8/ Much of this sort of understanding of how other people experience the world can be gained from the reading of literature. 9/ By reading literature people can experience situations and emotions at second hand. 10/ That is, they can feel the sadness of families separated by war even if they have never experienced this themselves. 11/ As well as this ability to experience things of course much factual knowledge, such as job to build a house, or a bomb, can be gained from reading. 12/ So it cannot be said that reading does not help much.

Text R3 is a one-passage text containing 12 t-units. It consists of three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–11); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentence 12). This text was regarded as successful by the informants because it elaborates on why reading is helpful in three respects: (1) gaining "science and practical" knowledge; (2) gaining "emotional" knowledge and (3) gaining "factual" knowledge. All the evidence supports the thesis.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **Nobody** can say that reading does not help much.

2/ **People who cannot read** have very little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world.

3/ **This knowledge** has accumulated over the centuries largely thanks to the ability of humans to write, and then to read the information.

Ss 1–3 function as an orienting stage in this text. S1 is the macro-theme in which the writer expresses the opposite point of the view from the title. Theme 1 *Nobody* sets up the departure of this text followed by the Rheme which repeats the
title. That is, S1 is a 'double-negative structure' (for an emphatic purpose) which expresses the meaning more effectively than just saying "Reading helps much". "Reading" as the text topic appears in Rheme 1. The use of a relative clause in Theme 2, People who cannot read, links "people" (Theme 1) and "read" (Rheme 1) together, thus making the information denser. Rheme 2 introduces the New the vast store of knowledge in the world which foreshadows the information that follows, that is, to elaborate on the vast store of knowledge. In S3, This knowledge in Theme 3 picks up the vast store of knowledge in the world of Rheme 2. Therefore, Rheme 2 and Theme 3 are in a linear thematic progression pattern, forming the relationship of co-reference. (Theme 3 knowledge repeats the same lexeme in Rheme 2, and This in Theme 3 also refers anaphorically to the vast store of knowledge in Rheme 2). The New in Rheme 3 shows the connection between "knowledge" and "reading" — the knowledge has accumulated because of the writing and reading abilities human beings have. Therefore, S3 fulfils the expectation of Rheme 2, explaining where vast store of knowledge comes from. Read in Rheme 3 is related to the same item in Theme 2, forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

4/ The knowledge we can gain from reading can be in any area or subject known to humanity.

5/ It can be "pure" science or abstract, theoretical knowledge,

6/ or it can be a much more practical day-to-day knowledge like a recorder to tell what time the next train to tour leaves.

Theme 4, The knowledge we can gain from reading, also thematises knowledge, and adds some new elements we can gain from reading as the modification of the headword knowledge. In fact, Theme 4 summarises the whole of S3. The New in Rheme 4, can be in any area or subject known to humanity, identifies what sort of knowledge can be obtained from reading and foreshadows further detail. Therefore, S4 is the hyper-theme. The employment of S4 is effective in the sense that it reaches back to S2, People have very little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world, as well as promising the information that follows (that is,
to exemplify different kinds of knowledge). Both Theme 5 and Theme 6 keep the continuity of using "knowledge" (Both it refer anaphorically to knowledge in Theme 4). Themes 4–6 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. Both Rheme 5 and Rheme 6 elaborate on Rheme 4 by giving more specific descriptions of knowledge.

7/ People can also gain much knowledge about emotions and how to "get along" with their fellows.

8/ Much of this sort of understanding of how other people experience the world can be gained from the reading of literature.

9/ By reading literature, people can experience situations and emotions at second hand.

10/ That is, they can feel the sadness of families separated by war even if they have never experienced this themselves.

11/ As well as this ability to experience things, of course much factual knowledge, such as job to build a house, or a bomb, can be gained from reading.

12/ So it cannot be said that reading does not help much.

From S7, People can also gain much knowledge about emotions and how to "get along" with other fellows, the topic shifts from gaining "scientific and day-to-day practical knowledge" to gaining knowledge about "emotional experience". This shift is signalled by thematising people in Theme 7, thus breaking the continuity of using "knowledge" as the topic (which has run from Theme 3 to Theme 6). People in Theme 7 becomes the departure for the following sentences. The New in Rheme 7 suggests that from reading people also acquire knowledge about emotions and how to get along with others. S7 is the second hyper-theme in this text.

Theme 8 (Much of this sort of understanding of how other people experience the world) takes up Rheme 7, forming a relationship of co-similarity. Hence, Rheme 7 and Theme 8 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Theme 8, by using a nominalisation to summarise the information of Rheme 7 instead of repeating it, is packed with more information. This in Theme 8 refers anaphorically to Rheme 7. The New in Rheme 8 (can be gained from the reading of literature) talks about how people can get all this knowledge. Theme 9 (By reading literature), in turn, follows
Rheme 8 forming the relationship of co-reference (in a linear thematic pattern). This marked Theme (a circumstance of manner) sets up a framework for the interpretation of the following Rheme. Following Theme 9, Rheme 9 expresses what people expect to get from reading the literature — experiencing other people's emotion indirectly, that is, at second hand. In S10, the textual Theme That is signals an elaboration on the expression at second hand. The topical Theme they refers back to Rheme 9, forming a linear progression pattern. Theme 11 uses a nominalisation to summarise Rheme 10. The textual Theme as well as signals that the following Rheme will give some new information. Rheme 11 fulfils this commitment by introducing and exemplifying factual knowledge. Ss9–11 are connected with one another by a linear progression pattern. S12 (So it cannot be said that reading does not help much) is the conclusion to the whole text. The textual Theme So signals "given all these facts mentioned above, now I will say ...". The whole of S12 is merely a repetition of the macro-theme (S1) for emphasis.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text R3 are diagrammed in Figure 5.17.
In summary, the macro-theme in R3 is supported by three hyper-themes (S2, S7 and S11). There are constant connections between sentences throughout the text as displayed in Figure 5.17. The writer commonly employs *knowledge* and *read* as the Themes, which are relevant to this context. Linear thematic progression patterns are frequently used to connect sentences, which indicates that the text progresses through the interaction of Given and New. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the
Example 2: Text R5

1/ It is essential for all people to be able to read. 2/ Not all people will do further study beyond secondary school, 3/ but a knowledge is essential for life.
4/ Day to day living requires reading at work, home, or in recreation. 5/ In the work situation accidents may recur when safety signs are not read and understood. 6/ Therefore, reading is more than an understanding of squiggles on a page while at school. 7/ It is put into practice every day.
8/ At school students do not develop as readers unless they do put their knowledge of reading into practice. 9/ Encouragement, finding readable books, seeing good role novels will assist them. 10/ But sometimes some people do not wish to read more. 11/ They may achieve in life with basic reading skills but without a love for reading and a desire to spend time reading.
12/ Reading is essential, 13/ but it is not necessary to put it into practice through further study once a person is competent.

Text R5 is a four-paragraph text with 13 t-units. There are three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentences 1–3, Paragraph 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 4–11, Paragraphs 2–3, with Paragraph 2 serving as the first evidence and Paragraph 3 as the second one); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentences 12–13, Paragraph 4). The text was considered successful by the informants since the evidence thoroughly supports the thesis by exemplifying the importance of "reading" in daily life.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ It is essential for all people to be able to read.
2/ Not all people will do further study beyond secondary school,
3/ but a knowledge is essential for life.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–3) functions as an orienting stage in the text. It in Theme 1 is an empty word which only occupies the place of Theme, but does not give any semantic meaning. The second element is essential is the real starting point which comments on the following message placed in the Rheme. Thompson (1996) suggests that, in English, this sort of 'thematised comment' is "extremely common in many kinds of discourse" (p. 129). In S1, the topic coincides with the position of
Rheme (for all people to be able to read). S1 is the macro-theme of the text. Theme 2 thematises Not all people as the departure of S2. All people in Theme 2 is the repetition of the same element in Rheme 1, thus forming a linear thematic progression pattern by building up the relationship of co-reference. The New in Rheme 2 introduces further study beyond secondary school. The textual Theme of S3 but signals the occurrence of a contrastive opinion. S3 thematises knowledge which can be anticipated from study in Rheme 2 (the two lexemes are in a relationship of collocation). Therefore, knowledge is the Given in Theme 3. Rheme 3 repeats the lexeme essential which appears in Theme 1, and also adds the New for life. Knowledge in Theme 3 forms a relationship of expectancy with study and school in Rheme 2. Hence, they are in a linear thematic pattern.

4/ Day to day living requires reading at work, home, or in recreation.

5/ In the work situation accidents may recur when safety signs are not read and understood.

6/ Therefore, reading is more than an understanding of squiggles on a page while at school.

7/ It is put into practice every day.

Paragraph 2 (Ss4–7) provides the first source of evidence (talking about the importance of reading from the angle of life) to support the macro-theme. Day-to-day living in Theme 4 as the departure of this paragraph is related to life in Rheme 3. In addition, it sets up the expectation for what follows. Rheme 4, requires reading at work, home, or in recreation, also foreshadows the following sentences and elaborates on the information with respect to "day to day living": at work, home or in creation, each aspect requiring a specific commitment. Some derived thematic progression patterns are therefore anticipated. S5 serves this purpose by exemplifying "at work" with the thematisation of In the work situation. This spatial circumstance sets up a framework for Rheme 5 (the potential consequence of this situation). Theme 5, In the work situation, corresponds to work in Rheme 4, forming a linear thematic pattern. However, after presenting the example of "the
work situation", the writer did not give more examples with reference to the other situations anticipated in Rheme 4. Read in Rheme 5 is related to reading in Rheme 4, forming a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression. Nevertheless, S6 works as a summary of S5 by using the textual Theme Therefore which signals a cause-effect relationship between the previous (S5) and present information (S6). The topical Theme reading of S6 picks up Rheme 5 (by repetition), forming a linear progression pattern. Rheme 6 stresses the importance of reading. Theme 7 maintains the topic of "reading" (It refers anaphorically to reading in Theme 6), forming a constant thematic pattern with Theme 6. The New in Rheme 7 clarifies Rheme 6 (...reading is more than an understanding of squiggles on a page while at school).

8/ At school students do not develop as readers unless they do put their knowledge of reading into practice.

9/ Encouragement, finding readable books, seeing good role novels will assist them.

10/ But sometimes some people do not wish to read more.

11/ They may achieve in life with basic reading skills but without a love for reading and a desire to spend time reading.

Paragraph 3 (Ss8–11) provides the second source of evidence for the macro-theme (from the standpoint of students). This is shown by thematising At school in Theme 8 — the departure of S8 as well as of the whole paragraph. Part of Rheme 8 is semantically related to Rheme 7 (in Paragraph 2) in that both argue that one has to put the knowledge into practice. Rheme 8 mentions a problem encountered by students with regard to reading. Theme 9 gives a solution. Theme 9 conflates with New rather than Given. So far in Paragraph 3, the main focus is on "students" and "school". Them in Rheme 9 refers back to students in Rheme 8. Hence, they form a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. The textual Theme in S10 but signals an adversative situation. S10, thematising some people, states the fact that there are some people who are not fond of reading. Therefore, S10 sets up an expectation for the following information: What would happen to these people? Theme 11 They refers back to some people who do not wish to read more in Rheme 10, forming a
relationship of co-reference. Therefore, Rheme 10 and Theme 9 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 11, by explaining the consequence for those who do not like to read more, argues that reading is also essential even for them.

12/ **Reading** is essential,

13/ *but it is not necessary* to put it into practice through further study once a person is competent.

The fourth paragraph (Ss12–13) is the concluding stage of the text. S12, thematising **Reading** followed by a judgement in Rheme, repeats S3 (part of the macro-theme) for an emphatic purpose. In S13, the textual Theme *but* expresses an adversative meaning: "Despite the fact that reading is essential, ...". S13 thematises a comment *it is not necessary* as the departure. As far as the topic of this sentence is concerned, it conflates with the Rheme, thus making the topic more prominent. *It* in Rheme 13 refers back to **Reading** in Theme 12, the two forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text R5 are displayed in Figure 5.18.
Figure 5.18 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text R5
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text R5

As displayed in Figure 5.18, the whole text is thickly-arrowed. The generic stage is connected with one another. The employment of Themes is closely related to each generic stage. Linear thematic patterns are more frequently used than other patterns, which suggests that the tendency for processing flow of information in the text is through the interaction between the Given and New. Regarding the choice of Themes and Rhemes, it is common to thematise the items such as reading, books, people and some particular situations. These items also appear frequently as Rhemes. The use of these items is appropriate to this context. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

5.3.3.2 An unsuccessful Chinese EFL text

Example 1: Text R4

1/ Reading does not help much if you don't put it into practice.
2/ How many times have you heard "Practice makes perfect"? Probably enough times so you don't have to practice saying it!
3/ Reading, however, as it has so many applications and requires a thorough vocabulary needs to be practiced.
4/ Unfortunately, a lot of people think "practice" means an onerous chore, 5/ but ideally it should just be perfecting and building on what you already know. 6/ If students enjoy reading, then they should look forward to practice. 7/ Such a situation should be one of the major goals of every teacher.

Text R4 is divided into four paragraphs consisting of eight t-units. It has three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1, Paragraph 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–5); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentences 6–7). This text was considered unsuccessful because there is not much development of an argument in it.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Reading does not help much if you don't put it into practice.

2/ How many times have you heard "Practice makes perfect"? Probably enough times so you don't have to practice saying it!

3/ Reading, however, as it has so many applications and requires a thorough vocabulary needs to be practiced.

S1, thematising Reading as the departure is the macro-theme of this text. In S1
(a clause complex), the main clause repeats the title while the subordinate clause
provides a condition for the main clause. The whole of S1 orients the reader thus:
Reading will help a lot on condition that you put it into practice. S2, intending to
elaborate on S1 and highlighting the importance of "practice", is realised in a
rhetorical question. Theme 2 uses a circumstance of extent indicating the frequency,
How many times. In Rheme 2, the word Practice repeats the same lexeme as in
Rheme 1. Hence, Rheme 1 and Rheme 2 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression
pattern. S2 is followed by the answer to the question (Probably enough times so you
don't have to practice saying it). In S3, the topical Theme employs Reading, thus
making it the departure like that of Theme 1. The conjunctive however signals that a
contrastive meaning will follow. In fact, the idea in Rheme 3 still agrees with that of
the previous two sentences, therefore, there is no contrastive message conveyed
here. In this case, the application of however is irrelevant. Following Rheme 1 and
Rheme 2, Rheme 3 also emphasises "practice". Rhemes 1–4 are in a 'Rheme A –
Rheme B' patterns by using practice.

4/ Unfortunately, a lot of people think "practice" means an onerous chore,

5/ but ideally it should just be perfecting and building on what you
already know.

The interpersonal Theme of S4 Unfortunately shows the writer's attitude
towards the following issue (he/she would not agree with this) and predicts a contrast
in the following message with the preceding one. The topical Theme, a lot of people,
shifts the topic Reading in S3. Rheme 4 still keeps a focus on "practice", which runs
on from Rhemes 1–4. Rheme 4 is also in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression
pattern with the previous Rhemes. So far Themes vary frequently. In S5, the textual
Theme but, signals an adversative meaning, while the interpersonal Theme ideally
shows the attitude of the writer. The topical Theme it refers anaphorically to practice
in Rheme 4. Hence, Rheme 4 and Theme 5 are in a linear thematic progression
pattern. Ss4–5 express other people's assumptions about 'practice'.

6/ **If students enjoy reading**, then they should look forward to practice.

7/ **Such a situation** should be one of the major goals of every teacher.

S6 shifts the reader's attention from *practice* to *students*, and thematises a conditional circumstance (a marked Theme) which sets up a context of "schools" for Rheme 6 to accomplish. The use of a conditional clause *If students enjoy reading* in Theme 6 is unexpected since there has been no mention of "students" so far in this text. It requires an orienting element to prepare the reader for this shift. The Rheme of S6 still keeps the topic of "practice". *Such a situation* in Theme 7 (a topic of S7) encapsulates the whole of S6, followed by a judgement (a comment) in Theme 7.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text R4 are displayed in Figure 5.19.

![Diagram of Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text R4](image)

**Figure 5.19** Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text R4
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text R4

In Figure 5.19, 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns are more frequently used than other patterns, which are realised by repeating practice. In this case, there is not much New information in Rhemes. As fas as Themes are concerned, Themes change frequently and cannot be predicted. For this reason, the progression of this text does not proceed though the interaction between Theme and Rheme. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.

5.3.3.3 Interpretive summary of the texts on "Reading does not help much"

The successful texts, Text R3, Text R5 and Text R6 (in Appendix II) start by reiterating the title: Text R3 and Text R5 place the macro-theme at the beginning; Text R6 starts with a paragraph to highlight the title, followed by the writer's disagreement with the macro-theme at the beginning of the evidence paragraph. Unlike these three texts, Text R1 (in Appendix II) starts by describing the advantages of reading. In terms of Themes, all these four texts thematise reading at the beginning stage.

The evidence stage in each of these texts supports the macro-theme. For example, the evidence in Text R3 focuses on "the access to different kinds of knowledge by reading"; the evidence in Text R5 emphasises that different situations require reading; the evidence in R6, in contrast with the point that "reading can only have the practical purpose", exemplifies other purposes of reading. The evidence in Text R1 explains why reading is not always helpful. In this stage, it is common that the following items were used as Themes: reading, knowledge and people. In addition, each text thematises other items in relation to the content. For example, Text R5 exemplifies the importance of reading in daily life. Therefore, Themes are realised in day to day living (Theme 4) and the spatial circumstance in the work situation. Regarding the concluding stage, since the writers are usually reinforcing the macro-theme (i.e. the topic title), Themes are more likely to be "reading", which
is relevant to this text.

In the unsuccessful text (i.e. Text R4), the text appears to argue about the importance of "practice". However, it does not give much support to this point other than the excessive repetitions of the lexeme "practice". Although the writer employed reading, people (including student) and practice, the items which appear relevant to the text, the use of each Theme is merely locally committed. It does not contribute to the development of the whole text.

5.3.4 "One should study hard"

As introduced in Chapter 4, only one Australian student chose to write on this title (Text AS1). However, this native text was considered unsuccessful. In this case, all successful Chinese texts on this title are better than this Australian text regarding information patterning. For this reason, this Australian text were not used as a reference in analysing Chinese EFL texts on this title.

Twenty Chinese EFL texts were collected. Five were evaluated as successful. In this section, the Theme/Rheme analysis of three successful texts (Text S6, Text S3 and Text S5) and three unsuccessful texts (Text S1, Text S3 and Text S5) are presented. Details of Theme/Rheme analysis of Text S5 and Text S17 are in Appendix II.

5.3.4.1 Successful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text S6

1/ Dear friends, what do you think about the time in our university? Just like the Garden of Eden — no pressure, no hard work? 2/ You see, it may seem reasonable on the surface, 3/ but actually what we should do is — make good use of our college time.

4/ Firstly, today we are living in the end of the twentieth century. 5/ Time lost will never return. 6/ We should devote our college time and energy to our studies so that we may be able to serve our country.

7/ Secondly, all of us wish for a bright future after graduation. 8/ Accomplish this idea means hard work everyday. 9/ It may be dull and boring, 10/ but at the same time it prepare us to compete in the society after graduation, as an old saying tell us: no pains, no gains.

11/ Thirdly, these four years is the best age in life. 12/ Each age has its pleasures and pains. 13/ The happiest person is the one who enjoys what each age gives him without wasting his time in useless regrets. 14/
Make good use of our college time, because we have the most healthy bodies in our life. Since time is invisible, four years may be very short if you neglect it. Those who persist in idleness will never fulfil their ambitions.

In conclusion, we should try our best to make good use of these four years. Why do people prefer a telephone than a letter now? Why does chuang zhen (fax) appear? Why does our country summon us walk more quickly? The answer is very simple: time is precious.

Time slip by quickly and never return. Dear friends, if we do well to grasp our life in the Garden of Eden, fate will smile on us.

Text S6 consists of six paragraphs with 24 t-units. It has three generic stages: (1) 'thesis'; (2) 'evidence'; and (3) 'conclusion'. This text was considered successful by the two informants because the evidence effectively supports the thesis.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Dear friends, what do you think about the time in our university? Just like the Garden of Eden — no pressure, no hard work?

2/ You see, it may seem reasonable on the surface,

3/ but actually what we should do is make good use of our college time.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–3) is an orienting paragraph. The interpersonal Theme (vocative) Dear friends in S1 shows that the writer tried to reduce the distance between him/herself and the reader. The employment of this personal address, Dear friends, is affected by the Chinese language because in Chinese expository writing, using personal addresses is generally regarded as an effective persuasive. However, in English expository texts, such uses of personal addresses is not common. Following the 'empty' topical Theme what, Rheme 1 introduces his/her university, signalling that the text will be written from an angle of students. And the writer tried to be even more specific on the question by giving a presumed answer which is realised in an elliptical polar question (Just like the Garden of Eden — No pressure, no hard work?).

S2 also starts with an interpersonal Theme, You see, in an attempt to engage the reader. The topical Theme uses a reference it which refers back to the Garden of Eden in Rheme 1. Hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Taking Theme 2 it as the topic, Rheme 2 gives a comment. The modal operator in Rheme 2 may indicates a sense of possibility, thus making the speech
more open to negotiation. S3 employs a multiple Theme: The conjunctive *but* as the textual Theme signals an adversative meaning. Following the interpersonal Theme *actually* which functions as a focus element, the topical Theme employs a 'thematic equative' *what we should do*. According to Halliday (1985a; 1994), in this type of structure, the relationship between Theme and Rheme is that of 'Theme A = Rheme A' (1994: 40) in which Theme A is structured as a nominalisation. One advantage of using nominalisation is to package more information into the structure so as to increase the lexical density. By using the model operator *should*, Theme 3 expresses an obligation. Rheme 3 answers the question raised in S1 by stating what students are supposed to do at universities — *make good use of our college time*. In this case, S3 acts as the macro-theme of this text.

4/ *Firstly, today* we are living in the end of the twentieth century.

5/ *Time lost* will never return.

6/ *We* should devote our college time and energy to our studies so that we may be able to serve our country.

Paragraph 2 (Ss4–6) supports the macro-theme. Following the textual Theme *Firstly* which indicates the sequence of evidence, the topical Theme of S4 is a temporal circumstance *today*, establishing a time frame for the Rheme to follow. Rheme 4 is realised in the New — marking the time of the century we are living in. In S5, the topical Theme *Time lost* is related to Rheme 4 *the end of the twentieth century*, forming a relationship of meronymy. Rheme 4 and Theme 5 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Taking *Time lost* in Theme 5 as the topic, Rheme 5 gives the comment *will never return*. In Rheme 6, the modal operator *should* shows an obligation. Rheme 6 talks about "*what we are supposed to do*". *College time* in Rheme 6 is related to Theme 5 *Time*. The two are in the relationship of hyponymy; hence, the thematic progression pattern is that of 'Theme 5 — Rheme 6'. Although this paragraph does not use a specific sentence to express the hyper-theme — that is, the derived Theme of the macro-theme — the intended hyper-theme is that 'time in university studies is precious and students should not waste it'.
7/ Secondly, all of us wish for a bright future after graduation.

8/ Accomplish this idea means hard work everyday.

9/ It may be dull and boring,

10/ but at the same time it prepare us to compete in the society after graduate as an old saying tell us: no pains, no gains.

Paragraph 3 (Ss7–10) sustains the macro-theme, signalled by the textual Theme Secondly. S7, taking all of us as the departure, expresses what students expect in the future. Theme 8 is realised in a combination of Given (derived from Rheme 7) and of New (foregrounding an intended gerund Accomplishing). This idea in Theme 8 picks up on Rheme 7 by summarising its information, with the reference item this linking back to Rheme 7. Hence, Rheme 7 and Theme 8 are in a linear progression pattern. Following Theme 8 as the departure, Rheme 8 is realised in the New — how students can reach the goal (means hard work every day). Obviously, the information in Rheme 8 is too general and broad, and needs elaboration. Ss9–10 bridge this gap. Theme 9 It refers back to Rheme 8 hard work followed by the comment on it (may be dull and boring); thus the two elements form a linear thematic progression pattern. In S10, two textual Themes but and at the same time signal a contrastive relationship with S9. The topical Theme it maintains the continuity of the topic from Theme 9. Therefore, Themes 9 and 10 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. In Rheme 10, the writer mentioned the benefit that students will get from hard work in the future followed by an old saying as the conclusion to this paragraph (no pains, no gains). As far as the hyper-theme in this paragraph is concerned, although there is no explicit sentence which serves this purpose, yet it can be inferred that the intended hyper-theme is about the significance of studying hard from the standpoint of having a better future, that is, to be more competitive in society.

11/ Thirdly, these four years is the best age in life.

12/ Each age has its pleasures and pains.

13/ The happiest person is the one who enjoy what each age gives him without wasting his time in useless regrets.
14/ **Make good use of** our college time, because we have the most healthy bodies in our life.

15/ **Since time is invisible**, four years may be very short if you neglect it.

16/ **Those who persist in idleness** will never fulfil their ambitions.

Paragraph 4 (Ss11–16) gives the third piece of evidence to support the macro-theme, as signalled by the textual Theme *Thirdly*. In S11, the topical Theme *these four years* referring back to S1 in Paragraph 1 *the time in our universities* as the departure of this sentence as well as of the whole paragraph, reinforces the preciousness of time. Rheme 11 as the comment to Theme 11 points to the significance of school age. Theme 12 *Each age* is related to the topical Theme of S11 in that *age* is the synonym of *year*. Because of this, Theme 11 and Theme 12 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. Rheme 12 explains the nature of "each year/age" as having *its pleasures and pains*. The lexeme *happiest* in Theme 13 (*The happiest person*) is associated with *pleasure* in Rheme 12 in a relationship of synonymy, hence, Rheme 12 and Theme 13 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 13 involves a complex relative clause (*is the one who enjoys what each age gives him without wasting his time in useless regrets*). Halliday (1985; 1994) categorises this type of relative clause in Rheme as 'marked thematic equative' (1994: 41) which normally functions as the identifier. Rheme 13, by using a marked thematic equative defines what makes a happiest person with the repetition of *each age* in Theme 12. In so doing, Ss12–13 are related by the link between Theme 12 and Rheme 13, forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

S14, thematising an imperative structure *Make good use of our college time* in Rheme 14, (a Given because it refers back to Theme 11) appears to be the hyper-theme of this paragraph. In fact, The notion of "college time" is also featured in Theme 12 *Each age* and Rheme 13 *each age*. Rheme 14 conlates with New — a causal clause giving the reason why students should "make good use of time". Theme 15, placing the Given in a cause, sets up a context for the following Rheme;
hence, the Given functions as a summary to the previous information as well as a bridge to the New. Starting from Rheme 15, the text shifts to a contrastive message: If students do not cherish the time at the college, what will be the consequence? S16, thematising *Those who persist in idleness*, makes a contrastive meaning with S13.

17/ *In conclusion*, we should try our best to make good use of these four years.

18/ *Why* do people prefer a telephone than a letter now?

19/ *Why* does *change gen* (fax) appear?

20/ *Why* does our country summon us walk more quickly?

21/ The *answer* is very simple: time is precious.

In S17, the textual Theme *In conclusion* signals the concluding paragraph of the text. Taking *we* as the departure, Rheme 17, employing a modal operator *should* and repeating the main clause of S14 (*make good use of our college time*) mentioned in Paragraph 4, is a compulsory obligation to students. However, the rhetorical questions of S18–21 is disruptive with the thematisation of *Why*. These three questions do not relate to the flow of the information at the global level, thus breaking the information flow of the text.

22/ *Time* slip by quickly

23/ *and* never return.

24/ Dear friends, *if we do well to grasp our life in the Garden of Eden*, fate will smile on us.

Paragraph 6 is also part of the conclusion. *Time*, used as the departure of S22 and S23 as well as the whole paragraph, maintains the information continuity of the text. In fact, Ss22–23 summarises the focus of the text. However, in S24, the use of the interpersonal Theme *Dear friends* (a vocative), like that of S1, is normally not appropriate in English expository genres. The topical Theme in S24, using a conditional circumstance *if we do well to grasp our life in the Garden of Eden*, sets up a context for Rheme 24. Rheme 24 *fate will smile on us* is the consequence to the context. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S6 are diagrammed in Figure 5.20.
(dear friends)

\textsc{Pa 1}

\begin{itemize}
\item T1 \rightarrow R1 (time in our university)
\item T2 \rightarrow R2 (on the surface)
\item T3 (actually) \rightarrow R3 (Macro-theme) \quad \text{Thesis}
\end{itemize}

\textsc{Pa 2}

\begin{itemize}
\item T4 (today) \rightarrow R4 (end of the 20th century)
\item T5 (time) \rightarrow R5 \\
\item T6 \rightarrow R6 \quad \text{hyper-theme 1}
\item \quad \text{(evidence 1)}
\end{itemize}

\textsc{Pa 3}

\begin{itemize}
\item T7 \rightarrow R7 (future)
\item T8 \rightarrow R8 \quad \text{hyper-theme 2}
\item T9 \rightarrow R9 \quad \text{(evidence 2)}
\item T10 \rightarrow R10
\end{itemize}

\textsc{Pa 4}

\begin{itemize}
\item T11 \rightarrow R11
\item T12 \rightarrow R12
\item T13 \rightarrow R13 \quad \text{hyper-theme 3}
\item T14 \rightarrow R14
\item T15 \rightarrow R15 (four years)
\item T16 \rightarrow R16
\end{itemize}

\textsc{Pa 5}

\begin{itemize}
\item T17 \rightarrow R17 (these four years)
\item \quad \text{(Ss18, 19, 20 are not related to any sentences)}
\item T21 \rightarrow R21 (time)  \\
\item \quad \text{(answer)}
\end{itemize}

\textsc{Pa 6}

\begin{itemize}
\item T22 \rightarrow R22
\item T23 (time) \rightarrow R23
\item T24 (dear friends) \rightarrow R24 \quad \text{Conclusion}
\end{itemize}

Figure 5.20 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S6
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text S6

In Figure 5.20, there are many connections between the generic stages. Since the text takes "time" as the development line, it is common for the writer to thematise the items which involve 'time' within the evidence stages to elaborate specific hyper-themes. One disadvantage lies in Sentences 18–21: These sentences are not related to any other generic stages. That is to say, all Themes and Rhemes are realised in New. Another flaw about this text is that the use of personal addresses (such as Dear friends) as the interpersonal Theme to address the reader does not seem acceptable in an English analytical expository text (see Martin, 1985a). However, according to the informants, they categorised this text as a successful one because the evidence stage sufficiently supports the thesis. On this account, the weaknesses would be ignored.

Example 2: Text S12

1/ Being a student, we must study hard. 2/ There are several reasons to support my opinion. 3/ As we know, knowledge is most important thing in our lives. 4/ With knowledge, we can get good jobs and live better. 5/ Moreover, only by grasping knowledge can we do more things for the society. 6/ And we all know that to get knowledge, we must study hard. 7/ It is dangerous for someone not to study hard, because time can never go back, 8/ and time is most valuable thing. 9/ If we don't study hard today, we must regret in the future. 10/ To sum up, we must study hard for ourself and for the society.

S12 is a four-paragraph text with 10 t-units. It has three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–9); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentence 10). The text was considered successful by the informants because the writer elaborated two reasons why people should study hard, that is, gaining knowledge for the benefit of finding a good job and for the benefit of better serving the society. The writer then contrasted with a situation when someone does not study hard.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Being a student, we must study hard.
2/ There are several reasons to support my opinion.

Theme 1, thematising a circumstance of the role Being a student, sets up the
context of the sentence — the issue is to be discussed from the angle of students. Rheme 1, by using we, identifies the occupation of the group of people (including the writer) who are involved in this text. That is, this personal reference refers back to a student. However, we does not match with a student. It is a misuse of the reference "we". Rheme 1, also employing the model operator must which expresses a compulsory obligation, gives a positive answer to the title question. Therefore, S1 is the macro-theme of the text. S2 is an existential structure thematising There are several reasons which foreshadows the following discourse to clarify the reasons.

3/ As we know, knowledge is most important thing in our lives.

4/ With knowledge, we can get good jobs and live better.

5/ Moreover, only by grasping knowledge can we do more things for the society.

6/ And we all know that to get knowledge, we must study hard.

Paragraph 2 (Ss3–6) organises the evidence to support the macro-theme. The textual Theme of S3 As we know signals that the present sentence is realised in a Given information. S3, taking knowledge (a participant as the topical Theme) as the departure followed by an identity of it in the Rheme is most important thing in our lives, is a derived Theme (hyper-theme) from the macro-theme (S1). S4 contributes to the hyper-theme of this paragraph (S3). Theme 4, using a circumstance of accompaniment With knowledge to maintain the same topic as in Theme 3, sets up the situation for Rheme 4. Theme 3 and Theme 4 are in a constant thematic pattern. Rheme 4 maps with the New information which concerns the students' future: If they have acquired much knowledge, they will live a better life.

S5, employing multiple Themes, also contributes to S3, the hyper-theme. The textual Theme Moreover signals an extension of information to S4. The interpersonal Theme only which is used for the purpose of emphasis shows the writer's personal attitude to this issue. The topical Theme by grasping knowledge (a circumstance of manner) continues the topic of "knowledge". Theme 5 is in a constant thematic pattern with Theme 3 and Theme 4. Rheme 5 can we do more things for the society
suggests the significance of having knowledge for the benefits of society. Both Rheme 4 and Rheme 5 elaborate on Rheme 3: The writer structured the information from the point of an individual as well as the social value (Ss4–5).

S6 concludes Paragraph 2. The textual Theme And expresses an additive meaning to the previous information. All the topical Themes in this paragraph thematise "Knowledge" (with the exception of Theme 6) and are in a constant progression pattern. (By using repetition, these Themes form the relationship of co-referentiality.) Rheme 6 is realised by suggesting the action to be taken in order to realise the goal set up in Theme 6 we must study hard. Since Rheme 6 is the repetition of Rheme 1, it is a given information for the purpose of re-enforcement.

7/ It is dangerous for someone not to study hard, because time can never go back,

8/ and time is most valuable thing.

9/ If we don't study hard today, we must regret in the future.

Paragraph 3 (Ss7–9) gives the second evidence to support the macro-theme. S7 as a derived Theme of the macro-theme is the hyper-theme of Paragraph 3. S7 is a predicted structure which thematises a comment It is dangerous followed by the topic for someone not to study hard as part of the Rheme. Study hard in Rheme 7 repeats the same item in Rheme 6, forming a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. In addition, Rheme 7 also includes a causal clause because time can never go back which prospects the following sentences in this paragraph to focus on "time". The textual Theme in S8 and shows an extension of the information to Rheme 7. The topical Theme time in S8 picks up the same lexeme in Rheme 7 and forms a linear thematic progression pattern with Rheme 7. Following time (Theme 8), Rheme 8 identifies its value (is the most valuable thing). Theme 9, using a circumstance of condition, sets up a proposed situation for Rheme 9 If we don't study hard today. Here, today forms a relationship of meronymy with time in Theme 8, therefore, Theme 8 and Theme 9 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. Rheme 9 provides a consequence in reply to the situation established in Theme 9 we must
regret in the future. The model operator must expresses a high-valued certainty.

10/ To sum up, we must study hard for ourself and for the society.

In Paragraph 4 (S10), the conclusion paragraph, the textual Theme To sum up signals a summary to the text which normally functions as a concluding element. Taking we as the departure, Rheme 10 expresses an obligation by using the model operator must.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S12 are displayed in Figure 5.21.

Figure 5.21 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S12

Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text S12

In Figure 5.21, there are strong connections between the generic stages. The link between the adjacent sentence is strong. Sometimes there are both constant
thematic patterns and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' connections at the same time. In this case, there are more interactions between sentences. Apart from constant thematic patterns and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns, another frequently used pattern is 'Theme A – Rheme B'. For the two evidence stages, the choice of Themes and Rhemes is relevant to the specific stage. For example, in the first evidence stage, the development line is the connection between "study" and "life"; both items are used either as Themes or Rhemes. In the second evidence stage, the writer argues for making a good use of time to study, therefore, the "time" items and "study" are both frequently chosen as Themes or Rhemes. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

Example 3: Text S20

1/ An old Chinese idiom states that students can buy a gold house if they study hard. 2/ In fact, this idea is originated from the civil servant examination in the old regime of China. 3/ At that time, the only way to succeed was studying 4/ and gaining the first position in the civil servant examination was the dream of every student. 5/ Nowadays, the world has entered the age of information explosion. 6/ It is quite clear that none of us can study all the materials and knowledge of different disciplines. 7/ However, it is the duty of the teacher to urge students to study hard. 8/ Above all, studying hard is still considered as a good quality for the development of the personality of children.

Text S20 is a two-paragraph text with 8 t-units. This text is structured on the basis of inductive reasoning: The thesis is placed at the final stage. The 'evidence' stage merges with the 'introduction' stage; the concluding stage maps with the thesis. A significant feature which makes this text a successful one is that the writer organised the text development by making a comparison between the "past" and the "present", and elaborated why it is important to study hard. Another advantage in this text is that it is "impersonal" — without employment of we/you/l in Themes, thus making the text less personal. In this case, the informants believed that this text appears to be more mature than most of other EFL analytical texts in this study. This issue will later be discussed in the "summary" of the Theme/Rheme analysis of this
text.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **An old Chinese idiom** states that students can buy a gold house if they study hard.

2/ **In fact, this idea** is originated from the civil servant examination in the old regime of China.

3/ **At that time**, the only way to succeed was studying

4/ **and gaining the first position in the civil servant examination** was the dream of every student.

The use of a Chinese idiom in S1 orients the reader to the fact that in the past, studying hard was highly appreciated. In S2, the textual Theme *In fact* signals a clarification to the previous information. The topical Theme *this idea* encapsulates the whole of Rheme 1, thus making Theme 2 and Rheme 1 in a linear thematic progression pattern. S2, taking *This idea* as the Given, rhematises the New — the source of this idiom, *is originated from the civil servant examination in the old regime of China*. Then, the following information is predicted to fill in the information gap: What is the value of studying hard in the past? Theme 3 *At that time* provides a time frame for Ss3–4 which elaborates on S2. The reference *that* refers back to *the old regime of China* in Rheme 2. Hence, Rheme 2 and Theme 3 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 3 introduces the only way to succeed — "to study hard" which corresponds to Rheme 1 *study hard*. S3 is also the hyper-theme of this paragraph.

In S4, the textual Theme *and* signals an extension of S3; the topical Theme (*gaining the first position in the civil servant examination*) coincides with a combination of New and Given information. In this case, *gaining the first position* is New because it is not mentioned before; *the civil servant examination* is the Given since it was mentioned in Rheme 2. This type of a combination of both Given and New in the Theme may develop the text to a greater extent than just employing the Given in the Theme. Theme 4, by expressing the purpose of "studying" (Rheme 3), is semantically related to Rheme 3, forming the relationship of expectancy, thus
making Rheme 3 and Theme 4 in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 4 is realised in an identifier of Theme 4 — the dream of every student.

5/ Nowadays, the world has entered the age of information explosion.

6/ It is quite clear that none of us can study all the materials and knowledge of different disciplines.

7/ However, it is the duty of the teacher to urge students to study hard.

8/ Above all, studying hard is still considered as a good quality for the development of the personality of children.

Paragraph 2 (Ss5-8) makes a contrast with Paragraph 1 in centreing the reader's attention to the "present time", signalled by Theme 5 — a temporal circumstance Nowadays. This temporal circumstance, functioning as the departure of this present sentence as well as that of the paragraph, sets up a context for the rest of the text. Rheme 5 (New) introduces generally the nature of the contemporary world has entered the age of information explosion, which establishes a framework for this paragraph. Theme 6, employing a predicted 'It-structure', is a comment for Rheme 6 (which is the topic of this sentence). Rheme 6 (New) that none of us can study all the materials and knowledge of different discipline clarifies the characteristic of the age of information explosion in Rheme 5.

In S7, the textual Theme However signals a contrastive meaning with the previous one. Like Theme 6, Theme 7 also uses a predicted It-structure (it is the duty of the teacher) as the comment of the topic (which is placed in the thematic position). The teacher in Theme 7 is associated with study in Rheme 6, forming the relationship of expectancy, thus making Rheme 6 and Theme 7 in a linear thematic progression pattern. Basically Theme 7, like Rheme 7 (the topic of S7) coincides with New information. The following sentences need to elaborate on S7 about why students nowadays have to study hard. However, instead of clarifying S7, S8 concludes the whole text (marked by the textual Theme Above all) with new information. Theme 8 studying hard, repeating the same element in Rheme 7, keeps the consistency of the same topic ("studying hard"), thus making Rheme 7 and
Theme 8 in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 8 is realised in expressing the significance of studying hard in modern society. In contrast with "the past" when it was recognised that studying hard was the only means to success in society, nowadays studying hard is regarded as a good quality for the development of the personality of children.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S20 are diagrammed in Figure 5.22.

Figure 5.22 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S20

Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text S20

In Figure 5.22, there are connections between the generic stages. With reference to the two evidence stages, the principal link between them is the contrast between "the past" and "the present". In this case, both stages thematise some items relating to "time" and frequently thematise items involving "study/study hard". Both Themes and Rhemes seem appropriate for the stages. As far as the Theme/Rheme
progression patterns are concerned, the writer used more linear thematic patterns in which the Theme does not merely repeat the same item of the previous Rheme nor does it only use the anaphoric reference for referring to the previous Rheme. In other words, Themes in these linear patterns are not merely Given. Instead, they tend to add some New in addition to the Given. Consequently, this packaged information in Themes helps develop the text by providing some New information. In addition, the use of this device avoids unnecessary repetitions.

As mentioned earlier, one of the advantages in this text is its 'impersonality', that is, the writer did not use first and second personal pronouns (i.e. "I/we/you"). According to Martin (1985a: 25), English expository texts "are supposed to be rational". Martin argues that "most overt expression of feelings or attitudes in analytical exposition" is not encouraged. In his observation, "writers generally remove themselves entirely from the argument by writing in third person" (p. 25). In relation to Text S20, the fact that none of first and second personal pronouns (i.e. "I/we/you") were used makes it 'impersonal', which is a feature that is encouraged in English expository texts.

This Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

5.3.4.2 Unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text S1

1/ In modern times, it is more competitive for people to obtain an employment. 2/ Therefore, those who have got more education have more chances to be employed. 3/ People must study from childhood. 4/ Until he get into college, he can make a turn. 5/ In college, he need not only study, but also to look for an a vocational job in the society. 6/ On the one hand, he can make some money for himself and need not be afforded by his parents. 7/ One the other hand, he can get some experience in the society. 8/ So one should study hard.

Text S1 is a two-paragraph text with 8 t-units. There are three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 8), (2) 'evidence' (Sentence 1–7); and (3) 'conclusion'
(Sentence 8). The text is in inductive reasoning, therefore, the thesis conflates with the conclusion.

This text was regarded as an unsuccessful one by the informants because the thesis is not supported by the evidence.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ In modern times, it is more competitive for people to obtain an employment.

2/ Therefore, those who have got more education have more chances to be employed.

3/ People must study from childhood.

4/ Until he get into college, he can make a turn.

5/ In college, he need not only study, but also to look for an a vocational job in the society.

6/ On the one hand, he can make some money for himself and need not be afforded by his parents.

7/ On the other hand, he can get some experience in the society.

In S1, following the Theme (a temporal circumstance), Rheme 1 is realised in a predicted 'It-structure' which gives a comment about the employment situation. The textual Theme of S2 (Therefore) signals that the following information will provide the effect for the previous sentence. The topical Theme of S2 (those who have got more education) is related to people in Rheme 1 in a relationship of meronymy. Hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Ss1–2, by talking about the importance of education, function as an orienting element. From S3, the text describes the education cycle that a person will go through. Theme 3 still keeps the topic continuity of "people" and is in a constant thematic progression pattern with Theme 2. Rheme 3 maps with the New (must study from childhood). By using must, S3 expresses a requirement.

Theme 4, using a temporal circumstance Until he get into college, is related to Theme 3 with the reference pronoun he in Theme 4 referring back to People in Theme 3 (They should be used instead). The two Themes are in a constant thematic
progression pattern. The textual Theme *Until* connects Ss3–4 in a chronological sequence. Theme 4 coincides with the New since it introduces the notion of "college" for the first time. Rheme 4, also the New, explains what will happen (*he will make a turn*) in the situation set up in Theme 4. The information given in Rheme 4 expects the following sentences to elaborate on it by providing some different ideas from that of S3. S5 meets this requirement by thematising a spatial circumstance *In college* which keeps the same entity as in Theme 4. Hence, Theme 4 and Theme 5 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. By "college", the writer means "university". This lexical choice is due to the fact that in Chinese translation, the terms "university" and "college" can be interchangeable. Rheme 5 shows what students are expected to do at college. The first part of Rheme 5 is a Given with reference to "study" mentioned earlier in the text, whereas the second part of Theme 5 is a New, introducing the idea of "looking for a job".

Ss6–7 provide an account for why jobs are necessary for university students, elaborate on S5. In S6, the textual Theme (*On the one hand*) signals that the present sentence will give the reason from one perspective. The topical Theme *he* (a misused pronoun), referring to "students", is in continuity with that of Rheme 5. In this sense, Rheme 5 and Theme 6 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 6 argues for the significance of looking for a job from the point of financial benefits. S7, using a textual Theme (*On the other hand*), expresses the sense of "dissimilarity" with S6. The topical Theme of S7 also keeps the same reference *he* as in Theme 6, forming the constant progression pattern. Rheme 7 remarks the significance of having a job from the point of gaining the social experience. It is clear that Ss4–7 are not about whether a person should study hard or not. Instead, they centre on the importance of getting a job after students get into colleges. This information may impress the reader that 'students do not need to study as hard as before after they enter the colleges'.

8/ *So one* should study hard.

In the concluding paragraph (S1), the textual Theme *So* is supposed to connect
the present sentence to the previous discourse, providing the meaning "Given the facts mentioned just now, I would conclude the text as such...". The rest of S8 is the repetition of the title and is the macro-theme of the text. However, the meaning is in contradiction with the evidence provided so far. Since half of the text argues that "studying" is not the only matter that college students have to deal with that they have to do something else (i.e. looking for jobs), it seems what the writer implies is that one should not only study hard at universities. Therefore, it is not possible for the reader to come to the conclusion — *One should study hard*. This text fails to provide appropriate evidence to support the macro-theme (i.e. the thesis).

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S1 are diagrammed in Figure 5.23.

![Diagram of Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S1](image)

**Figure 5.23** Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S1
Summary of Theme/Rheme analysis of Text S1

In Figure 5.23, constant thematic patterns dominate the evidence stage. Since there is no connection between Rhemes in this stage, the overuse of constant thematic patterns suggests all New information in Rhemes comes from the same point of departure, therefore, there is no interaction between Given and New in developing the text. Regarding Themes in this text, the writer frequently employed college, people and he. That is to say, the writer used these items as the main links to connect the sentences through the text. Although college is, to some degree, associated with the topic title (i.e. "One should study hard?") in that college is in collocation with study, this collocation is weak. College is not appropriate to this topic (field). The second flow is inconsistency in using Theme and Rheme. For example, he in Theme 6 is used to refer to people in Rheme 5. As far as Sentence 8 (the 'thesis' and the 'conclusion') is concerned, despite the fact that the Theme of S8, one, keeps at continuity with the Theme 6, he, and Theme 7, he (Themes 6–8 all involve "people"), Rheme 8 is in contradiction with the previous one as analysed. This shows that merely having links in Themes ('constant Theme patterns') does not necessarily make a successful text. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.

