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"Posh writing": empowering secondary students to write the discourse of history effectively

Riddhi Devi Bargon

University of Wollongong
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"POSH WRITING": EMPOWERING SECONDARY STUDENTS TO WRITE THE DISCOURSE OF HISTORY EFFECTIVELY

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

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Riddhi Devi Bargon

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To my dearly beloved mother, Ratna Ramkissoon.
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ABSTRACT

This study examines the extent to which two students develop control over the expository genre of writing in their creation of historical texts.

Halliday's functional model of language provides the linguistic theoretical framework for the study.

Year 10 History students were exposed to a style of teaching which was based on the Disadvantaged Schools Program's pedagogical framework; 'The Curriculum Genre'. Interactive guidance and assistance were at the core of teaching strategies used by the teacher/researcher.

Ten essays written by two Year 10 students were analysed in terms of *generic (schematic) structure, themes/reference, conjunctions and nominalisations, participants and processes*.

The findings of the study showed that the students' competency as 'empowered' writers developed during the study period. This was evident in their increased awareness and understanding of the nature and purpose of expository essays. Both students improved in their ability to recognise and produce a well structured essay. Their selection of relevant linguistic features assisted them to create an effective expository historical discourse. However, the rate of writing development differed in each case.

A significant conclusion to be drawn from the study is that competency in writing occurs when one is able to identify and be in control of the genre in which one is expected to write.
Chapter One

1. Introduction.

1.1. Aim and purpose.

The major purpose of this study is to examine the extent to which two Year 10 students can be assisted to develop control over expository genre of writing in their creation of historical texts.

A secondary aim of the study is to provide teachers of history with relevant information to facilitate students' grasp of writing expository essays with increasing competence.

1.2. Objectives

The principal objectives of the study are to determine the extent to which students can be taught to:

a. use their knowledge of the schematic structure of expository essays to formulate and communicate logical argument in written form.

b. show the ability to maintain cohesion in their line of argument by effective use of:
   - Themes
   - Reference
   - Conjunctions

c. demonstrate competence in their writing of historical discourse by becoming aware of how grammatical metaphor, especially nominalisation, is used in history writing.
1.3. Why expository genre?

Essay writing constitutes an integral part of Australian upper junior and senior school education and consequently success in the N.S.W. Higher School Certificate is dependent upon students' ability to handle this all important skill. Subjects such as English, History, Science and Agriculture, Geography, Visual Arts, Drama, Economics all require that students be in control of this particular genre of writing. All these disciplines utilise essay writing as one method of assessment though it features more prominently in some subjects than in others. English and 2 Unit Ancient History HSC examination questions are generally essay oriented whereas other disciplines use a combination of essay writing and other form of assessment [N.S.W. Board of Education, 1974, 1987, 1987a, 1988, 1988a, 1988b].

Thus it can be seen that a student's success in school will depend to a great extent upon his effective mastery of this genre of writing. Expository writing plays an important part in secondary school education and appropriate guidance and assistance should be provided to these students to prepare them for the final hurdle they have to cross at the end of their school career [Martin, 1985].

In the eyes of HSC examiners essay questions are considered to be effective test instruments to assess the higher order skills where students are expected to "synthesize evidence and arguments culled from a variety of sources and be able to communicate ideas, arguments and conclusions logically, clearly and concisely in both oral and written form" [N.S.W. Secondary Schools Board, 1974, p.7]. Because of the nature of a subject such as History where "the development in students of a sense of historical perspective is seen as central to the study of History" the skill and ability to "formulate a logical
argument ... in relation to written work such as essays" assume great importance [N.S.W. Secondary Schools Board, 1974, p.7].

Success on the part of the students will be dependent upon their ability to manipulate language to suit their purpose. Accordingly competence in language should be developed simultaneously with the teaching of the various disciplines "for the successful study of History (and other subjects) is to a large extent dependent upon language competence" [N.S.W. Secondary Schools Board, 1974, p.8].

1.4. Empowering students.

To assist students become effective and competent language users this study adopts the theoretical framework provided by Halliday's functional model of language [Halliday, 1978] and the pedagogical framework which stemmed from the Disadvantaged Schools' Program's Curriculum Genre [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988].

1.4.1. Functional model of language.

Halliday's functional model of language views language learning to be a learning process and regards language as a resource for making meanings. The relationship between language use and context is described in an explicit and systematic way with emphasis being on the role of social interaction in learning. The major advantage of Halliday's model is that focus is on meaning rather than expression and attention is placed on whole texts and their organisation as well as on sentences. Thus, when teachers are assisting students to create texts for different purposes and audiences, they are in a position to be explicit in their instructions. The functional model of language provides them with "clear guidance for setting up social situations in the classroom which enable students to learn
how to write and use other modes of language appropriate for different social purposes" [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.20].

The functional model of language as developed by Halliday has been implemented successfully in literacy programmes around the world. It has also been increasingly used in conjunction with research into genre based approaches to literacy at various educational institutions such as the Universities of Sydney, Wollongong, Deakin and in the Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.19].

1.4.2. Pedagogical framework.

The pedagogical framework of this project is centred around Disadvantaged Schools' Program's Curriculum genre which focuses upon the nature of language as a meaning system.

"It will seek to identify the different kinds of genre available in the English language; it will seek to explore these, examining how various linguistic choices must be made in order to create them, and in doing this, it will involve students in exploring grammar in functionally relevant ways." [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.9]

One of the major concerns of the Disadvantaged Schools' Program has been in the area of factual writing as this is considered to be of paramount importance in a child's literacy development and success in schooling [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988]. The model focuses on assisting children to gain control over a wide variety of written genres. An awareness and understanding of the purpose and structural organisation of factual writing is crucial if the child is to participate successfully in the school curriculum and the broader community.
The model, trialed and implemented by several members of the Metropolitan East
Disadvantaged Schools'Program Literacy Project, has been further developed and refined
by Rothery and Macken for primary/infant teachers and secondary teachers respectively.
The result has been published in a series of booklets entitled *A Genre-Based to Teaching
Writing: years 3–6* [N.S.W. Dept. of Education, 1989]. The aim was to provide teachers
with a further perspective on teaching writing.

Crowley [1988, p.105] supports the view that "encouraging and developing sustained
writing in a variety of genres across the curriculum will both increase the power and
scope of subject learning and enhance students' writing skills".

Christie, whose research lies in the area of language education, also believes that "in
learning to write children are involved in learning to recognise and to control different
genres ... " Success in writing is thus to a large degree dependent upon students' control
of the different written genres [Christie, 1984b, p.12]. The teachers' function here would
be first and foremost to understand the varieties of genres and then to assist students in
becoming proficient in their use.
1.4.3. Teacher awareness and explicitness.

Great concern is expressed by educators and linguists that students should be given plenty of practice and training in essay writing. To that extent it has been suggested that [Martin, 1980a; McNamara, 1987; Christie, 1984, 1984a; Rothery, 1984, 1985; Disadvantaged Schools' Program, 1989a, 1989b, 1989c; Tonkin, 1988] if teachers want to break out of the hidden curriculum that they now work within they should maximise every child's writing potential by making explicit their implicit knowledge and understanding of the structure of texts.

1.5. Current climate in educational context.

In their attempts to empower senior students to write effective essays, teachers are faced with a wide choice of resources from the mass of material available on making essay writing easier for teaching and learning.

Teachers recognise that essay writing forms a vital part of upper Junior and Senior school life and endeavour to assist students to acquire this vital skill. Essay guidelines and models are in abundance in the various English textbooks for teachers to trial on their students. Walshe [1979], Macfarland [1988], Downie [1988], Sadler, Hayllar and Powell [1988], Kavanagh [1980] and Allsopp [1980] all present similar ideas for teachers on the best possible approach which could be adopted for teaching students to gain control over essay writing.
Kavanagh [1980] and Allsopp [1980] both focus on the planning stage as being crucial. The planning stage has to take into account that every essay has three distinct parts.

"The introduction and conclusion consist of short paragraphs. The body of the essay may consist of more, or fewer, paragraphs than the three in the diagram." [Allsopp, 1980, p.24]

The approach generally adopted by several teachers to teach essay writing is a mild adaptation of a genre students are already familiar with − the narrative genre. Like a story an essay, students are told, has a beginning, a middle and an end. However, the technical terms Introduction, Body and Conclusion are substituted for the more mundane terms.

Downie suggests that the introduction "should set the tone of your essay ... [and it should be] compact and concise". The body of the essay is what he calls the "argumentation" whereby the student should develop his line of argument on the sequence of main points. In the conclusion one should draw the main threads of one's argument together [Downie, 1988, p.128].

To launch the students upon the mammoth task of writing a full essay, some teachers often provide the pupils with an introduction plus a topic sentence for each paragraph. Some include a conclusion, others expect the students to write the conclusion themselves, along with filling the remaining details. A more common approach is when students are required to write introductions and conclusions to isolated topics as a practice to writing essays [Macfarland, 1988; Downie, 1988; Walshe, 1979].
While a considerable degree of emphasis is placed on the importance of essay writing and planning and it is acknowledged that essay preparation is an exercise in logical thinking, most authors make only a passing mention of ways in which language should and can be manipulated to create the meanings one intends to. Carmichael [1984, p.187] sets out a series of ten steps on "how to write a formal essay", steps which the author feels will help students express themselves efficiently. No direct reference is made to language until steps 6-9. Then the students are advised to "be as careful as possible with spelling, punctuation and grammar". Although students are encouraged to use variations in the way they begin their sentences, no explicit reference is made on the purpose served by this suggestion.

However, there are some notable exceptions to this practice. Walshe's last 'ingredient' in the five steps for essay writing advises the use of connective devices.

"Good writers stitch their clauses, sentences and paragraphs together with helpful connective words." [Walshe, 1979, p.77]

Russell–Matthews draws attention to the power of language to communicate to the reader.

"Powerful, precise language demands the attention of your reader." [Russell–Matthews, 1990, p.10]
He advocates the need for students to choose the right language, to choose a level and style appropriate to the subject matter and reader and above all to ensure that their writing reflects "precision, unity and coherence" [Russell-Matthews, 1990, p.5].

1.6. Students are still failing.

While all these approaches are considered to be informative and valuable for the students, success is still not within the grasp of all. Not all of them have mastered the skill of creating a successful essay which addresses the issues raised by the question and discuss these concepts at length in a style that is deemed appropriate by the examiners. A large proportion of HSC candidates are still unable to show their ability to handle analytical writing.

"... the better candidates dealt competently with both concepts and reinforced their argument with reference to historiographic material." [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1987, p.5]

These better candidates form but a minority of the HSC population.

How does the majority of the student population tackle essay writing? Once again, the examiners provide their comment. The tendency for students is to narrate events instead of addressing themselves to the questions and their answers lack the necessary explanation or interpretation.
"... weaker candidates still resorted to narrating the events of the reigns of kings instead of addressing themselves to the question asked." [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1988, p.2]

"They also failed to refer to the stimulus material or to relate it to the question." [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1988, p.1]

"Weaker answers tended to generalise without any direct reference to the archaeological evidence, as required by the question." [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1988, p.4]

1.6.1. Reasons for failure

Three major reasons account for such a failure. Firstly, the highly abstract language of each specific discipline is far removed from the language students bring to the classroom. In their analysis of the discourse of history, Eggins, Wignell and Martin [1987, p.66] noted that written history "seeks to maximise the distance between what people actually did and how it gets written about". Grammatical metaphor or "abstraction" is the principal linguistic resource used to achieve this level of distancing.

The language to which the majority of students are accustomed is far removed from this highly abstract discourse. Their spoken language is more dynamic where it defines its universe primarily as process whereas written language of history and other disciplines presents a synoptic view. The universe is defined as product rather than process [Halliday, 1985b, p.97].
Lack of awareness that speech and writing can diverge at the semantic level poses great difficulty for students. The problem arises out of the ambiguity presented by the highly incongruent nature of a written text.

The second reason which detracts from students' performance in essay writing is their ability to identify the organisational structure of a piece of writing and to follow the development of the argument. There is the tendency to describe or report events which occurred. In her analysis of an essay written by a Year 11 history student, Rothery observes that the student does not develop arguments though the seeds of arguments are noticeable. Instead the student writes a report about the way things were in China.

"But these facts are not turned into arguments; they are not related back to a Thesis; nor are they linked to the question as evidence of the impending breakdown of the Manchu dynasty.' [Rothery, 1988, p.79]

The final reason for failure is the degree of control students exert over language [Martin, Eggins and Wignell, 1988]. Martin believes that "language consciousness is an essential element in any critical literacy programme." Although students are provided with sufficient information they are not directly instructed in using language to make meaning [Martin, Eggins and Wignell, 1988, p.146].

1.7. Rationale.

This project is considered both timely and necessary as the current educational climate reveals that there is a great need to find workable models of language to empower students to become competent writers. In the search for suitable teaching strategies it
becomes apparent that there is a shortage of research in tracing the writing development of high school students. Secondly, there is a lack of studies conducted whereby Halliday's linguistic theory and Disadvantaged Schools Program's Curriculum Genre have been applied to a classroom situation by a teacher/researcher. In addition no longitudinal research has yet been undertaken in the area of language development through acquisition of control over factual genres. Finally the choice of History is determined by the fact that factual genres are closely associated with learning in this particular discipline [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988].

1.7.1. Writing development in a high school classroom.

Several recent studies and research in Australia have tended to focus on primary level students where language learning is relatively fresh or upon senior students where pressure to perform is intense. Each researcher has attempted to follow a different avenue of investigation. Christie [1984b] examines the writing of Grade 6 children whereby she shows the difference between expository and narrative genres. N.S.W. Department of Education, Directorate of Studies [1989] investigates a genre–based approach to teaching writing in Years 3–6, with emphasis on narrative writing and factual writing.

Martin and Rothery [1980] have examined samples of student writing from late primary through junior secondary school. Their purpose was to determine what kinds of writing are expected in school and they developed and applied a set of analyses of discourse and register to this sample.
In their search for a workable model of teaching writing Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1987] have examined history textbooks for abstract language, Conjunctive relations, Themes and Participants and McNamara [1987] has investigated the style of writing typically encountered in Science and History. Martin, Eggins and Wignell [1988] have analysed the language of Year 8 History/Geography textbooks as they are taught in a junior secondary school. Hardy and Klarwein [1990] provide a range of texts written by students from years 8–12 as a helpful resource for teachers. Each text is described in terms of its purpose and contextual factors, its generic structure and textual features.

Rothery and Macken [1991] examine the goals for writing development in junior secondary English and criteria used to grade written texts. Their concern was that although the curriculum is designed to promote language development, the approach to be utilised to achieve this is left to the discretion of the individual teachers.

While research and studies have been carried out in the context of primary school classrooms and while textbooks have been analysed in terms of their generic structure and textual features and an abundance of resources have been provided for teachers, comparatively little work on language education has been done at the upper junior secondary classroom level. It is apparent that there is a need for a study to be conducted in such a classroom environment where students are provided with assistance and guidance to become competent users of language and are able to create effective texts in the relevant disciplines.
1.7.2. **Practical applications of Halliday's linguistic theory by teacher as researcher.**

Studies and research which have been conducted in the area of language development whereby Halliday's linguistic theory and Disadvantaged Schools' Program's pedagogical theory have been applied to a classroom situation have been undertaken by researchers in collaboration with the classroom teacher. Christie [1984b] participated as a researcher in some primary schools where the focus was on teaching a variety of genres. Callaghan and Rothery were involved with the Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools' Program in a Literacy project designed to examine the teaching of factual writing in Social Studies and History in Years 5–8. The W.I.S.H. project organised a series of workshops for volunteer teachers to examine writing students do in Science and History and to consider teaching strategies appropriate to assist students to become competent writers [McNamara, 1988].

Hence, the implementation of the above mentioned theories in a classroom situation by a teacher/researcher is considered to be extremely valuable. First of all, the teaching which takes place under these circumstances is non-threatening for the students. The work that ensues forms part of their normal school curriculum. Secondly, with the teacher being in control, it is possible to take into account disruptions to normal school routines and to judge the current receptive moods of the students. Based on these observations, appropriate adjustments can easily be made to suit the current situation. Having the teacher as researcher gives the added advantage that the whole class is exposed to the teaching/learning strategies being trialed.
1.7.3. **Longitudinal research.**

One major advantage of the study is that it is carried out over the extended period of one academic year and forms part of the curriculum. The immediate value of a longitudinal study is that it provides the teacher/researcher with the opportunity to trace the development of students' writing abilities over a long period of time. In addition the teacher/researcher is in a position to judge the climate in the classroom and the moods of the students before implementing a new concept. At the same time the decision to select texts for a detailed linguistic analysis is facilitated by the continuous presence of the researcher on site.

1.7.4. **Choice of discipline.**

The discipline of History is chosen to implement this particular method of teaching for two reasons. First of all History is one of the three subjects the teacher/researcher is time-tabled to teach, the other two being English and French. Secondly, the highly abstract nature of historical discourse makes this choice appropriate for the development of writing abilities. In addition writing of expository genres is closely associated with the discipline of history [N.S.W. Secondary Schools Board, 1974, p.43].
1.8. Conclusion.

This study focuses on ten expository texts created by two Year 10 students in the context of a History classroom over the academic year 1990. The purpose is to determine the extent to which students can achieve control over a particular genre of writing and become competent writers dependent upon their emergent awareness of language seen as a resource for making contextually appropriate meanings. Although the specifics of the study cannot be generalised to the majority of students what can be utilised is an application of similar teaching strategies to other similar classroom environment in secondary schools.

Linguists and educators alike are in agreement that emphasis in junior high school should be on production of "non-narrative" writing which in senior school results in analytical writing. Essay writing dominates writing in these final years and is the most challenging form of sustained writing faced by students. Without proper assistance and guidance students cannot be expected to become competent 'essay' writers.
Chapter Two

2. Literature review

2.1. Power of writing.

The power of writing permeates every section of our modern society. In cultures where
writing systems are highly developed, writing becomes an important commodity. To be
successful in life the acquisition of writing skills is crucial for each individual. In
Western cultures "written language is prized above speech. ... Written language is taken
as the model for all language use" [Martin, 1985, p.51]. According to Martin, the more
literate of society members become more powerful as they become proficient writers and
"the language of people who cannot read and write is downgraded". To function
effectively in modern society everyone is expected to learn to write and the task of
teaching writing falls to educational institutions.

2.1.1. Writing across the curriculum.

The N.S.W. Department of School Education recognises writing to be "a powerful means
of learning" and to this end believes "that all students, from Kindergarten to Year 12,
should strive to become better writers and, therefore, better learners" [N.S.W. Department
of Education, 1987, p.iii]. To further this aim writing occurs and is encouraged across
the whole curriculum in primary and secondary schools. "Writing is a powerful means of
learning in all subject areas." [N.S.W. Department of Education, 1987, p.60]. Children
are expected to write in a variety of genres and for a variety of purposes in all disciplines
and those who master these forms of writing become powerful in functioning effectively
in a society where writing gathers momentum and ranks above speaking.
2.1.2. Writing for a purpose.

In their search for excellence the Secondary Schools Board provides a long list of different forms of writing which are common to several subjects. This is based on the concept that "writing helps learning when learners use a challenging and interesting range of forms of writing" [N.S.W. Department of Education, 1987, p.66]. Reports, film and other reviews, advertisements, labelling, notemaking, definitions, questionnaires, summaries, journal entries and essays are some of the forms of writing students are expected to engage into.

The N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education in its Legal Studies Syllabus Years 11–12 [1988b] provides a good example of what the general expectations in senior years are for senior students. The aim is that students should be able to "communicate effectively about the law in order to participate more effectively in Australian society" [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1988b, p.5]. Development of "the language, research and analytical skills required for understanding and evaluating legal studies" [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, p.5] is one way the Board proposes to achieve this aim. Among the evaluation instruments suggested are essays and structured–response questions, multiple–choice questions, field work reports, research projects and a list of other similar writing tasks.

From the above discussion it can be seen what an onerous burden is placed upon teachers and students alike for success to be achieved in the field of writing. According to Writing K–12 there is a tremendous learning value if students developed competency in writing in all the areas listed above.
Despite all the requirements, demands and expectations placed upon students by the various syllabi minimal explicit guidance is provided for students to achieve success in these written forms of assessment.

2.1.3. Writing: a daunting task.

This mammoth list of writing tasks can appear to be quite daunting for several students. The thought of expressing their ideas in writing has a crippling effect on their confidence.

"We've got the ideas but how do we write it, Miss?" is a common utterance in most junior and senior secondary classrooms. This apprehension to put pen to paper is largely due to students' lack of confidence in their ability to reproduce "posh" writing which they feel the system expects of them [Informal interview with students]. Writing posh is what each student consciously or unconsciously strives for and hopes to achieve for it is generally recognised that herein success lies.

2.2. Content versus expression.

From the students' point of view a dichotomy seems to exist between the ideas they possess and the language that is required to express these. There is a great deal of hesitancy on the part of the students to select the appropriate discourse patterns to express themselves in writing. They feel that they should use language that they are accustomed to, vocabulary which is within their grasp, not big words which the teacher or books supply. In other words they are more comfortable using a form of language they are familiar with – the spoken mode.
"We don't use words like that, Miss. Can you speak English to us, please Miss?"

[Interview with students]

A chasm is created between the language to which they are accustomed and to which they are exposed in the classroom and the language of the textbooks. They are aware that expressing their ideas, or selecting a suitable discourse pattern [a more written one] is the real stumbling block in their achieving success in the education field.

2.2.1. **Focus on content.**

This dichotomy between language and form is reinforced by the attitude of teachers who feel that the acquisition by their students of content in their specific discipline is of primary importance. Others who are aware of the importance of the development of mental skills such as those of reasoning, research and investigation plan their teaching programmes to incorporate such skills [Christie, 1985, p.37].

2.2.2. **Focus on expression.**

Teachers are aware that simply a knowledge of their relevant content areas is not sufficient if students are to succeed in school. Expression of these ideas in an appropriate form is crucial for success. However, content and form are seen as two separate entities. Some teachers feel that students need to learn lists of lexical items relevant to their discipline [Painter, 1985]. The N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education in its Legal Studies Syllabus [1988b, p.7] expects students to "develop a basic legal vocabulary and appreciate
the function and importance of legal documentation". Other teachers are concerned that the 'lesser' able students are not achieving a reasonable fluency of expression in their writing.

2.2.3. Good ideas and good expression.
Comments by some teachers on the effectiveness of a piece of writing encapsulate the existing dichotomy between form and expression. "Good ideas and good expression" is a frequent response to what is considered to be a good piece of writing. An inadequate piece of writing is considered to be classified as "poor or few ideas and poor expression" [Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.4].

2.2.4. Examiners' response.
Examiners also are not satisfied with the quality of answers they obtain in HSC examinations.

"... there is still an inclination towards high class narrative answers, rather than analytical." [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1987, p.1]

"They also failed to refer to the stimulus material or to relate it to the question." [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1988, p.2]

"Very few candidates were able to relate the contents of the tomb to the importance of religion in Egyptian society. There was generally a good knowledge of the contents of the tomb, but candidates did not relate it specifically to the question." [N.S.W. Board of Education, 1988, p.2]
Examiners base their judgement by making a distinct separation between content and form in the candidates' written answers. Teachers see fluency of expression as a separate entity from the actual content of the written work. Students openly admit their difficulty in expressing their ideas into relevant discourse patterns and thus are not in a position to achieve the fluency of expression that is expected of them.

2.2.5. Teachers' dilemma.

The dilemma faced by teachers is to find ways to assist in the development of students' writing abilities which is so crucial to ensure their successful progress at all levels of schooling. In order to do so effectively, teachers need to recognise that "posh" expression or in other words language cannot be separated from content/form. Language is at the core of a culture for it has the power to shape our consciousness by providing the individual with the theory that he uses to "interpret and to manipulate their environment" [Halliday, 1990, p.11]. Language actively construes reality and it is the grammar (here used in the sense of lexico–grammar) that gives it the impetus to shape experience, create meanings and set limits on what can be meant. Thus grammar is both a theory of human experience and a principle of social action.

According to this point of view it can be seen that language has evolved in the process of actively construing our reality [Halliday, 1990]. Language and form must be seen and taught as one complete entity if students are to achieve success in their writing development. To express one's ideas one needs the necessary language. Christie argues that "learning any 'content area' or body of knowledge is primarily a matter of learning language" [Christie, 1985, p.37]. Content cannot be divorced from the language patterns
of different disciplines. Teachers are encouraged to pay particular attention to the discourse patterns that their students need to learn for achieving success in education.

"... both content and methods of working necessarily find expression – are indeed realised – in discourse patterns. Learning subjects is learning patterns of language wherein are trapped the various ways of dealing with issues and ideas characteristic of the different subject areas." [Christie, 1985, p.38]

Each subject area is distinguished by its different thematic reference and its different activity structures. Each of the disciplines taught in the schools focuses on teaching of specific genres and social practices pertaining to the disciplines. However, one should be aware that all these thematic systems are "articulated and expressed, communicated and made sense of by use of language and other semiotic systems" [Lemke, 1985, p.30]. Students can effectively make use of the discourse of their subject only when they are able to distinguish that "language is used in significant specialised ways in the different subjects" [Lemke, 1985, p.31].

2.3. Language as hidden curriculum.

In recent years educators and researchers have recognised the powerful role language plays in ensuring the child's success in the educational field. Martin ... [et al] feel that "... language consciousness is an essential element in any critical literacy program" [Martin, Eggins and Wignell, 1988, p.146]. Christie sees linguistic processes to be fundamental
to all learning processes and accordingly believes that teachers should assume the role of
"teachers of language, seeking to develop their students language abilities" [Christie,
1985, p.29].

However, the elusive nature of success for the students seem to indicate that both teachers
and students are operating within the framework of a hidden curriculum. Martin ... [et
al] aptly sum up the situation when he quotes an aboriginal elder:

"We want them to learn. Not the kind of English you teach them in class, but your secret
English. We don't understand that English but you do. To us you seem to say one thing
and do another. That's the English we want our children to learn." [Martin, Eggins and
Wignell, 1988, p. 145.]

What is being proposed here is that the teachers' task should be to 'demystify' the learning
processes in which students engage and they should be encouraged to "develop and
control a wide range of ways of making meanings" [Christie, 1985, p.45; Hardy and
Klarwein, 1990]. Such an empowering of students will assist them to "move in increasing
independence and confidence and hence in increasing control of their world" [Christie,
1985, p.45]. However, this can only be achieved if teachers themselves are clear about the
central role played by language in the shaping of experience and reality. Their task is to
draw out language from its invisibility and render it more opaque.
2.4. **Language development.**

Language development occurs when children are "learning language, learning through language, and learning about language" [Christie, 1985, p.29]. This model of language development suggested by Halliday [1978] emphasises the need for educators to focus on the task of empowering students to become competent users of language. Halliday's model is further elaborated on by Christie [1985, pp.29–30]. Each of these three aspects is seen to play a specific role in language development. Learning language, a process which continues throughout our lives, refers to building up of basic language resources while learning through language is "the capacity of using language to articulate and express information about one's world" [Christie, 1985, p.30]. Learning about language is the ability to "take language as something in itself capable of examination" [Christie, 1985, p.30]. As we use language we develop an implicit understanding of how language works. We are aware that language enables us to do certain things and we are also aware that written language is made up of certain symbols which are organised in certain ways. A combination of these three aspects of learning forms a strong foundation for language learning.

2.5. **Halliday's functional model of language.**

Christie's argument stresses the powerful role that language plays in a child's educational success. Language is seen as a tool for gaining control over meaning. The view that regards the nature of language as 'a resource for making meanings' has been formulated by Halliday [1978] who takes a functional approach to language learning. This is in direct contrast to previous approaches where language learning was seen as the acquisition of a set of skills. The focus was either on "refining and combining sentence constituents"

However, this view that regards language learning as skills training would not take the learner very far as such an approach tends to deemphasize its character as a symbolic resource and ignores the notion of language as a meaning-making system [Painter, 1989, p.19].

Halliday's functional model of language learning distinguishes itself from these approaches to language learning in two ways:

1. Language learning is a social process and human beings express their values, beliefs and attitudes in social situations.

   "Language is a product of the social process." [Halliday, 1978, p.1]

2. Language is seen chiefly as a resource for making meanings, "a resource with which people constantly negotiate understandings and relationships" [Christie, 1984, p.54].

   "... language is a shared meaning potential, at once both a part of experience and an intersubjective interpretation of experience" [Halliday, 1978, pp. 1–2].
The implications of Halliday's theory are that children are born as social beings and their development into adulthood requires that they function as human beings. The major resource available to them with which to function effectively in society vis-à-vis themselves and others is language.

"In the development of the child as a social being, language has a central role. Language is the main channel through which the patterns of living are transmitted to him, through which he learns to act as a member of a 'society' – in and through the various social groups, the family, the neighbourhood, and so on – and to adopt its 'culture', its modes of thought and action, its beliefs and its values" [Halliday, 1978, p.9].

A functional approach to language learning as developed by Halliday is concerned with how people use real language for real purposes. It provides a very "comprehensive attempt to relate language use to social setting in an explicit and systematic way" [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.19].

This model of language differs from traditional grammar in that it is not concerned with a set of hard and fast rules which will dictate the correct or incorrect usage. Rather it sees language as a dynamic and ever changing process developed by human beings to satisfy their needs in society.

Halliday's functional theory of language is about social processes where language is learnt through interaction and this is "what makes it possible for a culture to be transmitted from one generation to the next" [Halliday, 1978, p.19]. The focus is on society rather than the individual and the individual's language potential is interpreted as the means whereby the
various social relationships into which he enters are established, developed and maintained [Halliday, 1978]. This view is more interested in what the speaker, whether it is a child or adult, can do with language. Thus the nature of language is explained in terms of the functions it has evolved to serve.

2.5.1. Language as a resource, meaning potential.

"Language is a resource, a meaning potential" [Halliday, 1978, p.187]. When a child is learning to construct a meaning potential, he is constructing a semantic system, along with its realisations. In the study of his son's language development Halliday identified three distinct phases through which Nigel went before the adult linguistic system emerged. In the first phase the child develops a semiotic of his own when he uses language for six different functions summarised as instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative. In this phase the child becomes linguistic, or in Christie's words he "has developed a protolanguage which involved a set of sounds systematically related to certain meanings he had" [Christie, 1984, p.57].

The second phase of the child's language development occurs around 18 months when he begins to make transition to the adult linguistic system. Two factors contribute to this transition. First of all it is at this time that the child realises that it is possible for him to mean more than one thing at once. This transition is made possible by the interpolation of a grammatical system which enables him to code his meanings into sounds. He now has a structure – a lexis and a grammar.
Secondly his participation in dialogue enables him to adopt appropriate roles of discourse. From this phase he emerges with the knowledge that with language he could seek to inform others of items that interested him. Thus he is equipped with the ability to use his language increasingly to learn [Christie, 1984, p.58].

With the emergence of structure in the third phase of language development the child moves into the adult stage and begins to use language in an adult way, to use language that is structured according to the social contexts of its use. The child begins to recognise that language is and can be used "in a number of ways, for a variety of different purposes, all at the same time" [Halliday, 1978, p.28]. Language is seen to have a multifunctional purpose and it would be an almost impossible task to isolate the use of any given utterance as "people engage in a variety of social actions ... they do different things together [Halliday, 1978, p.187]. Using language effectively enables people to achieve essential functions and assists them to reach a good understanding of their society and culture [Christie, 1984, p.55].

2.6. Systemic linguistic framework.

Halliday suggests a "simple framework for describing the context of situation in a way that links up with the expectations people have of what others are likely to say" [Halliday and Hasan, 1985a, p.10]. This view is encapsulated in his sociosemiotic theory of language the essential ingredients of which are presented in the diagram below.
CONTEXT

THE CULTURE: The social environment as total potential for behaviour. Found in habitual, purposive behaviour patterns (genres).

THE SITUATION: Environment for text. Registers

FIELD
Social activity: what's going on and what is said

SUBJECT MATTER

TENOR
Relationship between speaker and listener: who's involved

SOCIAL ROLES

MODE
The language channel: speech or writing

THE TEXT

Verbal context - intertextuality

LANGUAGE

INTERNAL

Reflecting on the world and making sense of it

INTERPRETATIONAL

Transitivity: the participants, the processes and the circumstances: interdependency, logical relations

INTERPERSONAL

Intruding on the world and getting things done, through people

Mood (speech acts)
Modality and modulation, and polarity to express attitude.

TEXTUAL

Using language to construct texts that are functional in context

Theme and the information structure. Cohesion (reference, lexical, conjunction, ellipsis, substitution)

Phonology and graphology

TEXT

A stretch of language with semantic unity and functional in its context.

Characteristics:
Genre: expresses purpose through organisation.
Register: specific language features.

Figure 1,
Language in Context
[Winser, 1991]
2.7. **Context of culture and context of situation.**

Learning language and learning through language enables a society to transmit its culture to its young members. This occurs "in the course of everyday interaction in the key socialising agencies of family, peer group and school" [Halliday, 1978, p.125]. In such a learning process the child is able to free himself from the constraints of immediate context and interpret an exchange of meanings in relation to the culture as a whole.

Bernstein [cited in Halliday, 1978] argues that language plays a key role in the transmission of culture from one generation to another. To Halliday this issue has crucial value for two main reasons. The first one is instrumental where language is seen to be embedded in the social system or the culture. Here one would be examining the role of language in the transmission of culture. This social environment it represents is the total potential for behaviour and is found in habitual, purposive behaviour patterns.

The second reason is autonomous where one attempts to determine why language is as it is [Halliday, 1978, pp.36–37]. These two reasons together provide the foundation for Halliday's view that language is essentially a system of meaning potential.

Halliday regards the semantic system to be synonymous with what he describes as the meaning potential embedded in language. The semantic system represents a set of options or choices of meaning and is only one level in a system of multiple coding. In any consideration of the semantic system one should be able to view the total semantic potential within which the particular set of options operates.
Thus members of any particular culture will have access to this meaning potential through what Malinowski [1923, 1935; cited in Halliday and Hasan, 1985a] terms context of culture and context of situation. The meaning potential seen in the context of culture is the entire semantic system and it is this particular semantic system which is associated with a particular social context [Halliday, 1978, p.109].

Malinowski argues that language cannot be experienced in isolation but only comes to life when functioning in some environment, hence language is said to function in contexts of situation. Halliday qualifies the notion of situation by the term `relevant'. Contexts of situation in language learning refers to those features which are relevant to speech taking place. This could be concrete and immediate or it could be abstract and remote. This ability to use language in such abstract and indirect contexts of situation is what distinguishes adult speech from that of children.

2.8. Genres.

Each of these contexts of situation requires that the individual constructs different genres which calls for the selection and organisation of appropriate linguistic items. An understanding of these genres is vital if students are expected to become competent users of language.

To understand the concept of a `genre–based' approach to teaching writing, one needs to look at the work of Hasan, 1978; Kress, 1982; Martin, Christie and Rothery, 1987. These researchers see genre to be a theory of language in use and have developed the genre theory as an extension of the work on register by Halliday, Ure, Gregory and Ellis [cited
in Martin, Christie and Rothery, 1987]. Martin ... [et al] define genre as "a staged, goal oriented social process" [Martin, Christie and Rothery, 1987, p.59]. The main difference between the genre theory and the register theory is that the former tends to focus on social purpose as a determining variable in language use. Members of a society interact with each other to achieve certain social processes and these aim to get things done, hence 'goal oriented'. The goal oriented social processes are 'staged' because the achievement of their goals normally requires more than one step. They need a distinctive beginning, middle and end.

There is a multitude of genres in any given culture designed to perform a multitude of purposes such as to entertain, to argue, to inform, to complain. These purposes tend to change over a period of time and genres have evolved in such a way as to allow flexibility in use as well as provide a certain element of stability. In this respect there is a similarity between language and genre. Language is in a constant state of flux. Thus English as is spoken today would be totally incomprehensible by people who lived in the Middle Ages.

Similarly, genres evolved as "members of our culture negotiated meaning to get on with the living of life" [Martin, Christie and Rothery, 1987, p.60]. Yet, in another sense they remain 'fixed'. The basic structure of a narrative or an expository style essay remain fixed – Orientation ^ Complication ^ Resolution and Introduction ^ Body ^ Conclusion ['indicates that the succeeding element must follow the preceding element].
It is this structure that distinguishes one genre from one another and it is crucial for students to be aware of this difference if they are to produce effective writing which will lead them to success.

"...in learning to write children are involved in learning to recognise and to control different genres – that is different forms of written language.' [Christie, 1984b, p.12]

Christie further suggests that different genres are structured and organised in different ways and that "differences in organisation and structure are expressions of differences in purposes and in meanings" [Christie, 1984b, p.21]. In order to assist their students to write teachers need to have an understanding of the various features of the different genres and of the linguistic differences – "that is, differences in the kinds of language used and in the patterns by which the language is put together" [Christie, 1984b, p. 21].

2.9. Text.

The text, defined by Halliday [1985a] as language that is functional, is a social exchange of meanings in a particular context of situation. This context of situation in which the text unfolds is encapsulated in the text in two ways:

a. through a systematic relationship between the social environment.

b. the functional organisation of language.

Text is thus embedded in a context of situation and is the "actualisation of the meaning potential" which in sociolinguistic terms "can be represented as the range of options that
is characteristic of a specific situation type" [Halliday, 1978, p.110]. In simple terms one could describe text to be any stretch of language that is cohesive and meaningful; it "is the basic linguistic unit, manifested at the surface as discourse" [Halliday, 1978, p.110].

2.10. **Register variables.**

Mastery over this complex meaning system enables the user to make the appropriate language choices available within the existing situation in his attempt to create an effective text which is purposeful. The particular situation in which he finds himself will determine the text that he produces. The dynamic and everchanging nature of language causes the individual's language to change according to the situation he finds himself in, depending on:

- the subject matter
- who we are interacting with
- whether spoken or written language is used

These three variables correspond to Halliday's description of field, tenor and mode and taken together will determine the register.

"A register is a semantic concept. It can be defined as a configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, tenor and mode." [Halliday and Hasan, 1985a, p.38]
The theory behind the notion of register helps to clarify the principles which govern this variation, "to understand what situational factors determine what linguistic features" [Halliday, 1978, p.32]. In this way register is a form of prediction for if one knows the social context of language use, a great deal can be predicted about the sort of language that will occur in a particular text.

"...the register' concept provide a means of investigating the linguistic foundations of everyday social interaction ..." Halliday, 1978, p.62].

A knowledge of the field of discourse, tenor of discourse and mode of discourse are the three aspects of context of situation which will collectively serve to predict the linguistic features of a particular text. These three elements of register operate 'outside' language, that is, they are entrenched in the context of situation in which a text is created. It is because of the close link between the text and context of situation that the participant is able to make predictions in his relationships with his environment and this assists him in interpreting the social context of a text and the environment in which meanings are being exchanged.

Field of discourse, the first register variable is concerned with the social activity, with what is going on and is described by Matthiessen and Slade [1990, p.5] as being "typically a complex of acts in some ordered configuration and in which the text is playing some part, and [includes] "subject–matter" as one special aspect". In other words it is a "field of significant action". In a self–sufficient text the field of discourse is the
subject matter of the text. However if the text is accompanied by other activities that make the subject matter relevant then this activity is also included in the field.

Martin and Rothery see field to be "most clearly reflected in the lexical items chosen in a text". In other words the lexical items chosen have to do with the chosen topic. They feel that in the long run it would be better "to define field as the social activity in which language plays a part" [Martin and Rothery, p.8, 1980].

Tenor of discourse involves the social relationship between the speaker/writer and the listener/reader and their potential for interacting [who is taking part]. The lexico-grammatical features of the text which convey interpersonal meanings reflect the tenor. Language here is seen in the intruder function.

"... the tenor is expressed through the interpersonal function in the semantics." [Martin and Rothery, p.8, 1980]

Mode of discourse "is expressed through the textual function in the semantics' [Halliday and Hasan, 1985a, p.25]. Mode refers to whether the text is spoken or written as the channel selected will determine the language used in the creation of the text. The selection of any particular rhetorical channel is dependent upon the function language is being made to serve.

These contextual terms provide a way for thinking about a child's language development. Upon entry in school the child, already familiar with a variety of contexts in and around
the home, now needs to become familiar with the school contexts – educational and playground. It is crucial for the child to be able to handle language which is no longer embedded in activity.

"This familiarisation is a constant expansion of the child's potential along the dimension of field, tenor and mode." [Matthiessen and Slade, 1990, p.6]

2.11. Language system.

While field, tenor and mode show the functional diversification of context, semantics and lexico-grammar are diversified into three very functional domains, that is, the three metafunctions of systemic theory – the experiential, the interpersonal and the textual. These three metafunctions assist in interpreting the social context of a text, the environment in which meanings are being exchanged. According to Halliday language is structured along these three dimensions and thus he finds it useful to use this framework to explain the nature of language.
Contextual and linguistic variation

According to Halliday (e.g., 1978), each of the three metafunctions tends to serve to project one of the three 

different aspects of context.

- **Tenor** -- the social relationship and distance between interactants, both independent of language and as speech roles created by language.
- **Mode** -- the role played by language itself in the context.
- **Textual** -- the role played by language itself in the context of

**Figure 2, Linguistic Variation**

[Matthiessen and Slade, 1990, p. 9]
While there maybe a high degree of interdependence and mutual constraint within the one component there is very little between the components. Each can operate independently of the others as each has a distinct role to play in the linguistic system.

There is a systematic relationship between the field of discourse and the experiential mode.

"... the field is expressed through the experiential function in the semantics" [Halliday and Hasan, 1985a, p. 25].

The Experiential function, or to use Halliday's terminological framework, the 'observer' function represents the speaker's meaning potential and refers to the 'content' of the language used. When people use language it is natural to refer to one's world of experience both at the external level and at the level of inner consciousness. Experiential function is concerned with "the interpretation & representation of our experience of the phenomena in the world around us and the world of our consciousness. Transitivity is concerned with our experience phenomena involving processes in particular" [Matthiessen and Slade, 1990, p.7].

The Interpersonal function or the 'intruder' function "represents the speaker's meaning potential as an intruder" [Halliday, 1978, p.112]. It refers to the function of language in interaction, language as doing something. The speaker interacts with another person, assumes certain roles and relationships in context depending on the purpose he aims to
achieve and these are expressed in language use. There is a correlation between this linguistic profile and the contextual one of tenor.

The Textual function has a binding role. Experiential and interpersonal meanings can only be realised in combination with textual meanings. This function is what makes language relevant by providing its texture, what makes the text coherent with the creation of 'continuous meaningful passages'. The third register variable of mode determines the textual meanings.

"The textual metafunction is concerned with the ongoing presentation of interpersonal and ideational information as text in context. It enables us to differentiate different informational states such as newsworthiness and identifiability. Major resources include THEME, INFORMATION AND REFERENCE." [Matthiessen and Slade, 1990, p.7]

Language is seen by Halliday to be organised in terms of these three fundamental functions, which should be regarded as components within the language, each of which has its own set of meaning choices. Each has its distinct place in grammar but within each set choices are made by the individual engaged in specific situations.

These three metafunctions are reflected in the lexico-grammatical system in the form of 'discrete networks of options'. Thus, one finds that the experiential function is represented by a transitivity structure, characterised as Agent + Process + Goal of result. The interpersonal function is represented by mood and modality whereby language expresses relations among participants in the situation and the speaker's own intrusion into it. The
textual function is represented by a set of systems that are referred to as theme. A choice in transitivity will influence other choices within the transitivity systems but will have minimal effect on choices within the mood or theme systems.

Each of these three set of choices is 'characterised by strong internal but weak external constraints'.

"Hence the functional organisation of meaning in language is built to the core of the linguistic system as the most general organising principle of the lexico-grammatical stratum." [Halliday, 1978, p.113]

2.12. **Language in education.**

Halliday's linguistic theory encourages the educator to take into account the critical role language plays in education and to "appreciate how deeply children depend on language in order to be able to learn" [Halliday and Hasan, 1985a, p.49]. His interest in 'language in education' is socially oriented. In his view what the speaker does is vitally important.

To understand this it is necessary to regard the text as an 'actualised potential'. This actualised potential needs to be examined carefully by teachers if they are to teach language successfully. For literacy is an extension of the full potential of language. Children will learn to read and write if what they are confronted with makes sense. Learning is likely to take place if the students are made aware of the types of meaning which are considered appropriate to the task at hand. As Painter [1985, p.44] argues, language development is "a process of developing resources for expressing meanings, and learning to deploy those resources in an appropriate way".
This is in keeping with the argument of an increasing number of researchers and educators who feel that "language awareness and knowledge do play a crucial role in children's language development" [Carr, 1988, p.202]. Such an approach to teaching would call for ways to enable students to reflect upon the language being used and to manipulate language to suit the particular purposes they are dealing with.

The rationale behind such an approach to teaching language is that it helps children understand the important role language plays in their lives and it assists them in using language more effectively [Carr, 1988, p.203]. By the time children start school they have developed an extensive but not a sufficient command of language and are able to use it in a variety of situations for a variety of purposes. In recent years approaches to teaching writing have tended to rely on similar views about language and language learning. This is in contrast to the previous years when the teaching of writing tended to rely on traditional school grammar where proficiency in writing was judged on ability to write grammatical sentences with correct punctuation and spelling [Martin and Rothery, 1980].

2.13. *Interactive guidance in writing.*

The conflicting reports from various researchers have resulted in confusion for practising teachers. There is no doubt in their minds that it is the school's task to teach children to read and write. They realise how crucial the development of writing abilities is to a child's successful school career. The question that teachers are confronted with is – What is the best approach to achieve this purpose?
According to research carried out on the child's language development undertaken in the 1960's and 1970's it was seen that language learning is an interactive process. Born with a predisposition to communicate, by the time a child reaches fifteen months his protolanguage evolves into an adult language system. This is the result of continuous interaction and guidance on the part of the more mature speakers. Such interactive guidance is vital to the child's language development [Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.5]. It was thought that following from the pattern established during his early years when language development progressed through exposure to a variety of situations, children should be provided with sufficient opportunities to develop their writing abilities. For this they need to write for a variety of purposes and for a variety of audiences, simulating their childhood experience of language learning.

This resulted in some successful strategies being employed by teachers of infants school where programmes such as 'Breakthrough to Literacy' were being implemented [Mackay, D., B. Thompson and P. Schaub, 1978]. Children were being encouraged to be involved in a wide range of writing activities. However, as children progressed through the succeeding years of primary/secondary school, it was evident that many still experienced difficulties in making the transition from one genre of writing to another [Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.7].


An examination of the syllabi of various disciplines taught in secondary schools reveals that students are expected to be able to write for a variety of purposes and in a variety of genres across the curriculum. The N.S.W. Department of Education [1987] requires that
students increase their personal competence as writers by engaging in writing tasks such as creative writing, writing of letters, interview questions, poetry, response to literature, essays, to name only a few. To help students to record and write History, the Syllabus suggests various genres of writing that students can engage in as a preparation for 'formal essay writing' in their senior years. Some of the writing activities mentioned in the syllabus are: note making, summary, diaries, limericks, letters, newspaper accounts, narrative, descriptive, argumentative,... [N.S.W. Secondary Schools' Board, 1974, p.33]

Some assessment instruments in Legal Studies and Geography for Years 11–12 students are: essays, short answer tests, research projects and stimulus questions [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, 1988b, 1987a]. The major form of assessment in Creative Arts is essay writing.

The most striking feature from all these requirements of the various syllabi is that students need to be competent and versatile in handling various registers and genres of writing if they are to be successful in the school system. In order to bring success within their grasp teachers need to understand the complexities underlying these various genres of writing and be able to convey an awareness of their complexities to the students. The first place to start off with is to recognise the existence of various types of writing or genres of writing.

2.15. Explicitness.

To help their students achieve success in their scholarly pursuits teachers need to assist them in selecting the appropriate discourse patterns required for each particular discipline.
Martin and Rothery, [1980], Rothery [1985] feel that teachers need to make explicit their expectations to children if the latter are to become competent writers.

"If children received explicit instruction in writing, for example, including models and direct teaching making use of knowledge about language, many more children would learn to write effectively than at present. And success in education depends on writing."

[Rothery, 1985, p.61]

Thus teachers should make it quite clear to the students what their expectations when a writing task is set. Teachers can only assist in the writing development of their students if:

a. they have a clear notion of their own requirements for the different genres of writing. They should be aware of the different features that are typical of each particular genre of writing.

b. Appropriate models of texts are provided to students as these can exert great influence on their writing development.

c. Students' writing are assessed in terms of the extent to which their work approximates the model/s provided.
If teachers make explicit all the various features of an essay to the students, they can plan to work in stages. Focus could be on the development of a satisfactory introduction of an essay [Thesis] and then proceed to another section. [Rothery, 1985, p.81]

Rothery's [1985] argument is that explicitness in instruction is what is required and not a complete mystification of what has to be learned for students to produce effective written texts. Thus the teachers' task is to make explicit to students the social function and value of the different texts/genres they are expected to produce in the course of their school career. It is only by gaining control of appropriate writing strategies that students will be able to participate effectively in educational contexts.