Example 2: Text S3

1/ Nowadays, information, technology etc. are advancing in such a high speed that we must study hard to catch up with the step.
2/ Recently, we have so many things to study, 3/ so we must catch every possible chance. 4/ In our country, economics, technologies, etc are not developed 5/ and we have difference from some developed countries. 6/ We have the responsibility to develop our country's economic and technologies. 7/ So we must learn as possible as we can to devote ourselves to our country.
8/ We must studies many aspects. 9/ We cannot focus on only one.
10/ That's my opinion.

Text S3 is a four-paragraph text with ten t-units. There are three generic stages: (1) 'thesis' (Sentence 1); (2) 'evidence' (Sentences 2–7); and (3) 'conclusion' (Sentence 8–10). What makes this text unsuccessful is that it is not well-developed
as an argument: some points are unclear and others are merely repetitious.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **Nowadays**, information, technology etc. are advancing in such a high speed that we must study hard to catch up with the step.

S1 functions as an orienting sentence. Following the temporal framework set up in Theme 1 Nowadays, Rheme 1 provides a general situation regarding the scientific and technological development and the necessity of studying hard. In this sense, S1 provides the macro-theme of the text.

2/ **Recently**, we have so many things to study,

3/ so we must catch every possible chance.

Paragraph 2 (Ss2–7) is supposed to provide the evidence to support the macro-theme. Theme 2 is realised in a temporal circumstance Recently which is the synonym of Theme 1 Nowadays. In English texts, normally a time frame will hold on through the text until a new time is set up (Downing, 1991). In this case, the temporal circumstance of S1 (Theme 1) will keep the rest of the text in the same time frame without the second temporal circumstance (Theme 2), therefore, it is not necessary to place Recently (in Theme 2). Rheme 2 gives a general information we have so many things to study which requires a further elaboration on what "we" are supposed to study. However, S3, using we as the Theme, instead of serving the purpose of elaboration, takes Rheme 2 as the premise and provides the reason (marked by the textual Theme so). In terms of the semantic relationship between Ss2–3, both Rheme 2 and Theme 3 employ we as the participant. In this sense, they are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 3 uses ellipsis with "to study". The assumed (but omitted) completion should be "... every possible chance to study". As far as Rheme 3 is concerned, most of the information is similar to Rheme 1. Therefore, Rheme 3 does not contribute anything New to the development of the text.

4/ **In our country**, economics, technologies, etc are not developed
5/ And we have difference from some developed countries.

6/ We have the responsibility to develop our country's economic and technologies.

7/ So we must learn as possible as we can to devote ourselves to our country.

S4, thematising a spatial circumstance In our country, establishes a context for the following sentences. Rheme 4 is realised in providing the situation in China (economics, technologies, etc are not developed). This information is in contradiction with Rheme 1 (information, technology etc are advancing in high speed ...). Perhaps with Rheme 1, the writer meant to describe the situation in the world which is advancing. In any case, the writer should have specified the context of S1, eliminating the confusion of the interpretation.

In S5, the textual Theme and signals the extension of meaning to S4. Following the topical Theme we which is related to our in our country in Rheme 4 (the two are in a linear thematic progression pattern), Rheme 5 continues the topic of Rheme 4. Countries in Rheme 5 is the repetition of the same lexeme in Theme 4, hence, Ss4–5 are also in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. As for S6, it was treated as the cause of S7. In structure, S6 does not have an explicit logical conjunction (a textual Theme) with the previous sentences, thus making the structure very loose and the information out of focus. A textual Theme would be necessary at the beginning of S6. It would have been more effective to place since/as as the textual Theme of S6 instead of putting So as the textual Theme of S7 in order to signal the cause-effect relationship explicitly between Ss6–7. In addition, it would also connect S6 with the previous sentences. Theme 6 also uses We as the departure followed by a statement about 'the responsibility we should take in order to solve the problem' (that is, to 'develop our country's economy and technology'). S7 repeats the structure of S3 (So we must ...) followed by the obligation (learn as much as we can to devote ourself to our country). In fact, Rheme 6 and Rheme 7 do not provide much new information to the text either.
8/ We must study many aspects.

9/ We cannot focus on only one.

10/ That's my opinion.

Ss8–9 (Paragraph 3) and S10 (Paragraph 4) constitute the concluding stage in
the text. Ss8–9 contribute to the macro-theme by arguing that 'one should be well-
balanced in learning'. Both Themes take We as the departure. Rheme 8 must studies
(study) many aspects needs clarity as to what aspects should be included. Theme 8
and Theme 9 are related to each other because they both thematise we, forming a
linear thematic progression pattern. With reference to Rheme 8 and Rheme 9, many
in Rheme 8 contrasts with one in Rheme 9 and they form a 'Rheme A – Rheme B'
pattern. However, Rheme 9, rather than fill in the information gap for Rheme 8,
only conveys the same message in another way. In this case, both Ss8–9 fail to help
develop the text.

In Theme 10, That refers back to all the arguments mentioned earlier, followed
by the identifier is my opinion as the Rheme. The structure of S10 as part of the
conclusion may be used appropriately in some speech contexts, but is not appropriate
in an expository text.

One weakness about this text is overuse of the model operator must which may
give an impression of 'tone toughness'. This use of must can be traced to the
Chinese expression "bìxū", a modal operator expressing "requirement" or "advice"
which is commonly used in the concluding section of many Chinese expository texts
when some advice is provided (Liu, 1993; Li, 1995). In English-Chinese
dictionaries, the English word must is translated as "bìxū" in Chinese. Therefore, it
appears that the overuse of must in Text S3 is transferred from the Chinese language.
Since the use of 'modal operator' is involved with interpersonal meta-function of
text, it goes beyond the scope of this study.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S3 are displayed in Figure
5.24.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text S3

In Figure 5.24, constant thematic patterns dominate the development of this text, which indicates that each Rheme is realised in New and there is not much interaction between Given and New. As discussed in the summary of Text S1, overuse of constant Thematic patterns will not make a successful text. In addition, the occasional use of 'Rheme A – Rheme B' patterns in this text is not effective since the Rheme merely provides repetitious message from the previous Rheme and the use of this pattern does not effectively contribute to the text development. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.

Figure 5.24 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S3
5.3.4.3 Interpretive summary of the texts on "One should study hard"

In the successful texts (i.e. Text S6, Text S12 and Text S20) on this topic, the writers use some effective strategies to organise the information. For example, in Text 6, the idea that "Time is precious for a college student" is developed from different angles by providing different examples. In Text S12, following the macro-theme, the writer uses There are several reasons to support my opinion to foreshadow the next step in the text. Text S20 is organised by contrasting "the past" with "the present". Another remarkable feature in these successful texts is that most information at the sentence level contributes to the macro-theme (at the text level) and there is not much unnecessary repetitious information.

Nevertheless, the successful texts also have some problems. Take Text S6 for example, the use of the addressing term Dear friends in both beginning and conclusion is inappropriate in an expository text. There is also some misplaced information. However, the successful texts are basically logical in terms of information structure. The writers demonstrate a better mastery of English grammar, idioms and collocation. Theme in each sentence is more likely to commit both to the local sentences and to the macro-theme. The choice of Themes can be predicted from the text topic. For example, Themes of Text S6 are mostly realised time, with the writer emphasised the fact that "Time at college is precious". In Text S12, the writer thematises knowledge, study and time.

By contrast, for the unsuccessful texts such as Text S1, Text S3, Text S5 and Text S17 (both Text S5 and Text S17 are in Appendix II), the writers have not chosen effective strategies to organise the information. For example, in Text S1, the text starts with the relationship between education and employment, and expresses clearly that one should study hard from childhood. Then the focus shifts by mentioning that a college student should also look for a job apart from studying. However, the conclusion reached is not based on the evidence provided. In this case, although Themes are realised in the items involving "study" which are related to the
text topic, they are not relevant to the text development. In Text S17 (in Appendix II), the writer uses a narrative description which does not serve the purpose of the topic — explaining why one should study hard. Since it is a narrative text, it is common that the writer frequently thematises I. Regarding Text S3 and Text S5, the information is repetitive, therefore, there is not much development in the text. Themes in Text S3 are realised in we, thus making each Rheme map with New. There is not much contribution to the text development. In Text S5, despite the fact that some Themes are involved with the topic such as "a student" (Theme 3 and Theme 5) and "knowledge" (Theme 6), the message in Rhemes does not seem to offer appropriate follow-up. Another feature concerning the unsuccessful texts is the poor wording in expression. This issue is greatly concerned with lexical cohesion which will be detailed in Chapter 6.

5.4 Theme/Rheme Analysis of Hortatory Texts

As introduced in Chapter 4, the corpus of data in this study also includes hortatory texts. There is only one topic for the hortatory texts, that is, "Making our cities greener". Unlike the analytical texts which were completed by the students without assistance, the hortatory texts were written in a situation where students were given some suggestions. Each direction given to the students before writing suggests an intended generic stage. Because of these explicit suggestions, the informants considered that these EFL hortatory texts were generally better organised in generic stages than the analytical texts.

Also mentioned in Chapter 4, because of the lack of the same experience as those Chinese EFL participants, the Australian students were not requested to write on this topic. For this reason, there is no Australian text as reference in analysing the Chinese EFL texts.

74 Chinese EFL texts were collected. 18 texts were evaluated as successful ones. In this section, two successful texts (Text G3 and Text G13) and two
unsuccessful texts (Text G4 and Text G5) are presented. The analyses of Text G7, Text G26 and Text G33 are in Appendix III.

5.4.1 Successful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text G3

1/ Do you want to live in a green city? 2/ I think everybody like to live in city with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets. 3/ Because it's both pleasant and comfortable. 4/ But, only a few of us can live in such a fine city. 5/ Many cities have no place for trees grow because there are so many buildings and factories. 6/ What cause this? 7/ I think the main reason is that most people are not aware of the advantages of planting trees in cities.

8/ Planting trees in cities have many advantages. 9/ First, green trees can filter dusty air and make the air cleaner. 10/ Second, trees can prevent the cities from being attacked by wind and can make the cities more comfortable to live in. 11/ Third, trees can make the cities greener and more beautiful. 12/ So you can see that trees can make our city life more pleasant and attractive.

13/ Since it's beautiful to plant trees in cities, we should try our best to make our cities greener. 14/ Many countries have made the policy to encourage their people to plant trees and grass in the cities. 15/ I think we must use our own hands to cover our cities with green trees and grass.

Text G3 is a three-paragraph text, each serving as a generic stage: (1) 'situation and problem' (Sentences 1–7); (2) 'evaluation of city greenery' (Sentences 8–12); and (3) 'solution' (Sentences 13–15). The text has 15 t-units.

The informants regarded this text as a successful one because the information in each generic stage is appropriately prepared. The writer also effectively connected each generic stage by using transitional elements, thus making the move from one stage to the next a smooth one.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Do you want to live in a green city?

2/ I think everybody like to live in city with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets.

3/ Because it's both pleasant and comfortable.

4/ But, only a few of us can live in such a fine city.

5/ Many cities have no place for trees grow because there are so many buildings and factories.
6/ What cause this?

7/ I think the main reason is that most people are not aware of the advantages of planting trees in cities.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–7) is an orienting paragraph. S1 draws the reader's attention by using a yes/no interrogative sentence Do you want to live in a green city? (a rhetorical question). The finite verb Do is an interpersonal Theme showing the interrogative mood; you, a general exophoric reference, is the topical Theme. S2 gives the answer to the question. The interpersonal Theme I think shows the writer's attitude in this discussion. The use of an indefinite pronoun everybody as the topical Theme emphasises the unanimous answer "yes" to the question. Rheme 2 elaborates Rheme 1 on "what a green city is like". Rheme 1 and Rheme 2 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern.

S3 (Because it's both pleasant and comfortable) is a sentence fragment which should not exist independently of the main clause in English as mentioned in the earlier analysis. In S3, the textual Theme Because indicates that the following part will give the reason to S2. The topical Theme of S3 it refers anaphorically to (the) city with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets in Rheme 2; therefore, the two elements form a linear thematic progression pattern. S3 is a judgement of Rheme 2.

The textual Theme but in S4 signals a contrastive meaning. S4 states the problem which is to be solved. The interpersonal Theme only emphasises the degree of a few of us (the topical Theme) which helps to intensify the situation. The topical Theme a few of us makes a contrast with the topical Theme everyone in Theme 2: "Although everybody likes to live in a green city, yet only a few of people can be that lucky". Such a fine city in Rheme 4 also interacts with Rheme 2 (city with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets), with such referring back to the nominal group qualifier, with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets. S5 clarifies S4 by giving some details about the problem. Many cities in Theme 5 contrasts with Rheme 4 ("a city"). Theme 5 and Rheme 4 are in a linear thematic pattern. Rheme 5 introduces the problem in the cities as well as the environment for causing this problem.
S6 is a 'wh-interrogative' sentence which expects the writer to fill in the missing message. Theme 6 maps with this missing part (by using What) which is the New, whereas Rheme 6 coincides with the Given. With regard to the content in Rheme 6 (... cause this), the use of cause can be predicted in the context and This in Rheme 6 encapsulates the whole of S5. S7 meets the expectation of S6 by giving the answer to the question. Again the writer employs I think, an interpersonal Theme to indicate his/her involvement in the topic. The topical Theme the main reason (the Given) is related to S5 (the problem). The New in Rheme 7 tells the reader that "the advantages of planting trees in cities are neglected", thus anticipating the next paragraph to exemplify the advantages of planting trees in cities.

8/ Planting trees in cities have many advantages.

9/ First, green trees can filter dusty air and make the air cleaner.

10/ Second, trees can prevent the cities from being attacked by wind and can make the cities more comfortable to live in.

11/ Third, trees can make the cities greener and more beautiful.

12/ So you can see that trees can make our city life more pleasant and attractive.

Ss8–12 constitute Paragraph 2. S8, encapsulating most of the information in Rheme 7, is the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2 which expects the following sentences to elaborate on it. Ss9–11 serve this purpose by giving some examples. The three sentences connect with one another in textual Themes (i.e. First, second and third). The topical Themes in Ss9–11 all employ trees/green trees and form the relationship of co-referentiality, hence, they are in a constant thematic progression pattern. As far as Rhemes 9–11 are concerned, each gives a specific example about the advantage of planting trees in cities: Rheme 9 talks about the air-purifying purpose, S10 about the climate-improving purpose and S11 about the environment-beautifying purpose. Although there is not much association among Rhemes 9–11, the reader can easily follow this information flow based on his/her real world experience. In this sense, Themes 9–11 do not run on like a sentence list.

S12, by evaluating the advantages of planting trees, is the conclusion to
Paragraph 2. The textual Theme So signals this conclusion: 'Given all these advantages mentioned above, it is concluded that...'. The topical Theme of S12 is realised by the general exophoric reference pronoun you, meaning "anybody" excluding the writer. The purpose of thematising you in S12 signals a confidence that so far the argument about the advantages of greenery has been convincing. The New in Rheme 12 summarises the advantages of planting trees in cities. Trees in Rheme 12 is the repetition of the same item in Theme 11, the two forming a 'Theme A – Rheme B' pattern. City in Rheme 12 is the repetition of the same item in Rheme 11, the two forming a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern.

13/ Since it's beautiful to plant trees in cities, we should try our best to make our cities greener.

14/ Many countries have made the policy to encourage their people to plant trees and grass in the cities.

15/ I think we must use our own hands to cover our cities with green trees and grass.

Paragraph 3 (Ss13–15) gives a solution to the problem. The content of Theme 13 maps with Given which picks up from S12 in Paragraph 2. In general, Theme 13 is a comment (evaluation) on planting trees in cities and functions as a transitional element from Paragraph 2 to Paragraph 3, thus making the shift from the 'evaluating' stage to the 'solution' stage a natural one. Theme 13, as a marked Theme — a circumstance of reason — also sets up a framework for Rheme 13 to accomplish. To fulfil this expectation, Rheme 13 gives a solution to the problem mentioned in Paragraph 1 — we should try our best to make our cities greener. The model operator should expresses a suggestion. In English the degree of obligation/requirement can be ranked according to its value: high, median and low (Halliday, 1985a). In Halliday's "value list", should falls into the category of a medium 'requirement'. Yet, Rheme 13 as a piece of advice is too broad and general to be taken, and needs further clarification. Instead of meeting the requirement of elaborating on what "we" will do in order to realise this goal, S14, by thematising Many countries (a totally New), unexpectedly changes to the topic of how other
countries handle "greening cities". Rheme 14 also maps with New. S14 does not seem pertinent to the development of the text.

S15 brings back the focus on the action to be taken. Once again the interpersonal Theme *I think* is used. It is the third time that the term is employed in this text. Hence, the text overuses this interpersonal Theme. As mentioned earlier, the consequence of using many interpersonal Themes is to shorten the distance between the reader and the writer, thus making the text personal. This is not generally valued in an English expository text. *We* (the topical Theme) is the departure of S15 — the general personal reference including the writer. In Rheme 15, the use of *must*, a modal operator which has a high value in terms of degree of requirement, expresses an obligation or a necessity (Halliday, 1985a). The content of Rheme 15 does not contribute any New to the text because it bears semantic similarity to that of Rheme 13. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G3 are displayed in Figure 5.25.
Figure 5.25  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text G3
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text G3

Figure 5.25 indicates that all generic stages are linked with each other. The choice of Theme/Rheme progression patterns correlates to each specific generic stage. In the 'situation and problem' stage, linear thematic patterns and 'Theme A – Rheme B' patterns are used to process the Given–New information. In the 'evaluation of city greenery' stage, constant thematic patterns are used. Although there are not lexical relations between the Rhemes, the Rhemes are connected with each other in logic; that is, the whole stage evaluates the advantage of "city greenery" from different aspects. In this case, it is normal that Themes are likely to be any item involving "city greenery" whereas Rhemes may not connect to one another. Since the reader can follow the message based on the real world experience, the use of many constant Themes does not necessarily create a comprehension confusion as found in some analytical texts mentioned previously. Concerning the 'solution' stage, which relates to the actions to be taken for realising "city greenery", given that each step is different from the others, it is reasonable that sometimes there may not be direct interactions between Themes and Rhemes.

The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

Example 2: Text G13

1/ With the development of the industry, it becomes more and more important to make our cities greener. 2/ Presently, a larger number of trees have been planted in the park or beside the streets. 3/ Grass can be seen here and there. 4/ But there is still someone who doesn't realise the importance and goods of making our cities greener. 5/ The benefits of making the city greener are so many. 6/ Such as, it can clean the air, beautify the city and improve the climate. 7/ It also can do goods to our bodies and minds, prevent the pollution. 8/ Since the city greenness can do so much for us, how we can obtain it? 9/ I think we should do the following things. 10/ At first, we should make the good use of our statement of greenness. 11/ And then punishment should be given to those who destroy the plant. 12/ Moreover, we should do our best to plant more trees and more other green land. 13/ These can help us to make our cities greener.

Text G13 is a four-paragraph text with 13 t-units. Each paragraph serves as a
specific generic stage: (1) 'situation and problem' (Sentences 1–4); (2) 'evaluation of city greenery' (Sentences 5–7); (3) 'orienting element' for the 'solution' stage (Sentences 8–9); and (4) 'solution' (Sentences 10–13).

This text was evaluated as a successful one by the informants because each generic stage is appropriately realised. The text is also reader-responsible: It provides a transitional element to orient the reader from one move to the other. It is easy for the informants to follow the message of the text.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ With the development of the industry, it becomes more and more important to make our cities greener.

2/ Presently, a larger number of trees have been planted in the park or beside the streets.

3/ Grass can be seen here and there.

4/ But there is still someone who doesn't realise the importance and goods of making our cities greener.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–4) is the orienting paragraph in the text. S1, by thematising a circumstance of accompaniment, With the development of the industry (a marked Theme), sets up a 'situation' framework for Rheme 1 as well as the whole paragraph. Rheme 1 judges the significance of city greenery. Ss2–3 give specific examples to describe what steps people have already taken. Theme 2 is realised in a temporal circumstance Presently which sets up a time frame for Rheme 2 as well as Ss3–4. Rheme 2 is related to Rheme 1, both involving city greenery. To be specific, trees and planted in Rheme 2 are associated to greener in Rheme 1 (the two are in the relationship of expectancy); park and streets in Rheme 2 correlate to cities in Rheme 1 (the two are in the relationship of meronymy). Hence, Rheme 1 and Rheme 2 form a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' progression pattern. Grass in Theme 3 keeps the continuity of Rheme 2 (trees) because "grass" and "trees" are in the relationship of co-hyponymy. The two elements are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Theme 4, signalled by the adversative conjunctive but, shifts the reader's attention from "greenery" to "person". The topical Theme of S4 is realised in an existential sentence
— 'there-structure'. Rheme 4 (who-clause) is a comment on someone (Theme 4). S4 informs the reader of the problem: 'some people ignore the importance and advantages of city greenery'.

5/ The benefits of making the city greener are so many.

6/ Such as, it can clean the air, beautify the city and improve the climate.

7/ It also can do goods to our bodies and minds, prevent the pollution.

Paragraph 2 (Ss5–7) specifies the advantages of greenery. In S5, the topical Theme the benefits of making the city greener is the near-repetition of Rheme 4 and functions as the transitional element from Paragraph 1 to Paragraph 2. S5 is also the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2 with Rheme 5 in many ways foreshadowing the following sentences which detail the "benefits". Both Ss6–7 contribute to S5 by giving some examples, signalled by the textual Theme of S6 Such as. For example should be used instead in this instance since it can be followed by a sentence, whereas "such as" can only be followed by a noun phrase (Quirk et al., 1985). Both Ss6–7, by thematising it (referring back to making the city greener in Theme 5), form a constant thematic progression pattern with Theme 5. Rheme 6 clarifies the benefits of greenery in terms of the natural environment whereas Rheme 7 relates to the health of people.

8/ Since the city greenness can do so much for us, how we can obtain it?

9/ I think we should do the following things.

Paragraph 3 (Ss8–9) serves as a transitional stage from the 'evaluation' stage (Paragraph 2) to the 'solution' stage (Paragraph 4). Theme 8, realised in a causal circumstance, is used as the summary of the evaluating stage as well as the departure for the following section. Rheme 8 is a rhetorical question which expects a solution for greenery in cities. Therefore, S8 is part of the hyper-theme of Paragraph 4. S9, by preparing the reader with the solution, may also be regarded as part of the hyper-theme of the 'solution' stage (Paragraph 4). The interpersonal Theme I think
indicates the writer's explicit involvement in this issue. The topical Theme *we* shows the identity of a group referring to anyone including the writer. This also signals the writer's participation in this discussion. Rheme 8 and Theme 9 are in a linear thematic progression pattern since they both use *we*. Rheme 9 expresses an obligation by using *should*. Rheme 9 is related to Rheme 8 as Rheme 9 uses an ellipsis. The complete element in Rheme 9 should be: "... we should be the following things to obtain city greenery. (The underlined part is from Rheme 8.) Therefore, Rheme 8 and Rheme 9 are in a 'Theme A – Rheme B' pattern. Foreshadowed by Ss8–9, Paragraph 4 serves the purpose of suggesting some measures to be taken.

10/ *At first, we* should make the good use of our statement of greenness.

11/ *And then punishment* should be given to those who destroy the plant.

12/ *Moreover, we* should do our best to plant more trees and other green land.

13/ *These* can help us to make our cities greener.

Ss10–13 constitute the 'solution' stage (Paragraph 4). The measures introduced in Ss10–12 are connected with one another by a logical sequence realised by using conjunctives such as *At first, and then* and *moreover*. S10 (the first step to be taken) thematises *we*, followed by the modal operator *should*, expresses an obligatory task assigned to "us". Rheme 10 can be constructed as 'make good use of propaganda to raise people's awareness about greenery'. S11 talks about the punishment to those who damage trees. Given that Theme 12 also uses *we* continuing its use in Theme 10, Theme 11 seems to break the topic continuity in the Theme for the purpose of highlighting *punishment*. In any case, this break does not seem to disrupt the information flow. S12 calls for planting more trees to form more green land. S13, thematising *These* which refers anaphorically to all the steps suggested in Ss12–13, looks like a conclusion to Paragraph 4. It argues that all these measures will lead to making our cities greener. Rhemes 11–13 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern.
The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G13 are diagrammed in Figure 5.26.

**Diagram of Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text G13**

**Pa 1**
- T1 → R1 (to make cities greener)
- T2 → R2 (trees)
- T3 (grass) → R3
- T4 → R4 (to make cities greener)

**Pa 2**
- T5 → R5 (make the city greener)
- T6 (it) → R6
- T7 (it) → R7

**Pa 3**
- T8 (do much good) → R8 (how)
- T9 → R9 (do the following things)

**Pa 4**
- T10 → R10 (greenness)
- T11 → R11 (plants)
- T12 → R12 (plant trees)

- T13 ("these" which refers back to all the steps in this paragraph) → R13

"make our cities greener" is related back to Rheme 8

**Figure 5.26 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text G13**

**Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text G13**

In Figure 5.26, all generic stages are connected with each other. The choice of Theme/Rheme patterns depends on the needs of different generic stages. For
example, in the 'situation and problem' stage, more types of patterns are used. However, only constant thematic patterns are used in the 'evaluation' stage. Within each generic section, the sentences are related to each other. The choice of Themes and Rhemes is also appropriate to the topic title. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is a successful text.

5.4.2 Unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts

Example 1: Text G4

1/ Now the city is being made green. 2/ On both sides of streets were planted the trees, flowers etc. 3/ Yet of course, the country government decided to make our country greener and greener, 4/ but in far countryside the green work is very poor. 5/ Now that they have a change, but our cities greener is poorer than Japan, America, etc.

6/ The cities green have many goods. 7/ For example, it can make the air clean, make the cities beauty, make the temperature change. 8/ These goods make people work in fresh air, the mind cheerful 9/ and the tree can provide wood for us. 10/ Every day, we can hear sing of bird, breathe the fresh air.

11/ How to make our cities greener. 12/ First, call for the people to make trees, to love the trees, and not to cut down the trees, 13/ Usually water the small trees, flower.

14/ So we can make our cities greener, beautiful.

Text G4 is a four-paragraph text with 14 t-units. Each paragraph serves as a specific generic stage. There are four generic stages in this text: (1) 'situation and problem'; (2) 'evaluation of city greenery'; (3) 'problem solution'; and (4) 'conclusion'.

The informants believed that what makes this text unsuccessful is that there is no transition between the generic stages; and within the generic stages, there are some interfering topics at the sentence level which do not relate to that particular stage.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **Now** the city is being made green.

2/ **On the sides of streets** were planted the trees, flowers etc.

3/ **Yet of course, the country government** decided to make our country greener and greener,
4/ but in far countryside the green work is very poor.

5/ Now that they have a change, but our Cities Greener is poorer than Japan, America, etc.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–5) orients the reader to the situation of greenery in the city as well as the problem. The topical Theme Now in S1 is a temporal circumstance which sets up a temporal framework for the following sentences. Rheme 1 gives a general introduction to the city greenery, the city is being made green. S2 elaborates on Rheme 1. S2 is an inverted sentence and thematises a spatial circumstance On both sides of streets for the purpose of highlighting it. Theme 2 picks up Rheme 1 the city and the two elements form the relationship of meronymy. Hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. In S3, the textual Theme Yet signals an adversative meaning which contrasts the preceding sentence with the following one. The second textual Theme, of course indicates that the writer invites the reader to took the point for granted. The topical Theme in S3 shifts from "city" (as in Rheme 1 and Theme 2) to "the country government" followed by talking about the government’s decision. In S4, the textual Theme but signals that a contrastive meaning with that of S3 will come up. However, the topical Theme in far countryside does not seem to fit the text topic of "city greenery". Rheme 4 realises an evaluation of the greenery situation in the countryside, which is also not relevant.

S5 thematises a circumstance of concession starting with Now that. The reference they is not properly used to refer back to the green work (in the countryside) in Rheme 4. In Rheme 5, but is not used properly (the employment of but here is compulsory in the Chinese concessional structure). By using our city greener in Rheme 5, the writer means "city greenery". The employment of our city greenery is confusing because Theme 5 takes green work in the far countryside (referred to by they) as the departure and anticipates a comment from Rheme 5. Rheme 5 compares the greenery situation in China with that of Japan and America. This may require the following part to detail the situation in those countries. However, there is no further information on this topic in this text.
6/ The Cities Green have many goods.

7/ For example, it can make the air clean, make the cities beauty, make the temperature change.

8/ These goods make people work in fresh air, the mind cheerful

9/ and the tree can provide wood for us.

10/ Every day, we can hear sing of bird, breathe the fresh air.

Paragraph 2 (Ss6–10) evaluates city greenery by exemplifying the advantages. S6 is the hyper-theme of this paragraph (The use of goods, here means "advantages"). S7 elaborates on S6 signalled by the textual Theme For example which connects S6 and S7 logically. The topical Theme it refers back to Theme 6. Therefore, Theme 7 and Theme 6 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. Theme 8 These goods encapsulates S7 with these referring back to S7 and goods substituting S7. Rheme 8 (make people work in fresh air, the mind cheerful) is the comment on Theme 8. By using make, the writer means "enable". In Chinese translation, the two lexical items (i.e. make and enable) are interchangeable.

S9 is logically connected to S8 by using the textual theme and. This suggests that S9 is the extension of S8. However, S9 is not related to S8 semantically. Although it thematises the tree, the New in the Rheme is about the wood that trees can provide. For this reason, S9 cannot be regarded as the extension of S8. S10 gives the consequence to S9. Theme 10 Every day sets up a temporal framework for the following Rheme: 'what happens every day' In Rheme 10, both sing(ing) of bird(s) and fresh air are associated with wood in Rheme 9 and the relationship between them is that of expectancy (collocation). Therefore, Rheme 9 and Theme 10 are in a linear thematic progression pattern.

11/ How to make our cities greener.

12/ First, call for the people to plant trees, to love the trees, and not to cut down the trees.

13/ Usually water the small trees, flower.

In the 'solution' stage (Ss11–13, Paragraph 3), although S11 How to make our cities greener is not an independent clause; it functions as the hyper-theme of this
paragraph in the way that it appeals for some measures to be taken by foregrounding *how*. It is followed by the conjunctive *First* (The writer means "firstly"). The topical Themes of Ss12–13 are realised in imperative sentences (*call for* and *water* respectively), thus expressing a compulsory action in which everyone should take. Rhemes 11–13 are in a 'Rheme A – Rheme B' pattern.

14/ *So we* can make our Cities Greener, beautiful.

S14 (Paragraph 4) is the conclusion to this text. The textual Theme *So* indicates a cause-effect relationship between the preceding part and the following sentence.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G4 are displayed in Figure 5.27.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text G4

In Figure 5.27, there are no connections between the generic stages. Within a generic stage, there are instances of 'disconnection' between the sentences. For example, the topic in Sentence 3 digresses from the expectations of text
development. Even when some sentences are related to each other, the link between them (either Theme or Rheme) is not directly related to the text topic, thus making a 'weak' connection which does not contribute to the text development. For example, Sentence 8 and Sentence 9 are linked by wood and birds in Rhemes respective, however, neither birds nor wood is strongly related to the text (i.e. field).

The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.

Example 2: Text G5

1/ Cities greener is very important in our cities. 2/ It isn’t very good, 3/ but many people begin to act.

4/ Greener may have a beautiful city, clean the sky. 5/ In the beautiful environment we can do a lot of things happily 6/ and do not need to worry about the dirty street. 7/ When it rains cats and dogs, we don’t worry rain can break the street, the house, because many trees and green meadow may produce us. 8/ All these shouldn’t be destroyed in another hand. 9/ Cities Greener can tell us if a country have ability, it can build itself.

10/ But how do greener? 11/ We should plant trees, meadows, flowers. 12/ Let our cities change into green cities. 13/ The birds sing and dance in the tree. 14/ The children and grandmother sit in the green garden and smile happily. 15/ We must work hard to make our cities greener.

Text G5 is a three-paragraph text with 13 t-units. Each paragraph serves as a specific generic stage. Three generic stages are: (1) 'situation and problem'; (2) 'evaluation of city greenery'; and (3) 'solution of the problem'.

The informants regarded the text as an unsuccessful text because there are several information gaps which the writer fails to fill in and there are also some inappropriate narrative examples about the proposed situation. All of these make it difficult for the informants to interpret the text.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Cities greener is very important in our cities.

2/ It isn't very good,

3/ but many people begin to act.

Ss1–3 constitute Paragraph 1. S1 is a judgement of city greenery in "our city",
thematising *Cities greener* as the departure followed by the comment *is very important*. By *Cities greener*, the writer means "city greenery". The reason why the writer used "Cities greener" as a noun phrase is probably because in the title, the two lexemes, *cities* and *greener* are placed together and follow the possessive pronoun *our*. This makes the student writer believe the two words can be combined and used as a noun phrase. S2, by thematising *it* (which refers anaphorically to *cities greener* in Theme 1, thus keeping constant with Theme 1) is also a judgement of city greenery. Themes 1–2 are in a constant thematic progression pattern. In S3, the conjunctive *but* (a textual Theme) signals a contrast with S2. Ss2–3 construct a loose discourse. The logical relationship between the sentences would be more strengthened by using subordinate conjunctive *although* — "Although it is not very good, many people begin to act".

4/ *Greener* may have a beautiful city, clean the sky.

5/ *In the beautiful environment* we can do a lot of things happily

6/ and do not need to worry about the dirty street.

7/ *When it rains cats and dogs*, we don't worry rain can break the street, the house, because many trees and green meadow may produce us.

8/ *All these* shouldn't be destroyed in another hand.

9/ *Cities Greener* can tell us if a country have ability, it can build itself.

Paragraph 2 (Ss4–9) evaluates city greenery. Theme 4 takes *Greener* as the departure of S4 (By *Greener*, the writer means "greenery".). Rheme 4 is confusing because of the use of *may have* as the process. *May have* is a literal translation from a Chinese expression meaning "make" in English. Rheme 4 consists of two New in evaluating the advantages of city greenery: *have a beautiful city* and *clean the sky*. There is no connector *and* between the two phrases. It is one of the characteristics of Chinese grammar that there is no requirement to use the connector *and* between two coordinate phrases within a sentence (Li & Thompson, 1981).

S5 thematises a spatial circumstance, *In the beautiful environment*, the content of which encapsulates Rheme 4, hence, Rheme 4 and Theme 5 are in a linear
progression pattern. Theme 5 sets up a situation framework for Rheme 5 as well as for the following sentences in this paragraph. Rheme 5 is realised in the New (we can do a lot of things happily). In S6, the textual Theme and signals that the following sentence is an extension of S5. The topical Theme is omitted because it is the same as Theme 5. Rheme 6 provides New. By dirty street in rheme 6, the writer means "muggy street". On the surface, the New in Rheme 6 don't worry about the dirty street does not seem to be related to the topic about "city greenery" until the next sentence (S7) elaborates on it. Theme 7 (When it rains cats and dogs) is a temporal circumstance setting up a framework for Rheme 7 to follow. However, the use of the idiom in Theme 7 is not appropriate in an expository text. Rheme 7 responds to the situation set up by Theme 6 and also elaborates on the second New information in Rheme 6 (we don't worry rain can break the street, the house, because many trees and green meadow may produce us). That is to say, if city greenery is good, flood will not destroy the streets. Nevertheless, the employment of the because-clause confuses the reader because it does not specify the product that trees and green meadow may produce us.

Theme 8, All these, refers back to many trees and green meadow in Rheme 7; hence, Theme 8 and Rheme 7 are in a linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 8 can't be destroyed in another hand is hard to interpret and needs elaboration. S9, however, does not clarify Rheme 8. Instead, it expresses another confusing sentence (Cities greener can tell us if a country have ability, it can build itself). Theme 9 conflates with the Given City greener. S9 cannot be understood by the informants because of the poor wording. In fact, the writer means to say that, if people can solve a tough problem such as "making cities greener", then they can demonstrate to the world that a country can rely on itself to accomplish everything. This ideology is based on Mao's philosophy.

10/ But how do greener?

11/ We should planting trees, meadows, flowers.

12/ Let our cities change into green cities.
13/ **The birds** sing and dance in the tree.

14/ **The children and grandmother** sit in the green garden smile happily.

15/ **We** must work hard to make our cities greener.

Ss10–15 constitute Paragraph 3. S10, by thematising *how*, suggests that this paragraph will give a solution to make cities greener. The structure of S10 in which the subject is missing is a Chinese expression directly translated into English. In Chinese, a subject can be omitted if the context is clear, whereas in English this expression is ungrammatical. S11 thematises *We* as the departure. Rheme 11, starting with the modal operator *should* which expresses a kind of advisability, coincides with the New — a solution: *plant trees, meadows, flowers*. S12 uses an imperative sentence thematising *Let* as the departure, thus expressing a strong demand for people to act. Following the New in Rheme 12 (*our cities change into green cities*), Ss13–14 describe what may happen in a green city. As far as the content of both Ss13 and 14 is concerned, it does not seem relevant to an expository text. Rather, it looks more like a narrative text. From Ss10–14, the thematic progression pattern is that of 'Rheme A – Rheme B', in which all Rhemes form the relationship of expectancy (collocation) among one another. S15 is the conclusion to the whole text. Thematised *we*, followed by the modal operator *must* is a strong hortatory statement expressing requirement. Semantically, S15 is related back to S12.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G5 are displayed in Figure 5.28.
Summary of the Theme/Rheme analysis of Text G5

Although Figure 5.28 shows that there are some arrows between the sentences within each stage, there are many cases when the link between the sentences is not strong. For example, in the 'evaluation' stage, the writer thematised or rhematised *we* to connect several sentences. In fact, *we* as an exophoric reference does not carry
much content which is directly related to the topic title. Sentences 5 and 6 are related by "street" in Rhemes, however, these items are not directly related to the topic title. Therefore, the connection between the two sentences is weak and cannot contribute to any text development. It is evident that the choice of Theme/Rheme is not effective. The Theme/Rheme analysis supports the informants' judgement that this is an unsuccessful text.

5.4.3 Interpretive summary of the texts on "Making our cities greener"

Benefiting from having some suggestions when writing on this topic, most of the texts have the expected generic stages — 'situation/problem', 'evaluation' (about the favourable situation) and 'solution'. However, the difference between the successful and unsuccessful texts lies in the way that each generic stage was fulfilled.

The successful texts such as Text G3, Text G7 (in Appendix III) and Text G13 choose appropriate data to organise each generic stage. There are connections between different generic stages by using transitional elements, thus making the move from one generic stage to the next a smooth one (this does not apply in Text G7). With regard to the choice of Themes/Rhemes, the successful texts are more likely to use the items which are related to the purpose of the corresponding generic stages.

However, in the unsuccessful texts such as Text G4, Text G5, Text G26 and Text G33 (both Text G26 and Text G33 are in Appendix III), the information is not properly chosen to serve the purpose of the generic stages. That is to say, the choice of Themes/Rhemes in the unsuccessful texts may not be directly linked to the topic development in the generic stage. For example, in the 'situation/problem' stage in Text G4, the mention of the greenery in the far countryside is digressive because the topic is about the city greenery. In the 'solution/evaluation' stage in Text G5, the examples of the birds, the children and grandmother do not relate to the text topic. The same problem also appears in the 'situation/problem' in Text G33 where the
reference to the difference in greenery situation in the south and the north does not
seem to affect the stages that follow (i.e. the 'evaluation' stage and the 'solution'
stage.

Secondly, in the unsuccessful texts, not many transitional elements are
employed between different generic stages; therefore, the move from one generic
stage to the other one can be abrupt.

Thirdly, poor wording and expression is another reason why the reader cannot
follow the information. This is involved with cohesion, which will be detailed in
Chapter 6.

5.5 Discussion of Theme/Rheme Analysis

5.5.1 Chinese EFL texts with reference to Australian students' texts

As pointed out in Chapter 4 and also earlier in this chapter, the limited number
of Australian texts collected makes it impossible to do a contrastive analysis between
the groups. Therefore, the small corpus of the native texts can only be used for
reference purposes. Nevertheless, the use of the native data can shed a light on the
tendency of native speakers' patterning of information in expository writing. From
the theme/Rheme analysis detailed in this chapter, the following observations can be
drawn (By "Australian texts, the researcher means "successful Australian texts
collected in this study").:

1. The Australian texts are more likely to give detailed elaboration on the points
made; whereas many Chinese texts tend to have more gaps in information left
unfilled (with the exception of the successful Chinese EFL texts).

2. Fewer interpersonal Themes are used in the Australian texts. Even if they
are used occasionally, they are mostly the ones which express the meaning of
'gradualness/ degree' (such as *gradually* and *to a great degree*). However, the
Chinese students are more likely to use *I think* which is thought to be more
subjective, relativise the information and introduce elements of uncertainty.
3. The Australian students' texts are better worded and structured than their Chinese counterparts'. Because of the limited English structures and vocabulary at their disposal, most Chinese students depend on unnecessary repetitions. Problems with the information structure are reflected in provision of too much Given at the expense of providing sufficient New to develop the text, or the reverse. In terms of Theme and Rheme structure, the unnecessary repetition is realised in either Theme or Rheme.

4. Chinese students are likely to use proverbs as a source of evidence to support the macro-theme. In some cases where some of them are not actually related to the text topic.

5. There are cases when the texts in both native and Chinese EFL groups are not "writer-responsible". For example, in Text API (an Australian text), the writer fails to elaborate an initial form (ERS). Similarly, the Chinese students occasionally use Chinese idioms which also needed explanation.

The differences between the Australian texts and Chinese EFL texts are presented in Table 5.1.
The analysis also demonstrates the similarities between the Australian students' texts and the successful Chinese EFL texts: Both tend to focus on one specific aspect of the topic; the information chosen is related to the topic; there is little unnecessary information. Themes chosen are not digressive in relation to the text development in a specific generic stage. The main difference between the Australian texts and the successful Chinese EFL texts is that the Australian texts are
more likely to thematise nominalisation in order to package the information whereas most Chinese successful texts rarely used this device. In addition, it is also common that EFL texts judged successful by the informants thematise I/You/We whereas the Australian texts do not.

5.5.2 A comparison between the successful and unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts

Regarding the Chinese EFL texts, there are differences between the two language groups. In the analytical texts, successful writers effectively choose the evidence to supported the thesis (macro-theme), and the conclusion reached is convincing. However, unsuccessful writers are usually not able to choose appropriate evidence to support the thesis. Therefore, the conclusion is unconvincing or contradictory. As far as the hortatory texts are concerned in this study, all generic stages in the successful texts are realised to contribute to the development of these texts. Between the generic stages, successful texts are likely to have transitional elements so that the move from one generic stage to the other is not abrupt. In the unsuccessful texts, the information in generic stages may not be appropriately chosen; hence, generic stages are not realised to contribute to the development of the texts. Between the generic stages, there is no transitional element in most of the unsuccessful texts. As a sequence, the move from one stage to the other can be abrupt. In both expository genres, unsuccessful texts appeared to provide more unnecessary information than successful texts.

In terms of Theme/Rheme and information at the sentence level (i.e. t-unit), generally most of Themes and Rhemes employed are related to the topic title (i.e. field) in both groups. (In the unsuccessful texts, there are cases where the use of certain items as Themes or Rhemes is not strongly related to the topic title.) However, the difference lies that, in successful texts, Theme and Rheme of each sentence are patterned at the global level, therefore, the placement of Given and New is more relevant to the text development. That is, when New is introduced, the
successful writers are more likely to provide elaboration (which contains Given information) to help the reader understand the New. In other words, successful texts proceed with effective interactions between Given and New. In unsuccessful texts, however, Themes and Rhemes are patterned at the local level (i.e. at the sentence level). Unsuccessful writers either keep providing New without giving much elaboration, or they may keep providing Given without much New (i.e. repetitive information). In the former case, the reader can hardly follow the text development, whereas in the latter case, there is not much development in the text. Both cases suggest that the interactions between Themes and Rhemes do not fit with the development of that particular text.

Moreover, the Theme/Rheme analysis also shows that texts do not necessarily have explicit hyper-themes (that is, a specific sentence which is employed as a hyper-theme in a generic stage). There are cases where implicit hyper-themes are used in both EFL groups. However, the difference is that successful writers are able to choose relevant information to meet the purpose of that generic stage so that the reader can easily read to summarise the main point; whereas the unsuccessful writers are unable to choose the relevant information and the information chosen in each sentence may not be related to the other one. As a result, the reader will not be able to get the message.

The results of Theme/Rheme analysis of the Chinese EFL texts in terms of the differences between the successful and unsuccessful texts are presented in Table 5.2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Layers of Theme</th>
<th>Successful EFL Texts</th>
<th>Unsuccessful EFL Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Features that are more likely to appear in texts</td>
<td><strong>Generic stage (Hyper-Theme)</strong></td>
<td>(1) In analytical texts, the thesis (i.e. hyper-theme) was effectively supported by the evidence.</td>
<td>(1) In analytical texts, the thesis was not effectively supported by the evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(2) In hortatory texts, They are more likely to have transitional elements to indicate the shift from one generic stage to the other, especially in hortatory texts in this study.</td>
<td>(2) Mostly they do not have transitional elements to indicate the shift from one generic stage to the other one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(3) All generic stages contribute to form the whole text.</td>
<td>(3) Some generic stages may not contribute to the whole textual level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Sufficient information is provided to serve each generic stage or to support the argument. That is, under each hyper-theme, clarification is achieved.</td>
<td>(4) There is not sufficient information to serve each generic stage or to support the argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Theme/Rheme</strong></td>
<td>(5) There is not much unnecessary information in Theme/Rheme.</td>
<td>(5) There is likely to be unnecessary information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(6) The contract between Theme and Rheme (i.e. the interaction between Given and New) contributes to the development of the text.</td>
<td>(6) There is a broken contract between Theme and Rheme (i.e. Given and New) interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(7) The connections between sentences (realised in Theme/Rheme) are strongly related to the development expectation.</td>
<td>(7) The connections between sentences (realised in Theme/Rheme) may not be strongly related to the development expectation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A feature that does not necessarily differentiate the quality of texts</td>
<td></td>
<td>Texts do not necessarily have an explicit hyper-theme all the time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 General Features about the Successful and the Unsuccessful Chinese EFL Texts
5.6 Summary

This chapter contains some Theme/Rheme analysis of some of the Australian students' texts, and some of the successful and unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts. The findings indicate that the informants' judgment about these texts are generally supported by the Theme/Rheme analysis. The analysis identifies the range of difficulties that these EFL writers have in controlling English expository texts in relation to Theme/Rheme structures. In the next chapter, cohesive analysis will be conducted for the purpose of examining the non-structural elements in these texts.
Chapter 6

Cohesive Analysis of the Australian and Chinese EFL Sample Texts

6.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 1, Theme/Rheme and information structure (i.e. Given/New) together constitute the textual resources for structuring the clause as a message. But in order to understand how a sequence of clauses constitute a text, it is also necessary to look at the way in which each clause or clause complex links with others non-structurally. The non-structural resource for discourse is called cohesion. This chapter concentrates on exploring the nature of these non-structural components in Chinese EFL students' texts as well as in the Australian students' texts, as these components are used to establish connexity within a text; that is, coherence.

Also introduced in Chapter 1, cohesion in this study is defined as "relations of meaning that exist within the text and define it as a text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 4). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are four cohesive devices in English: conjunction, lexical cohesion, ellipsis and substitution, and reference.

In this part of the study, for ease of analysis, each text in the corpus is coded into clauses. This coding scheme will not take into account embedded clauses. The coding system is different from that of Theme/Rheme analysis in Chapter 5 where a text is coded into t-units. Each sample text, after being coded into clauses, will be examined to see how each of the four cohesive devices is used.

Due to the limitation of space in this chapter, only a few sample text analyses will be presented on each topic title. The organisation of this chapter is as follows: On each topic title, the analysis of a successful Australian student's text will be presented first as a base line for studying the Chinese EFL texts. Then a successful
EFL text will precede an unsuccessful EFL text. For each topic, an interpretive summary will follow the analysis of the texts.

As mentioned in Chapter 5, Australian texts are available only on the two topic titles: "Knowledge is the most valuable" and "As an Australian citizen, do you think politics important?". Therefore, for each of the other topic titles (without the Australian texts as reference), there will only be the analysis of a successful and an unsuccessful Chinese EFL text.

The text is presented with reference to generic stages before any cohesive analysis is conducted for the reason that generic stages are referred to in each specific cohesive analysis.

6.2 Cohesive Analysis of Analytical Texts

6.2.1 "Knowledge is the most valuable"

6.2.1.1 A successful Australian student's text: Text AK1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction and Evidence (Clauses a–d)</td>
<td>a/ Knowledge is one of the most valuable possessions that a student can attain. b/ It is with knowledge that she can interact in her world, grow and achieve greatness. c/ However, knowledge is a hollow thing without wisdom, without joy and without inspiration. d/ Knowledge is lonely without the companionship of motivation and of purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thesis (Clause e)</td>
<td>e/ What is the most valuable possession in the world is to have the integrity and the strength of spirit to seek knowledge and wisdom through the deep inspiration which comes from knowing what one's purpose truly is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conclusion (Clauses f–g)</td>
<td>f/ A single quality can not be set aside and hailed as the most valuable possession; g/ a myriad of human qualities must exist and work together to achieve harmony and be truly valuable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1 Generic Stages in Text AK1
Text AK1 consists of two paragraphs with seven clauses. There are four generic stages, with the 'introductory' and the 'evidence' stages merging into each other.

**Conjunction**

(Ø = an implicit conjunctive  
œ = post-position of a superordinate clause where an explicit conjunctive is normally not used)

*<Introduction and evidence>*

a) Knowledge is one of the most valuable possessions that a student can attain.

b) Ø It is with knowledge that she can interact in her world, grow and achieve greatness.

Causal/Apposition [Additive]

(c) **However,** knowledge is a hollow thing without wisdom, without joy and without inspiration.

Adversative

d) Ø Knowledge is lonely without the companionship of motivation and of purpose.

Adaptive

*<Thesis>*

e) What is the most valuable possession in the world is to have the integrity and the strength of spirit to seek knowledge and wisdom through the deep inspiration which comes from knowing what one's purpose truly is.

*<Conclusion>*

f) A single quality can not be set aside and hailed as the most valuable possession;

g) Ø a myriad of human qualities must exist and work together to achieve harmony and be truly valuable

Adaptive

**Figure 6.1 Conjunction in Text AK1**

As displayed in Figure 6.1, Text AK1 employs only one explicit conjunctive, that is, an adversative *however* in Clause c. That is to say, the text has many implicit conjunctive relations — that is, "the semantic relationship is clearly felt to be present but is unexpressed" (Halliday, 1994: 327). According to Halliday, in the interpretation of a text where implicit conjunction is used, the reader's intuition
depends on "other forms of cohesion present" (p. 327). In this text, to a great extent, the writer has relied on lexical cohesion to show the logical relations.

Halliday (1994) proposes that how to characterise implicit conjunction in a text remains a question and suggests being "cautious" in interpreting this type of cohesion in a text (p. 327). This is because sometimes there may exist two possibilities to interpret the two conjunctive relations of the same pair of clauses. Take Clause b for example; anticipated by Clause a, it can be interpreted as providing the reason why "knowledge" is very important for a student, or merely elaborating on Clause a — apposition. (In Halliday and Hasan 1976: 242, 'apposition' is categorised as one type of 'additive'.) Both interpretations are accepted in relation to the context of this text. By repeating the key item knowledge and by using an anaphoric reference she (which refers to a student in Clause a), Clause b shows the logical relation with Clause a, therefore, no explicit conjunctive is required.

Let me continue with the conjunctive analysis. Clause c uses an adversative conjunctive however to signal a contrast in this clause to the previous one.

There is no explicit conjunctive between Clause c and Clause d. Nevertheless, an implicit conjunctive between them is clear: Clause d provides an extension of information to Clause c. Clause c and Clause d are connected to each other by the use of several devices: (1) by a parallel clause structure; (2) by using the same lexical item knowledge.

Clause e, as the thesis of this text is related to all the previous sentences: An equative clause as the topic, the Theme (What is the most valuable possession in the world) is related to Clause c and Clause d, both clauses challenge the topic title (Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world). The reader now expects to be given the answer. In answering this question (Rheme in Clause e), some lexical items used the previous clauses are repeated in Clause e, such as knowledge, wisdom, inspiration and purpose. All this seems to synthesise the previous information.
In Clause f, a single quality is related to the Rheme of Clause e, forming a relationship of antonymy. In addition, the most valuable possession in Clause f is the repetition of the same item in Clause e. Therefore, Clause f is an enhancement of Clause e.

As far as Clause g is concerned, a myriad of human qualities is the antonym of a single quality in Clause f. And valuable in Clause g is the repetition of the same item in Clause f. In this case, Clause g is an extension of Clause f.

In summary, the implicit conjunctive relation between the clauses in this text is indicated mainly by lexical cohesion.

**Lexical cohesion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause stage</th>
<th>GENERIC</th>
<th>1 knowledge</th>
<th>2 valuable</th>
<th>3 possession</th>
<th>4 purpose</th>
<th>5 wisdom</th>
<th>6 inspiration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a Introduction and evidence</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>valuable</td>
<td>possessions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>wisdom</td>
<td>inspiration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>purpose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e Thesis</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>valuable</td>
<td>possession</td>
<td>purpose</td>
<td>wisdom</td>
<td>inspiration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f Conclusion</td>
<td>valuable</td>
<td>possession</td>
<td>quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>valuable</td>
<td>quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6.2** Lexical Cohesion in Text AK1

As shown in Figure 6.2, there are three long lexical strings — the "knowledge" string, the "possession" string and the "valuable" string, each formed by the repetition of the same lexical item respectively. The "valuable" string and
"possession" string cover all the three stages (i.e. the 'introduction/evidence', the 'thesis' and the 'conclusion') and the "knowledge" string runs through the two generic stages (i.e. the 'introduction/evidence' and the 'thesis'). The rest of the strings are rather short: There is only one repetition of the same lexical item, such as purpose, inspiration, world, inspiration and quality. All the uses of these items are effective in elaborating the information. Apart from repetition, the writer used antonymy such as a single quality and a myriad of human qualities to make a contrast.

Generally, the writer uses a variety of lexical items to show that knowledge needs to be combined with other qualities to become the most valuable possession in the world.

Reference

Only one anaphoric reference is used: She in Clause b refers back to a student in Clause a. The writer employs some definite articles (not including the comparative reference in the title). They all appear in Clause e which is presented in Example 6.1.

Example 6.1  Clause e

"What is the most valuable possession in the world is to have the integrity and the strength of spirit to seek knowledge and wisdom through the deep inspiration which comes from knowing what one's purpose truly is".

In Clause e, the first two the are used cataphorically whose referent is to seek knowledge and wisdom in the same clause. The third the is also used cataphorically, whose referent is 'which-clause' in the same clause.

Ellipsis and substitution

There is no employment of ellipsis and substitution in Text AK1.
6.2.1.2 A successful Chinese EFL text: Text K6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction (Clauses a–d)</td>
<td>a/ Nowadays, almost everyone focuses on money, even in the universities. b/ The students think much more to earn money than how to know much knowledge. c/ Although each one knows it is wrong, d/ it is very popular.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thesis (Clause e)</td>
<td>e/ Here, I will say only knowledge is the most valuable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Supportive evidence (Clauses f–l)</td>
<td>f/ Even if you own much money, g/ but they can be taken away from you easily. h/ They only belong to you temporary. i/ But knowledge, once you own it, j/ you will own it forever. k/ When you own much knowledge, l/ you will feel that you are the happiest person in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conclusion (Clauses m–n)</td>
<td>m/ Can money do this? n/ No, it can't.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.2 Generic Stages in Text K6

Text K6 is a one-paragraph text consisting of 13 clauses.

Conjunction

<Introduction>

a) Nowadays, almost everyone focus on money, even in the universities.

b) Ø The students think much more to earn money than how to know much (Apposition: Additive) knowledge.

c) Although each one know it is wrong, (Concessional)

d) ø it is very popular.

<Thesis>

e) Here, I will say only knowledge is the most valuable. (Temporal)
<Evidence>

f) Even if you own much money,
   (Concessive)

g) but they can be taken away from you easily.
   (Adversative)

h) Ø they only belong to you temporarily.
   (Apposition [Additive])

i) But knowledge, once you own it,
   (Adversative) (Condition)

j) ø you will own it forever.

k) When you own much knowledge,
   (Temporal)

l) ø you will feel that you are the happiest person in the world.

<Conclusion>
m) Can money do this?

n) No, it can't.

**Figure 6.3 Conjunction in Text K6**

As shown in Figure 6.3, most of the clauses employ conjunctives, thus explicitly indicating the logical relations between clauses. But there are some problems. For example, in Clause g, the use of but is not accepted in English, given that the previous clause Even if you own much money is a dependent one which offers a condition for Clause g. Clause g as a main clause cannot use But as the conjunctive since it is a conjunctive for paratactic clauses. However, in Chinese, this use is very common. In this sense, this use seems to be affected by the writer's transfer from Chinese language. Another problem lies in Clause i where the adversative conjunction But is used to contrast "knowledge" with "money". However, the rest of the clause changes to a conditional one by using the conjunction once.
Lexical cohesion

Text K6 can be deconstructed into different lexical elements forming separate lexical strings. Figure 6.4 shows the strings in Text K6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>1 Money</th>
<th>2 Knowledge</th>
<th>3 Own</th>
<th>4 Judgement</th>
<th>5 People</th>
<th>6 Manner</th>
<th>7 Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Introduction (a-d)</td>
<td>money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>money knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>money knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td>wrong</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>each one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>money knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td>popular</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>Thesis (e)</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>valuable</td>
<td>I (writer)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>money own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>people (you)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>money be taken away</td>
<td>people (you)</td>
<td>easily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>money belong to</td>
<td>people (you)</td>
<td>temporar-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>knowledge own (2)</td>
<td>people (you)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>knowledge own</td>
<td>people (you)</td>
<td>forever</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>knowledge own</td>
<td>people (you)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>happiest</td>
<td>people (you), person</td>
<td>world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>money happiest</td>
<td>person</td>
<td>world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>money happiest</td>
<td>person</td>
<td>world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.4 Lexical Cohesion in Text K6

Seven principal lexical strings (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) are outlined. Three of the strings, money, knowledge and people, run throughout the text. That is to say, they appear in each of the generic stages. The interaction between the "money" strings and the "knowledge" string which creates a contrasting feature is the main
development line in the text. Compared with the "money" string and the "knowledge" string, the "people" string changes in nature in the different generic stages. In the introductory stage, this string focuses on "student" with the exception of "I" (the writer) in Clause e. In the "evidence" stage, this string changes to "you" as the participant which refers to "people" generally.

As far as the "judgement" string is concerned, it appears in both the introductory stage and the "evidence" stage for assessing purposes. It is formed by a group of adjectives expressing the writer's judgment. The "manner" string does not run through the whole text. Instead, it is more localised and only reflects the particular experiential focuses of these clauses. In this string, easily and temporarily are of a similar nature and both form the relationship of antonymy with forever. These items also contribute to building up the contrastive meaning between "money" and "knowledge".

In regard to the "location" string, although it contains only three items, its presence has a particular purpose. The first location item in the university (Clause a) provides a setting for the introductory stage and forms a tie of collocation with the students in Clause b. Both the second and third locations (in Clause l and Clause m respectively) are in the world (in fact, the third one unfolds from the substitution "do this" in Clause m) which is used metaphorically.

In addition, the "own" string also runs through the whole text. It starts from Clause f and ends in Clause k. All the lexical items used here are related to "owning something" (own in Clause f, Clause j and Clause k; belong to in Clause h). The two items form a relationship of synonymy. Even the passive form of the material process be taken away (in Clause g) is closely related to belong to and own through a relationship of antonymy. The use of these words is appropriate to express the argument for possessing "knowledge" rather than possessing "money". However, merely focusing on one single type of verb in citing a single example (that is, taking "knowledge" as some property which cannot be taken away) results in a simplicity of argument.
Reference

Among the four reference chains as displayed in Figure 6.5, only the "the students – each one" chain is very short because it only functions as an element in the introductory stage. The other three are long chains since they span the "evidence" stage. In the "money" chain, the anaphoric reference they for "money" in Clause g and Clause h is technically incorrect because "money" is an uncountable noun. It should be replaced by "it". One special case lies in Clause c: the reference it refers back to Clause b, an entire unit rather than a single lexical item (The students think much more to earn money than how to know much knowledge).

The following clause, Clause d also keeps the continuity of it which has the same referent as that of Clause c. This employment of the anaphoric reference it is very ambiguous when it is used to refer to more than one element. The employment of a noun (e.g. "belief") may better facilitate the continuity of meaning.

Generally speaking, both the "money" chain and the "knowledge" chain tend to use repetition rather than anaphoric references. This is usual in a text in which two generic entities maintain the topic simultaneously in order to avoid confusion caused by using reference frequently.

In Clause m, the demonstrative pronoun this is employed. However, it is difficult to find the referent to which it refers in the previous clause. Here, this refers to the "extended text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 66), which means that the reference "may not only refer to a particular person or object, some entity that is encoded linguistically as a 'participant' — a noun or nominal expression — but also to any identifiable portion of text" (p. 52).

This text also has a continuity of using you as an exphoric reference for the generic purpose. "You" has the effect of making the text more personal. However, as mentioned in Chapter 5, Halliday and Hasan (1976) believe that this type of reference does not necessarily have cohesive function.
Introduction

a) (money)

b) (money) (knowledge)

c) (it) (ana)

d) (it) (ana)

Thesis
e)

Evidence

f) (money)

g) (they) (ana)

h) (they) (ana)

i) (it)

j) (it)

k) (knowledge)

l) the happiest person

Conclusion

m) (money) (this)

n) (it)

Figure 6.5 Reference in Text K6
Substitution and ellipsis

There is only one employment of ellipsis and of substitution.

In Clause e, an ellipsis is employed (Here, I will say only knowledge is the most valuable): The writer omits the element "the thing that is the most valuable".

In Clause m (Can money do this), do functions as a verbal substitution which is related to Clause l. However, there is no one-to-one replacement of do with the verbal phrase in Clause 1. Do, together with the reference this constitutes the replacement of Clause 1. In this case, do substitutes a derived verbal phrase from Clause l ("make you feel").

6.2.1.3 An unsuccessful Chinese EFL text: Text K2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **1. Introduction**  
(Clauses a–e)            | a/ What is the most valuable? b/ There are various answers. c/ In modern times most people think that money is the most valuable. d/ According to them, the more money they have, the better. e/ And there are other people who think health is the most important. |
| **2 Thesis**  
(Clause f)            | f/ But in my opinion, knowledge is the most valuable. |
| **3. Supportive Evidence**  
(Clauses g–n) | g/ Knowledge is extracted from the human beings, h/ and accumulated continuously by life. i/ It can instruct your action, your though and your living way, j/ and it also give you pleasure, k/ when you are retiring and alone. l/ It can give you abilities m/ especially when you are in business n/ or deal with something. |
| **4. Conclusion**  
(Clauses o–p) | o/ I think knowledge is the most valuable. p/ To live to the old, to learn to the old. |

Table 6.3   Generic Stages in Text K2

Text K2 consists of 16 clauses. It has four generic stages.
Conjunction

<Introduction>

a) What is the most valuable?

b) There are various answers.

c) In modern times most people think that money is the most valuable.

d) According to them, the more money they have, the better.

e) And there are other people who think health is the most important.

<Thesis>

f) But in my opinion, knowledge is the most valuable.

<Evidence>

g) Knowledge is extracted from the human beings.

h) and accumulated continuously by life

i) It can instruct your action, your thought and your living way,

j) and it also give you pleasure

k) when you are retiring or alone.

l) It can give you abilities especially

m) when you are in business

n) or deal with something.

<Conclusion>

o) I think knowledge is the most valuable.

p) To live to the old, to learn to the old.

Figure 6.6 Conjunction in Text K2
In the introductory stage (Clauses a–e), only Clause e employs an explicit additive conjunctive And to show an extension to the previous clause. However, the fact that both Clause c and Clause d use a prepositional phrase (In modern times in Clause c and According to them in Clause d) also shows the explicit logical connections to the previous clauses: In modern times gives a specific temporal frame and according to them suggests the angle of the writer, both phrases indicating an elaboration (There are various answers). In this case, Clause c elaborates on Clause b and Clause d elaborates Clause c.

In the 'evidence' stage, Clause g and Clause i, functioning as supporting clauses to the hyper-theme (Clause f), both use implicit conjunctions. Clause g, together with Clause h (marked by an additive and) provide the reason for Clause f whereas Clause i adds new information to the 'evidence' stage. Clause l also gives new information by employing an implicit additive conjunction. In the 'concluding' stage (i.e. Clause o and Clause p), the implicit conjunctive in Clause o is therefore, a conclusion from Paragraph 2. Clause p also implies a causal relationship with Clause o, meaning "for this reason".

It is observed that there are few elaborations in the 'evidence' stage. The tendency of overusing enhancements and extensions means that the text always provides the reader with New. Lack of elaboration on the New will make it hard for the reader to perceive the message.

**Lexical cohesion**

As shown in Figure 6.7, in Text K2, the formation of the strings correlates with the different generic stages. The "knowledge" string (String 1), the "think" string (String 2), the "people" string (String 5) and the "valuable" string (String 6) span the whole text. (The underlined element means that this lexical item is rendered from the reference in the bracket.)
Figure 6.7  Lexical Cohesion of Text K2

The presence of the "money" string as the topic entity seems to predict a contrastive meaning with "knowledge". In the "people" string, repetition of people and the synonyms of people/human beings go through the whole text.
In the "valuable" string, some repetitions of *valuable* are used. The other lexical item in this string, *important* (in Clause e) forms the relationship of synonymy with *valuable*. In the "think" string (String 2), only repetition of *think* is used.

The "knowledge" string (String 1) dominates the "thesis" and the "evidence" stages as the only topic. Repetition of *knowledge* (in Clause g) is used in this string. This indicates that the notion of "knowledge" is mentioned all the time. There is no unfolding into different aspects of this abstract concept. In addition, *learn* in Clause n is in a collocation relationship with *knowledge*.

With regard to the "life" string (String 3), *life* Clause g, *living way* in Clause i are in a relationship of meronymy. Both *live* and *old* in Clause p are collocations with *life* and *living way*.

One of the weaknesses is the overuse of repetition especially in the "knowledge" string and the "people" string. Meanwhile, the fact that the "money" string is locally featured does not create the contrastive meaning with the notion of "knowledge" as expected.

**Reference**

The reference chains in Text K2 are diagrammed in Figure 6.8. There are three reference chains in this text. The types of references used are limited to only anaphoric reference (including a comparative reference). That is, anaphoric reference dominates the whole text.

In Chain 3, three employments of the anaphoric reference *it*, together with the repetition of *knowledge* reveal that all clauses depart from the same point. Therefore, there is not much development of the topic.

Like Text K6 which is presented in Section 6.2.1.2, Text K2 also employs some exophoric reference *you* for generic purposes. As discussed previously, this type of reference does not have much cohesive function.
Introduction

a) 1

b) 2

1 money

(ana: comp)

2 more money

(ana = anaphoric reference  comp = comparative reference)

c) (people)

d) them (ana)

e) other people

Thesis

f) (knowledge)

Evidence
g) (knowledge)

h) (knowledge)

i) it

j) it

k) it

l) it

m) (knowledge)

n) (knowledge)

Conclusion

o) (knowledge)

p)

Substitution and ellipsis

No substitution is used in this text. However, there are some employments of ellipsis. For example, in Clause a, Clause c, Clause f and Clause o, the omitted
element is a noun phrase — "(the most valuable) possession/property". The reason for using ellipsis in these clauses may be that the writer is affected by the title.

In Clause d (According to them, the more money they have, the better), a clause is omitted. Therefore, the complete clause should be something like: "(...the more money they have, the better) they would feel".

Finally, in Clause h, knowledge is omitted. In Clause n, you is deleted.

All ellipsis used in this text is nominal ellipsis. Most of the ellipsis is in the 'subject' position.

6.2.1.4 Interpretive summary of the texts on "Knowledge is the most valuable"

Compared with its Chinese EFL counterparts, the Australian student uses few explicit conjunctives and few instances of reference. Instead, he/she relies on lexical cohesion to develop the text.

In the successful EFL text (Text K6), although there are some mistakes regarding the use of conjunction, generally speaking most of clauses are logically connected. In terms of lexical cohesion, given that the text is contrastively structured (i.e. "money" vs. "knowledge"), it is reasonable that the text uses many repetitions of "money" and "knowledge" to avoid the confusion of either of the topic entities. Meanwhile, there are other strings coordinating with these two principal ones, helping form the contrastive meaning between them. With reference to the lexical devices used to form the chains, apart from using repetition, the writer also uses synonymy and antonymy. The employment of these lexical devices contributes to the formation of the contrastive text.

In relation to reference, the student has some problems in choosing the anaphoric reference for "money"; that is, there are occasions that they is used to refer to "money" (as in Clause g and Clause h). In this instance, the reader can still understand the referent based on the context. For the reference chains, the fact that the three main chains — "money", "knowledge" and "you" — span the whole text
portrays the interaction between them in organising the contrastive meaning in this
text.

In the unsuccessful EFL text (K2), the writer only used 'elaboration' in the
introductory stage when he/she attempted to establish the context for the text. However, in the 'evidence' stage, the writer does not employ any apposition to elaborate on the new information. Instead, all conjunctive relations are either extension or enhancement, which repeatedly provide New information in the text. The fact that no apposition is used for clarity makes the New information look groundless, and even hard to follow.

In the lexical strings, the use of two significant strings (i.e. "knowledge" and "people") show that the text progresses in terms of the relationship between "people" and "knowledge". Meanwhile, the rest of the strings do not seem to co-ordinate with them all the time: they either seldom appear (such as "think" and "life") or appear locally (such as "money"). Since each clause gives a new message with reference to "people" and "knowledge" from different angles without elaborating on it, the lexical items used in each local clause do not relate to other clauses and cannot form the lexical strings for the text, that is to say, there is no interaction at the textual level. As for the "valuable" string, given that its presence is only for the purpose of "judgement", it does not contribute to the text development very much. For the "money" string, it is supposed to make a contrastive meaning with "knowledge", yet it does not. Therefore, the use of this string is not necessary. In terms of the lexical devices in this text, apart from repetition, meronymy and collocation are used. The use of these devices contributes to the local clause rather than to the progress of the whole text.

In the reference chains, there is only one long chain, "knowledge", which concerns the evidence paragraph. To make the text proceed, one chain is not sufficient.

As far as substitution and ellipsis are concerned, the Australian text does not use much. Only Text K6 (the successful EFL text) has one use of substitution. As
for ellipsis, Text K6 has one such example and Text K2 has several employments. In both cases the writers merely repeat the elliptical structure in the topic title in which an identifier (for "what is the most important") is omitted — a nominal ellipsis. However, in the case of Text K2, another use of ellipsis is a clausal ellipsis in Clause d (The more money they have, the better). Nevertheless, the use of substitution and ellipsis is not significant in either text.

6.2.2 "As an Australian/Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?"

6.2.2.1 A successful Australian student’s text: Text AP9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thesis</strong> (Clause a)</td>
<td>a/ Politics is important within modern societies at 3 levels: the federal, state/provincial and municipal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evidence</strong> (Clauses b–e)</td>
<td>b/ At the municipal level, interest groups promote their concerns through councils, committees and city government. c/ The focus of their purpose is on matters like building codes, city laws and orders, property taxes and the like. d/ At the state level, politics and state government concern themselves with broader issues like inner-city transportation (roads), environmental issues, public health and the like. e/ In continuing with the ever widening political focus, the federal government and its political bodies, are in charge of national defence, international diplomacy and similar broad issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong> (Clauses f–g)</td>
<td>f/ At all these levels, political figures are frequently elected g/ and within this process, the lobbying for political advantage, lies the heart of whatever politics.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.4 Generic Stages in Text AP9

Text AP9 is a single paragraph text with seven clauses. It has three generic stages.
Conjunction

<Thesis>
a) Politics is important within modern societies at 3 levels: the federal, state/provincial and municipal.

<Evidence>
b) At the municipal level, interest groups promote their concerns through councils, committees and city government.

c) The focus of their purpose is on matters like building codes, city laws and orders, property taxes and the like.

d) At the state level, politics and state government concern themselves with broader issues like inter-city transportation (roads), environmental issues, public health and the like.

e) In continuing with the ever widening political focus, the federal government and its political bodies, are in charge of national defence, international diplomacy and similar broad issues.

<Conclusion>
f) At all these levels, political figures are frequently elected

g) and within this process, the lobbying for political advantage, lies the heart of whatever politics.

Figure 6.9 Conjunction in Text AP9

As displayed in Figure 6.9, Text AP9 uses only one explicit conjunction (i.e. Clause g). It relies more on prepositional phrases to show the logical relations between clauses. In fact, the impetus to develop the text using prepositional phrases is foreshadowed in Clause a, the 'thesis' Politics is important within modern societies at three levels: the federal, state/provincial and municipal — which prompts the writer to elaborate on the functions at each level, using prepositional phrases.

The only exceptional clause is Clause c which does not employ any prepositional phrase nor explicit conjunction to link with the previous clauses. Nevertheless, since the
message conveyed in Clause c adds new information to Clause b, Clause c is an extension of Clause b.

**Lexical cohesion**

As displayed in Figure 6.10, four strings are formed in this text: the "politics" string (String 1), the "level" string (String 2), the "government" string (String 3) and the "matter/issue" string (String 4). The text describes the importance of politics at three levels, and introduces the function of politics at each level being closely related to the government of this level. For this reason, the abstract notions such as "politics" and "government" are unfolded into several aspects at each level. Therefore, repetition of single lexical items is rarely used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>1 Politics</th>
<th>2 Level</th>
<th>3 Government</th>
<th>4 Matter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Thesis (a)</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>levels, federal, state/provincial, municipal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td>interest group, interest group's (they), the municipal level</td>
<td>city government</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>Evidence (b-e)</td>
<td>interest group's (they)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>matters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>the state level</td>
<td>state government</td>
<td>issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td>widening political focus, political bodies</td>
<td>the federal government</td>
<td>issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
<td>political figured</td>
<td>the three levels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>Conclusion (f-g)</td>
<td>political figures, the lobbying, political advantages, politics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6.10** Lexical Cohesion in Text AP9
In the "politics" string, similar to Text AP7, *politics* is more likely to be found within a nominal group instead of being repeated as a single lexical item. For example, *widening political focus* and *political bodies* (in Clause e); *political figures* and *political advantages* in Clause g.

In the "government" string, each item contributes to the specific level of politics. In this case, it is closely related to String 1 ("politics") and String 2 ("level"). All items in the "government" string are in collocation with "government". The same also applies to the "level" string.

In the "matter" string (String 4), the formation is simple: a repetition of *issues* and *matters*, both items forming a relationship of synonymy.

In addition to the four strings displayed in Table 6.8, many other lexical items are also employed in describing the functions in each specific level of politics. For example, *councils, committees, city government* and *city laws* at the "municipal" level; *inter-city transportation (roads), environmental issues* and *public health* at the "state" level; *national defence and international diplomacy* at the "federal" level. All these choices of lexical items are closely relevant to the context.

**Reference**

Diagrammed in Figure 6.11, there is not a long reference chain which starts from the beginning and covers most of the clauses in this text. The only longer chain is the "matter/issue" (*matter – broader issues – the ever widening political focus*). *Broader issues* (Clause d) is a comparative reference to *matters* in Clause c, followed by *the ever widening political focus* with the definite article helping form the reference for the referent *broader issues*. 
Generally, in Text AP9, most reference is concerned with the definite article. In addition, there is one employment of the demonstrative this. In Clause g, this refers back to the whole of Clause f (At all these levels, political figures are frequently elected).

Moreover, there are several instances of employment of cataphoric references (with the) within the same clause. For example, in Clause g, the lobbying for political advantages and the heart of whatever politics.
Substitution and ellipsis

One type of substitution used is *the like* in Clause d and Clause e which substitutes for the previous elements in the same clause. Three nominal elliptical structures are applied (i.e. *the federal, state/provincial and municipal* in Clause a).

### 6.2.2.2 A successful Chinese EFL text: Text P10

"Economics is more important"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction (Clauses a–e)</td>
<td>a/ Politics is an important thing in all the world. b/ But in China it went too far especially in the past. c/ Politics has been put above all the other things. d/ No one dares to say that he thinks politics is of no use or unimportance. e/ During the past 15 years with policy of reform and opening, Chinese people pay more attention to economy than politics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thesis (Clause f)</td>
<td>f/ I, as one of the Chinese citizens, think it is a good thing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Evidence (Clauses g–h)</td>
<td>g/ For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better life. h/ The improvement of the life quality reflects the progress of the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conclusion (Clauses i–j)</td>
<td>i/ We have wasted too many years in talking politics. j/ Now how can we still do it again.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5 Generic Stages in Text P10

Text P10 consists of 10 clauses and four generic stages.

### Conjunction

<Introduction>

a) Politics is an important thing in all the world.

b) But in China it went too far especially in the past. (Adversative)

c) Politics has been put above all the other things. (Apposition)
d) ∅ No one dares to say that he thinks politics is of no use or unimportance. (Causal)

e) During the past 15 years with policy of reform and opening, Chinese people pay more attention to economy than politics.

<Thesis>
f) I, as one of the Chinese citizens, think it is a good thing.

<Evidence>
g) For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the (Causal) nation is to let his people a better life.

h) ∅ The improvement of the life quality reflects the progress of the country. (Causal)

<Conclusion>
i) ∅ We have wasted too many years in talking politics. (Causal)

j) Now how can we still do it again? (Temporal)

Figure 6.12 Conjunction in Text P10

Despite the fact that there is no explicit conjunction between the generic stages, the reader does not feel an abrupt change with a new stage.

In the introductory stage, two implicit conjunctive structures are used (Clause c and Clause d). Clause c elaborates on Clause b, and Clause d expresses the consequence of Clause c. The introductory stage recalls what happened in China in the past and describes the changes today. The "past" and the "present" experiences are linked in a temporal succession. This connection is regarded as an external conjunctive structure by Halliday (1994). That is, the text is organised based on the real world. By contrast, an internal conjunctive structure is organised rhetorically. According to Eggins (1994), "the external conjunctive structure of the text realises experiential meanings, while the internal conjunctive structure realises textual meanings" (p. 108).
In the 'evidence' stage, Clause h applies an implicit conjunctive structure, a causal one which enhances Clause g, meaning "because". With regard to Clause g, the application of an explicit conjunctive structure (causal) is not appropriate in essay writing since a subordinate structure cannot stand alone (For I think, wherever in the world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better life).

The two clauses which form the concluding stage (Clauses i–j), by looking retrospectively to the past mentioned in the introductory stage and prospectively to the present, are also in an external conjunctive structure, as indicated by the temporal conjunctive Now in Clause j. Generally speaking, all clauses in Text P10 construct conjunctive relations clearly and appropriately with the exception of Clause g.

Lexical cohesion

The lexical strings in Text P10 are diagrammed in Figure 6.13. Three strings run through the text: "politics" (String 1), "people" (String 4), and "time" (String 5).

In the "politics" string, in addition to the repetition of politics (Clause c, Clause d and Clause f), some collocations are used. For example, policy (in Clause e) and party (in Clause g) form a semantic relationship of expectancy with "politics". And also from Clause e, the presence of the "economy" string (String 2) changes the dominant position of "politics" as the focus.

In the concluding stage (Clauses i–j), the expression of talking politics (in Clause i) is a literal translation from a Chinese idiom meaning "being keen on politics at expense of economics". By using this expression, the topic of politics is still maintained. However, the use of this literally translated English expression is not a good choice in the context of English writing.

In the "economy" string, other than repetition of economy, collocation is also the main cohesive device. For example, better life (Clause g) and life quality (Clause h). They both are in collocation with "economy". This use of collocation shows that
the abstract notion of politics unfolds into specific aspects, thus helping enrich the content of the text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Generic stage</th>
<th>1 Politics</th>
<th>2 Economy</th>
<th>3 Place</th>
<th>4 People</th>
<th>5 Time</th>
<th>6 Think</th>
<th>7 Assess-ment</th>
<th>8 Thing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td>politics</td>
<td></td>
<td>world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>important</td>
<td>thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
<td>past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td></td>
<td>politics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td>politics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>think</td>
<td>unimportant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>economy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese citizen (No one)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>Thesis</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>economy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>think</td>
<td>thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td>party</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>important</td>
<td>think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>talking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese many years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td>talking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese Now</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6.13** Lexical Cohesion of Text P10
The frequent reference to "time" indicates that the text is organised chronologically. In the "place" string (String 3), apart from using the repetition of world (in Clause a and Clause g), several other cohesive devices are employed. For example, country (in Clause h) and nation (in Clause g) form the relationship of synonymy and they both are in collocation with world (in Clause a and Clause g). China in Clause b is the hyponym of country and nation.

In the "people" string (String 4), more repetitions of Chinese people are employed than other devices. Moreover, citizen is a near-synonym to people.

In the "time" string (String 5), past and now form the relationship of antonymy which indicates a contrast between the past and the present. Both items are in collocation with year.

The formation of the "think" string (String 6) is simple as the writer only repeated the same item think.

In the "assessment" string (String 7), one lexical device is employed: important (Clause a and Clause g) and unimportant (Clause d) are antonyms.

With regard to the "thing" string (String 8), the only lexical device employed is repetition (thing/things). Since thing is a general lexical item, the overuse of it can make the text unsatisfying.

In general, the writer of P10 appears to be more expert than many other Chinese EFL students in this study in employing lexical devices.

Reference

There are eight lexical chains, most of which are short. In the "politics" chain (Chain 1), it in Clause b refers anaphorically to politics in Clause a. Similarly, it in Clause j refers back to talking politics in Clause i. In the "economy" chain (Chain 4), only one reference it (in Clause f) is used to refer back to economy in Clause e. In fact, it refers back to Clause e (Chinese people pay more attention to economy than politics). Because in this clause, both politics and economy are mentioned, it in
Clause f refers to both of them. Both "economy" and "politics" reference chains (the two topic entities in this text) are short since the two abstract notions are unfolded into more specific aspects by using lexical devices rather than reference.

With regard to the two comparative references in Chain 2 (i.e. the other things and the most important thing), the former one the other things does not have a referent in the text. It has a situational referent, however, and therefore is exophoric (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The latter one the most important thing is a superlative comparative which means "more important than any other things". According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 82), superlatives are "non-referential" because they are "self-defining".

A cataphoric reference is employed: Chain 5. As far as Chain 5 is concerned, the reader can understand the comparative reference more attention by reverting back to the item "attention" which in fact is not used in this text. Clause e (Chinese people pay more attention to economy than politics) is a comparative clause. Halliday and Hasan (1976) believed that this type of reference is cataphoric. In Clause f (I, as one of the Chinese citizens...), the personal reference I is used exophorically.

Similar to Chain 5, Chain 3 is also formed by the references within the same sentence (Clause d — No one dares to say that he thinks politics is of no use or unimportance). No one is used exophorically because there is no referent to it. He refers anaphorically to No one.

Another exophoric example is in Chain 7 (a better life in Clause g).

It needs to be observed that not all the reference in Text P10 is displayed in Figure 6.9 due to the limited space on the page. For example, in the past in Clause b, during the past 15 years (in Clause e) and now (in Clause j) also form a chain which Halliday (1985a) regarded as locational reference. Locational reference identifies a location in time or space. Moreover, the text also uses some definite articles. For example, in the party or the nation (Clause g), neither the party nor the nation can be retrieved from the text. It is clear that by the party, the writer means "the elected
politics party" where the is needed. The latter one The nation is used to represent the whole class (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Figure 6.14 Reference in Text P10
Substitution and ellipsis

There is one employment of substitution: In Clause j (Now how can we still do 
it again?), do substitutes for a verbal phrase in Clause i (... have wasted too many 
years in...).

The writer also uses an elliptical clause (i.e. Clause g — ...wherever in the 
world, the most important thing to the party or the nation is to let his people a better 
life). The omitted part is a clause. The complete clause should be: "(wherever) we are/ 
people are" in the world.

6.2.2.3 An unsuccessful Chinese EFL text: Text P1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Thesis (Clauses a–b)</td>
<td>a/ As you know, we are Chinese. b/ So I think politics important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Evidence 1 (Clauses c–j)</td>
<td>c/ First, the People's Republic of China was built by politics. d/ It depends on power. e/ As long as our country is controlled by power, f/ it can be developing and rich. g/ Because our country is so large, h/ and has so many people. i/ If they were not controlled, j/ China would be like the sand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Evidence 2 (Clauses k–n)</td>
<td>k/ Second, politics in China are a kind of weapon. l/ When we have them, m/ we can do many things we want. n/ We can use it to survive an enterprise, to do some things benefit for people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conclusion (Clauses 0–q)</td>
<td>o/ So I think in China politics is important. p/ If we can use them rightly, q/ we will be proud of our country.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.6 Generic Stages in Text P1

Text P1 contains 17 clauses. It has three generic stages.
Conjunction

<Thesis>
a) As you know, we are Chinese.  
(Manner)
b) So I think politics important.  
(Causal)

<Evidence 1>
c) First, the People's Republic of China was built by politics.  
(Sequential)
d) Ø It depends on power.  
(Apposition)
e) As long as our country is controlled by power,  
(Conditional)
f) Ø it can be developing and rich.
g) Because our country is so large,  
(Causal)
h) and has so many people  
(Additive)
i) If they were not controlled,  
(Conditional)
j) Ø China would be like the sand.

<Evidence 2>
k) Second, politics in China are a kind of weapon.  
(Sequential)
l) When we have them,  
(Temporal)
m) Ø we can do many things we want.

n) Ø We can use it to survive an enterprise, to do some things benefit for people.  
(Apposition)

<Conclusion>
o) So I think in China politics is important.  
(Causal)
p) If we can use them rightly,  
(Conditional)
q) Ø we will be proud of our country.

Figure 6.15 Conjunction in Text P1
The introductory stage (Clauses a–b) starts with a conjunctive adjunct \textit{As}, which introduces a non-defining relative clause, the antecedent (\textit{we are Chinese}) being inferred. \textit{As you know} is treated as a single element and is used for the purpose of confirming the fact that "we are Chinese". The conjunction \textit{So} in Clause b signals a strong cause-effect relation with Clause a and anticipates the following part to provide the reasons.

The rest of the text develops by an internal succession. That is, the message is organised based on rhetoric purpose rather than the real situation by using \textit{First}, \textit{second} (Halliday, 1994). In the 'evidence' stage, Clause d (\textit{It depends on power}) uses an implicit conjunction. Clause d is an elaboration to Clause c. With regard to Clause g and Clause h which provide the reason for Clause i and Clause j, they both are dependent clauses and should not stand alone. The four clauses are displayed in Example 6.2.

Example 6.2

\begin{enumerate}
  \item g) Because our country is so large
  \item h) and has so many people.
  \item i) If they are not controlled,
  \item j) China will be like the sand.
\end{enumerate}

A change of the sequence between Clause i and Clause j may improve the expression (see Example 6.3).

Example 6.3

\begin{enumerate}
  \item g) Because our country is so large
  \item h) and has so many people,
  \item i) China will be like sand
  \item j) if they are not controlled.
\end{enumerate}

As mentioned in Chapter 5, this type of non-English expression in Example 6.2 is due to a transference from the Chinese expression to English.

In the concluding stage, \textit{So} recalls the evidence given above, which in a sense corresponds to the same conjunction in Clause b (for the prospective purpose). This repetitive use of the same conjunctive is unnecessary.
Lexical cohesion

As displayed in Figure 6.16, there are seven lexical strings in Text P1. Three strings range from the beginning to the end: "Chinese" (String 1), "China" (String 2) and "politics" (String 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ClauseGeneric Stage</th>
<th>1 Chinese</th>
<th>2 China</th>
<th>3 Politics</th>
<th>4 Important</th>
<th>5 Power</th>
<th>6 Thing</th>
<th>7 Weapon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Thesis</td>
<td>Chinese 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese citizen</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>Eviden ce 1</td>
<td>the People's Republic of China</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
<td>power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td>our country</td>
<td>power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td>our country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td>many people</td>
<td>our country</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>people</td>
<td>China</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>Eviden ce 2</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>weapon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese people</td>
<td>weapon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese people (2)</td>
<td>many things</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese people, China</td>
<td>something to benefit</td>
<td>people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>Chinese citizen</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td>important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese people</td>
<td>our country</td>
<td>politics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.16 Lexical Cohesion in Text P1
The "Chinese" string and the "China" string complement each other in the text. In other words, all clauses are either "China/Chinese" related or both are involved. Regarding the lexical devices employed, there is a tendency to use repetition in all strings except the "thing" string (String 6).

The "Chinese" string (String 1) also employs a near-synonym (citizen–people). String 2 (China) repeats the hyponym of "country" and "China"). Unlike the other strings, the "thing" string (String 6) is formed by a list of lexical items which do not create any semantic relationship among themselves. This is common because all these elements are from different examples cited by the writer.

As for the "weapon" string (String 7), only repetition of weapon is used in Clause k, Clause l and Clause n.

Reference

Reference in Text P1 is diagrammed in Figure 6.17. Most of the references are of the anaphoric type except for one case: the sand in Clause j is used as exophoric reference. In fact, the use of the definite article the in the sand is not necessary. Another employment of exophoric reference which is not included in this figure is the frequent use of we/our.

As far as the anaphoric reference is concerned, two errors occur. In Clause l, them refers back to a kind of weapon in Clause k and should be replaced by It. However in Clause n the writer chooses it for the same referent weapon, which is correct.

Another example regarding the reference choice lies in Clause p where them should not be used to refer anaphorically to politics. With reference to Chain 4 (referring to "politics"), although it is a long chain (which covers the whole text), there is only one anaphoric reference due to the fact that repetition of politics dominates the chain.
(exo = exophoric reference; the rest of references are all anaphoric references)

Figure 6.17 Reference in Text P1
Substitution and ellipsis

There is no employment of substitution. One nominal ellipsis is used: In Clause h *(and has so many people)*, the subject *our country* is omitted.

6.2.2.4 Interpretive summary of the texts on "As an Australian/Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?"

The Australian text (Text AP9) does not use many explicit conjunctions. Instead, it frequently uses prepositional phrases which appears to make the information more condensed, thus making the text more sophisticated. The Chinese EFL texts tends to use more explicit conjunctions. Regarding the conjunctive relations in the successful Chinese text (Text P10), each clause is connected clearly and logically. Together with extension and enhancement, elaboration is also used, thus clarifying the new information. With reference to the lexical cohesion in the Australian text, it is likely to use collocation and synonymy rather than repetitions. In the Chinese successful text (Text P10), the appearance of several chains simultaneously reflects the interaction among the chains. Different lexical devices are used effectively: collocation, antonymy, synonymy, and near-synonymy. This use of different lexical devices is similar to its Australian counterpart. One difference between this successful EFL text and the Australian text is the former one uses more repetitions than the latter one. As far as the reference chains are concerned, all the chains are short in the Australian text. In the successful EFL, only the "politics" chain covers the whole text. Both texts use cataphoric and anaphoric (including comparative). The difference between the two texts is that the Chinese successful text tends to use exophoric reference, whereas the Australian text does not. The use of exophoric reference may cause comprehension difficulty for the reader.

In the unsuccessful EFL text, conjunctions were not all the time effectively used, such as Clause a and Clause g. Despite the fact that this writer tries to use some apposition to elaborate on the new information, the text still proves difficult to follow,
especially in the second paragraph: The writer fails to explain the reason why politics is useful as a "weapon".

The lexical strings themselves do not seem to create any problem. The problem lies instead in the lexical choice: The writer does not have a great range of vocabulary. The use of *weapon* as a metaphor is accepted in the Chinese language in the same situation; however it is not appropriate in English. As for the lexical devices in this text, synonymy, hyponymy and near-synonymy are used.

The writer also had the problem in using reference. In Clause 1, "them" should not be used to refer to "a kind of weapon".

The Australian text uses some substitutions and elliptical structures. The employment of both devices makes this text sophisticated. The use of substitution and ellipsis is not significant in either of the Chinese texts: There is one employment for each device (i.e. a verbal substitution and a clausal ellipsis) in the successful EFL text (Text P10); as for the unsuccessful EFL text (Text P1), there is no use of substitution, and only one employment of ellipsis.

(The following analyses do not have the Australian texts as reference)
"Reading does not help much"

A successful Chinese EFL text: Text R3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Thesis</strong></td>
<td>a/ Nobody can say that reading does not help much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Clause a)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Evidence</strong></td>
<td>b/ People who cannot read have little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world. c/ This knowledge has accumulated over the centuries largely thanks to the ability of humans to write, and then to read the information. d/ The knowledge we can gain from reading can be in any area or subject known to humanity. e/ It can be &quot;pure&quot; science or abstract, theoretical knowledge, f/ or it can be a much more practical day-to-day knowledge like a recorder or what time the next bus to town leaves. g/ People can also gain much knowledge about emotions and how to &quot;get along&quot; with their fellows. h/ Much of this sort of understanding of how other people experience the world can be gained from the reading of literature. i/ By reading literature people can experience situations and emotions at second hand. j/ That is, they can feel the sadness of families separated by war k/ even if they have never experienced this themselves. l/ As well as this ability to experience things of course much factual knowledge, such as how to build a house, or a bomb, can be gained from reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Clauses b–l)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Conclusion</strong></td>
<td>m/ So it cannot be said that reading does not help much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Clause m)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.7 Generic Stages in Text R3

Text R3 includes 13 clauses.

Conjunction

*<Thesis>*

a) Nobody can say that reading does not help much.

*<Evidence>*

b) Ø People who cannot read have very little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world.
c) ∅ This knowledge has accumulated over the centuries largely thanks to the ability (Apposition) of humans to write, and then to read the information.

d) ∅ The knowledge we can gain from reading can be in any area or subject (Additive) known to humanity.

e) ∅ It can be "pure" science or abstract, theoretical knowledge, (Apposition)

f) or it can be a much more practical day-to-day knowledge like a recipe or what time (Additive) the next bus to town leaves.

g) ∅ People can also gain much knowledge about emotions and how to "get along" (Additive) with their fellows.

h) ∅ Much of this sort of understanding of how other people experience the (Causal) world can be gained from the reading of literature.

i) ∅ By reading literature people can experience situations and emotions at second (Manner) hand.

j) That is, they can feel the sadness of families separated by war (Apposition)

k) even if they have never experienced this themselves. (Conditional)

l) ∅ As well as this ability to experience things of course much factual knowledge, (Additive) such as job to build a house, or a bomb, can be gained from reading.