Writing effectively is a prerequisite for a student's success in school. Although students are involved in a range of writing activities in most curriculum areas at all stages of their schooling, essay writing seems to be the principal mode of writing in senior school years [N.S.W. Board of Secondary Education, various syllabi]. Students are expected to compare and contrast, discuss, explain and critically analyse topics they have studied in various disciplines.

"The essay is frequently used as a means for testing a student's ability to argue and discuss issues and for assessing his level of achievement in the courses that have been undertaken." [Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.2]
McNamara [in her W.I.S.H. project] also emphasises the point that a great proportion of secondary school curriculum is organised around expository material and that students are constantly exposed to factually-oriented material.

"The sheer volume of the expository material students generate each year is enormous if one looks at all." [McNamara, 1987, p.4]

"Success in the Higher School Certificate, the most socially prized symbol of achievement in N.S.W. schools, depends almost entirely on a student's ability to write essays most of which are factual texts ..." [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.12]

Various curriculum documents in both primary and secondary schooling bear witness to this statement. Writing K–12 devotes three pages to describing essay structures, handling of assignment and examination essays, explanation of what an essay is and lists five different approaches to essay writing:

a. The expository approach
b. The Explanatory approach
c. The Interpretive approach
d. The Evaluative approach
e. The Argumentative approach

While vicarious narrative writing predominates in the primary school the expository strand of writing becomes increasingly important in the secondary school and a student's success will depend upon his mastery of this particularly genre of writing.
In tackling this mode of writing the student is considered successful if he is able to persuade the reader of the truth or 'rightness' of a proposition. In other words he should be able to show an ability to interpret and explain the issues involved in the discussion of the topic. Expositions are about why and the student should be able to provide answers and show some form of reasoning.

2.17. *Elusive nature of success*

Yet many students are not successful in the handling essay writing. On the basis of her observation of classroom writing situations, Rothery came to the conclusion that "development in writing different genres is haphazard and problematic for many children" [Rothery, 1984, p.100].

Teachers often dismiss 'poor' text as lacking in ideas and do not give a clear indication of where the students went wrong. Written pieces are often judged using implicit criteria which are not externalised for the student who thus operates "within the framework of a hidden curriculum" [Rothery, 1985; McNamara, 1987].

McNamara's discussion revealed that teachers are working under great pressure to get through a tremendous amount of material within a time constraint. Thus, even though the writing tasks became increasingly complex, the teachers do not have time or training to devote to assist students to become effective writers in those particular genres.
The story of the teachers in W.I.S.H. is a common one with several secondary school teachers. They are under such tremendous pressure to teach to the 'content' demands of their subject areas that not enough time is left to help students to master/control the various written genres.

2.18. Road to success.

One of the major difficulties encountered by students in producing an effective text is their ability to write in the style that is considered "posh" by them. Their very use of the term "posh" to refer to academic writing shows an awareness on their part of the existence of a difference between their spoken English and the English that teachers and examiners expect them to write [Informal interview with students]. However, an awareness of this difference is not sufficient to ensure success in writing effectively. Ways should be found to assist them in reaching out and digging out the hidden curriculum which seems to be just beyond their reach.

"Language has been described as the hidden curriculum of education." [Gibbons, 1985, p.33]

The first way to approach this problem is to tackle the issue that students tend to 'write as they speak'. This statement implies that "talking and writing are different ways of saying" [Halliday, 1985b, p.92] and that there is systematic difference in the grammatical analysis of spoken and written English.
"Readers and listeners may tend to extract different kinds of information from oral and written statements. Listeners may tend to recall more of the gist of the story and readers may recall more of the surface structure or verbatim features of the story." [Halliday, 1987, p.80]

Halliday [1985b, 1987] argues that both spoken and written language are saying the same things in the same way since those very features which serve as distinguishing factors between the two can be shown to represent a 'semantic package'. On the one hand "writing does not incorporate all the potential of speech" [Halliday, 1985b, p.93]. All the paralinguistic phenomena are left out of writing just as sentence and paragraph boundaries are absent from spoken English. However, Halliday points out that "it is [only] the signal that is missing, not the features themselves" [Halliday, 1985b, p.93].

Written and spoken English serve different purposes depending upon the context in which they are used. Economic home management conversations will be most incongruent if they are written down. Similarly, a birth certificate or an office memorandum forms part of the written language rituals. Speech and writing each best serves different functions for which each has evolved and therefore have different meanings.

The third point raised by Halliday [1985b] is that both spoken and written language makes different demands upon one's grid of experience as they recreate different realities. In writing one recreates experience for a distant audience while in speech there is immediate response from the recipient in the environment. The main issue addressed in speaking is 'happenings' whereas writing's main concern is with 'things'.

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Attention should be devoted to ways of teaching students to handle the different stages of producing an Expository genre of writing. By teaching them to handle the different stages of Exposition one is equipping them to argue in a 'manner that is considered prestigious in our society' [Rothery, 1985, p.81].

Competence in writing an essay can be achieved if the students are aware and familiar with:

a. the purpose of the schematic structure of an essay

b. the linguistic features necessary to successfully achieve the desired objective.

2.19. Generic (schematic) structure.

The term schematic structure refers to the overall organisation of a text. Students have to be aware of two things when they are confronted with the task of writing an essay. Firstly, they should know that all essays are written for a purpose. Secondly that all varieties of essay have one basis structure which consists of three main parts: the introduction, Body and the Conclusion [Kalantzis and Wignell, 1988]. However, the exact nature of this organisation depends on the genre in question.

Callaghan and Rothery [1988] have identified three distinct stages in the schematic structure of the exposition genre:

1. Thesis
2. Arguments
These three stages correspond to the basic essay structure identified by Kalantzis and Wignell [1988].

**Thesis**

The introduction of an expository essay consists of two parts:

a. Thesis

b. Review

The thesis presents the case or the issue that the exposition is about and the preview lists a series of arguments that will be raised in subsequent paragraphs. The thesis is vital to the development of a series of arguments in support of the case being presented. Without a thesis "you have no peg to hang your hat on so to speak" [Rothery, 1985, p.78]. Teachers have an implicit awareness of the necessity of a good introduction for they echo this idea when they say, "Your essay lacks a good introduction".

**Arguments**

The introduction or the thesis is followed by the body of the essay which consists of a series of arguments supporting the thesis. In other words an argument consists of a "point" and an "elaboration". Each argument is dealt with in a separate paragraph. Students need to be aware of the organisational structure of the paragraph in order to present an effective argument.

Kalantzis and Wignell [1988] identify two distinct parts in a paragraph.

a. a linking word

b. a topic sentence [point to be elaborated and is part of the argument]
The purpose of the linking word is to link the argument to the rest of the essay.

The topic sentence "is like the introduction for the paragraph in the essay on a small scale. It tells you what the paragraph is about. It should also be general. Examples come later in the paragraph. You should introduce examples with link words such as for example, for instance ..." [Kalantzis and Wignell, 1988, pp.7-8].

The term topic sentence is one with which teachers are familiar as it is commonly used in English text books. According to DeHaven a topic sentence is one that "best summarises the main idea in a paragraph" or in other words sums up the paragraph as a whole [DeHaven, 1989, p.249]. The rest of the paragraph relates to that sentence and develops the argument more fully. Thus paragraphs move from topic sentence to supporting details and examples.

Keyte and Baines [1982] suggest that one sentence in a paragraph stands out from the rest and provides a summing up of the topic while the rest of the paragraph develops the topic/idea more fully.

"A good paragraph often requires a sentence which will hold it together and which sums up the `topic' of the paragraph as a whole." [Keyte and Baines, 1982, p.15]

Keyte and Baines [1982, p.16] argue that "an intelligent use of topic sentences can be of considerable help to both the writer in constructing this work and to the reader in following the writer's train of thought."
Based on the above discussion the second stage of the schematic structure can be seen to consist of a series of arguments followed by supporting details and/or examples. What Callaghan and Rothery [1988] have termed *arguments* can be seen to incorporate what teachers and existing essay writing resources refer to as topic sentence/point and elaboration. In this light the remaining supporting sentences of the paragraph are seen to develop the idea presented or in other words they provide an elaboration of the main argument.

**Reiteration [restatement] of thesis**

The third and final stage in an expository essay is a restatement of the thesis. It sums up the arguments presented as forcefully as possible. No new material should be introduced in this section. This is the place where one is expected to make one's judgements in the light of the facts argued in the main section of the essay after evidence has been introduced.
Generic (Schematic) Structure

• Thesis

  Position  Preview

• Arguments (1 - n)

  Point  Elaboration
  [Topic Sentence]  [Rest of Section]

• Reiteration (restatement of Thesis)

Figure 3, Generic (Schematic) Structure
[Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.77]
2.20. **Different genres require different structures.**

The purpose of a particular kind of essay is reflected in the structure of the essay. The function of a recount genre is to retell events for the purposes of informing and entertaining, hence emphasis will be placed upon a temporal sequencing of events [Martin, 1985, p.53]. Similarly, the purpose of the report, discussion, procedural, explanation genre will dictate the structure of what is written. All essays require specific information from students but they want it conveyed in different ways. An explanation essay, mostly common in subjects such as Geography, Science, asks the student to explain the processes involved in the evolution of natural phenomena. In this type of essay a process has to be explained step by step.

The expository essay focuses on defending a position based on facts and evidence. The general expectation is for students to be able to argue causes and reasons. Expository essays are most commonly used in disciplines such as English, History, General Studies [Kalantzis and Wignell, 1988].

The function of Discussion essay is to present information about both sides of an issue. The conclusion should include a recommendation based upon informed judgement [Disadvantaged Schools Program, 1989a]. Like Expository essays, Discussion essays are also often used in English, History, General Studies.

Kalantzis and Wignell [1988] recognise the significance of students learning how to write argument, expository and discussion essays as these are most typical of H.S.C. examinations.
1. "How successfully does the law deal with environmental conflicts?
   In your answer, you should discuss the following:
   - the reasons why conflicts arise;
   - the legal processes involved in resolving such conflicts"
   [N.S.W. Dept. of Education, 1988, no.25]

2. Discuss the decisions necessary to make wise use of resources for meal preparation [Bulli High School, 1991, no. 9].

3. Write a comparative critical analysis of any 2 plates from Section B plates [Bulli High School, 1991a, no. 8].

4. Explain the purposes of the buildings in the new Forum constructed by Augustus [N.S.W. Dept. of Education, 1989a, Part A, no. 1, g]

Success in H.S.C. is thus dependent upon students answering essay questions in a style deemed appropriate by examiners. A knowledge of the structure of the various genres of essay is vital for their success. They should be aware of the stages a genre moves through to achieve its social purpose, that is, they should know, recognise and be able to construct the generic (schematic) structure of an essay. Martin, Rothery and the Disadvantaged Schools' Program team see generic (schematic) structure to be "a major distinguishing feature between genres" [Disadvantaged Schools' Program, 1989a, p.15].

2.21. Selection of relevant linguistic features.

The essay in toto, i.e. the thesis, arguments and conclusion is made up of sentences and sentences consist of words. The general assumption is that if the information is available students will be able to string it up in sentences. However, for a text to be considered
successful, it is not sufficient to churn up sentences in a haphazard manner. The writer should have a good knowledge and awareness of the functions of selected linguistic items and the contribution these make to the overall development of the text. Halliday believes that "linguistic items are multifunctional" as "in nearly all instances a constituent has more than one function at a time" [Halliday, 1985a, p.32]. Halliday uses the basic concepts of Subject, Actor and Theme from traditional grammar to explore "the various configurations that go to make up an English clause, and the multiple functions that constituents may have within them" [Halliday, 1985a, p.32].

While one can say that the term Subject has some grammatical function it is difficult to define what its role actually means. According to Halliday there have been various interpretations around it and it is possible to ascribe to it some very different functions.

1. that which is the concern of the message
2. that of which something is being predicated [i.e. on which rests the truth of the argument]
3. the doer of the action

The complexity of the situation is illustrated in Halliday's superb example.

"this teapot my aunt was given by the duke."

In this case the traditional concept of the Subject is split up among three different constituents of the clause. The message concerns the teapot; the duke is the doer of the
action and on 'my aunt' rests the truth of the argument. In the late 19th century these terms were replaced by:

1. Psychological Subject
2. Grammatical Subject
3. Logical Subject

Halliday argues that given the nature of our 'living language' and the degree of variation which occurs within it, these three different concepts need to be interpreted as three separate and distinct functions as they are really three quite different things. The previous terms are relabelled by Halliday so as to emphasise their separate functions.

1. Theme
2. Subject
3. Actor

Depending on the way the sentence is structured the roles of Theme, Subject and Actor can all be combined in the one element, such as in: 'the duke gave my aunt this teapot'. Or, all three can be separated as in the first example cited above.

2.21.1. Themes.

Each of these functional concepts responds to three different kinds of meaning that are embodied in the clause. Halliday categorises them under three headings:
1. The Theme – seen as a `function in the clause as message.

2. The Subject – seen as a `function in the clause as exchange.

3. The Actor – seen as a `function in the clause as representation [Halliday, 1985a, pp.36-37].

None of these labels exists in isolation. They are all related in a systematic way and their significance lies in their relationships to other functions with which they are structurally associated. The meaning intended by the writer is reflected in the total structure of the text.

The choice of Theme in any piece of writing is particularly important as:

1. it serves as the writer's method of development for the text.

2. it focuses the reader's attention on what the message about.

In English one has the choice of what should come first in clauses and sentences, depending on the meaning one wants to emphasise.

"Thus the `point of departure' of English clauses reflects discourse patterns relevant to the structure of paragraphs and essays as a whole." [Fries, 1978 cited in Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.16]
The first element in a sentence or clause, or in Halliday's term the Theme in a text provides the method of development which enables the writer/reader to move from one message to another and thus realise the meaning intended.

"Texts without some consistent angle or semantic hook to hang the information on come out as gibberish even though every sentence may be perfectly grammatical on its own."

[Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.36]

The label Theme is further subcategorised by Halliday as Topical Theme, Interpersonal Theme and Textual Theme. The choice of each of these add to the overall cohesion of a text. Topical theme will realise that aspect of the topic which has been selected as its method of development. Interpersonal theme reflects the writer's attitude to the message he is conveying whereas Textual theme relates the clause conjunctively to the previous one.

Themes can be marked or unmarked depending on the position of the theme in the clause. In English the subject commonly comes first in declaratives and this encodes the content of any marked theme. The item most often functioning as an unmarked theme in a declarative clause are personal pronouns, followed by nominal groups.

A marked theme is one that is other than a subject in the declarative clause. Halliday [1985a] identifies marked themes as commonly occurring in:

a. adverbial groups, 'slowly'

b. prepositional phrases, 'at night' [functioning as adjunct]
c. adjuncts in the clause

"In the classroom such training is often irrelevant." [Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.16]

A theme can also appear in a complement though this is least likely. A complement is something that could have been the subject but is not.

Martin sees Theme to be a 'grammatical resource for relating clauses to their context'.

"Theme in a sense provides the text's angle on its field; it is the peg or two on which the rest of the text's meanings are hung." [Martin, 1990, p.30]

The theme serves as the point of departure of the message in the clause and is only one element in a particular structural configuration which organises the clause as a message. The remainder of the message is called Rheme according to Prague school of terminology.

Since the Theme occurs in the first position of the clause, it determines the method of development of the text. The Thematic structure thus has an important role to play in the overall development of the text.

Theme and rheme certainly "constitute the internal resources for structuring the clause as a message – for giving it a particular status in relation to the surrounding discourse" [Halliday, 1985a, p.287]. Nevertheless there are some inbuilt limitations in this sort of clause when seen from the point of view of its contribution to the overall cohesion of the text.
Cohesion is part of the system of a language.

"The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist with the text, and that define as a text ... The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources of references ... that are built in the language itself." [Halliday and Hassan, 1976, pp.4–5]

2.21.2. Cohesive ties: reference

Theme and rheme certainly "constitute the internal resources for structuring the clause as a message – for giving it a particular status in relation to the surrounding discourse" [Halliday, 1985a, p.187]. Nevertheless there are some inbuilt limitations in this sort of clause when seen from the point of view of its contribution to the overall cohesion of the text.

In order to construct discourse one needs to be able to establish such relations within the text that may involve elements of any extent, from single words to lengthy passages of text and which "hold across gaps of any extent, both within the clause and beyond it, without regard to the nature of whatever intervenes." [Halliday, 1985a, p.288]
When one element in a text presupposes the other and this cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it, cohesion occurs. Thus the interpretation of this element in the discourse is dependent on that of another.

Thus these non-structural resources referred to by the term cohesion enable one to construct discourse wherein a wide range of semantic relationships is encoded within and beyond the clause complex.

Reference and conjunctions are two ways by which cohesion are created in English. Halliday defines reference as a "participant or circumstantial element introduced at one place in the text [which] can be taken as a reference point for something that follows." [Halliday, 1985a, p.288].

The specific nature of information that is signalled for retrieval is what distinguishes the reference system from other cohesive elements. Hence this information is the referential meaning or in other words it is the identity of the particular thing referred to.

Halliday [1985a] thus sees reference to be a semantic relation wherein it is the semantic properties that need to be matched. As these are not always encoded in the text they may be retrievable from the situation. Halliday and Hassan [1976] perceive the logical continuity from naming through situational reference to textual reference.
This logical continuity or cohesion in texts is achieved by a series of linguistic linking mechanisms that serve to relate one part of a sentence with another or simply to link sentences. For such linking mechanisms have been identified by Halliday and Hassan [1976]:

1. Anaphoric
2. Cataphoric
3. Endophoric
4. Exophoric

Anaphoric relationships refer to 'backward acting cues' when the listener/reader has to look elsewhere for his interpretation. As he has to look backward to something that has been said this results in the linking of the two passages into a coherent unity.

Cataphoric relationships look forward in the text for its interpretation.

Endophoric relationships, in contrast to exophoric relationships, operate within the text and can be either anaphoric or cataphoric, the former being more common.

The situational reference is located outside the text and is referred to by Halliday and Hassan [1976] as exophoric. In so far as it links the language with the context of situation it assists in the creation of a text. However, as it does not integrate one passage with another, it does not contribute to the cohesion of the text. On the other hand, because endophoric reference operates within the text it serves a cohesive function.
Halliday and Hassan [1976] have identified three different types of reference.

1. Personal
2. Demonstrative
3. Comparative

The personal system helps the speaker identify the person or persons being referred to by the role he is playing in the communication event. Pronouns, related to the roles people are playing in the communication situation, can be the cause of some confusion with poor readers. Educators tend to assume that learners have mastered the fundamental roles played by pronouns in written text and often do not make the situation explicit, hence the result in confusion.

Halliday and Hassan [1976] explain the demonstrative reference system as a 'form of verbal pointing'. This is a useful teaching device as it enables the speaker/author to make reference by way of locating an object or a process in space or time, thereby creating cohesion of a passage.

The final type of reference that contributes to cohesion is the comparative reference. It sets up a relation of contrasts by creating a frame of reference whereby the item under discussion is compared or contrasted.
2.21.3 Conjunctions

The reference system along with the choice of themes are closely linked to the choice of conjunctions to maintain cohesion in any particular text for "text which cohere, which relate all points to a central argument and which "flow" logically are highly valued in this culture" [McNamara, 1987, p.16].

To sustain an argument in a piece of writing and to show continuity in the flow of ideas between clauses and sentences, one has to rely on the correct use of conjunctions. Conjunctions perform a connective function between pairs of sentences or clauses and have specific meanings which presuppose the presence of other related elements in the discourse [Chapman, 1983; Halliday and Hasan 1976]. The semantic relation realised by the use of conjunctions is indicative of the systematic connection of what is to follow with what has gone before. The clause or the sentence is a representation of what goes on in the world. It is a world of participants, processes and circumstances. Processes do not occur independently but are connected to other processes. Conjunctions are generally used to show the logical relations between one idea realised in one sentence or clause and the idea represented in another sentence or clause.

The linguistic function of conjunctions is to provide the text with some element of cohesion by relating clauses to each other in terms of logical connections.

"Conjunctions has to do with being logical, in the natural language sense of the term."

[Rothery, 1985, p.89]
Halliday and Hasan [1976] provide a useful table of conjunctions listed according to the type of functions they perform. They recognise four types of conjunctions which build on logical relations in term of time, cause, comparison, and addition between clauses. In Halliday's terminology these are categorised as: temporal, causal, adversative and additive.
## Summary Table of Conjunctive Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Additive</th>
<th>External/internal</th>
<th>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</th>
<th>Comparison:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive, simple:</td>
<td>Additive, and, and also</td>
<td>Complex, emphatic: Additive furthermore, in addition, besides</td>
<td>Similar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>likewise, in the same way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>not, and . . .</td>
<td>Alternative alternatively</td>
<td>Dissimilar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative</td>
<td>or, or else</td>
<td>Complex, de-emphatic: After-thought by the way</td>
<td>on the other hand, by contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td>Adversative 'proper': Simple</td>
<td>Contrastive: Avowal in fact, actually, as a matter of fact</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Containing 'and'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emphatic however, nevertheless, despite this</td>
<td>Contrastive (external): Simple but, however, on the other hand, at the same time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correction: Of meaning instead, rather, on the contrary at least, rather, I mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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Temporal conjunctions, a more common feature of narrative writing, are realised by conjunctions like `when, while, then, after that, just then, at the same time'. Causal relations are realised by `although, therefore, consequently,...' and tend to feature more prominently in argument than in narrative writing. Additive conjunctions are more straightforward and perform the function of adding clauses to a text or express alternatives [Rothery, 1985].

Hilliday and Hassan [1976] draw a crucial, perhaps subtle distinction between internal and external conjunctions. External conjunctions are seen to be inherent within the communication process whereas internal conjunctions relate speech acts to one another, making connections in the rhetorical world of discourse. All conjunctions can be used externally and internally.

Logical relations between sentences and clauses can be expressed by *explicit and implicit* conjunctions for "conjunctions stamp logical relations between clauses. They do not create them. Juxtaposition alone is enough to signal that clauses are conjunctively related" [Martin and Rothery, 1980, p.23].

"I thought it would burn up.

It began to shrink"

The two sentences are related through temporal succession. "then" is implicit.
A text which employs the four types of conjunctions listed by Halliday and Hasan will render its meaning explicit to the reader. It is important for the teacher to have a good understanding of the use of conjunctions as this is an important means of realising logical relations in a text. It is even more crucial that he is able to impart this knowledge to his student so that the latter can, through his use of connectives show a true understanding of the semantic relations involved.

2.22. Grammatical metaphor.

Written discourse tends to maximise the distance between the act of meaning and its counterpart in the real world and achieves this distance symbolically by the use of grammatical metaphor. [Halliday, 1985a, 1987; Haynes, 1989, Gibbons, 1985]. It creates an environment for itself by objectifying the process, treating as if it were a thing. When one translates from speech to writing there is the tendency to encode processes/verbs as nouns. There is a degree of metaphorical quality about the choice of words in written variants.

Eggins, Wignell and Martin's example illustrates this point effectively. In a more spoken version one would say:

"I came back from Bali early because my father died."
Whereas the written variant would read:

"The reason for my early return from Bali was the death of my father." [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987, p.67]

In the second version the two clauses have been combined into one. "I" and "father" are no longer the performers of actions. Instead of having a logical connection between the two clauses "because" it is realised by a noun "reason".

"Metaphor is the transfer from a concrete to an abstract sense." [Halliday, 1985, p.319]

Such a change from the spoken version to the written variant is an example of grammatical metaphor, or in the words of Eggins, Wignell and Martin, "the incongruent realisation(s) of semantic choices" [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987, p. 68] which is usually a feature of written discourse.

Incongruent realisations are specially frequent in secondary schools texts and their abstract nature can lead to difficulties on the part of students in extracting meanings from one or more readings of the particular text.

"The recursive nature of grammatical metaphor can lead to problems in determining how many readings to give to a highly metaphorical text." [Martin, 1989, p.22]

Young writers are more accustomed to the congruent realisations which predominate in spoken language.
They tend to 'write talk' [Martin, cited in Walshe, 1986]. What is the difference between the language of the young writer and that of written discourse which he is expected to approximate? Martin sees three main differences: nominalisation, higher lexical density and more embeddings.

2.22.1. Nominalisation.

Nominalisation is the principal way in which writing talk differs from writing [Martin, cited in Walshe, 1986, p.138]. It is an important tool for the writer as the act of nominalising actions enables him to pack more information in a text and allows him to organise this information by thematising it to focus on whatever element he wants to.

Nominalisation, that is, the act of converting a process/conjunction/quality into a noun enables the writers to discuss or talk about the process itself. "Appreciation, production, removal, discovery" can thus be presented as abstract entities rather than concrete processes. Writers have more freedom to describe abstract ideas or to put forward theoretical arguments. The act of deactivating processes and turning them into nouns makes arguments more plausible for the readers [Disadvantaged Schools' Program, 1989a, p.39].

According to Eggins, Wignell and Martin [1987] nominalisation is a typical feature of many types of written text. Consequently these are usually associated with the notions of "abstraction" and "distance".
Eggins, Wignell and Martin [1987] provide a detailed examination of how grammatical metaphor and in particular nominalisation are used in history. The process of writing history down results in turning actions into things and in turning sequence into setting.

This process is seen to occur in eight steps:

a. Nominalising actions.

This process involves turning actions and events into Things.

b. Giving things existence.

With the elimination of actions and representation of processes as Things, it becomes possible "to simply posit their existence".

"There was a turning away from medieval interests." [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987, p.69]

c. Making things act.

Having given things existence the writer is enabled to talk about them in more "material" terms as having occurred or happened.

d. Setting in time.

In a story events are sequenced temporally. However, the process of converting the story in history changes the temporal sequence into setting in time where the past is divided into a number of periods, eras and years.

e. Phase.

The turning of time into Thing enables it to be treated as if it had a life of its own.

f. Doings acting.

The process of turning actions into things makes it possible for these to act.
g. Doings acted on.

Doings can thus not only act but they can also be acted upon.

h. People as actors in history.

In their study, Eggins, Wignell and Martin [1987] show that nominalisation of actions tend to lead to the removal of people as Actors in history texts. In story-like passages of history individual people are found to be doing things and having things done to them. However, as individuals are replaced by generic classes of participants, history becomes less like a story. The final step reduces the generic participants and increases the number of nominalised processes as Actors.

The cumulative effect of these steps is to remove the story element from history.

2.22.2 Participants and Processes

Halliday [1985a] sees language to be a way whereby human beings are able to build a picture of reality and sense of their experience of what goes on in the world. These "goings on" are termed Processes. However, Participants are essential to assist these happenings. Thus it can be said that the environment is made up of participants and processes.

Participants can be human beings, animals or even abstract qualities. They can be specific with names [Mr Jones], specific without names [that kind] or general [lecturers]. Named human participants feature in narratives and certain history registers whereas a geography text might use inanimate objects.
Processes or "the goings on" in the world have been divided into three broad classes by Halliday [1985a]:

a. Material
b. Mental
c. Relational

**Material**

Material processes are defined as "doing" or "happening" words.

"Mary kicked the ball."

**Mental**

Processes that express feeling, thinking and perceiving have been grouped under the general heading Mental Processes. These can be further subcategorised as:

a. Mental processes of cognition.
b. Mental processes of perception.
c. Mental processes of affection.

**Relational**

The function of relational process is to relate one thing to another.

A note of caution should be advanced when dealing with participants and processes. One should not examine one in isolation from the other. There will be different types of participants according to the process they are involved in. While in a material process there will only be one participant, a mental process always involves two participants.
Eggins, Wignell and Martin [1987] have shown historical discourse to be abstract rather than concrete and argue that "this kind of writing seems to be the most prestigious in history". [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987, p.80]

2.22.3. Lexical density.

Another function of incongruence lies in the differences in purpose between speech and writing. Speech calls for a rapid exchange of ideas whereas writing tends to have a higher lexical density. It contains more content words per clause and it is more tightly structured than a spoken text. This suggests that it is more complex [Halliday, 1985b].

The complexity of the various secondary school texts a student is exposed to arises from such features of writing as nominalisation and higher lexical density. To assist him develop effective reading and writing skills one needs to help him understand the use of language in a variety of situations, to understand that language use represents different kinds of meaning. In other words the student needs to become aware of the difference between the language of action and the language of abstraction. The aim is to show the student how to unpack the several layers of meaning in any given text. According to Martin time spent on teaching students about the power of language, the purpose of various texts, the features of different genres of writing is time well spent. He believes that writing can be taught.

"... a few hours work on genre, theme and nominalisation ... can improve the situation tremendously" [Disadvantaged Schools Program, 1989b, p.43].
By the time children come to school their language development has progressed to the degree that they are competent in distinguishing special features of language such as generalisation and abstraction. The third feature, metaphorical language, represents the greatest challenge for the average student. The multitude of written texts confronting the students is highly coded and is more removed from our world of experience. This gives rise to their first problem – the difficulty of unpacking the meaning of the text. It is a familiar scene where the student sees the language of the text as: "This does not make sense." Or, to use Martin's words uncommonsense language. [Wollongong Seminar, 1990; Halliday, 1985b]

2.23. The Curriculum Genre.

To make sense out of the uncommonsense language of the various texts students are exposed to is one way to lead to success in the educational field. To ensure success and bring it within the grasp of a greater number of students is to enlist them as collaborators in the learning process.

Hence it is necessary for teachers to develop appropriate strategies to teach them to read, understand and write in a wide variety of contexts and in a variety of genres. The Curriculum Genre developed by Disadvantaged Schools' Program Literacy Project has proved to be an outstanding success in the schools where they have been trialed [Rothery and Callaghan, 1988]. The Curriculum Genre is about possible approaches which could be undertaken to teach children writing. Its three main stages are:
1. Modelling
2. Joint Construction of a Text
3. Independent Construction of a text.

The argument behind this strategy is that the teaching of any genre should incorporate all these stages to be worked through for complete understanding of the purposes of the particular genre being taught. Explicit instruction of the purpose of a text, of the functions of the various features of the said text coupled with active participation on the part of the learner will assist the development of control over any particular genre.

"`Curriculum Genre' is an attempt to ensure all students develop an understanding of the social contexts of literacy, as well as the generic structure, text organisation and language features of the particular genre under focus." [Droga, 1991, p.163]

"The model ... provides a context in which the more able students can be extended, while explicit guidance can be given to those having difficulties." [Droga, 1991, p.164]
Figure 5, The Curriculum Genre
[Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.39]
2.24. Conclusion.

One major aim in the arena of education is to assist students in the development of their writing ability. It is recognised that writing, especially effective writing, is a prized commodity in the Western culture. However, competency in writing can only occur when both students and teachers become aware of the crucial role played by language in a child's educational success. Without a reasonable grasp of the language of the different curriculum areas the students' chances of attaining equality of educational outcomes would be severely restricted [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988]. By the same token teachers need a language to talk about language. By modelling and discussing language in use, in other words through interactive guidance, the teacher can show the student what choices are available to him to use language as a resource for meaning, thus aiding his language development. In the educational context such explicitness regarding the nature and function of language will greatly assist the individual to become a competent user of language and success will be one step closer.
Chapter Three

3. Design of the Study

3.1. The nature of the research.

This study is concerned with tracing the development of the historical writing of two Year 10 students at Bulli High School, focusing on the expository genre of writing. In view of the nature of the phenomena the choice of a paradigm in which to locate the study was straightforward. Guba, Curtis and Cambourne agree that a naturalistic paradigm is the most appropriate one to adopt when the proposed research involves the use of human-as-instrument [Guba, 1982a; Curtis and Cambourne, 1989].

3.1.2. Naturalistic inquiry.

Naturalistic inquiry "offers a contextual relevance and richness which is unmatched. It displays a sensitivity to process ...

[it takes] full advantage of the not inconsiderable power of human-as-instrument ..." [Guba and Lincoln, 1982, p.3].

In view of the nature of the study the 'contextual relevance and richness' of a naturalistic inquiry was applied to the research which occurred in the natural environment of a classroom in a school where context was so heavily implicated in meaning. This demanded the use of a human-as-instrument. The focus was on people as subjects and on the interactions with these people [Guba, 1980; Guba and Lincoln, 1982]. Because the researcher was building upon her existing knowledge methods that were used were those considered most appropriate to this particular situation - informal discussions, interviews
[focused and informal], observation, participation, peer evaluation and recording of observation [Cohen and Manion, 1985].

3.2. Theory of language and learning.

Whereas naturalistic inquiry follows a pattern whereby "it is driven by theory grounded in data" the present research was based on two already existing theories [Curtis, 1989; Guba, 1982a; Guba, 1980]. For its linguistic theoretical framework the study adopted M.A.K. Halliday's [1978] functional model of language and the learning theory used stemmed from the Disadvantaged Schools' Program Literacy Project's Curriculum Genre [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988]. The researcher set out to detect recurring patterns in the data collected and to explain the significance and meaning of these patterns.

3.3. Site and setting.

This study took place at Bulli High School in the state of N.S.W., Australia. Bulli High School, with a staff of 62.5, has a student population of approximately 970 students. The primary feeder schools for Bulli High are spread over a wide area extending from Bulli to Helensburgh. The township of Bulli and the surrounding area consists of an old established mining community who are largely of Anglo-Saxon origin. The composition of the community has and is undergoing some changes with Sydney home owners moving down to this area.
3.3.1. **Rationale for selection of site.**

Bulli High School was chosen as the site where the research was to be conducted. It was convenient for the researcher to use a location where she worked for the following reasons:

- a. She was familiar with the way the school operated.
- b. She had a good working relationship with the students.
- c. Permission to carry out her research was granted by the Principal.
- d. Opportunity was available to observe the students at different stages of research.
- e. Research undertaken formed an integral part of the curriculum at the school.

3.4. **Beginnings of the study.**

At the time this study began the researcher was in her second year of full time teaching English/History at Bulli High School. This was her first permanent appointment with the N.S.W. Department of Education.

During her first year of teaching it was observed that there was a real need for a concentrated effort to assist students in developing essay writing skills.

Once the need had been identified it was a matter of selecting the most pertinent subject area to implement this decision. The choice lay between the disciplines of History and English as these were the researcher's teaching subjects. The former was deemed a more appropriate choice as it is considered to be representative of Humanities subjects and the
development of writing abilities is as important in History as it is in Social Studies and English [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988].

3.5. Description of subjects.

The study focused on a group of Year 10 students who had chosen History as their elective subject of study in the previous year. The researcher had inherited this particular group of students in April 1989 when she first started teaching at the school.

The researcher continued teaching Year 10H2 during the academic year 1990. The class initially consisted of 21 students and by the end of Term one there were 17 left – 9 boys and 8 girls. All the students were born in Australia and spoke English at home. With the exception of 3 students each member of 10H2 had expressed the intention of proceeding on to Years 11 and 12.

The majority of these students come from a background of parents whose work experience has been in the trades, mining, semi–skilled and manual occupations. Most of the parents had attained the minimal educational requirements of their time. Thus while the students received a high level of encouragement to perform academically, the necessary support and resources were not always present in the home background.

Schooling and educational achievement was regarded to be of secondary importance to the students who considered sporting activities such as surfing to be of prime significance.
Reading for pleasure was an activity indulged in by two members of the class. Despite these sceptical attitudes to education, several students from Year 10H2 still aspired to persevere to the completion of their HSC [Informal interview with students].

3.5.1. Selection of subjects.

Initially the researcher addressed her teaching and study to the whole class, regarding all the students as potential informants. As term one unfolded and the design of the study evolved attention focussed on six students as potential subjects – Christine, Craig, Emily, Byron, Miranda, Lucy. The rationale behind this choice was that it provided the researcher with the opportunity to examine the data across a range of ability levels represented in the class. The researcher was in a position to establish the ability level at which the students performed in class as she had been teaching them for nine months. Classwork, project work, participation in class discussion were some of the criteria used to rank the students according to ability. Miranda was at the top ability range of the class. Lucy ranked close to Miranda. Byron and Emily were at the lower end of the echelon whereas Christine and Craig would be ranked as average workers.

However, it slowly became apparent that six focal children might prove to be too large a number to handle in the time period available for the purpose of the study. It was decided to drop the two average workers and concentrate on the remaining four.

The progress of these students was followed over the whole year. Towards the end the researcher/teacher had doubts about using the four students for the study as two students – Lucy and Emily –were often absent from school and were unable to complete the set
tasks. By the beginning of Term four it was apparent that there would be two focal
students – Miranda and Byron. The final choice of subjects suited the purposes of this
particularly research. The combination of a high ability and a low ability student would
together give a fair representation of the performance level of the class as a whole.

3.6. Phases of the study.

The study consisted of four main phases:

1. Decision making stage and permission
2. Implementation of research
3. Data collection procedures
4. Data reduction and analysis

3.6.1. Phase one: planning the study.

This phase of the study involved decisions of many kinds.

1. The major issue was to identify the overall goal of the study
2. Discussing research proposal with peers and supervisor
3. Seeking permission from Principal and students
4. Duration
5. Planning of content
3.6.1.1. **Goal of study.**

The goal of the research was to explore the writing development of high school students, focusing on expository essay writing.

3.6.2. **Consultation with peers and supervisor.**

Consultation with peers and supervisor assisted in setting the research idea into a linguistic framework based on Halliday's functional model of language and Disadvantaged Schools' Project's language learning theory. Possible areas of investigation were discussed at regular meetings and a series of research questions emerged from these sessions.

It was decided that:

- the study would occur in the natural context of a classroom
- essay writing tasks would constitute the focus of data gathering attention
- strategies used for classroom teaching would approximate Disadvantaged School's Program's Curriculum Genre.

3.6.3. **Approval.**

Once the overall goal of the study was identified and research questions were framed, the Principal of Bulli High School was approached for permission to carry out the study in Year 10H2. The research idea was orally outlined to him along with samples of field notes. Approval was readily granted.
The next step was to seek permission from the students to use their work for this particular research. If participants will be identifiable, the researcher has a moral and ethical responsibility to inform the subjects of the purposes of the study and the uses to which the end product is likely to be put [Fleet and Cambourn, 1989]. Initially the class was puzzled that someone would actually bother to ask for permission for such a purpose. As they got used to the idea, they expressed their apprehension at being filmed or taped. When the idea to video or tape some lessons was abandoned, all the students were more relaxed and collaborated well.

3.6.4. Duration.

Two factors influenced the length of the study. Firstly, the researcher was designated as the class teacher for 10H2 for the academic year 1990. Interruptions and unpredictability, which are characteristics common to most classrooms, were easily catered for [Clark and Florio, 1982]. The absence of focal students, disruption to the normal routine of the class, failure of students in submitting assignments by due date, loss of written products created no major problems to the researcher. The status of being a permanent member of staff at the school made it relatively easy for the researcher to make minor adjustments to the programme to cater for these interruptions.

Initially the plan was to collect data from the students over a period of one academic year. This decision was considered to be important as a longitudinal study would establish the consistency and credibility of the data collected from two students over a period of time. The intention was to collect two essays per term from each student. However, when it became apparent that Year 10 had been timetabled to follow a special programme in the
latter part of Term 4, the decision to restrict the collection of data to one essay in that particular term was necessary. The researcher based her decision on:

a. remaining time available
b. mood of students for work.

Excitement at having completed the Reference Test was high by the end of Term 3 and the beginning of Term 4 was a perpetual state of expectancy. Eagerness for the next stage of their life was displayed by all Year 10 students. For some, it signified the end of their school career. For those who intended to come back, they felt they were at the threshold of a new era – life as Seniors in the school system.

The second factor influencing the length of the study was a pragmatic one. A telephone conversation with Martin had revealed that to his knowledge no longitudinal study had been conducted in this particular area. The researcher was in a position to carry out such a study in a classroom context over a period of three and a half terms.

3.6.5. Planning of content.

The first planning stage was to organise a series of topics to be covered during the year. Teaching students to write a genre in isolation would be of no value. It is necessary to link the genre to a unit of work [Christie, 1984b]. The researcher selected the first two topics listed below. The remainder three were chosen in consultation with the students. War was a subject which rated very high with both boys and girls. All the female
students and a few boys expressed an interest in learning something about Ancient Greece, hence the choice of Sparta was arrived at.

1. The Migrant Experience
2. The Great Depression
3. World War II
4. Vietnam War
5. Sparta

3.7. Phase two: implementation of research.

This phase was closely modelled upon Disadvantaged Schools' Program's Curriculum Genre [See section 2.23.] which is described as a cycle with different points of entry.

According to this genre or cycle there are three main stages for teaching different written genres:

a. Modelling
b. Joint Construction of a text
c. Independent Construction of a text.

3.7.1. Phase two: stage one: modelling exposition.

Modelling occurred within the framework of the daily teaching which took place in the classroom. The genre being dealt with was Exposition, "the genre of argument and public
disputation which is critical for success in school learning and for effective participation in the community" [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.39].

Textbooks, newspaper articles, videos, photocopies of other historical discourse were all treated as models for writing. These sources were examined with a view of extracting meaning, identifying the purpose, working out the structure of texts, discussing the organisation and development of ideas and looking at features of language used in historical discourse.

Step 1. Exposure to a great variety of historical texts.

The first step was to expose the students to as many different types of texts as possible. History textbooks were made available for class perusal and discussion; newspaper articles were read; primary source material were examined; great interest was shown in looking at advertisements from the past along with posters, cartoons, films and videos.

The general approach adopted was to give the students the opportunity to read the different texts in class. Depending on the situation and the mood of the class as a whole, students either read aloud, silently or in groups. Initially attention was frequently drawn to the purpose of the text and the way this affected the structure of the text was examined. Throughout the research the appropriate technical terms were used and students became very familiar with the terms after a short time.
**Step 2. Reading for meaning.**

The class as a group would read the title and quickly skim the particular passage under consideration. The first step was to extract the meaning – "What is the message being conveyed?" Once this was established, it was easy to identify the purpose of the text. Purpose and meaning were seen to be interrelated as without understanding one the other tend to elude the reader.

**Step 3. Generic (schematic) structure of text.**

The next step was to examine how the argument was framed and sustained throughout the text. Each pupil was aware that a piece of writing consisted of an introduction, body and a conclusion. However, the thought of having to create an essay using the above framework was of great concern to the students.

"We don't know how to say what we want to say." [Field notes, Byron, 1990, May 22, p.7.] was a statement that was repeatedly asked throughout the academic year. Our task was to examine how each of these parts was structured and how the ideas were developed and related to each other and the question. It was assumed that if students were aware of how a text was structured they would be able to reproduce similar genre of writing.

Attention was drawn to the thesis and/or topic sentence. The latter term was initially used as students were familiar with it. Through discussion and examination of several historical discourses students were made aware that the thesis had a very specific role to play in a text.
It was shown that the Body of an essay consisted of a series of arguments supported by elaboration and or examples supporting the statement made in the thesis. The conclusion, a restatement of the thesis summed up the case as forcefully as possible. It was pointed out to the class that Exposition strives to persuade or convince in favour of the case presented through these stages of Thesis, Argument and Restatement of Thesis. One student rightfully pointed out that an essay was like fitting together a jigsaw puzzle.

"Class to read section on The Dole. Individual members of class to read the whole section and then I asked students to close the book and tell me what the purpose of the writing was. Absolute silence met my question. I expected that. I explained that the purpose was a bit like asking them what the main point was. Why was this section on the dole written?

Miranda – People got food.

Rid – Yes, in a way it was to get food. But why did they need to get food?

Craig – There was no money to buy food.

Rid – Okay, let’s go back to the beginning. What does the first sentence say?

Class – Unemployment.
Slowly we established that unemployment increased and the need to provide food to prevent starvation arose. I wrote on the board – *unemployment increased, no money, no food, starvation, need to provide food relief*.

Rid – All these are linked in the first sentence. Now, look at the passage again and tell me what the purpose of the whole section is.

Miranda – To get food relief. [Field Notes, May 15th, 1990, p.1.]

**Step 4. Difference between spoken and written discourse.**

Although this section is labelled step 4, the difference between written discourse and spoken English was established very early in the year. The students were aware that there was a substantial difference between their language and that of the various discourses they encountered. *What the difference was* was something that they did not quite understand.

This is the stage when they were introduced to Halliday’s concept of Grammatical Metaphor [Halliday, 1985a; Haynes, 1989]. This particular terminology was too technical for them and they seemed to retreat into silence whenever it was mentioned. One student even commented to the researcher, "Miss, why don't you speak in English to us?" *Nominalisation* was a term they were more comfortable with, hence the decision was made to leave out Grammatical Metaphor and stick to Nominalisation.

The first lesson when the concept of nominalisation and nominal groups was explained to the class all the students became restless.
"Rid — ... The British and French governments were trying to prevent a second world war. Notice that the thesis of this paper does not appear in the topic sentence. It comes at towards the end of the paragraph. By the way, look at this phrase — "outbreak of the Second World War". This is what we call a nominal group. It all deals with one idea. This is very common in history writing. How would we say it if we were talking about it instead of writing about it?

Miranda — To stop the second world war from beginning...

[The researcher went through the process of finding nominal groups in the set passage, identifying what made it a nominal group.]

We read Document A and went through the same process ... Class was getting a bit restless..." [Field notes, 1990, June 26th]

This seemed to be the norm whenever any abstract concept was introduced to the class. However, through perseverance and through showing them how this all related to their learning, the class became more receptive.

The term 'noun' was discussed and several examples came from the class. To some this appeared like an English class.

"This is a history class, Miss, not English." [Informal discussion with class]
However, when they became involved in the practical aspects of this exercise more enthusiasm was displayed. It was quite a challenge for several students to identify nominal groups in the passages read in class.

Once again researcher and students discussed the use of this particular aspect of written discourse and compared how it differed from their own spoken language. It was pointed out that nominalisation and nominal groups were distinguishing features of written language. Students were set the task of *unpacking* the meanings of the message encapsulated in a particular nominalisation/nominal group [Rothery and Macken, 1991; Halliday, 1985].

**Step 5. Theme or method of development.**

The concept of Theme was introduced to the class early in the year. The students were encouraged to pay special attention to this idea as the choice of Theme or points of departure of a sentence is important to the development of the text. In addition it helps to direct the reader's attention to the particular issue he wanted him to focus on [Halliday, 1985; Haynes, 1989; Disadvantaged Schools' Program, 1989–1989b].

While reading activities occurred at a class level, the choice/and or function of a theme was frequently pointed out to the students. When they were editing their first/second drafts it was common to suggest the choice of alternative themes to highlight their argument in the desired way.
Step 6. Conjunctions or linking words.

In view of the importance of the use of conjunctions to show the structure of a text and to express logical relations between ideas, it was considered important to develop an awareness of this feature of language in the students.

It was brought to their attention that conjunctions, or linking words, are generally used to show the logical relations between one idea realised in one sentence and the idea presented in another sentence. Juxtaposition alone does not signify that clauses/sentences are conjunctively related [Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Chapman, 1983].

There was general discussion about the most common linking words used by students. and, so, thus, but were some examples provided by the class. This was compared with the conjunctions used in the writing they were exposed to. The effectiveness of using a linking word such as as a result as opposed to because was discussed. The class was provided with a list of conjunctions from Disadvantaged Schools' Program's booklet [1989a, p.48–49]. The students kept this list in their folder and used it extensively in their writing activities.

Overall comment on phase two: stage one.

All the ideas mentioned in phase two: stage one did not occur in isolation of each other. A start was made with exploring the purpose of a text and extracting meaning but from then onwards it formed part of the researcher's teaching strategy throughout the year. There was frequent discussion of the function and purpose of text, schematic structure, theme, conjunctions and nominalisation as they were used in various texts. One aspect
that was very strongly emphasised was the difference between spoken language and written language. It was reinforced at different points of the study that each of these modes serves a different purpose and the user had to ensure that the correct choice was made when a particular mode was chosen as a means of expression.

3.7.2. Phase two: stage two: joint construction.

The aim in this stage was to create a text – an expository essay within the educational context of a history classroom. Given the emphasis placed upon essay writing in senior schooling and since the majority of the students in 10H2 had aspirations to proceed to HSC the selection of this area of study was considered to be appropriate.

Joint construction of a text is achieved through a joint effort of teacher and students producing a text. Guidance is provided by the teacher who leads the creation of the text through questions that focus on the stages of the genre. Joint construction of a text means that no single individual bears complete responsibility for producing the text, thus making the writing experience a positive one for all concerned [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988].

Step 1.