<Conclusion>
m) So it cannot be said that reading does not help much. (Causal)

Figure 6.18 Conjunction in Text R3

Clause a is the thesis of the text which expects the following part to support its point of view. Although there is no explicit conjunctive from Clause a to Clause e,
the logical relations are clearly indicated through other cohesive devices. Clause b (people who cannot read have very little access to the vast store of knowledge in the world) enhances Clause a (Nobody can say that reading cannot help much) by providing the reason for the point of view made in Clause a. Clause b maintains "people" as the topic like Clause a and also repeats read (reading in clause a). Meanwhile, Knowledge which is introduced as New in Clause b is also in the same semantic field (collocation) with reading. Therefore, Clause a and Clause b are related through lexical devices.

Signalled by the reference This (which repeats knowledge and keeps "reading" as the topic), Clause c elaborates on the source of "knowledge" ("Knowledge" was put forward in Clause b). Clause d adds some new information to the text — to introduce the domain of knowledge which people can gain from reading, followed by Clause e and Clause f (with the employment of or signalling an alternative meaning) to clarify the domain. The conjunctive or in Clause f indicates an additional meaning to Clause e. Neither of Clause g, Clause h and Clause i employs any explicit conjunctive. In Clause g, the adverb also shows an additive meaning to Clause f followed by introducing another sort of knowledge which can be gained from reading.

Clause h enhances Clause g about where people can gain this sort of knowledge. Clause i, starting with a prepositional phrase By reading literature which also functions as a connector to the previous clause, is an enhancement of Clause h. In Clause j, the conjunction That is signals an elaboration on Clause i. Clause k, started with even if as an opener (a concession which is also under the category of condition), is the dependent clause of Clause j. Clause l, using a prepositional phrase As well as to connect the new message of this clause to the Given, is an extension to Clause k. Clause m, an enhancement, is the concluding clause to the whole text. The conjunction So shows a causal relationship between the conclusion and the previous supporting evidence.
Lexical cohesion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Generic Stages</th>
<th>1 People</th>
<th>2 Reading</th>
<th>3 Knowledge</th>
<th>4 Experience</th>
<th>5 Gain</th>
<th>6 Help</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Thesis (a)</td>
<td>Nobody</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td>people</td>
<td>read</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>access</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td></td>
<td>humans</td>
<td>to write, to read the information</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td>people (we)</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>subject, area</td>
<td>gain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>Evidence (b–l)</td>
<td></td>
<td>knowledge, pure science, abstract theoretical knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>knowledge (it), day-to-day knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td>people, fellows</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>emotion</td>
<td>gain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td>other people</td>
<td>reading of literature</td>
<td>understanding</td>
<td>experience</td>
<td>gain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>people</td>
<td>by reading literature</td>
<td>experience, emotions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td>people (they), families</td>
<td></td>
<td>sadness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td>people (they)</td>
<td>reading factual knowledge</td>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>Conclusion (m)</td>
<td></td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.19 Lexical Cohesion in Text R3

It appears that in Text R3, the use of lexical devices and references compensates for the lack of explicit conjunctives.
As shown in Figure 6.19, there are six lexical strings in Text R3. Four strings cover the whole text: the "people" string (String 1), the "reading" string (String 2), the "knowledge" string (String 3), and the "gain" string (String 5). The "people" string carries the meaning of what people do with the knowledge they have. The lexical devices used to form this string are: the repetition of people, synonyms (i.e. people and fellow), collocation (i.e. people and family) and synonym (i.e. people and humans).

The "reading" string and the "knowledge" string are used alternately as the topic in each clause. Although both "knowledge" and "reading" are broad topics, each of these two strings constitutes specific aspects involving the broad topic, thus indicating the unfolding of each topic. For example, in the "reading" string, to read the information in Clause c and reading of the literature in Clause h and by reading literature in Clause i are all related to "reading".

The "knowledge" string also consists of some specific subjects or areas relating "knowledge", such as any subject and area in Clause d; pure science or abstract theoretical knowledge in Clause e, day-to-day knowledge in Clause f and factual knowledge in Clause l. In the "knowledge" string, the main lexical device is collocation. In the "gain" string (another string which also covers the text whole), except for access which is in collocation with gain, all items are the repetition of gain. Gain is closely related with "knowledge".

As far as the "experience" string (String 4) is concerned, its presence in this text is localised. Its function is to help exemplify a specific knowledge — "emotional knowledge". With reference to the formation of this string, collocation is used such as emotion, emotions and sadness.

Regarding the "help" string (String 6), it only occurs at the first (in Clause a) and at the end (Clause m) for helping form the thesis as well as the conclusion (that is, to restate the viewpoint).
Reference

Reference used in Text R3 is displayed in Figure 6.20. There is no specific labelling for anaphoric references in the figure because most of the references are of this type. Only the references which are not anaphoric are labelled in this figure.

Evidence

Thesis
a) Nobody

Evidence
b) knowledge

c) humans this knowledge
d) we the knowledge (cata) The knowledge we can gain from reading
e) it
f) it
g) people knowledge

their (bridging)
h) other people this sort of understanding the reading of literature (cata)
i) people

j) they

k) they

l) Conclusion
m)

(exo = exophoric reference; cata = cataphoric reference; bridging = bridging reference)

Figure 6.20 Reference in Text R3
The analysis of referential cohesion reinforces what can be seen in the analysis of lexical cohesion. It is understood that in many clauses the use of repetition and other cohesive devices minimises the requirement of reference. Even within the longer reference chains such as Chain 1 ("people") and Chain 2 ("knowledge"), there are several "branches", that is, not all the reference items have the same referent (sub-chain). For example, in Chain 1, Nobody is an exophoric reference. We in Clause d refers back to humans in clause c. The tie between we and humans is not related to the following tie: other people (in Clause h) — their and people (both in Clause g). This use of sub-chains within the same reference chains also applies to the "knowledge" chain. It is found that each sub-chain correlates to each specific example cited in the text.

Another feature regarding reference in this text is the variety of reference being employed. In addition to the anaphoric and exophoric references, there are cataphoric and bridging references.

The two cataphoric references occurring in this text involve using the definite article "the" such as the knowledge we can gain from reading in Clause d and the reading of literature in Clause h. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), in this type of cataphoric structures, the "only refers to a modifying element within the same nominal group as itself" (p. 72).

Regarding bridging reference, unlike anaphoric reference which has a one-to-one referential relation to the referent mentioned before in the text, it is "a presuming reference item" which "refers back to an early item from which it can be inferentially derived" (Eggins, 1994: 98). In this text, there are two examples of bridging references. (1) Much of this sort of understanding of how other people... (in Clause h) refers back to the information given earlier as the summary. (2) ...this ability to experience things also refers anaphorically to the series of messages outlined rather than one specific item. Bridging reference is realised in nominalisation through summarising the whole message. Compared with anaphoric reference, bridging reference tends to package more information.
The skilful employment of different reference types shows that the writer of Text R3 has a comparatively successful mastery of reference.

Substitution and ellipsis

There is no employment of substitution and ellipsis.

6.2.3.2 An unsuccessful Chinese EFL text: Text R2

Text R2 is an unsuccessful text in that the text, instead of taking "reading" as a general topic, talks about reading in terms of learning English. The cohesive analysis shows that the writer developed inappropriate (context-wise) lexical strings in relation to the context.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction (a–c)</td>
<td>a/ Some people think that reading does not help much, b/ and studying vocabulary is very useful to learn English. c/ But I don’t agree with this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thesis (d)</td>
<td>d/ I think it is very important to read in learning English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Evidence (e–g)</td>
<td>e/ Because language is spoken by people, f/ and the true meaning of word is expressed through the text or a sentence. g/ reading the whole text to get the true meaning is a good way to learn English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conclusion (h–i)</td>
<td>h/ The main way that I learn English is reading. i/ Reading does help much in learning English for me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.8 Generic Stages in Text R2

Text R2 contains nine clauses and has four generic stages.

Conjunction

<Introduction>

a) Some people think that reading does not help much

b) and studying vocabulary is very useful to learn English,

(Additive)
c) but I don't agree with this.  
(Adversative)

<Thesis>

d) Ø I think it is very important to read in learning English.  
(Apposition)

<Evidence>

e) Because language is spoken by people,  
(Causal)

f) and the true meaning of word is expressed through the text or a sentence,  
(Additive)

g) α reading the whole text to get the true meaning is a good way to learn English.

<Conclusion>

h) The main way that I learn English is reading.

i) Ø Reading does help much in learning English for me.  
(Additive)

Figure 6.21 Conjunction in Text R2

Text R2 employs five explicit conjunctives. In Clause b, the use of the additive and is not appropriate because the meaning of Clause b is in contrast with that of Clause a. It would be relevant to replace and with "but" — an adversative additive.

Lexical cohesion

Lexical strings of Text R2 are displayed in Figure 6.22. Four strings cover the whole text: the "people" string (String 1), the "reading" string (String 2), the "language" string (String 4) and the "learn" string (String 5). The "reading" string, the "language" string and the "learn" string show that the field of this text involves language learning.

The content in the "people" string only concerns "people" and "I/me" (the writer). The repetition of people is used. The frequent employment of I (including one example of me) shows that the text is personal in nature.

In the "reading" string, the only lexical device used to form this string is the repetition of reading (or read). In the "language" string, more lexical devices are employed compared with other strings. In addition to repetition (i.e. vocabulary,
English, the true meaning), other devices include the hyponym of English for language; the meronym of vocabulary, words, sentence and text to language; and the collocation of meaning and language. The devices used in the formation of the "learn" string are the repetition of learning/learn, the repetition of way (i.e. the learning method) and the synonym of learn and study.

The rest of the strings are short. In the "help" string (String 3), help is used twice (by repetition) — in Clause a (the first clause) and in Clause i (the last clause). In the "important" string (String 6), all the three lexical items (useful, important and main) are near-synonyms. In the last string, one repetition of think is used. Another word agree is the near-synonym of think.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>1 People</th>
<th>2 Reading</th>
<th>3 Help</th>
<th>4 Language</th>
<th>5 Learn</th>
<th>6 Important</th>
<th>7 Think</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vocabulary,</td>
<td>studying,</td>
<td>useful</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>learn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>Thesis</td>
<td>writer</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>vocabulary,</td>
<td></td>
<td>agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>(I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td>writer</td>
<td>read</td>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>learning</td>
<td>important</td>
<td>think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
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<td>reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>learn,</td>
<td>main</td>
<td>way</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(h–i)</td>
<td>(I)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>i</td>
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<td>help</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(me)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

**Figure 6.22** Lexical Cohesion in Text R2
Most of the references are anaphoric. In Clause c, the reference *this* refers back to both Clause a and Clause b. Other references are all demonstratives by using the definite article *the*. In *the true meaning of word* (Clause f), the definite article *the* refers cataphorically to *word*. In Clause g, *the true meaning* refers back to the same item in Clause f. In Clause f, the definite article *the* (in *the text*) is used exophorically since there is no referent in the text. Then in Clause g, *the* (in *the whole text*) refers back to *the text* in Clause f. Another example of using *the* is in Clause h: *the main way* refers anaphorically to *a good way* in Clause g.
Substitution and ellipsis

There is no employment of substitution and ellipsis in Text R2.

6.2.3.3 Interpretive summary of the texts on "Reading does not help much"

In the successful text (Text R3), the writer does not use many explicit conjunction. However, because the text makes a good use of apposition, extension and enhancement, the message is easy to follow.

Regarding the lexical strings in this text, repetition is not the dominant lexical device used in forming the strings. Because broad issues such as "knowledge" and "reading" are unfolded into specific aspects, it is common that the writer uses collocation, synonymy and hyponymy.

A variety of references are employed — cataphoric, bridging, exophoric and anaphoric— suggesting that the writer has a good mastery of English reference.

In the unsuccessful text (Text R2), the problem in regard to the conjunctive relations is that there is not enough evidence to prove that reading is helpful in learning English. That is, the text requires more elaboration. As far as the lexical strings are concerned, repetition is the dominant device in forming all the strings except for the "language" string. This shows that the writer has limited vocabulary. Even in the "language" string in which other devices are used (i.e. hyponymy, meronymy and collocation), some expressions need rewording such as the true meaning of word. All reference chains are very short (that is, a tie formed between two clauses) with the exception of the first personal pronoun chain I. However, the "I" chain does not contribute to the cohesive relation in the text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The use of short chains shows that there is no consistent concept in this text.

There is no employment of substitution and ellipsis in both texts.
6.2.4 "One should study hard?"

6.2.4.1 A successful Chinese EFL text: Text S6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stages</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Introduction</strong> (Clauses a–b)</td>
<td>a/ Dear friends, what do you think about the time in our university? Just like the Garden of Eden — no pressure, no hard work? b/ You see, it may seem reasonable on the surface,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Thesis</strong> (Clause c)</td>
<td>c/ but actually what we should do is — make good use of our college time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Evidence 1</strong> (Clauses d–g)</td>
<td>d/ Firstly, today we are living in the end of the twentieth century. e/ Time lost will never return. f/ We should devote our college time and energy to our studies, g/ so that we may be able to serve our country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evidence 2</strong> (Clauses h–l)</td>
<td>h/ Secondly, all of us wish for a bright future after graduation. i/ Accomplish this idea means hard work every day. j/ It may be dull and boring, k/ but at the same time it prepare us to compete in the society after graduation, l/ as an old saying tell us: no pains, no gains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evidence 3</strong> (Clauses m–u)</td>
<td>m/ Thirdly, these four years is the best age in life. n/ Each age has its pleasure and pains. o/ The happiest person is the one who enjoys what each age gives him without wasting his time in useless regrets. p/ Make good use of our college time, q/ because we have the most healthy bodies in our life. r/ Since time is invisible, s/ four years may be very short t/ if you neglect it. u/ Those who persist in idleness will never fulfil their ambitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Conclusion</strong> (Clauses v–z4)</td>
<td>v/ In conclusion, we should try best to make good use of these four years. w/ Why do people prefer a telephone than a letter now? x/ Why does fax appear? y/ Why does our country summon us walk quickly? z/ The answer is very simple: time is precious. z1/ Time slips by quickly z2/ and never returns. z3/ Dear friends, if we do well to grasp our life in the Garden of Eden, z4/ fate will smile on us.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.9 Generic Stages in Text S6

Text S6 has 30 clauses and contains four generic stages.
Conjunction

<Introduction>

a) Dear friends, what do you think about the time in our university? Just like the Garden of Eden — no pressure, no hard work?

b) You see, it may seem reasonable on the surface,

<Thesis>

c) but actually what we should do is — make good use of our college time.
   (Adversative)

<Evidence>

d) Firstly, today we are living in the end of the twentieth century.
   (Sequential)

e) Ø Time lost will never return.
   (Additive)

f) Ø We should devote our college time and energy to our studies
   (Causal)

g) so that we may be able to serve our country.
   (Causal)

h) Secondly, all of us wish for a bright future after graduate.
   (Sequential)

i) Ø Accomplish this idea means hard work everyday.
   (Additive)

j) It may be dull and boring,

k) but at the same time it prepare us to compete in the society after graduation,
   (Adversative)

l) as an old saying tells us: no pains, no gains.
   (Manner)

m) Thirdly, these four years is the best age in life.
   (Sequential)

n) Ø Each age has its pleasures and pains.
   (Additive)

o) Ø The happiest person is the one who enjoys what each age gives him
   (Additive)

   without wasting his time in useless regrets.

p) Ø Make good use of our college time,
   (Causal)
q) because we have the most healthy bodies in our life.
   (Causal)

r) Since time is invisible,
   (Causal)

s) four years may be very short

(t) if you neglect it.
   (Conditional)

u) Those who persist in idleness will never fulfil their ambitions.

<Conclusion>

v) In conclusion, we should try our best to make good use of these four years.
   (Sequential)

w) Why do people prefer a telephone than a letter now?
   (Additive)

x) Why does chuang zhen (fax) appear?
   (Additive)

y) Why does our country summon us walk more quickly?
   (Additive)

z) The answer is very simple: time is precious.

   z1) Time slips by quickly
   z2) and never returns.

   z3) Dear friends, if we do well to grasp our life in the Garden of Eden,
       (Conditional)

   z4) fate will smile on us.

Figure 6.24 Conjunction in Text S6

Most of clauses in Text S6 use explicit conjunctions. All the evidence stages are connected to each other in succession by the use of sequential conjunctions (firstly, secondly, thirdly and in conclusion).

There are three sub-evidence generic stages. The first clause in each of the three generic stages functions as the topic sentence to its sub-stage. One interesting phenomenon regarding the three sub-evidence stages is that the first two clauses following the topic sentence in each stage use implicit conjunctive relations. As far as the first two clauses following the topic sentence are concerned, the first one adds
the new information to the topic sentence (the hyper-theme). The second one either
enhances the previous information (e.g. Clause f in Evidence 1), or elaborates on the
previous clause (e.g. Clause j in Evidence 2) or simply adds new information (e.g.
Clause o in Evidence 3).

As far as the conjunctives employed in this text are concerned, there are few
inappropriate uses.

Lexical cohesion

Four main lexical strings are displayed in Figure 6.25: (1) the "study" string,
(2) the "people" string, (3) the "time" string and (4) the "hard work" string. The
"people" string and the "time" string range through the whole text because the text
aims at convincing the fellow students that they should make good use of time while
studying at the university.

In the "people" string, "students" is frequently used (as rendered from the reference
we) with one employment of person and people. In addition, friends is
also used to address the student readers both at the beginning (Clause a) and at the
end (Clause z3). In this case, the main lexical device is repetition. Students and
friends are hyponyms of people.

In the "time" string, there is a high frequency of using either college time or
four years. Both "time" expressions mean exactly the same thing. Therefore, they
are synonyms. Other lexical items also form a semantic relationships with each
other. For example, age and year are synonyms; every day is the meronym of year.
There is one repetition of life. Life is also in collocation with "time".

The rest of two strings (i.e. "study" and "hard time") only cover the first half
of the text. That is, they both occur in the introductory stage (Clauses a–c) and the
three evidence stages (Clauses d–u). In the "study" string, graduation is repeated
twice. Another two items, university and studies are both in collocation with
graduation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>1 Study</th>
<th>2 People</th>
<th>3 Time</th>
<th>4 Hard work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a b</td>
<td>university friends, friends (you), students (our)</td>
<td>time</td>
<td>hard work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>students (we), students' (our)</td>
<td>college time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>Today, the end of 20th century</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e d-g</td>
<td>studies students (we), students' (our x2)</td>
<td>time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f g h</td>
<td>students (us), students (we)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i j k</td>
<td>graduation students (us), students (us)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l m n</td>
<td>every day, hard work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o u</td>
<td>the happiest person (3), the happiest person's</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>students' (our)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>students (we), students' (our)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>students (you)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>students (those), students' (their)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>students (we), students' (our)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>students' (our), students (us)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>these 4 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p q r s t u v w x y</td>
<td>now</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z1 z2 z3 z4</td>
<td>these 4 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z1 z2 z3 z4</td>
<td>time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z1 z2 z3 z4</td>
<td>life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z1 z2 z3 z4</td>
<td>students (us)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.25 Lexical Cohesion in Text S6
As far as the "hard work" string is concerned, it is closely related to the "study" string because they both involve "study". The reason of breaking up this broad subject ("study") into two is that there is a high occurrence of "hard work" in this text and it focuses more on the "effort" that people make. In this string, in addition to the repetition of hard work, pains and gains are also semantically related to hard work in collocation; pains and gains are also antonyms.

One tendency in this text is the overuse of repetition — not only the lexical items, but also some structures. For example, make good use of our college time has been employed three times — in the introductory stage (Clause c), in the 'evidence' stage (Clause p) and in the concluding stage (Clause v). Despite the fact that each occurrence of this element helps serve a different generic purpose, it may be more effective if the writer could change this element to avoid the overuse of repetition.

The four strings mentioned above only include the lexical items which frequently occur in the text. There are many other lexical items which are only present locally. Their presence is also significant in forming the text. Most of the lexical items used locally are linked to the topic in each generic or sub-generic stage. For example, Evidence 2 (Clause h–l) relates the "university study" to the "employment" after the graduation. The vocabulary in this stage includes wish, a bright future, graduation, accomplishing this idea, hard work every day and compete in society after graduation.

Compared with the other EFL students who wrote on the same topic, this writer seems to have a more extensive vocabulary, yet he/she does not make the right choice all the time. For example, in the concluding stage (Clauses v–z), the writer posed three questions (Clauses w–y), two of which (Clauses w and x) do not seem to follow the main topic directly. By the same token, the lexical items used in composing the two questions are not related to the topic of this stage (i.e. try our best to make good use of these four years in Clause v). Here are some of the items in the two questions: prefer, telephone, a letter and fax.
Reference

Reference in Text S6 is diagrammed in Figure 6.25. Most of the references are anaphoric and the chains are very short due to the purpose of local use. The chain which lasts longer than others is the "college time" chain which is realised mostly by these, each and it.

Another type of anaphoric reference present in this text is bridging reference. (As mentioned in Chapter 4, bridging reference is the presumed referent which can be retrieved from the previous information.) For example, this idea in Clause i refers anaphorically to Clause h (... all of us wish for a bright future after graduation). The second example lies in Clause z: the referent of the answer can only be retrieved from the use of interrogatory structures of Clauses w, x and y.

The second type of reference is cataphoric. All are structured by using the definite article the. For example, the happiest person who enjoys... in Clause o; those who persist in idleness in Clause u and the best age in life in Clause m. One common characteristic among these cataphoric references is that the referent is in the same clause.

The third type of reference used in this text is exophoric. For example, the use of our in Clause a does not have a referent within the text. Another example is the society. In fact, the should not be employed. There are frequent uses of exophoric reference such as we/our/you. Since exophoric reference does not contribute much to the text development, Figure 6.25 does not include this kind of reference.
a) friends ← you

b) **Introduction**

c) **Evidence 1**

d) 

e) 

f) 

g) 

h) **Evidence 2**
a bright future after graduation

i) 

j) 

k) 

l) 

m) **Evidence 3**

n) 

o) 

p) 

q) 

r) 

s) 

t) 

u) 

v) 

w) 

x) 

y) 

z) 

z1) 

z2) 

z3) 

z4) 

(exo = exophoric reference; cata = cataphoric reference; Q1 = the question in Clause w; Q2 = the question in Clause x; Q3 = the question in Clause y; bridging ana = bridging anaphoric)

**Figure 6.26** Reference in Text S6
Substitution and ellipsis

There is no application of substitution. However, there is one employment of ellipsis: Following the Wh-question in Clause a, the answer (just like the Garden of Eden — no pressure, no hard work) omits the subject and verb. The complete clause should be: "The time in our university is just like the Garden of Eden".

6.2.4.2 An unsuccessful Chinese EFL text: Text S1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stages</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction (Clauses a–b)</td>
<td>a/ In modern times, it is more competitive for people to obtain an employment. b/ Therefore, those who have got more education have more chances to be employed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence (Clauses c–i)</td>
<td>c/ People must study from childhood. d/ Until he gets into college, e/ he can make a turn. f/ In college, he needs not only study, but also to look for a vocational job in the society. g/ On the one hand, he can make some money for himself h/ and need not be afforded by his parents. i/ On the other hand, he can get some experience in the society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis &amp; Conclusion (Clause j)</td>
<td>j/ So one should study hard.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.10 Generic Stages in Text S1

Text S1 has ten clauses. It includes four generic stages, with 'thesis' and 'conclusion' merging together.

Conjunction

<Introduction>
a) In modern times, it is more competitive for people to obtain an employment.

b) Therefore, those who have got more education have more chances to be (Causal)
employed.

<Evidence>
c) People must study from childhood.

d) Until he get into college,
(Temporal)

e) He can make a turn.

f) In college, he need not only study, but also to look for a vocational job
(Adversative)
in the society.

g) On the one hand, he can make some money for himself
(Additive)
h) and need not be afforded by his parents.
(Additive)
i) On the other hand, he can get some experience in the society.
(Additive)

<Thesis and Conclusion>
j) So one should study hard.
(Causal)

Figure 6.27 Conjunction in Text S1

In the introductory stage, the text begins by summarising the relationship between education and the chance of employment in modern society. The conjunction of Therefore in Clause b indicates a cause-effect connection between the two issues. This stage anticipates the following text to unfold the abstract concept about education and job. Clause c seems to follow this track by adding more information about education. However, the presence of the temporal conjunction until disrupt the expectations of the reader. Clause c and Clause d being together as a clause complex does not seem to make sense in relation to the context. Clause c and Clause d are displayed in Example 6.4.

Example 6.4

c) People must study hard from childhood, d) until he (they) get into college. e) He can make a turn (have a change).
Clause f elaborates on Clause e about what changes are expected in college (*In college, he need not only study, but also to look for a vocational job in the society*). Despite the fact that Clause f does not have an explicit conjunction to connect the previous message, the use of a prepositional phrase *In college* serves this purpose. As far as the message is concerned in the evidence stage, it suggests that college students should look for vocational jobs rather than merely study hard. In this case, the conjunctives used in Clause g (i.e. *on the one hand*) and Clause i (*On the other hand*) are appropriate for this local purpose.

Regarding the concluding stage (Clause j), the message conveyed here returns to the point made in the introduction. However, it does not fall in line with what is supported in the evidence stage. The use of *So* is responsible for this information contradiction because *So* suggests a cause-effect relationship between the present conclusion and what has gone before, meaning "based on what is said, now the conclusion is...". Given the evidence, the viewpoint of this text should be: "One should study hard in childhood". In college one should both study and have a vocational job".

**Lexical cohesion**

As displayed in Figure 6.28, three lexical strings cover the whole text: the "people" string (String 1), the "education" string (String 2) and the "employment" string (String 3). The "people" string and the "education" interact with each other in a sense that "people should study". The lexical devices of these two strings are repetitions of *people* and one use of collocation of *parents for people* in the "people" string. Since *parents* occurs, there is an expectation of *students* which is in collocation with *parents*. However, instead of using *students* when talking about "college study", the writer used a general term *people* all the time. In the "education" string, repetitions of *study* and *college* are employed. Both items, together with *study hard* (in Clause j) are in collocation with *education* in Clause b.
Figure 6.28  
Lexical Cohesion in Text S1

In the "employment" string, as far as the formation of the string is concerned, the lexical items used are employment, chances to be employed, vocational job and experience which all fall into the category of "employment" in collocation. However, in relation to the interaction with the "people" string and the "education" string, the first half of this string (i.e. employment in Clause a, chances to be employed in Clause b) is only involved with the topic about the advantage of having more education in correlation to the possibility of getting a good job. In this sense, the use of employment and chances to be employed contributes to the relevant organisation of the message — the introduction. However, the rest of the "employment" string (i.e. vocational job in Clause f and experience in Clause h) does not maintain the same semantic consistency with the first half string. Here, the topic of the text changes to "looking for a vocation job after entering the college". Consequently, the new topic does not meet the expectation of the reader who wants to know more about
the relationship between more education and the possibility of getting a good job. Similarly, the last two items in the "employment" string also interact with this irrelevant information.

The last string, the "society" string (String 4), is very short as there is only one repetition of the society.

Reference

Reference in Text S1 is diagrammed in Figure 6.28.

Introduction
a) People (cata)
b) those who have got more education have more chances to be employed.

Evidence
c) people
d) he

e) he
f) he

g) he -^ his
h) he
i) he (the society)

j) one Thesis & Conclusion (cata = cataphoric reference; exo = exophoric reference)

Figure 6.29 Reference in Text S1

Only one long reference chain ranges throughout the text — the "people" chain. In this chain, following the occurrence of people in Clause a, those in Clause b refers
anaphorically to *people* in Clause a. *Those* refers cataphorically to *who have got more education* which is also in Clause b. Moreover, Clause b contains two exophoric references: (1) *more education*; (2) *more chances*. Both are comparative references, but neither of them has a referent in the text. Therefore, they are exophorically featured.

In Clause c, *people* recurs followed by successive uses of the referent *he* it in every clause until Clause i. The use of *he*, a singular personal reference, is not grammatically acceptable when employed to refer to "people".

Another reference chain (the "society" chain) is short because it is formed by a repetition of *the society*. The employment of the definite article *the* is not appropriate in both structures (Clause f and Clause i). The writer might use *the* in Clause f as an exophoric reference. In Clause i, *the* refers back to the same element in Clause f. Although it looks reasonable in theory, it is not acceptable in practice.

This analysis shows that the writer of Text S1 has some problem in using reference.

**Substitution and ellipsis**

No substitution is used. Only one nominal ellipsis is employed: In Clause h, *(and need not be afforded by his parents)*, the subject "he" is omitted.

**6.2.4.3 Interpretive summary of the texts on "One should study hard?"**

In the successful text (Text S6), most of the sub-generic stages are connected with each other by the use of sequential conjunctives (i.e. *Firstly, secondly, thirdly and in conclusion*), thus making the message easy to follow. Within each generic stage, apart from using additives to helping to extend the text, the writer tends to employ enhancement rather than elaboration. This is acceptable, given that most of the information the writer organises is regarded as common sense. There is not much
New information that requires elaboration. One drawback is the employment of some unnecessary additive clauses (i.e. Clauses w–z)

For lexical cohesion, all the four strings are related to each other in that they all involve "study". The most frequently used devices for making each string are repetition and collocation. It is worthwhile to mention the "time" string, which runs through the whole text, the strategy for making this string is by using different expressions to refer to "time".

Different types of reference are used in the successful text: anaphoric, cataphoric, exophoric and bridging. Most of the chains are short because they are only used locally. The only long chain which spans the whole text is the generic we/our/us. The use of this chain indicates the personal feature of this text.

In the unsuccessful text (S1), concerning the conjunctions, only the causal conjunction So in Clause j (So one should study hard) does not agree with the logical relation which is set up in this text. For the lexical strings, although the lexical items within each string bear some similarity to each other or even use some repetition, yet the meaning is inconsistent. For example, in the "employment" string, the first two elements (i.e. employment and chances to be employed) refer to the same situation: both help explain the relationship between the education background and employment in modern society. However, the following two elements in this string (i.e. vocational job and experience) refer to another situation: a college student should look for a job. Therefore, there is no semantic consistency regarding "employment/ chances to be employed" and "vocational job/experience".

In unsuccessful texts, only exophoric reference is applied. The use of this type of reference does not contribute to the cohesive relations of the text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Like many Chinese EFL learners, this writer also has the problem of using the definite article the in that "the" should not be used in front of "society". Another problem lies in the use of the third personal pronoun in that he refers back to "people".
No substitution is used and only one elliptical structure is applied in both texts. Therefore, the use of these two cohesive devices is not significant in distinguishing the text.

6.3 Cohesive Analysis of Hortatory texts

- "Making Our Cities Greener"

6.3.1 A successful Chinese EFL text: Text G3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Situation and problem</strong>&lt;br&gt;(Clauses a–h)</td>
<td>a/ Do you want to live in a green city? b/ I think everybody like to live in a city with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets. c/ Because it’s both pleasant and comfortable. d/ But only a few of us can live in such a fine city. e/ Many cities have no place for trees to grow f/ because there are so many buildings and factories. g/ What cause this? h/ I think the main reason is that most people are not aware of the advantages of planting trees in cities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Evaluation of city greenery</strong>&lt;br&gt;(Clauses i–n)</td>
<td>i/ Planting trees in cities have many advantages. j/ First, green trees can filter dusty air and make the air cleaner. k/ Secondly, trees can prevent the cities from being attacked by wind l/ and they can make the cities more comfortable to live in. m/ Thirdly, trees can make the cities greener and more beautiful. n/ So you can see that trees can make our city life more pleasant and attractive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Solution</strong>&lt;br&gt;(Clauses o–r)</td>
<td>o/ Since it’s beautiful to plant trees in cities, p/ we should try our best to make our cities greener. q/ Many countries have made the policy to encourage their people to plant trees and grass in the cities. r/ I think we must use our own hands to cover our cities with green trees and grass.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.11 Generic Stages in Text G3

Text G3 has 18 clauses and contains three generic stages.

Conjunction

*The "situation and problem" stage*

a) Do you want to live in a green city?
b) I think everybody like to live in a city with a lot of trees on both sides of the streets.

c) Because it's both pleasant and comfortable.
   (Causal)

d) But, only a few of us can live in such a fine city.
   (Adversative)

e) Many cities have no place for trees to grow
   (Apposition)

f) Because there are so many buildings and factories.
   (Causal)

g) What cause this?

h) I think the main reason is that most people are not aware of the advantages of planting trees in cities.

<i>The "evaluation of city greenery" stage>

i) Planting trees in cities have many advantages.

j) First, green trees can filter dusty air and make the air cleaner.
   (Sequential)

k) Secondly, trees can prevent the cities from being attacked by wind
   (Sequential)

l) and they can make the cities more comfortable to live in.
   (Additive)

m) Thirdly, trees can make the cities greener and more beautiful.
   (Sequential)

n) So you can see that trees can make our city life more pleasant and attractive.
   (Causal)

<i>The "solution" stage>

o) Since it's beautiful to plant trees in cities,
   (Causal)

p) So we should try our best to make our cities greener.

q) Many countries have made the policy to encourage their people to plant trees and grass in the cities.
   (Additive)

r) I think we must use our own hands to cover our cities with green trees and grass.
   (Additive)

<Figure 6.30 Conjunction in Text G3>
Between the first generic stage (i.e. 'situation and problem') and the second one (i.e. 'evaluation of the city greenery'), there is no explicit conjunctive to connect them. Nevertheless, the first clause in the second generic stage (Clause i), by repeating the items of Clause h (the last clause in the first generic stage), connects the two stages together. Between the second stage ('evaluation of city greenery') and the third stage ('solution'), an explicit causal conjunctive is employed (Since), followed by a summary of Stage 2, thus making the move from Stage 2 to Stage 3 a natural one.

Despite the fact that basically this text expresses conjunctive relations effectively, there are some problems. Like many student writers in this research, this writer also uses a dependent clause alone as if it were an independent one, for example, Clause c (Because it's both pleasant and comfortable). This phenomenon has been mentioned earlier.

The 'evaluation of city greenery' stage is organised by using a series of successive conjunctives (i.e. First, secondly and thirdly). The use of these devices shows that the writer understands the use of successive conjunctives to pattern the information.

In the 'solution' stage, Clause q does not apply any explicit conjunctive to connect the previous clause. Given that the message it conveys is totally new and has nothing to do with the previous one, Clause q is an extension. However, this extension is digressive at the textual level because it is not related to any of the previous information, nor is it developed in the following clauses.

**Lexical cohesion**

Among the seven lexical strings (displayed in Figure 6.31), three run through the whole text: the "people" string (String 1), the "city" string (String 2) and the "trees" string (String 3). Their occurrence through the whole text is expected according to the title. The formation of the "people" string is simple in that it mainly contains two entities: "the writer" which is rendered from I and "people" which is
rendered from *we*. In addition, there is only one use of *everybody*, which is in collocation with *people*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Generic Stage</th>
<th>1 People</th>
<th>2 City</th>
<th>3 Trees</th>
<th>4 Live</th>
<th>5 Make</th>
<th>6 Plant</th>
<th>7 Good environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>green city</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>writer (l), everybody</td>
<td>city, streets</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>Situation and problem (a-f)</td>
<td>city, streets</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>pleasant, comfortable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>a few of people</td>
<td>city</td>
<td>live</td>
<td>fine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>many cities</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>grow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>cities, buildings and factories</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>grow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>writer (l), people</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>planting trees</td>
<td>planting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>planting trees</td>
<td>grow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>Evaluation (i-n)</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>green trees</td>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>live</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>comfortable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>trees, greener</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>city life</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>pleasant and attractive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>trees</td>
<td>plant</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>Solution (o-r)</td>
<td>people (we), people's (our)</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>greener</td>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>trees, grass</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>plant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>writer (l), people (we), people's (our)</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>green trees and grass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6.31** Lexical Cohesion in Text G3
The "city" string consists of not only *cities* (by repetition), but also some items which are related to "cities", such as *streets* (in Clause b), *buildings* and *factories* (in Clause f). These items are the co-hyponyms of *city*.

In the "tree" string, in addition to frequent repetitions of *trees* as a single topic, there appear noun phrases in which *trees* is used as an element which helps form the structures. For example, *planting trees* in Clause h and Clause i; *green trees* in Clause m, and *green trees and grass* in Clause r. Moreover, *grass* (in Clause r) is a co-hyponym of *trees*, given that they both are categorised as 'plant'; and *greener* in Clause m and Clause p are in collocation with *trees*.

As far as the rest of the strings are concerned, although the occurrence of the lexical items within each string is not as frequent as those in the previous three strings, these strings also play an important role in conveying the information. The "live" string (String 4) appears in the first generic stage ('situation and problem') and the second one ('evaluation'), not in the third one ('solution'). The latter only consists of *city life* and a repetition of *live*.

The "make" string (String 5) occurs in the 'evaluation' and the 'solution' stages. Too many uses of this item make the structure invariant and the information redundant.

The "plant" string (String 6) contains repetitions of *plant* and *grow*. Both items are in synonymy. Although not applied very frequently, this string is involved in all the three stages.

Regarding the "good environment" string, the items are used to describe a proposed green environment. Among the lexical items used, there is a repetition of *pleasant, comfortable and beautiful*. All these items, together with *fine* and *attractive* are in collocation.

There are many other lexical items which are used more locally. It is impossible to diagram them into strings. However, their presence is also significant in organising this text.
Reference

Like all the texts analysed so far, anaphoric reference dominates the text as displayed in Figure 6.32. The longest chain is the "personal reference" one in which we/our is mostly used.

There are two chains involving references to "cities". The first chain starts from Clause a and ends in Clause d. In Clause b, the city as a reference is two-fold: (1) it refers anaphorically to a green city in Clause a; (2) it refers cataphorically to the following prepositional structure within the same phrase. It in Clause c and such a fine city both refer backward. The second chain of "cities" starts from Clause i and ends in Clause q, and among these the definite article the is frequently employed.

In Clause g, this refers back to both Clause e (Many cities have no place for trees to grow) and Clause f (because there are so many buildings and factories).

There are many examples of using comparative references. Due to the limitations on space, they cannot be illustrated in the figure. For example, in Clause l, (they can make the cities) more comfortable to live in; in Clause m (trees can make the cities) greener and more beautiful; and also in Clause p (We will try our best) to make our cities greener. All these comparative references refer back to Clause d and Clause e, from which the referent can be retrieved — that is, "a city without many trees".

Generally, there is no misuse of reference in Text G3.
Situation/Problem

a) a green city
b) the city with a lot of trees on both sides of the street
c) It
d) such a fine city
e) 
f) 
g) 
h) Evaluation

i) cities
dusty air → the air

k) the cities
trees → (back to Clause d and e)

l) the cities
they → more comfortable to live in

m) the cities
greener and more beautiful → (back to Clause d and e)

n) Solution

o) 
(p) to make our cities greener

q) the cities many countries → people

r) (cata = cataphoric reference; exo = exophoric reference; the rest of the references are anaphoric)

Figure 6.32 Reference in Text G3
Substitution and ellipsis

There is no employment of substitution and ellipsis in Text G3.

6.3.2 An unsuccessful Chinese EFL text: Text G4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Stage</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Situation &amp; problem</td>
<td>a/ Now the city is being made green. b/ On both sides of streets were planted the trees, flowers etc. c/ Yet of course, the country government decided to make our country greener and greener. d/ But in far countryside the green work is very poor. e/ Now that they have a change, f/ but our cities greenery is poorer than Japan and America, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Evaluation of city greenery</td>
<td>g/ The cities greener has many goods. h/ For example, it can make the air clean, make the cities beautiful, make the temperature change. i/ These goods make people work in fresh air, the mind cheerful j/ and the tree can provide wood for us. k/ Every day we can hear songs of bird, breathe the fresh air.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Solution</td>
<td>l/ How do we make our cities greener? m/ First, call for the people to make trees, to love trees and not to cut down the trees. n/ Usually water the small trees, flowers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conclusion</td>
<td>o/ So we can make our cities greener, beautiful.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.12 Generic Stages in Text G4

Text G4 has 15 clauses and includes four generic stages.

Conjunction

<Situation and problem>

a) Now the city is being made green.
   (Temporal)

b) On both sides of streets were planted the trees, flowers etc.

c) Yet of course, the country government decided to make our country greener
   (Adversative)

   and greener.
d) **But** in far countryside the green work is very poor.  
   (Adversative)

e) **Now that** they have a change,  
   (Concession)

f) **but** our city greenery is poorer than Japan, America, etc.  
   (Adversative)

<**Evaluation of city advantage**>

g) The cities green have many goods.

h) **For example**, it can make the air clean, make the cities beautiful, make the  
   (ela)  
   temperature change.

i) Ø These goods make people work in fresh air, the mind cheerful  
   (Causal)

j) **and** the tree can provide wood for us.  
   (Additive)

k) Ø Every day, we can hear songs of bird, breathe the fresh air.  
   (Causal)

<**Solution**>

l) How to make our cities greener.

m) **First**, call for the people to make trees, to love the trees, and not to cut down the  
   (Sequential)  
   trees,

n) Ø Usually water the small trees, flower.  
   (Additive)

<**Conclusion**>

O) **So** we can make our cities greener, beautiful.  
   (Causal)

**Figure 6.33 Conjunction in Text G4**

In the first generic stage ('situation and problem': Clauses a–f), Clauses a–b introduce the present situation about the city greenery. Clause c, using an explicit conjunction **yet**, expresses an adversative meaning to the previous one (**Yet of course, the country government decided to make our country greener and greener**). However, Clause d (instead of elaborating on Clause c), provides another
adversative meaning, signalled by but, which adds the new information about "the far countryside". This extension violates the reader's expectation of acquiring more information about Clause c. The problem continues with Clause e and Clause f. Clause e and Clause f are a clause complex. The conjunctive Now that (a hypotactic conjunction) in Clause e indicates a concessive structure in Clause e. The message conveyed in Clause e concerns Clause d, that is, about the greenery in the countryside. The main clause (Clause f) should not employ any conjunction. Yet the use of but (a paratactic) signals an adversative meaning. The problem here is that it is not generally acceptable in English when both paratactic and hypotactic conjunctions occur simultaneously in the same clause complex. The information in Clause f is not consistent with that of Clause e because Clause f changes to city greener from greenery in the countryside (Clauses d and e).

In the second generic stage ('evaluation of city greenery': Clauses g–k), the writer jumps to the advantages of city greenery without any transition from the previous stage. Clause g is the topic in this stage followed by Clause h to exemplify it. Then Clause i evaluates the advantages of city greenery mentioned in Clause h. Clause j, using and, becomes a coordinate clause to Clause i, and also adds new information about the advantage of trees. Since the extension of the information in Clause j does not have anything to do with Clause i, it is not appropriate to put the two clauses in a coordinate structure in writing.

The third generic stage provides a 'solution' for the 'greenery' problem. The change from the topic of the second stage (i.e. 'evaluation of greenery') appears without any warning. Clause m uses a temporal conjunction First which foreshadows a series of successive steps to follow. However, no explicit conjunctive is used in Clause n in order to continue this sequence. At this point, it is clear that the writer may not know how to employ a series of consistent sequential conjunctives.

Finally, in the concluding stage, Clause o, by using So, links itself to the solution mentioned above. However, So is not a right choice at this context.
"Therefore" may be recommended. This use of so may be influenced by the English translation of a similar Chinese conjunctive, suoyí, which is translated into "so" or "therefore" in many Chinese versions of English grammar books. In fact, the two items are not always identical. The use of So to connect the previous information may be accepted in spoken English, but not appropriate in this writing context.

Lexical cohesion

As displayed in Figure 6.34, five strings run through the whole text: the "people" string (String 1), the "place" string (String 2), the "green" string (String 3), the "plant" string (String 4) and the "make" string (String 5).

In the "people" string, all items are either we/us or our which can be rendered to "people". The only exception is an employment of the country government in Clause c. The country government and people are in collocation.

In the "place" string, city is repeated frequently. Street in Clause b is the meronym of city. There is a repetition of countryside and one employment of country. In this case, countryside and city are in collocation with country. Two specific countries are mentioned in this text, America and Japan. They form the relationship of hyponymy of country. As far as this lexical string is concerned, although various lexical devices are used, the employment is not always relevant to the context. Given that this text focuses on "city greenery", countryside is not a proper choice. The citation of American and Japan is also digressive.

In the "green" string, apart from using many repetitions of trees, the writer also frequently used green/greener. Other items used such as flowers, wood and green are all in collocation with trees.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Generic Stage</th>
<th>1 People</th>
<th>2 Place</th>
<th>3 Green</th>
<th>4 Plant</th>
<th>5 Make</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>city</td>
<td>green</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>being made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>streets</td>
<td>trees, flowers</td>
<td></td>
<td>were planted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c <strong>Situation &amp; problem</strong> (a–f)</td>
<td>people's (our), the country government</td>
<td>country</td>
<td>greener and greener</td>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>far countryside</td>
<td>the green work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>far countryside</td>
<td>the green work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>people's (our), Japan, America</td>
<td>cities greener</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td>cities greener</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>make (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h <strong>Evaluation</strong> (g–k)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>people (us)</td>
<td>the tree, wood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>people (we)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>people's (our)</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>greener</td>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m <strong>Solution</strong> (l–n)</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>trees (3)</td>
<td>plant, cut down</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>the small trees, flowers</td>
<td>water</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o <strong>Conclusion</strong> (Clause o)</td>
<td>people (we)</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>greener</td>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6.34 Lexical Cohesion in Text G4**

One significant error here is that the writer takes *city greener* as a noun phrase. This misconception may partly come from his/her perception of the title (*Making our cities greener*). In EFL classes in China, students are taught that a noun or a noun phrase is placed after a possessive pronoun. Since *greener* is placed close to *cities* in this title, the writer may consider it as part of the noun phrase. Another reason why *city greener* is treated as a noun phrase may be the influence of the
Chinese language. In Chinese, ildo (which is literally translated as "city green") can be used both as a verb phrase (meaning "make cities greener") and as a noun phrase (meaning "city greenery").

Regarding the "make" string, make as a verb appears very frequently, thus making the clause structures invariant.

In the "plant" string (String 4), the presence of the items involved is not frequent. One Plant is used in the "situation" stage (in Clause b). In the "solution" stage, Plant and cut down are used (in Clause m), followed by a verb water in Clause n which is also in collocation with the process of "planting trees". Plant and cut down are antonyms. Cut down is employed when talking about the steps of protecting trees.

Limited lexical items can be found except the items in these strings. With reference to the items used, there are quite a few strange lexical choices. For example, In Clauses g and i, goods is used to refer to "advantages". Cheerful in Clause i is not appropriate to describe "the mind". In fact, the whole of Clause i is a direct interpretation from Chinese to English (These goods make people work in fresh air, the mind cheerful). By Clause i, the writer means to say that "the advantage of city greenery is that people can work in fresh air which can clear their mind".

Reference

Reference chains in Text G34 are diagrammed in Figure 6.35. Most of references are anaphoric. Demonstratitives and the definite article the are used to form the anaphoric chains. One anaphoric reference type is adjectives comparatives. In this text, the green – greener chain occurs.

Exophoric reference by using the definite article the is used frequently, such as the city in Clause a, the trees in Clause b, The city greener (which means "city greenery") in Clause g and also the small trees, flowers in Clause n. Most of these
exophoric references are disruptive. The problem here is that Chinese students find it difficult to use *the* in the right way.

(exo = exophoric reference; cata = cataphoric reference; comp = comparative reference)

**Figure 6.35** Reference in Text G4
Substitution and ellipsis

There is one employment of ellipsis in this text: Clause 1 (How to make our cities greener). In fact, this is not a clause since subject and finite verb are deleted.

There is no substitution in this text.

6.3.3 Interpretive summary of the texts on "Making our cities greener"

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, these EFL students writing on this topic, were given some suggested questions before writing on this topic, each question predicting a generic stage. All of the texts are organised in terms of the stages suggested by the questions. However, there are differences between the successful and unsuccessful texts with regard to the use of cohesion.

In the successful text (Text G3), conjunctive relations are expressed effectively between stages as well as within each stage: The writers tend to relate the following stage to the previous one. (Also see Text G32 in Appendix IV)

There are cases where the successful writer uses implicit conjunctive relations between the generic stages or within a generic stage. In this situation, lexical cohesion helped realise the connection between the preceding and following stages. (See Text G53 in Appendix IV)

In Text G3, each generic stage is realised by using different conjunctive relations. For example, in the introductory stage where 'situation and problem' need to be specified, the writer of Text G3 of Text G3 uses an adversative conjunction but to introduce the problem, which contrasts with the preferable situation. In the 'evaluation' stage, the writer uses a series of sequential sequences for placing different advantages of city greenery. In both stages, the conjunctions are used effectively to fulfil different generic purposes.
Compared with the successful texts (Text G3, G32 and G53), in an unsuccessful text such as Text G4, there is no connection between different generic stages, thus making the presence of each stage abrupt. Within each generic stage, it is common that conjunctives used cause a contradiction. As a consequence, the message is difficult to follow.

With regard to lexical cohesion, there are not many differences in terms of types of cohesive devices used in the successful and unsuccessful texts. Nevertheless, the way each type of cohesive devices is applied does create differences. For example, both groups of texts use collocation. However, the collocation used in the successful texts (also see Text G32 and Text G53 in Appendix IV) is more suitable than in the unsuccessful text (also see Text G2 in Appendix IV).

Another feature in the successful text is that they are more likely to make appropriate choices of lexical items in the context. That is to say, the lexical item they choose always functions effectively both locally and globally. By contrast, the unsuccessful writers may choose some items which are not relevant. For example, in Text G4, the choices of Japan and America appears to be related to "country" on the surface; however, the use of them is not effective since they discontinue the topic on "China".

With regard to reference in the texts on this topic, there are fewer uses of exophoric reference in the successful texts than the unsuccessful ones. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), exophoric reference does not contribute to cohesive relations in text. Concerning exophoric reference in the unsuccessful texts, is are formed by using the definite article the. In many cases, the use of this kind of reference is not relevant. Failure to use the definite article the is one of the common problems for Chinese EFL learners.

There is no significant use of substitution and ellipsis in both successful and unsuccessful texts.
6.4 Summary of Cohesive Analysis of the Australian Students' Texts and Chinese EFL Texts

The Australian students generally do not use as many explicit conjunctives as the Chinese learners. The Chinese students seem to particularly prefer using clause complexes where explicit conjunctions are required. Instead, the Australian students are more likely to employ prepositional phrases to show the logical connections in the text. The advantage of using this device is to avoid using a clause.

In regard to reference, the Australian students do not tend to merely use many anaphoric references to cover the whole referents as their Chinese counterparts. They turn rather to use bridging reference, that is, a demonstrative (or the definite article the), together with a noun phrase which is derived from the previous information. In the Chinese students' texts, only a very limited number of successful writers used this type of reference in the same way as their native counterparts. Most of the Chinese writers tend to use a long reference chain, with the same reference item covering the whole text. The Australian students are more likely to use localised reference which only involves one sub-topic.

The Australian students have demonstrated a much greater range of lexical items, compared with their Chinese counterparts. This feature is indicated in their preference for using collocation, which appears to be more effectively chosen than in the Chinese EFL texts. The Chinese students' smaller repertoire of vocabulary, seems to restrict their using a large vocabulary in their texts. They tend to repeat the same items frequently. Or even if they tend to use some more vocabulary to create a relationship of expectancy (collocation), the choice may not be relevant to the context.

One feature is shared by both Australian and the Chinese groups with reference to the use of substitution and ellipsis: both groups use very limited substitution and ellipsis.
6.5 Cohesion in the Chinese EFL Texts

On the whole, the cohesive analysis of the Chinese EFL texts supports the two informants' judgment of these texts. That is, a successful text is normally more effective in choosing cohesive devices than unsuccessful texts. The use of conjunctions differentiates the successful and the unsuccessful texts. The successful texts do not have as many conjunctive mistakes as the unsuccessful ones. It is common for the unsuccessful students to use adversative conjunctives incorrectly, alternatively, they overuse them.

There are also problems shared by both groups of texts. A common mistake in both successful and unsuccessful texts is the use of a dependent clause as an independent one (i.e. 'sentence fragment'). Whether more explicit conjunctives are used does not seem to be an important factor in the quality of the texts. Generally, in the case of using more implicit conjunctives, the successful writers know how to use other cohesive devices to compensate for the lack of explicit conjunctions, thus making implicit conjunctives clear enough to be perceived.

Concerning lexical cohesion, one tendency for both successful and unsuccessful writers is the overuse of repetitions of lexical items. The successful writers may also use other lexical devices such as antonymy, synonymy and collocation, thus making the text attractive to read. Most of the lexical items chosen in these texts are in the same semantic fields being talked about (whether locally or globally); therefore, they correlate to the information development. The unsuccessful writers, on the other hand may depend on one lexical device (i.e. repetition). Unlike the successful writers who only repeated the abstract terms (such as politics and knowledge), the unsuccessful writers repeated not just the abstract terms, but also the clause structures. The successful writers may not merely repeat a single item. Instead, they also employ other elements to help form a noun phrase in which an abstract noun (being repeated) only functions as part of the phrase. For some unsuccessful writers, even if sometimes they also employ other lexical devices, the
items chosen may not be relevant; they may not fall in the relationship of expectancy.

As far as reference is concerned, the successful texts did not use many long anaphoric reference chains (that is, the same reference from the beginning to the end) whereas some unsuccessful texts did. The successful texts did not use as many exophoric reference as the unsuccessful texts since the frequent use of this type of reference can disrupt the reader. These two features in the successful Chinese EFL texts are similar to the successful Australian texts.

Apart from these distinctive differences between the successful and the unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts, there are some common features shared by the two language proficiency groups. Both groups tend to use few cataphoric references between clauses. Both groups appear to have problems with the use of the definite article the.

In addition, some reference types tend to occur more often than others in relation to different topic titles. For example, comparative reference is more frequently used in the topics: "Knowledge is most valuable" and "Making our cities greener". In this case, the use of comparative reference is expected by these topics.

As demonstrated in the sample text analyses, substitution and ellipsis are rarely used in both successful and unsuccessful texts; therefore, these two devices do not seem to characterise the quality of the texts.
Chapter 7

Findings and Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the detailed analyses provided in Chapter 5 (Theme/Rheme analysis) and in Chapter 6 (cohesive analysis) for the purpose of understanding how the Chinese EFL students employ textual devices in their English expository writing. It will discuss how these textual resources contribute to the coherence of the EFL texts. The research questions in Chapter 1 and the literature review will be revisited in relation to the analysis.

This chapter will be organised as such that the Theme/Rheme analysis will be reviewed prior to the cohesive analysis and the analytical texts will precede the hortatory ones.

7.2 Generic Patterns, Information and Theme/Rheme Structures in the Two Different Types of Expository Texts

7.2.1 The EFL analytical texts

7.2.1.1 Generic stages in the EFL analytical texts

An analytical text typically contains three basic elements: thesis (macro-theme), supportive evidence and conclusion. Since the students were not given any directions other than the topic title itself, it was up to each student to organise the generic stages.

There were three main organisational patterns in these EFL texts (where '^' indicates sequence):

(1) thesis (macro-theme) ^ evidence ^ conclusion;
(2) introduction ^ evidence stage ^ thesis (macro-theme)/conclusion;
(3) introduction ^ thesis (macro-theme) ^ evidence ^ conclusion.

These three patterns are exemplified in Tables 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3 respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text S7</th>
<th>Generic Stages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/ I don't think one should necessarily study hard.</td>
<td>Thesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/ Everyone has his own hobbies. 3/ Someone may think studying is the most favourite thing, 4/ others may not. 5/ So, if you really don't like studying, you may do other things which you like better. 6/ because when you are forced to do something you don't like, you can't put you whole heart into it, 7/ and you can't do it well.</td>
<td>Evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/ This world is made of various kinds of person. 9/ If all the people are the same kind, the world will lose its charm.</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.1 Text S7 — 'Thesis (Macro-theme) ^ Evidence ^ Conclusion'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text K20</th>
<th>Generic stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/ 1/ Since human beings appeared in this world, they become more and more powerful in controlling the whole nature.</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/ They can go up in the sky, down deep into the sea. 3/ They can push down the mountains and create nearly everything they want. 4/ All these depend on the knowledge they own. 5/ In modern society, there is a phrase repeated by many people: 6/ &quot;knowledge means power&quot;. 7/ It really does.</td>
<td>Evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/ Today, how much knowledge a man has indicates how capable he is. 9/ If he gets enough knowledge, he will have more chance to gain a job and more chance to gain promotion.</td>
<td>Thesis &amp; Conclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.2 Text K20 — 'Introduction ^ Evidence ^ Thesis (Macro-theme) & Conclusion'
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text P4</th>
<th>Generic stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/ This is a very interesting question. 2/ Politics is about us. 3/ We can't escape it. 4/ For this is also a question that we must answer as a Chinese youth.</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/ Yes. That is my answer to the question.</td>
<td>Thesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/ Politics is related to our jobs. 7/ If the political party is good, we can get more chances to get a job. 8/ On the contrary, we will be jobless if the political party is unable to create more jobs. 9/ In our foreign transaction, we can output and import more goods if our country is friendly with other country. 10/ Therefore, we can extend our eyesight and make our country to develop.</td>
<td>Evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/ As a result, our country is getting richer and richer 12/ and our life level can also get higher and higher.</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7.3  Text P4 — 'Introduction ^ Thesis (Macro-theme) ^ Evidence ^ Conclusion'

In the first type of organisational pattern (i.e. thesis ^ evidence ^ conclusion), the thesis (i.e. the macro-theme) is placed at the beginning in the text (either as the opening sentence or following a short stretch of discourse). The text is expected to develop from general to specific (deductively). According to Kaplan (1966; 1972), this pattern is favoured by native English speakers.

In the second type (i.e. introduction ^ evidence ^ thesis/conclusion), the thesis is placed at the end, therefore, the text develops inductively. Kaplan (1966; 1972) observes that oriental writers of English prefer this pattern. However, few texts follow it in this corpus.

The third pattern (i.e. introduction ^ thesis ^ evidence ^ conclusion) is regarded as the 'delayed-thesis pattern' by the researcher because the thesis is placed after a rather lengthy introductory element. In practice, the thesis appears either in the last sentence in the first paragraph or in the first sentence in the following
paragraph. In this study, texts of this type are fewer than those of the first pattern, however, they outnumber those of the second pattern (the inductive pattern).

7.2.1.2 The 'thesis' stage and the choices of Theme/Rheme in relation to this stage in the EFL texts

The thesis (i.e. the macro-theme) in the analytical texts is generally realised by repeating the topic title. Alternatively, some students paraphrased the title. For example, the thesis in the texts responding to "Reading does not help much" is generally agreement or disagreement with the title. In the texts where the topic title is in the interrogative form (i.e. "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?" and "One should study hard?"), a positive or negative answer (i.e. a judgement) would function as the thesis.

As mentioned earlier, there are various organisation patterns for the student writers to begin a text. Two most frequently used patterns in the EFL texts analysed are: (1) presenting the thesis (i.e. the macro-theme) at the beginning (in the majority of texts); (2) starting with an introduction to the situational context. One common strategy shared by those texts which start with a situational context is that the writers tend to follow the same structure: describing a current belief among people (to be more precise, students), followed by the writer's opposite point of view which functions as the thesis. This is illustrated in Example 7.1.

Example 7.1

1/ At present, some college students think it's not necessary to study hard. 2/ Their only target is to pass the test, 3/ and they spend a lot of time amusing. 4/ I'm also a college student, 5/ but don't agree with these people. 5/ I think knowledge is the most valuable.

(Adapted from Text K9)

In Example 7.1, Sentences 1–4, by stating time, location and "people", constitute a counter-position phase/move followed by the thesis in Sentence 5.
In some cases, the introductory element is realised in a narrative form. Following is one such example.

Example 7.2  (Using a narrative style)

1/ When I was a child, teachers and parents taught me to study hard. 2/ "Study hard". 3/ Yes, many years I had been studying very hard.

(Adapted from Text S10; the thesis is at the concluding stage)

Other patterns for starting the text also occur, however their employment seems to be correlated with the text topic. For example, in texts on "knowledge" and "study hard", some writers used rhetorical questions as the opening of the texts. Quotation of sayings and appealing to history are also present at the beginning of the writing on the topic of "knowledge". In some texts on "reading" and "politics", elaboration on the topic was used to begin the texts. Even a comment about the text topic itself would initiate a text. Each case is exemplified in Examples 7.3, 7.4, 7.5 and 7.6 respectively.

Example 7.3  (Using rhetorical questions)

1/ Do you study hard? 2/ And do you think one should study hard? 3/ As a college student, you should think it is a stupid question. 4/ While it might be a valuable question that will benefit you for a whole life.

(Adapted from Text S5; the thesis is at the concluding stage)

As shown in Example 7.3, Text G5 starts with two rhetorical questions followed by a comment on the questions themselves. (In Text G5, the thesis appears in the first sentence in Paragraph 2.)

Example 7.4  (Quoting a saying)

1/ We always say “Never too old to learn”. 2/ From this saying, we can know how the knowledge is valuable.

3/ Knowledge is the most important thing for human being. (thesis)

(Adapted from Text K3)

In Example 7.4, a saying is employed as a source of evidence for the purpose of preparing the reader for the judgement. By using a saying or a proverb, the writer implies that the concept is generally accepted by everyone.
Example 7.5 (Elaborating the topic title)

1/ Politics, in my view, it is a management of human that is manipulated by minor people.
2/ Not only for Chinese citizens, but for all the people in the world, should be careful about politics. (Thesis)

(Adapted from Text P6)

Example 7.6 (Commenting on the topic title)

1/ This is a very interesting question. 2/ Politics is about us. 3/ We can't escape it. 4/ For this is also a question that we must answer as a Chinese youth.
5/ Yes. That's my answer to the question. (Thesis)

(Adapted from Text P15)

In Example 7.5, the writer defines what he means by "politics", that is, he gives an elaboration on an abstract notion. This strategy was considered as a good beginning by both informants. In the case of Example 7.6, a comment (to be more precise, a judgement) on the topic title begins a text (This is a very interesting question.). This device for starting a text was considered to be ineffective by the informants, and it is unusual in both Chinese and English writing.

In general, there is not much difference in terms of the method of beginning a text between successful and unsuccessful writers. Except for the method in Example 7.6, all other methods in the above examples are used in both successful and unsuccessful groups. In this case, what is important is to see to what degree each introductory section contributes to the ensuing discourse.

With regard to the Themes in the beginning section, in the texts where the thesis is at the beginning, lexical items with reference to the topic title are used as the content of Themes. In a word, the choice of Themes correlates with the field (i.e. the topic title). In the text where the thesis is delayed or is placed at the end, since the beginning section is realised in an introductory paragraph or by other elements, the choice of Themes may not directly be related to the topic title. In this case, the content of Themes may be the lexical items which associate with some key words in the title. For example, in Example 7.1 the lexical items like students and study are not directly related to the topic title on the whole; however they are both in
collocation with the key term *knowledge* in the title. Two frequently used marked Themes are Themes of location and temporal Themes, both establishing the context for the text. The employment of these circumstantial Themes may not necessarily be associated with the title, especially the temporal circumstances.

### 7.2.1.3 The 'evidence' stage and the choices of Theme/Rheme in relation to this stage in the EFL texts

The 'evidence' stage is the heart of the text development. In this stage, reasoning is based on the evidence available in order to convince the reader of the thesis stated earlier or to be stated later. If the thesis is given, the reasoning should start from it and arrive at the conclusion. Alternatively, in the texts where the thesis is placed at the end, the evidence should enable the reader to draw generalisations from reasoning.

Concerning the Chinese EFL texts, in this stage, lexical items which are connected to the topic title are likely to be employed as the content of Themes. In addition, it is common that students use items like *people* and *society* as Themes.

### 7.2.1.4 The 'concluding' stage and the choices of Theme/Rheme in relation to this stage in the EFL texts

The structuring of the concluding section is also important because a reader's judgement of a text is often influenced most strongly by the impression he/she gains from the concluding section. As far as the writer is concerned, the concluding section gives him or her the final chance to impress the reader (Li, 1995).

In this study, three major patterns of making a conclusion are: (1) restating the thesis; (2) restating the thesis followed by giving some hortatory statements; or merely using hortatory statements. Although these texts belong to the analytical type, it is common that quite a number of students add some exhortatory comments in the concluding section, which is more generally accepted in hortatory expository
writing. These patterns of exhortation are normally presented with a modality such as *must* or *should*. The following are some of the examples.

Example 7.7

We *must* have the ability to distinguish what is wrong and what is right, which politics really serve from the people and which one only serve for its political group. Only by that can we really be a host of our nation.

(Adapted from Paragraph 3, Text P4)

Example 7.8

So *let* us study hard to learn more knowledge because it is useful.

(Adapted from Text K11)

Example 7.9

As far as I'm concerned, one *should* study hard. And one *should* study for the whole life.

(Adapted from Paragraph 3, Text S5)

As discussed in Chapter 5, the use of this exhortatory tenor may be affected by Chinese prose in which it is common for the writer to use such a device to make the writing more forceful. However, in English writing, it is not seen as appropriate (Matalene, 1985).

Some successful writers use the first pattern in which they summarise all the points argued above and then emphasise the thesis by making a generalisation. This device is encouraged in English writing (Ding et al., 1994; Brooks & Warren, 1979; Rooks, 1988) and is also valued in Chinese essays as one of the methods (Li, 1995). By contrast, unsuccessful writers (as well as some successful writers) merely repeat the thesis prefaced by a textual Theme *So/Therefore*. In the second pattern, the hortatory statement is expressed by *we should/must* ... This pattern is often used in Chinese expository writing, and is believed to make a forceful impression on the reader because the concluding statements are intended to be suggestive and inspiring. (The use of *must* has been mentioned in Chapter 5.) One common feature in using the two concluding patterns is that the writer leaves the reader with a sense of finality.
In this study, the choice of Themes in the concluding section, to a certain extent, depends on which concluding patterns the text has employed. In using the first type (i.e. restatement of the thesis), the ideational Theme is generally realised in lexical items which are the key terms of the subject matter. In the case of the second type (i.e. hortatory statements), lexical items involving "people" are likely to be chosen as the content of the ideational Theme. In both situations, the writer tends to use the textual Theme So/Therefore to indicate a concluding stage and also to use the interpersonal Theme I think to show his/her involvement in the discussion.

In all the analytical texts in this study, unmarked Themes (taking up 68.95%, or 433 out of 628) outnumber marked Themes (taking up 31.05%, or 195 out of 628, as displayed in Table 7.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text title</th>
<th>Number of texts</th>
<th>Number of t-units</th>
<th>Number of unmarked Themes</th>
<th>Number of marked Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge is the most valuable</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>122 (63.54%)</td>
<td>70 (36.46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>126 (70.39%)</td>
<td>53 (29.61%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reading does not help much</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>57 (87.69%)</td>
<td>8 (12.31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. One should study hard?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>128 (66.67%)</td>
<td>64 (33.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>433 (68.95%)</td>
<td>195 (31.05%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.4 Percentage of Using Marked Themes in Chinese EFL Analytical Texts
For the marked Themes, basically the following types are present in texts on all topics: circumstances of location, condition, time, manner and matter. The frequency of using some circumstantial types is also correlated with the topic title. For example, in texts on "politics", fewer temporal circumstantial Themes are used than causal ones. Circumstantial Themes of concession and accompaniment are common in texts on "knowledge" whereas neither of these two types appears in texts on "reading". The circumstance of angle does not occur in texts on "reading". There are fewer circumstantial Themes of manner in texts on "knowledge" and "reading" than in the texts on "politics" and "studying hard". In addition, only texts on "politics" and "studying hard" employ the circumstance of role, which may be initiated by the topic title. For example, in response to the title "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?", it is understandable that the writers would start the texts with "As a Chinese citizen" (a circumstance of role). Concerning the use of circumstance of role in texts "One should study hard", the writers associated "study" with "student". Therefore, they would argue from a student's angle ("as a student"). All this suggests that the choice of Theme types strongly correlates to the fields.

It is common for these EFL writers to use interpersonal Themes to express their commitment or reaction to the proposition. This employment, to a great extent, was stimulated by the personal nature of the titles. In practice, the most frequent type is expressed by means of a grammatically metaphorical clause I think. A few writers used interpersonal Themes in the form of adverbs such as normally, commonly, basically and ideally. The least frequent strategy is using interpersonal Themes in the form of prepositional phrases such as in my opinion.

Textual Themes are more widely used than interpersonal Themes in all the analytical texts, that is, 523 versus 123 (or 33.19% versus 7.81%) as displayed in Table 7.5. In this study, causal, adversative and additive textual Themes are frequently used in all the analytical texts. Temporal sequential textual Themes do not appear in the texts on "reading". In addition, textual Themes of exemplifying are not found in the texts on "politics".
Table 7.5 Distribution of Textual and Interpersonal Themes in Chinese EFL Analytical Texts

The incorrect use of textual Theme may sometimes confuse the reader's understanding of the message. This is demonstrated in Example 7.10. (The items in the brackets are the researcher's correction. The underlined item is the incorrect textual Theme.)

Example 7.10

(By) studying hard, we will keep up with the situation. **Besides**, we may feel empty and our lives will be invague (unsettled).

(Adapted from Text S9)

By *besides*, the writer means "otherwise". This usage is affected by the transfer of the Chinese expression. One of the Chinese translations of this English word is "bùrán" (meaning "otherwise"). When the writer produced the English expression, he/she may have reasoned as in Chinese where the choice of this item is accepted.
So far the researcher has reviewed the frequently observed patterns regarding the realisation of different generic stages as well as the realisation of Themes in Chinese students' EFL texts. This knowledge is a prerequisite for understanding the thematic structure which is one of the major purposes of this study. Considering the nature of the analytical text where all generic stages are dependent on one another and where the 'thesis' stage and the 'concluding' stage are generally short, it is hard to understand progression patterns without looking at the text globally.

### 7.2.1.5 Theme/Rheme progression patterns in the Chinese EFL texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of progression patterns</th>
<th>Total number of all the patterns used</th>
<th>Linear Themes</th>
<th>Constant Themes</th>
<th>Rheme A –Rheme B</th>
<th>Theme A –Rheme B</th>
<th>Derived Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text title</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge is the most valuable</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>49 (31.61%)</td>
<td>41 (26.45%)</td>
<td>21 (13.55%)</td>
<td>24 (15.48%)</td>
<td>20 (12.90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>51 (36.17%)</td>
<td>46 (32.62%)</td>
<td>18 (12.77%)</td>
<td>16 (11.35%)</td>
<td>10 (7.09%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reading does not help much</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>22 (42.31%)</td>
<td>10 (19.23%)</td>
<td>8 (15.39%)</td>
<td>9 (17.31%)</td>
<td>3 (5.77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. One should study hard?</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>57 (38.78%)</td>
<td>41 (27.89%)</td>
<td>30 (20.41%)</td>
<td>11 (7.48%)</td>
<td>8 (5.44%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>495</td>
<td>179 (36.16%)</td>
<td>138 (27.88%)</td>
<td>77 (15.56%)</td>
<td>60 (12.12%)</td>
<td>41 (8.28%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7.6 Distribution of Some Frequently-used Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Analytical Texts by Chinese EFL Students**

As displayed in Table 7.6, totally there are 495 cases of progression patterns employed in the Chinese EFL analytical texts. 'Linear' and 'constant' thematic patterns are most frequently used, with 'linear' patterns (179 cases, taking up
36.16%) even outnumbering the 'constant' ones (138 cases, taking up 27.88%), followed by 'Rheme A – Rheme B' iteration (77 cases, taking up 15.56%) and 'Theme A – Rheme B' (60 cases, taking up 12.12%). Another preferred pattern is derived Theme (41 cases, taking up 8.28%), by means of which the writer analyses a specific issue from different aspects. The realisation of derived Themes, to a certain extent, depends on the temporal sequential textual Themes such as first, secondly and thirdly, or the additive textual Themes like in addition and furthermore/moreover. Examples 7.11, 7.12, 7.13, 7.14 and 7.15 illustrate each of these patterns respectively. (The underlined part in each sentence is the element which is semantically related to the one underlined in the following sentence.)

Example 7.11 (Linear thematic pattern)

1/ I think one should study hard. 2/ The life of man is very short, from cradle to tomb. 3/ In the process of birth, growing and death, a man has to study hard to accomplish his goal. 4/ Man can content with his goal's accomplishment.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The life of man</td>
<td>is very short, from cradle to tomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>In the process of birth,</td>
<td>a man has to study hard to accomplish his goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>growing and death,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Man</td>
<td>can content with (to) his goal's accomplishment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Example 7.11, From cradle to tomb in Rheme 2 is in collocation with the whole of Theme 3 (In the process of birth, growing and death). A man in Rheme 3 becomes Theme 4 (Man). That is, the New of S2 becomes the Given of S3 and the Given of S4 is derived from the New of S3.

Example 7.12 (Constant thematic pattern)

7/ Knowledge is abstracted from the life and accumulated continuously by human beings. 8/ It can instruct your action, your thought and your living way. 9/ And it also can give you pleasure when you are retired or
alone; 10/ It can give you abilities especially when you are in business
11/ or __ deal with something.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text K2)

In Example 7.12, the underlined part in Sentences 7–11 is the Theme of each
sentence. All the Themes are identical to each other (i.e. "knowledge").

Example 7.13  ('Rheme A – Rheme B' iteration pattern)

1/ Nowadays, the world has entered the age of information explosion. 2/
It is quite clear that none of us can study all the materials and knowledge
of different disciplines. 3/ However, it is the duty of the teacher to urge
students to study hard. 4/ Above all, studying hard is still considered as
a good quality for the development of the personality of children.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text S20)

In Example 7.13, the underlined part in Sentences 1–3 is the Rheme of each
sentence. The content in each Rheme is connected with that in the others: Rheme 2
(that none of us can study all the materials and knowledge of different disciplines)
elaborates on the generalisation made in Rheme 1 (the world has entered the age of
information explosion). Rheme 3 (to urge students to study hard) is associated with
Rheme 2 by study hard.

Example 7.14  ('Theme A – Rheme B' patterns)

1/ Yes, one should study all one's life. 2/ The world is changing with
great speed during this substance. 3/ Many new things will be coming
up. 4/ As human beings we must study these new things.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text S9)

In Example 7.14, Theme 3 maps with Rheme 4 by using new things.

Skilful uses of 'Rheme A – Rheme B' and 'Theme A – Rheme B' patterns
occasionally may add some unique effects to the writing structure.

Example 7.15  (Derived thematic patten)

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable possession, which has been talked all
over the world. 2/ As a saying goes, "Knowledge is wealth". 3/ There
are reasons for this view. 4/ First, through acquiring knowledge, we can
understood (understand) the reasons and causes of everything that
happens all the time. 5/ Second, mastering knowledge, we are interested
in doing everything; 6/ third, knowledge can create chance which
everyone wants to acquire in order to increase its value. Hence, knowledge should must be acquired for everyone.

(Adapted from Paragraphs 1 & 2)

In Example 7.15, Knowledge is the most valuable possession in S1 is the macro-theme. Ss4, 5 and 6 are the derived Themes from the macro-theme.

The researcher also found that both successful and unsuccessful writers use a 'we-parallel pattern': the consistency of using we in Theme position. Technically, this structure is a constant Theme pattern. However, given that the exophoric reference we does not interact with others, this pattern cannot semantically be taken for granted as a 'constant Thematic pattern'. Example 7.16 demonstrates one such case.

Example 7.16 ('We – parallel' pattern)

1/ Nowadays, information, technology etc. are advancing in such as high speed that we must study hard to catch up with the step. 2/ Recently, we have so many things to study. 3/ We must catch every possible chance so we must catch every possible chance. 4/ In our country, economy, technologies etc are not developed 5/ and we have difference from some developed countries. 6/ We have the responsibilities to develop our country's economy and technologies. 7/ So we must learn as possible as we can to devote ourselves to our country. 8/ We must study many aspects. 9/ We can't focus on only one. 10/ That's my opinion.

(Adapted from Text S3)

The overuse of we as Theme indicates that all information derives from the same starting point. Since there is no dynamic interaction between Theme (Given) and Rheme (New), the New provided in Rheme cannot be anticipated. Consequently, this clustering of sentences only forms a list of unconnected sentences rather than a dynamically communicative discourse. Therefore, it would be hard for the reader to perceive the connected message due to the unpredictability of the Rheme.

Table 7.6 also indicates that different topic titles (i.e. fields) does not seem to affect the choice of Theme/Rheme patterns. However, with reference to the assessment of the texts provided by the two native informants, it seems that successful writers pay more attention to the choice of both thematic content and
thematic patterns: there are fewer digressive inconsistencies of thematic structures. A successful writer tends to pattern the information under a consciously organised plan. This means that the placement of messages in a particular Theme/Rheme progression structure is not random. By contrast, an unsuccessful text is likely to orient the information more locally without taking account of the textual level.

The thematic analysis supports Fries (1981; 1995a, 1995b) in that the content of the experiential/ideational Theme may correlate with the generic structure and register of the text.

In both types of expository text (hortatory writing will be discussed later), there are cases where some successful writers may not all the time use the thematic progression patterns as suggested by Danes in every single sentence, but this does not seem to invalidate greatly the informants' judgment. On the other hand, the fact that a writer always follows the thematic patterns does not necessarily guarantee the quality of the text. Merely employing the Theme/Rheme structures is not sufficient because the information structure is also crucial. Therefore, in relation to structural components in the text, a successful text should satisfy two criteria: (1) sufficient and convincing information; (2) skilful employment of Theme/Rheme progression pattern. Both factors contribute to coherence at the structural level of the text. That is to say, effective writers are successful because they meet the expectations of their audience. The choice they make in the writing process is based on knowledge of social conventions they share with their readers.

7.2.1.6 With reference to the Australian students' texts

Thematic analysis has also been done on the Australian students' texts. As pointed out in Chapter 4, the limited number of Australian texts collected makes it impossible to do a full contrastive analysis between the two cultural groups. Therefore, the small corpus of the native texts can only be used for reference purposes. Nevertheless, the use of the native data can shed some light on the
tendency of native speakers' patterning of information in expository writing, which
can be used as a base line for the researcher to judge more objectively the
effectiveness of the Chinese EFL learners' texts: whether the performance is the
result of the first language transfer or is a feature in the language developmental
process.

Generally, the generic structures in the Chinese students' texts do not differ
greatly from the Australian counterparts. In most cases, both groups raise the issue,
then develop it by using examples and counter-examples which are arranged in
parallel and made a conclusion. This finding contradicts Kaplan's (1966) and
Hind's (1987) research on the Chinese student writers of English. According to
Kaplan, Chinese students' English essays would be expected to follow the
traditional Chinese pattern, 'the eight-legged' pattern. In Hind's (1987) research,
Chinese students' English writing would employ another highly valued Chinese
pattern, 'Qi^Chéng^Zhuàn^Jié', that is, 'opening^continuing^turning^concluding'. In the present study, there is no evidence to support such views. It has
been found here that the Chinese EFL student texts do not follow either of the two
traditional Chinese organisation patterns.

As indicated in Chapter 4, Australian students wrote only on the analytical
topics due to the limitation of the test situation. Most of the Australian students'
texts placed the thesis in the first sentence. A few started the text with either an
introductory section or an explanation of the abstract notion (e.g. "politics"). In the
latter case, the thesis is introduced following a preparing stage. Compared with the
Chinese counterparts who like to repeat the topic title as the thesis (i.e. the macro-
theme), quite a number of the Australian writers paraphrase the title rather than
repeat it. Concerning the realisation of the concluding section, most of the
Australian writers summarise the points made above and provide a further
perspective to the reader. In the cases where a thesis is restated as part of the
conclusion, "so" is never employed. Again this concluding strategy used by the
Australian students is not found in many Chinese EFL texts.
As far as the 'evidence' section is concerned, the Australian texts tend to give more elaboration on the points made by including several details; whereas many Chinese texts tend to mention the major ideas with less or even no elaboration. Consequently, there are more gaps of information left to fill in (with the exception of the few successful texts). By "gaps" here, the researcher refers to missing information which needs to be filled in to make the reasoning clear.

Regarding the choice of Theme types, there is much in common between the Chinese and Australian student texts. As displayed in Table 7.7, the Australian students also use more unmarked Themes (totalling 78.46%) than marked Themes (totalling 21.54%). The Australian texts also use marked Themes, which are more realised in prepositional phrases rather than in clause Themes as preferred in the Chinese EFL texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text title</th>
<th>Number of texts</th>
<th>Number of t-units</th>
<th>Number of unmarked Themes</th>
<th>Number of marked Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. As an Australian citizen, do you think politics important?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>51 (78.46%)</td>
<td>14 (21.54%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge is the most valuable</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36 (85.71%)</td>
<td>6 (14.29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. One should study hard to get life ahead</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5 (83.33%)</td>
<td>1 (16.67%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>92 (81.42%)</td>
<td>21 (18.58%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.7  Marked Themes in Australian Students' Texts
Table 7.8 Distribution of Textual and Interpersonal Themes in the Australian Students’ Texts

In comparison with textual Themes, fewer interpersonal Themes are used in the Australian texts. This result is similar to their Chinese counterparts. As shown in Table 7.8, only 10 interpersonal Themes are employed (taking up 8.85%). When interpersonal Themes are used, they are mostly the ones which express the meaning of 'gradualness/degree' (such as gradually, to a great degree). However, the Chinese students are more likely to use a clause I think which is thought to be more subjective or even biased on the point they make (disregarding the texts on "politics" in which the use of I think is motivated by the title). Another difference is that the interpersonal Themes in Australian texts are more in the form of adverbs (such as generally).

The frequently used type of textual Themes in the Australian texts are the adversative conjunctives but and however, followed by the additive conjunctive and and causal conjunctive therefore.

As far as the Theme/Rheme progression patterns are concerned, there is no difference in the overall distribution tendency for the types of patterns in the English
writing of Chinese and the Australian students' texts. Like their Chinese counterparts, the frequently used patterns in the Australian texts (displayed in Table 7.9) rank as such: linear (38 cases out of 102, taking up 37.26%), constant patterns (32 cases, taking up 31.37%) and derived patterns (14 cases, taking up 13.73%), followed by 'Rheme A – Rheme B' iteration (11 cases, taking up 28.95%) and the 'Theme A – Rheme B' pattern (7 cases, taking up 6.86%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Themes</th>
<th>Frequencies of using patterns</th>
<th>Linear Themes</th>
<th>Constant Themes</th>
<th>Rheme A – Rheme B</th>
<th>Theme A – Rheme B</th>
<th>Derived Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text title</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. As an Australian citizen, do you think politics important?</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>23 (42.59%)</td>
<td>17 (31.48%)</td>
<td>8 (14.82%)</td>
<td>3 (5.56%)</td>
<td>3 (5.56%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>11 (25%)</td>
<td>15 (34.09%)</td>
<td>3 (6.82%)</td>
<td>4 (9.09%)</td>
<td>11 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. One should study hard to get the life ahead?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (100%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>38 (37.26%)</td>
<td>32 (31.37%)</td>
<td>11 (28.95%)</td>
<td>7 (6.86%)</td>
<td>14 (13.73%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.9 Distribution of Some Frequently-used Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Australian Students' Texts

In the texts by both cultural groups, although there are many inexplicable exceptions to both linear and constant patterns, basically they are more likely to follow these two patterns. In fact, no writers follow the three basic patterns throughout the whole texts. This observation supports McCarthy's (1991) observation that thematic progression patterns are "tendencies rather than absolute"
(p. 58). Very few texts repeat the same thematising/rhematising patterns endlessly. The fact that a variety of thematic patterns is used also supports Fries' (1995b) argument that it is not wise to "expect that every Theme of text... should fit into a single pattern of thematic progression" and the change of Themes is related to the different generic purposes that a text tries to achieve. The tendency is that in a particular text type, different Theme/Rheme patterns are employed to achieve different generic purposes.

However, the difference between the Australian and most of the Chinese texts (with the exception of the successful ones) lies in the choice of the content in the Theme/Rheme structure of the text. Most of the Australian texts argue for or against a point with appropriate and sufficient evidence, thus convincing the reader of their belief or proposition. Regarding the Chinese students, the fact that many students place the thesis at the beginning section does not necessarily mean that their texts were deductive in the sense that the native English speakers' are. The problem is that, after they settle their thesis, they cannot find an appropriate angle through which to process the writing, or they could not find convincing evidence to persuade the reader. Some evidence is not even relevant to the development of the text. Thus, how to choose to present effective evidence to support the thesis (in deductive reasoning) or to lead to the thesis (in inductive reasoning) is crucial and appears to be one of the serious problems for the Chinese EFL writers.

Another difference in terms of Theme/Rheme structuring is that the Australian students tend to use nominal phrases, nominalisation or relative clauses in the Themes which package more information in thematic position. Each of these devices used by Australian students is exemplified in Examples 17, 18 and 19 respectively. (The underlined part in each sentence is the Theme.)

Example 7.17 (Using a nominal phrase as the Theme)

The focus of their purpose is on matters like building codes, city laws and orders, property taxes and the like.

(Adapted from Text AP9)
Example 7.18 (Using nominalisation as the Theme)

In continuing with the ever widening political focus, the federal government and its political bodies, are in charge of national defence, international diplomacy and similar broad issues.

(Adapted from Text AP9)

Example 7.19 (Using a relative clause in the Theme)

A person who possesses only knowledge is really in a better position than one who has many possessions, but no knowledge.

(Adapted from Text AK2)

The employment of these devices is generally regarded as a feature of mature writing. By contrast, the Chinese student writers, lacking in this skill, have to use more clauses. Therefore, the information may be patterned more loosely.

Regarding the Chinese students' performance, the informants commented that the students who wrote on "Making our cities greener", "Knowledge is the most important" and "Reading does not help" did better than those who wrote on "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?" and "One should study hard?". The views expressed in "study" texts, like those in the "knowledge" texts, can be explained in terms of cultural expectations. In Chinese culture, students are expected to study hard for a better future and this concept is widely voiced in this data. In writing on the "greenery" topic (i.e. hortatory texts), students were given some teacher direction to help them choose the source of evidence. This may account for their better performance. However, in the analytical texts, because there is a lack of any teacher suggestion, students had to work out themselves what data would be relevant.

One interesting phenomenon is that although the "reading" topic and the "studying hard" topic are similar in concept (since they are both involved with "study"), writers on the former type produced better texts than those on the latter type. This may be related to the topic titles. The "reading" title is more narrow than the "study hard" one because the latter one as a broad issue includes many aspects.
It is hard for students to elaborate on every aspect of this issue. In this case, the test designer could also be held responsible for the student writers' failure on this topic.

Another issue is involved with cross-cultural differences. The introductory sentences and the 'evidence' stage chosen by the Chinese EFL students have much to do with the Chinese culture. McKay (1992), after comparing the Chinese ESL learners in China with a mixed group of ESL learners in US, found that the choice and development of composition topics in their English composition is largely a factor of the learners' cultural experience as well as the social and educational policy of the place of residence. Cultures differ greatly in what ideas are taken for granted and valued as evidence in different communities. Sometimes it may be hard for native English readers to understand why some choices are made when reading ESL/EFL writing.

With reference to this study, for example in the analytical texts, student writers tend to orient the reader to the situation of the university which indicates that the writing is organised from the angle of students. As a native Chinese speaker, the researcher can understand why "university" and "student" were chosen to orient the reader. For many generations most Chinese people believe that knowledge is the most important possession in the world and can only be gained at school. To study hard may guarantee the students having a better future. In Chinese writing, teachers always instruct students that it would be preferable to put their own experience in the text, thus making the text more persuasive, practical and vivid (Tan et al., 1996). Therefore, the writers who described their experience as university students in the introduction part may be influenced by this Chinese writing instruction.

All this shows that, what students write is clearly influenced by their cultural, social and educational experience. In this case, what is of concern is to what extent a writer can express him/herself clearly to the reader. One feature is that many Chinese EFL texts only "touch on" the topic rather than develop it. Although the Chinese students also choose items involving the topic titles as Themes and employ the commonly used thematic progression patterns, the insufficient and inappropriate
evidence leads to lack of depth or consistency in texts. All these weaknesses in information organisation will negatively affect the dynamic communication in the text. Therefore, the thematic structure cannot be as effective as it is supposed to be.

Another two issues which need to be clarified concern the Theme/Rheme structure at the sentence level: (1) How Chinese EFL writers sequence multiple Themes; (2) whether these students' sentences are more topic-prominent or subject-prominent. As mentioned in Chapter 1, Halliday (1985a; 1994) observes that the sequence of multiple Themes is typically textual ^ interpersonal ^ topical. In this data, almost all the multiple Themes used by the Chinese EFL students follow this order. The finding shows that the Chinese students were not influenced by their mother tongue in patterning multiple Themes because according to Hu (1994), the placement sequence of multiple Themes in Chinese is: interpersonal ^ textual ^ topical.

Regarding the second issue, as introduced in Chapter 2, Chinese is a topic-prominent language whereas English is a subject-prominent one, although mixing occurs in both languages (Li & Thompson, 1981). Topic-prominent language consists of 'topic' (what the clause/sentence is about) and 'comment', and 'topic' does not form a 'doing' or 'being' relationship with a verb as 'subject' does in a clause/sentence. Rutherford (1983) hypothesises that, when Chinese speakers learn English, they tend to transfer the topic-comment structure to their English production by favouring certain syntactic structures. With reference to the thematic structure in topic-comment structure, 'topic' is normally Theme followed by the 'comment' as Rheme. In this study, however it is found that 'subject-predicate' sentence structures (SVO/SV) are predominant in all texts. The few occurrences of 'topic-comment' structures are more likely to appear in unsuccessful texts. The following are some examples of topic-prominent structures used by the Chinese students.
Example 7.20

Politics (Topic/Theme), in my view, <it> is a management of human that manipulated by minor people.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text P6)

Example 7.21

1/ Our cities greener (greenery) (Topic/Theme), <some of which> is better, <some of which> is not the best. 2/ There are a few trees in that cities.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G71)

Example 7.22

5/ But I think a usual people will go on his life without taking care of anything about politics. 6/ But our country as whole (Topic/Theme), <it> is important that each number takes care of politics.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text P11)

In Examples 7.20, 7.21 and 7.22, the topic (the underlined part in each sentence) is the Theme. The Rheme is the rest of the sentence. The element in '<>' is the subject which has to agree with the number of the verb. The Theme in Examples 7.20 and 7.21 is the "picked-up" Theme, that is, a "thematised constituent which is later picked up by a pronoun in an unmarked position" in the sentence (Lock, 1996: 227). Example 7.22 uses an "absolute Theme", a Theme which "is not a participant or a circumstance in the core clause" (Lock, 1996: 226). Both kinds of Themes have no role in the transitivity structure of the core clause or sentence. As introduced in Chapter 2, this structure is common in Chinese (Li & Thompson, 1981) and is also considered to be most likely to be employed by Chinese learners of English (Rutherford, 1983). However, it is not the case in this study.

The fact that few such kind of structures are used in these sample texts indicates that the Chinese EFL writers are not influenced by their mother tongue at the sentence level. Since this research only concentrates on writing, there is no evidence as to whether the Chinese learners would produce more topic-comment structures in spoken English. Nevertheless, it is fair to modify Rutherford's (1983) typological transfer hypothesis on Chinese learners of English.
These two phenomena indicate that at the sentence level, there is not much difference in thematic structure patterning between the native and Chinese speakers. This may be explained as a result of EFL teaching in the Chinese context. It has been mentioned in Chapter 1 that Chinese EFL teachers expect students to learn the English text by heart. Due to this practice students would memorise a number of sentences, thus leading to an internalising of the drills so that they can generate more sentences. This rote learning may be effective at the sentence level, but will not work at the textual level. Regarding the students' production of subject-prominent syntax, many English grammar books available in China emphasise that the basic structure of English is SVO or SV. In the English classroom, teachers would have students compose sentences by using these basic sentence structures. This undoubtedly increases the chance of using these types of English structures consciously in writing.

7.2.2 The hortatory texts

7.2.2.1 Generic stages in the EFL analytical texts

In the hortatory texts ("Making Our Cities Greener" which makes up 74 out of 141 samples in the corpus), the organisation pattern is influenced by the question prompts given as the test directions. As already mentioned in Chapter 4, these questions include: What is the problem in our country? What are the benefits of making our cities greener? What shall we do in order to improve the situation? Each question in fact hints at a generic stage in the text which serves a certain discoursal purpose in fulfilling the requirement of the macro-theme, i.e. the title. In many texts, each generic stage was introduced by a hyper-theme, that is, the derived Theme of the macro-theme. Four generic stages are generally identified: 'situation', 'problem', 'evaluation of the preferable situation' and 'solution'. There are cases where some student writers omit one generic stage or repeat one specific stage for emphasis. Most of the texts follow a generic pattern such as: situation ^ problem ^ evaluation ^ solution (where '^' indicates sequence).
In practice, the 'situation' stage and the 'problem' stage merge in the same paragraph with the remaining two stages in separate paragraphs respectively. In many cases, the hyper-theme (i.e. the topic sentence) is explicitly placed at the beginning of each generic stage, especially in the 'evaluation' stage and the 'solution' stage. In the 'evaluation' stage, students tend to write "City greenness has many benefits", and in the 'solution' stage, they are likely to use structures such as "How to make our cities greener/How do we make our cities greener", or "In order to make our cities greener, we should do..."). In this case, the text is developed through deductive reasoning. By contrast, there are also cases where hyper-themes are realised implicitly. That is, there is no topical sentence to specify the discoursal purpose. Therefore, it is up to the reader to perceive the proposed hyper-theme through the sentences. Example 7.23 indicates one illustration of using an implicit hyper-theme.

Example 7.23

Green plants can bring us clean air. If there were many green trees and colourful flowers, the city would become more beautiful. And green plants can change the dry climate of our cities. The more trees there are, the more rain (it) will fall.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G15)

In Example 7.23, despite the fact that there is no specific sentence to mark the hyper-theme explicitly in this passage, the reader can easily infer from the given information source that the discoursal purpose is to describe the advantages of city greenery.