In the early days of the academic year 1990 one attempt was made to jointly construct a text when the students were required to produce a summary of a particular text. It was not a successful lesson as 10H2 was not used to this style of learning. Some pupils saw this as an opportunity to "muck up" and several very inappropriate words were yelled out when the researcher asked the class to supply a suitable term.
On the evidence of this one lesson and three follow-up sessions it became apparent that a whole class joint construction of a text would not eventuate. Therefore this idea was abandoned in favour of trying out joint construction of a text on a small group basis.

**Step 2. Small group joint construction in 10H2.**

On the whole this strategy was far more suitable with this particular class. Group work was found to be interesting and students were more willing to help each other in this learning process. However as the year progressed resentment on the part of some students surfaced as they felt they were doing all the work and the others were taking the credit without putting in much effort.

The strategy employed by the researcher was to set a task for the class to perform, then to move from group to group and assist them in their writing activities.

**Step 3. Research and pooling of information.**

This stage consisted of a few lessons in the library when students would compile information related to their topics. Assistance was required in directing the students to the right source for information and method of notemaking.

Next came pooling information or organising information gathered. Students were encouraged to list their points rather than referring to whole pages of notes stacked together. One of the methods used was to encourage students to find one or two words to summarise a idea.
"People did not want to have children because they had no money. ... "

Key words used, "Strains of poverty, decline in birthrate." [Field notes, 1990, May 25]

When all the ideas were listed students placed numbers next to all the similar ones, then decided which should go first. Here reference was always made to the question to see if the point selected was answering the question.

Step 4. Writing.

Once all the information was organised the teacher/researcher and class discussed the generic (schematic) structure of the exposition before beginning the actual task of writing. It was reiterated that the thesis of an essay was likely to use the wording of the essay topic to a certain degree.

On a few occasions a whole class joint construction of an introduction was attempted on the blackboard. However students preferred to write their own essay.

"Rid – Okay, you can tell me what your opening statement would be. Let's start with you Shane. What would your first sentence be.

Shane – In the depression years there was low birth rate and birth rate started to fall.

Wendy – The Depression started to affect birth rate and birth rate started to fall.

Jason – In the Depression years birth rate fell as the people had no jobs which led to no money and they could not afford children...

Miranda – As the Depression hit, it caused much/many havoc with families' income, causing stress on their relationship. [Field notes, 1990, May 25]
There was continuous interaction between teacher and students throughout the writing process. 'Conferencing' as they called it was seen to be an essential part of the whole task. Students often wrote one paragraph and sought consultation with the teacher to ensure they were on the right track. With the time restrictions placed upon teachers by the school timetabling, it was not always possible to examine the writing of all the students in the one period. The researcher encouraged peer consultation and this worked well. At this stage Year 10H2 worked in groups or pairs or individually but extensive interaction with peers and teacher was encouraged. At the end of the essay writing session students handed in their own individual essays with the comment that they had worked together but 'had written their own essay' for marking.

**Step 5. Assessing students' progress.**

At this point the teacher/researcher assessed the students' development in writing the genre to decide if they were ready to proceed to the stage of independent construction. There were only a few students who felt confident to write essays on their own. The general consensus was that each pupil would create their own texts provided they were guided along the way.

**3.7.3. Phase two: stage three: independent construction.**

By midyear most students in 10H2 were ready to undertake independent construction of their text. Group work was still encouraged though each pupil began to create his own text independently. The same steps undertaken in joint construction were used during this stage.
New topics were selected and students researched, made notes, organised their material and wrote their first, second and sometimes their third and final drafts.

Consultation with the teacher was more frequent during this stage. The main worry experienced by the students was "What do I write?" and "How do I write it?" The teacher's role was to refer them back to the notes and question. This is what the question requires and this is the information available. Once the opening statement was made most pupils found it relatively easy to get on with the task.

As a final step in the creation of the text the researcher encouraged students to read each other's work to see how others approached the same task.

3.8. Difficulties encountered during phase two.

One area of difficulty found in using Curriculum Genre at Bulli High School was the short period allocation. Each lesson lasted thirty eight minutes. By the time the students got settled for the class there was about thirty five minutes left.

Another problem was the availability of audio-visual equipment. If one started a joint construction of a particular text, one needed to write it on the board as not all the classrooms are equipped with overhead projectors or other appropriate audio-visual equipment. As a result if the teacher had a free period at the end of the lesson information from the board could be transferred to a notebook. However, this was not always possible as teachers have to rush to other classes. Thus the impetus of a joint construction is lost.
The next obstacle was student related. 10H2's progress was impeded by their narrow range of vocabulary. It was not unusual for students to halt their reading of a particular historical text when they stumbled upon 'big, unfamiliar words'.

"I asked the class to tell me what they understood by question no.1. Puzzled looks, a few mumbles and silence ... Class experienced difficulties with the words 'Societal issues'"

[Field notes, 1990, May 15]

They were obviously not accustomed to 'read for meaning' when they were given an academic text. They felt that they needed to understand the meaning of each word before they could extract the general meaning of the text. The task faced by the researcher was to encourage students to extract the 'global' meaning before proceeding with the purpose of the study.

Another difficulty present during the duration of the research was obtaining data from targeted students. Excuses were numerous

- they were away when the task had been set.
- they did not know what was expected of them.
- they had left their project book at home.
- they were sick or had visitors and could not complete the work.

Various measures had to be taken to ensure that sufficient data would be obtained from the class. Reminders were given frequently; extensions were granted grudgingly; a system of rewards was worked out for effort and excellent work.
Students' poorly developed library skills was another source of difficulty for the teacher/researcher. An enormous amount of time was spent in locating and retrieving information from the school library. Once this problem was overcome one had to deal with students who claimed they had 'suitable' books at home and thus could not do their work at school. They preferred to work at home.

Students' note taking skills was an area of great concern for the researcher. A common assumption on the part of the students was that note taking meant copying huge chunks out of library books. To them this posed no problem as they considered this was studying as they had transferred the information in their books.

The researcher used a fair proportion of her time working with individual students to show how texts were structured and how various language features operated within those texts.


3.9.1. Data collection: decision making time.

Initially all the texts written by the students in 10H2 were collected. When the academic year 1990 started and the teacher/researcher began her teaching the study was still in its preliminary stage and no firm decision had been made as to the nature of texts that would be collected for the purposes of the project.

However, half way through the term, after extensive discussion with peers and supervisor at the University, it was decided to concentrate on the expository essays written by the students. The rationale for this decision was based on the fact essay writing constitutes
an integral part of upper junior and senior school education in Australia and consequently success in the HSC is dependent upon students developing effective essay writing skills.

The first lot of texts was collected in February 1990. At this particular time, having no focal students, the researcher collected the work of each member of 10H2.

By the end of March 1990 it was decided that the students would write two essays per term. The texts produced by each member of 10H2 were collected for the whole year although by April 1990 four students were targeted as possible subjects for this research. The reason behind this decision was to allow for the contingency that focal students might depart from the classroom scene. Due to circumstances explained in section 3.6.4., only one essay was collected in Term four. By the end of the year the decision was reached to focus on Miranda's and Byron's essays as it became apparent that a detailed analysis of 28 essays would be beyond the scope of this study.

Miranda was one of the more capable students in the class and Byron was a lower ability student. This judgement was based on teacher observation of both students' performance in class over the past twelve months. Taken together the texts created by Miranda and Byron would provide a good representation of the class's ability range.

3.9.2. Data sources and method of collection.

Students' texts.

The expository essays written by the students formed the major focus of data. These essays were usually set as assignments for which class, library and home time were
allocated. Once the texts were collected, they were marked, photocopied and returned to the students. These photocopies are what the researcher worked from. When time permitted the photocopied texts were transcribed onto the computer. However, the photocopies of students' work have been retained as proof of their source.

**Informal discussions,**

Informal discussions with students and fellow teachers occurred throughout the study. The researcher often discussed with the students how they were getting on with the task, what difficulties they were encountering and in what ways the teacher could be of more assistance to them. A verbatim report of the students' responses was recorded in the form of field notes kept by the researcher.

Throughout the year the researcher engaged in informal discussions with fellow teachers [Bulli High + other schools] on their approaches to teaching expository essay writing. These opinions have also been recorded in the field notes. Teachers of History, English, Social Studies and Art teachers shared with the researcher their individual essay writing teaching/learning strategies.

**Interviews.**

Interviews held during the course of this study were of two types:

a. semi-structured interview with teachers

b. semi-structured interview with students
Semi-structured interview; teachers.

Three teachers were interviewed in a semi-structured interview. The purpose of this type of interview was to solicit information regarding current essay teaching strategies from experienced teachers in New South Wales high school system. The procedure employed was to allow the informants talk freely around these predetermined areas, thus informing the researcher about what he/she knows and understands about those particular issues. The response to an interview of this type would give the researcher a good idea of current practices in the teaching of essay writing.

A series of nine questions were framed and the first interviewee was given a copy of the questionnaire. [Appendix 1]. She read the questions and was very happy to give her views as long as she was not recorded on tape. Her response was written down.

This set of questions was then shown to various peers and colleagues for comments. The questionnaire in Appendix 2 is the amended version of the first questionnaire.

The second teacher to be interviewed was a Head Teacher of History in a high school setting and his response is both on tape and has been transcribed.

Another highly experienced teacher of Modern History was interviewed and her response is also on tape and has been transcribed.

Both these interviews were held in an informal setting whereby the interviewee would read the question and ask for clarification if he/she were unfamiliar with a term.
**Semi-structured interview; students.**

The purpose of this interview was to ascertain why the students had chosen the discipline of History, what value they considered they would gain from the study of this discipline, what ease/difficulties they encountered in performing the various tasks set in the course of their study.

A series of fourteen questions formed the basis of this interview with the students [Appendix 3]. First of all the questionnaire was trialed on a Year 10H1 student. The method adopted was to hand the questionnaire to the student who carefully read the questions before she attempted answering them. Unfortunately the tape recorder was not functioning, hence the response had to be written down.

A similar approach was taken with the remaining four interviewees from 10H2. Students interviewed were Miranda, Emily, Lucy and Byron. The other members of the class were not interested in giving up their free time as they could see no immediate 'benefit' for them in such an activity.

The interview did not take place till fourth term because the students were worried that their response might be 'used against' them. They did not want some stranger to be 'laughing' at what they had said. Finally the reward of a Mars Bar won over the above mentioned four students!!!
Field notes.

Throughout the year a detailed account of the lessons undertaken with Year 10H2 was kept. The procedure adopted was to daily enter on computer the interaction which had taken place in class between teacher and students. If this was not possible, the notes were entered soon after.

These field notes or log entries provide a comprehensive account of the daily life of 10H2 in 1990 – the normal interaction which took place between students and teacher, disruptions to daily routine of school life, difficulties encountered by students and teacher.

A log book was considered to be an important aspect of this research as it provides a detailed account of the interaction which occurred within the context of the classroom throughout the year. The last entry was for October 19, 1990.

3.9.3. Peer evaluation: students.

Towards the end of the academic year students of 10H2 were given a set of criteria for evaluating an expository essay [Appendix 4]. Each student was then supplied with a copy of an essay written by a member of the class [Miranda's text 4 and Byron's text 4 were used for this exercise – Appendices 5 and 6]. The name was omitted from the copy. Their task was to read the essay and determine how successful the text was in meeting the criteria set out in the list.

The purpose of this exercise was to assess to what extent students were using the information gained in the course of the year in their reading and writing activities. At the
same time this exercise was designed to ascertain to what degree they were able to identify elements of a text which contributed to making it an effective piece of writing.

3.10. **Phase four: data reduction and analysis.**

A naturalistic study such as this one generated a large and complex volume of data. In any naturalistic research it is the common fate of researchers to have the feeling of being 'choked' or 'swamped' by the sheer complexity of the amount of data collected [Fleet and Cambourne, 1989]. It was obvious right from the beginning that not all the data collected could be accorded equal status. A system had to be devised to separate core data from supportive data [Curtis and Cambourne, 1989].

3.10.1. **Core data.**

Early in the course of the study it was decided to use the essays written by the students as *core data.* This was dictated by the nature of the inquiry whereby the intention was to trace the writing development of students in the discourse of History, thus directly contributing to the focus question of the study. As the focus was expository essays, this decision was straightforward.

3.10.2. **Supportive data.**

Field notes, textbooks, models of genre, results of interviews, classroom observation and informal discussion, students' evaluation of each other formed part of the supportive data. These were used to support, confirm and/or modify interpretations made of the core data.
Initially the researcher intended to analyse a total of twenty eight essays. This idea was abandoned once analysis actually started as it was realised that such a task would be monumental. At this point in time, the items to be analysed were reduced to ten essays belonging to two students. The study's evolving design was greatly facilitated by the reduction of data.

3.10.3. Data analysis.

The analytical framework followed in this study was patterned on the work of Martin and Rothery [1980] and Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1988].

In Martin's and Rothery's paper the narrative writing and expository texts of school students were analysed from the point of view of discourse analysis. The authors related the text analysed to the linguistic system from which it derived in four ways: lexical cohesion, schematic structure, conjunction and theme.

Wignell, Eggins and Martin [1988] while discussing the abstract nature of the discourse of history, provide an analysis of sections of history textbooks from the point of: conjunctive relations, nominalisations, theme and processes.

Initially, the intention in this study was to carry out a comprehensive analysis relating the texts to the linguistic system in the following ways:
Schematic structure
Theme
Conjunction
Nominalisation
Nominal groups
Reference
Lexical cohesion
Lexical density
Processes
Participants

As this proved to be a mammoth task and beyond the scope of this study, it was decided to restrict the analysis to following elements:

Schematic structure
Themes
Reference
Conjunction
Nominalisation, participants and processes.

These particular features were selected for closer analysis because they were seen, on linguistic grounds, as very relevant to the construction of a successful text. At the same time taken together they would enable the researcher to trace the writing development of the students [Halliday, 1978; Rothery, 1984; Martin, 1985, 1990; Martin, Christie and Rothery, 1987].
The decision for this selection was justified to other students and lecturers involved in similar studies and criticism, evaluation and comment were made and received.

3.11. Establishing credibility and trustworthiness of the data.

In an attempt to ensure credibility of the findings of the research the naturalistic researcher adopts certain procedures which will preserve the wholistic situation of the study. He seeks "to take account of the bewildering array of interlocking factor patterns that confront him and pose formidable problems of interpretation" [Guba, 1980, p.19]. His approach is to deal with the emerging patterns in their entirety and to take certain actions that consider the complexities of the situation.

Guba and Lincoln [1982] suggest a series of activities which could be undertaken to ensure that the findings and interpretations would have a high degree of credibility and trustworthiness. Those used for the purpose of this study are discussed below.

3.11.1. Credibility.

Throughout the various stages of this study specific credibility measures undertaken:

Prolonged engagement at site.

The inquirer was a permanent member of the work force at the site and was timetabled to teach Year 10H2 for the academic period of 1990. This placed her in the excellent position whereby she became accepted by the respondents into the site's culture and as such her presence constituted no threat. There were plenty of opportunities to test the researcher's biases and perceptions as well as those of the respondents.
Thick description.

Being placed in such a position made it possible for the inquirer to keep a detailed description of both the context and the circumstances in which data was collected. This description served a number of purposes. Firstly it gave a detailed account of the context in which it occurred. Secondly, the identification of meanings and values in the context allowed anyone reading the thesis to make informed judgements concerning essay writing activities by a group of Year 10 students.

Triangulation of information from a wide variety of sources.

Triangulation is a process carried out with respect to the actual data. A combination of multiple methods in an investigation of this nature helps to overcome the weaknesses of a single method.

"The triangulation procedure not only guards against bias in the inquiry and analysis processes, but enables the multiple value perspectives present to be illuminated and considered." [Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p.107]

According to Mathison [1988] and Denzin [1988], one effective method of triangulation is 'data triangulation'. This study used a triangulation process involving time, space and persons. Data was collected over a period of one year at regular intervals from two different students. Another source of data came from interviews with fellow teachers. A second example of triangulation procedure used was to check the analysis of texts against other similar analysis by leading researchers in this field. [Martin, 1985; Rothery,
The purpose of this activity was to substantiate the researcher's findings.

Peer debriefing.

Peer debriefing is a credibility measure used to check for possible misinterpretations or bias on the part of the inquirer. According to Lincoln and Guba [1982] the purpose of debriefing was to explore aspects of the inquiry that might not otherwise emerge and thus keep the inquirer 'honest' with relevant questions. Peer debriefing provides the opportunities for other co-researchers to 'test' the data ordering, constructions and interpretation.

During the course of this study peer debriefing occurred at regular intervals in a variety of situations. The researcher met with the supervisor and other lecturers who verified the methodological decisions being made by the researcher throughout the study. The research questions and key concepts of the study were discussed with co-researchers at a Colloquium held at University of Wollongong in November 1991.

Other modes of peer debriefing took place at seminars, conferences and occasionally telephone conversations with co-researchers. At these times data was shared with peers to test the processes of data ordering, construction and interpretations.
3.12. Conclusion.

This chapter examined the design of the study. As the proposed research involved the use of 'human-as-instrument' a naturalistic paradigm was considered to be the most appropriate for the purposes of the study. However, instead of being 'driven by theory grounded in data' the present project was based on two already existing theories. Halliday's functional model of language supplied the linguistic theoretical framework and from the Disadvantaged Schools' Program came the learning theory which was applied in 10H2 during 1990.

These two theories were applied in the natural environment of a Year 10, History classroom at Bulli High School. In view of the fact that 'human-as-instrument' were involved in the study, it was necessary to make minor adjustments in the practical application of the existing theories in order to take into account 'interruptions, unpredictability' and moods of the students.

Expository essays created by the two students in Year 10H2 formed the core data while supportive data consisted of field notes, textbooks, models of genre, results of interviews, classroom observation and informal discussion, students' evaluation of each other's texts. These were examined with the aim to support, confirm and/or modify interpretations made of core data.
The analytical framework for the analysis of core data was patterned on the work of Martin and Rothery, [1980] and that of Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1988]. The decision was reached to restrict the analysis to: schematic structure, themes and reference, conjunctions and Nominalisation, participants and processes.

To ensure trustworthiness of data in this study, certain credibility measures were undertaken. These included prolonged engagement at site, thick description, triangulation and peer debriefing.

**List of textbooks used with Year 10H2 in 1990**


Coupe, Sheena and Mary Andrews *Was it only yesterday? Australia in the twentieth century world* Melbourne, Cheshire, 1983.


*We are all migrants: 1900–1983* [source not identified but article available for examination]

In addition to the above list of resources students also used other source materials from the school library and council library.
4. Analysis and discussion.

4.1. Purpose.

The purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate to what extent writing development occurs in the expository texts created by two Year 10 students in a history classroom over the period of one year.

4.2. Expository essay writing.

Essay writing, 'an exercise in logical thinking' constitutes an integral part of Australian upper junior school education and is therefore vital for success in the H.S.C. To that extent expository essay writing formed the focus of this research based on the assumption that students will learn to handle the various stages of expository style writing through continuous guidance, assistance and interaction with the teacher [See section 1.3].

4.3. Outline of analysis.

The ten expository essays created by Byron and Miranda during the academic year 1990 form the focus of the present analysis. The essays are each analysed in terms of the following:

a. schematic structure
b. theme
c. reference
d. conjunction
The analysis is presented in six parts:

Part One: Analysis of Byron's texts 1–5.
Part Two: General discussion of Byron's texts 1–5.
Part Four: General discussion of Miranda's texts 1–5.
Part Five: Comparison of Byron's and Miranda's writing development
Part Six: i) Discussion of Interview with a) teachers
          b) students
          ii) Discussion of students' evaluation of year's teaching/learning

4.4. Steps in the analysis.

An expository essay has been identified as having three distinct stages:

1. Thesis [position / preview]
2. Arguments [point presented in topic sentence + elaboration]
3. Reiteration [restatement] of thesis] [See section 2:19]

This study proposes to analyse each text created by Byron and Miranda along these lines. However, the second stage is labelled Topic sentence and Elaboration. There are two reasons for this decision. Firstly topic sentence is a term commonly recognised by teachers and English textbooks and is encountered in the process of teaching of
paragraph writing [See section 2:19]. Thus it is a concept with which teachers and students are familiar. Secondly, by distinguishing `arguments' in terms of topic sentence and elaboration, the organisational structure of the paragraph is made clear and students and teachers have something concrete to work with.

**Analysis of Generic (Schematic) Structure**

1. Present Text.

2. Divide text into sentence units, each of which is numbered consecutively. Label sentence units as:
   a. thesis/preview
   b. topic sentence/elaboration.
   c. reiteration [restatement] of thesis

3. Analysis of text in terms of 2. a–c.

4. Discussion of text in terms of schematic structure.

5. Discussion of text in terms of organisation.

For the purposes of analysing themes, reference, conjunctions, nominalisations, participants and processes the texts have been divided into clauses which have or could have had an explicit conjunction between them {conjunctively relatable units}. Relative clauses and nominalised clauses functioning as subject are not treated as separate units. [Martin and Rothery, 1980].
Analysis of themes.

1. The text is divided into conjunctively relatable units [clauses] which are consecutively numbered.

2. The themes, italicised and bold, are shown on the left hand side of the page while the rheme is continued on the right hand side.

3. Type of theme is indicated at the top of the relevant theme in italicised form enclosed in square brackets. If there are two types of themes, the one appearing first is indicated first, followed by the second one.

4. Discussion of themes follows analysis.

Reference.

Reference is analysed only in thematic elements in order to establish a pattern of the most obvious cohesive devices used by the students to show continuity across the text boundary. The researcher realises that this is an unorthodox practice and that she is contravening the rules of reference analysis. However, to carry out a comprehensive reference analysis is beyond the scope of this study.

1. The text is divided into conjunctively relatable units [clauses] which are numbered consecutively.

2. Reference in theme of each clause is shown in bold and italics. A consecutive number in square brackets follows each reference. In this section the reference system used in the themes will be examined to establish continuity of reference in the text.

3. The most significant reference patterns are displayed in a 'chain' form.
4. Discussion of reference system used in texts follows. Numbers in [-], [-] mentioned in the discussion refer to the numbering in the reference system.

**Conjunctions.**

It was decided to restrict the analysis of conjunctions in the students' texts to explicit/external conjunctive relations. The researcher is aware that there are limitations in leaving out implicit/explicit conjunctive relations in her analysis. However, the extensive range of analysis undertaken in this study do not permit a more comprehensive analysis.

1. Text is divided into conjunctively relatable units [clauses] which are numbered consecutively.

2. The analysis is presented with clause numbers indicated on the left; the type of conjunction [causal, temporal, additive, adversative, agent or logical relations] along with the actual conjunction is listed next to the clause in which it appears [See figure 4 in Section 2.21.3].

3. Discussion of texts in terms of conjunctions.

**Nominalisation, participants and processes.**

1. Text is divided into conjunctively relatable units [clauses] outlining nominalisations in italics and bold.

2. Nominalised terms are presented on the left hand side of the page and the description of type of nominalisation is along side on the right hand side.

3. Analysis of participants is presented in five sections.
   a) Human generic
   b) Human specific
4. The participants in each section are listed in the order in which they appear in the text.

5. For analysis of processes the text is divided into conjunctively relatable units [clauses]. Processes are italicised and are in bold, with a consecutive number in square brackets for ease of reference.

6. Discussion of nominalisation, participants and processes.

The procedure outlined in this section is repeated for analysis of all of Byron's and Miranda's texts.

Students' texts are reproduced without any change or alterations.

4.5. **Part One: analysis of Byron's texts 1–5.**

*Byron, text 1.*

12 February 1990

**All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants**

Roman Catholic-Irishmen

A storm on Christmas day resulted in the first arrival of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the foundation of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and along series of benefits and tensions. Due to this storm Napoleon could not invade England with the help of Irish soldiers.

But they the Irish were in such high fettle that they pressed on with their rebellion. They move in country Wexford [Ireland] massacred local Protestents and assembled 30000 strong at Vinegar Hill for a pitched battle the English invader General lake.
The Luckiest of his captives were those tried and counted, and "exiled" to Australia. They were evilly treated by their captors. When more exiles arrived, as the result of further Irish attempts to expel the English from their distressful country, they determined on revolt. Thousands more Irish exiles arrived over the years. By 1830, a third of the population were members of the Roman Catholic church foundation by priests who accompanied the exiles. The church became a powerful social influence, and a leader in such issues as government aid to education by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's opposition to Australians port in the front World War.

Unlike the majority of the English born convicts, the Irish exiles comprised men from many traded and professions. They and their descend ants became an integral and important part of Australian progress.

Ironically, however, the best known is Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported to Tasmania in 1842.

Byron, text 1. Generic [Schematic] Structure

1. A storm on Christmas day resulted in the first arrival of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the foundation of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and a series of benefits and tensions.
2. Due to this storm Napoleon could not invade England with the help of Irish soldiers.
3. But they the Irish were in such high fettle that they pressed on with their rebellion.
4. They move in country Wexford [Ireland] massacred local Protestents and assembled 30000 strong at Vinegar Hill for a pitched battle the English invader General lake.
5. The Luckiest of his captives were those tried and count mantiated and "exiled" to Australia.
6. They were evilly treated by their captors.
7. When more exiles arrived, as the result of further Irish attempts to expel the English from their distressful country, they determined on revolt.
8. Thousands more Irish exiles arrived over the years.
9. By 1830, a third of the population were members of the Roman Catholic church foundation by priests who accompanied the exiles.
10. The Church became a powerful social influence, and a leader in such issues as government aid to education by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's opposition to Australians port in the front World War.
11. Unlike the majority of the English born convicts, the Irish exiles comprised men from many traded and professions.
12. They and their descend ants became an integral and important part of Australian progress.
13. Ironically, however, the best known is Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported to Tasmania in 1842.

Analysis.

1. Topic sentence. Second part of sentence is a list of unrelated facts. Could be skeleton preview.
2. Elaboration. Shows a very weak link.
3. Topic sentence. Weak link to previous point.
4. Elaboration

5. Topic sentence
6–8. Elaboration. Expand issue raised in topic sentence, though evidence of explicit link to question is lacking.

9. Topic sentence, placed in the middle of a paragraph.
10. Elaboration. Three ideas mentioned, difficult to establish link.

11. Topic sentence. Unclear connection to rest of essay.
12. Elaboration.

13. Single sentence with no link to any other part of essay.

Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 1, Michael.

Generic [Schematic] Structure.

The thesis and reiteration of thesis the conclusion are lacking from this essay. The writer delves straight into what at first appears to be a narrative, 'A storm on a Christmas day resulted ...' There is no apparent connection to the question apart from the implicit idea that Irishmen are immigrants.

Based on the analysis it is seen that the answer bears no connection to the question. No mention is made of immigrants or descendants of immigrants. Byron has focused his attention on Irish who rebelled against the British and as a consequence were sent in exile to Australia.
Although a few facts are mentioned in this essay these are not turned into arguments. They are not related back to a thesis, are not rounded up by a reiteration of a thesis and are in no way related back to the question. There is the tendency to overload a sentence with unconnected facts which are then not expanded to prove a point.

Byron has merely listed a sequence of events, with some elements of exposition mixed into it as is seen in paragraphs 3 & 4. There is a general lack of argumentation in the essay. In addition Byron does not have sufficient information to adequately deal with the question set. The arrival of the Irish forms the focus of his text.

Organisation.

Each of the five paragraphs which form the basis of this essay has a topic sentence.

In paragraph one the topic sentence introduces a fact but the remainder of the sentence does not elaborate on this idea, does not frame an argument and is not linked to the question.

The topic sentence in paragraph two does present an argument, sustained by elaboration in the following sentence. However, it is not related to the question.

Paragraph three, the longest in the essay discusses two issues. The first one deals with the arrival of the exiles in Australia. While the word 'exiles' is a common one to sentences five to eight, there is some confusion regarding the direction the argument. The captives of General Lake have been exiled to Australia, their treatment was 'evil' and more exiles arrived in Australia. The connection between these issues is not made clear.
The latter part of paragraph three switches, without warning, to discussion of the powerful foundation of the Roman Catholic Church, to the part played by Archbishop Mannix. The connection between the exiles and these issues is not clearly established.

A different issue is raised in paragraph four. The topic sentence shows that the Irish exiles came from a variety of background. However, the succeeding sentence does not explain this any further.

The final paragraph is not linked to any other part of the question.

A lack of `correct' punctuation and an absence of processes in some sentences make it difficult to follow the ideas being discussed.

The above analysis thus reveals that Byron is not familiar with the schematic structure of an exposition and has insufficient knowledge to effectively organise his text and present an appropriate argument. One of the major difficulties he encounters is the inability to relate his answer to the question set.

*Byron, text 1. Analysis of Themes.*

1. *A storm on Christmas day* resulted in the first arrival of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the foundation of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and along series of benefits and tensions.

2. *Due to this storm Napoleon* could not invade England with the help of Irish soldiers.
3. But they the Irish were in such high fettle
4. That they pressed on with their rebellion.
5. They move in country Wexford [Ireland] massacred local Protestents
6. and assembled 30000 strong at Vinegar Hill for a pitched battle the English invader General lake.
7. The Luckiest of his captives were those tried
8. and count mantiated
9. and "exiled" to Australia.
10. They were evilly treated by their captors.
11. When more exiles arrived, as the result of further Irish attempts to expel the English from their distressful country,
12. they determined on revolt.
13. Thousands more Irish exiles arrived over the years.
14. By 1830, a third of the population were members of the Roman Catholic church foundation by priests who accompanied the exiles.
15. The church became a powerful social influence, and a leader in such issues as government aid to education by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's opposition to Australians port in the front World War.
Unlike the majority of the English born convicts, the Irish exiles comprised of men from many traded and professions.

They and their descend ants became an integral and important part of Australian progress.

Ironically, however, the best known is Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported to Tasmania in 1842.

Discussion of themes in text 1, Byron.

Ten out of eighteen themes used in this text are topical, three are a combination of textual and topical, one is a mixed of textual and interpersonal and one is an interpersonal theme. The lack of a greater number of textual themes makes it difficult to follow the writer's method of development. Instead he relies on a simple pattern of topical themes where 'Irish, exiles, They' is used as the point of departure.

The themes in nos. 1 & 2 are 'A storm on Christmas day' and 'Due to this storm'. In an essay where the question calls for an opinion on whether all Australians are immigrants or not, it is unusual to have the 'point of departure' revolving around the word 'storm'. The reader is left waiting for the writer to 'hook' on to the topic.

The next two themes choose as their point of departure 'But they the Irish' [the Irish soldiers would have been a better choice] and 'They'. The focus here is on Irish soldiers.
Nos. 7, 10, 11 & 12 extend the term 'Irish' to incorporate exiles. Now attention is being drawn to 'When more exiles', 'they', 'Thousands more Irish exiles' and in nos. 16 & 17 'The Irish exiles', 'They and their descendants'.

The above analysis demonstrates that the writer has relied on 'Irish, exiles and They' as his method of development. The actual question has not been answered. It is a recount of the arrival of the Irish in Australia, not an abstract interpretation of the fact that All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants.

Byron, text 1. Analysis of reference.

1. A storm [1] on Christmas day resulted in the first arrival of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the foundation of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and along series of benefits and tensions.
2. Due to this storm [2] Napoleon could not invade England with the help of Irish soldiers.
3. But they the Irish [3] were in such high fettle
4. that they [4] pressed on with their rebellion.
6. and assembled 30000 strong at Vinegar Hill for a pitched battle the English invader General lake.

7. The Luckiest of his captives [6] were those tried
8. and count mantiated
9. and "exiled" to Australia.
10. They [7] were evilly treated by their captors.
11. When more exiles [8] arrived, as the result of further Irish attempts to expel the English from their distressful country,
13. Thousands more Irish exiles [10] arrived over the years.
14. By 1830, a third of the population [11] were members of the Roman Catholic church foundation by priests who accompanied the exiles.
15. The Church [12] became a powerful social influence, and a leader in such issues as government aid to education by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's opposition to Australians port in the front World War
17. *They and their descend ants* [14] became an integral and important part of Australian progress.

18. Ironically, however, the best known is Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported to Tasmania in 1842.

**Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 1, Byron.**

Conjunctively relatable units Reference chain

**Storm**

1. storm
2. this storm

**they the Irish**

3. they the Irish
4. they
5. they
12. they

**captives**

7. captives
10. they

**Discussion of reference in text 1, Byron.**

While the reference system used by Byron appears to be simple, it gives rise to some confusion due mainly to the excessive reliance on the use of the personal pronoun 'they'.

Paragraph 3 links 'they the Irish' [3] to 'they' 'They' in [4] & [5]. 'they' in 'they the Irish' is used as a juxtaposition. The reference network used in paragraph 3 is not as straightforward as the previous ones. In [7] 'They' refer to 'his captives' in [6]. From this point onwards confusion arises for the reader. [8] refers to 'more exiles' arriving. This is taken by the reader to mean a second bunch of exiles being added on to the first batch who were the 'captives' of General Lake. When yet another personal pronoun is used in
great ambiguity arises for the reader. Who is being referred to here – the second batch of exiles, the first batch, the English or the Irish?

‘Thousands more Irish exiles’ in [10], ‘a third of the population’ in no. 14 and ‘The Church’ in [12] appear to stand by themselves though an implicit connection to Irish exiles in Australia could be established for [10] and to the Roman Catholic Church in case of [12].

Paragraph 4 uses a direct reference system. [14] follows a similar pattern to [3] where a juxtaposition is used instead of a more abstract term.

Overall the reference pattern used in this text is difficult to follow. There is an excessive reliance on the use of the personal pronoun ‘they’ to maintain continuity across the sentence boundary. As a result the reader encounters a difficult task in establishing the intended chain of reference in paragraph three when ‘they’ [9] is used once again.

The theme of Irish exiles in Australia is one which is maintained through a large section of the text. This is achieved mainly through the use of the personal pronoun ‘they’ and the words ‘Irish exiles’.

One area of difficulty for the writer is the ability to maintain a theme across a longer reference chain. Several chains are started off but tend to disappear after only a short stretch of text.
Byron, text 1. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. A storm on Christmas day resulted in the first arrival of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the foundation of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and along series of benefits and tensions. 

2. Due to this storm Napoleon could not invade England with the help of Irish soldiers.

3. But they the Irish were in such high fettle
4. that they pressed on with their rebellion.
5. They move in country Wexford [Ireland] massacred local Protestents
6. and assembeld 30000 strong at Vinegar Hill for a pitched battle the English invader General lake.

7. The Luckiest of his captives were those tried
8. and count mantiated
9. and "exiled" to Australia.
10. They were evilly treated by their captors.

11. When more exiles arrived, as the result of further Irish attempts to expel the English from their distressful country,
12. they determined on revolt.
13. Thousands more Irish exiles arrived over the years.
14. By 1830, a third of the population were members of the Roman Catholic church foundation by priests who accompanied the exiles.
15. The church became a powerful social influence, and a leader in such issues as government aid to education by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's opposition to Australians port in the front World War.

16. Unlike the majority of the English born convicts, the Irish exiles comprised men from many traded and professions.
17. They and their descend ants became an intergral and important part of Australian progress.

18. Ironically, however, the best known is Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported to Tasmania in 1842.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>'But'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td></td>
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<td>'and'</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td></td>
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<td>'and'</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
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137
Discussion conjunctions in text 1, Byron.

This text contains 8 conjunctions:

a. 1 causal conjunctions
b. 2 adversative
c. 1 temporal
d. 3 successive
e. 1 contrastive

An examination of the conjunctions in this essay reveals Byron's inability to structure the text in a logical manner.

A good start is made with the causal conjunction in no. 2 and with the adversative conjunction in no. 3 which correspond to the first and second argument in the essay.

The next conjunction does not occur until no. 11 when a temporal conjunction is explicitly used, emphasising the 'recount' nature of the text rather than an expository nature.
While an explicit contrastive conjunction is used in no. 12, it does not add any strength to the main argument of the essay. The discussion in no. 11 is about the powerful influence of the Church whereas no. 12 introduces a totally unrelated idea.

The last conjunction in no. 14 'Ironically, however,' leaves the reader guessing. Why is Ned Kelly mentioned? How does he relate to the question?

Although a few conjunctions are used in this text, the writer is unable to maximise the effectiveness of their presence in his essay to show the logical development of his ideas.

_Byron, text 1. Analysis of nominalisations._

1. A storm on Christmas day resulted in the first _arrival_ of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the _foundation_ of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and along series of _benefits and tensions._
2. Due to this storm Napoleon could not invade England with the _help_ of Irish soldiers.
3. But they the Irish were in such high fettle
4. that they pressed on with their _rebellion_.
5. They move in country Wexford [Ireland] massacred local Protestents
6. and assembled 30000 strong at Vinegar Hill for a pitched _battle_ the English invader General lake.
7. The Luckiest of his captives were those tried
8. and count mantiated
9. and "exiled" to Australia.
10. They were evilly treated by their captors.
11. When more _exiles_ arrived, as the result of further Irish _attempts_ to expel the English from their distressful country,
12. they determined on _revolt_.
13. Thousands more Irish exiles arrived over the years.
14. _By 1830_ , a third of the population were members of the Roman Catholic church _foundation_ by priests who accompanied the exiles.
15. The church became a powerful social _influence_, and a _leader_ in such issues as government aid to _education_ by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's _opposition_ to Australians port in the front World War.
16. Unlike the majority of the English born convicts, the Irish exiles comprised men from many trades and professions.

17. They and their descend ants became an intergral and important part of Australian progress.

18. Ironically, however, the best known is Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported to Tasmania in 1842.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arrival</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>foundation</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<td>benefits and</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<td>help</td>
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<td>exiles</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<td>revolt</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<tr>
<td>By 1830</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
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<tr>
<td>foundation</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<tr>
<td>influence</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
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<tr>
<td>opposition</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>descend ants</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Byron, text 1. Analysis of participants.

Human Generic

non criminal Irishmen
Irish soldiers
they the Irish
local protestants
The luckiest of his captives
More exiles
the English
More Irish exiles
a third of the population
member of the Roman Catholic Church
priests
the exiles
The Irish exiles
They and their descendants
a leader
Australians
men
father

Human Specific

English invader General Lake
Napoleon
Red Kelly
Ned Kelly

Non–human: time/place

On Christmas day
in Australia
in this country
England
in country Wexford [Ireland]
at Vinegar Hill
to Australia
their distressful country
to Tasmany

Non–human: metaphorical

the foundation of the Roman Catholic Church
their rebellion
further Irish attempts
powerful social influence
issues as government aid to education
Archbishop's Mannix's opposition
traded and professions
intergral and important part of Australian progress
best known

Non–human: other: concrete

a storm
this storm
pitched battle
world war
Church
by Church schools

Byron, text 1. Analysis of processes.

1. A storm on Christmas day resulted [1] in the first arrival of non-criminal Irishmen in Australia, the foundation of the Roman Catholic church in this country, and along series of benefits and tensions.
of Irish soldiers.
2. Due to this storm Napoleon could not invade [2] England with the help of Irish soldiers.

3. But they the Irish were [3] in such high fettle
4. that they pressed [4] on with their rebellion.

7. The Luckiest of his captives were [8] those tried [9]
8. and count mantiated [10]
10. They were evilly treated [12] by their captors.
11. When more exiles arrived [13], as the result of further Irish attempts to expel the English from their distressful country,
14. By 1830, a third of the population were [16] members of the Roman Catholic church foundation by priests who accompanied [17] the exiles.
15. The church became [18] a powerful social influence, and a leader in such issues as government aid to education by church schools and Archbishop Mannix's opposition to Australians port in the front World War.

16. Unlike the majority of the English born convicts, the Irish exiles comprised [19] men from many traded and professions.
17. They and their descend ants became [20] an intergral and important part of Australian progress.

18. Ironically, however, the best known is [21] Ned Kelly, whose father Red Kelly was transported [22] to Tasmania in 1842.

Material

2. could (not) invade
4. pressed
5. move
6. massacred
7. assembled
8. were
9. tried
10. court mantiated
11. exiled
12. were (evilly) treated
13. arrived
15. arrived
17. accompanied
22. was transported
Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 1, Byron.

There is a high proportion of nominalisations in this text. It codes a large number of actions as nouns and only one setting in time. However, there are no nominalisations of logical relations or of qualities. It relies on external conjunctions to structure the text [Due to, But, When, Unlike, Ironically, however]. These logical connections are mainly of cause and time. The events are ordered according to the sequence in which they happened and what caused them to happen.

Byron is aware of the existence of nominalisation but is not yet in control of it. This essay is not yet a `history text' as it has not begun an effective use of nominalisation for organisation of ideas.

A breakdown of text 1 into participants reveals that there is a high proportion of human generic participants compared to the four human specific ones. Several of the human generic participants are in fact `repeats' of `Irish exiles'. The four human specific participants do not fit in with the overall theme of the essay.
There are two non-human concrete participants, 'church' and 'school', the first of which appears to be a major theme of the essay. However, this is not explored any further.

Although the few non-human participants: metaphorical are highly nominalised they add no extra meaning to the text as they do not add strength to the argument presented in the essay.

From the observation made in the first paragraph it can be seen that an attempt has been made to move from the more concrete discourse of history to a more abstract discourse. There is a minimising of the human specific participants. However, non-human concrete and non-human metaphorical participants are not effectively used.

In this text there are: 

- 8 relational processes
- 13 material processes
- 1 mental process

Three of the relational processes have to do with the auxiliary verb 'to be'. There is a high proportion of material processes which shows that the writer is working concretely rather than abstractly. The material processes used in the essay reveal the writer's understanding of what history is; they provide information of what happens rather than an interpretation of the events.

This is in keeping with the concept of someone who is operating at the latter end of the oral/spoken mode continuum. The material processes used in the essay reveal the writer's
understanding of what history is; they provide information of what happens rather than an interpretation of the events.

Byron, text 2.

28 March 1990

The Chinese were the least offensive of the gold seekers. Discuss the reasons for their harassment and persecution wherever they searched for gold.

Intro. The Chinese were the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia manly Bendigi gold field.

The Chinese were being harrased by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851-58, the chinese didn't strike back because it wasn't in their culture to sink that low.

The Chinese community didn't show any pain but the harassment hurt on the inside.

The Chinese were the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851-58, the Chinese were very Passive people they never harrassed any race or colour but the were harrased by other races for example Australians, Europeans.

The Chinese were the least offensive because the didn't fight back at the "Buckland river riots", new it wouldn't help any way also didn't worry about the chinky-haters which were the miners but the name calling realy hurt on the in side but they didn't show the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harrased and the propergander.

The Australians and Europeans would have to be the main groups which harrased the chinese the most by cartoons, paintings, rios, propergander and bashings, both groups didn't care what happened to the chinese the lanuge [language] of both groups who dispised the chinese.

The Buckland river riots would have to be the most popular riot of the gold rush where the chinese swages were burnt and the chinese thrown in the river the two groups Australians and Europeans lost that battle because the main riots went to jail.

The chinese were least offensive because they were passive people and the Australians and Europeans were agressive people because the chinese got more gold from the gold fields but later on the chinese won the battles from the government.

Byron, text 2. Generic (Schematic) Structure.

1. The Chinese were the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia manly Bendigi gold field.

[need a link here - yet]
2. The Chinese were being harassed by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851–58, the chinese didn't strike back because it wasn't in their culture to sink that low.

3. The Chinese community didn't show any pain but the harassment hurt on the inside.

4. The Chinese were the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851–58, the Chinese were very passive people they never harassed any race or colour but the were harassed by other races for example Australians, Europeans.

5. The Chinese were the least offensive because the didn't fight back at the "Buckland river riots", new it wouldn't help any way also didn't worry about the chinky-haters which were the miners but the name calling realy hurt on the in side but they didn't show the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harrassed and the propergander.

6. The Australians and Europeans would have to be the main groups which harrassed the chinese the most by cartoons, paintings, rios, propergander and bashings, both groups didn't care what happened to the chinese the lanuge [language] of both groups who dispised the chinese.

7. The Buckland river riots would have to be the most popular riot of the gold rush where the chinese swages were burnt and the chinese thrown in the river the two groups Australians and Europeans lost that battle because the main riots went to jail.

8. The chinese were least offensive because they were passive people and the Australians and Europeans were agressive people because the chinese got more gold from the gold fields but later on the chinese won the battles from the government.

Analysis.

1. Beginning of a thesis. Wording of question changed slightly. [Need link 'yet' with preview]

2. Preview showing how the Chinese responded, explains effects, not cause of harassment.


4. Topic sentence. Also includes elaboration, how the Chinese were least offensive.
5. Topic sentence. Includes elaboration explaining why they were least offensive.

6. Topic sentence. Elaboration included, showing who harassed and how.


**Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 2, Byron.**

**Generic [Schematic Structure].**

This essay contains the outline of a thesis which is linked to the conclusion. The thesis changes the wording of the question slightly and argues that the Chinese were the least offensive of the gold seekers, yet they were harassed by the Australians and Europeans. The reasons for their harassment are not explicitly mentioned till the conclusion.

Nevertheless there is definite evidence of argumentation in this text. Byron shows that despite their passiveness the Chinese were harrassed. This leads him to prove why they were deemed to be least offensive, why such harassment occurred, in what ways they were harrassed and who harrassed them. Facts are presented and are related back to the thesis and are thus linked to the question.

**Organisation.**

The essay is divided into eight paragraphs. The introduction is presented in two paragraphs which could have been combined into one, the thesis and preview.

Paragraph three is a single sentence which presents an idea not pursued elsewhere in the essay.
Paragraphs 4, 5, 6 and 7 each consists of one physical sentence which incorporates both an idea [or a topic sentence] and elaboration of the idea.

The final paragraph is a reiteration of the thesis, with one addition. The reasons for the harassment of the Chinese by the Australians and Europeans are made explicit.

One of the drawbacks of this essay is that the sentence boundaries are not clearly defined. This makes reading more difficult. Topic sentences are paired off with elaboration without any clear cut distinction being made.

Byron, text 2. Analysis of themes.

1. The Chinese were the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia manly Bendigi gold field.

2. The Chinese were being harrased by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851–58,

3. the chinese didn't strike back

4. because it wasn't in their culture to sink that low.

5. The Chinese community didn't show any pain

6. but the harassment hurt on the inside.

7. The Chinese were the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851–58,

8. the Chinese were very Passive people
they

were harrassed by other races for example Australians, Europeans.

were the least offensive

didn't fight back at the "Buckland river riots",

new it wouldn't help any way

didn't worry about the chinky-haters which were the miners

realy hurt on the in side

didn't show the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harrassed and the propergander.

would have to be the main groups which harrassed the chinese the most by cartoons, paintings, rios, propergander and bashings,

didn't care what happened to the chinese the lanuge [language] of both groups who dispised the chinese.

would have to be the most popular riot of the gold rush

were burnt

thrown in the river

lost that battle

went to jail.
24. *The chinese* were least offensive

25. *because they* were passive people

26. *and the Australians and Europeans* were aggressive people

27. *because the chinese* got more gold from the gold fields

28. *but later on the chinese* won the battles from the government.

**Discussion of themes in text 2, Byron.**

There are twenty eight themes in this text, thirteen of which are topical themes and fourteen are a combination of textual and topical.

Eleven themes directly relate to 'The Chinese' [nos. 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 11, 24, 27 & 28.]

Five themes realised by the personal pronoun 'they' link up to 'The Chinese'.

The next major theme is found in the use of 'Australians and Europeans' [nos. 17, 22 & 26] and is linked to 'both groups' in no. 18.

'Harassment' is used once as a theme in no. 6 and 'The Buckland River Riots' appears once in no. 19 linked to 'main riots' in no. 23.
An examination of the combination of the textual and topical themes reveal that:

a. five of these are realised by 'because'
b. four are realised by 'but'
c. one is realised by 'where'
d. one is realised by 'and'

The above analysis shows that the writer has chosen as his method of development 'The Chinese'. This demonstrates that his essay focuses on people and events, not abstract ideas. Thus the emphasis is on the recount nature of the text. Although an abstract term is used in no. 6 as a theme thereby showing that nominalised terms has begun to appear in the text, this could be partly due to a repetition of the wording of the question and does not prove student's ability to handle an abstract theme. The high proportion of textual themes, along with the predominance of human themes, indicate that Byron's text is closer to the oral end of the spoken/written mode continuum

*Byron, text 2. Analysis of reference.*

1. The *Chinese* [1] were the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia manly Bendigi gold field.

2. The *Chinese* [2] were being harrased by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851–58,
3. the *chinese* [3] didn't strike back
4. because it [4] wasn't in their culture to sink that low.

5. The *Chinese community* [5] didn't show any pain

7. The *Chinese* [7] were the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851–58,
8. the *Chinese* [8] were very Passive people
9. they [9] never harassed any race or colour
10. but the [10] were harassed by other races for example Australians, Europeans.