7.2.2.2 The choices of Theme/Rheme in relation to the generic stages in the EFL texts

In all the texts on the "greenery" topic, unmarked Themes outnumber marked Themes in that unmarked Themes take up 73.7%; that is, 699 out of 948 are unmarked Themes (displayed in Table 7.10). As described in Chapter 1, unmarked
Theme is an ideational Theme which conflates with the subject in the sentence. By contrast, marked Theme is realised by different types of circumstances, the purpose of which is to set up a context for the discourse. This result is same as in the analytical texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hortatory texts</th>
<th>Number of the texts</th>
<th>Number of t-units</th>
<th>Number of unmarked Themes</th>
<th>Number of marked Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Making our cities greener</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>699 (73.7%)</td>
<td>249 (26.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.10  Percentages of Using Unmarked and Marked Themes in Chinese EFL Hortatory Texts

Another two types of Theme (textual and interpersonal Theme) are also present with textual Themes (totally 270 out of 948 sentences use textual Themes, taking up 28.48%) outnumbering interpersonal ones (totally 45 out of 948 sentences use interpersonal Themes, taking up 4.75%), displayed in Table 7.11. This result is also same as in the analytical texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hortatory texts</th>
<th>Number of texts</th>
<th>Number of t-units</th>
<th>Number of textual Themes</th>
<th>Number of interpersonal Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Making our cities greener</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>270 (28.48%)</td>
<td>45 (4.75%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.11  Distribution of Textual and Interpersonal Themes in Chinese EFL Hortatory Texts

Textual Themes function as markers of discoursal organisation whereas interpersonal Themes express the writer’s attitude to the discussion.

The distribution of different types of thematic patterns is displayed in Table 7.12.
### Table 7.12 Distribution of Some Frequently-used Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Chinese EFL Hortatory Texts

Generally, the three most frequently used progression patterns in the hortatory texts are: 'constant' (taking up 30.86%), 'linear' (taking up 31.73%) and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' (taking up 23.29%). Within each generic stage, some patterns are more common than others.

In the 'situation/problem' stage, it is common that the writers started by using temporal and locational circumstantial Themes in order to set up a context for the whole text. The frequently used Themes have to do with cities, city greenness (which means "city greenery") and people. The textual Theme but/however (an adversative conjunctive) is more likely to be employed to indicate a shift from one generic stage to the other (i.e. from 'the situation' to 'the problem'). This shift is also indicated by using a circumstance of reason and a circumstance of concession.

There are not many interpersonal Themes at this stage. With regard to Theme/Rheme progression patterns in this stage, totally there are 232 employments of patterns,
both 'linear' and 'constant' thematic progression patterns frequently occur in that there are 64 (27.37%) and 77 (33.19%) employments respectively, followed by 'Rheme A – Rheme B' (i.e. Rheme iteration) with 60 employments (25.86%) and 'Theme A – Rheme B' with 31 employments (13.36%). This result suggests that the choice of different Theme types and Theme/Rheme patterns correlates with different generic stages.

As mentioned in Chapter 5, 'Rheme A – Rheme B' and 'Theme A – Rheme B' are considered to be less frequent in English writing (Danes, 1974). Despite the fact that the analysis in Chapter 5 demonstrates that successful writers do use these two types of patterns occasionally, it is observed that in this generic stage (i.e. the 'situation/problem' stage), the employment of these two patterns usually indicates lack of skill in conveying the message. One such example for each case is shown in Examples 7.24. and 7.25 respectively.

Example 7.24 (The underlined part in each sentence is the Rheme.)

1/ Our city is a green city. 2/ Everywhere you can see green trees, green grass. 3/ Every time you come, you will be around green sea. 4/ School and factory are green.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G2)

In Example 7.24, all Rhemes have similar content whereas Themes change all the time. In English writing, meaning is developed in terms of the interaction between Theme and Rheme. Theme, normally conflating with Given, provides the reader with what the point of departure is; Rheme, however, mapping onto New provides the message which the writer intends the reader to focus on. With reference to Example 7.24, given that the Rhemes do not provide any New in this stretch of discourse, the organisation does not meet the reader's expectation of the information interaction between Given and New.

Example 7.25 (The italic part is topical Theme and the underlined part is Rheme.)

1/ In our country, some cities plant trees well. 2/ and people are living in green. 3/ But other cities aren't so. 4/ There are few trees in them.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G60)
In Example 7.25, *them*, the Rheme of Sentence 4, refers back to the ideational Theme in Sentence 3 (*other cities*), therefore they form a 'Theme 3 – Rheme 4' pattern. Based on the principle of 'Given and New', Rheme 4 is supposed to provide the reader some new information. However, it is realised by repeating the Given (*them for cities*) which the reader has met in Sentence 3. Therefore, there is not much information development in the text.

In the 'evaluation' stage, *city greenness, people, trees/plants/flowers, the air* and *the weather* are used as topical Themes. Many writers employ a conditional circumstantial Theme to set up a favourable greenery situation (e.g. "If we have [had] more trees...") in contrast to the disadvantaged situation described in the 'situation/problem' stage. Textual Themes such as the additive conjunctive *and*, the exemplifying conjunctive *for example* and the temporal sequential conjunctives *first, secondly* and *thirdly* are used to connect different pieces of information. As in the 'situation/problem' stage, few interpersonal Themes appear in this stage.

In terms of thematic patterns in the 'evaluation' stage, 'linear' patterns are common with 71 cases of employment, taking up 31.85%. In addition, 'derived' (16 cases, indicated by the temporal sequential conjunctives, taking up 7.18%), 'Theme A – Rheme B' (13 cases, taking up 5.83%) and 'Rheme A – Rheme B' (21 cases, taking up 9.42%) are also used. However, the most frequently used pattern is 'constant thematic progression' (102 cases, 45.74%) with "city greenness" as the starting point. Example 7.26 is one such example:

Example 7.26

Making cities greener is more beneficial. For example, it can clean the air, make it fresher and it will be good to our health. It can make our cities more beautiful and then let our living surrounding be more comfortable, and it can improve the climate too.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G45)

In Example 7.26, all Themes are identical so that the ideas of the generic stage occur in a parallel type of thematic progression.
In the 'solution' stage, the writer would be expected to suggest some possible solutions to the stated problem. There is variation in structuring the information. Some writers simply suggest several procedures to be taken. Other writers, after offering some solutions, comment on the project of "making the cities greener" itself or speculate on the desired outcome. In the latter case, it is common to use thematic temporal circumstances like after this or in the future, or to use a circumstance of manner like in this way or by doing all this work. As well as keeping the lexical items relating to city greenery as the content of Themes, the exophoric reference we is frequently employed as Theme, followed by should in the Rheme. Alternatively, some writers use imperative Themes. In both cases, the texts in this stage exert more obligatory appeal on the citizens.

The interpersonal Themes include clauses such as I think, I am sure or I believe. The textual Themes are the temporal sequential conjunctives (i.e. first, secondly and thirdly). These textual Themes also occur in the 'evaluation' stage for demonstrating a series of internal relations (that is, to help pattern the information in terms of the rhetorical purpose). However, in the 'solution' stage, they are used as external conjunctives (that is, to help sequence the events based on the real world).

As far as the thematic progression patterns are concerned, in the 'solution' stage, 'Rheme A – Rheme B' is the most prominent (82 cases, taking up 33.47%), followed by 'linear' (74 cases, taking up 30.2%), 'constant' (50 cases, taking up 20.41%), 'derived' (which is indicated by the temporal sequential conjunctives; 20 cases, taking up 8.16%) and 'theme A – Rheme B’ (19 cases, taking up 7.76). Example 7.27 demonstrates this pattern.

Example 7.27

1/ How (do we) make our cities greener? 2/ First, call for the people to plant trees, to love the trees and not to cut out the trees. 3/ Usually water the small trees, flowers. 4/ So we can make our cities beautiful.

(Adapted from Paragraph 3, Text G7)
In Sentences 1–3, the underlined parts are Rhemes which are related to one another semantically. Themes change all the time.

Regarding the quality of the texts on the "greenery" topic, successful writers usually do not give abrupt New without preparation within each generic stage. That is, the information units are connected with one another. These writers prepare the reader for the shift by summarising the Given information in a phrase or in a dependent clause as a transitional element before starting a new hyper-theme for the next generic stage (see Text G13 in Table 7.13).

However, in unsuccessful texts, there is always a sudden shift of the information from one generic stage to the other, thus disrupting the reader's expectation. Even within a generic stage, frequent sudden changes of Theme lead to a lack of connection between sentences (see Text G61 in Table 7.13).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Text</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Text G13)</td>
<td>(Text G61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1: Situation + problem 1/ With the development of the industry, it becomes more and more important to make our cities greener. 2/ Presently, a large number of trees have been planted in parks or beside streets. 3/ Grass can be seen here and there. 4/ But there are still someone who does not realise the importance and benefits of making our cities greener (transitional stage).</td>
<td>Stage 1: Situation + problem 1/ Walking in some places in Peking, the trees at each side of the streets are very tall and beautiful 2/ and the air, after raining is so clean that everyone here will stay more time to enjoy themselves. 3/ In another street in summer, there are no trees, no water and no flowers. 4/ The hot air around us is so dirty that everyone lives here will wash clothes every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2: Evaluation of city greenery 5/ The benefits of making the city greener are many. 6/ For example, it can clean the air, beautify the city and improve the climate. 7/ It also do good to our bodies and minds, and prevent pollution.</td>
<td>Stage 2: Evaluation of city greenery 5/ City greenness is very important and necessary. 6/ And this will bring us very comfortable life outdoors. 7/ Everyone wants to be healthy and clean. 8/ So, can you say the city greener is not necessary?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3: Solution 8/ Since city greenery can do so much for us (Transitional stage), how can we obtain it? 9/ I think we should do: 10/ At first, we should make good use of our propaganda for greenery. 11/ And we should punish those who destroy plants. 12/ Moreover, we should do our best to plant trees and make more green land. 13/ Thus, we can make our cities greener.</td>
<td>Stage 3: Solution 9/ The city greener is not an easy thing. 10/ So all of us should have the duty to plant and protect plants day after day. 11/ Never break them. 12/ All of us will live more lightly and comfortably.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.13 A Comparison of a Successful and an Unsuccessful EFL Hortatory Text
7.3 Cohesive Relations

The use of different cohesive devices tends to vary according to register variables such as field (i.e. the topic). Since there are few significant differences in using types of cohesive devices between the two different types of expository texts, it is not necessary for the researcher to present the findings in two separate sections.

7.3.1 Conjunction

Textual Themes are realised in conjunction. However, due to the different coding system, conjunction may not always overlap textual Theme (as introduced in Chapter 4, 't-unit' is used as the coding unit in thematic analysis whereas in cohesive analysis, 'clause' is the coding unit.)

In the hortatory texts (i.e. "Making our cities greener"), the types of conjunctives used are closely related to each generic stage. In the "situation and problem" stage, temporal and adversative conjunctives are more likely to occur. Other conjunctives such as additives (in particular and) and apposition (i.e. for example) may also occur to help link the information. The frequent presence of temporal and adversative conjunctives is understandable, given that most of the texts progress in the following way: an introduction about the current situation of city greenery (usually expressed as "better than before") followed by a shift to the problem to be faced which is realised by an adversative conjunctive as a transitional element (usually but or however).

The Chinese EFL students sometimes make mistakes by using adversative conjunctions when there is no need of an adversative meaning in the situation. The following is an example of the misuse of the adversative but in that "but" functions as an additive rather than an adversative conjunctive.

Example 7.28

Our cities are lack of greener. When you have a look, you can't see a lot of greener, but you can see nothing. Almost our cities' colour is yellow, especially far north.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G69)
In other cases, students choose to describe the unfavourable situation directly. In this case, there is not much necessity to use adversative conjunctives. Instead, more additive conjunctives may be used.

In the 'evaluation' stage, most students use additive and causal-conditional conjunctives. Since in this stage the students were expected to exemplify some benefits of city greenery, additives help juxtapose the clauses which express the advantages of greenery whereas causal conjunctives help elaborate on each specific 'benefit' by showing a 'cause-effect' relationship. Some unsuccessful writers simply provide a list of advantages by using and, or even without using any conjunctives. By contrast, successful writers do not employ and as frequently as their unsuccessful counterparts. Instead, they may employ sequential conjunctives (i.e. first, secondly and thirdly) as well as some causal relations to enhance each advantage of greenery mentioned, or some examples to elaborate on each point. The commonly used conjunctive devices for serving these two discourse purposes are so (or occasionally because) and for example respectively.

In the 'situation/problem' stage and the 'evaluation' stage which are described above, conjunctive relations appear to be expressed internally because the writers consciously attempt to place one point in relationship to the others. However, in the 'solution' stage, because the writers are expected to suggest some measures to be taken in order to solve the problem of city greenery, the patterning of information is based on the sequence of events in the process of making the cities greener, that is, the real world situation. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 240) categorise this type of conjunctive relation as "external" conjunction.

In the 'solution' stage, most students make the choice of using either additive (and) or temporal-sequential conjunctives (i.e. first, secondly and thirdly) or even using both types of conjunctives. Temporal-sequential conjunctives help arrange the measures to be taken in sequence. In addition, causal conjunctives are also frequently employed at this stage. This type of conjunctive, functioning as a transitional element, shifts the text to the next move — the consequence of the
solution (the preferable situation). In practice, more student writers tend to employ so rather than therefore followed by a clause either evaluating the greenery project or a preferable situation.

This preference for using so may be affected by the pedagogical situation of English teaching in China. It is common for Chinese EFL instructors to inform students of the Chinese meaning of any new English words or phrases, and the students also tend to look up the English-Chinese dictionary for the Chinese meaning of the English word. Either way, the interpretation they obtain does not always cover the entire range of meanings of this word or phrase. With limited knowledge about a lexical item, students may overgeneralise the usage. For example, in many English-Chinese dictionaries, both so and therefore convey exactly the same meaning in Chinese literal translation. Therefore, students may be impressed by this similarity and will treat the two items in the same way.

With reference to the analytical type of expository texts in this corpus, since most texts follow similar generic stages — 'thesis', 'supportive evidence' and 'conclusion' — the conjunctive devices used are internally oriented as they help organise the writers' points of view about a specific issue.

Unlike the texts on "city greenery" in which all the generic stages are realised in paragraphs and all stages are of approximately equal size, in the analytical texts a majority of writers did not write much in the 'thesis' stage and the 'concluding' stage; instead, they placed more weight on the 'evidence' stage. For this reason, it may be more significant for the researcher to analyse conjunction at the whole text level rather than at the level of each generic stage.

Observation reveals that the 'if'-clause' is commonly used. One peculiar feature about using 'if'-clauses' is that most conditional clauses are expressed syntactically in factual conditionals even if the non-factual conditionals are required. This confusion in using the non-factual conditional is considered to be a feature of Chinese transfer. Like English natives, Chinese speakers also express unreal conditionals in reality. However, in practice, what makes the expressions different
from English is that in Chinese both factual and non-factual conditionals are expressed syntactically in the same way. For this reason, the distinction of one type from the other, to a great extent, depends on the context of situation. The Chinese EFL students are more likely to transfer this first language phenomenon to their foreign language learning. In this sense, their expression mistakes are shaped by rhetorical differences (Xu, 1990).

Example 7.29

... 7/ There are a lot of advantages in making a city green. 8/ It can clean the atmosphere. 9/ It can make a city beautiful, 10/ it can change the climate. 11/ If Beijing is (were) green and beautiful, 12/ it will (would) appeal to many tourists during the Asian Games and give them a good impression.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G53)

In Example 7.29, Clause 11 and Clause 12 comprise a non-factual conditional sentence. However, it is realised in the factual conditional form. (The correct form for both verbs is indicated in the brackets respectively.)

As in the hortatory texts, causal conjunction is another device which is frequently used. Students tend to use so in expressing 'cause-effect' relations. There are also some examples of employing "therefore", "for" and "because" clauses.

Another feature relating to the use of causal conjunctives is the employment of 'clause fragments' (which are termed 'sentence fragments' in Chapter 5; technically these terms are interchangeable in this research).

Example 7.30

... 5/ Planting trees and grasses will be good for a city. 6/ Because the trees can clean the bad airs that are given off by cars and buses.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G60)

In Example 7.30, Clause 6 is a sentence fragment as there is no main clause in this sentence.

As far as the use of the causal conjunctive because is concerned, it occurs in both types of expository texts in this research. A causal relation always involves a
cause/reason and effect/result. Because it is difficult to clearly differentiate between the cause of an event and the reason why an event has happened, the researcher has treated the two notions as the same category. By the same token, the researcher has not distinguished between result and effect. In this corpus of data, not all of the expressions with because are effective. The ineffective use of because in the present study supports some previous research on the same issue. For example, Schleppegrell (1991; 1992) found that some specific functions of because can only be expected in English speech, not in writing. The inappropriate employments of because in English writing include using it to express the writer's knowledge and to contribute to cohesion in discourse indirectly (i.e. through a broad topic link). According to Schleppegrell (1991; 1992), these uses are not relevant in academic writing in which "because-clauses" are expected to attach to the main clauses and provide reasons or causes. The following are examples of these problems:

Example 7.31

One should study hard because you as a human being, must do something in your life.  
(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text S15)

Example 7.32

Knowledge is the most valuable thing of course, because history has already told us.  
(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text K4)

In Example 7.31, the reader may perceive the information thus: "One should study hard to attain more knowledge. If he/she attempts to accomplish some goal in his/her life-time, having more knowledge will be a prerequisite". Nevertheless, there is no direct connection between the main clause and the "because-clause". In Example 7.32, the writer violates the reader's expectation by providing his/her conclusion drawn from the knowledge base rather than providing the reason why knowledge is the most valuable thing.

Compared with the analytical texts, the employment of "because-clauses" in the hortatory texts (i.e. about "city greenery") is more likely to follow the
expectation of the reader. That is, the causal clause provides the reason for the assertion of the main clause on which it depends.

One significant problem in terms of adversative conjunctives lies in the use of the adversative device *on the other hand* in that the message conveyed by the "on the other hand clause" only provides additional knowledge rather than implying any contrast with the previous information. Example 7.33 illustrates this misuse.

Example 7.33

... 5/ In college, he need not only study, but also to look for a vocational job in the society. 6/ On the one hand, he can make some money for himself and need not be afforded by his parents. 8/ On the other hand, he can get some experience in the society.

(Adapted from Text S1)

The source of this problem is transfer-related. The English conjunctive *on the other hand* is thought to be the same as "the other side/aspect" (*ling yì fāng miàn*), a Chinese conjunctive. Thus, students may overgeneralise the similarity to use in English. After investigating a large number of Chinese expository essays for the application of this conjunctive (including 158 articles by Mao and 119 by Deng), the researcher found that there are some differences in terms of the expression in writing between *ling yì fāng miàn* (meaning "the other side/aspect") in Chinese and *on the other hand* in English in that the Chinese conjunctive *ling yì fāng miàn* ("the other side/aspect") is more flexible than its English counterpart; it is usually expected to express a contrastive meaning in the clause, in which case it is similar to *on the other hand* in English. However, it is also very common that this Chinese conjunctive is employed as an additive conjunctive in the same way as "in addition" in English.

The following examples of using *on the other hand* are cited from Mao's and Deng's expository essays. Both politicians were influential figures in Chinese politics; in addition, both were commonly recognised as good Chinese writers. For this reason, both politicians' works have been selected as expository writing models in compiling the nation-wide Chinese textbooks for high school students.
Mao's works had a higher rate of frequency in using *on the other hand* than Deng's: the stated conjunctive occurs in appropriately half of his 158 articles ("The Selected Works of Mao Tze Dong", 1968). Most of his application of this conjunctive is involved with the additive meaning with the exception of few cases in which *on the other hand* implies a contrastive meaning. In Deng's "The Selected Works of Deng Xiao Ping" (1993), most of the uses of this conjunctive mark contrastive meanings. Nevertheless, Deng also used this device as an additive conjunctive. The following passages are the literal translations of some clauses in which *on the other hand* is used to convey an additive meaning, thus leading to the violation of the native speaker's expectation.

Example 7.34

To accomplish this goal (i.e. to defeat the Japanese invaders and build up a freedom-featured China), any military actions should be reflected as such: on the one hand, preserving the power of the troops by all means; *on the other hand*, wiping out the enemy to the largest extent.

(Adapted from Mao's essay "On the issue of strategies in the anti-Japanese guerrilla war", written in 1938 and published in 1968; the researcher's translation)

Example 7.35

We do not have many intellectuals on the one hand; *on the other hand*, in some places neither of the middle-aged nor young intellectuals are able to play an important role in society.

(Adapted from Deng's essay "A report on the impression of inspecting Jiangsu Province", written in 1983 and published in 1993; the researcher's translation)

Regarding the Chinese EFL students' texts in this study, the inappropriate application of *on the other hand* also reflects the fact that EFL instructors do not seem to provide students with guidance about this rhetorical difference in use between the two languages.

There are also many cases in which conjunctive relations are expressed implicitly by means of the juxtaposition of clauses. Since most Chinese students are not expert in English writing, the way they use the implicit conjunction does not
always make sense. With reference to the texts which use implicit conjunctive relations, unsuccessful texts always provide a list of clauses which do not relate to each other. The following passage is an example of this lack of causal relations.

Example 7.36

1/ There are a lot of parks in the centre of the street in Beijing. 2/ On each side of the street, trees and flowers are planted. 3/ The National Games will be held in Beijing. 4/ The official has organised a lot of people to plant trees and flowers. 5/ In Beijing, wherever you go, you'll find trees, grass and flowers.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G28)

In passages like Example 7.36, the text seems out of focus because of the lack of explicit conjunctives (in particular, when expressing conditional and consequential relations). Clauses 1 and 2 focus on the situation of greenery in Beijing. Clause 3 shifts the topic of "greenery" to that of "the National Games" which has nothing to do with the previous information. In fact, Clause 3 provides the reason why people planted trees — the activity which has led to improvement of greenery at present. Nevertheless, the reader fails to interpret this message due to insufficient cues to show this cause-effect relationship.

Successful writers may also employ implicit conjunctive relations. However, unlike their unsuccessful counterparts, the lack of explicit conjunctives may be compensated for by using other cohesive devices (i.e. reference and lexical devices) as well as some prepositional phrases in the text. The passage in Example 7.37 is one example of using implicit conjunctive relations in a successful text.

Example 7.37

1/ Cities are becoming larger and larger. 2/ With the population increasing and industries developing, the condition is becoming worse and worse. 3/ In Shanghai, the largest city in China, you can hardly find a piece of grassland. 4/ Of course, some cities, such as Hangzhou, my home town are beautiful; you can find green everywhere, especially near the beautiful West Lake.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G53)
In Example 7.37, despite the fact that few explicit conjunctives are used, the message is clearly conveyed. The prepositional phrase *With the population increasing and industries developing* explains the cause of the problem. Another prepositional phrase *In Shanghai* signals that a specific example will be given to elaborate on the general situation introduced in the previous clause. *Shanghai* and *Hangzhou* are both co-hyponyms of *cities*. In contrast with the passage in Example 7.36, in which there is no link of information between some clauses, in Example 7.37, all clauses bind with each other by means of prepositional phrases and lexical cohesion.

There are cases where other conjunctive relations such as additive, temporal, adversative and apposition may be expressed implicitly. However, regarding the rate of frequency in using implicit conjunctive relations, implicit adversative relations are considerably less frequent than others. This phenomenon may be related to the Chinese usage in that adversative conjunctives are seldom omitted.

Finally, the researcher found that successful writers use more apposition and clarification either explicitly or implicitly. Example 7.38 indicates how a successful writer uses these devices.

Example 7.38

1/ An old Chinese idiom states that students can buy a gold house 2/ if they study hard. 3/ In fact, this idea is originated from the civil servant examination in the old regime of China. 4/ At that time, the only way to succeed was studying 5/ and gaining the first position in the civil servant examination was the dream of every student.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text S20)

In Example 7.38, the conjunctive *In fact* in Clause 3 signals a clarification of the previous information (i.e. the idiom). Clause 4 (by using *At that time* as the Theme) together with Clause 5 exemplifies implicitly what was expected of a student in the past which is foreshadowed in Clause 3 (i.e. *in the old regime of China*). The conjunctive relation between Clause 3 and Clause 4 is that of apposition. Both clarification and apposition are used for the purpose of elaboration. Compared with
successful writers, unsuccessful writers were not able to use apposition and elaboration appropriately.

7.3.2 Lexical cohesion

All the lexical devices introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976) occur in this corpus of data — repetition, collocation, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and antonymy. Collocation and repetition appear to be the predominant types.

Based on the informants' positive assessment of texts that use a variety of lexical resources correctly, it may be reasonable to say that diversity of lexical choices and the correctness of lexical collocation seem to be the main factors that affect the reader's judgment of the quality of a text. One striking feature in successful texts is that, while these writers attempt to give more examples to support the point in each generic stage, the collocation employed creates the relevant cohesive relations, thus contributing to the development of the text. In unsuccessful texts, by contrast, the collocation may not be related to the topic of the specific generic stage; therefore, it does not contribute to the text development. As a result, the employment of irrelevant collocation may create digression in perceiving the message. The collocation used in Example 7.39 is ineffective.

Example 7.39

All of us know plants mean life. They can make air cleaner, make sunlight cooler. A tree as a machine, he can make O₂ and H₂O which we need. We and nature are in a big family. We should live together.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G24)

One weakness in this passage is the irrelevant use of some metaphors (the underlined parts), which are acceptable in the Chinese language. However in English writing, this kind of usage is not generally employed. Therefore, it fails to create any effective cohesive relations which contribute to the development of text.
As far as the expression of meaning is concerned, it is partly related to the writer's grammatical competence and partly related to the writer's vocabularies. This research shows that these student writers' limited vocabularies to a great extent restrict the possibilities of expressing their viewpoint. This weakness is mirrored in poor wording and inappropriate collocation. Some examples of these are presented in Example 7.40. The underlined item in each clause is not properly used and the relevant one is in the brackets.

Example 7.40

1) The birds sing and dance (flutter) in the trees.

2) We must love (protect, care for) trees and flowers.

3) The next step is to call a current (launch a campaign) that everyone should ...

4) There are still some questions (problems) such as pollution and trees' sources.

5) It can advance (improve) the climate.

6) There would be something unhappy (unpleasant) such as dust, waste water...

7) More and more Chinese know about the emphasis (importance) of planting.

8) ... and flowers are raised (planted) around people's houses.

9) We must get as much knowledge as we can through life and import it (pass it on) to our offspring.

10) Someone may think studying is the most favourite (desirable) thing.

11) If you are lazy, it means you are rubbish (useless) and will be washed off with by the history river (left behind in society).

The student writers' problem here is poor or imprecise understanding of the semantic relations of the field-specific lexis. It goes without saying that the use of such vocabulary items will affect the degree of precision in conveying the message. However, it can be assumed after examining this list of lexical items that the student writers have struggled to express the meaning, in which case they definitely made a choice from the limited vocabulary at their disposal. In addition, the fact that in
Chinese translation, each underlined item shares the meaning with the counterpart in the bracket may also account for the reason that the students have chosen to use these items.

This second reason can be traced back to the English teaching in Chinese schools and universities. Most of the English textbooks published in China have a preference for providing a vocabulary list before presenting each text, where the one-to-one Chinese translation of the English new word or phrase is supplied. The advantage of this method is to save students' time looking up dictionaries. But one negative effect is that students may never acquire the range of meanings of the particular item because only limited entries regarding the lexical item are introduced in any vocabulary list.

Like Example 7.39, some expressions in Example 7.40 are metaphors. Although not all the student writers use this rhetorical device, the occurrence is still significant. In Chinese expository writing, the employment of this device is encouraged and is regarded as elegance (Li, 1995). This may result from the Chinese writing tradition which does not encourage plain language. Students seem to transfer this 'flowery' style to English writing. However, in English, it is believed that using words in such a manner in factual writing will weaken the reader-writer relationship. It is necessary for Chinese EFL students to learn such conventions.

With regard to the other predominant lexical device (i.e. repetition), Tarone and Yule's research (1987) indicates that native English writers would not encourage repetition since it is associated with redundancy. According to McCarthy (1991), the tolerance for repetition in writing varies from culture to culture. However, Hu (1992) observes that there is no difference in using repetition in Chinese and English writing. In this research, successful writers use this lexical device for reiteration of a certain point of view which proves to be valuable in developing the text; whereas the unsuccessful writers tend to overuse repetitions simply to maintain the topic. This is because the unsuccessful writers are hampered
by inadequate vocabulary for generating their point of view. As a result, the text may not be well developed.

With regard to other lexical devices such as synonymy, antonymy and hyponymy as observed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), the following exemplify each of these devices respectively.

Example 7.41 (Using synonymy)

... 4/ first, through acquiring knowledge, we can understand the reason and causes of everything that happens all the time; 5/ mastering knowledge, we are interested in doing everything...

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text K12)

In Example 7.41, acquiring in Clause 4 forms a relationship of synonymy with mastering in Clause 5.

Example 7.42 (Using antonymy)

... 9/ Secondly, he should grasp the method to study. 10/ Different aspects of knowledge should be studied in different methods. 11/ There is no common method to learn different aspects of knowledge.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text S4)

In Example 7.42, different in Clause 10 forms a relationship of antonymy with common in Clause 11.

Example 7.43 (Using hyponymy)

1/ I live in Beijing. 2/ This city is very beautiful.

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G25)

In Example 7.43, Beijing in Clause 1 is a hyponym to city in Clause 2.

The use of these devices (i.e. synonymy, hyponymy and antonymy) to some degree seems to be correlated with the fields being developed. For example, hyponymy and antonymy are likely to appear in "Making our cities greener"; when students described different plants (i.e. flowers and trees) or exemplified some specific cities they lived in, they would use hyponymy; when they tried to contrast
the preferred greenery situation with that of a polluted and dusty environment, antonymy was used. Hyponymy and antonymy are also common in "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?": students use the former device when comparing Chinese citizens with people of other countries; they tend to use the latter one when contrasting good politics with bad politics. Antonymy is also present in "Knowledge is the most valuable" where many Chinese students contrast the notion of "knowledge" with that of "money". Synonymy and antonymy appear in "One should study hard". In "Reading does not help much" however, there is no tendency to use lexical devices other than repetition and collocation. This may be due to the fact that there are only six texts available. Therefore, this conclusion cannot be generalised.

One problem with lexical cohesion lies in using synonymy in order to avoid too much repetition. That the learners make a wrong choice may be related to their memorising the word presented by the textbook as synonymous with a particular item. In this case, the word they learned may only be synonymous in certain contexts. The learner needs to know in which context a specific pair of words is synonymous. One of the inappropriate uses of synonymy is indicated in Example 7.44.

Example 7.44

... 12/ Thirdly, these four years is the best time in life. 13/ Each age has it pleasures and pains.

(Adapted from Paragraph 4, Text S6)

In Example 7.44, age in Clause 13 is not appropriate as a synonym to years in Clause 12. Regarding this study, although there are some cases where successful writers tend to use more diversity of lexical items than unsuccessful ones, the difference at the lexical level does not appear to be significant between the two groups.

In general, the difference between successful and unsuccessful writers is that successful writers tend to use more diversity of lexical items in collocation.
Although lexical devices such as synonymy, hyponymy, and antonymy appear in both groups of texts, the employment at the textual level is only occasional. The ability to use all these devices appropriately may be regarded as one of the features of successful writing. The overuse of repetition and collocation indicates that these students are at a lower level of writing, exacerbated by a poor grasp of English vocabulary.

With reference to synonymy and antonymy, despite the fact that the Chinese students were not good at using them at the discourse level (like the other device, hyponymy), it is found that there is high frequency of using both devices at the clause level. Examples 7.45 and 7.46 indicate each case respectively.

Example 7.45 (Using synonymy at the same clause)

... 7/ Secondly, all of us wish for a bright future after graduation. 8/ Accomplishing this idea means hard work. 9/ It may be dull and boring.

(Adapted from Paragraph 3, Text S6)

In Example 7.45, dull and boring in Clause 9 are synonyms.

Example 7.46 (Using antonymy at the same clause)

... 4/ It is sometimes dangerous and harmful, especially to juveniles who haven't enough ability to judge of right or wrong. ...

(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text R1)

In Example 7.46, right and wrong in Clause 4 are antonyms.

The use of synonymy and antonymy at the clause level is very common in Chinese language. The use of synonymy and antonymy in the same clause adds a dramatic effect for the purpose of emphasis (Zhang, 1995; Li, 1995). The fact that the Chinese EFL writers frequently use this skill would appear to be due to transference from Chinese language.
7.3.3 Reference

The Chinese EFL writers appear to have problems in using English reference. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), pronouns refer to concepts that the writer assumes are readily accessible to the reader. In this case, the reader's ability to link a referring item with the concept referred to by the writer is critical for the reader to perceive the message. All three types of reference observed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) appear in these sample texts: demonstrative, personal and comparative. Most of the reference used is anaphoric in nature except for the definite article the. Due to space limitations, only misuses of reference are cited as examples in this section.

It appears that the Chinese EFL writers' use of reference may be influenced by characteristic usage in their first language. Basically, all these three types of reference have equivalent counterparts in the Chinese language with the exception of the definite article the in demonstratives. The lack of the equivalence in Chinese may partly account for the reason that Chinese EFL learners commonly misuse this type of reference: they may either omit it when it is required in their texts, or employ it when it is unnecessary. Example 7.47 and Example 7.48 illustrate the problem with the definite article.

Example 7.47

Today city-greenness in many North big cities in our country, such as Xian, Lanzhou, are not as good because of ( ) climate position and other reasons. But in ( ) south, because it almost always rains, the cities greenness are better than cities in ( ) north.  
(Adapted from Paragraph 1, Text G33)

In Example 7.47, each bracket indicates a the is required. However, the writer failed to insert it.

Example 7.48

The city greenness is very good for person's health. In the greener city, people are very happy. The air is clear.  
(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G68)

In Example 7.48, the underlined the is unnecessary.
Students may have a good reason for using *the* in cases like Example 7.48 and omit it as in Example 7.47 because in the EFL classroom they were taught that when the same item appears in the text, *the* should be used; in addition, when it is the first time for the item to appear, there is no need to use *the*. In fact, empirical practical uses of any particular grammar rule are impossible to encompass in the classroom. Therefore, the limited examples used in the classrooms can lead students to an incomplete understanding of a specific language use.

In this study, *the* is frequently used despite the fact that most students do not have a good grasp of using this device. Many of the unnecessary uses of the definite article *the* in the corpus are exophoric reference. Since exophoric reference does not form any cohesive relation at text level, it does not contribute much to the development of text. On the contrary, frequent uses of exophoric reference may lead to digression and incoherence.

In addition, *the* is also used cataphorically within the same clause (e.g. *the* development of industry). This use of cataphoric reference does not contribute to the text development either since the reference does not interact with other items beyond the clause level (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Other frequently used demonstratives are *this/these* and *that/those*. In the present study, these two demonstratives were used either as "head" or as "modifier" when referring to the referent mentioned previously. Each of these cases is illustrated in Example 7.49 and Example 7.50 respectively.

Example 7.49 (demonstrative *that* as a head)

*We have wasted too many years in talking about politics. Now how can we still do *that* again?*  
(Adapted from Paragraph 3, Text P10)

Example 7.50 (demonstrative *this* as a modifier)

*Not only for Chinese citizen, but for all the people of the world, should be careful about politics, whether *this* politics is domestic or international.*  
(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text P6)
One common mistake is that some students used the wrong demonstrative to refer to the referent mentioned previously such as using this for a plural item or vice versa. This problem may be caused by the time pressure in the test situation since there is not much difference in terms of the reference in plural and singular forms between Chinese and English.

There are occasions when the student writers used demonstratives as extended reference. In this case, a demonstrative does not refer to a particular item, but to an "identifiable portion of text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 52). For example, That in Example 7.49 does not refer to "politics" only. Instead, it refers to the whole of the previous information — the context relating to "politics" in China.

As far as personal reference is concerned, there is a high rate of frequency in using the pronominals we, I and you. These personal references do not contribute much to text development due to the fact that they are used exophorically (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Their employment may be elicited by the topic titles. In addition, our is also frequently employed. Unlike we (an exophoric reference), our in many cases is used anaphorically, helping to form the reference chain.

Example 7.51 displays some mistakes in a student's use of reference. The problem in this example lies in the fact that the reference chosen (i.e. it) does not agree with the referent in the context (i.e. trees).

Example 7.51

4/ It is well-known that nothing is more important than trees. 5/ It (They) can clear air to give us a good environment, 6/ it (they) can make our cities more beautiful.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G27)

Since Chinese speakers use the same expression as the English natives as mentioned earlier, this type of problem may be caused by the time pressure in the test situation. However, the problem in the following example (Example 7.52) may be caused by the expression difference between English and Chinese.
Example 7.52

5/ It is important for us to make our cities greener. 6/ It (Trees) can clean the air, make the city beautiful and improve the climate. 7/ We can benefit from it (trees).

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G22)

In Example 7.52, it can be vague to the native reader. According to McCarthy (1991), it is used "when an entity has already been marked as the focus of attention, usually by using a deictic word" (p. 38). Here, to a native reader, there is no establishment of an entity so far. In fact, it refers back to to make our cities greener, which can be used as an entity in Chinese. In Chinese, the expression of "to make our cities greener" is two-fold: it means the activity of planting trees in our cities, and it can also refer to the outcome of this activity. In this example, by using it, the writer means "the outcome of city greenery". But in English, this use of it may cause a vague or ambiguous effect.

Like the demonstratives this and that, it can also be used as an extended reference. However, this employment of it is not always correct in this data. Example 7.53 illustrates one such mistake.

Example 7.53

To make our cities greener, we plant trees in our cities. We not only plant trees, but also protect them. Only by doing ad this can we make our cities greener. We must consider it.

(Adapted from Paragraph 3, Text G26)

In Example 7.53, it refers to the whole of the previous sentence.

Compared with personal and demonstrative reference, comparative reference does not appear frequently. Most of its employment is in the texts "Knowledge is the most valuable" when students compared "knowledge" with "money".

Regarding the reference chains, most texts have short chains, that is, local chains whose range is only limited to that specific paragraph. In texts on "city greenery" in which each generic stage is more clearly defined, each stage relies on some local chains to fulfil a specific purpose. Even for the texts in the analytical type such as those on the topic of "politics" which argue for the thesis from the beginning
to the end, it is not usual for the writers to use long reference chains either. In this case, in order to maintain the topic, the students tend to use lexical devices such as repetition and collocation. The use of short reference chains is one of the characteristics of English expository texts (Martin, 1985a).

7.3.4 Substitution and ellipsis

This research shows that Chinese students use substitution and ellipsis in their writing. In the former case, students tend to use so on to replace either a verbal or a nominal item. Another type of substitution is involved with the substitution of a clause. For example, in the clause I don't think so, "so" substitutes the previous clause(s). Rhetorically, this use of substitution is common in speech, but inappropriate in writing.

With reference to ellipsis, one common type is the ellipsis of the subject in clauses. This often occurs in a stretch of discourse in which the referent can be interpreted in context as observed in Li and Thompson (1981). Example 7.54 provides one such example in this study. Each bracket indicates an omitted subject.

Example 7.54

To make our cities greener has many benefits. For example, it can clean the air, ( ) get rid of the pollution and ( ) change the climate.

(Adapted from Paragraph 2, Text G23)

According to Li and Thompson (1979), this type of omitted subject is extensively used in Chinese discourse. The fact that many student writers here employ this device seems to be influenced by their Chinese language use.

7.3.5 Cohesion in the Australian students' texts

As mentioned in Chapter 6, Australian students do not use as many clause complexes as their Chinese counterparts. Instead, they tend to use prepositional
phrases to package the information. It is observed that there are many cases where Chinese EFL students also use prepositional phrases in writing. However, the phrases they employ are simple and short. The usage is only limited to temporal expressions such as *in spring*; the expression of location like *in China*; the use of *without* or the expression of "role" such as *as a Chinese citizen* which is motivated by the text title itself (i.e. "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?"). In native speakers' texts, apart from using these kinds of prepositional phrases as in the Chinese EFL texts, some prepositional phrases are realised with nominalisation. Examples 7.55 and 7.56 provide two examples of using nominalisation by a native speaker.

Example 7.55

> ... *In continuing with the ever widening political focus*, the federal government and its political bodies are in charge of national defence, international diplomacy and similar broad issues.

(Adapted from Text AP9)

Example 7.56

> ... However, *apart from studying* there is something else that he/she should take part and to know.

(Adapted from Text AS1)

In both Examples 7.55 and 7.56, nominalisation is used instead of a clause which consequently leads to density of the lexical items.

With reference to the Chinese EFL students, the overuse of conjunctives does not seem to be a phenomenon of transfer from Chinese since compared with English, Chinese uses less explicit conjunction (Li & Thompson, 1981). Therefore, the preference for using many conjunctions is more likely to be a feature of interlanguage because more conjunctions are used in spoken English. Moreover, the Chinese EFL learners' preference for using more explicit conjunctives (in particular) is probably related to pedagogical practice. Chinese EFL textbooks always highlight the importance of using conjunctives by giving many exercises on this cohesive device. The exercises include combining two clauses into a sentence by choosing a
conjunctive and "fill-in-slot" tasks (both at the clause and text levels) involving various types of conjunction. Similarly, many English proficiency examinations conducted in Chinese schools and universities test conjunction as one of the most important grammatical elements that students are supposed to grasp. Students in turn are strongly impressed with the significance of using conjunctives in writing. As a result, they may develop the tendency of overusing conjunction in English writing at the expense of other cohesive devices.

Regarding reference, as mentioned earlier in Section 7.3.3, most of the Chinese EFL students in this study use localised reference chains which are short. Nevertheless, the reference chains in the Australian student texts are even shorter than those of their Chinese counterparts. In addition, native speakers use bridging reference which seldom appears in the Chinese students' texts. That is, a demonstrative (or the definite article *the*), together with a noun phrase which is derived from the previous information. The following is an example (Example 7.57) of employment of bridging reference.

Example 7.57

... 3/ Generally however politics is "out there", something that is practised by politicians or, on rare occasions, by statesmen. 4/ Unfortunately politicians, like the large community, are after dishonest, misguided, self-centred and so on. 5/ Despite the drawback of politicians and politics as a whole, the decisions made in the name of politics affect us all, therefore politics is important whether local, state, national or international.

(Adapted from Text AP4)

In Example 7.57, the *drawback* in Clause 5 refers back to the whole of Clauses 4 and 5. The definite article *the* is used anaphorically to signal that what follows has been mentioned. As for *drawback*, although it cannot be retrieved from Clauses 4 and 5, the reader can bridge from *dishonest, misguided, self-centred and so on* to interpret what the drawback is that is being talked about. One advantage of using this bridging reference is to focus on the reader's attention by summarising the previous information.
The Australian students also tend to use more localised references. Most of the references are used anaphorically. It is observed that Chinese EFL students used demonstratives significantly more frequently than Australian students. An implication of this finding may be that Chinese student writers employed these devices in contexts where native speakers would not. Levinson (1983) specifies that a shift from "that" to "this" outlines an empathetic deixis, in which languages such as Chinese and Malagasy, can be a great deal more elaborate. He also mentions that in languages other than English, demonstratives can be organised with respect to the role of discourse participants, e.g. the writer and the reader and have meanings more pragmatically and contextually marked than in English. According to McCarthy (1991), L2 learners frequently transfer the meaning of determiners from L1 and may attribute to these markers more referential implications than they actually have in English. Another problem in Chinese students' texts is that writers tend to overuse "it". Biber (1988) observes that such referential and deictic markers are more commonly used in spoken than in written English.

As far as lexical items are concerned, the fact that Chinese students, compared with their Australian counterparts, only have a small lexical repertoire limited the possibilities of using a diversity of vocabulary in their texts. Instead, they can only repeat the same items frequently. Or even if some of them tend to use a wider vocabulary than others, the choice may not be relevant to the context.

In general, unsuccessful EFL writers may either use too many repetitions of the same lexical items or use too many reference items to refer to the same items continuously.

Nevertheless, one feature is shared by both groups: both used less substitution and ellipsis compared with the use of other cohesive devices.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, it is generally accepted that cohesion does not necessarily guarantee coherence. Nevertheless, in this research the informants' judgement regarding the quality of the texts is strongly correlated with the quality of the employment of effective cohesive relations. It is possible that the informants
have some tolerance for some cohesive errors. However, if a text has many lexical errors and reference misuses, it is more likely to be negatively evaluated. In addition, the informants appear to positively value those who use a variety of lexical resources correctly. Another factor that they take into account is conjunction. However, they do not seem to care much about whether the text uses explicit or implicit conjunctive relations, given that both styles appear in successful as well as in unsuccessful texts. What is important is the way in which the writers used this device in order to achieve effective communication.

7.4 Discussion

Based on the textual analysis, a successful text tends to have the following qualities:

(1) Thematic choices are made at the global level; different stages of the discourse are clearly identified; there is not much breaking of the given-new contract which is well realised in the thematic structure; effective information sources are employed to convince the reader; knowledge of social and cultural conventions is drawn on in organising the information.

(2) All types of cohesive devices are used effectively, in particular lexical cohesion, conjunction and reference; knowledge about the appropriate context is utilised in making choices.

When the texts of the Chinese students fail to meet such criteria, there are various possible explanations, including developmental factors, cross-cultural influences and transfer from the mother tongue.

At the structural level (i.e. information structure and Theme/Rheme), the performance is more likely to reflect language developmental factors. With regard to cultural considerations, the rhetorical patterns in most texts follow the preferred pattern of English texts (i.e. deductive reasoning) rather than the preferred patterns of Chinese texts (i.e. inductive reasoning). In deductive reasoning, macro-theme
and hyper-theme are placed earlier at a text or generic stage. At the clause level, there is no difference in sequencing Given and New (which is generally realised in Theme and Rheme) between Chinese and English. Regarding multiple Themes, the Chinese EFL students also follow the sequence of English rather than that of Chinese. (This has been mentioned in Section 7.2.2.) As far as Theme is concerned, the exception is the use of textual Themes as this type of Theme has more to do with cohesion.

With reference to evidence chosen to support the macro-theme or hyper-theme, cross-cultural differences are significant. For example, as mentioned in Chapter 5 that Chinese EFL students tend to use proverbs and history as a source of evidence in reasoning. In Matelene's study (1985), these devices are regarded as indirectness markers in Anglo-American written discourse conventions and should not be encouraged. However, the fact that Text S20 uses history effectively indicates that using this device may not necessarily lead to an indirect text. According to Matalene (1985), "to be indirect in ... written discourse, to expect the audience to infer meanings rather than to have them spelled out is a defining characteristic of Chinese rhetoric" (1985: 801). In this case, shared common background knowledge serves as the basis for perceiving the writer's meaning and implications. However, given that English readers expect an essay to contain explicit supportive points, and in addition that they may not share the common background knowledge with the non-English speakers, the use of proverbs and history in EFL texts may confuse them. The employment of these two devices may be related to the nature of instruction in Chinese writing. In Tan et al. (1996) and Li (1995), the use of proverbs and history is encouraged to support a viewpoint. It is also generally believed that extensive use of these two devices would indicate that the writer is highly educated and knowledgeable. In relation to EFL learning, it would be helpful to instruct students how to use these devices effectively. This includes reminding students of giving sufficient background knowledge so that the reader can easily understand the message.
Also introduced in Chapter 3, Ron Scollon (1991) argues that indirectness in Chinese exposition is caused by the Confucian concept of self which advocates that everyone, whoever he/she is, should address others properly according to his/her social status. Under this principle, one is not allowed to express him/herself freely since individualism is not accepted. Therefore, it is hard for people to be direct in writing. One could agree that this type of indirectness may be caused politically. The tradition of Chinese writing seeks to maintain harmony in society. Especially for Chinese people who have gone through the Proletariat Cultural Revolution, a political disaster which ruined the life of many educated people who were critical about the voice of the government, it is reasonable for them to learn a lesson and to become reserved and indirect in expressing their points of view. As far as the student writers in this study are concerned, although they did not experience this political campaign themselves, they were undoubtedly influenced by their parents' generation. Because proverbs and history are generally accepted, using these devices would reduce the writer's responsibility as an individual.

Regarding the student texts in this study, the informants agreed that it does not necessarily mean that the use of proverbs and history would make for an indirect text as suggested by Matalene (1985) and Cai (1993). The point is whether or not the students can use this device effectively because some employment is digressive. Furthermore, the fact that the use of proverbs and history only occurs in the analytical texts by the Chinese EFL students seems to indicate that this kind of discourse "indirectness" is genre-specific rather than culture-specific: the Chinese students do not have to use these indirect markers in all situations.

Another finding relating to culture lies in the different interpretation of some abstract notions. For example, the Australian students' texts on "politics", generally approach the topic in terms of whether politics is important to a citizen depends on to what degree a citizen's opinion may influence a politician's decision; or whatever decisions are made by politicians will affect citizens. However, quite a number of the Chinese students mention "political study" rather than "politics" which to the
native English speaker, does not seem relevant to the topic. In fact, many Chinese people believe that to consider politics important means that they should be actively participating in political studies (organised by all schools and other work places) where they are well-informed of the communist government's policy which they are supposed to follow.

At the non-structural level (cohesion), the students' performance appears to be more affected by Chinese language conventions. First, as exemplified in Section 7.3.1, the use of some conjunctives in EFL writing is affected by the Chinese conjunctives such as "on the other hand", "so" and sentence fragments headed by "because". Secondly, in terms of lexical cohesion, the use of metaphor and lexical devices other than repetition and collocation are more likely to be a pattern transfer from Chinese (see Section 7.3.2). Thirdly, with regard to reference, since most reference types in English have equivalence in Chinese, many mistakes in using reference may be caused by a lack of time in the test situation. In this sense, this similarity in reference in both languages appears to facilitate the Chinese EFL students' learning of English reference. Nevertheless, the misuse of some extended reference such as "it" indicates that these students may not see the other side of the picture: there is not always one-to-one relation between English and Chinese. All these issues have been discussed in detail in Section 7.3.3. Finally, concerning substitution and ellipsis (as analysed in Section 7.3.4), the employment of these two cohesive devices are also affected by the Chinese language use.

It is clear that the Chinese EFL students have many problems at both structural (i.e. Given/New and Theme/Rheme) and non-structural (i.e. cohesive) levels.
Chapter 8

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This study, by using Halliday's systemic functional grammar (in particular, the textual function), investigates how Chinese EFL writers manipulate the flow of information; to what extent their control of English information structure and cohesion are affected by the Chinese language; to what extent cultural differences are involved in the students' use of textual resources (information structure and cohesion); and how these factors affect the degree of discourse coherence in writing on different topic titles (i.e. fields). Having conducted a detailed investigation into the nature of the textual strategies employed by students in the production of a corpus of both Chinese EFL and Australian students' texts (used as reference), the thesis will conclude with a consideration of the significance of the analysis, implications for pedagogical applications in the Chinese EFL classroom, and directions for further research.

8.2 The General Outcome of this Study

As mentioned in Chapter 1, systemic functional grammar has, to a great extent, been used to describe the texts of native English speakers. Few systemic analyses have been undertaken on ESL/EFL speakers' texts. This study, by focusing on the textual metafunction to analyse the Chinese EFL texts, found that the textual categories (i.e. thematic structures and cohesive devices) are significant in describing certain aspects of the writing of Chinese tertiary students.

The study has further enhanced our understanding of Chinese students' use of English in that it concentrated on the text level. Most of the previous research on
Chinese EFL/ESL texts merely focused on the isolated sentence rather than on the whole text. They were thus unable to provide a convincing answer on the nature of a successful text. A successful text is more than just a series of grammatically correct sentences grouped together. As mentioned in Chapter 2, one of the striking features of functional grammar is that it studies natural texts in use rather than individual sentences out of context.

This research shows that textual analysis is an efficient tool for evaluating the EFL students' texts. In examining what students have chosen to thematise, researchers/instructors can immediately see to what extent students are in control of the flow of information in a way which is appropriate to the specific context. Likewise, by exploring how students use cohesive devices in their writing, researchers/instructors will be able to better understand the ways in which students seek to create texture. Both aspects, i.e. information structure as indicated by Theme/Rheme interaction, and cohesion (including conjunction, lexical cohesion, reference, ellipsis and substitution), contribute towards creating coherence in a text. Given that Chinese instructors are expected to evaluate students' texts in terms of their coherence, this study has made a significant contribution towards clarifying what constitutes a coherent text.

This research has also explored different ranges of Chinese EFL students' problems in using textual resources. The results indicate that many of these student writers had difficulty controlling their use of the English language at the text level, which is typically reflected in two aspects: (1) difficulties in making appropriate choices in Theme/Rheme structures; and (2) difficulties in using certain cohesive devices.

The analysis indicates that the problems in structuring Theme/Rheme and Given/New patterns demonstrated by these students seem to be a feature of linguistic developmental factors rather than being greatly affected by first language transfer. The reasons for the problems are complicated. To avoid making overgeneralisations, at this stage only some of the reasons can be hypothesised.
It is observed, for example, that many of these Chinese EFL students were able to write individually correct sentences, however, these sentences did not necessarily make a successful text. This indicates that the EFL students, while writing an English text, may have concentrated more on the structuring of a local sentence rather than on the whole text. One reason which accounts for this 'local focus' could be the pedagogic practices which are common in Chinese EFL classroom. As discussed in Chapter 1, for a long time Chinese EFL instructors tended to emphasise the correctness of English sentences by using pattern drills. Although EFL students may consequently internalise the imposed structures through learning the model sentences cited in English textbooks and grammar books, these sentences are in fact 'artificial'. That is, they are merely created for the sake of learning rather than evolving from a real context. The rote-learning of individual sentence patterns will misguide the students into generating sentences without considering their appropriateness for their contexts. This can be demonstrated by the fact that the choice of Themes and Rhemes throughout a text here often does not contribute towards the communicative dynamic of that text because the linguistic choices are not made at the overall textual level with regard to the context.

Regarding the students' problems in using non-structural elements (i.e. cohesive devices), this research finds that cohesive devices used in quite a number of texts do not function to bind the information together. Basically, these problems are more likely to be caused by transfer from the Chinese language. However, pedagogical practices in EFL teaching in Chinese universities could also be implicated in students' deficiency in using these cohesive devices. As indicated in Chapter 7, the use of vocabulary lists in the classroom has been popular in EFL teaching in China. Students are given a one-to-one Chinese interpretation of the new English item to be learned. The incomplete knowledge about a lexical item acquired from a vocabulary list may bias students' understanding about that particular item, thus making it possible for him/her to misjudge the meaning. This is particularly significant in relation to conjunction and lexical cohesion. With regard to other
cohesive devices (i.e. reference, ellipsis and substitution), students do not need to
learn from vocabulary lists in textbooks as these items are limited in number. Most
of them have the "equivalent elements" in Chinese although there are some
differences in use. However, many students here did not appear to distinguish the
difference because they used these items in the same way as they use the Chinese
"equivalent" items. As a result, the misuse of these devices tends to cause confusion
for the native reader. The problems in using English cohesion, to some extent,
indicate that the Chinese EFL instructors do not work enough to raise students'awareness of the linguistic differences between the two languages.

The problems mentioned above, to a great degree, indicate some
ineffectiveness in EFL teaching in Chinese universities. The reasons for this
deficiency may be largely to do with the traditional concept of English teaching:
Many EFL teachers take it for granted that EFL students will automatically write
good English texts if they are able to write correct English sentences. The emphasis
on "sentence correction" as a teaching practice influences the compiling of English
textbooks and English writing manuals (See Wang, 1996; Cai, 1996; Ding at al.,
1995). This approach has been demonstrated to be inadequate by this research.

Apart from being influenced by traditional grammar in which sentence-level
learning is stressed, another reason why Chinese EFL instructors favour sentence-
level teaching is their misconception that English learning does not differ from
Chinese learning. As mentioned in Chapter 1, Chinese composition is based on the
sequence: word \text{^} sentence \text{^} text. In this sense, word and sentence structures are
considered to be the basic units of the whole organisation in a text. However, what
is effective in teaching a specific language (especially the mother tongue) may not
necessarily work in teaching another one. It is unwise to copy the same teaching
methodology in teaching a different language without taking account of the specific
features of that language, that is, the context of culture. The participants in this study
who were brought up learning to write their first language with such guidance are
likely to apply their first language writing strategies in their second language writing
due to the fact that they may not be properly guided in the classroom as to how to
develop an English text holistically.

Given that China has been engaged in global markets, thus requiring efficient
global information exchanges and that compared with other countries, Chinese
tertiary students are so numerous, it is very important to improve EFL teaching in
China. To serve this purpose, there is a great need for sound theoretical backup.
This study suggests that Halliday's systemic functional model could provide
Chinese EFL instructors with an effective tool in classroom teaching.

A functional approach strongly contends that since students learn language in
order to achieve academic goals, language learning should take context into account.
An understanding of the relationship between language and contexts of use is
relevant to teaching. In functional grammar, any mistakes by students in creating a
text would be interpreted as inappropriate use of language in achieving a social goal.
With regard to this study, the Chinese students' failure to meet the requirement of
generic stages may be regarded as a lack of knowledge in achieving certain
discourse purposes. To be more specific, it means that information structures and
Theme/Rheme at the sentence level do not contribute to the hyper-theme (at the
generic-stage level), which consequently leads to failure to contribute to the macro-
theme. Thus, a systemic functional model enables EFL teachers to pinpoint EFL
students' problems and to guide the students to the appropriate choice in order to
realise the meaning effectively.

As far as cohesion is concerned, EFL teachers should inform students of the
difference in using cohesive devices between English and Chinese. With reference
to the findings in this study, students should avoid overuse of repetition and
imprecise understanding of the taxonomic relations of the field-specific lexis (such
as choosing inappropriate collocation in relation to the context).

This research also provides some insights into the nature of EFL learning. It is
generally held that when EFL/ESL learners write in English, they will undoubtedly
transfer their first language rhetoric patterns to their English texts. Although some
researchers (Kaplan, 1966, 1972; Connor, 1984a; Reid, 1989) have attempted to explain this phenomenon, in fact, the issue of language transfer is complicated. The empirical evidence provided by the present research indicates that the Chinese EFL students' performance in English writing (both successful and unsuccessful groups) is not totally affected by first language transfer because the progression patterns in the Chinese EFL texts (which have much to do with Theme/Rheme and information structure) appear similar to those of the Australian students' texts. The Chinese EFL students did not employ the traditional Chinese rhetoric patterns as described in Chapter 3. In addition, with regard to information structure and Theme/Rheme, the fact that the successful Chinese EFL texts demonstrate quite similar features to the successful Australian texts, and both the unsuccessful Chinese EFL texts and unsuccessful Australian texts have something in common, shows that the EFL writing in this study is affected by other factors. As far as cohesion is concerned, however, it was found that the Chinese EFL texts seem to be more affected by first language transfer. These findings suggest that EFL researchers need to be careful in using the term 'first language transfer' in order to avoid overgeneralisation.

Many of problems concerning the use of textual resources revealed in this study can be resolved through improved language teaching. An important issue concerning English writing instruction is that EFL teachers should attempt to create 'English contexts' for students' writing. This includes giving students relevant, well-designed topics (i.e. not too broad). The topics in this study for example tended to favour and encourage writing practices more characteristic of Chinese textual development than English. To support students in the language development process, it is also important for teachers to give them feedback as to whether they have made appropriate choices with relation to the context of their writing. Current pedagogical practices do not allow for this to happen as essay-writing is only taught incidentally and under test-like conditions.

Finally, it is important to point out that different cultural backgrounds may cause misunderstanding for native readers while reading an EFL text. Despite the fact
that this research to a large extent focuses more on the linguistic issues, it is impossible to avoid talking about cultural factors because they also tend to affect the writer's choices in organising a text. This issue is clearly stated by Wong (1988: 11):

Cultures differ vastly in what ideas are taken for granted to be self evident by their members; in written discourse, such unspoken assumptions may intrude when speakers of one language write in a second language, either in the form of introduction of unexpected topics or in the unexpected amount of elaboration accorded various topics.

The ways that Chinese students in this corpus of data interpret abstract notions such as "politics", "knowledge" differently from their Australian counterparts, and the preference for using proverbs and appealing to history as a source of supportive information for the arguments are generally accepted in Chinese culture. However, what may be taken for granted in one culture cannot necessarily be taken for granted by readers from another culture. In order to address this issue, Chinese EFL instructors themselves need to be made aware of such cross-cultural differences and effective pedagogical practices (such as contrastive rhetoric analysis) need to be developed.

8.3 Directions for Further Research

Concerning the textual metafunction, the work on EFL expository texts is still in the beginning stages. In order to have a better understanding of the textual characteristics of these texts, there is a need to further study the relationship between various expository genres and Theme/Rheme choices before we can specify which choices would be better selected as Theme/Rheme and which Theme/Rheme progression patterns would be more appropriate. In addition, more work needs to be done in exploring the relationship between cohesion and information structure (Theme/Rheme structure); that is, how the two features affect each other.

Functional grammar promises to provide an effective tool in helping students understand language at the textual level. With reference to thematic structure, studying Theme and Rheme patterns in a text would possibly enable students to
understand how a text is constructed; that is, how the message in each clause is organised and contributes to the whole text. For EFL instructors, having this knowledge will make it possible to direct students in effectively realising dynamic exchanges of Given and New information, thus improving EFL writing. Further empirical research would indicate whether explicitly teaching Themes and Rhemes in the classroom would improve the quality of students' writing.

Regarding cohesive devices which also contribute to the quality of 'texture' and coherence of a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), it could be speculated that EFL students need to understand different aspects of cohesion and how their interaction contributes to produce a coherent text. For example, students might benefit from knowing that, in expository texts, the repetition of single lexical items might not be as effective as the use of complex nominal groups in developing the argumentation. Or they might find it enlightening to understand how sustained patterns of hyponymy and meronymy help to make a text more convincing; or how the reasoning can be progressed through judicious use of conjunction, nominalisation and text reference. Further research is needed to explore whether having such knowledge would improve EFL writing.

8.4 Conclusion

This study has amply demonstrated that information structure (realised in Theme and Rheme) and cohesive devices are both crucial in creating an effective and coherent EFL text. Through a detailed analysis of such features in the writing of English expository texts by Chinese tertiary students, it has been possible to identify characteristic patterns of usage relative to their native-speaking counterparts and to pinpoint several problem areas. It is envisaged that such knowledge will be of value in the assessment of students' writing, the design of teaching materials and textbooks, and the development of appropriate EFL teaching practices in Chinese tertiary institutions.
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Appendix I  Theme/Rheme Analysis of Some Australian Analytical Texts

Text title: "Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world"

Text AK2 (a successful text)

1/ A person who possess only knowledge is really in a better position than one who has many possessions, but no knowledge. 2/ Without knowledge one cannot move forward; 3/ one may enjoy his or her possessions for some time, 4/ but he will eventually be tired of them. 5/ A person who possesses knowledge will be able to know how to gain possessions, 6/ and more importantly, he will know which possessions he or she really needs.

7/ Knowledge is often associated with religion. 8/ Buddha was the first to gain enlightenment, or 'total knowledge'. 9/ He has what Buddhists have sought ever since, 10/ and that did not include a large house and rich possessions. 11/ In fact, Buddha gave up all of his possessions to search for knowledge.

12/ Knowledge may not be the most valuable possession in the world. 13/ It has some very strong rivals in 'love' and 'family'. 14/ But one would not want to be without it.

AK2 is a three-paragraph text with 14 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ A person who possess only knowledge is really in a better position than one who has many possessions, but no knowledge.

2/ Without knowledge one cannot move forward;

3/ one may enjoy his or her possessions for some time,

4/ but he will eventually be tired of them.

5/ A person who possesses knowledge will be able to know how to gain possessions,

6/ and more importantly, he will know which possessions he or she really needs.

Theme 1 consists of two parts: A person as the headword and a relative clause which modifies the headword. Rheme 1 evaluates Theme 1 by making contrast with it. This prospects an elaboration on the second situation. S1 is the hyper-theme of this paragraph. S2, using Without knowledge (a circumstance of accompaniment) as the Theme, elaborates on the situation of "one who has possessions but no knowledge" — one cannot move forward. Theme 2 Without knowledge is nearly the
repetition of no knowledge in Rheme 1. In this case, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear progression pattern. S3 picking up one (referring to the person without knowledge) in Rheme 2 as Themes 3 clarifies the content of Rheme 2. Hence, Theme 3 and Rheme 2 are in a linear progression pattern. He in Theme 4 refers back to one in Theme 3, therefore, Themes 3–4 are in a constant progression pattern. Theme 5, A person who possesses knowledge, by contrast, shifting the focus on "a person without knowledge" is the repetition of Theme 1. S6 employs a multiple Theme: the textual Theme and signals an addition to the preceding information; the interpersonal Theme more importantly expresses the writer's attitude toward this issue; the topical Theme he refers back to Theme 5 A person who possesses knowledge. Therefore, Themes 5–6 are in a constant progression pattern. Both Ss5 and 6 express the characteristics of a person who has knowledge and possession, thus making a contrastive meaning with that of Ss2, 3 and 4.

7/ Knowledge is often associated with religion.
8/ Buddha was the first to gain enlightenment, or 'total knowledge'.
9/ He has what have sought ever since,
10/ and that did not include a large house and rich possessions.
11/ In fact, Buddha gave up all of his possessions to search for knowledge.

In Paragraph 2 (Ss7–11), S7 is the hyper-theme. S7, thematising Knowledge as the departure of this sentence, relates it to religion, thus promising a new dimension of this paragraph. Theme 8 Buddha is related to religion in Rheme 7 in the relationship of hyponymy. Hence, Rheme 7 and Theme 8 are in a linear progression pattern. From Theme 8, Buddha becomes the departure of every sentence in Paragraph 2 (with the exception of S10), thus making this paragraph a narrative one (describing that Buddha gave up all his possessions in order to search for knowledge, i.e. spiritual possession).

12/ Knowledge may not be the most valuable possession in the world.
13/ It has some very strong rivals in 'love' and 'family'.
14/*But one* would not want to be without it.

Paragraph 3 (Ss12–14) is the conclusion to this text. *Knowledge* is used as the departure of S12 as well as that of this paragraph. S12 is an evaluation of "knowledge"—*Knowledge may not be the most valuable possession in the world.* By using the modal operator *may*, S12 expresses the probability in a medium value (Halliday, 1985a). S13, thematising *It* (referring back to *knowledge* in Theme 12) and introducing other notions (i.e. *love* and *family*) in Rheme 13 provides the reason for S12 as to why knowledge *may not be the most valuable possession in the world.* The new notions (*love* and *family*) do not need to be elaborated as the reader can assume them based on his/her world knowledge. Themes 12–13 are in a constant progression pattern.

In S14 (*But one would not want to be without it*), the textual Theme *But* expresses a contrast with the preceding meaning. The employment of *one* in the topical Theme (an exophoric reference of "person" generally) shifts the focus on "knowledge". *It* in Rheme 14 refers back to *knowledge* in Theme 12. The message conveyed in S14 is that people need knowledge despite the fact that it may not be the most valuable possession in the world.

As far as Paragraph 3 is concerned, in addition to serving as a concluding paragraph, it also functions as the macro-theme in this text. For this reason, the text develops from specific to general reasoning. However, in retrospect, the text starts by arguing for the point that a person with knowledge is in a more advantaged position than the one without knowledge. Then it provides an example of Buddha who gave up everything in order to acquire knowledge. This example seems to show that knowledge is the most valuable thing. However, in the last paragraph, the writer concludes with an alternative point, thus making a contradiction in interpreting the writer's point of view because the example does not seem to support this point. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text AK2 are diagrammed in Figure AI-1.
Text AK5 (a successful text)

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world, especially in under-developed countries when education opportunities are not fairly
distributed or given to every child. 2/ As a result, the educated class becomes a prestige and usually owns various advantages.

3/ On the other hand, knowledge is the most valuable treasure to develop a person's cognitive and personal abilities. 4/ The lack of knowledge will probably diminish a person's ability to think openly and objectively. 5/ It's therefore the essential characteristics of human beings over the other living organisms to retain and transfer knowledge. 6/ Without this habit, we can never exceed the other animals or be successful in the long run ecological system.

7/ However, it is necessary to promote a healthy society where every child equal access of knowledge. 8/ Otherwise, knowledge will be manipulated by a few class to control the disadvantaged groups. 9/ Hence, knowledge is not simply a neutral product of learning something but embraces numerous political issues and process.

AK5 is a three-paragraph text with 9 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **Knowledge** is the most valuable possession in the world, especially in under-developed countries when education opportunities are not fairly distributed or given to every child.

2/ **As a result, the educated class** becomes a prestige and usually owns various advantages.

Taking Knowledge as the departure (Theme 1), the first part of S1 is the macro-theme of the text since it repeats the title (Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world). The second part of S1 elaborates on in the world by giving an example of education in under-developed countries. In S2, the textual Theme As a result signals a consequence of S1. The lexeme educated in the topical Theme is the repetition of education in Rheme 1, hence, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 are in a linear progression pattern.

3/ **On the other hand, knowledge** is the most valuable treasure to develop a person's cognitive and personal abilities.

4/ **The lack of knowledge** will probably diminish a person's ability to think openly and objectively.

5/ **It's therefore the essential characteristics of human being over the other living organisms** to retain and transfer knowledge.

6/ **Without this habit**, we can never exceed the other animals or be successful in the long run ecological system.

In S3, the textual Theme On the other hand signals an adversative meaning; the topical Theme Knowledge (which keeps continuity with Theme 1) is the departure of
Paragraph 2, followed by the Rheme which evaluates "knowledge" as the most valuable treasure to develop person's cognitive and personal abilities. S3, as the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2, is the derived Theme of the macro-theme in that it provides an alternative view of knowledge (knowledge is the most valuable treasure to develop a person's cognitive and personal abilities). Theme 4 The lack of knowledge makes a contrast with the topical Theme of S3 knowledge. Themes 3–4 are related by the repetition of knowledge, therefore, they are in a constant progression pattern. S5 is the conclusion of Ss3–4. The Theme of S5 is an identifier where the Rheme is identified. Theme 5 human being is related to a person in Rheme 4, forming the relationship of hyponymy; hence, Rheme 4 and Theme 5 are in a linear progression pattern. Theme 6 is realised in a circumstance of accompaniment (Without this habit), setting up a context for Rheme 6. This habit in Theme 6 refers back to Rheme 5 to retain and transfer knowledge, therefore, Rheme 5 and Theme 6 are in a linear progression pattern. All Ss4–6 contribute to S3 (the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2).

7/ However, it is necessary to promote a healthy society where every child equal access of knowledge.

8/ Otherwise, knowledge will be manipulated by a few class to control the disadvantaged groups.

9/ Hence, knowledge is not simply a neutral product of learning something but embraces numerous political issues and process.

Ss7–9 constitute Paragraph 3. In S7, the textual Theme However signals a contrast with the preceding information; the topical Theme is a judgement (it is necessary) for the topic which is realised in the Rheme (to promote a healthy society where every child equal access of knowledge). S7 is the hyper-theme for Paragraph 3 which expects the following sentences to contribute to it. The textual Theme of S8 Otherwise signals an alternative situation. Following Otherwise, S8 expresses the consequence—knowledge will be manipulated by a few class to control the disadvantaged groups. Knowledge is the topical Theme of S8. In this case, it is the repetition of the same lexeme in Rheme 7. Hence, Rheme 7 and Theme 8 are in a
linear progression pattern. In S9, the textual Theme *Hence* signals a causal relation to the conclusion to the text. The topical Theme of S9 maintains the topic of *knowledge* in Theme 8, therefore, Themes 8–9 are in a constant progression pattern. S9 summarises the issues mentioned in both Paragraphs 2–3 (*Hence, knowledge is not simply a neutral product of learning something but embraces numerous political issues and process*).

In general, Text AK5 is a well-organised text in that it develops the topic "Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world" from two aspects: (1) developing one's cognitive and personal abilities; (2) the necessity of equal access to knowledge. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text AK5 are diagrammed in Figure AI–2.

![Diagram of Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text AK5](image-url)
As an Australian citizen, do you think politics important?

Politics to my mind is almost power and about how society is organised. Politics affects all our lives, the term "office politics" is just one example of how the manoeuvring and power structures in a workplace are seen as reflecting the larger political world. Generally however politics is "out there", something that is practiced by politicians or, on rare occasions, by statesmen. Unfortunately politicians, like the larger community, are after dishonest, misguided, self-centred and so on. Despite the drawback of politicians and politics as a whole, the decisions made in the name of politics affect us all, therefore politics is important whether local, state, national or international.

AP4 is a one-passage text with 7 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Politics to my mind is almost power and about how society is organised.

2/ Politics affects all our lives,

3/ the term "office politics" is just one example of how the manoeuvring and power structures in a workplace are seen as reflecting the larger political world.

S1 provides the definition to "politics" which limits the scope of the abstract notion dealt with in this text. S2 also taking Politics as the departure further explains "politics". Rheme 2 maps with New—affects all our lives. Therefore, Ss1–2 orient the reader to the nature of politics in a general way. S3, thematising office politics as the departure gives a specific example to explain how politics affects people's lives— the point made in S2. Since Theme 3 office politics is related to Themes 1–2 Politics, the three Themes are in a constant progression pattern.

4/ Generally however politics is "out there", something that is practiced by politicians or, on rare occasions, by statesmen.

5/ Unfortunately politicians, like the larger community, are after dishonest, misguided, self-centred and so on.

6/ Despite the drawback of politicians and politics as a whole, the decisions made in the name of politics affect us all,

7/ therefore politics is important whether local, state, national or international.
In S4, the interpersonal Theme *Generally* shifts the focus from "politics in particular" to "politics in general"; the textual Theme *however* signals a contrast with the previous point of view; the topical Theme still maintains "politics". *Out there* in Rheme 4 means that politics is everywhere. The following structure elaborates on Theme 4 *politics* by introducing a new notion of *politicians* and *statesmen*. In S5, the interpersonal Theme *Unfortunately* shows the writer's disappointment about politicians. The topical Theme of S5 shifts the focus on "politics" (Theme 4) to "politician" (which is related to the other by collocation) followed by the Rheme commenting about the nature of politicians.

Theme 6 employs a concession circumstance *despite the drawback of politicians and politics as a whole* setting up a context for Rheme 6 to follow. Regarding the content of Theme 6, it contains two parts: (1) the drawback of politicians and (2) the drawback of politics. The first part refers back to S5 whereas the second part cannot be traced from the previous part, hence, it is the New. Rheme 7 is realised in talking about the significance of the government decision — *it affects us all*. Undoubtedly, Rheme 7 corresponds to S2 *Politics affects all our lives*. In S8, the textual Theme *Therefore* signals a conclusion. S8, keeping the topic continuity of *politics* in the Theme, provides a judgement to the Theme. It is also the macro-theme of this text. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text AP4 are diagrammed in Figure A1–3.
Text AP8 (a successful text)

1/ I think government politics are important to all citizens of a nation insofar as such politics dictate how those people are able to live, albeit in some cases indirectly. 2/ It is important for citizens to realise that governmental politics, and the laws which ensue from such are often discussed and decided upon by (largely) overweight, lazy, wealthy men who often have little or no experience or understanding of what they are actually looking at. 3/ People must realise that there will never be peace in the world while politics remains the bread-and-butter of an elite minority, 4/ and apathy and ignorance remains the luxury of the majority of the population.

AP8 is a one-passage text with 4 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ I think government politics are important to all citizens of a nation insofar as such politics dictate how those people are able to live, albeit in some cases indirectly.

2/ It is important for citizens to realise that governmental politics, and the laws which ensue from such are often discussed and decided upon by (largely) overweight, lazy, wealthy men who often have little or no experience or understanding of what they are actually looking at.

3/ People must realise that there will never be peace in the world while politics remains the bread-and-butter of an elite minority,
and apathy and ignorance remains the luxury of the majority of the population.

In S1, the interpersonal Theme I think expresses the writer's attitude toward this issue. Taking government politics as the departure, S2 answers the title question: "Politics is important to all citizens of a nation". Therefore, it is the macro-theme of this text. In addition to providing the answer to the title question, Rheme 1 also extends the information on why politics is important (in so far as such politics dictate how those people are able to live, albeit in some cases indirectly). All those aspects need elaboration. However, S2, thematising a comment (New) it is important for citizens as the departure, is a piece of advice for citizens. Rheme 2, also mapping with New, is the topic of S2. S2 means to say that the policy-makers are those who are ignorant of politics. The topical Theme of S3 maintains the topic continuity of Theme 2 (citizen), forming the relationship of synonymy. Hence, Themes 2–3 are in a constant progression pattern.

S3, like S2, also provides advice to people. By using must in the Rheme, it expresses a requirement in a high value (Halliday, 1985a). Rheme 3 shows the consequence of the politics (There will never be peace in the world) under this circumstance (politics remains the bread-and-butter of an elite minority). S4 continues the topic of S3 by presenting how the majority of people feel about "politics" (apathy and ignorance), which makes a great contrast with the bread-and-butter of an elite minority in Rheme 3. In this sense, the bread-and-butter in Rheme 3 forms the relationship of antonymy with apathy and ignorance in Theme 4, hence, they are in a linear progression pattern.

To summarise, the text orients the reader to the notion that politics is important to citizens. Yet all the arguments are concerned about the fact that in Australia, policy-makers are those are not qualified for making laws for the citizens. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text AP8 are diagrammed in Figure AI–4.
Figure AI-4  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text AP8
Appendix II Theme/Rheme Analysis of Some Chinese EFL Analytical Texts

Text title: "Knowledge is the most valuable"

Text K15 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ At present, more and more people are indulging themselves in earning money. 2/ They think money is everything. 3/ If you have enough money, you can own the whole world. 4/ But I am opposed to this extreme idea. 5/ Money is important 6/ but money is not everything. 7/ On the contrary, knowledge is something that is more valuable than money.

8/ First of all, if you have knowledge, you can change the world. 9/ As the saying goes, knowledge is power. 10/ This old saying has been proved through the practices of people.

11/ Secondly, without knowledge, one will become nothing but an idiot. 12/ Knowledge can make you skilled, experienced and perfect. 13/ And you can earn everything you like with your knowledge. 14/ So if I was asked to choose between money and knowledge, I will be surely choose the more valuable thing—knowledge.

15/ Thirdly, knowledge is something which once you possess, you will have it all your life. 16/ Money can be stolen, 17/ but nobody can take knowledge.

Text K15 is a four-paragraph text with 17 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ At present, more and more people are indulging themselves in earning money.

2/ They think money is everything.

3/ If you have enough money, you can own the whole world.

4/ But I am opposed to this extreme idea.

5/ Money is important

6/ but money is not everything.

7/ On the contrary, knowledge is something that is more valuable than money.

Ss1–7 form the first paragraph: the introduction. The purpose of this introductory paragraph is to orient the reader to some background knowledge. The marked Theme in S1 At present sets up a time frame which presupposes that the local topic (Rheme) will focus on this context. Rheme 1 states the current problem in society. S1 can be seen as the hyper-theme of the introduction paragraph. Ss2–3
clarify S1. They in Theme 2 refers anaphorically to more people in Rheme 1 and money (Rheme 2) repeats the same word in Rheme 1. Everything in Rheme 2 is a vague statement which is then clarified in S3. The marked Theme 3 (a conditional clause) gives a condition "Suppose you had a lot of money, what would you do?" for the Rheme 3 to respond ("you would have everything you want"). The writer structures S3 in a real conditional instead of an unreal conditional. Obviously, the writer had a problem in using counterfactual conditions. This is one of the most common weaknesses among the Chinese EFL learners because in Chinese the structuring of real and unreal conditional sentences is exactly the same. It depends on the context for the interpretation of whether it is a real or unreal conditional (Xu, 1990). With regard to S3, the inappropriate structuring of the unreal conditional sentence does not seem to interfere with the reader's interpretation of the text.

From S4 the writer changes the flow by expressing his/her judgment about the stated point. The conjunction but marks this shift, which contrasts "what is being said now" with "what went before". In Rheme 4 this refers anaphorically to S2 and idea also refers to S2. (Idea is used as a bridging reference, meaning a presuming reference item refers back to an early item from which it can be inferentially derived. (For more examples, see Eggins, 1994). S4 is the second hyper-theme of this paragraph. Ss5–7 contribute to S4 by expressing the writer's point of view. Both Themes 5–6 choose money, thus retaining the same topic entity in this paragraph. The textual Theme in S6 but signals that the writer is going to talk about something adversative to S5. In S7, the textual Theme on the contrary links S7 to S6 followed by the new topic entity knowledge which contrasts with the old one "money". S7 is the macro-theme of the text which sets up a particular expectation from the rest of the text. Rather than merely repeat the title, it specifies the notion of knowledge by contrasting it with its "opponent" money.

Paragraph 1 sets a contrastive idea between "money" and "knowledge". The subsequent paragraphs are expected to provide support for the macro-theme, the title.
The remaining of three paragraphs are inter-related successively by using the sequential conjunctives, i.e. First, Secondly and Thirdly.

8/ First of all, if you have knowledge, you can change the world.
9/ As the saying goes, knowledge is power.
10/ This old saying has been proved through the practices of the people.

Ss8–10 construct the second paragraph starting with First of all (the textual Theme of S8) which marks the beginning of the supportive evidence in relation to the macro-theme. The topical Theme of S8 is a conditional clause with the Given knowledge, establishing a context for the following Rheme to appear as a consequence. This context holds until the end of S10. S8 is the hyper-theme which derives from the macro-theme and requires the commitment from the following sentences. Theme 9 is realised in a clause As the saying goes. The conjunctive As connects logically the present topic with the preceding one in S8. Rheme 9 elaborates on S8 by quoting a saying and keeping knowledge as topic. Theme 10 picks up Theme 9 This old saying which still includes the topic of "knowledge".

11/ Secondly, without knowledge, one will become nothing but an idiot.
12/ Knowledge can make you skilled, experienced and perfect.
13/ And you can earn everything you like with your knowledge.
14/ So if I was asked to choose between money and knowledge, I will be surely choose the more valuable thing – knowledge.

Ss11–14 comprise the third paragraph. The textual Theme of S11 Secondly corresponds to the textual Theme of S8 (the beginning of Paragraph 1), First of all, and gives the second type of evidence to support the macro-theme. The topical Theme of S11 without knowledge provides a condition as the departure followed by Rheme 11 providing the consequence. S11 is the hyper-theme of Paragraph 3. In S12 (Knowledge can make you skilled, experienced and perfect), the topical Theme Knowledge keeps with Theme 11 whereas Rheme 12 provides the New by
contrasting the preceding Rheme one will become nothing but an idiot. Then, Theme 13 employs the conjunction and, signalling the addition of the same argument. However, the change of Theme from the topic entity knowledge (running through Ss11–12) to general reference to the reader you shifts the focus. Perhaps a more effective strategy would have been to thematise With knowledge (Rheme 13), hence keeping the same topic entity running through. S14 uses a marked Theme (if–clause), setting up another situation for the following Rheme to fulfil. The conjunction So (the textual Theme of S14) indicates the effect of the previous causes. S14 reinforces the macro-theme by contrasting "money" with "knowledge" which can also be traced back to Paragraph 1.

15/Thirdly, knowledge is something which once you possess, you will have it all your life.

16/Money can be stolen,

17/but nobody can take knowledge.

The conjunction in Theme 15 Thirdly starts Paragraph 4 (Ss15–17), linking back to Paragraph 3. Paragraph 4 continues the contrast between "money" and "knowledge" from another angle with regard to one's "property". This point was expressed in S15, with knowledge thematised. Since the writer developed the argument by contrasting "money" with "knowledge", the change of Theme in S16 from knowledge (Theme 15) to money is effective because the two topics can be seen to form the relation of antonymy. Therefore, Themes 15 and 16 are constant in the information progression. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K15 are diagrammed in Figure AII–1.
1/ Since human being appeared in this world, they become more and more powerful to control the whole nature. 2/ They can go up into the sky, down deep into the sea. 3/ They can push down the mountains and create neatly everything they want. 4/ All these depend on knowledge they own. 5/ In the modern society, there is a sentence repeated by many people: 6/ "Knowledge means power." 7/ It really is.
8/ Today, how much knowledge a man owns indicates how capable he is. 9/ If he gets enough knowledge, he will have more chance to gain a job and more chance to gain promotion.

K20 is divided into two paragraphs with 9 t-units. Although it is incomplete, the text has some evaluative features which are worth studying.

**Theme/Rheme Progression**

1/ *Since human being appeared in this world*, they become more and more powerful to control the whole nature.

2/ *They* can go up into the sky, down deep into the sea.

3/ *They* can push down the mountains and create neatly everything they want.

4/ *All these* depend on knowledge they own.

5/ *In the modern society*, there is a sentence repeated by many people:

6/ "*Knowledge* means power."

7/ *It* really is.

Paragraph 1 contains Ss1–7. S1 uses a temporal circumstance *Since human being appeared in this world* to set up a general context for the text. This time framework holds until the beginning of S5 where there appears a new time span. Rheme 1 is the New—the introduction of the state which corresponds to this time span. Rheme 1 sounds abstract by using the word *powerful* to describe human beings. To make Rheme 1 more interpretable, Ss2–3 give some examples to show how human beings are "powerful", hence clarifying Rheme 1. Both Themes 2–3 thematise *they*, an anaphoric reference to *human beings* in Theme 1. It is clear the Ss1–3 were organised in a constant pattern. Theme 4 *All these* packages all the information mentioned so far. Rheme 4 introduces the topic of this text "knowledge" for the first time. This shows that this text develops from particular to general through inductive reasoning. It is observed that so far the first paragraph concentrates more on "human being" than "knowledge". With regard to an orienting part, it is more likely that the writer starts with the current situation which is related to the text topic.
Theme 5 *In the modern society* changes to a new context which relates closely to the previous one in sequence (i.e. Theme 1—*Since human being appeared in this world*). In Rheme 5, a sentence refers cataphorically to S6: *Knowledge means power*. In so doing, *Knowledge* becomes prominent since it is in the position of departure. S7 is an appraisal judgement of S6, with *it* as the Theme referring anaphorically to Theme 6, hence, Themes 6–7 are in a constant pattern.

8/*Today*, how much knowledge a man owns indicates how capable he is.

9/*If he gets enough knowledge*, he will have more chance to gain a job and more chance to gain promotion.

Paragraph 2 starts from S8 with Theme 8 setting up another time frame *Today* as the departure. It is the third time frame so far. *Today* also links the two preceding time frames (Theme 1 and Theme 5) in sequence. Rheme 8 puts the information forward on the basis of the correlation between *man* and *knowledge*, but it needs further clarification. Semantically, it is like the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2. S9 was structured to explain Rheme 8 by thematising a condition (*If*-clause), followed by the consequence under this condition. It is unfortunate that this text stops at S9. In spite of this "incomplete" writing, K20 seems to keep the point of the text expectancy in structuring the information.

Another interesting point about Text K20 is, unlike the previous texts which all repeat the text title as the macro-theme, it exploits an implicit macro-theme which can be assumed by the reader. Three sentences are possible as the source of the macro-theme: S4, S6 and S8. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text K20 are diagrammed in Figure AII–2.
Text K9  (An unsuccessful text)

1/ At present some college students think it's not necessary to study hard. 2/ Their only target is to pass the test, 3/ and they spend a lot of time to amusing. 4/ I'm also a college student, 5/ but I don't agree with these people. 6/ I think knowledge is the most valuable.

7/ At first, without knowledge, we often can't find a good job or make a better living. 8/ Now society is full of contest. 9/ Without such knowledge we can't get the chance.

10/ Second, development in one's own is his need. 11/ Everyone should learn a lot of knowledge to help himself. 12/ Becoming a learned people is sensible people's object.

13/ Last, our country want some learned people to devote themself to it.

14/ So knowledge is the most valuable.

Text K9 is a five-paragraph text with 14 t-units.
Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ **At present** some college student(s) think it's not necessary to study hard.

2/ **Their only target** is to pass the test,

3/ and **they** spend a lot of time to amusing.

4/ I'm also a college student,

5/ but I don't agree with these people.

6/ I think **knowledge** is the most valuable.

Like most of the sample texts in this title, Theme 1, a temporal circumstance *At present* sets up the time frame as the departure. This frame holds until the end of Paragraph 1. In reply to Theme 1, Rheme 1 (*some college students think it's not necessary to study hard*) introduces the current state in the universities/colleges: Students hate to study. This shows that the writer intends to approach this issue from the angle of being a college student. In Theme 2 (*their only target*) the reference pronoun *Their* refers anaphorically to "college students" in Rheme 1, forming a linear pattern. This topic continuity (college students) is also kept in Theme 3 (using *they*). Hence, Themes 2–3 are in a constant pattern. Rhemes 2–3 both contribute to S1 by adding new information which is relevant to elaboration of S1.

S4 breaks the topic continuity by interfering with *I* in Theme 4 to show the writer's involvement in talking about this issue. S4 identifies the writer himself/herself as a college student (like others mentioned earlier). The textual Theme *but* in S5 relates the present point to the one mentioned earlier, indicating that a different point will come up. The topical Theme *I* as a departure in S5 (*I don't agree with these people*) is followed by the writer's judgement about the college students mentioned before in Rheme 5. Theme 6 includes two types of Theme: interpersonal *I think* and topical *knowledge*. The use of *I* in the interpersonal Theme of S6 following Themes 4–5 shows that this text is personal. The topical Theme of S6 introduces the text topic "knowledge" which marks the shift from college students. S6, the repetition of the title, is the macro-theme. Three evidence paragraphs are
related to one another in a spatial sequence by employing at the beginning of each paragraph *At first, Second* and *Last* respectively.

7/*At first, without knowledge*, we often can’t find a good job or make a better living.

8/*Now* society is full of contest.

9/*Without such knowledge* we can’t get the chance.

Paragraph 2 (Ss7–9) is intended to support the argument from the point of the correlation between gaining the knowledge and the future career. In S7 (*At first, without knowledge, we often can’t find a good job or make a better living*), the textual Theme (*At first*) signals a sequence of presenting the evidence to support the argument. All three sentences thematise circumstances to set up contexts for Rhemes to develop. Theme 7 thematising a circumstance of accompaniment *without knowledge*, creates a situation for the Rheme to respond. The New placed in Rheme 7 makes a point from the angle of being a student. That is, to gain much knowledge will be helpful for them (students) to find a good job and make a good living in the future. S7 functions as the hyper-theme which is derived from the macro-theme. Ss8–9 support S7 by using cause-effect reasoning implicitly (without causal conjunction). S8 takes a temporal circumstance *Now* as the topical Theme. This time frame corresponds to that of Theme 1 in Paragraph 1 *At present*, used for an emphasis on the current situation. The New in Rheme 8 talks about the contests in society. For the most part, Theme 9 repeats Theme 7; Theme 9 employs a reference *such* which is hard to find in the referred item. Rheme 9 does not give any New except semantically repeating Rheme 7.

10/*Second, development in one's own* is his need.

11/*Everyone* should learn a lot of knowledge to help himself.

12/*Becoming a learned people* is sensible people's object.
In Paragraph 3 (Ss10–12), the textual Theme Second connects Paragraphs 2 and 3 in sequence. The topical Theme of S10 Development in one's own (means "cultivating one's mind") indicates that Paragraph 3 will centre its argument from the standpoint of culturing one's mind. Therefore, S10 is the hyper-theme of this paragraph. Theme 11 (Everyone) picks up the general personal reference (one) in Rheme 10. The New in Rheme 11 should learn a lot of knowledge to help himself looks ambiguous. This point should be narrowed down by specifying 'help himself in which way'. Again S12 is also not a successfully communication. Theme 12 Becoming a learned people can be traced back to learn a lot of knowledge in Rheme 11. Therefore, Rheme 11 and Theme 12 are in a linear progression pattern (the two elements are in the relationship of expectancy). However, R12 is hard to interpret not only because of the wrong spelling of "objective", but also because of the interpretation of "sensible".

13/ Last, our country want some learned people to devote themselves to it.

In Paragraph 4 (S13), the textual Theme Last shows the sequence of evidence to be presented. Thematising our country as the starting point, S13 only makes a point which is expected to develop from it. In this sense, S13 should be the hyper-theme of this paragraph. However, the paragraph just ends there.

14/ So knowledge is the most valuable.

In Paragraph 5 (the conclusion to the text), the textual Theme So signals a cause-effect relationship between the following information and the previous one, which indicates that the conclusion is based on what has been mentioned above. In this case, Therefore may be better. The whole sentence merely repeats the title, the macro-theme.

The weakness of this text is the lack of development in the three supporting paragraphs as well as the reorienting part. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text Text K9 are diagrammed in Figure AII–3.
Figure AII-3  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text K9
Text title: "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?"

Text P2 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ As a Chinese citizen, I think politics important. 2/ Politics plays an important role in our country's development as well as in our social life. 3/ It's the safeguard of development of economy. 4/ It ensures citizens enjoy a peaceful and affluent life. 5/ It helps prevent the country from involving into wars between nations. 6/ Without a good politics, all of our life will be disturbed greatly. 7/ So I can say politics is the most important thing for the nation as for our individuals.

Text P2 is a single-passage text consisting of 7 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ As a Chinese citizen, I think politics important.

2/ Politics plays an important role in our country's development as well as in our social life.

3/ It's the safeguard of development of economy.

4/ It ensures citizens enjoy a peaceful and affluent life.

5/ It helps prevent the country from involving into wars between nations.

6/ Without a good politics, all of our life will be disturbed greatly.

7/ So I can say politics is the most important thing for the nation as for our individuals.

Text P2 starts with the writer's response to the title question: he/she considers politics to be important. This response is the macro-theme. Theme 1 As a Chinese citizen, a circumstance of role as the departure for the passage, indicates the writer's identity of being a Chinese citizen. The following part is conditioned by this stance.

The Theme of S2 politics picks up part of the Rheme in S1 I think politics important, forming a relation of co-reference. Rheme 2 gives the New which supports S1 by talking about the importance of politics in the development of the writer's country. Since the concept our country's development is so broad, Rheme 2 needs to be elaborated with some examples. Ss3–5 serve this purpose by exemplifying the importance of politics in three different areas: the country's
economy, people's lives and the diplomatic relationship between our country and others. All Themes 3–5 using it refer anaphorically to politics in Theme 2. Therefore, Themes 2–5 are in a constant progression pattern, keeping "politics" as the Theme. In terms of the New in Rhemes 3–5, Rheme 3 argues that politics can help guarantee the development of the economy; the point that Rheme 4 makes is that a citizen's social well-being will also be related to politics; and Rheme 5 focuses on the influence of politics on the diplomatic scene.

Theme 6 still keeps the topic of "politics". Unlike Themes 2–5 which take "politics" as the participant, Theme 6 puts it in the circumstance of accompaniment Without a good politics. Rheme 6 may need further elaboration. In the last sentence (S7), the textual Theme So (It is better to use "therefore") signals a conclusion, which means "given all the facts mentioned above, now my conclusion is...". The interpersonal Theme I can say shows the writer's involvement in this topic. S7 still keeps politics as the topical Theme.