11. The Chinese [11] were the least offensive
12. because the [12] didn't fight back at the "Buckland river riots",
13. new it wouldn't help any way
14. also didn't worry about the chinky-haters which were the miners
15. but the name calling [13] really hurt on the inside
16. but they [14] didn't show the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harassed and the propergander.

17. The Australians and Europeans [15] would have to be the main groups which harassed the Chinese the most by cartoons, paintings, rios, propergander and bashings,
18. both groups [16] didn't care what happened to the Chinese the language of both groups who despised the Chinese.

19. The Buckland river riots [17] would have to be the most popular riot of the gold rush
20. where the Chinese swages [18] were burnt
21. and the Chinese thrown in the river
22. the two groups Australians and Europeans [19] lost that battle
23. because the main riots [20] went to jail.

24. The Chinese [21] were least offensive
25. because they [22] were passive people
26. and the Australians and Europeans [23] were aggressive people
27. because the Chinese [24] got more gold from the gold fields

Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 2, Byron.

Conjunctively
relatable units        Reference chain

The Chinese

3. The Chinese
4. their

8. the Chinese
9. They
10. the(y)
11. The Chinese
Discussion of reference in text 2, Byron.

The principal reference chain used in this text is related to 'The Chinese' which is used nine times in [1–3], [7–8], [11], [21], [24] & [25]. 'They' in reference to 'The Chinese' is used five times in [9–10], [12], [14] & [22].

The next group of reference ties is in the use of 'Australians and Europeans' which is first introduced in [15] and is linked to the next clause by 'both groups' in [16].

In [19] these two groups of words are placed in juxtaposition.

"Two groups Australians and Europeans ..."

This is a reflection of the spoken mode where the speaker often feels inclined to qualify the subject of the sentence to give it more emphasis.

It seems that the writer is not sure of being understood and feels the need to qualify 'two groups' by 'Australians and Europeans'. This reference is again used in the conclusion [23].

The reference network used in this essay is very simple, based on the noun 'Chinese' and supplemented by the personal pronoun 'they'. The excessive reliance on 'Chinese' demonstrates the writer's inexperience in varying his reference system, thus showing his tendency to express himself congruently in his writing.
Byron, text 2. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. The Chinese were the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia manly Bendigi gold field.

2. The Chinese were being harrased by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851–58,
3. the chinese didn't strike back
4. because it wasn't in their culture to sink that low.

5. The Chinese community didn't show any pain
6. but the harassment hurt on the inside.

7. The Chinese were the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851–58,
8. the Chinese were very Passive people
9. they never harrassed any race or colour
10. but the were harrased by other races for example Australians, Europeans.

11. The Chinese were the least offensive
12. because the didn't fight back at the "Buckland river riots",
13. new it wouldn't help any way
14. also didn't worry about the chinky–haters which were the miners
15. but the name calling reaaly hurt on the in side
16. but they didn't show the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harrased and the propergander.

17. The Australians and Europeans would have to be the main groups which harrassed the chinese the most by cartoons, paintings, rios, propergander and bashings,
18. both groups didn't care what happened to the chinese the lanuge [language] of both groups who dispised the chinese.

19. The Buckland river riots would have to be the most popular riot of the gold rush
20. where the chinese swages were burnt
21. and the chinese thrown in the river
22. the two groups Australians and Europeans lost that battle
23. because the main riots went to jail.

24. The chinese were least offensive
25. because they were passive people
26. and the Australians and Europeans were agressive people
27. because the chinese got more gold from the gold fields
28. but later on the chinese won the battles from the government.

1.

2. imp. adv. [yet]
3. exp. causal because
4. exp.
5. exp. adv. but
6. exp.
7. exp.
8. exp.
9. exp. adv. but
10. exp. adv. but
11. exp.
12. exp. causal because
13. exp.
14. exp. additive also
15. exp. adv. but
16. exp. adv. but
17. exp.
18. exp.
19. exp. temp. 'where'
20. exp. additive 'and'
21. exp.
22. exp.
23. exp. causal because
24. exp.
25. exp. causal because
26. exp. additive. and
27. exp. causal because
28. exp. adv. but

Discussion of conjunctions in text 2, Byron.

This text contains 15 conjunctions.

a. 5 causal
b. 5 adversative [exp.]
c. 2 additive
c. 1 temporal

A dominant pattern of causal and adversative clauses coded between clauses emerges from an examination of this text. 'Because', and 'But' are each used five times. The simple
additive 'and' and 'but' is used once. The choice of connectives used in this essay shows very little variation and is indicative of an immature writer who is working at a congruent level. Simple conjunctions are used to maintain cohesion in the text, thus giving rise to an abundance of clauses which a more mature writer would have effectively combined in a more tightly structured text.

The above section utilises a very simple pattern of conjunctions where each clause is conjunctively related to the previous unit. Although no. 26 is introduced by the adversative 'but' it appears to stand on its own. This demonstrates that the writer is not yet able to show continuity of argument through an effective use of conjunctions.

Byron, text 2. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. The Chinese were the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia manly Bendigi gold field.

2. The Chinese were being harrased by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851–58,
3. the chinese didn't strike back
4. because it wasn't in their culture to sink that low.

5. The Chinese community didn't show any pain
6. but the harassment hurt on the inside.

7. The Chinese were the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851–58,
8. the Chinese were very Passive people
9. they never harrassed any race or colour
10. but the were harrased by other races for example Australians, Europeans.

11. The Chinese were the least offensive
12. because the didn't fight back at the "Buckland river riots",
13. new it wouldn't help any way
14. also didn't worry about the chinky-haters which were the miners
15. but the name calling realy hurt on the in side
16. but they didn't show the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harrased and the propergander.
17. The Australians and Europeans would have to be the main groups which harassed the Chinese the most by cartoons, *paintings*, riots, propargander and *bashings*,
18. both groups didn't care what happened to the Chinese the language [language] of both groups who despised the Chinese.

19. The Buckland river riots would have to be the most popular riot of the *gold rush*
20. where the Chinese swages were burnt
21. and the Chinese thrown in the river
22. the two groups Australians and Europeans lost that *battle*
23. because the main riots went to *jail*.

24. The Chinese were least offensive
25. because they were passive people
26. and the Australians and Europeans were aggressive people
27. because the Chinese got more gold from the gold fields
28. but later on the Chinese won the *battles* from the *government*.

### Nominalisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gold rush</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pain</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>harassment</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold rush 1851–58</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>name calling</td>
<td>doings acted on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hurt</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pain</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paintings</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bashings</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold rush</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>battle</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jail</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>battles</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>government</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Byron, text 2. Analysis of participants.

**Human Generic**

The Chinese
The Chinese
Australians and European diggers
The Chinese
The Chinese community
The Chinese
The Chinese
passive people
other races
Australians and Europeans
The Chinese
chinky haters
miners
Australian and European diggers
both groups
the Chinese
both groups
the Chinese
the Chinese swages
the Chinese
the two groups Australians and Europeans
main riots [rioters]
the Chinese
passive people
Australians and Europeans
aggressive people
the Chinese
the Chinese

*Human – specific*

*Non-human: time/place*

gold rush
Australia
Bendigo gold fields
goldfields
Bendigo
goldfields
Australia
Buckland River Riots
gold rush
the river
jail
goldfields

*Non-human: metaphorical*

the harassment
the name calling
the Buckland River Riots
the most popular riot
the lanuge [language]
the government
Non-human: other: concrete

cartoons
paintings
riots
bashings
battle
gold
battles
government

Byron, text 2. Analysis of processes.

1. The Chinese were [1] the least offensive during the gold rush through out Australia mainly Bendigi gold field.

2. The Chinese were being harrassed [2] by Australian and European diggers on the gold fields at Bendigo in 1851–58,
3. the chinese didn't strike [3] back
4. because it wasn't [4] in their culture to sink that low.
5. The Chinese community didn't show [5] any pain
7. The Chinese were [7] the least offensive on the goldfields in Australia during the gold rush 1851–58,
8. the Chinese were [8] very Passive people
9. they never harrassed [9] any race or colour
10. but the were harrassed [10] by other races for example Australians, Europeans.
11. The Chinese were [11] the least offensive
12. because the didn't fight [12] back at the "Buckland river riots",
14. also didn't worry [15] about the chinky–haters which were [16]the miners
15. but the name calling realy hurt [17] on the in side
16. but they didn't show [18] the hurt of pain of being betten, bash, harrased and the propergander.
17. The Australians and Europeans would have to be [19] the main groups which harrassed [20] the chinese the most by cartoons, paintings, rios, propergander and bashings,
18. both groups didn't care [21] what happened [22] to the chinese the lanuge [language] of both groups who dispised [23] the chinese.
19. The Buckland river riots would have to be [24] the most popular riot of the gold rush
20. where the chinese swages were burnt [25]
21. and the chinese thrown [26] in the river
22. the two groups Australians and Europeans lost [27] that battle
23. because the main riots went [28] to jail.

24. The chinese were [29] least offensive
25. because they were [30] passive people
26. and the Australians and Europeans were [31] agressive people
27. because the chinese got [32] more gold from the gold fields
28. but later on the chinese won [33] the battles from the government.

Material

2. were being harrassed
3. didn't strike back
9. harrassed
10. were harrassed
12. didn't fight
20. harrassed
25. were burnt
26. thrown
27. lost
28. went
32. got
33. won

Relational

1. were
7. were
11. were
14. wouldn't help
16. were
19. would have to be
24. would have to be
29. were
30. were
31. were

Mental

5. didn't show
6. hurt
13. (k)new
15. didn't worry
17. hurt
18. didn't show
21. didn't care
23. dispised
Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 2, Byron.

Out of the fourteen nominalisations in this text, ten turn actions and events into Things, one is 'doing acted on' and three are setting in time [Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

The eight nominalised terms [action into Thing] used in Byron's text 2 are relatively simple forms of nouns with the exception of harassment, a noun which already forms part of the question.

The noun pain is used twice. name calling and bashings are more part of spoken discourse.

The three terms which have been described as setting in time also form part of the wording of the question and there is no variation in their use, with the exception that in its second appearance it is qualified by the dates '1851-58'.

The simplest possible use of nominalisations is utilised in this text. Doings have been turned into Things, then the process came to a halt. The full grammatical resources of nominalisations have not been utilised to maximum effect [see section 2.22.1.1]. The analysis demonstrates that Byron is still operating at a more concrete level and is closer to the oral end of the oral/spoken mode continuum.

This text contains twenty eight human generic participants, no human specific participants, thirteen non-human: time/place, six non-human metaphorical and eight non-human: other: concrete.
There is a predominance of human generic participants, followed closely by a high proportion of non-human: time/place.

The above analysis demonstrates that the historical discourse in the text is very congruent. The focus is on what classes of people have done in a specific place. There is a lack of variety in the use of participants. 'The Chinese' is used eleven times; nine times on its own and twice qualified by 'community' and 'swages'. 'Australian and European diggers' are referred to four times, miners once.

Two of the non-human metaphorical participants verge on the colloquial – 'name-calling' and 'most popular riots'.

Five of the non-human concrete participants are realised in the same sentence.

A detailed analysis of the participants employed in this text reveals that the writer is expressing himself in very congruent ways, where the focus is on human generic participants and the setting is clearly defined. Such a text is typical of a narrative though it could be said that the move away from the individual to classes of people brings the text closer to historical discourse.

There are: 12 relational processes

12 material processes

9 mental processes
There is a high proportion of relational and material processes in this text. However, as demonstrated with the analysis on participants, there is not much variety in the use of relational processes. The choice of relational processes is restricted to 'were', 'would have to be'. They do not really fulfil the function of relational processes generally expected in an expository text. They are used to attribute qualities to human: specific participants.

The high proportion of and type of material processes does not allow the text to be expressed in a more condensed and abstract form which is typical of written discourse. There is a repetition of some of these material processes [nos. 2, 10 & 20; nos. 3 & 12] and thus they do not give the reader any additional information. The material processes used largely code happenings, thus bringing into focus the fact that history is regarded as events which occurred in the past.

**Byron, text 3.**

12 June 1990

**What was it like to be unemployed during the Depression?**

**Introduction**

Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 was traumatic because you couldn't get a job for money you had no food, you don't have a house to live in, your health was slowly deteriorating, and you had no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed and nobody could work.

**The body**

The stock market crash of 1929–33 which it was also known as the Great Depression to many people.

The depression scared and saddened the people who were around at this time, people were worried because had to find a good job to support their family or them selves so they could have money, food, housing, clothes and good health, if they found a good job it would help them a lot when things got worse.
Food was a problem also because they needed food to survive, people were worried about this, they were worried about housing because no body had a place to stay so they lived on streets so they could ask passere by if they could have some money to survive if nobody had food their health would be bad this is hwy people were worried, scared, sad and unfortunate.

Conclusion

These people were sad in being unemployed during the depression for such a long period of time these people managed to survive through this tromatic ? in 1929–33.

Byron, text 3. Generic (Schematic) Structure.

1. Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 was tromatic because you couldn't get a job for money
2. you had no food,
3. you don't have a house to live in,
4. your health was slowly deteiating, and you had no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed and nobody could work.

5. The stock market crash of 1929–33 which it was also known as the Great Depression to many people.
6. The depression scared and saddened the people who were around at this time,
7. people were worried because had to find a good job to support their family or them selves so they could have money, food, housing, clothes and good health,
8. if they found a good job it would help them a lot when things got worse.

9. Food was a problem also because they needed food to survive,
10. people were worried about this,
11. they were worried about housing because no body had a place to stay so they lived on streets so they could ask passere by if they could have some money to survive
12. if nobody had food their health would be bad
13. this is hwy people were worried, scared, sad and unfortunate.

14. These people were sad in being unemployed during the depression for such a long period of time these people managed to survive through this tromatic ? in 1929–33.

Analysis.

1. Thesis
2–4. Preview, no explicit connection with first part of sentence.

5. Topic sentence, no link to other parts of essay.
6. Topic sentence.
7–8. Elaboration.

9. Topic sentence
10–13. Elaboration


Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 3, Byron.

Generic (Schematic) Structure.

There is the definite beginning of a thesis in this essay and the conclusion attempts to reiterate the idea introduced in the thesis. A position has been taken in the introduction and an attempt is made to prove the position taken by the writer.

The thesis answers the question in a very simple manner. It was traumatic for people to be unemployed during the Depression. The argument then becomes more difficult to follow because of lack of an explicit conjunction. A series of three reasons are given, 'you have no food, you don't have a house to live in, your health was slowly deteititating' but there is no explicit link to the thesis.

The argument comes to an unexpected halt in no.6 when the issue of the Stock Market Crash is mentioned. It leaves the reader wondering where it is leading to. However, the threads are picked up again in no.7 when one learns that the Depression saddened people who were around then. There is one ambiguity at this point. Is Depression the same as unemployment? No connection has been explicitly made.

Nos. 9, 10, 11, 12 & 13 pick up the issue of food, housing and health again. This ties back to nos. 2, 3 & 4 with one elaboration. This time it is made explicit that these issues caused people a great deal of concern.
The final sentence promises to be a good conclusion when the thesis is reiterated. However, the second part of the sentence is incomplete and leaves the reader wondering about the outcome.

The argument used is that people were scared and reasons for their fright were given though not developed in sufficient details. In paragraph 4 the people were worried because they had to find a job but no mention or explanation is made as to what happened to their previous employment.

Although an attempt is made to relate the issues raised to the question [as in nos. 6, 7, 10 & 11] the causes are not made explicit. Effects of the depression are stated but there is an inability to develop the argument through realising cause and effect. Byron needs to be able to structure his argument and maintain continuity throughout the text.

**Organisation.**

This essay consists of five paragraphs – introduction, body and conclusion are clearly labelled. Paragraphs 1, 3, 4 and 5 each has a topic sentence followed by an elaboration. However, the elaboration does not in each case explicitly sustain the argument. In nos. 2, 3 & 4 there is no explicit link between having no food, house and deterioration of health.

Paragraph 2 is the odd one out. It is an incomplete sentence and has no obvious link to any other issue raised.
Paragraph 3 is a self-contained paragraph where an issue is raised, elaborated on and concluded simply. The Depression scared people who were worried as a result of their unemployment and thus were unable to provide for their families. The writer offers a possible solution, that is, employment would sort out their problems. However, no idea is given on how and where they could obtain employment.

Although paragraph 4 has a topic sentence and a concluding sentence, three issues are touched upon and none dealt with in sufficient details.

Lack of full stops to denote the end of a sentence boundary and the occasional lack of process render reading of the text difficult.

There is the need for Byron to be in control of organisation of his paragraphs for his essay to be user friendly. Focus on punctuation would assist on making the text easier to read.

*Byron, text 3. Analysis of themes.*

1. *Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33* was traumatic

2. *because you* couldn't get a job for money

3. *you* had no food,

4. *you* don't have a house to live in,

5. *your health* was slowly deteriorating,
6. and you had no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed

7. and nobody could work.

8. The stock market crash of 1929–33 which it was also known as the Great Depression to many people. No rhyme

9. The depression scared and saddened the people who were around at this time,

10. people were worried

11. because had to find a good job to support their family or themselves

12. so they could have money, food, housing, clothes and good health,

13. if they found a good job

14. it would help them a lot

15. when things got worse.

16. Food was a problem also

17. because they needed food to survive,

18. people were worried about this,

19. they were worried about housing

20. because no body had a place to stay
so they lived on streets

could ask passerby

could have some money to survive

had food

would be bad

is why people were worried, scared, sad and unfortunate.

were sad in being unemployed during the depression for such a long period of time these people managed to survive through this traumatic event in 1929–33.

Discussion of themes in text 3, Byron.

This text contains a total of twenty five themes, fourteen of which are topical, ten are a combination of textual and topical and one is a textual theme.

The unmarked themes 'Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33' provides a very good beginning to the essay. However, the momentum is not kept up as there is an immediate switch to 'people' as the method of development. Another marked theme which occurs in no. 8 is an incomplete sentence, lacking a rheme.

Emphasis on 'people' shows the method of development adopted. Nos. 2–6 use the personal pronoun 'you' as its point of departure, thereby directly addressing the reader. This choice is reminiscent of the spoken mode rather than a typical historical discourse.
'You' is switched to 'people' and the personal pronoun 'they' in nos. 10, 13, 17–19, 21–23 & 27. In nos. 7, 20 & 24 'nobody' is chosen as the point of departure. The predominance of this simple pattern of topical themes where 'people' are the actors shows that according to this text, historical discourse is still viewed as the 'story of people' [Egging, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

The ten themes where a combination of topical and textual themes is used follow a simple pattern. It relies on simple conjunctions to show the method of development. 'Because' is used thrice [in nos. 2, 17 & 20]; 'and' is used twice [in nos. 6–7]; 'so' is used in nos. 21–22; 'if' is used in nos. 13, 23 & 24. The choice of these textual themes is reflective of the spoken mode.

While the start indicates that the essay is going to be about 'Being unemployed' the writer proceeds to select 'people' as his point of departure, thus showing what happens to the people rather than the effects being unemployed had on them. If Byron had continued on the same pattern, the possibility of developing an argument consistent with the topic being discussed would have been greater.

Byron, text 3. Analysis of reference.

1. Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 was traumatic
2. because you [1] couldn't get a job for money
3. you [2] had no food,
4. you [3] don't have a house to live in,
5. your health [4] was slowly deteriorating,
6. and you [5] had no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed

8. The stock market crash of 1929–33 [7] which it was also known as the Great Depression to many people.
9. *The depression* [8] scared and saddened the people who were around at this time,
10. *people* [9] were worried
11. because had to find a good job to support their family or them selves
12. so *they* [10] could have money, food, housing, clothes and good health,
13. if *they* [11] found a good job
14. *it* [12] would help them a lot
15. when things got worse.

16. *Food* [13] was a problem also
17. because *they* [14] needed food to survive,
18. *people* [15] were worried about this,
19. *they* [16] were worried about housing
20. because *no body* [17] had a place to stay
21. so *they* [18] lived on streets
22. so *they* [19] could ask passere by
23. if *they* [20] could have some money to survive
24. if *nobody* [21] had food
25. their health would be bad
26. *this* [22] is hwy people were worried, scared, sad and unfortunate.

27. *These people* [23] were sad in being unemployed during the depression for such a long period of time these people managed to survive through this tromatic in 1929–33.

**Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 3, Byron.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctively relatable units</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>You</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>People</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td><em>(they)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion of reference in text 3, Byron.

[1]–[5] has, as its main reference the generic 'you' when the reader is being addressed directly. This could have the implication that the writer feels as if he is addressing his reader rather than writing for an unknown audience. The Stock Market crash ...' in [7] is continued in [8] when it is being referred to as the Depression. However, this is where this reference ends. The writer switches over to 'people' and the personal pronoun 'they' to carry the weight of the argument. There is the tendency to refrain from taking risks in introducing a more complex reference structure. 'People' is used, followed by 'they' to carry on the cohesive tie. The personal pronoun 'they' is used a few times and when it can get confusing, the previous referent 'people' or 'nobody' is used again. Byron reliance on the personal reference system shows that he has not yet gained the maturity to experiment with other reference systems.

Byron, text 3. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 was traumatic
2. because you couldn't get a job for money
3. you had no food,
4. you don't have a house to live in,
5. your health was slowly deteriorating,
6. and you had no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed
7. and nobody could work.

8. The stock market crash of 1929–33 which it was also known as the Great Depression to many people.

9. The depression scared and saddened the people who were around at this time,
10. people were worried
11. because had to find a good job to support their family or themselves
12. so they could have money, food, housing, clothes and good health,
13. if they found a good job
14. it would help them a lot
15. *when* things got worse.

16. Food was a problem also
17. *because* they needed food to survive,
18. people were worried about this,
19. they were worried about housing
20. *because* no body had a place to stay
21. *so* they lived on streets
22. *so* they could ask passere by
23. *if* they could have some money to survive
24. *if* nobody had food
25. their health would be bad
26. *this is hwy* people were worried, scared, sad and unfortunate.

27. These people were sad in being unemployed during the depression for such a long period of time these people managed to survive through this tronatic in 1929–33.
Discussion of conjunctions in text 3, Byron.

The only conjunctions used in this text are 'because', 'if' and 'so'. The former is used in nos. 2, 11, 17 & 20 and 'if' appears on three occasions [in nos. 13, 23 and 24]. 'so' is used in nos. 21–22. 'because' explains why being unemployed was traumatic, why people were worried, why they needed food. 'if' places a condition that if people found a job things would be better and if they did not have food their health would be bad. These three conjunctions are causal and are explicit.

The last conjunction appearing in the text is found in no. 27 and takes a slightly different form – 'this is hwy'.

The choice of the conjunctions in this particular text reveals that the writer is still operating at the latter end of the oral–written mode continuum. With a predominance of causal relations in this text the author is seen to operate at the congruent level.

Reliance on the limited variety of causal conjunctions demonstrate that the writer lacks the ability to use connectives effectively to show the logical development of his ideas.

Byron, text 3. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 was traumatic
2. because you couldn't get a job for money
3. you had no food,
4. you don't have a house to live in,
5. your health was slowly deteiating,
6. and you had no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed
7. and nobody could work.
8. *The stock market crash of 1929–33* which it was also known as the *Great Depression* to many people.

9. The depression scared and saddened the people who were around at this time,
10. people were worried
11. because had to find a good job to support their family or them selves
12. so they could have money, food, housing, clothes and good health,
13. if they found a good job
14. it would help them a lot
15. when things got worse.

16. Food was a problem also
17. because they needed food to survive,
18. people were worried about this,
19. they were worried about *housing*
20. because no body had a place to stay
21. so they lived on streets
22. so they could ask passere by
23. if they could have some money to survive
24. if nobody had food
25. their health would be bad
26. this is hwy people were worried, scared, sad and unfortunate.

27. These people were sad in being unemployed during *the depression* for such a long period of time these people managed to survive through this tromatic in 1929–33.

### Nominalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Being unemployed</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Depression of 1929–33</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. unemployed</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The Stock Market crash</td>
<td>setting in time of 1929–33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. the Great Depression</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. the depression</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. housing</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. the depression</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Byron, text 3. Analysis of participants.*

*Human Generic*

you
you
you
you
many people
the people
people
family
themselves
they
they
them
they
people
they
they
they
they
people
these people
these people

Human Specific

Non–human: time/place

the Depression of 1929–33
the stock market crash of 1929–33
it
the Great Depression of 1929–33
The Depression
this time
streets
during the Depression
for such a long period of time

Non–human: metaphorical

Being unemployed
the unemployed
your health

good health
good job
a problem
their health

Non–human: other: concrete

money
food
house
new clothes
money
Byron, text 3. Analysis of processes.

1. Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 was [1] traumatic
2. because you couldn't get [2] a job for money
3. you had [3] no food,
4. you don't have [4] a house to live in,
5. your health was [5] slowly deteiating [6],
6. and you had [7] no new clothes to go around to all the unemployed
7. and nobody could work. [8]

8. The stock market crash of 1929–33 which it was [9] also known as the Great Depression to many people.

9. The depression scared [10] and saddened [11] the people who were [12] around at this time,
10. people were worried [13]
11. because had [14] to find a good job to support their family or them selves
12. so they could have [15] money, food, housing, clothes and good health,
13. if they found [16] a good job
14. it would help [17] them a lot
15. when things got [18] worse.

16. Food was [19] a problem also
17. because they needed [20] food to survive,
18. people were worried [21] about this,
19. they were worried [22] about housing
20. because no body had [23] a place to stay
21. so they lived [24] on streets
22. so they could ask [25] passere by
23. if they could have [26] some money to survive
24. if nobody had [27] food
25. their health would be [28] bad
26. this is [29] hwy people were worried, scared, [30] sad and unfortunate.

27. These people were [30] sad in being unemployed during the depression for such a long period of time these people managed [31] to survive through this tromatic ? in 1929–33.

Material

8. could work
16. found
17. would help
Relational

1. was
2. couldn't get
3. had
4. don't have
5. was
6. was deteriorating
7. had
8. was
9. were
10. had
11. could have
12. got
13. was
14. needed
15. had
16. could have
17. had
18. would be
19. is

Mental

10. scared
11. saddened
12. were worried
13. were worried
14. were worried
15. were worried
16. were worried
17. were worried, scared
18. managed

Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 3, Byron.

There are relatively few nominalisations in this text. All but one of the nominalisations used emanate from the wording of the question [no. 19]. Nos. 1, 8, 9 & 27 are the same; no. 8 is a substitute of the Depression.
The only new nominalisations are 'Being unemployed' and 'housing'. 'Being unemployed' promises to be a good start to show the organisation of information in the text. Here an action has been nominalised into a Thing. The reader learns that unemployment was a traumatic experience for those alive then. However when 'Depression of 1929–33' is introduced in the text one loses sight of the main argument.

The focus now changes to the fact that it is the Depression that makes the people scared and sad. The text becomes increasingly congruent; it is about people who did things in real space and time. This is demonstrated in the analysis of participants where 'people' are the primary participants who act during the Depression in a particular place. There are few nominalisations where actions have been turned into Things, where Things are given existence which are characteristic of the notion of abstraction which is a feature of historical discourse [Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 1987, p.66].

The relational processes used in the present text are more reflective of a spoken mode. They do not attribute any qualities to the participants or identify them [nos. 2, 3 & 4]. There is an equal number of material and mental processes, though a closer examination will reveal that the mental processes are not varied. 'were worried' is used four times. Besides, mental processes are generally reflective of a narrative mode, though in this case the use of mental processes such as 'were worried' could be interpreted as an attempt to show how the unemployed felt.
The writer of this text is still operating at a concrete level. History to him seems to be more a story about people who do things in real time and space. Maximising the distance between what people did then and how it is presented is not yet within the grasp of this writer [Eggin, Martin and Wignell, 1987, p.90].

Byron, text 4.

How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War? What were some of the major arguments put forward by those who opposed U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War?

Vietnam Conflict

Introduction: Vietnam was tossed around between China, France and Japan. China took Vietnam in the North 111 B.C. and end it in 939 A.D. in 1802 Nguyen Anh united the country and called it Vietnam 1858 1883 France took control, during the war Japan to control and them back to France which in;

Body: 1946 war began between the French and the Vietminh, then in 1954 the Vietminh defeated the French and the Geneva conference divided Vietnam into two nations North and South, three years later 1957 North Vietnamese communists attacked villages in South Vietnam the fighting developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.

1964 the US military forces entered Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.

President Johnson authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam, in 1961 the total amount of military forces is 3,164 and had increased by 430,000 in 1967.

President Johnson also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists, the US military forces went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea they are commited by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of aggression in Southeast Asia"

The South Vietnamese people living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26,900 in the last 32 months.

During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids were approximatly 64 daily this went on none stop, people around the world oposed the Vietnam conflict aspecialy the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war they burn't down building and protested.
Ngo Dinh diem was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963 he talked buy never listened; he looked but never saw he was a man who had good and bag sides to him, Ho Chi Minh was president of the communists party in North Vietnam he went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

During the Vietnam conflict the Americal used 'napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.

Conclusion: After the French were defeated by Vietminh in 1954 the US became a major influence in the ares and by 1968 morer that half a million were fighting in South Vietnam they were heavily armed, Americas participation in Vietnam ended in 1973, the Vietnam conflict ended on April 30th 1975 when South Vietnam surrendered to the communists.

Byron, text 4. **Generic (Schematic) Structure.**

1. Vietnam was tosed around between China, France and Japan.
2. China took Vietnam in the North 111 B.C. and end it in 939 A.D.
3. in 1802 Nguyer Anh united the country and called it Vietnam
4. 1858 1883 France took control, during the war Japan to control and them back to France which in;
5. 1946 war began between the French and the Vietminh,
6. then in 1954 the Vietminh defeated the French and the Geneva conference divided Vietnam into two nations North and South,
7. three years later 1957 North Vietnamese communists attacked villages in South Vietnam
8. the fighting developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.
9. 1964 the US military forces entered Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.
10. President Johnson authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam, 
11. in 1961 the total amount of military forces is 3,164 and had increased by 430,000 in 1967.
12. President Johnson also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists,
13. the US military forces went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea
14. they are comitted by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of agression in Southeast Asia"
15. The South Vietnamese people living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26.900 in the last 32 months.

181
During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids were approximately 64 daily.

This went on none stop,

people around the world oposed the Vietnam conflict aspecialy the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war

they burn't down building and protested.

Ngo Dinh diem was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963

he talked buy never listened; he looked but never saw he was a man who had good and bag sides to him,

Ho Chi Minh was president of the communists party in North Vietnam

he went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

During the Vietnam conflict the Americal used 'napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.

After the French were defeated by Vietminh in 1954 the US became a major influence in the ares and by 1968 morer that half a million were fighting in South Vietnam

they were heavily armed,

Americas participation in Vietnam ended in 1973, the Vietnam conflict ended on April 30th 1975 when South Vietnam surrended to the communists.

Analysis.

1. Topic sentence
  2–4 Elaboration
  5. Topic sentence
  6–8 Elaboration
  9. Thesis [no preview]
  10. Topic sentence
  11. Elaboration
  12. Topic sentence
  13–14 Elaboration
  15. Elaboration – effects of conflict, could possibly link back to 5.
  16. Topic sentence
  17. Elaboration
  18. Topic sentence – relate to second part of question.
  19. Elaboration of 18
  20. Topic sentence – new information, no link to other part of essay.
  21. Elaboration
  22. Topic sentence – no link to other aspects of essay.
  23. Elaboration of 22.
Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 4, Byron.

Generic (Schematic) Structure

The thesis in this text is not mentioned till paragraph 3 and is not accompanied by a preview. The first section of the essay [paragraphs 2 and 3] merely provides background information on what happened before U.S. involvement in Vietnam.

Instead of providing a logical development of an argument which answers the question, a chronological sequence of events is given. The argument presented in this essay can be summarised as follows:

- background, leading up to conflict
- U.S. involvement
- Why [no.10]
- death of south vietnamese killed/as result of conflict
- bombing raids
- operation
- Diem's part
- type of bomb
- U.S. --> major influence

Nos. 9, 10 & 11 deal directly with the question. A thesis is stated with a lengthy elaboration. However, the connection to America's presence in Korea and the SEATO act is unclear.
Although No. 18 refers to the second part of the question, the answer is not satisfactory. The reader is told who opposed U.S. involvement in Vietnam, not what the arguments were.

The conclusion presented in paragraph 10 merely sums up the sequence of events discussed in the essay. No argument is given, no interpretation is made and no opinion is presented.

Byron demonstrates an inability to link up the ideas presented [paragraph 8 stands by itself with no connection to other sections of the essay and paragraph 9 should have been attached to nos. 16–17].

The writer of this text is aware of the question and has sufficient information at his command. However, he is unable to argue logically and give reasons as to how U.S. justified its involvement in Vietnam. This is merely touched upon [nos. 9–11]. The focus is on who were involved, what happened and not on the reasons for the sequence of events. Minimum attempt has been made to realise cause and effect. Thus, the writer reveals that he sees the discourse of history as the story of people and events which happened instead of the more commonly accepted view that history is about 'people + event+ interpretation' [Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

**Organisation.**

The essay consists of ten paragraphs. The organisation of each of these is not consistent through the text. Seven of the paragraphs in the text have a topic sentence, followed by
an elaboration. Paragraph 3 has a topic sentence with no elaboration and paragraphs 6 and 9 are mere elaborations with no topic sentence preceding them.

Paragraphs 1, 2 and 10 are well structured where the elaboration offers further explanation of what is introduced in the topic sentence.

Paragraph 3 offers the thesis without the support of a preview.

No. 18 which is located half way through paragraph 7 should have begun a new section as it deals with the second part of the question.

The section introducing the information about Ngo Dinh Diem and Ho Chi Minh should have been treated in separate paragraphs instead of being packed together.

There is an insufficient usage of conventional punctuation in the text, specially full stops to indicate the end of one sentence and the beginning of a new one. Consequently, the text is difficult to read [Paragraph 2, 5]. Often, a comma is used where it would have been more appropriate to use a full stop [nos. 12, 15 & 26] and sometimes no punctuation is used to indicate the end of a sentence [nos. 13, 16 & 20].

Sentence structure in Byron's text is sometimes inadequate. The sentence is packed with information and offers little indication to show the connection between ideas presented [nos. 12–13].

There is an attempt at structuring the paragraphs according to the format generally accepted in written discourse. Byron is aware of the purpose of topic sentences and
elaboration. However, he is not consistent in its use and is sometimes confused as he comes across some information which he feels should be included [paragraph 8]. Lack of consistency in punctuation renders it extremely difficult for the reader to follow the line of argument presented and to link up ideas and issues raised. There is also the tendency to overload a paragraph with different ideas, hence the reader is more likely to lose track of the argument. Byron should learn to differentiate between arguments and examples/elaboration.

*Byron, text 4. Analysis of themes.*

1. **Vietnam** was tossed around between China, France and Japan.
2. **China** took Vietnam in the North 111 B.C.
3. **and** end it in 939 A.D.
4. **in 1802 Nguyen Anh** united the country
5. **and** called it Vietnam
6. **1858-1883 France** took control, during the war Japan to control and them back to France which in;
7. **1946 war** began between the French and the Vietminh,
8. **then in 1954 the Vietminh** defeated the French
9. **and the Geneva conference** divided Vietnam into two nations North and South,
10. **three years later 1957 1957 North Vietnamese Communists** attacked villages in South Vietnam
11. *the fighting* developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.

12. *1964 the US military forces* entered Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.

13. *President Johnson* authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam.

14. *in 1961 the total amount of military forces* is 3,164

15. *and* had increased by 430,000 in 1967.

16. *President Johnson* also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists.

17. *the US military forces* went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea.

18. *they* are committed by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of aggression in Southeast Asia"

19. *The South Vietnamese people* living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26,900 in the last 32 months.

20. *During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids* were approximately 64 daily.

21. *this* went on none stop,
people around the world oposed the Vietnam conflict aspecialy the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war

they burn't down building and protested.

Ngo Dinh diem was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963

he talked buy never listened;

he looked but never saw

he was a man who had good and bag sides to him,

Ho Chi Minh was president of the communists party in North Vietnam

he went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

During the Vietnam conflict the Americal used 'napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.

After the French were defeated by Vietminh

in 1954 the US became a major influence in the ares

and by 1968 morer that half a million were fighting in South Vietnam

they were heavily armed,

Americas participation in Vietnam ended in 1973,
36. **the Vietnam conflict** ended on April 30th 1975

37. **when South Vietnam** surrendered to the communists.

**Discussion of themes in text 4, Byron.**

Out of the thirty seven themes identified in Byron's text, twenty-one are straightforward topical themes and ten are marked themes. In contrast there are very few textual themes.

Two striking observations can be made from the analysis of the themes in this text. First of all, there is a very high proportion of marked themes [nos. 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14, 20, 20, 30 & 32]. In addition, seven of these use a time sequence [nos. 4, 6, 10, 12, 14]. These two factors demonstrate that this text is a recount, not an expository essay.

The writer adopts as his method of development war and related themes [nos. 7, 11, 12, 17, 20, 30 & 36]. What is being put forward as being important is the fact that the Americans and the Vietnamese fought in wars and not the actual reasons for the fighting. The question asked for arguments and reasons, not a recount.

The remaining themes deal with people. Once again the points of departure in these sentences shows that people and events are considered important, thus lending the text the flavour of a recount rather than an interpretative essay.

**Byron, text 4. Analysis of reference.**

1. *Vietnam* [1] was tossed around between China, France and Japan.
3. and end it in 939 A.D.
4. in 1802 *Nguyer Anh* [3] united the country
5. and called it Vietnam
6. 1858 1883 France [4] took control, during the war Japan to control and them back to France which in;

7. 1946 war [5] began between the French and the Vietminh,
8. then in 1954 the Vietminh [6] defeated the French and the South
10. three years later 1957 North Vietnamese communists [8] attacked villages in South Vietnam
11. the fighting [9] developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.

12. 1964 the US military [10] entered Vietnam to protect forces the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.

13. President Johnson [11] authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam,
14. in 1961 the total amount of military forces [12] is 3,164
15. and had increased by 430,000 in 1967.

16. President Johnson [13] also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non–communists,
17. the US military forces [14] went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea
18. they [15] are comitted by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of agression in Southeast Asia"

19. The South Vietnamese people [16] living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26.900 in the last 32 months.

20. During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids [17] were approximatly 64 daily
21. this [18] went on none stop,
22. people around the world [19] oposed the Vietnam conflict aspecialy the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war

24. Ngo Dinh diem [21] was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963
25. he [22] talked buy never listened;
26. he looked but never saw
27. he was a man who had good and bag sides to him,
28. Ho Chi Minh [23] was president of the communists party in North Vietnam
29. he [24] went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

30. During the Vietnam conflict the Americal [25] used 'napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.
31. After the French were defeated by Vietminh in 1954
32. the US [26] became a major influence in the area
33. and by 1968 more than half a million were fighting in South Vietnam
34. they [27] were heavily armed,
35. America's participation [28] in Vietnam ended in 1973,
36. the Vietnam conflict ended on April 30th 1975
37. when South Vietnam surrendered to the communists.

Reference chain of the most significant elements in text 4, Byron

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctively relatable units</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>U.S. military forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>the Americans bombing raids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>people around the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Ngo Dinh diem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Ho Chi Minh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion of reference in text 4, Byron.

The main pattern of reference in this text has to do with war. First mention is made in
[5] and this is again taken up in [9] where it is referred to as "fighting". The theme of war
continues as "military forces" in [12], [14], [17] and [34]. Although an analysis of the text
reveals that lexical cohesion of the text occurs through the theme of war, the writer makes
no attempt in linking it up through the reference system. Only on one occasion is the
personal pronoun 'they' used to refer back to 'the U.S. military forces'. Otherwise the
term 'military forces' is referred to in full.
Anaphoric reference in the theme is evident only on five occasions [19–20], [21–21], [23–26], [27–28], [29–33]. In each case the reference is to the clause immediately preceding it. The writer does not seem prepared to take risks with his choice of references. He abides by a very straightforward pattern of reference. He abides by a very straightforward pattern of reference by referring to what has gone immediately before. It is mainly people or concrete topics that tend to form part of his reference system. Few nominalised references appear in Byron’s texts. Consequently, the discourse of history is still being handled at a concrete level.

**Byron, text 4. Analysis of conjunctions.**

1. Vietnam was tossed around between China, France and Japan.
2. China took Vietnam in the North 111 B.C.
3. **and** end it in 939 A.D.
4. in 1802 Nguyen Anh united the country
5. **and** called it Vietnam
6. 1858 1883 France took control, during the war Japan to control and them back to France which in;

7. 1946 war began between the French and the Vietminh,
8. **then** in 1954 the Vietminh defeated the French
9. **and** the Geneva conference divided Vietnam into two nations North and South,
10. **three years later** 1957 North Vietnamese communists attacked villages in South Vietnam
11. the fighting developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.
12. 1964 the US military forces entered Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.

13. President Johnson authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam,
14. in 1961 the total amount of military forces is 3,164
15. **and** had increased by 430,000 in 1967.

16. President Johnson also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists,
17. the US military forces went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea
18. they are committed by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of aggression in Southeast Asia"

19. The South Vietnamese people living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26,900 in the last 32 months.

20. **During** the wars duration the Americans bombing raids were approximately 64 daily
21. **this** went on none stop,
22. people around the world oposed the Vietnam conflict aspecialy the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war
23. they burn't down building and protested.

24. Ngo Dinh diem was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963
25. he talked buy never listened;
26. he looked but never saw
27. he was a man who had good and bag sides to him,
28. Ho Chi Minh was president of the communists party in North Vietnam
29. he went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

30. **During** the Vietnam conflict the Americal used `napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.

31. **After** the French were defeated by Vietminh in 1954
32. the US became a major influence in the ares
33. **and** by 1968 morer that half a million were fighting in South Vietnam
34. they were heavily armed,
35. Americas participation in Vietnam ended in 1973,
36. the Vietnam conflict ended on April 30th 1975
37. **when** South Vietnam surrended to the communists.

1. exp.
2. exp.
3. additive 'and'
4. exp.
5. additive 'and'
6. exp.
7. exp.
8. additive 'then'
9. exp.
10. additive 'and'
11. exp.
12. additive 'three years later'

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Discussion of conjunctions in text 4, Byron.

Additive and temporal conjunctions are exclusively used to show the logical development of ideas in this text. Additive conjunctions in this text serve no major purpose as the sentence in which they appear could have been more effectively structured without recourse to such conjunctions [nos.3 & 5].

The temporal conjunctions merely signal the narrative development of the text, 'then, during, after, when'. Such a choice of conjunctions is in keeping with the recount nature of the text. The writer provides us with a chronological sequence of events rather than an expository text where the logical sequence of events is demonstrated through the use of logical connections.

There is the tendency to rely on relative clauses to show possible logical connections in the text [nos. 16–19]. Once again this usage is more reminiscent of narrative and spoken discourse rather than argumentative writing.
The nature of conjunctions used in Byron's text shows that he is working closer to the oral end of the oral/spoken mode continuum. Logical connections are coded between clauses rather than in words and structures within the clauses themselves. Byron is not making effective use of conjunctions to show connections between the ideas expressed in his text.

Byron, text 4. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. Vietnam was tossed around between China, France and Japan.
2. China took Vietnam in the North 111 B.C.
3. and end it in 939 A.D.
4. in 1802 Nguyen Anh united the country
5. and called it Vietnam
6. 1858-1883 France took control, during the war Japan to control and them back to France which in;
7. 1946 war began between the French and the Vietminh,
8. then in 1954 the Vietminh defeated the French
9. and the Geneva conference divided Vietnam into two nations North and South,
10. three years later 1957 North Vietnamese communists attacked villages in South Vietnam
11. the fighting developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.
12. 1964 the US military forces entered Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.
13. President Johnson authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam,
14. in 1961 the total amount of military forces is 3,164
15. and had increased by 430,000 in 1967.
16. President Johnson also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists,
17. the US military forces went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea
18. they are committed by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of aggression in Southeast Asia"
19. The South Vietnamese people living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26,900 in the last 32 months.
20. During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids were approximatly 64 daily
21. this went on none stop,
22. people around the world opposed the Vietnam conflict especially the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war
23. they burned down building and protested.

24. Ngo Dinh diem was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963
25. he talked but never listened;
26. he looked but never saw
27. he was a man who had good and bad sides to him,
28. Ho Chi Minh was president of the communists party in North Vietnam
29. he went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

30. During the Vietnam conflict the Americans used 'napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.

31. After the French were defeated by Vietminh in 1954
32. the US became a major influence in the area
33. and by 1968 more than half a million were fighting in South Vietnam
34. they were heavily armed,
35. America's participation in Vietnam ended in 1973,
36. the Vietnam conflict ended on April 30th 1975
37. when South Vietnam surrendered to the communists.

Nominalisation | Description
--- | ---
6. control | action into Thing
11. fighting | action into Thing
12. conflict | action into Thing
13. use, activities, | action into Thing
13. offensive operations | action into Thing
18. aggression | action into Thing
19. bombing raids | action into Thing
20. duration | action into Thing
22. building | action into Thing
22. conflict | action into Thing
22. protesters | action into Thing
30. conflict | action into Thing
31. influence | action into Thing
34. participation | making things act
36. conflict | action into Thing

Byron, text 4. Analysis of participants.

Human Generic

the french
the Vietminh
the Vietminh
the French
two nations
North Vietnamese communists
the U.S. military forces
the South Vietnamese
north Vietnamese communists
U.S. military forces
the U.S. military forces
U.S. forces
South Vietnamese
U.S. military forces
they
the South Vietnamese people
the Vietcong
North Vietnamese
Americans
people
the hippies
the protesters
people
they
man
the French
vietminh

Human Specific

Nguyer Anh
President Johnson
President Johnson
Ngo Dinh Diem
the president of South Vietnam
he; he; he;
Ho Chi Minh
President of the Communists Party
he
the American

Non-human: time/place

Vietnam
between China, France, Japan
China
Vietnam
in the north
111 B.C.
939 B.C.
in 1802
the country
it
Vietnam
1858–1883
France
during the war
Japan
France
1946
war
in 1954
3 years later
villages in South Vietnam
between North and South Vietnam
1946
Vietnam
in south Vietnam
in 1961
in 1967
on the 10th January 1967
into Vietnam
into Vietnam
America
into Korea
in Southeast Asia
in the countryside
in the last 32 months
around the world
from 1955–1963
in North Vietnam
South Vietnam
in 1954
the U.S.
by 1968

*Non-human: metaphorical*

the fighting
the Vietnam conflict
the North Vietnamese regime
the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces
the activities of offensive operations
the reason
the South Vietnamese right to stay communists
the common danger if aggression
During the wars duration
the Vietnam conflict
in peace and not war
a communist state
During the Vietnam conflict
a major influence in the area
two nations North and South
the total amount of military forces
3,164
43 0000
a speech
to congress
on the same ground
Seato act
the American bombing raids
this
building
napalm bombs

Analysis of processes in text 4, Byron.

1. Vietnam was tossed [1] around between China, France and Japan.
3. and end [3] it in 939 A.D.
4. in 1802 Nguyen Anh united [4] the country
5. and called [5] it Vietnam
6. 1858 1883 France took control [6], during the war Japan to control and
them back to France which in;
7. 1946 war began [7] between the French and the Vietminh,
8. then in 1954 the Vietminh defeated [8] the French
9. and the Geneva conference divided [9] Vietnam into two nations North and
South,
10. three years later 1957 North Vietnamese communists attacked [10] villages
in South Vietnam
11. the fighting developed [11] into the Vietnam conflict between North and
South Vietnam.
12. 1964 the US military forces entered [12] Vietnam to protect the South
Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.
to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam,
14. in 1961 the total amount of military forces is [14] 3,164
15. and had increased [15] by 430,000 in 1967.
16. President Johnson also delivered [16] a speech to congress on the 10th
January 1967 which stated [17] the reason US forces were sent [18] into Vietnam
to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists,
17. the US military forces went [19] into Vietnam on the same ground which
America also went [20] into Korea
18. they are comitted [21] by the SEATO act which states [22] that "to act to
meet the common danger of agression in Southeast Asia"
19. The South Vietnamese people living in the country side which had been killed [23] or kidnapped [24] by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was [25] 26,900 in the last 32 months.

20. During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids were [26] approximatly 64 daily
21. this went [27] on none stop,
22. people around the world opposed [28] the Vietnam conflict aspecialy the hippies the protesters people who believed [29] in peace and not war
23. they burnt [30] down building and protested. [31]

24. Ngo Dinh diem was [32] the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963
25. he talked [33] buy never listened; [34]
26. he looked [35] but never saw [36]
27. he was [37] a man who had [38] good and bad sides to him,
28. Ho Chi Minh was [39] president of the communists party in North Vietnam
29. he went [40] to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.