This is a text in which the Theme never changes, leading to a certain banality. Except for Ss1–2 which are linked to each other with a linear pattern, the rest of the Themes exclusively employ a constant Theme "politics/it". This means that the message always leaves from the same spot and the New introduced in the Rheme is not followed up. As a consequence, it is hard to predict where the text is heading. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text P2 are diagrammed in Figure AII-4.
Figure AII-4 Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text P2

Text title: "Reading does not help much"

Text R6 (a successful text)

1/ Reading does not help much; 2/ you have to be able to put it into practice. 3/ This statement assumes that reading has only a practical purpose. 4/ That is, a person only reads to learn a new skill or find new information.

5/ I don't agree. 6/ From my own experience and observations, reading can be for other purposes. 7/ For example, you can read a novel or poetry for leisure. 8/ This could also be the case with singing a song, or reading music to play it on an instrument.

9/ Another example could be reading a newspaper to check when a film is showing. 10/ That is, what time it starts 11/ and reading the comic strips in it too, just for a laugh.

12/ Reading a newspaper can help develop your awareness about what is happening locally and in the world. 13/ Having this knowledge is not necessarily of any real practical use, except maybe in answering questions about current affairs in political studies. 14/ But many students seem to find this pastime important. 15/ In fact, China have one of the highest rate of newspaper reading per population.

Text R6 is a four-paragraph text with 15 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Reading does not help much;
2/ you have to be able to put it into practice.

3/ This statement assumes that reading has only a practical purpose.

4/ That is, a person only reads to learn a new skill or find new information.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–4) orients the reader. S1 is the repetition of the title. S2 is an expansion on S1. The personal pronoun You in Theme 2 is an exophoric reference which refers to "any individual" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Rheme 2 put it into practice is realised by a combination of Given (it refers back to Reading in Theme 1) and New (the introduction of practice). Theme 3 This statement encapsulates both Ss1–2. The New in Rheme 3 interprets the message of both Ss1–2. The textual Theme in S4 That is signals that S4 elaborates Rheme 3.

5/ I don't agree.

6/ From my own experience and observations, reading can be for other purposes.

7/ For example, you can read a novel or poetry for leisure.

8/ This could also be the case with singing a song, or reading music to play it on an instrument.

Paragraph 2 (Ss5–8) expresses the writer's point of view which is opposite to that of Paragraph 1. This opposite point of view would be the macro-theme of the text which is supposed to have the supportive evidence from the following part. Theme 6 (From my own experience and observation) is a circumstance of angle setting up a context for the interpretation of this paragraph. The New in Rheme 6 (reading can be for other purposes) contrasts with the information in Ss3–4. The textual Theme in S7 For example signals an elaboration from the previous sentence. Here, the exophoric reference you as the Theme does not make any reference to any elements; instead it refers to an individual. It is followed by some exemplified cases about "reading for other purposes" (i.e. read a novel or poetry for leisure). Part of the New in Rheme 7 (for leisure) is picked up by Theme 8 (this) making a linear
pattern of progression. Rheme 8 continues giving examples about "reading for leisure purposes"—*singing a song, or reading music to play it on an instrument*.

9/ Another example could be reading a newspaper to check //when a film is showing.

10/ That is, what time [[it starts]]

11/ and reading the comic strips in it too, just for a laugh.

Paragraph 3 (Ss9–11) contributes the second example to the macro-theme. Theme 9 Another example explicitly indicates this commitment followed by employing the example of "reading a newspaper for the information about the time of a film show". The textual Theme That is in S10 signals an elaboration for Rheme 9, which in fact is unnecessary because to a great extent S10 repeats Rheme 9 rather than give any new information. S11 connects with S10 by giving additional information (signalled by the textual Theme and) and exemplifies another purpose for reading the newspaper: reading the comic strips for fun. It in Theme 11 refers anaphorically to newspaper in Theme 9.

12/ Reading a newspaper can help develop your awareness about what is happening locally and in the world.

13/ Having this knowledge is not necessarily of any real practical use, except maybe in answering questions about current affairs in political studies

14/ But many students seem to find this pastime important.

15/ In fact, China has one of the highest rate of newspaper reading per population.

Paragraph 4 (Ss12–15) maintains the topic on "reading the newspaper" and can be regarded as a continuity of Paragraph 3. Unlike the preceding paragraph which talks about "reading the newspaper from the point of making fun", Paragraph 4 moves to focus on being well-informed about current affairs. Reading a newspaper in Theme 12 tells the reader what the following message is about, followed by the New in Rheme 12 (...develop the awareness about...). This New in Rheme 12 becomes the Theme in S13. Theme 13 having this knowledge is the summary of
Rheme 12; hence, Rheme 12 and Theme 13 form a linear thematic pattern. The first part of Rheme 13 is a comment about Theme 13 which relates back to what has been argued at the beginning: whether or not reading should just have practical purposes. According to the writer, reading a newspaper for news may not be of practical use except for satisfying the requirement of political studies (the New in Rheme 13). In S14, the textual Theme But signals the occurrence of a contrastive message. By using the topical Theme many students, the writer, as a student, meant to give an example of his/her own experience. However, this choice may not be effective, given that so far there has been no mention of any clues about "schools/students" and the writer does not make any more commitment to the topic on "students" reading newspapers. S15, choosing In fact as the textual Theme, seems to clarify the previous information. However, following China, the topical Theme in S15, the Rheme conveys the message that in China many people read newspapers rather than focusing on the previous topic. As far as Theme 14 (many students) and Theme 15 (China) are concerned, despite the fact that the two elements are semantically related to each other in collocation (by students, the writer means "Chinese students"), it is not helpful in terms of maintaining the information continuity. The point is that the two elements do not form a relationship of co-referentiality, which is expected in this context. Therefore, a shift from "Chinese students" to "China" indicates a topic change, thus violating the reader's expectation.

There is no conclusion to this text probably because of the limitation of time. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text R6 are displayed in Figure AII–5.
Figure AII-5  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text R6
Text R1 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ Reading, as most people think, is a helpful way by which we can find a wonderful world that we have never experienced, 2/ and also we can learn much valuable things. 3/ However, I don't think reading is always helpful. 4/ It's sometimes dangerous and harmful, especially to juveniles who haven't enough ability to judge of right or wrong.

5/ Every book has its limitations. 6/ Most juveniles see every book as good and right. 7/ Some idea in book sounds wonderful but useless. 8/ The world are varying, 9/ but the idea of a book is stagnative once it formed. 10/ It always bring reader into ideal imagination and disappointment to the reality.

Text R1 is a two-paragraph text including 10 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Reading, as most people think, is a helpful way by which we can find a wonderful world that we have never experienced,

2/ and also we can learn much valuable things.

3/ However, I don't think reading is always helpful.

4/ It's sometimes dangerous and harmful, especially to juveniles who haven't enough ability to judge of right or wrong.

S1, employing Reading, as most people think (Theme 1) as the departure, is directly related to the title. The Rheme (a Given since it is indicated by as most people think in Theme 1) is a judgement (the public concept about "reading"). This common sense contrasts with the title. Rheme 1 employs we twice, a general exophoric personal pronoun referring to a group of individuals including the writer himself/herself (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). S2 is an extension of S1, signalled by the two textual Themes and and also. The topical Theme we in S2 maintaining that of Rheme 1, shifts the reader's attention from Reading to we. S3 moves to talk about the writer's point of view about reading, which contrasts with Ss1–2. The textual Theme However shows this contrast. The use of the first personal pronoun I as the topical Theme indicates the writer's direct involvement in discussing this issue. Rheme 3 expresses the writer's opinion about "reading": "Reading is not always helpful". By using always, the writer gives a rather flexible opinion in contrast to the title which looks exclusive. S3 is the macro-theme of this text. S4, thematising it
(referring anaphorically to reading in Rheme 4). Hence, Rheme 3 and Theme 4 are in a linear progression pattern. S4 is an elaboration on S3 by giving a judgement on "reading"—(it's) sometimes dangerous and harmful in the Theme. In the Rheme (especially to juveniles who haven't enough ability to judge of right or wrong), the introduction of a specific case of juveniles foreshadows the following paragraph making an elaboration on how juveniles sometimes are negatively influenced by reading.

5/ Every book has its limitations.

6/ Most juveniles see every book as good and right.

7/ Some idea in book sounds wonderful but useless.

8/ The world are varying,

9/ but the idea of a book is stagnative once it formed.

10/ It always bring reader into ideal imagination and disappointment to the reality.

Paragraph 2 (Ss5–10) takes Every book (Theme 1) as the departure of S5 as well as that of the paragraph. Rheme 1 has its limitations is totally New and abstract which requires further elaboration as to in what way a book may have limitations. However, Theme 6 instead of serving this purpose, moves the focus from "book" (Theme 5) to "juveniles". This shows that the writer takes for granted that the message in S5 is a common sense observation which does not need to be clarified. S6 (Most juveniles see every book as good and right) looks like an elaboration of S4 (It's sometimes dangerous and harmful, especially to juveniles who haven't enough ability to judge of right or wrong). Following Theme 6 (Most juveniles), the New in Rheme 6 is about how juveniles evaluate a book (as good and right). The thematic progression pattern between Ss5–6 is "Theme 5 – Rheme 6", which is thought to be of low frequency in English (Danes, 1974). S7, thematising Some idea in book elaborates on S5. Although semantically Ss 6–7 are related (Book in Theme 7 is the repetition of the same word in Rheme 6, thus forming a linear progression pattern), there is need of a textual Theme to connect the two sentences (an adversative
conjunction is required). Rheme 7 is a comment (evaluation) on Theme 7. Rheme 6 and Rheme 7 contrast with each other. S8 explains the reason. However, there is no explicit signal to show this cause-effect relationship. As a result, Theme 8 shifts abruptly from Theme 7 (*Some idea in book*) to *the world*. S9 contrasts with S8, signalled by the textual Theme *but* as well as by Rheme 8 and Rheme 9. In this paragraph, the topical Themes alternate using "book (or ideas of a book)" and "the world", thus helping to develop the text by establishing a contrastive meaning. Theme 9 repeats Theme 7 and *stagnative* in Rheme 9 relates to *varying* in Rheme 8, forming a relationship of antonymy. Hence, the two are in a 'Rheme–Rheme' progression pattern, which is also regarded as rare cases in English (Danes, 1974). In S10, the Theme *It* refers anaphorically to *the idea of a book* in Theme 9, whereas the message conveyed in Rheme 10 is the consequence of S9. The Theme/Rheme progression patterns of Text R1 are displayed in Figure AII–6.
Figure AII–6  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns of Text R1

**Text title:**  "One should study hard?"

**Text S5  (an unsuccessful text)**

1/ Do you study hard? 2/ And do you think one should study hard? 3/ As a college student, you should think it is a stupid question. 4/ While it might be a valuable question that will benefit you for a whole life. 5/ To a student, the task is to study, to build himself with knowledge. 6/ Knowledge is the most valuable thing for a young person, because knowledge comes from the life of human and the history of human. 7/ So, if you want to grow up, to become a powerful man, you should study, which leads to the heavier of knowledge. 8/ As far as I'm concerned, one should study hard. 9/ And one should study for the whole life.
S11 is three-paragraph text with 9 t-units.

**Theme/Rheme Development**

1/ **Do you** study hard?

2/ **And do you** think one should study hard?

3/ **As a college student**, you should think it is a stupid question.

4/ **While it** might be a valuable question that will benefit you for a whole life.

Both Ss1–2 use rhetorical questions (polarity questions expecting "yes-no" answers) to draw the reader's attention. The topical Theme of S1 **you** is an exophoric reference; in S2 **you** is also used, followed by **think** in Rheme 2 for the purpose of asking the reader for the judgement. **One** in Rheme 2 (referring to any person) shifts the focus of discourse from **you** in the topical Theme of S1. Both Rhemes 1–2 are closely related to the title in that both employ **study hard**. Hence, the thematic development pattern between Ss1–2 is that of 'Rheme 1 – Rheme 2'. Theme 3 as a circumstance of role **As a student** orients the reader to the point that the argument is made from the angle of a student. Rheme 3, following this context, is only a judgement for the two previous questions. **Should** is not properly used and it would be better if replaced by "may"; the reference **it** should be replaced by "they". S4 is a sentence fragment which should not stand alone as a sentence. The textual Theme of S4, **While** signals a contrastive meaning to the previous judgement of the two questions; the topical Theme (the reference pronoun **it**) refers back to the two questions in Ss1–2 ("they" should be used instead). Like Rheme 3, Rheme 4 is also a judgement of the two previous questions. As far as the two judgements are concerned, both of them only speculate on how people may think about the two questions rather than give answers. Therefore, they do not contribute much to the text development.

5/ **To a student**, the task is to study, to build himself with knowledge.

6/ **Knowledge** is the most valuable thing for a young person, because knowledge comes from the life of human and the history of human.
7/ So, if you want to grow up, to become a powerful man, you should study, which leads to the heaven of knowledge.

In Paragraph 2 (Ss5-7), Theme 5 To a student is a circumstance of 'angle' showing that the text is from the standpoint of a student. Since it has been marked clearly by Theme 3, this reorientation of "the angle" is unnecessary. Rheme 5 spells out a student's task. The structure is organised loosely (a comma is used instead of and to combine the two coordinate elements). With regard to the whole of S5, it is recommended that it should be changed to "A student's task is ...". Theme 6 Knowledge is the repetition of the same lexeme in Rheme 5. They form the linear progression pattern. In addition to the lexical choice of "knowledge" in both Ss5–6 (a repetition) which binds the two sentences together, Both Ss5–6 also have a cause–effect relationship in that S6 is the cause of S5. Therefore, a causal conjunctive is needed in S6. However, S6, just runs on without the employment of the conjunctive. S6 taking Knowledge as the departure, argues why it is the most valuable thing for young people. Given that the example is too simple and is not completed (as the example only mentions that "knowledge is from human life and history"), it does not seem to support the argument strongly. The textual Theme So in S7 signals a cause–effect relationship between the present sentence and the previous ones, meaning "given all the evidence above, now I would say...". The topical Theme of S7 coinciding with New, is realised in a conditional circumstance which establishes a context for Rheme 7. In Theme 7 if you want to grow up, to become a powerful man is related to Rheme 6 with grow up in Theme 7 (meaning "mature") forming the relationship of antonymy with a young person in Rheme 6. In response to the context set up in Theme 7, Rheme 7 expresses a requirement (marked by the model operator should): one should study. By which leads to the heaven (heaven) of knowledge, the writer means "to become a highly academic person".

8/ As far as I'm concerned, one should study hard.

9/ And one should study for the whole life.
Paragraph 3 functions as a conclusion to the text. The textual Theme of S8 *As far as I'm concerned* indicates the writer's personal point of view; the use of the topical Theme *one* shows that the following principle applies to anybody. Rheme 8 gives a positive answer to the question by repeating the title. S8 is the macro-theme. In this sense, the text develops in an inductive way: the macro-theme is inferred on the ground of the evidence given before. In S9, the textual Theme *And* shows that the following meaning is an extension to the previous one. The rest of the information is the same as that of S8 except for the addition of a duration circumstance (*for the whole life*) which functions as a reinforcement of S7.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S5 are diagrammed are Figure AII–7.
Text S17  (An unsuccessful text)

1/ I have been a student for more than 10 years. 2/ Today, as a college student, I think one should study hard. 3/ Once a friend of mine persuaded me to go working, even "Down the sea", 4/ I almost accepted it. 5/ In summer holiday, I got a temporary job in a company from sweeping the ground to joining the debate. 6/ I have met many practical problems that just was included in the books I had studied. 7/ So I continued to go back to school and studied more hard, because I want to use the knowledge handily when required.

S17 is a one-paragraph text with 7 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ I have been a student for more than 10 years.

2/ Today, as a graduate, I think one should study hard.

Ss1–2 function as an orientation to the reader. S1, taking the first personal reference I as the departure, introduce the writer's schooling background have been a student for more than 10 years. S2 thematises a temporal circumstance Today to set up a context for the Rheme to develop. I think in Rheme 2 shows the writer's involvement in the discussion. The rest of the Rheme, one should study hard, is the repetition of the title—the macro-theme.

3/ Once a friend of mine persuaded me to go working, even "Down the sea",

4/ I almost accepted it.

5/ In summer holiday, I got a temporary job in a company from sweeping the ground to joining the debate.

6/ I have met many practical problems that just was included in the books // I had studied.

7/ So I continued to go back to school and studied more hard, because I want to use the knowledge handily when required.

From S3, the text changes to a narration. The topical Theme of S3 Once signals the beginning in a narrative: the setting of time. Rheme 3 uses a Chinese idiom Down the sea meaning "give up one's own career and start doing business". The lack of explanation of this idiom would undoubtedly confuse the native reader. S4, expressing the writer's response, also confuses the reader by using the adverb almost in the way that it is hard to judge whether or not the writer accepted the idea until the
reader read S5. In S5, the topical Theme is realised in a new temporal circumstance *In summer holiday* which sets up a new time frame for the following discourse. S5 describes what the writer did in the workplace followed by S6 talking about the problems met with which were all explained in the textbooks at the university. It is observed that the information provided in Ss3–5 does not seem to involve the topic of "studying".

S6 by illustrating that the writer met with many problems that are included in the textbooks of the university can be assumed in a way that the writer argues a student should study hard. S7 explains why the writer went back to school with the textual Theme *So* showing a consequence of what is mentioned in S6. Since this text is in a narrative genre, except for using circumstances as Themes occasionally, most of the sentences thematise *I*.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text S17 are displayed in Figure AII–8.

Figure AII–8  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text S17
Appendix III  Theme/Rheme Analysis of Some Chinese EFL Hortatory Texts

Text title: "Making our cities greener"

Text G7  (a successful text)

1/ In our country, the rate of green is very low, probably 12 percent, 2/ and the distribution of green-land is rather unaverage. 3/ In some cities, such as Beijing, Dalian, the situation is fairly better, 4/ But most of other cities are not very good.

5/ The green-land benefits us in many respects. 6/ The first, it can make the city beautiful, and make our lives comfortable. 7/ The second, it can clean the air, reduce the noise around us, and make us healthy. 8/ The third, it can conserve the land and water, prevent the dirt from flying everywhere and keep the water clean and make our climate well. 9/ So the green-land is of great importance.

10/ How to increase the area of green-land. 11/ The most important of all is to preserve the grass and trees which are surrounding us. 12/ The next step is to call a campaign that everyone should be read to plant trees and grass. 13/ To make the world more beautiful is our duty, 14/ and everyone of us should be proud of this.

Text G7 is a three-paragraph text with 14 t-units. Each paragraph serves a specific generic purpose: (1) 'situation and problem'; (2) 'evaluation of city greenery'; and (3) 'solution'.

The advantage in this text is that the writer elaborates the message in each generic stage.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ In our country, the rate of green is very low, probably 12 percent,

2/ and the distribution of green-land is rather unaverage.

3/ In some cities, such as Beijing, Dalian, the situation is fairly better,

4/ But most of other cities are not very good.

S1 orients the reader to the general situation in China. Theme 1 is realised in a spatial circumstance In our country, setting up a context for Rheme 1. Rheme 1 maps with New—the situation of greenery in China. S2 adds more information to S1, signalled by the textual Theme and. The topical Theme in S2 is realised by the
combination of Given and New (the distribution). The Given green-land picking up from Rheme 1 green, thus forming the relationship of partial co-referentiality. In this sense, Theme 2 and Rheme 1 are in the linear thematic progression pattern. Rheme 2 coinciding with totally New unaverage is a judgement of Theme 2. Obviously, S2 needs further elaboration. Ss3–4 meet this requirement. Both Themes 3 (in some cities) and 4 (most of other cities) can be seen as the derived Themes of S2. S3, thematising a spatial circumstance (the marked Theme) In some cities sets up a framework for Rheme 3 which specifies the greenery situation there. In S4, the textual Theme But signals a contrastive situation. Part of the topical Theme of S4 keeps the continuity of "cities" as the departure. Themes 3–4 form the relationship of co-referentiality; hence, they are in the constant thematic pattern. The topical Theme of S4 uses a comparative reference other to refer back to cities in Theme 3. The content in Rheme 4 is in contrast with that of Rheme 3 by mentioning the unfavourable situation in "most other cities".

5/ The green-land benefits us in many respects.

6/ The firstly, it can make the city beautiful, and make our lives comfortable.

7/ The second, it can clean the air, reduce the noise around us, and make us healthy.

8/ The third, it can converse the land and water, prevent the dirt from flying everywhere and keep the water clean and make our climate well.

9/ So the green-land is of great importance.

Paragraph 2 (Ss5–9) exemplifies the advantages of city greenery. Theme 5 still maintains the topic "green-land" as the departure, which is derived from Paragraph 2. (The definite article The is not properly used.) The content in Rheme 5 is the evaluation of Theme 5 and it also prospects the following sentences by clarifying in many respects. S5 is the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2. Ss6–8 connect to one another by using the sequential conjunctives as the textual Themes, The first, The second and The third (These conjunctives were combined by mistake. They should be "Firstly, Secondly and Thirdly). Thematising it in Ss6–8 (which refers anaphorically
to *green-land* in Theme 5), Themes 6–8 are in the constant pattern. Rhemes 6–8 all contribute to S5 by specifying the advantages of greenery: Rheme 6 is realised in talking about beautification in the city; Rheme 7 about cleaning the air and Rheme 8 about environmental conserving.

S9 summarises Paragraph 2. The textual Theme *So* signals a conclusion: Based on what has been talked about, now it can be concluded that...". The topical Theme of S9 still keeps the continuity of "green-land" which runs on through the whole paragraph. Despite the fact that the use of "green-land" (in Themes 5 and 9, and the use of "it" in Themes 6–8) focuses the reader's attention on the same entity, all these topical Themes are too simple to convey more information (not to mention the overuse of *it*). This may be improved by using some nominalisation in Themes.

10/ **How** to increase the area of green-land.

11/ **The most important of all** is to preserve the grass and trees which are surrounding us.

12/ **The next step** is to call a campaign that everyone should be read to plant trees and grass.

13/ **To make the world more beautiful** is our duty,

14/ **and everyone of us** should be proud of this.

Paragraph 3 (Ss10–14) is a solution paragraph. This is indicated by the first sentence of this paragraph (S10). Strictly speaking, S10 is not a t-unit and should not be used independently. The right form would be "How shall we increase the area of green-land?". However, due to its semantic prominence in this text, the researcher is lenient to treat it as a "grammatically defaulted sentence". In S10, the topical Theme is realised in the circumstance of manner (a marked Theme) *How*, setting up the framework for the interpretation of Rheme 10 which is realised in proposing the task to be completed *to increase the area of green-land*. S10 is the hyper-theme of Paragraph 3. S10 with the thematisation of *How* as the departure also foreshadows the organisation of the following sentences to specify the measures to be taken in order to increase greenery in cities.
SI1-12 fill in this information gap by giving the examples. Themes 11–12, both derived Themes from S10, are connected to each other in sequence. Theme 11 is realised by a substitution (substituting exophorically "measures" which can be thought to be related to How in Theme 10) all together with an exophoric comparative reference the most important as the modification, thus making the topic of the first measure in a prominent position. Rheme 11 is about the first step—"Preserving the natural greenery around us"; Theme 12 continues with taking the second step—"raise people's awareness of greenery by means of propaganda".

Ss13–14 function as a conclusion to the text. Theme 13 To make the world more beautiful is related to part of Rheme 12 to plant trees and grass, thus forming the relationship of expectancy (collocation). Hence, Theme 13 and Rheme 12 are in the linear progression pattern. Rheme 13 is a justification of Theme 13 as an obligation – "people should take the responsibility of making the world beautiful". S14 is an addition to S13, signalled by the textual Theme and. The topical Theme of S14 everyone of us following the possessive pronoun our in Rheme 13, Rheme 13 and Theme 14 are also in the linear thematic pattern. In Rheme 14, the use of the modal operator should (expressing an obligation or requirement), does not seem relevant. It is recommended that would should replace it. This in Rheme 14 refers back to Theme 13.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G7 are displayed in Figure AIII-1.
1/ In our cities, the trees in two sides of the road are green. 2/ When you look straightly, you can see lines of green. 3/ You go into the garden, 4/ you can see varies of flowers. 5/ Our cities are full of green and flowers.
6/ Making our cities greener is beneficial to us. 7/ Such as, the air around us become clear. 8/ It makes our cities become beautiful and makes weather change. 9/ All of examples have proved that making cities greener is good for us.

10/ In order to make our cities become greener and greener, all of us in our cities ought to consider that making our cities greener is beneficial to us. 11/ It is important for us to build our cities.

12/ Make our cities greener, 13/ we plant trees in our cities. 14/ We not only plant trees but also protect them. 15/ Only by doing all this can we make our cities greener. 16/ We must consider it.

Text G26 is a four-paragraph text with 16 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ In our cities, the trees in two sides of the road are green. 2/ When you look straightly, you can see lines of green. 3/ You go into the garden, 4/ you can see varies of flowers. 5/ Our cities are full of green and flowers.

Paragraph 1 (Ss1–5) orients the reader to the situation of the city greenery in "our" cities. Rheme 1, in response to the context set up by Theme 1 In our cities, introduces the greenery situation in detail. S2 elaborates on S1, thematising a temporal circumstance (When you look straightly). In fact, this elaboration is unnecessary, given that the reader can imagine the situation after reading S1 based on the world knowledge. Themes 2–4 all thematise you, the exophoric reference which normally refers to "anyone excluding the reader". Theme 2 avoiding the repetition of "two sides of roads" mentioned in Rheme 1 still keeps on this topic. For this reason, semantically, Rheme 1 and Theme 2 form the linear progression pattern. What is more interesting lies in Ss3–4: On the surface, each of them seems to be independent of the other and the two sentences are in coordination. As the matter of fact, these two independent sentences are semantically regarded as one clause complex: The former one is the subordinate clause serving the purpose of either providing a condition (i.e. 'if-clause') or time frame (i.e. 'when-clause'). Because Chinese language belongs to parataxis in which all clauses tend to "be equal in status", in this case, the sequence of clauses may be significance in that the former one will "initiate"
the latter one (Halliday, 1994: 218). By contrast, English is hypotaxis-featured, in which case, signalled by connectors, there exists a clear distinction between the dependent and independent clauses. As far as the Chinese language is concerned, compared with its English counterpart, connectors are unnecessary in many situations (Li & Thompson, 1976). In this text, to fulfil the expectation of native English speakers, Ss3–4 would be changed to "When you go into the garden (Theme), you can see varieties of flowers (Rheme)". With regard to this text, Theme 2 and S3 are related to each other by a parallel structure; Rheme 2 and S4 are also in the parallel organisation (you can see...). Moreover, Rheme 4 and Rheme 2 interact with each other by forming the relationship of collocation (i.e. green vs flowers). S5 thematising Our cities as the departure generalises the greenery situation in "our" cities.

6/Making our cities greener is beneficial to us.
7/Such as, the air around us become clear.
8/It makes our cities become beautiful and makes weather change.
9/All of examples have proved that making cities greener is good for us.

In Paragraph 2 (Ss6–9), the writer gives some examples of the advantages of city greenery. S6, thematising the focus of this paragraph Making our cities greener as the departure followed by a comment to it is beneficial to us, functions as the hyper-theme of Paragraph 2. It foreshadows the subsequent sentences to specify how city greenery is good for people. To meet this requirement, S7 thematises a textual Theme Such as which signals an elaboration. (For example would be more properly used than Such as.) The topical Theme of S7 the air around us is a derived Theme from S6. Rheme 7 (It should use a temporal operator will/would to indicate the future) is realised by a relational process become clear. To be more specific, this mode of relational process belongs to the attributive one which means that "an entity has some quality ascribed or attributed to it" (Halliday, 1994: 120). The use of It in Theme 8 may cause ambiguity because structurally, It should refer back to the topical
Theme of S7 *the air around us*; but semantically (after examining the Rheme), it is more reasonable to consider that *It* refers anaphorically to Theme 6 *Making our cities greener*. In this case, it is recommended that *It* should be replaced by a nominalisation, thus erasing the possible ambiguity of the interpretation. Rheme 8 gives two comments about Theme 8 in specifying the advantages of city greenery. In S9, the topical Theme (*All of examples*) encapsulates both Ss7-8 followed by the Rheme *have proved that making cities greener is good for us* which functions as the conclusion to this paragraph.

10/ **In order to make our cities become greener and greener**, all of us in our cities ought to consider // that making our cities greener is beneficial to us.

11/ **It is important for us** to build our cities.

In Paragraph 3 (Ss10-11), the thematisation of a purpose circumstance in S10 *In order to make our cities become greener and greener* sets up the expectation for the following sentences, that is, to give some solutions to fulfil this purpose. The first solution suggested by Rheme 10 concerns people's mentality: People should realise the importance of city greenery. *Ought to* in Rheme 10 expresses an obligation or requirement. The content in the projection clause of Rheme 10 *that making our cities greener is beneficial to us* is no more than a repetition of S6. Consequently, Rheme 10 does not provide much new information to contribute to the development of the text. Theme 11 thematising a comment is the judgement of the Rheme *(to build our cities)*. This topic shift in Rheme 11 does not seem to fall in with the information flow of this paragraph.

12/ **Make** our cities greener,

13/ **we** plant trees in our cities.

14/ **We** not only plant trees but also protect them.

15/ **Only by doing all this** can we make our cities greener.

16/ **We** must consider it.
Paragraph 4 (Ss12–15) also gives a solution to the proposed problem (i.e. how to make our cities greener). S12 (Make our cities greener), an imperative sentence in structure, functions as the purpose of S13. By this structure, the writer meant to express "To (or In order to) make our cities greener". This deletion of "To" or "In order to" is a Chinese expression of a purpose. As mentioned earlier, Chinese language more depends on the sequence rather than the connector in the sentence. Therefore, Ss12–13 should be regarded as one clause complex with S12 being the Theme (a circumstance of purpose) which establishes a context for S13 (Rheme). S13 (Rheme) provides the solution to the context set up by S12 (Theme)—we plant trees in our cities. S14 thematising We (following Theme 13) as the departure, followed by Rheme 14 continues the topic of solution—not only plant trees but also protect them.

In S15, the interpersonal Theme Only shows explicitly the writer's attitude towards this matter. The topical Theme uses a circumstance of manner (by doing all this which encapsulates Ss13–14) to highlight the significance of taking these measures (this should be replaced by these). Rheme 15 gives an evaluation of the measures to be taken. Therefore, S15 is like a conclusion to this paragraph and the text could end with it. Nevertheless, S16 We must consider it is added providing a strong requirement (by using must in the Rheme). In Rheme 16, the reference it refers back to the solutions mentioned in Ss13–14 and can also be traced back to Theme 15 Only by doing all this. In this case, the singular form it is not appropriate. There is not any point of locating S16 in this text. By using S16, the writer probably argues for taking all these measures into consideration.

The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G26 are displayed in Figure AIII–2.
Figure AIII-2  Theme/Rheme Progression Patterns in Text G26
Text G33 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ Today city-greener in many North big cities in our country, such as Xian, Lanzhou are not as good because of climate position and other reasons, 2/ but in south, because the weather was almost always raining, the cities greener are better than cities in north.

3/ It is important and necessary to make our cities greener. 4/ When you walk along the street which is covered by the branches and leaves of trees, you see the various beautiful flowers, red, yellow and blue, hear the birds singing, see the butterflies dancing and breath the fresh air. 5/ What a happy life you live, 6/ and these also are good at your health, study and work. 7/ Making our cities greener benefit for everyone living in the city.

8/ And how could we make our cities greener? 9/ What should we do? 10/ First, we must have a long plan for green city. 11/ Every year we should plant a number of trees and call on the people in the city to plant trees, grass and flowers. 12/ Secondly, demand person love and care about it. 13/ Such, our city is liked to a big flower garden. 14/ Last, making our city greener is a duty for everyone of us. 15/ We all give off ourselves light and heat, and to make our city more beautiful.

Text G33 is a three-paragraph text with 15 t-units.

Theme/Rheme Progression

1/ Today city-greener in many North big cities in our country, such as Xian, Lanzhou are not as good because of climate position and other reasons,

2/ but in south, because the weather was almost always raining, the cities greener are better than cities in north.

In Paragraph 1 (Ss1–2), Theme 1 Today sets up a temporal context for Rheme 1 as well as the whole paragraph. Rheme 1 states that the problem of city greenery in Northern cities is due to the climate position and other reasons. It is clear that other reasons foreshadows the following sentences for clarity. The textual Theme but in S2 signals an adversative meaning. The topical Theme in south orients the reader to a spatial circumstance followed by Rheme 2 expressing a contrast, the city greener are better than cities in north with Rheme 1. (By city greener, the writer means "city greenery".) The introduction of the problem of city greenery in the North expects the elaboration from the following discourse. However, there is no mention of the greenery problem with reference to the North. In this case, there is not much significance of remarking the problem in the North at the beginning.

3/ It is important and necessary to make our cities greener.

4/ When you walk along the street which is covered by the branches and leaves of trees, you see the various beautiful flowers, red,
yellow and blue, hear the birds singing, see the butterflies dancing and breathe the fresh air.

5/ **What a happy life** you live,

6/ **and these** also are good at your health, study and work.

7/ **Making our cities greener** benefit for everyone living in the city.

In Paragraph 2 (Ss3–7), S3 by thematising a comment *It is important and necessary* and rheematising the topic to make our cities greener, evaluates city greenery in a general way and functions as the hyper-theme of this paragraph. It requires the following sentences to exemplify "how important and necessary it is to make our cities greenery". Theme 4 uses a temporal circumstance *When you walked along the street which was covered by the branches and leaves of trees* to establish a context for Rheme 4. Rheme 4, in turn, fulfils the expectation of Theme 4 by specifying what may happen in this context. In fact, Rheme 4 only gives a narrative description about this proposed situation. The point is that city greenery will change a city into a garden. The narration like this is not appropriate to be used in the expository genre. In addition, some examples which are quoted in Rheme 4 do not seem to be related to the topic of "city greenery" such as *hearing the birds singing* and *seeing the butterflies dancing*.

S5, an exclamatory sentence, thematising *What a happy life*, is an evaluation of S4, but it does not look appropriate in an expository text. In S6, the textual Theme *and* signals an addition of the information to S5. The referent for *these* in the topical Theme of S6 could be "trees, flowers, birds and butterflies" in S4. Followed by Theme 6, Rheme 6 *also are good at your health, study and work* does not spell out the information clearly. It is understood that city greenery is good for people's health. However, there is hardly any direct correlation between "city greenery" and "study and work". The writer needs to fill in this information gap. S7 is a conclusion to this paragraph with Theme 7 taking the text topic *Making our cities greener* as the departure followed by the general evaluation in Rheme 6 to it *benefits for everyone living in the city*.
In summary, this paragraph starts with a general comment about city greenery and ends with a conclusion. But in between, there is lack of evidence which would lead the reader to the conclusion.

8/ And how could we make our cities greener?
9/ What should we do?
10/ First, we must have a long plan for green city.
11/ Every year we should plant a number of trees and call on the people in the city to plant trees, grass and flowers.
12/ Secondly, demand person love and care about it.
13/ Such, our city is liked to a big flower garden.
14/ Last, making our city greener is a duty for everyone of us.
15/ We all give off ourselves light and heat, and to make our city more beautiful.

Paragraph 3 (Ss8–15) provides a solution to the proposed problem. In S8, the use of the textual Theme and aiming at connecting Paragraphs 2 to 3 is not necessary. S8, thematising a circumstance of manner how is a rhetorical question which requests the clarification of the measures to be taken in order to make the cities greener. S9 is also a rhetorical question thematising What which shows that the missing information is "what actions to be taken". Should in Rheme 9 expresses a requirement or an obligation. Therefore, both Ss8–9 foreshadow the following sentences to bridge the missing gaps in a hortatory way, that is, to persuade that some actions should be taken (Martin, 1985a). Since both Ss8 and 9 employ we as the participant, it is possible that the following sentences will continue this general exophoric reference to refer to "people including the writer". To respond to Ss 8–9, the following sentences suggest some measures which are connected with one another in sequential conjunctives, i.e. First, Secondly, and Last. S10, signalled by the textual Theme First, is the first step of the actions: we must have a long plan. By long plan, the writer meant "long-term plan". The use of the modal operator must in the Rheme hints at a compulsory action.
S11 elaborates on Rheme 10 about "a long-term plan". Theme 11 using a temporal circumstance Every year as the departure, establishes a framework for Rheme 11. The two New in Rheme 11 are repetitive: we should plant a number of trees and call on the people in the city to plant trees, grass and flowers. To solve this problem of redundancy, one of the two pieces of information should be deleted. S12 starting with the textual Theme Secondly is realised in an imperative sentence. The topical Theme demand expressing a strong requirement is not appropriate in this situation. The neutral word "Ask" would be more appropriate. In Rheme 12, ... person love and care about it. By love, the writer means "cherish". The use of love may be due to the Chinese translation in the dictionary. It is used to refer anaphorically to trees, grass and flowers and should be replaced by "them". S13, by thematising a circumstance of manner Such (direct Chinese translation, meaning "In so doing") to summarise Ss10-12, evaluates the consequences of taking these proposed actions: the city will become a garden. S14 continues with the topic of measures, signalled by using the textual Theme Last. Nevertheless, taking making our cities greener as the departure, S14 highlights its significance by identifying it as the responsibility of citizens (Rheme 14 is realised in is duty for everyone of us ). Since S14 does not provide any solution and does not form any coordinative relationship with the preceding solution sentences, it should not be foregrounded with the textual Theme Last. S15 (the conclusion of the whole text) may confuse the reader. The problem lies in using the English translation of a Chinese idiom We all give off ourselves light and heat (meaning "We will put into some effort" in Chinese). The whole sentence is supposed to be: "We will put in some effort and make our cities more beautiful".

As analysed above, the inappropriateness is reflected in: (1) failure to fill the information gap (i.e. the problem mentioned in Paragraph 1 is not flashed back); (2) failure to manipulate the genre (i.e. it is not appropriate to use narration in Paragraph 2); (3) misuse of the textual Theme (i.e. Last in Chapter 3) and (4) the direct use of the Chinese idiom (i.e. give off ourselves light and heat in the last sentence in
Paragraph 3). The Theme/Rheme progression patterns in Text G33 are diagrammed in Figure AIII–3.

**Figure AIII–3**  Thematic Progression Patterns in Text G33
Appendix IV Some Original Texts

Part One Australian Students' Texts

Text title: "Knowledge is the most valuable possession in the world"

Text AK3 (a successful text)

1/ Knowledge is undoubtedly the most valuable possession in the world. 2/ Civilisation, as we know it, is built on knowledge, be it knowledge of science and technology to keep us survive and progress in the material world, knowledge of the arts — music, drama and art — which help cultivate our finer sensibilities and 'soothe the beast', or spirit or metaphysical knowledge which provide us with a philosophy of life on which we can anchor ourselves, guide our behaviour, and help us with the stresses and strains of daily living and provide us with meaning, as thinking human beings.

3/ Material wealth or even health which people often consider major goals to aim for in life are just ephemeral in comparison to knowledge, which may be seen as the source.

Text title: "As an Australian citizen, do you think politics important?"

Text AP5 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ I think politics is important, 2/ but to a greater degree, because the voters do not have any real power to influence its practice, (except every three years or so at the ballot box), whatever one thinks is not really all that relevant. 3/ I say this because the two major parties are distinguished more by their similarities than their differences. 4/ Most notable of these similarities is their acquiescence (acquiescence) to
both "market forces" or what has been termed "economic rationalism" and foreign government who have appalling human rights records (i.e. Indonesia).

**Text 10 (an successful text)**

1/ The politics is life—2/ life is political. 3/ To live is to be political. 4/ The way we conduct ourselves is a political act. 5/ To be is to be political. 6/ The position held in society is a position brought about by political pressure and ideology of that society.

7/ If a person opts out as such, they are making a political statement about society as a whole.

8/ A community of people is always controlled/organised around the political thought of that group of people. 9/ The fact that we live groups is a political act, no matter what format that group takes. 10/ Whether it be controlled or dominated by a single figure or is a collective collaborative decision making group. 11/ All are political.

**Part Two Chinese EFL Analytical Texts**

**Text title: "Knowledge is the most valuable possession"**

**Text K13 (an unsuccessful text)**

1/ I think knowledge is very important to mankind. 2/ Since we have to live with difficulty, people have accumulated many things that are considered knowledge. 3/ Through knowledge, one can handle problems successfully. 4/ In modern society, one could not attain success if his knowledge is poor.

5/ Furthermore, people give their knowledge to their next generation. 6/ And through this way, many useful knowledge is acquired and copied in words. 7/ To have knowledge is better than to be rich. 8/ Throughout the world, we can find different kinds of customs and institutions. 9/ This is very useful for a person to get in touch with each other.
10/ Being little knowledge is a disaster.

**Text K18  (an unsuccessful text)**

1/ Knowledge is the most valuable thing. 2/ If we all have a good education, the society would be much better. 3/ As we all know, in the most developed Western countries, knowledge is very popular. 4/ Everyone can get a chance to go to the college and universities. 5/ Why is education so popular in western countries? 6/ The answer is that they have realised the importance of the education.

**Text title: "As a Chinese citizen, do you think politics important?"**

**Text P15  (an unsuccessful text)**

1/ This is a very interesting question. 2/ Politics is about us we can't escape it. 3/ For this is also a question that we must answer as a Chinese youth.

4/ Yes. This is my answer to the question. 5/ Politics is related to our jobs. 6/ If the political party is good, we can get more chances to get a job. 7/ On the contrary, we will be jobless if the political party is unable to create more job. 8/ In our foreign transaction, we can output and import more goods if our country is friendly with other country. 9/ Therefore, we can extend our eyesight and make our country to develop. 10/ As a result, our country is getting more and more rich and 11/ our life level can also get more and more high.

**Text P14  (an unsuccessful text)**

1/ Our homeland is called the republic China of people's, for she serve the people with all her heart, 12/ and the right of government is on the lands of people. 3/ But now, it serves not exactly so. 4/ For many officers are corrupted in some extend, 5/ and the people some time feel they are burden some people heavily. 6/ That is not regular or normal for our land. 7/ So the people, the citizen must fight to handle the right more tightly so as to inspect the offices more closely to prevent them
going too far in their own benefit. If right is deprived from the people, the people will be the waiter, not the master.

Text title: "Reading does not help much"

As mentioned in Chapter 4, six Chinese EFL texts on this topic title were collected. All these six texts have been exemplified either in Theme/Rheme analysis (Chapter 5) or in cohesive analysis (Chapter 6).

Text title: One Should Study Hard?"

Text S4 (a successful text)

1/ When we regard a student as a good one, we often say "he studies hard'. 2/ Should we study only hard? 3/ I don't think so.

4/ We study a lot in our lifetimes. 5/ Every day we learn something. 6/ No matter how hard we study, we only grasp a small amount knowledge among the knowledge human knows. 8/ I believe that one should first know what aspects he should study. 9/ When he studies, he focuses on these aspects. 10/ Secondly, he should grasp the way to study. 11/ Different aspects of knowledge should be studied in different ways. 12/ There is no common way to learn different aspects of knowledge.

13/ So I think one should first know what he will study and how to study, 16. then study hard.

Text S9 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ Yes, one should study hard all his life. 2/ The world is changing with great speed. 3/ During this substance world, many new things will coming up. 4/ As human beings, we must study these new things.

5/ Studying hard, we will not keep up with the situation. 6/ Besides we may feel empty and our lives will be invague. 7/ So I say, studying is unquestionably so essential to us all as eating and sleeping. 8/ We are human beings which means all of
us should be and must be different from other beast. 9/ If we don't study hard, only
eating and sleeping and playing, how can we be separated from them?

10/ Somebody say one should study hard only in school in childhood. 11/ It is
not true. 12/ We should study hard all our lives. 13/ We have the duties to change
the world into a more beautiful garden, 14/ we will face many many problems to
solute. 15/ If we do not study hard whole our lives, it must be a defeat.

16/ Let's study hard for more beautiful tomorrow. it will be interesting very
much.

Part Three          Chinese EFL Hortatory Texts

Text title: Making our cities greener"

   Text G32 (a successful text)

1/ Making our cities greener is essential. 2/ With the development of science
and technology, all kinds of machines appear rapidly. 3/ Pollution becomes more
serious. 4/ To diminish the effect on health, we must make our cities greener. 5/
However, many cities have no enough trees, grasses, the buildings have occupied a
lot of areas. 6/ Sometimes, although the government have made a lot of efforts to
make the cities greener, the citizens pay no attention to it, even destroy the trees.

7/ Indeed, making the cities greener has led to many advantages. 8/ At first, it
can clear the air, make the cities beautiful, regulate the climate and provide the area
for amusing. 9/ In particular, it is the trees or other plants that absorb the CO₂ and
give off O₂ on which people depend.

10/ Therefore, we should take into action to make the wishes into reality. 11/
We can plant the trees and flowers in suitable places and make sure that they can
grow up. 12/ We should protect the tree owners. 13/ In the same way, the
government should call the pollution, make some rules on it and provide the
necessary money to this plane. 14/ No matter how it is, it must depend on all of us
to make the city greener.
**Text G53 (a successful text)**

1/ Cities are becoming larger and larger. 2/ With the population increasing and industries developing, the condition is becoming worse and worse. 3/ In Shanghai, the largest city in China, you are hardly to find a piece of grassland, 4/ you always see the skyscrapers and hardly to see some trees. 5/ Of course, some cities, such as Hangzhou, my hometown are beautiful, you can find green everywhere, especially near the beautiful West Lake. 6/ There are a lot of advantages to make a city green. 7/ It can clean the atmosphere. 8/ It can make a city beautiful, 9/ it can change the climate. 10/ If Beijing is green and beautiful, it will appeal many tourists during the Asian Games and give them a good impression. 11/ We should try to make our city more green and beautiful. 12/ We can plant trees, we can plant flowers on our balcony. 13/ It not only gives ourselves pleasure 14/ but also make the city more beautiful. 15/ It's an important thing for every citizen to make our city green and beautiful. 16/ If we all try, we will find a more beautiful city we have.

**Text G2 (an unsuccessful text)**

1/ Our city is a green city. 2/ Everywhere you go, you can see green trees, green grass. 3/ Everytime you come, you will be around green sea, school, factory are green. 4/ Trees are our good friends. 5/ They can clean the air, beautify our city and change our climate. 6/ After supper, you can go to the park to breathe the fresh air. 7/ Live in a green city, people feel happy, pleasant. 8/ In a green city, people will work harder and live longer. 9/ Plant trees is important to green cities. 10/ Everyone plant a tree, the city will be greener around. 11/ In every school, in every factory we all can plant trees grass. 12/ Our city will be greener.
Text G61 (an unsuccessful text)

1/ Walking in Peking, some place, the trees at the each side of the street are very tall and beautiful, 2/ and the air, after raining, is so cleaning that everyone here will stay more time to enjoy themselves.

3/ In another street, at summer, there are no trees, no water and no flowers. 4/ The hot air around us is so dirty that everyone live here will wash clothes every day.

5/ The cities greener is very important and necessary. 6/ And this will bring us very comfortable life outdoors. 7/ Everyone want healthy and clear. 8/ So, can you say the cities greener is not necessary?

9/ The cities greener is not an easy thing, 10/ so all of us should have the duty to plant and protect plant, day after day. 11/ Never break them. 12/ All of us will lived more lightly and comfortable.