31. After the French were defeated [45] by Vietminh in 1954
32. the US became [46] a major influence in the ares
33. and by 1968 morer that half a million were fighting [47] in South Vietnam
34. they were [48] heavily armed,
35. Americas participation in Vietnam ended [49] in 1973,
36. the Vietnam conflict ended [50] on April 30th 1975
37. when South Vietnam surrendered [51] to the communists.

Material

1. tossed
2. took
3. end
4. united
5. called
6. took control
8. defeated
9. divided
10. attacked
12. entered
13. authorised
15. had increased
18. were sent
19. went
20. went
21. were committed
23. had been killed
Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 4, Byron.

This text is highly congruent, with relatively few nominalisations. The first instance of abstract language appearing in the text [no. 6] makes a 'Thing' act whereas most of the
nominalisations remain at the first phase described by Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1987] as turning 'actions and events into Things'. There is little attempt to make 'things' act which is a generally accepted feature of the abstract language of historical discourse. Such a use can help the writer develop a more interpretative approach to the creation of his text. In no. 11 the writer is successful in his use of incongruent language, 'The fighting developed into the Vietnam conflict.' This reveals that he is able to use abstract language. However, he is unable to maintain the effort through the duration of the text. Byron needs to build up more confidence in using abstract language in creation of an expository essay. An awareness of the purpose of and results of such a use would be of benefit in assisting him with his writing development.

The choice of participants and processes in the text demonstrates that Byron is still writing at a recount level where the focus is on Human generic participants who act in a specific time and place. There is a total of 27 Human Generic participants, 42 non-human: time/place. Such a choice leads the argument in a specific direction and thus the reader is faced with a text which tells him what groups of people did in a certain period of time and in a fixed place.

Consequently processes chosen demonstrate that the participants are engaged in material activities. 28 material processes used all tell the reader what the participants are doing - 'spalshes, burns, kidnapped'. Such actions are a generally well accepted feature of narrative or recount texts. The 4 mental processes reveal the mental state of the participants; and the relational processes rely on the 'verb' to be to show its relationship with other aspects of the text. A small attempt at a more sophisticated choice is apparent in nos. 11, 21 & 46.
On the whole the analysis reveals that Byron has started expressing himself in abstract language though he is unable to sustain this effort throughout the essay. On most occasions he is still operating at a concrete level. His organisation of the experience in terms of processes and participants shows that he views historical discourse as the story of people, events which happened in the past to people in a set period of time and place.

However, there are glimpses where his writing shows traces of incongruent expressions. His use of nominalisations in nos. 11 & 13 is one such example. Byron's shortcoming emerges in his choice of participants and processes. Taken together, minimal use of nominalisations and choice of participants and processes fail to distance the text from its field activities and generalise them. Although the text will still be classified as a congruent one, it is a step closer to the written end of the oral/spoken mode continuum.

*Byron, text 5.*

Sparta's agoge or education system was introduced to make the Spartiates the best soldiers in Greece. Why was this necessary?

31 October 1990

Introduction: Spartan education was introduced after they were defeated by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the helots, slaves to the spartans the helots are the people of Laconia and Messenia which the spartan defeated when they invaded Greece.

Body: Spartan education didn't consist of maths or science and History or Geography it really focused on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show obedience and courage.

From the ages 0–7 the Spartan children were brought up by nurses not by their mothers if a baby was sick or had no limb they were left to die on a hill by the tribe elders, at the age of 7 all the spartan boys were removed from home and were taken to communal barracks in the begining they were split up into companies and then split up into platoons the platoon captain was to organised them each day.

The punishment was done by a paidonomos or warden he had ?? were appointed to him they were 18 yr olds they had whips but for only to punish the troble makers.
They were taught to be brave not to cry or sulk and if they did no one would come and help them also they would not get scared if they were left in a dark places.

The ages 7–8 they were taught and trained to be spartan heroes they wore tunics with no shoes they only had one tunic.

The second stage of spartan education was when you turned 12–18 their education become more disciplined and harsh because even in winter they only had one tunic this tunic would have be thicker because winter in Greece was very cold and they slept on rushes which was not very comftable the got them from the rivers edge which they cut their hands getting the rushes which gave them tough skin they were given very little food and were taught to live of the land some stole off the estate which was good practice but if a boy was caught stealing he would be whipped and given even less rations.

Also the second stage was consisted of taking part in various contests and competitions and they also had music and dance performed by the women.

Spartan education was harsh for the reason to produce the best warriors but the spartans thought this was adequate because all their kife they were bought up to be warriors.

**Byron, text 5. Generic (Schematic) Structure.**

1. Spartan education was introduced after they were defeated by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the helots, slaves to the spartans
2. the helots are the people of Laconia and Messenia which the spartan defeated when they invaded Greece.
3. Spartan education didn't consist of maths or science and History or Geography
4. it really focused on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show obedience and courage.
5. From the ages 0–7 the Spartan children were brought up by nurses not by their mothers
6. if a baby was sick or had no limb they were left to die on a hill by the tribe elders,
7. at the age of 7 all the spartan boys were removed from home and were taken to communal barracks
8. in the begining they were split up into companies and then split up into platoons
9. the platoon captain was to organised them each day.
10. The punishment was done by a paidonomos or warden
11. he had ?? were appointed to him
12. they were 18 yr olds
13. they had whips but for only to punish the troble makers.
14. They were taught to be brave not to cry or sulk and if they did no one would come and help them.
15. also they would not get scared if they were left in a dark places.
16. The ages 7-8 they were tought and trained to be spartan heroes
17. they wore tunics with no shoes
18. they only had one tunic.
19. The second stage of spartan education was when you turned 12-18
20. their education become more disciplined and harsh because even in winter
   they only had one tunic
21. this tunic would have be thicker because winter in Greece was very cold
   and they slept on rushes which was not very comftable
22. the got them from the rivers edge which they cut their hands getting the
   rushes which gave them tough skin
23. they were given very little food and were taught to live of the land
24. some stole off the estate which was good practice but if a boy was caught
   stealing he would be whipped and given even less rations.
25. Also the second stage was consisted of taking part in various contests and
   competitions and they also had music and dance performed by the women.
26. Spartan education was harsh for the reason to produce the best warriors
27. but the spartans thought this was adequate because all their kife they were
   bought up to be warriors.

Analysis.

1. Topic sentence
2. Elaboration
3. Topic sentence
4. Elaboration
5–9. No topic sentence, stages of Spartan education listed out
10. Topic sentence
11–13. Elaboration
10–13. No link to other parts of essay
14–15. Elaboration, with no link to question
16. Topic sentence, echoing first part of question
17–18. Elaboration
19. Topic sentence
20–24. Elaboration
25. Elaboration, linking to no.19
26. Thesis
27. Elaboration – no preview
Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 5, Byron.

**Generic (Schematic) Structure**

The thesis does not appear till the very last paragraph. Even then it does not state why it was necessary for the Spartan Education to produce the best soldiers in Greece. Rather, Byron is showing his reader why the system was harsh. Although an argument is raised in the text, there is a misunderstanding of what the question calls for. The pattern of his argument is as follows:

1. when Spartan education was introduced [nos. 1 & 2]
2. what it consisted of [nos. 3 & 4]
3. stages of Spartan education [nos. 5–8]
4. punishment [nos. 10–13]
5. what they were taught [nos. 14 & 15]
6. 2nd stage [nos. 19–25]
7. it was harsh [26, 27]

The whole text hints at the fact that Spartan education was harsh and it is only in the last paragraph that this reference is made explicit. It was harsh so they could produce the best soldiers and such a system was acceptable because they were used to it all their life.

There is no attempt to show why it was necessary to produce the best soldiers. It appears that Byron has the necessary information available but is unable to shape an appropriate argument. He spends a fair proportion of time explaining when, what, how instead on focusing why? to what purpose? He does seem to be hovering around the periphery of the question but the main emphasis still eludes him. If the conclusion had formed part
of the thesis the argument presented could have taken a direction that was more appropriate to the question being discussed.

**Organisation**

There are nine paragraphs in this text. Some paragraphs are well structured with the topic sentence introducing an argument and the second part of the paragraph providing the necessary elaboration. Paragraph two is such an example where the reader is told what Spartan education focused on.

However, in some cases the paragraphs consist of a topic sentence but the writer is unable to keep the focus on the desired element. Paragraph one informs the reader when Spartan education was introduced and the second part of the paragraph brings the focus on the helots, thus wandering on a different track. There is no foregrounding of this.

Paragraph six is an example where the topic sentence is clearly presented but the rest of the paragraph becomes confusing and is clumsily structured.

There is an inability on Byron's part to sustain an argument across the whole text, or even through one paragraph. There is some confusion between the use of a topic sentence and elaboration [nos. 5–9]. Here one is given a time sequence of what happens during the first stage of Spartan education. Byron tends to rely on giving explanation of when, what, how instead of focusing on how, to what purpose.

The analysis reveals that the student has all the information required but does not possess the necessary linguistic resources to structure the essay adequately. He is aware of the
structure of an essay as is evident in his use of 'second stage', 'also'. However, there is an element of difficulty in coming to grips with the essay. The focus should be on why it was necessary for Sparta to produce a race of soldiers and not why the education system was so harsh. Byron fails to make the connection between the two factors. This could be due to a misunderstanding of the question.

_Byron, text 5. Analysis of Themes._

1. Spartan education was introduced

2. after they were defeated by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the helots, slaves to the spartans

3. the helots are the people of Laconia and Messenia

4. which the spartan defeated

5. when they invaded Greece.

6. Spartan education didn't consist of maths or science and History or Geography

7. it really focused on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show obedience and courage.

8. From the ages 0-7 the Spartan children were brought up by nurses not by their mothers

9. if a baby was sick or had no limb

10. they were left to die on a hill by the tribe elders,

11. at the age of 7 all the spartan boys were removed from home
were taken to communal barracks

were split up into companies

then split up into platoons

was to organised them each day.

was done by a paidonomos or warden

were appointed to him

were 18 yr olds

had whips but for only to punish the troble makers.

were taught to be brave not to cry or sulk

did

would come and help them

would not get scared

were left in a dark places.

were tought

trained to be spartan heroes

wore tunics with no shoes

only had one tunic.
The second stage of Spartans education was when you turned 12-18.

Their education became more disciplined and harsh because even in winter they only had one tunic.

This tunic would have been thicker because winter in Greece was very cold.

And they slept on rushes which was not very comfortable.

They got them from the river's edge.

Which they cut their hands getting the rushes.

Which gave them tough skin.

They were given very little food.

And were taught to live off the land.

Some stole off the estate which was good practice.

But if a boy was caught stealing he would be whipped.

And given even less rations.

Also the second stage was consisted of taking part in various contests and competitions.
also had music and dance performed by the women.

was harsh

to produce the best warriors

thought this was adequate

were bought up to be warriors.

Discussion of themes in text 5, Byron.

The two main methods of development adopted in this text are:

1. Spartan education/ stages of spartan education

   [nos. 1, 6, 7, 29, 30, 44 & 46]

2. Spartan children/ spartan boys/ they

   [nos. 6, 7–10, 18–28, 34–42]

From the choice of themes it becomes apparent that the writer will be focusing on the stages of education of boys in Sparta. The simple temporal and sequential structure of the essay offers a very cohesive text. However, the method of development does not answer the question which asked 'Why was it necessary' for the Spartan education to produce the best soldiers in Greece. There are no marked signs of developing arguments and there is very little in the way of abstractions.
The thematic constituents selected by Byron are mainly topical themes and a few simple textual themes. In this text the topical themes reflect the subject of the clauses and point to the focus being of the stages of education. This choice does provide cohesiveness in the text but does not present the argument sought from the question set. The textual themes [nos. 9, 21–24, 31, 41, 44, & 48] do not encode logical relations between the clauses. They are more common to spoken discourse rather than written discourse [Halliday and Hasan, 1976]. While Byron is reaching the stage where he starts to present a stronger argument than in his previous work, his choice of themes still fails to make the exact link with the question. He needs to be aware of what the task requires of him before framing his argument. A knowledge of the use of logical relations or textual themes as his method of development would help to channel his argument in the right direction.

Byron, text 5. Analysis of reference.

1. **Spartan education** [1] was introduced
2. after they were defeated by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the helots, slaves to the spartans
3. **the helots** [2] are the people of Laconia and Messenia
4. which the spartan defeated

6. **Spartan education** [4] didn't consist of maths or science and History or Geography
7. *it* [5] really focused on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show obedience and courage.

8. From the ages 0–7 **the Spartan children** [6] were brought up by nurses not by their mothers
9. if *a baby* [7] was sick or had no limb
10. they were left to die on a hill by the tribe elders,
11. at the age of 7 *all the spartan boys* [8] were removed from home
12. and were taken to communal barracks
13. in the begining **they** [9] were split up into companies
14. and then split up into platoons
15. **the platoon captain** [10] was to organised them each day.
16. The punishment [11] was done by a paidonomos or warden
17. he [12] had ?? were appointed to him
18. they [13] were 18 yr olds
19. they [14] had whips but for only to punish the trouble makers.

20. They [15] were taught to be brave not to cry or sulk
21. and if they [16] did
22. no one would come and help them
23. also they [17] would not get scared
24. if they [18] were left in a dark places.

25. The ages 7–8 they [19] were taught
26. and trained to be spartan heroes
27. they [20] wore tunics with no shoes
28. they [21] only had one tunic.

29. The second stage of spartan education [22] was when you turned 12–18
30. their education [23] become more disciplined and harsh
31. because even in winter they [24] only had one tunic
32. this tunic [25] would have be thicker
33. because winter [26] in Greece was very cold
34. and they [27] slept on rushes which was not very comfortable
35. the [28] got them from the rivers edge
36. which they [29] cut their hands getting the rushes
37. which gave them tough skin
38. they [30] were given very little food
39. and were taught to live of the land
40. some [30] stole off the estate which was good practice
41. but if a boy [31] was caught stealing
42. he [32] would be whipped
43. and given even less rations.

44. Also the second stage [33] was consisted of taking part in various contests and competitions
45. and they also had music and dance performed by the women.

46. Spartan education [34] was harsh
47. for the reason to produce the best warriors
48. but the spartans [35] thought this was adequate
49. because all their life they were bought up to be warriors.
Reference chain of the most significant elements in text 5, Byron

Conjunctively relatable units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spartan education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Spartan education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spartan children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Spartan children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–25. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34–36. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the platoon captain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. the platoon captain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. a boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spartans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. the Spartans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion of reference in text 5, Byron.

An analysis of reference occurring in the themes in Byron's text 5 reveals that two main reference systems are used, that is Spartan children. There are other subsidiary references such as 'Spartan education, a boy, the Spartans'. Within the boundaries of these two themes the reference system is binding across the text, with occasional lapses where some confusion arises. In [12], one is left guessing who 'he' refers to. Is it the platoon...
captain, or the warden? More confusion results in the choice of `they' in [13] & [14]. The reader has to decide whether `they' refers back to the warden or the boys mentioned in [8]. [15] starts a series of `they' that goes back to `spartan children'.

Thus, while a degree of cohesion is established through the choice of reference, the writer has still not developed sufficient proficiency in using the reference system to link up ideas across sentence boundary and across the text. The reference pattern used by Byron is at the initial stage when he is referring back to the preceding clause. An attempt to leap across this boundary results in confusion.

**Byron, text 5. Analysis of conjunctions.**

1. Spartan education was introduced
2. *after* they were defeated by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the helots, slaves to the spartans
3. the helots are the people of Laconia and Messenia
4. which the spartan defeated
5. *when* they invaded Greece.

6. Spartan education didn't consist of maths or science and History or Geography
7. it really focused on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show obedience and courage.

8. From the ages 0–7 the Spartan children were brought up by nurses not by their mothers
9. *if* a baby was sick or had no limb
10. they were left to die on a hill by the tribe elders,
11. at the age of 7 all the spartan boys were removed from home
12. *and* were taken to communal barracks
13. in the begining they were split up into companies
14. *and* then split up into platoons
15. the platoon captain was to organised them each day.

16. The punishment was done by a paidonomos or warden
17. he had ?? were appointed to him
18. they were 18 yr olds
19. they had whips but for only to punish the troble makers.

20. They were taught to be brave not to cry or succ
21. *and* if they did
22. no one would come and help them
23. also they would not get scared
24. if they were left in a dark places.

25. The ages 7–8 they were tought
26. and trained to be spartan heroes
27. they wore tunics with no shoes
28. they only had one tunic.

29. The second stage of spartan education was when you turned 12–18
30. their education become more disciplined and harsh
31. because even in winter they only had one tunic
32. this tunic would have be thicker
33. because winter in Greece was very cold
34. and they slept on rushes which was not very comftable
35. the got them from the rivers edge
36. which they cut their hands getting the rushes
37. which gave them tough skin
38. they were given very little food
39. and were taught to live of the land
40. some stole off the estate which was good practive
41. but if a boy was caught stealing
42. he would be whipped
43. and given even less rations.

44. Also the second stage was consisted of taking part in various contests and competitions
45. and they also had music and dance performed by the women.

46. Spartan education was harsh
47. for the reason to produce the best warriors
48. but the spartans thought this was adequate
49. because all their kife they were bought up to be warriors.

1.
2. exp. temporal `after'
3–4.
5. exp. temporal `when'
6–7.

8.
9. exp. causal [cond.] `if'
10–11.
12. exp. additive `and' 
13.
14. exp. additive `and'
15.
16–19.
Discussion of conjunctions in text 5, Byron.

Simple additive, adversative and causal conjunctions are used in this text. The single temporal conjunction signals the narrative development of the text. The use of additive conjunctions in nos. 21 & 23 serves to link up ideas between clauses and provides a cohesive element. In nos. 31 & 33 the two causal conjunctions also contribute to the cohesive effect of the text. No. 44 comes closest to presenting a logical connection in the use of conjunctions although 'also' could have been substituted more effectively for 'In addition'. The adversative conjunctions serve to illustrate contrastive points [nos. 41 & 48].
Although the conjunctions appearing in Byron's text 5 are simple additive, causal and adversative they do provide a certain degree of cohesion in the text. They illustrate the logical connections between events which occurred in the past. The writer shows an awareness of the need to argue a point and link it up with the preceding clauses.

The drawback of the essay is there are several very short clauses which could have been more effectively combined and linked by logical relations expressed as nouns or qualities. The series of short clauses indicate that the writer is still operating at a congruent level.

Byron, text 5. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. Spartan education was introduced
2. after they were defeated by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the helots, slaves to the spartans
3. the helots are the people of Laconia and Messenia
4. which the spartan defeated
5. when they invaded Greece.

6. Spartan education didn't consist of maths or science and History or Geography
7. it really focused on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show obedience and courage.

8. From the ages 0–7 the Spartan children were brought up by nurses not by their mothers

9. if a baby was sick or had no limb
10. they were left to die on a hill by the tribe elders,
11. at the age of 7 all the spartan boys were removed from home
12. and were taken to communal barracks
13. in the beginning they were split up into companies
14. and then split up into platoons
15. the platoon captain was to organised them each day.

16. The punishment was done by a paidonomos or warden
17. he had ?? were appointed to him
18. they were 18 yr olds
19. they had whips but for only to punish the trouble makers.

20. They were taught to be brave not to cry or sulk
21. and if they did
22. no one would come and help them
23. also they would not get scared
24. if they were left in a dark places.
25. The ages 7–8 they were taught
26. and trained to be spartan heroes
27. they wore tunics with no shoes
28. they only had one tunic.
29. The second stage of spartan education was when you turned 12–18
30. their education become more disciplined and harsh
31. because even in winter they only had one tunic
32. this tunic would have be thicker
33. because winter in Greece was very cold
34. and they slept on rushes which was not very comftable
35. the got them from the rivers edge
36. which they cut their hands getting the rushes
37. which gave them tough skin
38. they were given very little food
39. and were taught to live of the land
40. some stole off the estate which was good practice
41. but if a boy was caught stealing
42. he would be whipped
43. and given even less rations.
44. Also the second stage was consisted of taking part in various contests and competitions
45. and they also had music and dance performed by the women.
46. Spartan education was harsh
47. for the reason to produce the best warriors
48. but the spartans thought this was adequate
49. because all their kife they were bought up to be warriors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. obedience</td>
<td>quality being nominalised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. strength</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. courage</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. in the beginning</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. punishment</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. trouble makers</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. practice</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. contests</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. competition</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Byron. text 5. Analysis of participants.

**Human Generic**

the helots
slaves
Spartans
the helots
the people of Laconia and Messenia
the Spartan
they
Spartan children
nurses
mothers
baby
they
tribe elders
the Spartan boys
they
companies
platoons
the platoon captain
paidonomos
warden
he they they
troble makers
they they they they they they
spartan heroes
you
they they the they they
a boy he
they
the women
warriors
the Spartans
they
the warriors

**Human specific**

**Non–human: time/place**

Argolis
Laconia
Messenia
Greece
From the ages 0–7
on a hill
at the age of 7
home
 communal barracks
in the beginning
dark places
The ages 7–8
the second stage
in winter
winter in Greece
rushes
the river's edge
the land
the estate
the second stage
all their life

Non-human: metaphorical

Spartan education
Spartan education
physical strength
obedience
courage
punishment
Spartan education
their education
contests
competition
music and dance
Spartan education
their life [life]

Non-human: concrete

whips
tunics
shoes
tunic
one tunic
this tunic
hands
food

Byron, text 5. Analysis of processes.

1. Spartan education was introduced [1]
2. after they were defeated [2] by the Argolis a neighbouring state and by the
   helots, slaves to the spartans
3. the helots are [3] the people of Laconia and Messenia
4. which the spartan defeated [4]
6. Spartan education *didn’t consist* [6] of maths or science and History or Geography
7. it really *focused* [7] on physical strength, how to get alone with one or another show [8] obedience and courage.

8. From the ages 0–7 the Spartan children *were brought* [9] up by nurses not by their mothers
9. if a baby *was* [10] sick or *had* [11] no limb
10. they *were left* [12] to die on hill by the tribe elders,
11. at the age of 7 all the spartan boys *were removed* [13] from home
12. and *were taken* [14] to communal barracks
13. in the beginning they *were split up* [15] into companies
14. and then *split up* [16] into platoons
15. the platoon captain *was* [17] to organised them each day.

16. The punishment *was done* [18] by a paidonomos or warden
17. he *had* ?? *were appointed* [19] to him
18. they *were* [20] 18 yr olds
19. they *had* [21] whips but for only to punish the trouble makers.

20. They *were taught* [22] to be brave not to cry or sulk
21. and if they *did* [23]
22. no one *would come* [24] and *help* [25] them
23. also they *would* not *get scared* [26]
24. if they *were left* [27] in a dark places.

25. The ages 7–8 they *were taught* [28]
26. and *trained* [29] to be spartan heroes
27. they *wore* [30] tunics with no shoes
28. they only *had* [31] one tunic.

29. The second stage of spartan education *was* [32] when you *turned* [33] 12–18
30. their education *become* [34] more disciplined and harsh
31. because even in winter they only *had* [35] one tunic
32. this tunic *would have be* [36] thicker
33. because winter in Greece *was* [37] very cold
34. and they *slept* [38] on rushes which *was* [39] not very comfortable
35. the *got* [40] them from the rivers edge
36. which they *cut* [41] their hands getting the rushes
37. which *gave* [42] them tough skin
38. they *were given* [43] very little food
39. and *were taught* [44] to live of the land
40. some *stole* [45] off the estate which *was* [46] good practice
41. but if a boy *was caught stealing* [47]
42. he *would be whipped* [48]
43. and *given* [49] even less rations.

44. Also the second stage *was consisted* [50] of taking part in various contests and competitions
45. and they also *had* [51] music and dance *performed* [51] by the women.
Spartan education was [52] harsh
for the reason to produce the best warriors
but the spartans thought [53] this was adequate
because all their life they were bought up [54] to be warriors.

Material

1. was introduced
2. were defeated
4. defeated
5. invaded
9. were brought up
12. were left
13. were removed
14. were taken
15. were split up
16. split up
17. was ? to organised
18. was done
319. had ... were appointed
22. were taught
23. did
24. would come
25. help
27. were left
28. were taught
29. trained
30. wore
38. slept
40. got
41. cut
42. gave
43. were given
44. were taught
45. stole
47. was caught
48. would be whipped
49. given
54. were brought up

Relational

3. was
6. didn't consist
7. focused
8. show
10. was
11. had
20. were
Mental

26. would ... get scared
33. thought

Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 5, Byron.

This essay is a highly congruent text, with relatively few nominalisations. 'Education', a nominalised term borrowed from the wording of the question is repeated five times [Nos. 1, 6, 29, 30 & 46]. The writer shows himself to be unfamiliar in the selection of a variety of nominalised terms to express his argument. The repetition of the word 'education' places unnecessary restrictions upon Byron in organising his argument. He is constantly brought back to discuss Spartan education per se rather than show to the reader why such a system was necessary.

'In the begining' is, according to Eggins category, a setting in time. However, as no dates are mentioned, this is left very vague. The reader is left to guess when exactly is the beginning. Such a theme is very common in narratives.

The lack of nominalisations, the choice of participants and processes in Byron's text 5 show him to be operating at a very concrete level.
The essay is shaped more like a recount rather than an expository text. There are 46 Human Generic participants, dealing with Spartans [boys]. On one occasion 'spartan heroes' is mentioned. The generic 'they' is frequently used, sometimes adding confusion to the overall meaning of the text. All the human generic participants directly or indirectly bring the reader's attention to the fact that the education of young Spartan boys are being discussed. This shows that there is an awareness that history is not about individuals but about classes of people. The next step would be to remove the generic classes and replace them with abstractions. However, Byron has not acquired the maturity as a writer to have reached this level yet.

The choice of non-human: place/time participants reinforces this view. The actions occur in Greece and around the normal educational arena of Sparta. The time being discussed is unclear. Focus is brought more to the stages of education.

The choice of processes also reinforces the idea that the education practice of Sparta is being discussed. 'taught, trained, organised' are some of the material processes being used. Relational processes selected in this essay follow a simple pattern using the auxiliary verb 'to be'. However, there are some signs of a higher level of relational processes used in nos. 34 & 51, 'become, performed'. Byron shows himself to be coming to grips with the more accepted written mode of discourse. However, the text remains largely congruent and the above analysis supports the fact that he is working concretely rather than abstractly.
4.6. **Part Two: general discussion of Byron's texts 1–5.**

**Schematic (Generic) Structure**

On the basis of the analysis of Byron's texts 1–5, it can be seen that initially he was not aware of how an expository essay should be structured. This is demonstrated by the lack of a thesis and preview in his first text. The succeeding essays contain either the outline of a thesis [texts 2 & 3] or a thesis without a preview [text 4] or the thesis does not appear till the end.

A thesis and preview are necessary to show the position taken by the writer in the essay. The lack thereof renders it difficult to identify the position the writer is defending. In Byron's text 1 no position is stated whereas text 2 progresses to the stage of outlining a thesis. An attempt at argumentation is made.

"The Chinese community didn't show any pain but the harassment hurt on the inside."

However, Byron has still not mastered the concept of maintaining continuity of the argument across the text. Several issues are raised but are not discussed in depth. In some cases there seems to be a sense of overcrowding of ideas without sufficient elaboration.

Such a case is evident in text 3 when the reader is informed that 'Being unemployed' was 'tromatic' for people during the Depression. A series of reasons are given on how they were affected. Then there is a sudden switch to discussion about the Stock Market Crash. No further discussion on this issue takes place.
Evidently Byron experiences some difficulty with differentiating between an argument and an elaboration. What outwardly appears to be a topic sentence is often the prelude to an account of events of the past. In text 4, in sentence 20 the reader is told about Ngo Dinh Diem but this information does not add anything to the argument. In other instances, paragraphs appear in the form of an elaboration without being preceded by a topic sentence to show the direction of the argument [Text 5, sentence 25].

Hence, one main difficulty with Byron's texts seems to be his inability to present an argument and maintain continuity across the essay. Issues are raised without elaboration and ideas are not clearly linked to each other and to the question.

Lack of understanding of what the set question requires is another problem experienced by Byron. While his answer touches around the periphery of the question, he does not completely achieve his purpose. In text 4, he describes the stages of Spartan education without mentioning the reason why it was necessary for the Spartiates to be the best soldiers in the world. Byron seems to rely on the key words in the question and revolves his answer around these. No account is taken of the 'smaller' words such as 'How?', 'Why?' the answer to which will determine the direction of the argument.

Another difficulty experienced by Byron is his inability to handle clauses effectively. There is the tendency to string together a series of clauses within a clause complex without fully bringing out the wide range of relationship existing between the clauses [text 1, clause 5; text 2, clauses 12–13, 24–28; text 3, clauses 9–15]. Consequently, it is difficult to identify and follow the argument/s being presented.
The lack of clearly marked sentence boundaries also makes it more difficult to read and identify the argument presented. Byron needs to learn how to use appropriate punctuation.

Byron has not yet come to grips with the purpose of a conclusion. His final paragraphs do not wrap up his argument. In Text 1 the conclusion raised a completely new issue. Text 4 goes on to show how U.S. had become a major influence in the area. Text 3 comes closest to reiterating the thesis and text 5 actually introduces a partial thesis in the last paragraph, without going in depth about the reasoning.

Based on the analysis of Byron's texts it can be concluded that he is not yet competent in the use of argumentation that is required in an expository essay. However, he has developed an awareness of the need to argue a point [texts 2 and 3]. His later texts contain a thesis [with one exception], though this does not always appear at the beginning. It seems as if Byron is grappling with the question and is coming to terms with it. He is aware that the thesis should appear at the start of the text, though sometimes it seems to slip his mind and the thesis is inserted at a later point as an afterthought.

Analysis of the texts created by Byron demonstrates that there is a tendency to:

a. present points/arguments without a clear connection to other ideas discussed.

b. present points and elaboration in the same sentence.

c. present points without any supporting evidence and elaboration.

d. present elaboration without first introducing the topic sentence.
From the above it can be deduced that Byron has the necessary information available. However, there is an inherent lack of understanding of the purpose of the task set and of the organisation required for this particular style of essay.

What is necessary for Byron to improve his writing is assistance in identifying the main ideas presented by him and structuring the information in an appropriately argumentative manner. He needs to be able to link up the ideas to each other and to the thesis. In this attempt discussion with peers and teacher might help in seeing the reasoning behind his argument. Byron needs to build up more confidence in his ability to form an opinion and substantiate it with examples. If this strategy meets with success, the conclusion should be a straightforward matter.

Themes

One of the most striking elements in the analysis is Byron's selection of topical themes as his method of development. Texts 1 and 2 rely almost exclusively on topical themes as the method of development. These are invariably about people. Text 1 relies on Irish exiles; The Chinese form the focus of the topical themes in text 2 while text 5 chooses Spartan children as a method of development. This shows that historical discourse is regarded by the writer to be about people and their actions. Thus the text takes on the flavour of a recount rather than an abstract discourse.

However, it is apparent that there is a move away from this view of historical discourse as Byron's later texts introduce a greater variety of themes to indicate the direction of his argument. In text 2, clause 6 he chooses to use an abstract term as the theme, 'but the
harassment ...'. Clause 18 in the same text uses a topical theme that deals with an event rather than people, 'The Buckland river riots ...'. The choice of such themes shows that the writer is beginning to see history as more than the story of people. Events start to play a part in the development of the text.

Another change in his method of development is seen in text 3 when the thesis is begun with an abstract term, 'Being unemployed during the Depression of 1929–33 ...'. From this point onwards Byron is more prepared to take risks in his choice of themes. This is more apparent in text 4 where several marked themes are used. However a decrease in the use of marked themes is seen in the final text. From this it is apparent that though Byron has not yet mastered competency in writing a historical discourse, he had displayed a growing awareness of the need to make the appropriate selection of themes for effective development of his text.

Although the introduction of marked themes indicate a move towards written end of the oral/written mode continuum, the nature of the themes chosen shows the texts to be tending more towards a recount rather than an abstract text. In text 4 the marked themes bring focus upon the time sequence of events occurring in the past, 'in 1802 Nguyen Anh ...' [text 4]. Marked themes in text 5 also show a tendency to viewing history as a recount rather than an abstract discourse, 'The second stage of spartan education ...

Textual themes are not a prominent feature of Byron's texts. Even when they appear in his texts, they do not contribute greatly to the general logical development of his argument. There are only two textual themes in the first text. While the first one [clause 2] connects clause 2 to clause 1, there is no evidence as to where the argument is leading.
It does not link up to the question and it appears to be a recount or story. Textual themes in texts 2, 3 and 4 are coded in terms of cause. There is not much variety in the terms used, 'because', 'but', 'if'. Text 5 shows a minor extension to 'and if', 'also'. Such textual themes are a common feature of spoken English.

Based on the above analysis it can be seen that Byron is as yet unable to effectively use textual themes to show a logical development of his argument. He is still working at a concrete level. In order to progress to the abstract discourse of history Byron needs to select appropriate textual themes to argue his point of view.

The reference chains used in the themes of Byron's texts provide an element of cohesion in the essays. This is achieved through his selection of themes as his method of development. However, the choice of people as theme leads to his relying on the personal pronoun 'he' or 'they' to such a degree that it causes confusion as to who is being referred to. The repetition of 'they' in text 5 becomes very confusing. It is also a sign of a writer who has not as yet gained control over the expository genre.

Byron's choice of themes shows that he views historical discourse as the history of people and their actions. Events are presented in a chronological order and the lack of appropriate textual themes indicates that he is not yet able to logically argue a case and connect his ideas to the question set. At certain points he progresses to expressing himself in abstract terms but has not yet achieved sufficient competency to sustain this level across the whole text. The fact that Byron has started to make use of marked themes and the fact that his texts are bound together by his use of reference chain show that he is moving away from the oral end of the oral/written mode continuum.
Conjunctions

The scarcity and lack of variety of conjunctions used in Byron’s texts 1–5 show that he is unable to maximise the effectiveness of their use to show the logical development of his ideas.

Logical connections are realised in congruent ways. Causal notions are expressed through the use of simple conjunctions such as ‘because’. This reflects the author’s view that events which occurred in history were a direct result of people’s actions. Abstract notions are not linked through the use of conjunctions.

Temporal conjunctions used tend to emphasise the view of history as a sequence of events. This is especially evident in texts 4 and 5.

Other types of conjunctions used are simple additive and adversative. The latter does not show the direction of the arguments presented in the text. They are simply used to connect one clause to another.

One of the drawbacks in the choice and types of conjunctions used by Byron is that while they provide an element of cohesion in the texts, the connection does not progress beyond two clauses. Often the conjunctions are realised explicitly within the same sentence boundary. In some texts several short clauses are joined together by a conjunction when a more effective sentence could have been created by realising logical relations within the clause complex itself.
The analysis shows Byron to be working within the confines of spoken discourse rather than argumentative writing. Connection between events of the past is shown without an attempt to interpret these events. While his use of conjunctions reveals that Byron sees history as a sequence of events occurring as a result of people acting, he is unable to show the logical consequences of such actions.

**Nominalisations, participants and processes.**

On a global level Byron's texts contain few nominalisations though there are some variations within individual texts. One striking feature is that the nominalised expression in the wording of the question tends to form part of the abstract terms used by Byron. However, after an initial attempt to frame an argument based on this feature, the writer reverts to congruent ways of expressing himself. A continuity in the use of abstract terms seems to elude Byron's ability to handle the discourse of history effectively. Thus, in text 2 the beginnings of an argument is seen in clause 6. Similarly the first clauses in texts 3 and 5 show the direction in which the argument will proceed, 'Being unemployed' [text 3, clause 1] and 'Spartan education' [text 5, clause 1]. The choice of these abstract terms indicate that the text will deal with these issues. However, the writer is unable to maintain continuity of dealing with the issues themselves and revert to discussion about people and their actions.

A high proportion of the nominalisations which appear in Byron's texts remain at the first of the eight stages set out by Eggins, Wignell and Martin as necessary for a text to be seen as a historical discourse [Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 1987]. Most of the nominalised terms are the conversion of actions into Things, or in Eggins, Martin and Wignell's terminology Nominalising actions.

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However, in some instances Byron does use 'Setting in time' which indicates that he sees history as being divided into a number of periods, eras or years. Thus, the Depression or the Gold Rush are seen as distinct periods of the past. This shows that history is not seen completely as the story of people of an indeterminate past. They have a definite time and place where they lived and acted and were acted upon.

Byron's progress towards maximising the distance between what people did and how it gets written about is further seen in his few attempts to use the other stages set out by Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 'Making things act', 'Doings acted on' and 'nominalising qualities' [texts 2, 4 and 5]. The existence of these instances demonstrates that Byron has begun to use abstract language to frame an argument, 'The fighting developed ... [text 4, clause 11]. His inexperience in handling this genre of writing and his ability to manipulate language to suit his purpose renders it difficult for Byron to sustain this effort across the whole text.

All the texts created by Byron focus on Human Generic participants. This reveals that history is no longer regarded as just the story of individuals but of generic classes of participants. However, Byron has not yet reached the stage where the number of human generic participants as actors is reduced and emphasis is placed upon nominalised processes as actors.

A high proportion of the processes are material processes. The next biggest group are relational processes and there is a negligible number of existential and mental processes. The material processes tend to reflect actions or happenings. This is in keeping with the choice of participants who are Human Generic. Although such processes are a common
feature of narrative and recount genre, they also form part of historical discourse where the focus is upon a recount of events of the past. Thus, while their presence in Byron's texts might indicate the recount nature of his writing, one should remember that such material processes also appear in historical discourse. Based on this premise one cannot completely dismiss these texts as recounts.

Relational processes, a distinct feature of the expository style of writing are in abundance in Byron's texts. However, this is really no proof that Byron has produced a successful expository text. The majority of these processes are or derive from the auxiliary verb 'to be'. The use of varying forms of 'to be' is a common characteristic of spoken discourse. An abstract historical text will include relational processes such as 'become, turn, grow, symbolise' to show the connection within the word structure of the clause itself.

After the first four texts, Byron shows more confidence in his use of such relational processes [focused, show, turned, become ... in text 5].

**Conclusion.**

From the above discussion it can be seen that initially Byron had no concept of how to handle an expository style essay. The lack of thesis and preview in text 1 reveals that he was not aware of how to structure such a genre of writing. However, in his later texts, Byron starts experimenting with the inclusion of a thesis in his writing though he does not always meet with success.
An awareness of the purpose of a thesis and preview would help Byron argue his case more effectively. In his first attempts, there was the tendency to present recounts rather than argue a case. Later on there is evidence of trying to bring in a degree of interpretation of events of the past though the writer is unable to maintain this effort across the boundary of the texts.

One of the major problems encountered by Byron is the difficulty in understanding the demands made by the question set. This problem is magnified by the fact that he experiences some difficulty in distinguishing between an opinion and an example. Consequently Byron presents a series of events and provides the reader with examples without prefacing these with an appropriate topic sentence in which his interpretation is stated. Thus a series of ideas are presented without an apparent connection with each other or with the question set.

Another problem faced by Byron is his difficulty in handling clauses showing a clearly defined relationship between them. They use the tendency to string a series of clauses within the clause complex without fully drawing out the relationships. This poses some difficulty for the reader in his attempt to follow the argument being presented.

A further problem closely linked to Byron's difficulty in handling clauses and clause complexes is his inability to clearly define sentence boundaries. The task of identifying the argument presented thus becomes an arduous process.

The choice of themes in his text reveals Byron to be working congruently. First of all history is perceived by him to be the story of people and their actions. Interpretation is
almost nonexistent in the first essays. In the later texts he starts using abstract terms in his themes. Such a move demonstrates that Byron is progressing towards the stage when he can organise his text to show an argumentative approach to handling the question.

The reference chain used in the themes shows Byron's texts to be cohesive. This could be rendered more effective if Byron varied his choice of references. As it stands he relies heavily on the personal pronoun 'he' or 'they' to connect ideas in his texts. Cohesion is mainly at the level of 'people'. Issues are not yet linked through the use of references, hence showing him to be working congruently.

This view is further seen when logical relations are realised in congruent ways. Although Byron's simple additive, temporal, causal and adversative conjunctions provide a degree of cohesion in the texts, they are not used to show connections of issues being discussed. Instead they are used to show the sequence of events, thereby making the text appear like a recount.

The presence of the few and limited variety of conjunctions reinforce the notion that Byron's texts are closer to the oral end of the oral/written mode continuum. Similarly the handling of nominalisations shows that Byron has not yet mastered the skills of writing a historical discourse effectively. There are few nominalisations beyond Eggins' first stage description. However, the fact that there are some more abstract terms in his texts shows that Byron is moving towards writing abstractly. The use of more incongruent expressions will assist Byron to organise his text more effectively, showing the direction his text could possibly take.
Familiarity with the use of abstract terms would be a major benefit for Byron as it would help him to:

a) identify issues being discussed as these are normally expressed in incongruent ways.

b) organise his arguments, focusing on specific issues to show his method of development.

c) show a logical development of ideas through the use of logical relations coded as nouns.

d) bring in a degree of interpretation in his writing of historical discourse rather than seeing history merely as the story of people and their actions in the past.

An awareness and knowledge of the factors mentioned above will assist Byron to obtain control of the expository style essays, provided he receives appropriate guidance throughout the learning process.
"POSH WRITING": EMPOWERING SECONDARY STUDENTS TO WRITE THE DISCOURSE OF HISTORY EFFECTIVELY

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

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from

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by

Riddhi Devi Bargon

Faculty of Education
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</table>
All Australians are immigrants or the descendants of immigrants.

The first immigrants to Australia were the aborigines who arrived in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is 2000 generations ago. Landing in the north of the continent they spread southwards. They survived the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate. Their numbers didn't increase greatly so there were only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788. In a few short years their existence was endangered by the white man who shot them, poisoned them, hounded them and plagued them with diseases which took a terrible toll. Their numbers are less now than they were in 1788, They have not been integrated into the present population to any extent. They usually live poorly and are often among the least affluent of our society.

Apart from some ship - wreck survivors, the next immigrants arrived in 1788. The population increase was so slow that until 1850 the settlement was little more than a large gaol. These immigrants, the majority being convicts, were from the British Isles. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived with their families. Because of the harsh inland conditions the majority of people still live and where all the larger cities are. Progress was slow and at the beginning of the 20th century there were still only 4 million people on our continent.

When gold was discovered in 1851 the number of immigrants increased rapidly. Among these were Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.

In 1860 Queensland began bringing in Kanakas natives of the South Sea Islands. They were used as cheap labour by the landowners. About 2000 Kanakas were brought in. After a public the practice was stopped. Their places on the cane fields were taken by the Italian migrants. Some German farmers also arrived in other states.

After the Japanese attack on Darwin in World War II the politicians realised we had far too few people in our large continent. Then began the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe. 3.2 million people came in less than 40 years.

Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia has taken in many thousands of Asians. The majority of these were Vietnamese.

We are truly a nation of immigrants.
1. The first immigrants to Australia were the aborigines who arrived in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is 2000 generations ago.
2. Landing in the north of the continent they spread southwards.
3. They survived the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate.
4. Their numbers didn't increase greatly so there were only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788.
5. In a few short years their existence was endangered by the white man who shot them, poisoned them, hounded them and plagued them with diseases which took a terrible toll.
6. Their numbers are less now than they were in 1788,
7. They have not been integrated into the present population to any extent.
8. They usually live poorly and are often among the least affluent of our society.
9. Apart from some ship-wreck survivors, the next immigrants arrived in 1788.
10. The population increase was so slow that until 1850 the settlement was little more than a large gaol.
11. These immigrants, the majority being convicts, were from the British Isles.
12. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived with their families.
13. Because of the harsh inland conditions the majority of people still live and where all the larger cities are.
14. Progress was slow and at the beginning of the 20th century there were still only 4 million people on our continent.
15. When gold was discovered in 1851 the number of immigrants increased rapidly.
16. Among these were Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.
17. In 1860 Queensland began bringing in Kanakas natives of the South Sea Islands.
18. They were used as cheap labour by the landowners.
19. About 2000 Kanakas were brought in.
20. After a public the practice was stopped.
21. Their places on the cane fields were taken by the Italian migrants.
22. Some German farmers also arrived in other states.
23. After the Japanese attack on Darwin in World War II the politicians realised we had far too few people in our large continent.
24. Then began the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe.
25. 3.2 million people came in less than 40 years.
26. Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia has taken in many thousands of Asians.
27. The majority of these were Vietnamese.
28. We are truly a nation of immigrants.
Analysis.

1. Topic sentence
2–8. Elaboration

9. Topic sentence
10–14. Elaboration

15. Topic sentence
16. Elaboration

17. Topic sentence
18–22. Elaboration

23. Topic sentence
24–25. Elaboration

26. Topic sentence
27. Elaboration

28. Thesis

Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 1, Miranda.

Generic (Schematic) Structure.

No indication of a thesis is immediately evident in this essay. The initial statement is not related to the question and does not state the position taken in the text. It is only in the last sentence that a relationship to the question is apparent.

'We are truly a nation of immigrants.'

This demonstrates that Miranda is aware of what is required of her but lacks the knowledge or ability to relate her answer to the question set. When she is on the brink of answering the question she abruptly concludes her essay with a thesis.
Instead of arguing that All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants, a chronological account of the arrival of various batches of immigrants is given:

- the dwindling numbers of Aboriginals
- why more settlers arrived
- rapid increase due to gold discovery
- cheap labour
- era of assisted migrants
- arrival of Asians

The development of these ideas in the text indicates that the text is more of a recount of events which happened in the past rather than an exposition. This is in keeping with the view that history is regarded as the story of what happened to people in the past rather than the development of an argument.

The conclusion would have made a good thesis. Miranda appears to have come to grips with the question in the last sentence. It would have been a more effective answer if the writer had actually stated that All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants and then set out to argue the case.

There is no real attempt to offer an interpretation or an explanation. The text is merely a recount of past events.
**Organisation**

While there is no thesis in the essay the first six paragraphs are well structured; each introduces an idea and supports it with an elaboration. The last paragraph consists of a single sentence which takes the place of a conclusion. This could have been more explicit, incorporating a reason rather than just being a statement.

There is one drawback in paragraph 2. The second sentence discusses the issue of population increase and this is not directly related to the topic sentence. However, the remaining sentences in the paragraph all support the first sentence.

*Miranda, text 1. Analysis of themes.*

1. **The first immigrants to Australia**
   
   were the aborigines who arrived in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is 2000 generations ago.

2. **Landing in the north of the continent they**
   
   spread southwards.

3. **They**
   
   survived the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate.

4. **Their numbers**
   
   didn't increase greatly

5. **so there**
   
   were only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788.

6. **In a few short years their existence**
   
   was endangered by the white man who shot them, poisoned them, hounded them and plagued them with diseases which took a terrible toll.

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7. Their numbers are less now than they were in 1788.

8. They have not been integrated into the present population to any extent.

9. They usually live poorly.

10. and are often among the least affluent of our society.

11. Apart from some ship-wreck survivors, the next immigrants arrived in 1788.

12. The population increase was so slow that

13. until 1850 the settlement was little more than a large gaol.

14. These immigrants, the majority being convicts, were from the British Isles.

15. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived with their families.

16. Because of the harsh inland conditions the majority of people still live and where all the larger cities are.

17. Progress was slow.

18. and at the beginning of the 20th century there were still only 4 million people on our continent.

19. When gold was discovered in 1851

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the number of immigrants increased rapidly.

Among these were Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.

In 1860 Queensland began bringing in Kanakas natives of the South Sea Islands.

They were used as cheap labour by the landowners.

About 2000 Kanakas were brought in.

After a public the practice was stopped.

Their places on the cane fields were taken by the Italian migrants.

Some German farmers also arrived in other states.

After the Jappenese attack on Darwin in World War II the politicians realised

we had far too few people in our large continent.

Then began the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe.

3.2 million people came in less than 40 years.

Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia has taken in many thousands of Asians.

The majority of these were vietnamese.
Discussion of themes in text 1, Miranda.

Although there is a predominance of topical themes in this text, the writer does use a series of marked themes. There are very few textual themes.

The choice of topical themes highlights the fact that 'people' plays a prominent part in the development of the text. 'Immigrants' is the point of departure in nos. 1, 11, 14 & 20. The personal pronoun 'they' continues the theme of immigrants in nos. 3, 8 & 9. On other occasions, the theme of people is pursued in the use of words like 'settlers' [no. 15], 'majority of people' [nos. 16 & 31], German farmers [no. 27].

A degree of cohesion is evident in this method of development. However, the focus is on 'people', what they did, when they arrived. There is no sign of the development of an argument to prove that All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants.

The marked themes selected in Miranda's text demonstrate an attempt at incongruent writing. Nos. 6, 11, 25, 28, & 32 reflect a small degree of abstraction. However, there is some confusion in clause 15. The meaning intended by the author is unclear.

'With more land opening up and more settlers arrived ...'

In no. 16 a textual theme is used to argue a point. However, even here the argument is not to prove that All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants. It merely states why people live where all the larger cities are.
There is no marked signs of developing an argument in this text. Rather, the analysis of the themes reveals that the essay is a recount of immigrants in Australia. The choice of the first theme 'The first immigrants' as the method of development in this text could have been prompted by the wording of the question. However, Miranda does not capitalise on this choice and the result is that the text is not an abstract interpretation of the issue. It is about people and what they did in the past.

*Miranda, text 1. Analysis of reference.*

1. *The first immigrants* [1] to Australia were the aborigines who arrived in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is 2000 generations ago.
3. *They* [3] survived the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate.
4. *Their numbers* [4] didn't increase greatly
5. so there were only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788. 6. In a few short years their existence [5] was endangered by the white man who shot them, poisoned them, hounded them and plagued them with diseases which took a terrible toll.
7. *Their numbers* [6] are less now than they were in 1788, 8. *They* [7] have not been integrated into the present population to any extent.
10. and are often among the least affluent of our society.

12. *The population increase* [10] was so slow
13. that until 1850 the settlement was little more than a large gaol.
15. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived with their families.
16. Because of the harsh inland conditions *the majority of people* [12] still live and where all the larger cities are.
17. *Progress* [13] was slow
18. and at the beginning of the 20th century there were still only 4 million people on our continent.

19. When *gold* [14] was discovered in 1851
20. the number of immigrants increased rapidly.
21. Among these were Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.
23. They [16] were used as cheap labour by the landowners.
25. After a public the practice [18] was stopped.
26. Their places [19] on the cane fields were taken by the Italian migrants.
27. Some German farmers [20] also arrived in other states.
28. After the Jappenese atteack on Darwin in World War II the politicians [21] realised
29. we had far too few people in our large continent.
30. Then began the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe.
31. 3.2 million people [22] came in less than 40 years.
32. Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia [23] has taken in many thousands of Asians.
33. The majority of these were vietnamese.
34. We [24] are truly a nation of immigrants.

*Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 1, Miranda.*

Conjunctively relatable units Reference chain

**The first immigrants**

1. the first immigrants
2. They
3. They
4. Their numbers
6. their existence
7. Their numbers
8–9. They

**The next immigrants**

11. The next immigrants
14. these immigrants

**2000 kanakas**

24. 2000 kanakas
26. their
Discussion of reference in text 1, Miranda.

The reference system in Miranda's text 1 follows a pattern whereby the focus is on 'immigrants'. Paragraph one is very cohesive through the use of the reference system. 'Immigrants' is introduced in [1] and thereafter reference is made back to it through the use of the personal pronoun 'they' or the possessive 'their'.

Cohesion in paragraph 2 is less successful. The focus is still on 'immigrants'. However, the switch to 'population increase' in [12] and 'progress' in [17] throws the connection off balance. This minor confusion could be due to the use of abstract terms with which the author is not familiar.

The final 'we' is used in the generic sense – the reader is included in this sweeping statement.

While the focus is on people the writer is able to maintain a certain degree of cohesion in the text. However, Miranda has not yet started to link up arguments through her system of reference within the text as history is still seen as the story of people.

Miranda, text 1. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. The first immigrants to Australia were the aborigines who arrived in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is 2000 generations ago.
2. Landing in the north of the continent they spread southwards.
3. They survived the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate.
4. Their numbers didn't increase greatly
5. so there were only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788.
6. In a few short years their existence was endangered by the white man who shot them, poisoned them, hounded them and plagued them with diseases which took a terrible toll.
7. Their numbers are less now than they were in 1788,
8. They have not been integrated into the present population to any extent.
9. They usually live poorly
10. and are often among the least affluent of our society.

11. Apart from some ship-wreck survivors, the next immigrants arrived in 1788.
12. The population increase was so slow that
13. until 1850 the settlement was little more than a large gaol.
14. These immigrants, the majority being convicts, were from the British Isles.
15. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived with their families.
16. Because of the harsh inland conditions the majority of people still live and where all the larger cities are.
17. Progress was slow
18. and at the beginning of the 20th century there were still only 4 million people on our continent.

19. When gold was discovered in 1851
20. the number of immigrants increased rapidly.
21. Among these were Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.

22. In 1860 Queensland began bringing in Kanakas natives of the South Sea Islands.
23. They were used as cheap labour by the landowners.
24. About 2000 Kanakas were brought in.
25. After a public ??? the practice was stopped.
26. Their places on the cane fields were taken by the Italian migrants.
27. Some German farmers also arrived in other states.

28. After the Japanese attack on Darwin in World War II the politicians realised
29. we had far too few people in our large continent.
30. Then began the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe.
31. 3.2 million people came in less than 40 years.

32. Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia has taken in many thousands of Asians.
33. The majority of these were Vietnamese.

34. We are truly a nation of immigrants.
Discussion of conjunctions in text 1, Miranda.

Four temporal, three causal and two additive conjunctions are used in Miranda’s text 1. The use of these three types of conjunctions signal the recount/narrative development of the text. The logical relations have to do with time and cause. In nos. 12 & 13 the reader is informed why the settlement was still little more than a gaol by 1850. No. 16 gives the reason why cities were preferred. However, the connection in nos. 17–18 is unclear. What is the logical connection between slow progress and four million people on our continent? From this point onwards the only logical relations evident are temporal ones.
According to the above discussion events are ordered according to the sequence in which they occurred and causes for their occurrence are explicitly given. These are concrete realisations of past events. Focus is on what people did and in what order they acted. Reasoning is coded between clauses rather than across the text. The reader is told about the various group of migrants who came to Australia at various times and why they came. However, no connection is made among these various groups and no interpretation is offered.

Miranda, text 1. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. The first immigrants to Australia were the aborigines who arrived in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is 2000 generations ago.
2. Landing in the north of the continent they spread southwards.
3. They survived the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate.
4. Their numbers didn't increase greatly
5. so there were only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788. 6. In a few short years their existence was endangered by the white man who shot them, poisoned them, hounded them and plagued them with diseases which took a terrible toll.
7. Their numbers are less now than they were in 1788,
8. They have not been integrated into the present population to any extent.
9. They usually live poorly
10. and are often among the least affluent of our society.

11. Apart from some ship - wreck survivors, the next immigrants arrived in 1788.
12. The population increase was so slow that
13. until 1850 the settlement was little more than a large gaol.
14. These immigrants, the majority being convicts, were from the British Isles.
15. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived with their families.
16. Because of the harsh inland conditions the majority of people still live and where all the larger cities are.
17. Progress was slow
18. and at the beginning of the 20th century there were still only 4 million people on our continent.

19. When gold was discovered in 1851
20. the number of immigrants increased rapidly.
21. Among these were Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.

22. In 1860 Queensland began bringing in Kanakas natives of the South Sea Islands.
23. They were used as cheap labour by the landowners.
24. About 2000 Kanakas were brought in.
25. After a public the practice was stopped.
26. Their places on the cane fields were taken by the Italian migrants.
27. Some German farmers also arrived in other states.

28. After the Japanese attack on Darwin in World War II the politicians realised
29. we had far too few people in our large continent.
30. Then began the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe.
31. 3.2 million people came in less than 40 years.

32. Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia has taken in many
thousands of Asians.
33. The majority of these were Vietnamese.

34. We are truly a nation of immigrants.

Nominalisation Description
3. changes action into Thing
6. existence action into Thing
12. population increase Giving things existence
13. settlement action into Thing
17. progress action into Thing
28. attack action into Thing
30. era of assisted immigrants setting in time

Miranda, text 1. Analysis of participants.

Human Generic

immigrants
aborigines
they they
the white man them them them \them they
our society
some ship wrecked survivors
next immigrants
these immigrants
convicts
more settlers
their families
the majority of people
4 million people
the number of immigrants
the Chinese
Americans
Scandivians
Germans
Italians
Kanaka natives they
landowners
Kanakas
Italian migrants
German farmers
the politicians
people
3.2 million people
thousands of Asians
Vietnamese
immigrants

*Human Specific*

*Non–human: time/place*

Australia
2000 generations ago
north of the continent
last Ice Age
a few short years
in 1788
in 1788
until 1850
the settlement
the British Isles
At the beginning of the twentieth century
on our continent
in 1851
in 1860
Queensland
South Sea Islands
cane fields
in other states
on Darwin
in World War II
large continent
from the British Isles and Europe
in South East Asia
Australia
Non-human: metaphorical

vast changes
their numbers
their existence
terrible toll
the present population
the settlement
the harsh inland conditions
progress
cheap labour
the practice
their places on the cane fields
Japanese attack
the era of assisted migrants

Non-human: concrete

a large gaol
more land
the larger cities
gold

Analysis of processes in text 1, Miranda.

1. The first immigrants to Australia were [1] the aborigines who arrived [2] in Australia between 40,000 and 50,000, that is [3] 2000 generations ago.
3. They survived [5] the last Ice Age and the vast changes in the landscape and climate.
4. Their numbers didn't increase [6] greatly
5. so there were [7] only about a 1/4 million of them in 1788.
7. Their numbers are [14] less now than they were [15] in 1788,
8. They have [16] not been integrated [16] into the present population to any extent.
9. They usually live [17] poorly
10. and are [18] often among the least affluent of our society.

11. Apart from some ship - wreck survivors, the next immigrants arrived [19] in 1788.
12. The population increase was [20] so slow that
13. until 1850 the settlement was [21] little more than a large gaol.
14. These immigrants, the majority being convicts, were [22] from the British Isles.
15. With more land opening up and more settlers arrived [23] with their families.
16. Because of the harsh inland conditions the majority of people still live [24] and where all the larger cities are [25].
17. Progress was [26] slow
18. and at the beginning of the 20th century there were [27] still only 4 million people on our continent.

19. When gold was discovered [28] in 1851
20. the number of immigrants increased [29] rapidly.
21. Among these were [30] Chinese, Americans, Scandinavians, Germans and Italians.

22. In 1860 Queensland began [31] bringing in Kanakas natives of the South Sea Islands.
23. They were used [32] as cheap labour by the landowners.
24. About 2000 Kanakas were brought [33] in.
25. After a public ??? the practice was stopped. [34]
26. Their places on the cane fields were taken [35] by the Italian migrants.
27. Some German farmers also arrived [36] in other states.

28. After the Jappenese attack on Darwin in World War II the politicians realised [37]
29. we had [38] far too few people in our large continent.
30. Then began [39] the era of assisted migrants from the British Isles and Europe.

31. 3.2 million people came [40] in less than 40 years.

32. Following the last 45 years of in South East Asia Australia has taken [41] in many thousands of Asians.
33. The majority of these were [42] vietnamese.

34. We are [43] truly a nation of immigrants.

**Material**

2. arrived
4. spread
5. survived
9. shot
10. poisoned
11. hounded
12. plagued
13. took
17. live
19. arrived
23. arrived
24. live
28. was discovered
32. were used

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Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 1, Miranda.

This essay appears to be an account of immigrants who came to Australia at different times in Australia's past. The Aborigines, the convicts, the variety of immigrants who arrived with the discovery of gold, Kanakas and assisted migrants form the focus of the text.
There are relatively few nominalisations, thus demonstrating that the text is a recount. Events are realised verbally; people are the actors. The focus throughout is on people and events, not on historical concepts and interpretations. The scarcity of abstract terms shows the writer to be using congruent language which is closer to the oral end of the oral/written mode continuum.

However, Miranda shows herself to be aware of the use of incongruent language in the discourse of history, though she is not in perfect control of its usage. Nos. 6, 12 & 28 are good examples where language is used at an abstract level. However, the writer is unable to maintain this level of writing throughout the text.

An analysis of the participants and processes in the text reinforces the view that the focus is on people and events. There is a very high proportion of human generic participants. This is in keeping with the wording of the question. 'Immigrants' is a generic term, hence the abundance of human generic terms and words associated with 'immigrants' [aborigines, settlers and their families, convicts, Chinese, Americans]. No reference is made to any individual people. When people act or are acted upon they do so in human generic classes. This shows that Miranda is moving away from individual participants in her discourse and sees history as the events of generic classes of people.

The focus on time/place shows that the events are localised in Australia during the eighteenth and nineteenth century. Once again this is in response to the wording of the question. The discussion is going to be around Australians, hence it is logical that Australia would feature prominently in the answer. Miranda has varied the use of Australia as a place by referring
to the individual states [Queensland, Darwin, continent]. However, the text is still hovering around events occurring around places. There is no attempt at arguing that All Australians are immigrants or descendants of immigrants. It is not until the last sentence ‘We are truly a nation of immigrants’ that there is the indication of an argument. This should have been used as the beginning of the essay.

The choice of processes reinforces the view that the writer is working concretely rather than abstractly. There is a very high proportion of relational and material processes, with a negligible number of existential processes. Even within the relational processes selected there is not much variation. Out of the twenty relational processes fourteen are varying forms of the auxiliary verb ‘to be’. The remaining six demonstrate an awareness of using processes which could assist in structuring an argument. Miranda needs to develop the ability to use processes which necessitate the choice of abstract themes. This could assist the writer in arguing her case more strongly.

The overall impression of the text reveals that the student is operating at a concrete level, with the focus being on people and events occurring in a chronological sequence. The existence of the relatively few nominalisations point to the fact that the writer is at the latter end of the oral/written mode continuum.
Miranda, text 2.

27 March 1990

The Chinese were the least offensive of the gold seekers. Discuss reasons for their harassment and persecution wherever they searched for gold...

In the period of gold seeking there were many different races involved, such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others. The Chinese were the least offensive but strongly harrassed by other races.

The Chinese had a lot of patience while working systematically in the mines and never bothering anybody unless it was extremely urgent.

They were very helpful to their neighbours and friends. Chinese tried very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food. Yet they were always harrassed.

Harassment came in very strongly at the gold fields against the Chinese. Whites made life very difficult for the Chinese even after getting a few helpful hints to mine better.

White people resented their effective work which led to success. Chinese were prepared to work hard and spend their money carefully.

Chinese were harrassed and even physically harmed for the simple reason, the whites were jealous. They were jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thingking. The whites destroyed properties of the Chinese just so they would move away. Pulling piggy-tails was common and to the extreme cutting them off, for the simple fact, they looked different.

The Chinese had to defend themselves and their families. Whites caused riots which caused death to the Chinese in their own communities. Tents were burnt down at the mines because whites couldn't stand the probabilities of them finding gold.

Chinese today are still harrassed, mainly verbal abuse is used. The law now insists on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

No matter what race you are there is nothing to be ashamed of because you are still a human being.

Miranda, text 2. Generic (Schematic Structure).

1. In the period of gold seeking there were many different races involved, such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others.
2. The Chinese were the least offensive but strongly harrassed by other races.
3. The Chinese had a lot of patience while working systematically in the mines and never bothering anybody unless it was extremely urgent.
4. They were very helpful to their neighbours and friends. 5. Chinese tried very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food. 6. Yet they were always harrassed.

7. Harassment came in very strongly at the gold fields against the Chinese. 8. Whites made life very difficult for the Chinese even after getting a few helpful hints to mine better.

9. White people resented their effective work which led to success. 10. Chinese were prepared to work hard and spend their money carefully.

11. Chinese were harrassed and even physically harmed for the simple reason, the whites were jealous. 12. They were jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thinking. 13. The whites destroyed properties of the Chinese just so they would move away. 14. Pulling piggy-tails was common and to the extreme cutting them off, for the simple fact, they looked different.

15. The Chinese had to defend themselves and their families. 16. Whites caused riots which caused death to the Chinese in their own communities. 17. Tents were burnt down at the mines because whites couldn't stand the probabilities of them finding gold.

18. Chinese today are still harrassed, mainly verbal abuse is used. 19. The law now insists on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

20. No matter what race you are there is nothing to be ashamed of because you are still a human being.

Analysis.
1. Background information
2. Skeleton thesis, no preview
3. Topic sentence
4-5 Elaboration [to no.3]
6. Topic sentence
7. Topic sentence
8. Elaboration
9. Topic sentence
10. Elaboration
Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 2, Miranda.

Generic (Schematic) Structure

This essay shows a skeleton thesis in nos. 1 & 2. It has been stated that the Chinese were the least offensive, yet they were harassed in the gold fields. This is a rewording of the question and no preview giving reasons for their harassment is proposed. The required argument is not apparent till no. 9 and is further touched upon in nos. 11 & 12 when the reader is informed that the reason for the harassment is jealousy at the success of the Chinese.

What the writer actually proceeds to show is that the Chinese:

a. had patience
b. were helpful
   yet
c. were harrassed
d. at the goldfields
e. resentment at their hard work
f. physical harassment
g. situation today
Miranda shows who were involved, in what way the Chinese were inoffensive, how they were harassed. However, the actual reasons for harassment are not further elaborated upon.

The conclusion does not fit in with the general argument presented in the text. It is a statement of opinion, a generalisation made upon an issue which is not directly relevant to the question.

**Organisation**

The text is organised in nine paragraphs, each one well defined within its own limits.

While the answer deals with all the aspects raised in the question, there is an inherent confusion with regards to the actual linking of the argument. This confusion is seen in paragraphs 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6. Throughout the essay the writer shows an awareness of the question and the need to argue a point - "but strongly harrassed" [paragraph 1]; yet she falls short of framing a definite argument. There is an inherent difficulty in interpreting the events and reaching an opinion, with supporting reasons.

The last statement of paragraph 3 shows a good beginning of an argument "Yet they were always harrassed". Still it is out of sequence since Miranda presents how the Chinese are harrassed and then why.

Paragraph 6 further takes up this argument, explaining why the whites were harassing the Chinese, thereby discussing the reasons for the harassment.
Paragraphs 4 & 7 outline an argument but fail to link it to the question and are incomplete.

The last two paragraphs attempt to conclude the essay by reference to present day situation but still fail to make the connection to the main argument.

Most paragraphs contain a topic sentence and elaboration, though not all of these are equally effective. No. 3 in paragraph 2 is an elaboration which logically would be linked with nos. 4–5, having as a topic sentence no. 6. Nos. 11–12 in paragraph 6 could have been combined as a topic sentence. Nos. 13–14 are not really an elaboration of the previous sentence.

Miranda is aware of the purpose of topic sentences but is as yet not able to sustain their development in a paragraph. Although there is an attempt to present an argument, the question seems to elude the writer.

Miranda, text 2. Analysis of themes.

1. [marked theme][top] In the period of gold seeking there were many different races involved, such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others.

2. [top] The Chinese were the least offensive

3. [tex][top] but [they] strongly harrassed by other races.

4. [top] The Chinese had a lot of patience while working systematically in the mines and never bothering anybody

5. [tex][top] unless it was extremely urgent.

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6. They were very helpful to their neighbours and friends.

7. Chinese tried very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food.

8. Yet they were always harrassed.

9. Harassment came in very strongly at the gold fields against the Chinese.

10. Whites made life very difficult for the Chinese even after getting a few helpful hints to mine better.

11. White people resented their effective work which led to success.

12. Chinese were prepared to work hard

13. and spend their money carefully.

14. Chinese were harrassed

15. and even physically harmed

16. for the simple reason, the whites were jealous.

17. They were jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thinking.

18. The whites destroyed properties of the Chinese

19. just so they would move away.
20. Pulling piggy-tails was common and to the extreme cutting them off,

21. for the simple fact, they looked different.

22. The Chinese had to defend themselves and their families.

23. Whites caused riots which caused death to the Chinese in their own communities.

24. Tents were burnt down at the mines

25. because whites couldn't stand the probabilities of them finding gold.

26. Chinese today are still harrassed,

27. mainly verbal abuse is used.

28. The law now insists on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

29. No matter what race you are there is nothing to be ashamed of

30. because you are still a human being.

Discussion of themes in text 2, Miranda.

An analysis of the themes in Miranda's text 2 reveals that this essay is largely a recount, bordering on a narrative, with a slight attempt made at arguing a case. A high proportion of the themes have to do with people doing things or having things done to them. The predominance of topical themes support this view. Most of the topical themes refer to Chinese [or they] and the Whites [or they].
The only exceptions to this pattern are in nos. 1, 9, 20 & 29 where marked themes and nominalised terms are used and in nos. 16 & 21 where Miranda uses a textual theme to develop her argument. This is also evident in the increased use of textual themes 'but, unless, yet, and, because'. The introduction of such a usage reflects the fact that the writer is beginning to argue abstractly and is venturing towards an interpretation of history.

The choice of the themes determines the method of development of the text. 'Chinese' features prominently in the themes, followed by 'the Whites'. Hence, we see the developing argument as what the Chinese did, how they behaved, in what ways the Whites responded. The reasons for their response is barely touched upon. This is due to the fact that the choice of themes do not call upon the 'reasons' for the harassment of the Chinese but on what they had done and what was being done to them.

**Miranda, text 2. Analysis of reference.**

1. In the period of gold seeking there [1] were many different races involved, such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others.
2. The Chinese [2] were the least offensive
3. but [they] [3] strongly harrassed by other races.
4. The Chinese [4] had a lot of patience while working systematically in the mines and never bothering anybody
5. unless it [5] was extremely urgent.
6. They [6] were very helpful to their neighbours and friends.
7. Chinese [7] tried very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food.
8. Yet they [8] were always harrassed.
10. Whites [10] made life very difficult for the Chinese even after getting a few helpful hints to mine better.
12. Chinese [12] were prepared to work hard
13. and spend their money carefully.
14. *Chinese* [13] were harrassed
15. and even physicley harmed
16. for the simple reason, *the whites* [14] were jealous.
17. *They* [15] were jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thingking.
18. *The whites* [16] destroyed properties of the Chinese
19. just so *they* [17] would move away.
20. *Pulling piggy-tails* [18] was common and to the etreme cutting them off,

23. *Whites* [21] caused riots which caused death to the Chinese in their own communities.
24. *Tents* [22] were burnt down at the mines
25. because *whites* [23] couldn't stand the probabilities of them finding gold.

26. *Chinese* [24] today are still harrassed,
27. mainly *verbal abuse* [25] is used.
28. *The law* [26] now insists on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

29. No matter what race *you* [27] are there is nothing to be ashamed of
30. because *you* [28] are still a human being.

*Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 2, Miranda.*

Conjunctively relatable units Reference chain

*The Chinese*

2. The Chinese
3. they

4. The Chinese
6. They

7. Chinese
8. they

14. they
17. they
21. they
Discussion of reference in text 2, Miranda.

The reference system as seen in the themes of Miranda's text 2, shows the essay to be very cohesive. The focus is on 'the Chinese' and on 'the Whites'. The term 'chinese' is referred to eleven times, directly or indirectly through the choice of the topical theme 'they'.

'Whites' is the next biggest reference group in this text, being referred to eight times. Such a great emphasis being placed upon people and their actions shows that the writer is working at a concrete level. However, cohesion is still maintained by the reference system which depends largely on 'people' rather than abstract notions.

The use of the generic 'you' is interesting to note. The reader is being directly involved.

Miranda, text 2. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. In the period of gold seeking there were many different races involved, such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others.
2. The Chinese were the least offensive
3. but strongly harrassed by other races.
4. The Chinese had a lot of patience while working systematically in the mines and never bothering anybody
5. unless it was extremely urgent.
6. They were very helpful to their neighbours and friends.
7. Chinese tried very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food.
8. Yet they were always harrassed.
9. Harassment came in very strongly at the gold fields against the Chinese.
10. Whites made life very difficult for the Chinese even after getting a few helpful hints to mine better.
11. White people resented their effective work which led to success.
12. Chinese were prepared to work hard
13. and spend their money carefully.
14. Chinese were harrassed  
15. and even physically harmed  
16. for the simple reason, the whites were jealous.  
17. They were jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thinking.  
18. The whites destroyed properties of the Chinese  
19. just so they would move away.  
20. Pulling piggy-tails was common and to the extreme cutting them off,  
21. for the simple fact, they looked different.

22. The Chinese had to defend themselves and their families.  
23. Whites caused riots which caused death to the Chinese in their own communities.  
24. Tents were burnt down at the mines  
25. because whites couldn't stand the probabilities of them finding gold.

26. Chinese today are still harrassed,  
27. mainly verbal abuse is used.  
28. The law now insists on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

29. No matter what race you are there is nothing to be ashamed of  
30. because you are still a human being.

1.  
2.  
3. exp. adv. 'but'  
4.  
5. exp. causal 'unless'  
6.  
7.  
8. exp. adv. 'yet'  
9.  
10.  
11.  
12.  
13. exp. additive 'and'  
14.  
15. exp. additive 'and'  
16. exp. causal 'for the simple reason'  
17.  
18.  
19. exp. causal 'just so'  
20.  
21. exp. causal 'for the simple fact'
Discussion of conjunctions in text 2, Miranda.

A total of six causal, three additive and two adversative conjunctions are used in this essay.

Apart from no. 5 where a conditional causal is used, the remaining causal conjunctions coded in this essay are all either realised by the word 'because' or words which could be more effectively substituted by a more powerful conjunction [nos. 16 & 21]. All these causal connections show cause and effect as being realised within the same sentence boundary and are all explicit. It could be argued that the conjunctions in nos. 16 & 21 are an attempt to realise logical relations of cause in incongruent ways where the reasoning is transferred to words and structures within the clause itself.

The additive conjunctions are also realised within the same sentence boundary. Two are coded by 'and' and the fourth additive uses 'mainly'. The first two additives are reflective of a more spoken discourse while 'mainly' approaches the latter end of the spoken/written mode continuum.

'But' and 'Yet', the two adversative conjunctions reflect the student's awareness to frame and attempt to follow through an argument.
Nos. 4–5 are related retrospectively to no. 2 while nos. 10–16 are linked retrospectively to no. 9. No. 17 is linked prospectively to nos. 18–21. This backwards and forwards relations creates a series of structured sandwich paragraphs and shows the text to be organised to a certain degree through exemplification.

The conjunctions used in this essay show the writer to have started working at an abstract level. Logical relations are being realised within the same sentence boundary, with an occasional attempt to transcend this in the use of the adversative conjunctions. This indicates that the writer is aware of the need to argue a case, a view which is reinforced by Miranda's attempt to organise her text through exemplification in her use of 'structured sandwich paragraphs'. These small meanderings show that the writer is progressing towards the latter end of the spoken/written mode continuum.

**Miranda, text 2. Analysis of nominalisations.**

1. *In the period of gold seeking* there were many different races involved, such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others.
2. The Chinese were the least offensive
3. but strongly harrassed by other races.
4. The Chinese had a lot of patience while working systematically in the mines and never bothering anybody
5. unless it was extremely urgent.
6. They were very helpful to their neighbours and friends.
7. Chinese tried very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food.
8. Yet they were always harrassed.
9. *Harassment* came in very strongly at the gold fields against the Chinese.
10. Whites made life very difficult for the Chinese even after getting a few helpful *hints* to mine better.
11. White people resented their effective *work* which led to success.
12. Chinese were prepared to work hard
13. and spend their money carefully.

14. Chinese were harrassed
15. and even physically harmed
16. for the simple reason, the whites were jealous.
17. They were jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thinking.
18. The whites destroyed properties of the Chinese
19. just so they would move away.
20. Pulling piggy-tails was common and to the extreme cutting them off,
21. for the simple fact, they looked different.

22. The Chinese had to defend themselves and their families.
23. Whites caused riots which caused death to the Chinese in their own communities.
24. Tents were burnt down at the mines
25. because whites couldn't stand the probabilities of them finding gold.

26. Chinese today are still harrassed,
27. mainly verbal abuse is used.
28. The law now insists on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

29. No matter what race you are there is nothing to be ashamed of
30. because you are still a human being.

Nominalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. In the period of gold seeking</td>
<td>setting in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. harassment</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. hints</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. work</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. for the simple reason</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. pulling piggy-tails</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. for the simple fact</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. riots</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. death</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. abuse</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Miranda, text 2. Analysis of participants.

Human Generic

different race
Chinese
European
English
The Chinese
other races
the Chinese they
their neighbours and friends
Chinese
everyone
they
the Chinese
whites
the Chinese
white people
Chinese
Chinese
the Whites they
the Whites
the Chinese they
the Chinese
themselves
their families
Whites
Chinese
their own communities
Whites
them
Chinese
Whites
race
you
you
human being

**Human Specific**

**Non-human; time/place**

in the period of gold seeking
in the mines
the gold fields
the mines
work place

**Non-human: metaphorical**

harassment
a few helpful hints
their effective work
the Chinese's wittyness and careful thingking
verbal abuse
equal rights
Non-human: concrete

small amount of food
their money
properties
piggy tails
them
they
riots
death
tents
gold
the law
same wages

Miranda, text 2. Analysis of processes.

1. In the period of gold seeking there were [1] many different races involved, [1] such as Chinese, Europeans, English among others.
2. The Chinese were [2] the least offensive
3. but strongly harrassed [3] by other races.
5. unless it was [6] extremely urgent.
6. They were [7] very helpful to their neighbours and friends.
7. Chinese tried [8] very hard to be kind to everyone whilst being fair by settling with a small amount of food.
8. Yet they were [9] always harrassed.[9]
12. Chinese were prepared [14] to work hard
14. Chinese were harrassed [16]
15. and even physicley harmed [17]
16. for the simple reason, the whites were [18] jealous.
17. They were [19] jealous of the Chinese's wittyness and careful thingking.
18. The whites destroyed [20] properties of the Chinese
20. Pulling piggy–tails was [22] common and to the etreme cutting them off,
21. for the simple fact, they looked [23] different.
24. Tents were burnt [27] down at the mines
25. because whites couldn’t stand [28] the probabilities of them finding gold.

26. Chinese today are [29] still harassed, [29]
27. mainly verbal abuse is used.[30]
28. The law now insists [31] on equal rights at work place, getting paid the same wages as whites.

29. No matter what race you are [32] there is [33] nothing to be ashamed of
30. because you are [34] still a human being.

Material

3. harassed
5. bothering
9. harassed
10. came
11. made
14. were prepared
15. spend
16. were harassed
17. harmed
20. destroyed
21. would move away
27. were burnt down
29. are harassed
30. is used

Relational

1. were involved
2. were
4. had
6. was
7. were
13. led
22. was
24. had
25. caused
26. caused
32. are

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Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 2, Miranda.

The first nominalisation in the text, 'In the period of gold seeking' sets the scene for the essay. According to Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1987] this is a setting in time and the reader immediately is aware that this is the period of history that will be dealt with in the essay.

Out of the remaining nine nominalisations seven code actions as nouns and two nominalise logical relations as nouns. The nominalisation of actions into things shows that reasoning found in spoken language, normally to be coded between clauses, begin to be transferred to words and structures within the clause itself. 'Harassment' in no. 9 and 'effective work' in no. 11 support the above statement. However, the use of such nominalisation in the text does not progress beyond these two words.

The use of the two logical relations coded as nouns are both indications that the writer is progressing towards expressing herself incongruently as befits the discourse of history.
Nevertheless, the text remains an account of the harassment suffered by the Chinese during the Gold Rush. The writer discusses the methods of harassment, the response of the Chinese and it is only half way through the text that the reasons for their persecution is briefly touched upon [nos. 11, 16 & 17]. Although the argument is shaping up through the use of logical relations and a few nominalisations, the text still remain largely congruent.

The choice of participants and processes further demonstrates that Miranda is moving away from individuals as actors in history to a predominant use of Human generic participants; out of thirty seven participants twelve refer directly to the Chinese and seven to the Whites. However, such a choice dictates the direction of the argument, bringing the focus on people and what they did. The non–human participants: time/place provide the setting for the actions the human generic participants will be involved with. The absence of human specific participants demonstrates that this is not the story of individual human beings.

It is interesting to note that the human generic 'you' is used twice at the end of the essay. The reader is being invited to participate directly in the text.

There is a higher proportion of material processes in this text. However, there is not much difference in the number of relational and mental processes. The choice of material processes indicate that the writer is working at a concrete level, more like telling a story whereas the inclusion of mental processes reveals that Miranda is expressing an opinion.
Most of the relational processes stem from the auxiliary very 'to be'. Nevertheless it is worth noting that three of the relational processes used enable the reasoning to be expressed in the words and structures within the clause itself [no. 12 'led'; no. 23 'caused'].

Taken as a whole analysis of nominalisation, participants and processes in Miranda's text 2 reveals that she has a knowledge of nominalisation but is not yet proficient in using it to structure her argument within the clause. Her choice of participants and processes show her to be working at a concrete level where the focus is still on people and events rather than on interpretation. However, there is an attempt at expressing herself abstractly through the use of logical relations as nouns and through the use of the few nominalisations.

Miranda, text 3.

12 June 1990

What was it like to be unemployed during the Depression?

Increasing unemployment put a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression. Being out of a job put stress on the family man, making himself believe he couldn't support his own family.

Australia had never introduced a poor law system so therefore families had to make do with what they owned or could scrounge up. Some families lived on the streets, they had to go through garbage tin scraps and sleep on hessian sacks. This was extremely embarrassing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.

Jobs were rare but when available, thousands of applicants queued up in hope of being the successful person. Most applicants didn't even have experience in the workfield that was needed but they were desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

Unemployment was one of the results caused by the Great Depression. Men and their families would do almost anything to survive the world-wide disease.
Miranda, text 3. Generic (Schematic) Structure.

Analysis

1. Increasing unemployment put a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression.
2. Being out of a job put stress on the family man, making himself believe he couldn't support his own family.

3. Australia had never introduced a poor law system so therefore families had to make do with what they owned or could scrounge up.
4. Some families lived on the streets, they had to go through garbage tin scraps and sleep on hessian sacks.
5. This was extremely embarrassing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.

6. Jobs were rare but when available, thousands of applicants queued up in hope of being the successful person.
7. Most applicants didn't even have experience in the workfield that was needed but they were desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

8. Unemployment was one of the results caused by the Great Depression.
9. Men and their families would do almost anything to survive the world-wide disease.

Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 3, Miranda.

Generic (Schematic) Structure

Text 3 contains a thesis which is clearly stated in the first sentence and the rest of the paragraph provides an elaboration. The reader is informed that unemployment during the Depression puts a lot of strain and stress on the family man.
The remaining essay proceeds to discuss the consequence of poverty and unemployment without any real attempt to link up the argument to the question. What is the connection of the lack of an Australian poor law system or the unavailability of jobs to What was it like to be unemployed during the Depression? This is only hinted at, not explicitly argued. The writer does state that the some families found it difficult to 'face these lowered standards of living' and were 'desperate' enough to do anything to find employment. No direct link is made between these points. It is left to the reader to infer that the unemployed during the Depression were stressed because they had to face lowered standards of living and could not support their family. This factor made them desperate enough to try anything to obtain employment.

The conclusion is completely unrelated to the question asked. It gives the cause of unemployment, not what it was like to be unemployed.

Miranda obviously has the necessary information available to her but is unable to argue the point raised by the question and link her answer to the issue being discussed.

Organisation

This is a short text, with four paragraphs. The argument starts off well but from paragraph two onwards the point is not explicitly argued. A series of statements are made and elaborated upon without any direct link to the question or main argument.
Each paragraph is well structured, with a clear topic sentence and elaboration. Paragraphs 2 and 3 both end with an indirect reference to the question, that people found their conditions of living humiliating and were desperate.

While Miranda appears to be coming to grips with arguing a point, she still lacks the necessary linguistic resources to sustain the argument across the text. This could be largely due to the fact that the question has not been completely understood.

**Miranda, text 3. Analysis of themes.**

1. **Increasing unemployment** put a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression.

2. **Being out of a job** put stress on the family man, making himself believe he couldn't support his own family.

3. **Australia** had never introduced a poor law system.

4. **so therefore families** had to make do with what they owned or could scrounge up.

5. **Some families** lived on the streets,

6. **they** had to go through garbage tin scraps

7. **and** sleep on hessian sacks.

8. **This** was extremely embarrassing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.
9. **Jobs** were rare

10. **but when available,** **thousands of applicants** qued up in the hope of being the successful person.

11. **Most applicants** didn't even have experience in the workfield that was needed

12. **but they** were desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

13. **Unemployment** was one of the results caused by the Great Depression.

14. **Men and their families** would do almost anything to survive the worldwide disease.

**Discussion of themes in text 3, Miranda.**

With the exception of three textual themes all themes in Miranda's text 3 are topical themes. Four of these directly or indirectly refer to 'unemployment' [nos. 1, 2, 9 & 13] and seven refer to people [families/applicants in nos. 4, 5, 6, 10, 11 12 & 14].

It is thus immediately apparent that the method of development for the argument will be based around 'unemployment' and it is the family men who are the actors and they are the applicants for the jobs available.

While 'people' is chosen as the main method of development for this text and thus gives it a recount flavour, an element of the expository style writing surfaces in the essay with the use of abstract terms as the point of departure in nos. 1, 2 & 13. Cohesion is maintained through the theme of unemployment and family man. However, the question is not explicitly
answered. This is probably due to the lack of more textual themes to link up the issues raised in the argument.


1. **Increasing unemployment** [1] put a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression.
2. **Being out of a job** [2] put stress on the family man, making himself believe he couldn't support his own family.

3. **Australia** [3] had never introduced a poor law system
4. so there -fore families [4] had to make do with what they owned or could scrounge up.
5. **Some families** [5] lived on the streets,
6. **they** [6] had to go through garbage tin scraps
7. and sleep on hessian sacks.
8. **This** [7] was extremely embarrassing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.

9. **Jobs** [8] were rare
10. but when available, **thousands of applicants** [9] queued up in hope of being the successful person.
11. **Most applicants** [10] didn't even have experience in the workfield that was needed
12. but **they** [11] were desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

13. **Unemployment** [12] was one of the results caused by the Great Depression.

Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 3, Miranda.

Conjunctively relatable units Reference chain

**Most Families**

5. Some families
6. they

**Most applicants**

11. most applicants
12. They
12. Unemployment

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Discussion of reference in text 3, Miranda.

The references identified in the themes in Miranda's text 3 give the essay a degree of cohesion. `Unemployment' in [1] links up with a different usage of the same term in [2] and is raised again as `unemployment' in [11].

`Families' begun in [4] is continued through to [6] thereby maintaining cohesion in the text. A similar system of reference is seen in [9]–[11] when `thousands of applicants' is introduced and continuity maintained over the next two clauses. In both cases the reference is sustained across the sentence boundary.

In [7] the reference in the demonstrative provides additional cohesion to the text by referring to the rheme of the previous sentence.

The reference system depending on `people' for cohesion is more successful than the one depending on the use of abstract term. This demonstrates that although the writer is prepared to venture into the realm of abstractions, she is still more comfortable in using congruent language.

Miranda, text 3. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. Increasing unemployment put a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression.
2. Being out of a job put stress on the family man, making himself believe he couldn't support his own family.

3. Australia had never introduced a poor law system
4. so therefore families had to make do with what they owned or could scrounge up.
5. Some families lived on the streets,
6. they had to go through garbage tin scraps
7. and sleep on hessian sacks.
8. This was extremely embarrassing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.

9. Jobs were rare
10. but when available, thousands of applicants qued up in hope of being the successful person.
11. Most applicants didn't even have experience in the workfield that was needed
12. but they were desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

13. Unemployment was one of the results caused by the Great Depression.
14. Men and their families would do almost anything to survive the world-wide disease.

1.
2.
3.
4. exp. causal 'so therefore'
5.
6.
7. exp. additive 'and'
8.
9.
10. exp. adv./temp. 'but when'
11.
12. exp. adv. 'but'
13.
14.

**Discussion of conjunctions in text 3, Miranda.**

There is a general lack of explicit conjunctions in Miranda's text 3. The essay is dependent on two adversative, one temporal and two causal conjunctions to show the logical relations in the text. It is interesting to note that four of these conjunctions are realised within the same sentence boundary and are in apposition. This is obviously a characteristic of spoken discourse and therefore indicates that the writer is working at a congruent level.
Nevertheless, Miranda is attempting to argue a case as is demonstrated in her choice of the adversative conjunction in no. 11 and she is also trying to prove her point through the use of exemplification in paragraphs 2 and 3. The move towards the latter end of the oral/written mode continuum is slight but is present.

Miranda, text 3. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. Increasing unemployment put a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression.
2. Being out of a job put stress on the family man, makeing himself believe he couldn't support his own family.

3. Australia had never introduced a poor law system
4. so there –fore families had to make do with what they owned or could scrounge up.
5. Some familied lived on the streets,
6. they had to go through garbage tin scraps
7. and sleep on hessian sacks.
8. This was extremely embarrassing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.

9. Jobs were rare
10. but when available, thousands of applicants qued up in hope of being the successful person.
11. Most applicants didn't even have experience in the workfield that was needed
12. but they were desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

13. Unemployment was one of the results caused by the Great Depression.
14. Men and their families would do almost anything to survive the world–wide disease.

Nominalisation Description
1. Increasing unemployment doings acting
1. Great Depression setting in time
2. Being out of a job doings acting
8. lowered standards of living doings acted on
11. experience action into Thing
13. Unemployment action into Thing
13. results action into Thing
13. Great Depression setting in time
14. disease action into Thing
Miranda, text 3. Analysis of participants.

**Human Generic**

Workers
their families
family man
himself
he
his own family
families
they
some famlied
they
thousands of applicants
the successful person
Most applicants
men
their families

**Human Specific**

**Non-human: time/place**

the Great Depression
Australia
the streets
the Great Depression

**Non-human: metaphorical**

increasing unemployment
a lot of strain
Being out of a job
a poor law system
lowered standards of living
Jobs
in the workfield
the position
Unemployment
results
the world-wide disease

**Non-human: concrete**

garbage tin scraps
hessian sacks
Miranda, text 3. Analysis of processes.

1. Increasing unemployment put [1] a lot of strain on workers and their families in the Great Depression.

4. so there therefore families had [5] to make do with what they owned [6] or could scrounge up.[7]
5. Some families lived [8] on the streets,
6. they had [9] to go through garbage tin scraps
8. This was [11] extremely embarrasing and humiliating trying to face these lowered standards of living.

9. Jobs were [12] rare
10. but when available, thousands of applicants qued up [13] in hope of being the successful person.
11. Most applicants didn't [14] even have [14] experience in the workfield that was needed [15]
12. but they were [16] desperate and willing to do anything for the position.

13. Unemployment was [17] one of the results caused [17] by the Great Depression.
14. Men and their families would do [18] almost anything to survive the world-wide disease.

Material

1. put
2. put
3. couldn't support
4. had introduced
6. owned
7. could scrounge up
8. lived
9. had [to go]
10. sleep
13. qued up
15. was needed
17. was caused
18. would do
Existential

12. were
14. didn't have

Relational

5. had
11. was
16. were

Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 3, Miranda.

The first two words of the text set the scene for the essay. 'Increasing unemployment' is a nominalised term which expresses in one clause what in speech would have been two or more. Two processes have been turned into nouns and take the place of actors in the clause. This demonstrates the writer's ability to work at an abstract level.

The third nominalisation is not as sophisticated as the first one, but it still serves the same sort of purpose and it could be described as Making Things Act [Eggin, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

In both these cases and to a lesser degree in no. 7 the use of these nominalisations enables the writer to organise her text in a way that brings in focus how 'increasing unemployment' affects people during the Great Depression.

However, this type of organisation changes in the second and third paragraphs when nominalisation is used to a minimum. In these instances the writer is recounting the experiences of people who lived through the Depression and it is only in the last paragraph [where four nominalisations are used] that she reflects on the issue. Nevertheless, there is no
reflection on what it was like for the people who were unemployed. A completely different point is raised.

To a certain extent Miranda has started to reflect on the issue being discussed. She is occasionally able to use the resources of grammatical metaphor to organise her information but the text still falls short of the aim to generalise experience.

Miranda's choice of participants focuses on generic classes in preference to individuals 'Workers, families, applicants'.

People are still responsible for the majority of the actions taking place in the essay, thereby keeping it at a congruent level. Thus, there is a large number of material processes with few relational ones. This is an indication that the writer is operating at a concrete level.

The inclusion of nominalisation, the choice of participants and processes show that Miranda is progressing towards producing an abstract discourse of history. There is an attempt to organise available information appropriately and to reflect upon the issue being discussed.

Miranda, text 4.

21 August 1990

What were some of the major arguments put forward by those opposed U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War?

The involvement of the United States troops immediately raised points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men and, as the war wore on, the fact that it was a war that could not be won.
Soon after President Johnson was elected to a second term as president, he authorised the use of U.S. troops in offensive operation. At the same time the First New York times said U.S. support for South Vietnam had been transformed into "an American war against Asians".

As time went on it became evident that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed, the U.S. would not win. It was clear that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong and they moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons. To clear patches of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange. This use of chemicals also caused an outcry in the U.S.

Citizens ask why so many American were being sent to Vietnam and why many were being killed by the Vietcong. Added to this was the unrest caused by conscription and the number of young men feed the country rather that be drafted into the army.

Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.

The Vietnamese war was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considere and not understood. Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it had the opposite effect when the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of the demands of the United States people.

**How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?**

The United States became involved in Vietnam when it feared the spread of communism and then feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.

America's presence in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels. At the time America was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.

As the U.S. was committed to a Free Vietnam, they not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam, but also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.

To begin with, the U.S. presence was limited to advisors, but with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, President Kennedy committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army. This change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S. militatary itself. Taylor Johnson is militatary advisor, believed that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to win.

On arrival of the first U.S. troops, President Johnson stated that the U.S. forces couldn't enter the war unless requested to do so by the South Vietnamese militatary and that they should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops.
Miranda, text 4. Generic (Schematic) Structure.

Analysis

1. The involvement of the United States troops immediately raised points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men and, as the war wore on, the fact that it was a war that could not be won.

2. Soon after President Johnson was elected to a second term as president, he authorised the use of U.S. troops in offensive operation.
3. At the same time the First New York times said U.S. support for South Vietnam had been transformed into "an American war against Asians".

4. As time went on it became evident that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed, the U.S. would not win.
5. It was clear that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong.
6. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong and they moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons.
7. To clear patches of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange.
8. This use of chemicals also caused an outcry in the U.S.
9. Citizens ask why so many American were being sent to Vietnam and why many were being killed by the Vietcong.
10. Added to this was the unrest caused by conscription and the number of young men feed the country rather that be drafted into the army.
11. Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.
12. The Vietnamese war was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considerd and not understood.
13. Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it had the opposite effect when the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of the demands of the United States people.

How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?

14. The United States became involved in Vietnam when it feared the spread of communism and then feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.
15. America's presence in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels.
16. At the time America was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.
17. As the U.S. was committed to a Free Vietnam, they not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam, but also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.

18. To begin with, the U.S. presence was limited to advisors, but with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, President Kenedy committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army.

19. This change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S. milatary itself.

20. Taylor Johnsonis milatary advisor, believed that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to win.

21. On arrival of the first U.S. troops, President Johnson stated that the U.S. forces couldn't enter the war unless requested to do so by the South Vietnamese milatary and that they should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops.

Analysis.

Part I

1. Thesis + preview
2. Topic sentence
3. Elaboration
4. Topic sentence
5–8 elaboration
9. Topic sentence
10. Elaboration
11. Topic sentence [no other link]
12. Restatement of thesis
13. Elaboration

Part II

14. Thesis + preview
15. Topic sentence
16. Elaboration
17. Further elaboration of no.15
18. Topic sentence
19–20. Elaboration

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Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 4, Miranda.

Generic (Schematic) Structure

In her answer Miranda has reversed the order of the question which was originally set as How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War? What were some of the major issues put forward by those who opposed U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War. She answered the second part of the question first.

The thesis and preview are included in the same sentence which forms the first paragraph. Four issues are raised to justify U.S. involvement in the war. However, no mention is made as to who opposed the war.

The issues raised in the preview are dealt with in a haphazard manner, without any external evidence of linking the argument. Issue 1 is dealt with in nos. 2–3 while issue 4 is discussed in nos. 4–8. Nos. 9 and 10 present the arguments for issues 2 and 3 respectively.

The final paragraph in this section comes very close to be a reiteration of the thesis. The 'uselessness of force used' and the fact that U.S. prestige failed to make an impression are emphasised. This is in keeping with the arguments put forward to oppose U.S. involvement in the Vietnam war. However, who are the main opponents? This fact remains unknown.

Miranda answers the first part of the question in nos. 14–21. The thesis and preview are included in the one sentence in no. 14 and the argument is introduced by the temporal conjunctions "when" and "then".
The writer proceeds to justify U.S.'s desire to prevent the spread of communism in Vietnam [Nos. 14–17]. The argument gets confusing in nos. 18–19 but manages to emerge with a justification in no. 20. The fact that the Vietnamese army was going to get 'the elan and style that was needed to win' seems to be a good reason for U.S.'s involvement in the war.

Paragraph 10 explains how U.S. presence extended beyond the presence of advisors. This was tied in with the notion that America could help the South Vietnamese win the war. In the first paragraph of part II it was clearly stated that it was a war that "could not be won". There is an obvious contradiction here. Miranda is not sure whether U.S. will help the Vietnamese win the war, or if the war is doomed before it has even started.

The final paragraph presents a completely different issue and stands by itself without any link to other parts of the essay.

The two parts of the question are treated as two different essays, each with its own thesis and argument. There is no attempt made to tie the two parts together by linking the argument. This affects the structural organisation of the essay.

While Miranda has shown herself to be capable of presenting an argument, it is still beyond her ability to sustain a discussion over a long text and keep track of the argument throughout.

Organisation

Paragraph 1 presents the thesis and preview both incorporated in the one sentence. This is quite effective.
Paragraph 2 is well structured – it shows that U.S. troops were involved in the war though no explicit reasons are given for their involvement.

Paragraph 3 is also well structured. A position is taken in the topic sentence and the elaboration proceeds to prove the point. The U.S. troops could not win because of the activities of the communist sympathisers. The ending of this argument is rendered weak because the student does not show how U.S. reacts to Agent Orange.

Nos. 9 & 10 are mere statements with no elaboration. No. 11 has no connection to other points and doesn't add anything further to the argument.

The conclusion is a restatement of the thesis. A personal opinion is offered "uselessness of force used". At the same time a new idea is introduced when the U.S. troops are recalled home.

Miranda has obviously dealt with several relevant points in her essay and shows an awareness of organisational structure. Both parts I and II have a clearly defined thesis and preview. Nos. 4–5 is a well structured paragraph and is well argued. While nos. 12, 13 & 14 show a good development of an argument, the conclusion in both parts is weak.

However other parts of the essay reflect the need for tighter organisational skills [nos. 18–21]. Miranda should aim to have clearly defined conclusions and link up ideas more effectively.

Not all the topic sentences are elaborated upon. In some cases the elaboration overflows on
to the next paragraph [in nos. 15, 16 & 17]. There is need for more emphasis placed on these organisational issues to produce a satisfactory historical discourse.

Miranda, text 4. Analysis of themes.

1. *The involvement of the United States troops* immediately raised points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men.

2. *and, as the war* wore on,

3. *the fact that it* was a war that could not be won.

4. *Soon after President Johnson* was elected to a second term as president,

5. *he* authorised the use of U.S. troops in offensive operation.

6. *At the same time the First New York times* said

7. *U.S. support for South Vietnam* had been transformed into 'an American war against Asians'.

8. *As time* went on

9. *it* became evident

10. *that no matter how many troops and armaments* were committed
11. the U.S. would not win.

12. It was clear

13. that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong.

14. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong

15. and they moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons.

16. To clear patches of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange.

17. This use of chemicals also caused an outcry in the U.S.

18. Citizens ask

19. why so many American were being sent to vietnam

20. and why many were being killed by the Vietcong.

21. Added to this was the unrest caused by conscription

22. and the number of young men feed [flee] the country rather that be drafted into the army.

23. Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.
24. **The Vietnamese war**

was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considerd and not understood.

25. **Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it**

had the opposite effect

26. **when the troops not**, **having overcome Vietcong**

were called home because of the the demands of the United States people.

How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?

27. **The United States**

became involved in Vietnam

28. **when it**

feared the spread of communism

29. **and then**

feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.

30. **America's presence in Vietnam**

was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels.

31. **At the time America**

was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.

32. **As the U.S.**

was committed to a Free Vietnam,

33. **they**

not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam,

34. **but also**

tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.
35. **To begin with,**
   the U.S. presence was limited to advisors,

   [tex][top]

36. **but with the strengthening**
   of the Soviet Presence,
   **President Kenedy** committed U.S. troops to halt
   the northern army.

   [top]

37. **This change of policy** was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S.
   military itself.

   [top]

38. **Taylor Johnsonis** believed

   [top]

39. **that the U.S. troops**
   **milatary advisor,**
   could give the South
   Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to
   win.

   [marked theme][top]

40. **On arrival of the first**
    **troops, President Johnson** stated that the U.S. forces
    couldn't enter the war

    [tex][top]

41. **unless** requested to do so by the South Vietnamese military

42. **and that they** should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese
   troops.

**Discussion of themes in text 4, Miranda.**

Themes chosen to show the method of development in text 4 is varied. Miranda uses a large
proportion of topical themes and an equally large number of textual/topical themes. In
addition there are a selection of marked themes and textual themes.

The topical themes selected demonstrate a move towards abstract writing. ˙The involvement
of the United States troops', ˙Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it', ˙This change of policy' are
all nominalised themes and determine the direction of the argument of the essay. At the
same time they show the ability of the writer to organise her argument and bring back into focus that the discussion is about the involvement of the U.S. and its policy regarding the Vietnam War. Themes such as the ones listed above show the reader how the text is being developed.

However, a number of the themes use as their point of departure generic classes of people or U.S. is used in a generic manner. This serves to bring the argument back to the level of where people are involved, thus giving it a recount flavour.

The fact that a large number of textual themes are selected as points of departure demonstrates the writer's ability to shape an argument. In no. 41 a textual theme is used on its own to show a different perspective. However, the textual themes in Miranda's text 4 are generally used to show a simultaneous action or to provide additional information on an issue already presented. From this point of view, it lends to the text a narrative element [nos. 4, 5 & 18].

The one unmarked theme [no.21] is effective in arguing the reason for U.S. troops being sent to Vietnam.

Miranda's writing development can be seen in her use of more complex clause structures where she shows the relationship between clauses in a sophisticated way. The clause complex 12–13 consists of two clauses, the second of which includes an embedded relative clause in its rheme. A further example of Miranda's writing development is seen in the complex structure of clause 24 where it post modifier follows the first section of the theme which is
qualified by a defining relative clause. Her ability to show the relationships between clauses in such a complex and sophisticated way demonstrates Miranda's increasing maturity as a writer.

Miranda's text 4 is approaching the expository style of writing. The choice of themes shows that the writer is able to grasp one method of development and argue her case to the best of her ability. Different points of departures are selected to show different arguments; textual themes are used to link up ideas in temporal sequence of in concepts. The writer has started to work at a more abstract level.

_Miranda. text 4. Analysis of reference._

1. The involvement of the United States troops immediately raised points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men
2. and, as _the war_ [1] wore on,
3. the fact that _it_ [2] was a war that could not be won.
4. Soon after _President Johnson_ [3] was elected to a second term as president,
6. At the same time _the First New York times_ [5] said
7. _U.S. support for South Vietnam_ [6] had been transformed into "an American war against Asians".
8. _As time_ [7] went on
9. _it_ [8] became evident
10. that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed,
12. _It_ [10] was clear
13. that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong.
14. _The jungles_ [11] were the home of the Vietcong
15. and _they_ [12] moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons.
17. _This use of chemicals_ [14] also caused an outcry in the U.S.
19. why so many American were being sent to Vietnam
20. and why many were being killed by the Vietcong.
21. Added to this was the unrest caused by conscription
22. and the number of young men fed [flee] the country rather that be drafted into
23. the army.

23. *Returning servicemen* [16] told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities
committed and the toll of human lives.

24. *The Vietnamese war* [17] was an example of the uselessness of force used,
however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not
considered and not understood.
25. Instead of boosting U.S. prestige *it* [18] had the opposite effect
26. when the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of
the demands of the United States people.

**How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?**

28. when *it* [20] feared the spread of communism
29. and then feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free
world.

30. *America's presence* [21] in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter
the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels.
31. At the time *America* [22] was violently opposed to the spread of communism
outside the European bloc.

32. As the U.S. [23] was committed to a Free Vietnam,
33. *they* [24] not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam,
34. but also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.

35. To begin with, *the U.S. presence* [25] was limited to advisors,
36. but with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, *President Kennedy* [26]
committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army.
37. This change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S.
military itself.
38. *Taylor Johnson* [27] is military advisor, believed
39. that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that
was needed to win.

40. On arrival of the first U.S. troops, *President Johnson* [28] stated that the U.S.
forces couldn't enter the war
41. unless requested to do so by the South Vietnamese military
42. and that *they* [29] should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops.
Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 4, Miranda.

Conjunctively
relatable units Reference chain

\textbf{War}

2. war
3. it

\textbf{President Johnson}

4. President Johnson
5. he

\textbf{the U.S.}

27. the U.S.
28. it
32. the U.S.
33. they

Discussion of reference in text 4, Miranda.

Some references are made directly or through a pronoun to United States. On one occasion it is referred as 'the U.S. presence' [clause 35]. This use provides a certain degree of cohesion in a text where one can lose track of the argument because of the organisational structure. In part I the theme United States is used interchangeably with 'America' presence' and with 'America'.

There are a few instances when cohesion is maintained by relating the theme to the idea raised in the rheme of the previous sentence [10] & [13].

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An element of impersonal references is brought in by the introduction of 'it' in references [8], [10] & [18].

This text is not relying simply on personal references to maintain cohesion in the essay. A variety of reference systems is being used. Abstract notions are being presented in one clause and are taken up in the theme of another, thereby maintaining the link. Miranda succeeds in achieving a cohesive essay in terms of her reference system, chiefly through her choice of 'United States'. However, there is some confusion in the last section when President Johnson, Taylor Johnson and President 'Kenedy' are being discussed. Who is being referred to? Are these the same person? The reader is left uncertain as to the role of this individual or these individuals.

Miranda, text 4. Analysis of conjunctions.

1. The involment of the United States troops immediately raised points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men and,
2. as the war wore on,
3. the fact that it was a war that could not be won.

4. Soon after President Johnson was elected to a second term as president,
5. he authorised the use of U.S. troops in offensive operation.
6. At the same time the First New York times said
7. U.S. support for South Vietnam had been transformed into "an American war against Asians".

8. As time went on
9. it became evident
10. that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed,
11. the U.S. would not win.
12. It was clear
13. that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong.
14. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong
15. and they moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons.
16. To clear patches of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange.
17. *This* use of chemicals also caused an outcry in the U.S.

18. Citizens ask
19. why so many American were being sent to Vietnam
20. *and* why many were being killed by the Vietcong.
21. *Added to this* was the unrest caused by conscription
22. *and* the number of young men feed [flee] the country rather that be drafted into the army.

23. Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.

24. The Vietnamese war was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considerd and not understood.
25. *Instead of* boosting U.S. prestige it had the opposite effect
26. *when* the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of the demands of the United States people.

*How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?*

27. The United States became involved in Vietnam
28. *when* it feared the spread of communism
29. *and* then feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.

30. America's presence in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels.
31. *At the time* America was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.

32. *As* the U.S. was committed to a Free Vietnam,
33. they not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam,
34. *but* also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.

35. *To begin with*, the U.S. presence was limited to advisors,
36. *but* with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, President Kenedy committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army.
37. *This* change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S. milatary itself.
38. Taylor Johnson is milatary advisor,
39. believed that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to win.

40. On arrival of the first U.S. troops, President Johnson stated that the U.S. forces couldn't enter the war
41. *unless* requested to do so by the South Vietnamese milatary
42. *and* that they should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops.

1. exp. temp. 'as'
2. exp. causal 'the fact that'
3. exp. temp. 'soon after'
4. exp. temp. 'At the same time'
5. exp. temp. 'As time'
6. exp. additive 'and'
7. exp. causal 'This'
8. exp. additive 'and'
9-14. exp. additive 'and'
10. exp. additive 'Added to this'
11. exp. additive 'and'
12. exp. adv. 'Instead of'
13. exp. temp. 'when'
14. exp. temp. 'when'
15. exp. additive 'and'
16. exp. temp. 'At the time'
17. exp. temp. 'As'
18. exp. adv. 'but'
19. exp. temp. 'To begin with'
20. exp. adv. 'but'
21. exp. causal 'This change'
Discussion of conjunctions in text 4, Miranda.

There is a total of twenty two conjunctions used in this essay, nine of which are classified as temporal, six additive, four are causal and three are adversative.

The temporal connections show that events are ordered according to the sequence in which they happened, 'Soon after', 'At the same time', 'when', 'At the time' and 'As'. This renders the text essentially story-like and is more concrete than abstract.

The story-like feature of the text is supported by the use of the five additive conjunctions. Four of these are the simple additive 'and'. Such a choice is an echo of the spoken mode rather than written mode. However, variation occurs in choices such as 'Added to this' though this could easily have been substituted with 'Furthermore'. This choice is clearly an indication of a writer attempting to argue a point by providing further evidence or examples.

The causal relation is realised within the clause, that is, it is expressed in incongruent ways.

On a number of occasions Miranda's use of logical relations enables her to structure the text at the level of lexico-grammar through Agency. 'This use of chemicals' [no. 11] and 'This change of policy' [no. 29]. Hence the reasoning one normally expects to find between the clauses has now been transferred to words and structures within the clause itself. Such a transfer takes the writer a step closer towards producing incongruent writing one expects in the discourse of history.

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This use of logical connections in Miranda's text 4 shows her to be moving towards developing and structuring her arguments in incongruent ways. There is a move to coding logical relations in the words and structures within the clause itself rather than relying on expressing logical connections between clauses. However, in other respects Miranda is still working at a concrete level. Temporal sequence is highly favoured and simple additive conjunctions are used without any variation.

Miranda, text 4. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. The *involvement* of the United States troops immediately raised points of *interference* in another countries policies, the unnecessary *loss* of the U.S. *lives* in that *conflict*, the *use* of *conscripted* men and,
2. as the *war* wore on,
3. the fact that it was a war that could not be won.
4. Soon after President Johnson was elected to a second term as president,
5. he authorised the *use* of U.S. troops in *offensive operation*.
6. At the same time the First New York times said
7. U.S. *support* for South Vietnam had been transformed into "an American *war* against Asians".

8. As *time* went on
9. it became evident
10. that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed,
11. the U.S. would not win.
12. It was clear
13. that there many communist *sympathisers* in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong.
14. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong
15. and they moved freely through them using booby traps and *ambushes* as effective weapons.
16. To clear *patches* of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange.
17. *This use* of chemicals also caused an *outcry* in the U.S.
18. Citizens ask
19. why so many American were being sent to vietnam
20. and why many were being killed by the Vietcong.
21. Added to this was the unrest caused by *conscription*
22. and the number of young men feed [flee] the country rather that be drafted into the army.
23. Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.

24. The Vietnamese war was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considered and not understood.

25. Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it had the opposite effect
27. when the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of the demands of the United States people.

How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?

27. The United States became involved in Vietnam
28. when it feared the spread of communism
29. and then feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.

30. America's presence in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels.
31. At the time America was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.

32. As the U.S. was committed to a Free Vietnam,
33. they not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam,
34. but also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.

35. To begin with, the U.S. presence was limited to advisors,
36. but with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, President Kenedy committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army.
37. This change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S. military itself.
38. Taylor Johnson is military advisor, believed
39. that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to win.

40. On arrival of the first U.S. troops, President Johnson stated that the U.S. forces couldn't enter the war
41. unless requested to do so by the South Vietnamese military
42. and that they should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops.

Nominalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>involvement</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interference</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loss</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lives</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conflict</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. use of conscripted men
2. war
5. use
5. offensive operation
7. support
7. war
8. time
13. sympathisers
15. ambushes
16. patches
17. This use
17. outcry
21. unrest
21. conscription
23. experiences
23. atrocities
23. lives
24. war
24. force
24. hopes
26. demands
28. spread
29. free
29. leader
29. defender
30. presence
30. desire
30. aid
31. At the time
31. spread
33. independance
34. free
34. buffers
36. the strengthening of Soviet presence
37. this change

action into Thing
action into Thing
making things act
action into Thing
making things act
action into Thing
setting in time
action into Thing
action into Thing
action into Thing
making things act
action into Thing
making things act
action into Thing
making things act
action into Thing
making things act
action into Thing
making things act
logical relation + action into
Thing
action into Thing
action into Thing
action into Thing
Miranda, text 4. Analysis of participants.

**Human Generic**

U.S. troops
President
Asians
many troops
many communist sympathisers
the Vietcong
the Vietcong
they
the U.S.
citizens
many American
many American
the Vietcong
the number of young man
the army
Returning servicemen
the troops
the Vietcong
leader
defender
the Communists
northern rebels
advisors
the U.S. troops
U.S. military
military advisor
the U.S. troops
South Vietnamese
U.S. troops
U.S. forces
the South Vietnamese military
they
the South Vietnamese troops

**Human Specific**

President Johnson
Agent Orange
President Kenedy
Taylor Johnson
President Johnson
Non-human: time/place

a second term
At the same time
time
South Vietnam
in the South
the jungles
the home of the Vietcong
them
patches of the jungle
in the U.S.
Vietnam
the country
in the jungle
a country
home
the U.S.
it
free world
in Vietnam
At the time
America
the Euro Bloc
U.S.
a free Vietnam
South Vietnam
free world

Non-human: metaphorical

the involvement
points of interference
another countries' policies
the unnecessary loss of U.S. lives
that conflict
the use of
the use of
offensive operation
the U.S. support
this use of chemicals
an outcry
the unrest
terrible experiences
the atrocities
the toll of human lives
the uselessness of force used
the hopes of
U.S. prestige
the demands of
the spread of communism
the U.S.' prestige
the free world
America's presence
the desire
the spread of communism
the independance of
communism
the U.S. presence
the strengthening of Soviet presence
this change of policy
the demands of
the clan and style

Non-human: other: concrete

the war
it
war
the First New York Times
an American war
it
armaments
booby traps
ambushes
effective weapons
conscription
the Vietnamese war
it
the aid
buffers
communism


1. The involment of the United States troops immediately raised [1] points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men and,
2. as the war wore on, [2]
3. the fact that it was [3] a war that could not be won.[4]

4. Soon after President Johnson was elected [5] to a second term as president,
6. At the same time the First New York times said [7]
7. U.S. support for South Vietnam had been transformed [8] into "an American war against Asians".
As time went on, it became evident that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed, the U.S. would not win. It was clear that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong and they moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons. To clear patches of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange. This use of chemicals also caused an outcry in the U.S.

Citizens ask why so many American were being sent to Vietnam and why many were being killed by the Vietcong. Added to this was the unrest caused by conscription and the number of young men feed the country rather that be drafted into the army. Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.

The Vietnamese war was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considered and not understood. Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it had the opposite effect when the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of the demands of the United States people.

How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?

The United States became involved in Vietnam when it feared the spread of communism and then feared loosing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.

America's presence in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels. At the time America was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.

As the U.S. was committed to a Free Vietnam, they not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam, but also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.
35. To begin with, the U.S. presence was limited to advisors, 
36. but with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, President Kenedy committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army. 
37. This change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S. military itself. 
38. Taylor Johnson is military advisor, believed 
39. that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to win. 
40. On arrival of the first U.S. troops, President Johnson stated that the U.S. forces couldn't enter the war 
41. unless requested to do so by the South Vietnamese military 
42. and that they should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops. 

Material 

1. raised 
2. wore 
4. could ... win 
5. was elected 
6. authorised 
9. went on 
11. were committed 
12. would ... win 
14. helped 
15. hid 
17. moved 
18. used 
21. were being sent 
22. were being killed 
25. feed 
26. be drafted 
27. be committed 
29. used 
37. being given 
40. was committed 
42. tried 
44. committed 
48. could give 
51. couldn't enter 
53. should operate
Relational

3. was
8. had been transformed
10. became
13. was
16. were
19. was caused
28. was
30. meant
33. had
35. became involved
38. was brought about
39. were opposed
43. was limited
45. was brought about
49. was needed

Existential

46. is

Mental

31. considered
32. understood
36. feared
37. feared
41. intended
47. believed

Verbal

7. said
20. ask
27. told
34. were called
50. stated
52. requested
Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 4, Miranda.

This text is heavily nominalised and the types of nominalisations show it to be a combination of a recount and an abstract historical discourse. Although there is a predominance of nominalising actions, Miranda has used the more sophisticated form of abstract language when she chose to 'make things act', when logical relations were used and when setting in time placed her discussion in context.

The predominance of the more simple nominalisation of actions into things reflects the first step to writing abstractly. The fact that several of these nominalisations are further removed from the spoken language of students brings it closer to the discourse of history, 'involvement', 'interference', 'the spread of communism'.

The selection of nominalisations where 'things are made to act' reinforces this notion. 'U.S. support ... had been transformed' is a further indication of this.

'The fact', 'This use', 'This change' are examples of logical relations used as a noun. Such a choice reflects the writer's ability to use abstract language to shape her argument. She is attempting to connect ideas and offer an interpretation rather than give a straightforward account of what happened.

Miranda's manipulation of language shows her to be capable of organising information in a way appropriate to historical discourse. This is a move closer to the latter end of the written end of the oral/written mode continuum. The language used by Miranda in this text is far more abstract than before. She has progressed to the point where she offers an interpretation
rather than just give an account. However, there is still a lack of evidence of her ability to use abstract language to generalise experience.

Nevertheless, the text overall reflects Miranda's increasing confidence in handling historical discourse.

Miranda's development in writing is also seen in her choice of participants and processes. The large percentage of the Human Generic participants shows that the writer is moving away from individuals to generic classes. History is no longer seen as just the story of individuals. In this case Miranda is concerned with informing the reader what the U.S. troops, the Vietcong and the Communists were involved in.

However, individuals have not completely been eliminated from the text. President Johnson and President Kennedy are discussed. The reason for this choice could possibly have been the fact that the President is regarded as a substitute for the country he is governing.

The large number of non-human: metaphorical participants reflects the signs of a more mature writer who has started to express herself more like an experienced writer. She is linking concepts and bringing a degree of interpretation in her text, 'the uselessness of force used', 'opposed to the spread of communism'.

The non-human: time/place participants localise the scene for the argument. Vietnam is the scene of conflict and the concept of a free Vietnam and a free world is presented.
The choice of processes in this text is in keeping with the other features of language used. There is a closer balance between the number of material and relational processes used [25/15]. Nominalisation of actions have influenced the choice of processes used in the text.

"...support for South Vietnam had been transformed [8] ..."

"The use of chemicals also caused ..." [19]

"... the hopes of the people themselves were not considered ...' [31]

The relational processes has moved away from the normal 'was' and is now being used to implicitly show logical connections between clauses, 'were opposed', 'meant', 'became involved'.

Mental processes used in the text tend to demonstrate the writer's move towards offering an opinion or interpretation, 'considered', 'intended', 'believed'.

The verbal processes detract from the overall effect of the text. It brings in an element of the narrative/recount text.

The high proportion of nominalisations along with the choice of participants and processes demonstrate that Miranda is using incongruent language and thus is a step closer to writing historical discourse which 'seeks to maximise the distance between what people did and how we write about it now.' [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987]
Sparta's *agoge* or education system was introduced to make the Spartiates the best soldiers in Greece. Why was this necessary?

It was necessary for Sparta to focus on educating its younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece. This community wanted to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves]. Hence, the education was the key to becoming a professional soldiers.

Eventually Sparta won a war against Messenia, which left Sparta with an increased community of Helots, so to keep the Helots in order, Sparta decided to have professional, full-time soldiers. The Helots were essential to Sparta's system, it persuaded the military force to always be in control of the Helots.

Sparta's military was a line of soldiers who were extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined. The first step was to ensure that everyone was healthy, those who were, then grew up with a nurse, who never spoilt them in any way.

When the boys, aged seven, they moved on to communal barracks until thirty years of age. During this period the boys experienced a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes. These young boys were being put through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.

Once the boys reached twelve, discipline became more harsh as well as their education. They were given very little food, for two reasons; in the first place it was believed that a small and simple diet tended to produce healthier and taller people. Secondly, the fact that they were provided on such limited rations, forced children to be more independent for themselves. However, if a boy was caught stealing, he was whipped and then in addition, given even smaller rations.

This discipline coupled with the bravery that was instilled in them, was regarded necessary to keep the Helot rebellion down. To do this, the soldiers had been taught to show no emotion during their education and whilst being a soldier.

Sparta's system of education was more a harsh training, designed to produce the best warriors. We might think of education as a school teaching maths or english, but the Spartans thought that military training was more appropriate, as they lived their whole lives so differently from ours. The training they received through such an education kept the Helots under control.
Miranda, text 5. Generic (Schematic) Structure.

Analysis

1. It was necessary for Sparta to focus on educating its younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece.
2. This community wanted to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves].
3. Hence, the education was the key to becoming a professional soldiers.
4. Eventually Sparta won a war against Messenia, which left Sparta with an increased community of Helots,
5. so to keep the Helots in order, Sparta decided to have professional, full-time soldiers.
6. The Helots were essential to Sparta's system, it persuaded the military force to always be in control of the Helots.
7. Sparta's military was a line of soldiers who were extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined.
8. The first step was to ensure that everyone was healthy, those who were, then grew up with a nurse, who never spoilt them in any way.
9. When the boys, aged seven, they moved on to communal barracks until thirty years of age.
10. During this period the boys experienced a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes.
11. These young boys were being put through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.
12. Once the boys reached twelve, discipline became more harsh as well as their education.
13. They were given very little food, for two reasons;
14. in the first place it was believed that a small and simple diet tended to produce healthier and taller people.
15. Secondly, the fact that they were provided on such limited rations, forced children to be more independent for themselves.
16. However, if a boy was caught stealing, he was whipped and then in addition, given even smaller rations.
17. This discipline coupled with the bravery that was instilled in them, was regarded necessary to keep the Helot rebellion down,
18. To do this, the soldiers had been taught to show no emotion during their education and whilst being a soldier.
19. Sparta's system of education was more a harsh training, designed to produce the best warriors.
20. We might think of education as a school teaching maths or english, but the Spartans thought that military training was more appropriate, as they lived their whole lives so differently from ours.
21. The training they received through such an education kept the Helots under control.

**Analysis.**

1. Thesis [beginning of]
2–3. Preview

4. Topic sentence
5–6. Elaboration

7. Topic sentence
8. Elaboration

9. Topic sentence
10–11 Elaboration

12. Topic sentence
13–16 Elaboration

17. Topic sentence
18. Elaboration

19. Topic sentence
20. Elaboration
21. Reiteration of thesis

**Discussion of Generic (Schematic) Structure in text 5, Miranda.**

**Generic (Schematic) Structure**

This essay has an excellent opening whereby the thesis is begun in sentence 1, extended in sentence 2 and tied together in the last sentence of the paragraph. The writer agrees with the question and gives two reasons for agreeing – to prevent loosing battle to external countries and to suppress helot rebellion.
Miranda proceeds with her argument by showing why it was necessary for Sparta to have 'professional full-time soldiers'. Then follows a statement listing the qualities of Spartan soldiers. The argument focuses on three of these qualities which the Spartan education aimed to inculcate in the soldiers. Each of these is dealt with in a different paragraph, supported with elaboration and explanation.

The conclusion to the text is a reiteration of the first paragraph where the thesis was presented over three sentences. The final paragraph follows a similar pattern and the conclusion is spread over three sentences.

The development of the arguments used in Miranda's essay can be summarised as follows:

a. Reason for military training
b. need to be in control of Helots.
c. qualities of Spartan heroes/health
d. steps to become a Spartan hero
e. harsh discipline lead to independence
f. harsh training produce the best warriors.
g. to keep the helots under control.

This text has a clearly defined thesis, well developed ideas and a good conclusion in the form of reiteration of thesis.
Organisation

The text is divided into seven paragraphs, including an introduction and a conclusion.

The introduction and the conclusion follow a similar pattern. While the first paragraph answers the question and provides an elaboration in three sentences, the conclusion reiterates the thesis across three sentences.

In paragraph 2 the argument is introduced in the second sentence while the first and last sentences are elaboration of this. Here it is argued that the helots were essential to the Spartan economy and their large numbers could pose a threat to the government.

Paragraphs 3, 4, 5 & 6 are all well structured with good topic sentences followed by a clear elaboration. These arguments are dedicated to showing how the education of the Spartans would produce tough, disciplined soldiers.

The last paragraph reiterates the need to keep helots under control, hence the necessity to focus on military education.

Miranda's text 5 is a well structured and well organised essay. The arguments presented are logically developed and supported by elaboration and exemplification. Each paragraph deals with a separate issue and all the issues are linked to the thesis and summarised clearly in the conclusion. The writer seems to be aware of the purpose of the task and handles the expository essay well.
Miranda, text 5. Analysis of themes.

1. **It** was necessary for Sparta to focus on educating its younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece.

2. **This community** wanted to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves].

3. **Hence, the education** was the key to becoming a professional soldiers.

4. **Eventually Sparta** won a war against Messenia, which left Sparta with an increased community of Helots,

5. **so to keep the Helots in order, Sparta** decided to have professional, full-time soldiers.

6. **The Helots** were essential to Sparta's system,

7. **it** persuaded the military force to always be in control of the Helots.

8. **Sparta's military** was a line of soldiers who were extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined.

9. **The first step** was to ensure that everyone was healthy,

10. **those who were,** then grew up with a nurse, who never spoilt them in any way.

11. **When the boys,** [were] aged seven,

12. **they** moved on to communal barracks until thirty years of age.

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During this period the boys experienced a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes.

These young boys were being put through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.

Once the boys reached twelve,

discipline became more harsh as well as their education.

They were given very little food, for two reasons;

in the first place it was believed that a small and simple diet tended to produce healthier and taller people.

Secondly, the fact that they were provided on such limited rations forced children to be more independent for themselves.

However, if a boy was caught stealing,

he was whipped

and then in addition [they], given even smaller rations.

This discipline coupled with the bravery that was instilled in them, was regarded necessary to keep the Helot rebellion had been taught to show no emotion during their education and whilst being a soldier.

Sparta's system of education was more a harsh training, designed to produce the best warriors.
We might think of education as a school teaching maths or english,

but the Spartans thought that military training was more appropriate,

as they lived their whole lives so differently from ours.

The training they received through such an education kept the Helots under control.

Discussion of themes in text 5, Miranda.

Miranda has chosen 'Sparta' and 'Education' as her main method of development and this dictates her choice of themes. There are:

1. fourteen topical themes
2. nine combination of textual and topical themes
3. three combination of textual and marked themes
4. one textual theme
5. two marked themes.

The topical themes invariably have to do with people, 'this community', 'the helots', 'Sparta's military'. There are two exceptions where a nominalised term is used [Nos. 16 & 25].

From this it can be seen that history is treated like a story where people are still the actors. However, the two exceptions show that an awareness of history being more than a story of people is developing. Thus the topical themes realise that aspect of the field of the text that has been selected as its method of development.
The choice of textual themes, used in conjunction with topical and marked themes demonstrates that a cohesive element is being introduced in the text where issues raised in one clause is being linked to the succeeding clauses, 'Hence the education' [no. 3] On some occasions the textual themes place the events in a temporal sequence. Once again this is an echo of the view that regards history as story of people and events. However, other textual themes used in the text reveal that the writer is arguing a point of view, 'In the first place' [no. 18]; 'However, if a boy' [no. 20]. The increase in the number and variety of textual themes shows a trend towards incongruent writing.

The choice of the two marked themes [nos. 23 & 29] reflects the sign of a mature writer who, through her use of incongruent language, is able to organise information in her text effectively.

The thematic organisation of Miranda's text 5 shows her to be working abstractly. The themes used demonstrate that an argument is being developed and is maintained throughout the text.

**Miranda, text 5. Analysis of reference.**

1. *It* [1] was necessary for Sparta to focus on educating it's younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece.
2. *This community* [2] wanted to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves].
3. Hence, *the education* [3] was the key to becoming a professional soldiers.

4. Eventually *Sparta* [4] won a war against Messenia, which left Sparta with an increased community of Helots,
5. so to keep the Helots in order, *Sparta* [5] decided to have professional, full–time soldiers.
6. *The Helots* [6] were essential to Sparta's system,
7. *it* [7] persuaded the military force to always be in control of the Helots.
8. *Sparta's military* [8] was a line of soldiers who were extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined.

9. *The first step* [9] was to ensure that everyone was healthy,

10. *those who were*, [10] then grew up with a nurse, who never spoilt them in any way.

11. When *the boys*, [11] aged seven,

12. *they* [12] moved on to communal barracks until thirty years of age.

13. During this period *the boys* [13] experienced a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes.

14. *These young boys* [14] were being put through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.

15. Once *the boys* [15] reached twelve,

16. *discipline* [16] became more harsh as well as their education.

17. *They* [17] were given very little food, for two reasons;

18. in the first place *it* [18] was believed that a small and simple diet tended to produce healthier and taller people.

19. Secondly, the fact that *they* [19] were provided on such limited rations, forced children to be more independent for themselves.

20. However, if *a boy* [20] was caught stealing,

21. *he* [21] was whipped

22. and then in addition, given even smaller rations.

23. *This discipline* [22] coupled with the bravery that was instilled in them, was regarded necessary to keep the Helot rebellion down,

24. To do this, *the soldiers* [23] had been taught to show no emotion during their education and whilst being a soldier.

25. *Sparta's system of education* [24] was more a harsh training, designed to produce the best warriors.

26. *We* [25] might think of education as a school teaching maths or english,

27. but *the Spartans* [26] thought that military training was more appropriate,

28. as *they* [27] lived their whole lives so differently from ours.

29. The training *they* [28] received through such an education kept the Helots under control.

Reference chain of the more significant elements in text 5, Miranda.

Conjunctively relatable units

Reference chain

the boys

11. the boys
12. they
13. the boys
14. these young boys
15. the boys
17. they
19. they
20. a boy
21. he

Spartans

27. Spartans
28. they
29. they

Discussion of reference in text 5, Miranda.

The references appearing in the themes of Miranda's text 5 provide the text with a great degree of cohesion. An analysis of the references reveals that 'Sparta's military' and 'boys' are connected through the text. 'Sparta's military' begun in [8] is carried across the text to [23], [26], [27] & [28]. The term is substituted with 'the Spartans' or 'they' or 'the soldiers' but all have either a direct or indirect reference to 'Sparta's military'.

The next term that shows a link across a great section of the text is 'boys'. 'Boys' or 'these young boys' or 'they' form the focus in paragraphs 4 and 5. It shows that it was the boys who were receiving the education. The choice of 'boys' as the theme in references [11]–[21] enables the writer to maintain cohesion in her text.

In references [6] & [7] the writer has been able to maintain cohesion through referring to the New in [6]. 'The helots' is the theme of [6] & [7] uses 'it'. This refers indirectly to the fact that the helots were essential. Hence, reference is made to the whole clause rather than to a single item. A similar example is found in [9] & [10].
The generic 'We' is used in [26], thereby involving the reader in the argument and at the same time comparing the Spartan's education system to the present day education.

The reference pattern used in Miranda's text 5 shows the writer to be able to maintain continuity in her text. References are linked across the clause boundary and across the whole text.

**Miranda, text 5. Analysis of conjunctions.**

1. It was necessary for Sparta to focus on educating its younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece.
2. *This* community wanted to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves].
3. *Hence*, the education was the key to becoming a professional soldiers.
4. *Eventually* Sparta won a war against Messenia, which left Sparta with an increased community of Helots,
5. *so* to keep the Helots in order, Sparta decided to have professional, full-time soldiers.
6. The Helots were essential to Sparta's system,
7. *it* persuaded the military force to always be in control of the Helots.
8. Sparta's military was a line of soldiers who were extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined.
9. *The first step* was to ensure that everyone was healthy,
10. *those who were, then* grew up with a nurse, who never spoilt them in any way.
11. *When* the boys, aged seven,
12. they moved on to communal barracks until thirty years of age.
13. *During this period* the boys experienced a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes.
14. *These* young boys were being put through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.
15. *Once* the boys reached twelve,
16. discipline became more harsh as well as their education.
17. They were given very little food, for two reasons;
18. *in the first place* it was believed that a small and simple diet tended to produce healthier and taller people.
19. *Secondly*, the fact that they were provided on such limited rations, forced children to be more independent for themselves.
20. *However, if* a boy was caught stealing,
21. he was whipped
22. and then in addition, given even smaller rations.

23. This discipline coupled with the bravery that was instilled in them, was regarded necessary to keep the Helot rebellion down,
24. To do this, the soldiers had been taught to show no emotion during their education and whilst being a soldier.

25. Sparta's system of education was more a harsh training, designed to produce the best warriors.
26. We might think of education as a school teaching maths or english,
27. but the Spartans thought that military training was more appropriate,
28. as they lived their whole lives so differently from ours.
29. The training they received through such an education kept the Helots under control.

1. exp. agent 'This'
2. exp. causal 'Hence'
3. exp. temp. 'Eventually'
4. exp. causal 'so'
5. exp. temp. 'The first step'
6. exp. temp. 'those who were then'
7. exp. temp. 'When'
8. exp. temp. 'During this period'
9. exp. Agent, temp. 'These'
10. exp. temp. 'Once'
11. exp. temp. 'in the first place'
12. exp. temp. 'Secondly'
13. exp. adv. 'However, if'
14. exp. temp. 'and then'
15. exp. agent, add. 'This'
16. exp. temp. 'To do this'
17. exp. temp. 'The'
Discussion of conjunctions in text 5, Miranda.

An analysis of the conjunctions in Miranda's essay on Sparta reveals it to be a highly incongruent text. Cause is realised at the level of lexico-grammar through Agency. Nos. 2, 14 & 23 are instances where Agent realises the connection in the clause structure rather than between clauses. This explains the absence of 'and' which is a common feature in many students' writing and it also demonstrates the writer's ability to manipulate language to express logical relations in incongruent ways.

Miranda's mastery over this aspect extends to her competence in presenting the development of her ideas in a logical way through the use of logical relations expressed as nouns. Nos. 9, 13, 18 & 19 place the arguments in sequence in which they occurred. These exemplifications are employed to elaborate on her argument.

The causal links in the text show a logical progression of ideas. No. 3 'Hence' is retrospectively linked to clause nos. 1 & 2.

The large number of temporal conjunctions introduce an element of recount in the text. Clauses 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 18 & 19 each deal with a temporal conjunction which is realised between clauses and describes one phase of the Spartan boys' education.

The adversative conjunctions used by Miranda provide an alternative point of view. It is an attempt to argue and come up with a different interpretation.
The use of logical relations has enabled the writer to organise the text through exemplification. This in turn necessitated the use of a large number of temporal conjunctions. By coding logical relations in the words and structures of the clause itself Miranda has demonstrated that she can structure her argument more effectively.

Miranda, text 5. Analysis of nominalisations.

1. It was necessary for Sparta to focus on educating its younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece.
2. This community wanted to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves].
3. Hence, the education was the key to becoming a professional soldiers.

4. Eventually Sparta won a war against Messenia, which left Sparta with an increased community of Helots,
5. so to keep the Helots in order, Sparta decided to have professional, full-time soldiers.
6. The Helots were essential to Sparta's system,
7. it persuaded the military force to always be in control of the Helots.

8. Sparta's military was a line of soldiers who were extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined.
9. The first step was to ensure that everyone was healthy,
10. those who were, then grew up with a nurse, who never spoilt them in any way.

11. When the boys, aged seven,
12. they moved on to communal barracks until thirty years of age.
13. During this period the boys experienced a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes.
14. These young boys were being put through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.

15. Once the boys reached twelve,
16. discipline became more harsh as well as their education.
17. They were given very little food, for two reasons;
18. in the first place it was believed that a small and simple diet tended to produce healthier and taller people.
19. Secondly, the fact that they were provided on such limited rations, forced children to be more independent for themselves.
20. However, if a boy was caught stealing,
21. he was whipped
22. and then in addition, given even smaller rations.

23. This discipline coupled with the bravery that was instilled in them, was regarded necessary to keep the Helot rebellion down,
24. To do this, the soldiers had been taught to show no emotion during their *education* and whilst being a soldier.

25. Sparta's *system of education* was more a harsh *training*, designed to produce the best warriors.

26. We might think of *education* as a school teaching maths or english,
27. but the Spartans thought that *military training* was more appropriate,
28. as they lived their whole *lives* so differently from ours.

29. The *training* they received through such an *education* kept the Helots under control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalisation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. battle</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. revolt</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. increasing population</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. education</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. war</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. increased community</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. force</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. line</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The first step</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. the paces</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. discipline</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. education</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. reasons</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. in the first place</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. diet</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Secondly</td>
<td>logical relation as noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. limited rations</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. in addition</td>
<td>logical relation into noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. rations</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. This discipline</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. bravery</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. rebellion</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. system of education</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. training</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. military training</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. lives</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. training</td>
<td>making things act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. education</td>
<td>action into Thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Miranda, text 5. Analysis of participants.

Human Generic

its younger members
the best soldiers
this community
Sparta's increasing population
professional soldiers
Helots [slaves]
community of Helots
the Helots
military force
the Helots
the Helots
Sparta's military
a line of soldiers
everyone
those
nurse
them
the boys
they
the boys
these young boys
Spartan hero
the boys
they
healthier and taller people
they
children
a boy
he
them
the soldiers
a soldier
the best warriors
we
the Spartans
they
ours
they
the Helots
Human Specific

Non-human: time/place

Sparta
Greece
external cities
Sparta's
Sparta
Messenia
Sparta
Sparta
During this period
a scout camp

Non-human: metaphorical

it
education
key
Sparta's system
it
the paces of becoming a Spartan hero
discipline
their education
it
a small and simple diet
limited rations
even smaller rations
this discipline
the bravery
their education
Sparta's system of education
harsh training
education
school teaching maths/English
their whole lives
the training
education

Non-human: concrete

another battle
a revolt
military force
communal barracks
a light tunic
1. It *was* [1] necessary for Sparta to focus on educating its younger members to produce the best soldiers in Greece.

2. This community *wanted* [2] to prevent losing another battle with external cities and a revolt from Sparta's increasing population of the Helots [slaves].

3. Hence, the education *was* [3] the key to becoming a professional soldiers.

4. Eventually Sparta *won* [4] a war against Messenia, which *left* [5] Sparta with an increased community of Helots,

5. so to keep the Helots in order, Sparta *decided* [6] to have professional, full-time soldiers.

6. The Helots *were* [7] essential to Sparta's system,

7. it *persuaded* [8] the military force to always be in control of the Helots.

8. Sparta's military *was* [9] a line of soldiers who *were* [10] extremely fit, obedient, courageous, skilled, resourceful and disciplined.

9. The first step *was* [11] to ensure that everyone *was* [12] healthy,


11. When the boys, *were* [16] aged seven,

12. they *moved* [17] on to communal barracks until thirty years of age.

13. During this period the boys *experienced* [18] a scout camp, wearing only a light tunic and no shoes.

14. These young boys *were being put* [19] through the paces of becoming a Spartan hero.

15. Once the boys *reached* [20] twelve,

16. discipline *became* [21] more harsh as well as their education.

17. They *were given* [22] very little food, for two reasons;

18. in the first place it *was believed* [23] that a small and simple diet *tended* [24] to produce healthier and taller people.

19. Secondly, the fact that they *were provided* [25] on such limited rations, *forced* [26] children to be more independent for themselves.

20. However, if a boy *was caught stealing*, [27]

21. he *was whipped* [28]

22. and then in addition, *was* [29] given even smaller rations.

23. This discipline *coupled* [30] with the bravery that *was instilled* [31] in them, *was regarded* [32] necessary to keep the Helot rebellion down,

24. To do this, the soldiers *had been taught* [33] to show no emotion during their education and whilst being a soldier.
25. Sparta's system of education was more a harsh training, designed to produce the best warriors.
26. We might think of education as a school teaching maths or english, but the Spartans thought that military training more appropriate,
27. as they lived their whole lives so differently from ours.
28. The training they received through such an education kept the Helots under control.

Material

4. won
5. left
14. grew up
15. spoilt
17. moved
19. were ... put
22. were given
25. were provided
27. was caught stealing
28. was whipped
29. given
33. has been taught
38. lived
39. received
40. kept

Relational

3. was
7. were
9. was
10. were
11. was
12. was
13. were
16. were
20. reached
21. became
24. tended
26. forced
30. coupled
31. was instilled
34. was
36. was
Discussion of nominalisations, participants and processes in text 5, Miranda.

This text demonstrates Miranda's ability to use the discourse of history effectively through the use of abstract language to organise her argument. A point of view is presented and argued consistently throughout the essay. The text is not only heavily nominalised in terms of rendering actions into Things. At the same time these `things' are made to act as in clause 25, `Sparta's `system of education' ... designed to produce the best warriors.' Having posited the existence of Things, the writer is then able to talk about them in more material terms. Clause 16 informs the reader that `discipline' became more harsh'.

The use of logical relations as nouns reflects the writer's ability to organise the text in a logical manner which sustains the argument raised in the thesis across the essay.

After listing the qualities required of Spartan soldiers, Miranda alerts the reader that `The first step' was to ensure that everyone was healthy' [no. 9]. Paragraph 5 is arguing that discipline was harsh. The steps taken to ensure this is presented logically. `In the first place' [no. 16]
and 'Secondly' [no. 19] indicate the direction of the argument. Such an organisation of the argument is a sign of a more mature writer who is able to develop her ideas in a clear and logical way.

Miranda's text 5 presents an argument and attempts to bring in a degree of interpretation which is rendered easier by her effective use of nominalisations. There is a move towards using the incongruent language which is characteristic of the discourse of History.

The predominance of human generic participants and lack of human specific participants in Miranda's text 5 demonstrate that there is a move away from individuals who are performing actions sequentially in real time. The choice of human generic participants shows the writer to be generalising facts which occurred in the past and thus brings the text closer to the discourse of history [Egkins, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

The human generic participants focus on the young members of Sparta, thus setting the scene for their education. The Helots feature predominantly as they 'have to be kept down'. The choice of 'boys' occur frequently as it is their education that is at stake. Soldiers and warriors are emphasised as the younger members are being trained in this line of work.

Hence, the choice of non–human generic participants shows that there is a move away from individuals and at the same time enables the writer to organise her argument based on this choice.
The use on non-human metaphorical concepts is evidence of a more mature writer who is able to discuss important issues related to education in Sparta.

The few non-human concrete participants show that the text is moving away from using congruent language to a more abstract historical discourse.

The nominalisations used in the text along with the choice of participants have influenced the selection of processes. There is an almost equal balance between the number of relational and material processes used. There are eight mental processes and only one existential process.

Relational processes used in the text indicate that the writer is working abstractly, though there is little variation in the choice of the relational process. The auxiliary verb 'to be' is consistently used in the first section of the text. Clause 15 introduces a variation with the use of 'reached'. This is followed by five other relational processes 'became, tended, forced, coupled, was instilled' and the text ends with two more 'to be' processes. This demonstrates that Miranda is expanding her sphere of relational processes and she becomes more inclined to discuss concepts rather than talk about what people did.

The inclusion of mental processes such as 'experienced, was believed' shows Miranda to be more analytical in her approach and she is prepared to offer an interpretation.
The use of the passive tense in several of the material processes shows that things were done to the participants as opposed to the fact that they did things themselves. This is an indication that the writer is using abstract language.

The highly nominalised text, with its large percentage of human generic participants and relational/mental processes show that the writer has started to use historical discourse more effectively. There is evidence of a more tightly organised text, with an attempt at presenting arguments and interpretation of events of the past.


Generic (Schematic) Structure

The first text written by Miranda lacks a thesis but the second and the subsequent texts each includes both a thesis and a preview. However, text 5 shows a higher level of competency as it incorporates both in the same sentence. Thus, although initially the writer was unaware of the purpose of a thesis and preview, after a series of trials and errors she met with success in her final attempt where she presents her thesis, elaborates it in her second sentence and wraps it up in the final sentence of her introduction.

Initially Miranda appears to be confused about the purpose of a conclusion in an expository essay. The conclusion in text 1 could easily have been a thesis and it has no connection with the rest of the essay. Text 2 offers a conclusion in the form of an opinion. In text 3 the ending is sudden; there is a conclusion in the first part of text 4 but the second part ends with a statement of President Johnson's intention. The final text incorporates an excellent conclusion which links up with the arguments discussed in the essay. Hence, it can be
surmised that Miranda has been experimenting with the best way to handle this particular feature of the Schematic Structure and has finally arrived at an ending that proved to be satisfactory.

The first text has well structured paragraphs, each with a point and elaboration. However there is little linking of ideas, thus maintaining an argument across the essay is not always successful. The second essay starts linking up ideas, though some points still stand by themselves without any elaboration. This pattern extends to texts 3 and 5 and to a lesser degree in text 4.

On occasions Miranda slips into a pattern of presenting points without supporting evidence and fails to make the connection with the question.

Text 5 excels itself in this regard. This essay is well structured with a clearly defined thesis and preview which ties in with the conclusion. Several points are raised in the discussion and are well supported by elaboration. The points are linked to either the question or to one another in an attempt to argue a case.

Analysis of the schematic structure in Miranda's texts also reveals her ability to show her argumentative skills. While text 1 is a straightforward chronological account of events of the past, text 2 is a recount with a minor attempt at presenting an argument. Text 3 provides a good start with the thesis and preview discussing the effects of unemployment upon the workers, the rest of the essay is not linked up to the question. No explanation is offered as
to 'why' emphasis was on people. At this stage it is apparent that Miranda is not yet able to
tackle an issue in depth.

A similar pattern is followed in text 4 where a very good thesis is presented along with a
preview. Here, each of the issue raised in the preview is dealt with, but not in the order listed
in the preview. As with text 3, the writer does not link up the various issues under
discussion.

Text 5 is a successful text as it is well structured with a clearly defined thesis and preview.
The argument is clear and is carried across the text and the thesis is reiterated in the final
paragraph. It shows that Miranda has developed an awareness of the purpose of this genre
of writing and has become familiar with the structure and organisation of expository genre
of essays.

Themes
The choice of themes in Miranda's text 1 are largely based on 'people' as her method of
development. This is in keeping with her view of history to be the story of people and their
actions. The high proportion of topical themes focusing on people in all of Miranda's texts
demonstrates this view.

However, as she develops more experience in writing, Miranda varies her approach. Text 1
contains only one textual theme and argument does not as yet play a major role in the text.
Change in her approach comes rapidly in Miranda's essay. In text 2 textual themes are
introduced, showing her ability to development an argument. There is an increased use of
'but, because, unless, yet' demonstrating that she is able to present a fact and establish connection in terms of cause and time.

Miranda's increasing use of 'nominalised' topical themes and marked themes in her later texts help to determine the direction of her argument. Once this is obvious she is able to focus her attention on organising the arguments in a logical way.

The themes selected in the later texts show that Miranda has not completely moved away from people as her main method of development. However, she shows signs of becoming a more competent writer when she begins to take risks and use a more varied series of themes to show the method of development of her texts. This enables her to introduce an element of argument in her expository essay which stops being a complete recount and moves towards being a successful historical discourse.

**Conjunctions**

The conjunctions in Miranda's first text reveal that she is giving a chronological account of events which occurred in a particular period of history. Temporal, causal and additive conjunctions are used to place events in the sequence in which they happened and the reasoning behind their occurrence is coded between clauses rather than in the words and structures within the clauses themselves. The answer is not linked to the question. No sign of the logical development of an argument is apparent.

However, in text 2 Miranda realises that the answer to the question calls for an argument to be presented and logical relations begin to be expressed in incongruent ways [nos. 10, 16, &
Apart from these examples the rest of the conjunctions have to do with time and cause and are realised within the same sentence boundary. A similar approach is adopted in the use of additives which also reflect that the writer is working closer to the oral end of the oral/written mode continuum.

Text 3 is rather a short text and consequently contains few conjunctions. Nevertheless an attempt is made by Miranda to argue her case as is demonstrated through her use of the adversative in clause 11.

Miranda's text 4 is a far more sophisticated essay in comparison to the first three. There are indications of attempts to present an argument through the coding of a causal connection within the clause. In other instances, Miranda's use of logical connections enables her to structure the text at the level of lexico–grammar through Agency [nos. 14 & 16].

Such a use of conjunctions and logical relations shows Miranda to be developing and structuring her arguments in incongruent ways. However, in her use of temporal and additive conjunctions Miranda is still working congruently.

In contrast to the first 4 texts the final one is highly incongruent. There are more instances where cause is realised at the level of lexico–grammar through Agency, replacing the simple additive `and' which is common is spoken English. The incongruent nature of the text is further reflected in the logical development of Miranda's argument through the use of logical relations coded as nouns and exemplifications are presented to elaborate the argument.
The recount element has not completely disappeared from the text, as can be evidenced through the use of temporal conjunctions which place sequence of events in order.

Thus it can be seen that Miranda has progressed from offering a recount to presenting an argument which has culminated in her highly incongruent text in the final essay. She has developed an awareness and knowledge of effectively using conjunctions to shape an argument and organise her text through exemplification. This brings her closer to writing a historical discourse as defined by Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1987].

**Nominalisations**

Miranda's first text contains few nominalisations, thus pointing to the fact that it is a congruent piece of writing. However, the presence of these nominalisations shows that the writer is aware of the purpose of abstract language though she is unable to maintain this level of incongruent expression across the boundary of the text. The result is that the essay remains a recount of events of the past.

In text 2 Miranda makes a greater move towards incongruent writing when she nominalises logical relations as nouns. The fact that there are only two such instances in the text reveals that the writer has not yet acquired the competency required to write the discourse of history effectively.

Progress is more noticeable in text 3 when abstract expressions are used to assist in the organisation of the text to show how people were affected by increasing unemployment. However, Miranda has not yet started to use nominalisations to generalise experience.
Texts 4 and 5 are both highly incongruent texts. Miranda proceeds beyond Eggins' first stage of nominalising actions. Things are made to act and the use of logical relations as nouns enables the reader to see the direction of the argument, 'In the first place...', 'The first step...' [text 5]. Argumentation is seen in the use of abstract expressions which also assist in the linking of ideas across clause boundary.

All the texts focus on human generic participants thus reinforcing Miranda's view of history as the story of people and events. This view is in keeping with Eggins' notion that the removal of individuals from historical discourse is the first step towards maximising the distance of what people actually did and how it gets written down. History becomes what happens to classes of people rather than individual people [Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

The larger number of non-human: metaphorical participants in texts 4 and 5 shows that Miranda is able to manipulate language to a greater degree to achieve her purpose which is to argue a case.

The material processes used reflect the nature of the type of historical discourse attempted by the writer. They describe happenings and are dependent upon the participants selected. The lack of variety in the choice of relational processes is a major drawback in conveying arguments and interpretations in a more abstract fashion. There is the tendency to rely on the auxiliary verb 'to be' to show the relationship between participants. A greater knowledge of and a more extensive vocabulary in the field of relational processes would have assisted
Miranda in expressing herself incongruently, as is appropriate for an expository essay in the discipline of history.

**Conclusion.**

Analysis of the 5 texts created by Miranda demonstrates that she has developed an awareness of the structure of an expository essay. Although initially her writing does not reveal a thesis and preview by the time she reaches the final text, the structure of her essay is very clear. The thesis and preview are clearly defined and conclusion in the final text is a reiteration of the thesis. The argument is easily followed across the text. This is achieved through effective organisation of the text into paragraphs where an issue is dealt with in each section.

This effectiveness in organisation is in contrast to earlier attempts where Miranda had occasionally experienced difficulty in linking ideas between paragraphs and in offering an elaboration in support of the topic sentence. In the first essays it was more difficult to follow her argument and one reason for this obstacle was Miranda's inability to relate the answer or argument to the question set. Possible explanations for this difficulty could have been lack of understanding of the question or simply that the student had not yet developed the competency in handling this particular genre and was not familiar with the language features required to write an effective expository essay.

The final essay shows that Miranda has become familiar with the Generic (Schematic) Structure and organisation of the expository essay. From a recount style she has progressed to developing an argument in her text, taking into account the demands of the question.
Miranda's progress in the development of an argument is evident in her choice of themes. Initially few textual themes were used to show her method of development and topical themes selected focused on people. As she acquires more competence in writing she makes increasing use of nominalised themes and more sophisticated textual themes to organise her arguments in a logical way.

There is a move away from coding logical relations between clauses to realise these at the level of lexico-grammar through Agency and coding causal connections within the same clause complex. Such a move assists in making clearer to the reader the logical development of the ideas being discussed in the essay.

Miranda's use of abstract language helps her to organise her text more effectively. Initially she shows an awareness of the existence of nominalisations. However, the simple abstract expressions used do not add much to the organisation of her arguments. The later texts show a marked improvement in the effectiveness of the use of nominalised terms in determining the direction of her argument. From simple abstract terms she has moved to highly incongruent expressions which enables to link up ideas more in a logical manner.

The choice of participants in a text can be a determining factor in shaping the argument in a text. If the focus is on people, the text becomes a recount whereby the happenings of these people are told. However, if abstract issues form the focus of the text it enables the writer to argue a case and interpret events in the light of what happened in the past. Thus nominalised terms and non-human: metaphorical participants can be of great value in organising an expository essay. Miranda's final essays makes increasing use of both abstract
terms and non-human metaphorical participants. The drawback of Miranda's texts lies with her choice of relational processes. The auxiliary verb 'to be' does not lend itself to showing the relationship between participants of a clause in great depth. Processes such as 'occur, becomes, turn' would possibly lead to more abstract terms as themes of the clauses.


At the beginning of the study both Byron and Miranda demonstrate their unfamiliarity with the purpose of an expository essay. Neither is aware of the Generic (Schematic) Structure of this genre of writing and they do not include a thesis in the first text. In text 2 they both introduce a thesis and as their awareness develops each progresses at different rate. While Byron is grappling with the purpose of a thesis, Miranda is already working on the thesis and preview. In Byron's case progress is slow and at times actually displays signs of regressing whereas Miranda's development is more steady. Success is apparent in the thesis of her final essay and she proves her ability in effectively handling this particular stage of expository essay writing. Byron does not attain the same level of success in this area. The closest he comes to success is in text 5 when he sets out his thesis at the end of the essay.

The difficulty experienced by Byron lay in the handling of the final stage of expository essay writing. The purpose of conclusions seems to completely elude him and is virtually non-existent in his essays. In cases where they are present they fail to link up with the thesis and other parts of the essay. In Miranda's case the same concept initially applies. By the time she reaches her third text she seems to have got the notion of the purpose of a conclusion. However, there is a relapse in text 4 and awareness of the existence of a conclusion reappears in her 5th text. The conclusion in her final essay effectively sums up her case.
Initially the two students experience difficulty in setting out an argument supported with appropriate elaboration. One of the problems is their inability to differentiate between an opinion or interpretation and an elaboration or example. In Byron's case and to a lesser degree in Miranda's case there is the tendency to present ideas without supporting examples. These ideas are not linked up to the main argument. Byron's difficulty continues throughout the year. Miranda shows signs of overcoming this problem in some of her essays. Her final text is successful in this respect.

The progress achieved by Byron is seen in the development of awareness that expository essay writing requires a particular structure. The need to interpret the story of the past is seen in his attempts to argue his position in his later essays. However, at the end of the study Byron was still grappling with the difficulty in linking ideas to present a well structured and logical argument.

Miranda moves from a situation of unfamiliarity to that where she is not only aware of the purpose of an expository essay but is able to apply her knowledge to the task on hand. The essay on Sparta shows her ability to write an essay in an appropriate style.

**Themes**

Topical themes focusing on people seem to be an approach favoured by both Byron and Miranda. This results in presenting a picture of history as the story of people and interpretation does not initially play a major role in the development of the texts. As both students acquire more maturity as writers, the approaches used are varied. The focus of topical themes change from people to events or abstract expressions. In Byron's case this change is minimal but Miranda's later texts show an increased use of nominalised topical
themes indicating the direction of her argument. Once she has identified her position she is able to organise her argument in logical way. Byron is not able to maintain the same flow of argument across the text as fewer nominalised themes are used in his essays. Although progress is seen in Byron's later text, he seems to have reached a plateau in his essay on Sparta. The nature of themes selected with its emphasis on Spartan children gives this essay an element of recount rather than an argument.

The choice of themes indicating the method of development of his text shows Byron to be working concretely though there are glimpses of incongruent writing. His choice of textual themes are a further indication of his congruent writing. The few textual themes used do not add to the general development of his argument. In contrast Miranda quickly progresses to the stage where there is an increased usage of textual themes which demonstrates her ability to effectively develop an argument.

While Byron fails to create effective complex clause structures which show a wide range of relationships existing between them, Miranda is more successful. She demonstrates her maturity as a writer by starting to use some complex embeddings to further elaborate and modify previous clauses.

Reference chains in the themes used by Byron and Miranda provide a great degree of cohesion in their texts. Both students tend to rely on the personal pronoun 'he' or 'they' to establish their reference chains. This reinforces the idea that the writers are working at the oral end of the oral/spoken mode continuum. What is required to shunt them further along the mode continuum is familiarity with abstract terms selected as the method of development.
Conjunctions

There is a striking difference in Byron's and Miranda's choice and use of conjunctions to show the logical development of their texts. The scarcity and lack of variety in Byron's use of conjunctions reveal that he is working congruently. Temporal conjunctions show that history is regarded as a sequence of events. Abstract notions are not linked together. Logical relations are realised between clauses rather than in the words and structures within the clauses. According to the analysis Byron shows that he has not yet acquired the skill necessary to offer an argumentative discourse of history. People and events play a large part in his texts and thus he tends to recount events of the past rather than offer an interpretation of why such event happened as they did.

Miranda begins the year by holding similar views to Byron on the subject of historical discourse. History is seen in chronological terms; events are placed in sequence and reasoning is coded between clauses. However as she gains more maturity as a writer of historical discourse, Miranda realises the need to argue the position taken in her essay and there is a move to coding the logical relations within the clause complex. Her essay on Sparta shows Miranda to have developed a high level of competency in the use of conjunctions to show the direction of her argument. There are several instances where cause is realised at the level of lexico-grammar through Agency. Logical relations are coded as nouns and exemplifications are presented to elaborate her argument. An increased awareness of the purpose and use of conjunctions have assisted her to produce a highly incongruent text. This approaches the criteria of a historical discourse as set out by Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1987].
Nominalisations.

Byron and Miranda make use of relatively few nominalisations in their first text. Both students begin to make increasing use of abstract terms in their later essays though Miranda is faster to grasp the purpose behind using such incongruent language.

Byron begins to use some abstract terms in his later texts in his attempt to argue a case. However, he is unable to maintain this level of incongruent language across the text boundary. In addition a large proportion of nominalisations used by Byron tend to be a repetition of the wording of the question. This demonstrates that he is aware of the purpose of abstract language but is unable to make the leap that is necessary to turn his essay into an effective piece of historical discourse.

However, the fact that Byron is using more complex forms of nominalisations as described by Eggins, Martin and Wignell demonstrates that he has begun to write incongruently and the beginnings of an argument appear in his essay.

Progress in Miranda's case is faster. As early as text 2 she nominalises logical relations as nouns and in text 3 she has started to use abstract expressions to organise her text. Texts 4 and 5 are highly incongruent texts where she proceeds beyond the boundary of nominalising actions into Things. Things are made to act and logical relations are expressed as nouns. Text 5 is a far easier text to follow as the nominalised expressions enables the reader to follow the argument more clearly.
Byron's and Miranda's choice of participants show that they have taken the first step in moving away from the notion that history is the story of people. There is a great emphasis in both their texts on human generic participants. This shows that there has been a move away from focus on individuals as participants to focus on generic classes.

The difference between Byron's and Miranda's text arises in the choice of non-human: metaphorical participants. In Byron's case there are very few such participants. Miranda's later texts show a large proportion of these 'abstract' participants. This further demonstrates that Miranda has started writing more incongruently.

The choice of participants will determine the choice of processes in a text. With the large proportion of human generic participants in both students' text, it is inevitable that there is an abundance of material processes. These reflect actions or happenings.

Relational processes form a distinct feature of an expository essay. The variety of processes used would indicate to what degree the text is incongruent. Both Byron's and Miranda's texts reveal an abundance of relational processes. However, the majority of these are derived from the auxiliary verb 'to be'. To be more effective the writers should have chosen other terms such as 'become, turn, ...' which would have enabled them to vary their choice of participants.

Summary of findings.

When Byron and Miranda wrote their first essay there were several similarities in their understanding of the purpose of an expository essay. Neither was very clear about the
structure of this genre of writing and very little conscious attention has been paid to the language features of the texts.

As both students gain experience they begin to show signs of development as mature writers. However, the rate of progress is not the same for both students. Byron focuses more attention on one particular feature of the genre of writing, namely the generic (schematic) structure. By the end of the year, he has made some progress in this direction. However, Byron has not given equal attention to the development of logical argument and effective use of conjunctions has consequently suffered in the course of his writing. Overall he has become aware that the expository genre of writing calls for an argument and attempts have been made in this direction. This is evident in some of the themes used where nominalised terms enable him to organise his argument. However, Byron's lack of experience as a writer makes it difficult for him to sustain this effort across the text. There is a tendency to revert back to the written expressions which are more common in spoken English. From this it is seen that Byron is still writing congruently despite the few attempts to break through this barrier.

Miranda's rate of progress is faster. While she is unfamiliar with expository writing at the beginning she quickly comes to terms with this notion and starts applying her new found knowledge to the creation of her texts. Her understanding of the Generic (Schematic) Structure is very good and in her final texts she is able to use abstract topical themes to show her method of development of the argument. Conjunctions are effectively used in those later texts where logical relations have progressed from being coded between clauses to being coded in the words and structures of the clause itself. This effort is not sustained throughout
the text. However it can be seen that the student is familiar with this concept and further progress can be expected as she develops more maturity as a writer.

Awareness of abstract nature of written language is evident in Miranda's final texts. Nominalised terms are used effectively to show the organisation of her argument. Logical relations are expressed as nouns; cause is expressed at the level of lexico-grammar through Agency though this aspect is not explored in more depth.

Byron and Miranda both tend to place a greater emphasis on human generic participants. This affects the degree to which they are able to shape an argument in an expository genre of writing. Miranda moves away from this approach when she introduces non-human: metaphorical participants. Processes used are influenced by their choice of participants. Focus is on material processes which is in keeping with their emphasis on human generic participants. However, both students still need to become more aware of the part played by relational processes in an expository essay. There is too much reliance on the auxiliary verb 'to be'.

From the above analysis it can be seen that both Byron and Miranda have become familiar with the purpose of expository writing and are able to apply their knowledge to the creation of their texts. Byron grapples with specific features of this genre of writing while Miranda's development as a writer is far more advanced. She has displayed a degree of maturity that Byron has not as yet mastered.
4.10. **Part Six: discussion of interview with Shaw and Wright.**

**What is history?**

According to Shaw, history is about 'human beings' and the study of history provides the opportunity for people to relate to their fellow human beings. Interpretation of evidence is an important element. However, one needs to be able to bring in the 'relevant interpretation' to a particular event for it to make sense. Each individual will view a specific incident from his/her own perspective, giving it a different 'dimension'.

Wright sees history to be the study of the past in an attempt to understand the present and to anticipate the future. This is achieved through an analysis of cause and effect. For her, the study of the past is:

a. who is involved

b. attitudes/values of those involved

c. combination of factors that lead to certain results.

A summary of Shaw's view of history is:

\[
\text{people} \rightarrow \text{events} \rightarrow \text{relate to people} \rightarrow \text{dimension of interpretation}
\]

Wright's view can be summarised as follows:

\[
\text{people} \rightarrow \text{attitudes and values} \rightarrow \text{events} \rightarrow \text{analysis of cause and effect}
\]
The N.S.W. Secondary Schools' Board syllabus states that history is 'the story of people' where the historian's task is to take a 'selection of facts, arranged, interpreted and generalised to be meaningful' [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987].

Eggins, Wignell and Martin argue that the discourse of history is not a dynamic account of people and events. It 'seeks to maximise the distance between what people actually did and how it gets written about' [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987].

While Shaw, Wright, N.S.W. Secondary Schools' Board syllabus document and Eggins ... [et al] are agreed that history is the story about people and events and that the study of history involves bringing in a degree of interpretation of the events, each party approaches the task from a slightly different perspective.

Shaw sees history as a vehicle to improve relationship between human beings. The different degree of interpretation they bring to a particular event contributes to their bettering their relationship.

Wright sees that there is intrinsic value in analysing cause and effect of events which occurred in the past. In her case interpretation of events with an analytical approach forms an important part of the study of history.

Eggins, Wignell and Martin are in agreement with both Shaw's and Wright's views. However, they foresee a difficulty for students in their study of history. The written discourse of history is far removed from the spoken language of these students and the language of the history.
texts they encounter during their school years can be an obstacle in their understanding of issues involved.

How does one remove this obstacle from their paths so that they can understand the discourse of history and are able to analyse cause and effect of events enacted by people in the past?

It is obvious that an individual teacher's perspective on what is history, what is involved in the study of history will influence the way it is taught. Shaw's emphasis is on how history will 'improve' human relationship. Wright focuses on analysis of cause and effect and hope that this analytical approach will anticipate the future. Neither interviewee really takes into account the degree of difficulty or ease with which the students are able to handle the language of the texts to which they are exposed during their years of study of history. To what degree does the historical discourse approximate the language they are accustomed to in real life? This issue is vital for students' ability to interpret events of the past.

Teachers' expectations.

Shaw's expectations of students' proceeding to Years 11–12 are different from those who are prospective leavers at the end of Year 10. For the latter he feels that history should be 'pure enjoyment' while a greater burden is placed upon the senior students who need to learn academic skills such as 'research, writing and deductive skills'. These skills are encapsulated in essay writing which he terms as the 'unfortunate mechanism of H.S.C. studies'.
Wright expects her students to acquire a chronological knowledge of history alongside being analytical. She also expects them to fluently present their information both orally and in a written mode.

Both Shaw and Wright expect students to be able to make notes, summarise information and write reports. However, Shaw does not feel that essay writing is vital for junior school while Wright believes that 'the better kids' should have a firm grasp of essay writing by the end of Year 10.

For some teachers essay writing is not for the majority of students, certainly not something to be handled in junior school years. While it is recognised that it is an important part of the senior school years, it is felt that essay writing is a skill to be taught in several stages. It should be spread over a few years, and then only those who proceed to senior school will be initiated in the art of putting the basis ingredients of essay writing together in a whole. There seems to be an implicit agreement that essay writing is for the 'better kids'. Is it professional to omit teaching essay writing skill to 'the lesser able' students? What are the reasons for this omission? These are some of the questions one should keep in mind.

Can students think, read and write like historians?

Shaw sees a historian to be a person who delights in history and who is keen to find out why things happened the way they did, to draw relationships and conclusions. He feels that one should know why things occurred the way they did but at the same time he has reservations about all students being able to achieve the required degree of interpretation.
Wright feels that the historian's attempt to link events from a variety of sources together and to analyse cause and effect is a very sophisticated skill. However, Year 10 students should be able to achieve this complex skill in a limited way.

This section ties in with the previous one. Teachers' expectations of students and what they can achieve will most definitely have an influence on the performance of the concerned students. Shaw's view is that not all students are capable of achieving the required degree of interpretation. Wright feels that the interpretation reached by the students will not be as polished as that of historians.

**Schematic Structure.**

Wright's answer to this issue was simple and straightforward. The focus should be on theme and argument. An essay should be developed by providing detail to support generalisation.

Shaw went into more details. He starts off with the conclusion which he feels the students should have reached before they have even put pen to paper. His approach to teaching essay writing is undertaken in stages over Years 8 and 9. Students are given a body of facts and are encouraged to reach an opinion, then decide why that opinion was reached. This process occurs over a period of two years and the word 'essay' is not mentioned till the end of Year 9. In Shaw's opinion this forms the basic ingredient of essay writing.

The actual essay writing starts with identifying purpose and audience. The audience is invariably a teacher or an examiner whose aim is to 'test your knowledge' of the discipline
and to 'manipulate those facts in a way to demonstrate that you understand the systems that work in your subject area.'

Shaw's explanation of the schematic structure bears a close resemblance to Disadvantaged Schools' Program's version [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988] with the exception of the conclusion. Callaghan and Rothery see the conclusion as a restatement of the thesis; Shaw expresses his conclusion as a reversal of the presentation of the introduction. This could mean starting your conclusion with the last point raised in your introductory paragraph.

Wright did not go into details of the schematic structure of an essay. She just stated the importance of looking at the argument apparent in the essay. No explicit reference was made as to how students will acquire the knowledge to effectively structure an essay.

Shaw's method of teaching essay writing is detailed and occurs in several stages. He starts with a fact, leading to an opinion and reason for the opinion formed. There is no doubt that this provides the framework for essay writing. However, the students are not told that this is the first step in essay writing. The actual task of writing an essay in toto is not attempted till one to two years later. One might ask wherein lies the value in this approach? Should students be presented with the whole picture at the very outset or is it more beneficial to work through stages which is more manageable for them? Is there some value in informing students as to what they are learning and what the outcome is?
Models of history writing

An interesting distinction is made on 'models' of history writing by Shaw and Wright. While both regard history textbooks as possible models of history writing, Shaw feels that students are likely to regard these as merely sources of information rather than somebody's interpretation unless this is pointed out to them. He stresses that they have to be constantly made aware of this fact if 'we are going to teach kids to write essays presenting interpretation'.

Wright feels that history textbooks are inadequate models for essay writing as they are far too long and the development of argument tends to be lost by the time students reach the end of the text. She feels that a stronger model would be provided by exposing the students to essays written by 'more capable students'. The idea or model of argument would be clearer from such a text. Sometimes the students will benefit by having an essay written 'at the level of the students' by the teacher, or they could be provided by questions to respond to.

Shaw's emphasis on explicitness is very important for students to be made aware of what an interpretation is. They should be assisted in recognising analysis of cause and effect in order to bring in their own interpretation of past events.

While there is some truth that Wright's view that history textbooks are too long to be adequate models of history writing for students, these existing resources should be utilised to their full capacity to provide students with good models of historical discourse. A textbook does not have to be read from beginning to the end to identify an argument. It can be dealt with in sections. Peer writing can be very good models for students if they had participated
in the creation of the model. One piece of writing, whether they are from a textbook or from another student can prove to be as alien to another student who is not accustomed to following an argument in a text.

What would provide a good compromise would be exposure of students to both history textbook models as well as peer model texts.

**Class or Group Discussion**

Both Shaw and Wright agree that group discussion is a valuable exercise in the sense that the sharing of ideas assists students to focus on all the issues, helps them to modify their own opinions in the light of others and enables them to learn and develop ideas for writing their essay.

Group discussion can be taken a step further and students could attempt to jointly create a text. If class discussion has been found to be valuable, a joint construction of a text could have enormous implications for essay writing.

**Evaluation of Students' texts.**

Shaw believes it is important to 'make it very clear to the students' what he expects in any given piece of work. It could be looking for facts, expressing an opinion and/or development of a logical argument'.

Wright looks for understanding and communication skills in that order. She realises that fluency of expression cannot be separated from understanding, 'Best kids have both'.
However, she feels that in 'the lesser able students' there is a separation. In her evaluation of essay writing she seeks 'analytical, evaluative elements' and 'fluency of expression'. Wright has observed that while students are 'very good at their research and they have all the ideas ... it's their fluency of expression that lets them down. They don't tie things together properly, they spend about ten words when they could use four.'

'Understanding' and 'communication skills' or 'content' and 'expression' are factors that several teachers are confronted with during their teaching career. Many teachers feel that the 'better' students have the ideas and ways to express themselves. But the 'lesser able kids' have one but are deficient in the other. Can students have ideas without the ability to express them? Or is it that they are unable to express them in a way that is acceptable to 'written discourse'? If so, what are teachers doing to assist them to 'express themselves fluently'? Should teachers meekly accept the dichotomy between content and expression or should they seek a way to overcome this obstacle?

4.10.1. Discussion of interviews with students.

Interviews with Emily, Lucy, Miranda and Michael were structured using the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.

Selection of history as an elective.

Emily, Lucy and Byron selected history as their elective in their Year 10 studies because they 'hated geography more'. Miranda had been persuaded by her previous teacher that the study of history was worthwhile.
The reason for the choice of a subject will influence the way the students approach the study of that particular discipline. Motivation will play a major part in the acquisition of the necessary skills in becoming proficient in the subject. Hating geography more than history cannot be a good source of motivation for learning. In fact a negative attitude at the outset can be detrimental in the long run.

What is history.

The four students from Year 10H2 regarded history of being the study of events of the past. They learnt about experiences of the past, what happened in wars and contemplate on how lucky they are to be alive in present day.

Emily doesn't like any activities that involve her in thinking critically or interpreting evidence while the other three students feel there is some value in these skills.

History is regarded to be the story about people, events and interpretation of those events [Eggins, Wignell and Martin, 1987]. However, if someone sees history to be merely about events of the past then several problems arise. Firstly, the historical texts created by that person will tend to list events in a chronological order. What one will end up with is a sequence of events without any interpretation on the actions of those people in the distant past. This cannot be regarded as history. History is more than just 'events'.

A second problem will be the difficulty experienced in forming an opinion on an event or issue being discussed. This will influence the ability of the individual in question to think
critically, to reach an opinion and to argue logically. These three elements are vital for a historian to produce a historical text.

Value of essay writing

While the four students recognise that essay writing is important, the degree of enjoyment of this activity for each varied. For Byron and Miranda essay writing ranked third while Lucy ranked it as number one and Emily disliked this form of writing the most. Miranda and Lucy claimed that they did not experience much difficulty in writing essays. Emily and Byron saw it as a difficult task.

Getting started on the task of writing essays was an exacting task for all the four students. Emily admits that she doesn't know 'where to start and what to write'. Paragraphing and linking ideas is another aspect that each of the students found hard to handle. Miranda found great value in the sheets that were handed out to them from Disadvantaged Schools' Program's The Discussion Genre, 1989, pp.22–25. Emily and Lucy did not comment on the ease or difficulty of writing a conclusion while Miranda and Byron commented that they were able to handle it reasonably well. The degree of difficulty really depended on the question.

Despite the claims of the degree of enjoyment or the degree of ease of writing essays all students found it hard to 'get started', to present an argument in paragraphs and to link their ideas across the text. On the basis of this claim one can surmise that students need assistance in getting started on their writing activities. An understanding of the question or the task set will be an added advantage. It is the teacher's role to provide the required assistance and one of the ways this can be achieved is through explicitness of what is expected and required for
each of the task set. Miranda found it useful to use the list of linking words from the sheet handed out from *The Discussion Genre* [ibid] This shows that explicitness about specific features of a text is valuable for the students. Such explicitness could be extended to other elements of writing as well. However, explicitness should be exercised with discretion. Too much of it can be overpowering.

The four students interviewed regarded essay writing to be the most important and valuable form of writing. They all recognise that essay writing was a skill that would be of value not only in history but in other disciplines as well. It was seen to assist them in the development of their critical thinking ability and their ability to argue a point.

*Class or Group Discussion*

All the students found class discussion and group discussion to be extremely valuable in assisting them to clarify their ideas and helping them focus on the issue being discussed. Emily appreciated the extra assistance in writing but Miranda did not like `interference' with her writing activities. Discussion of issues was welcome by all. However, explanation of the purpose of the various parts of the text was one element that was regarded as an intrusion by all the interviewees.

Class discussion or group discussion is the first step in a joint construction activity [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988]. Judging from the reaction of the interviewees, such an approach can be extremely valuable in assisting students in the development of their writing. However, one should exercise caution in involving the whole class in a joint writing activity. Some students [like Miranda] prefer to work individually while students like Emily benefit from the
assistance and guidance provided. The teacher should assess the needs of the class as a whole before embarking on such a project. It might be wise to allow some students to work independently. However, while providing assistance to students like Emily one should be careful that they do not become excessively reliant on others. If that is the case writing development might be very slow to occur.

4.10.2. Students' evaluation of peers' text.

All the students in Year 10H2 were given a typed copy of Miranda's essay What were the major arguments put forward by those opposed U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War? How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War? [Miranda, text 4 – Appendix 5]. Miranda was given Byron's essay on the same topic [Byron, text 4 – Appendix 6]. No names were divulged and each student were handed a criteria sheet for evaluating the text. [Appendix 4]

Eight students examined the text and responded with an evaluation.

Each student commented on the existence of a thesis. It was described as 'a clear thesis', 'the thesis blended in well with the question', 'the essay has a thesis and preview in the first paragraph', or simply the essay had 'a good thesis'.

Students commented on the fact that the points were well supported and elaborated upon. Danny described it as 'strong arguments supporting the preview'.

It was recognised that the paragraphs were well structured, with an argument present in each. One student also noticed the absence of supporting evidence in some paragraphs.
The language features were also discussed. Miranda was praised for her good choice of words and her effective use of linking words, though Byron commented that wording for the essay could have been better.

Five respondents observed that the conclusion summed up/wrapped up/rounded up the essay. Two students saw the conclusion as a restatement of the thesis.

Miranda could not identify a thesis in Byron's text. The topic sentence gave the reader a different idea from what was intended. She described his essay as 'unclear work' where points were given in the whole paragraph, thus making it boring. The writer, according to Miranda was unable to link up his ideas to the opening sentence.

Three students gave the essay a mark: a) 19.5/20  b) 8.5/10  c) 38/40.

Miranda observed that the writer of this text was merely giving a chronological list of events based on the dates instead of expanding on the points.

The final comment made was that there was a need for using linking words. She even allocated a mark to the essay – 16/40.

*Discussion of students' evaluation of peers' text.*

The comments made by the students' after reading their peer's essay reveals that they have a good understanding of the structure of an essay. They are aware of the purpose of a thesis
to the extent that they can recognise the existence of one in a text. Some are also aware that
a preview usually accompanies a thesis in the same paragraph.

From the comments made by the students it can be surmised that they are familiar with the
nature of an expository essay. It was generally commented that this essay should have an
argument that is supported by examples or it should be elaborated upon. A few identified the
lack of supporting examples in some paragraphs.

The organisation of an essay is another feature with which the students have become familiar.
Some commented on the fact that each paragraph had an argument or others found that the
paragraphs were well organised.

In addition students were aware that the choice of words could be a contributing factor in
creating a good essay. Miranda's good choice of words and vocabulary was remarked upon.

Several respondents observed the use of linking words. Although the purpose of conjunctions
was not explicitly mentioned, the mere remark shows that they are aware that linking words
help to show the logical development of an argument.

Overall the students in Year 10H2 revealed, by their various comments in this evaluation
exercise that they are aware of what an expository essay is and what features contribute to
creating an effective essay.
4.10.3. Students' general evaluation of academic year 1990.

All the students in Year 10H2 were given oral instructions to write an entry for their learning log. Suggestions for entry were made: What had they learnt during the year 1990 in their history classes? What aspects appealed to them the most? What did they dislike the most? What was the most valuable lesson learnt? Ten students submitted their entries.

Most of the students felt that they had learnt a great deal about events of the past, or as some described it, they had learnt several topics in history.

This could be due to the fact that many students regard history as 'events of the past' and come to regard the study of history as just that. This belief could be altered through exposure to appropriate history texts and relevant discussion as is shown by comments made by Miranda and Danny. The former said that she learnt not only several topics but also about 'ways of learning' and Danny not only learnt about events of the past but also how to write about them.

A few students felt strongly enough to comment that they 'hated geography' more than history but two had revised their opinions about this 'hate' and now enjoyed history. This changed was brought about because they felt relaxed with their teacher and they felt that they were gaining something out of the lessons. Two students expressed negative attitudes about the whole class. They hated writing, especially when they had to write about something that they did not know anything about. The main factor is these two students were generally unhappy about everything, including their classmates. The fact that they received low marks for their assignments did not improve matters for them.
The negative attitude of these students is significant in the sense that it shows that writing development will not occur if motivation does not come from within the people involved.

While the value of essay writing was recognised, students had mixed feelings about this activity. Some felt that this particular skill was valuable as it enabled them to cope with their writing activities in other disciplines. Others felt that they had obtained a good grasp of essay writing. A few had a general idea of what was expected of them in essay writing but were still experiencing difficulties in 'getting started'.

Several students commented on the ability to use linking words. This aspect is very important as an effective use of conjunctions will show if students are able to link up their ideas in a logical manner.

The comments about 'good vocabulary' which blends with the topic reveals the students' awareness of abstraction in the written word. This awareness may not be extensive but is sufficient to enable them to recognise the difference between language which is closer to the oral end of the oral/spoken mode continuum and abstract language which is a feature of historical discourse.

On the whole the students viewed history as events of the past. Such a view will cause problems in the writing of historical discourse if students are not made aware that there is more to writing history than recreating events of the past. They should be assisted in interpreting these events.
4.11. Conclusion.

The outcome of the teaching that occurred in Year 10H2 in 1990 showed that students came to recognise the value of essay writing as a useful skill. It was a skill that was valuable not only in writing historical discourse but could also be transferred to other disciplines. Students realised that essay writing could not be acquired in one sitting but was an activity that would yield results over a long period of time. There were several elements involved in the attempt to become proficient in essay writing skill. One needed to be able to structure and organise an essay according to the purpose and control over language was viewed as an asset to achieving this ultimate end.
Chapter Five

5. Summary and conclusions.

5.1. Discussion of results.

This study set out to assist students in Year 10H2 gain control over the expository genre of writing in their creation of historical texts. Analysis of ten essays written by two students was undertaken to determine if writing development followed as a consequence of certain teaching strategies being applied to the teaching/learning situation.

Interviews with teachers were designed to ascertain the current teaching practices regarding essay writing. Students' perceptions of the value of essay writing skills were also recorded in interviews which took place during the year. Peer evaluation procedures were used when students assessed each other's essays. This final chapter draws conclusions from all data collected.

"Once students can control the structure of genre and the field, tenor and mode features of the text, they are free to develop their own texts, whether they be narrative or expository. ... In exposition, they can concentrate on developing argument or presenting examples to support assertions. ... They are thus freed to learn, and to be successful in schools, steadily mastering new and varied information as they deal with the various school subjects." [Rothery, 1984, p. 114]
5.2. Lack of understanding of question, genre and its purpose.

One unforeseen finding which emerged in this study was the students' lack of understanding of the question set. A correct interpretation of the question was vital if students were expected to create successful texts in any particular genre. In this study both students initially failed to relate their answers to the question. This led them to write a recount of events of the past instead of presenting an expository essay. Byron's and Miranda's first attempts at expository genre revealed a lack of awareness and purpose of the genre they were expected to write in. Their first text was a chronological account of events which occurred in that particular period of history rather than the presentation of an argument [Byron, texts 1, 4; Miranda, text 1]. After her first essay Miranda's texts incorporated an attempt at discussing issues raised in the question though these arguments were not always immediately apparent [Miranda, texts 2, 3, 4]. However, Miranda's understanding of the question set was evident in her handling of and her ability to relate her answer to the question at different points of the discussion [Miranda, text 5].

In Byron's case progress was not apparent immediately. There was the tendency to touch around the periphery of the question set without completely achieving the purpose of the task. On some occasions a good start was made though he quickly lost track of the argument [Byron, text 3]. Or, in other instances, he missed the main point altogether even when he was dealing with certain aspects of the question [Byron, text 5].

In situations like this a clear understanding of the question would be extremely useful to assist the students to relate their answers to the set questions at all times. It would also
be beneficial for the students to be able to recognise the genre they are expected to write in.

5.3. Generic (schematic) structure.

In view of the fact that language is used for so many different purposes and involves so many different types of schematic structure it is very important for students to be aware of all these differences [Rothery, 1985]. This awareness will enable them to distinguish between the different genres and select the appropriate schematic structure for the particular purposes they encounter in their writing activities.

Initially Byron and Miranda did not have an adequate knowledge of the schematic structure of an exposition. Their first essays did not contain a thesis/preview. Consequently it was difficult to identify the position being defended by the writer. The lack of a thesis and preview made the task of setting out an argument more demanding for the writers. The end result was a recount instead of an exposition [Byron, text 1; Miranda, text 1].

As the students gained more experience and as their understanding of the schematic structure of exposition increased, progress became evident in their writing, though the rate of development in each case differed.

While Byron showed an awareness of the purpose of a thesis and preview in this genre of writing, he did not reach the point where he was in complete control of this particular feature of the structure of exposition. Progress was not steady in his case and he
proceeded in a haphazard manner. In his text 2, he presented the outline of a thesis and
text 3 contained both a thesis and a conclusion which reiterated the thesis. However, by
the time he reached text 4, he had reverted back to presenting a chronological account of
events. His final text incorporated the thesis in the last paragraph.

Miranda's grasp of this feature of the expository genre of writing was faster. She quickly
tuned in to the role of the thesis/preview and started to make effective use of this element
in her writing. Her essay on Sparta showed that she has a firm understanding of this
particular stage of expository writing. Her initial attempts at essay writing tended to focus
on the thesis and preview and she failed to give the same attention to her conclusion.
However, her final text was testimony to her success in having mastered the notion of
schematic structure of the expository genre.

Unfamiliarity with the structure of an exposition led to other problems. Byron's
conclusion was completely unrelated to the question set whereas Miranda's conclusion
took the form of a thesis [Byron, text 1; Miranda, text 1]. At this stage of their writing
both students were unaware of the exact purpose served by a conclusion in an exposition.

Although there was a semblance of conclusion in Byron's essays, they were not
appropriate to exposition genre. A good beginning, with an appropriate thesis and
preview will assist Byron to take a stance on the issue being discussed. Arguments will
stem from the introduction and consequently the purpose of the conclusion will be more
apparent.
Byron needs more explicit assistance in developing competency in structuring his essay in a style that is socially acceptable. He has shown an awareness that exposition requires a different structure and he has attempted to replicate this knowledge in his writing. However, he has not reached the stage where he can proceed to produce a well-structured essay based on his present knowledge. Continuous guidance and explicit instruction will assist him in developing competency in structuring an expository genre of writing.

5.4. Difference between argument and elaboration.

One of the striking elements in the texts of both students was the difficulty they had in distinguishing between an opinion/interpretation/point and an elaboration/example. In several instances an idea was presented on its own without supporting evidence while at other times examples were given without a general statement introducing them. This tendency made it difficult to link up ideas across the text and to add strength to the main argument.

The inability to argue and offer an interpretation of past events sometimes resulted in students presenting a chronological account. Byron continued to experience this problem throughout the year while Miranda appeared to have largely overcome it by the time text 5 was written.

Students need to be made aware of the difference between the main idea [be it of a paragraph or a whole text] and elaboration of the idea if they are expected to write an effective argumentative essay. This can be achieved in two ways. First of all exposure to a wide variety of texts is essential as they form the models for their later writing.
Secondly, reading of the models should be accompanied by discussion and attention should be focussed on the purpose of the texts involved. Such continuous, explicit guidance would be of great advantage in assisting students in identifying the difference between an argument and exemplification.

5.5. Competency in manipulating language through the use of themes.

It has been argued that explicit instruction in language use helps students become competent users of language [Rothery, 1985]. One significant area where awareness and understanding is important for development in writing is the ability to recognise the method of development required in the genre under consideration. The theme, the first element in a sentence or clause, provides the method of development which enables the writer to move from one proposition to another and thus realise the meaning intended.

The theme is the grammatical element that enables the writer to develop the message through clause structure, thus bringing the reader's attention to the main argument of the text. A knowledge of the purpose of themes is thus very important in an expository genre where students are expected to take a stance and prove their point.

In their first essays both Byron and Miranda tended to rely on topical themes for their method of development. The focus of a large proportion of these topical themes was on people. This showed that they saw History as the story of people and what happened to them. At this early stage there was no notion of interpretation or arguing their case. What was produced was a recount of events of the past. However, as they became more
familiar with the development of an argument in an expository text, each student's understanding of the purpose of themes was demonstrated in different ways.

The themes generated by Byron remained largely topical themes, with the main focus being on people. There was, however, an indication that the writer was prepared to take more risks in experimenting with the use of abstract themes as his chosen method of development [Texts 2 and 3]. Nevertheless, this effort was not sustained throughout the text due to his lack of confidence in his ability to handle this type of written discourse.

Another aspect which was apparent in Byron's writing was the limited variety of textual themes used in the essays. Those that were present in his texts did not contribute greatly to the general development of the argument. Byron needs to learn to make more effective use of textual themes to link his argument across the whole text.

Miranda's greater understanding of the purpose of themes in an expository text was evident in the rapid change in her choice of themes to show her method of development for her text. From the more common topical themes with focus on people she quickly moved to effectively using nominalised themes indicating the direction of her argument. Such a choice, combined with a carefully selected range of textual themes, enabled her not only to clearly identify her argument but also to organise her argument in a logical way.

Hence, while Byron's choice of themes showed him to be still viewing historical discourse as the story of people and events which occurred in the past, with an occasional glimpse
of argument, Miranda had moved into the domain of interpretative writing by the time she had reached her final essay.

5.6. **Logical relations through the use of conjunctions.**

In an expository essay more than one argument is presented in favour of a judgement and a mature writer will, through effective use of conjunctions, be able to maintain continuity of ideas between sentences, clauses, paragraphs and across the text boundary.

Initially both Byron and Miranda showed that they were able to use logical connections in congruent ways. The scarcity and lack of variety in Byron's use of conjunctions showed him to be working within the confines of spoken discourse rather than argumentative written discourse. Connection was shown between events of the past but Byron failed to show the logical development of his argument. This was due mainly to his choice of very simple conjunctions which are more typical of spoken discourse [and, but, also]. If Byron varied his choice of conjunctions more and attempted to show reasoning in the words and structures within the clauses themselves as well as between clauses, his expository essay would have been more successful.

While Byron's texts cannot be considered to be successful in sustaining the flow of ideas through the use of logical connections, Miranda has shown herself to have a better understanding of the purpose of conjunctions in an essay of this nature. Very early in the year she realised that logical relations can be expressed in incongruent ways [Text 2, clauses 16, 21]. Although the use of such conjunctions were scarce in the first 4 texts,
the final one revealed more instances where cause was realised in incongruent ways such as through Agency, or through the use of logical relations coded as nouns.

In Byron's case logical relations were not expressed in incongruent ways and abstract notions were not linked together. Byron had not yet mastered the necessary skills to present an argumentative historical discourse. On the other hand Miranda had developed an awareness of the need to argue and present her judgement in an essay of this nature. By the end of the year she showed a high level of competency in the effective use of conjunctions to show the direction of her argument.

5.7. *Incongruent writing.*

One of the major features of language that contributes to the overall effectiveness of a text is the incongruent realisation(s) of semantic choices that is provided by grammatical metaphor [Halliday, 1985b; Martin, 1985]. This is what is often lacking from students' texts as they tend to write as they speak. The ability to maximise the distance between the act of meaning and its counterpart in the real world seems to elude many young writers [Eggins, Martin and Wignell, 1987].

Although Byron's first text contained a high proportion of nominalisations, it still did not meet the criteria of incongruent writing. Most of the nominalised forms used by him in this text remained at the first stage of eight stages set out by Eggins, Martin and Wignell [1987]. Byron's nominalised expressions generally appeared in the rhemes of sentences. The placements of these terms in the themes of sentences would have rendered the text
more effective as it would have forced the writer to frame his argument in a different way. The foregrounding of the issue being discussed would thus have been highlighted.

At a later stage Byron began to take more risks in handling abstract language by using the other stages set out by Eggins, Martin and Wignell. 'Setting in time, Making things act, Doings acted upon, nominalising qualities' all appeared at different stages of his writing [Texts 2, 4 and 5]. This was an indication that he had started to express himself incongruently. However, his inexperience and possibly lack of confidence in his own ability, made it difficult for him to sustain this level of writing across the whole text.

In contrast Miranda's first text contained relatively few nominalisations and was a congruent piece of writing where a recount of past events was given instead of an argument. However her move towards incongruent writing was more noticeable in her later texts as she began to effectively use abstract expressions to organise the text to show her ability to argue. Not only did she nominalise actions into Things but she also used logical relations as nouns to enable the reader to see the direction of her argument.

At the end of the year both students showed an awareness of the nature of abstract language. However, in Byron's case progress in actual effective use of incongruent expression was minimal while Miranda showed a high degree of competency in manipulating language to argue her case.

The choice of human generic participants was favoured by both students in their first essays. This showed that their historical discourse focused on generic classes of people
who did things and had things done to them. The individual had been removed from the account and thus brought the discourse a step closer to history as is accepted by historians. Processes used were determined by the choice of participants. A high proportion of the processes used in the earlier texts of both Byron and Miranda tended to be doing or happening processes and there was an excessive reliance on the relational verb to be to link one clause to another. Whereas Miranda, through the use of nominalised themes, selected a greater variety of relational and material processes, Byron remained at the initial stage of using congruent expressions, with the occasional glimpse of abstract expression.

5.8. Summary conclusions on the students' progress in writing.

Analysis of the ten texts created by Byron and Miranda over the academic year 1990 revealed that both students have mastered a degree of competency in their writing abilities though the rate at which and the extent to which progress occurred differed in each individual's case. Listed below is a summary of the findings.

Byron.

1. Byron had difficulty in relating his answer to and in addressing the issues raised by the questions. Although there was evidence of some attempts to handle this particular problem, the matter remained largely unresolved.
2. The ability to show the wide range of relationships existing between clauses was one major area of difficulty experienced by Byron. At the end of the study the problem had not been overcome.
3. He has developed an awareness of the generic (schematic) structure of an essay though he was not always successful in applying his knowledge to the creation of the text.
4. Awareness of the difference between an idea and its elaboration has increased though competency in its use was not complete.

5. The use of abstract themes to show the method of development for the text could have been maximised. As it was there were only a few isolated instances of nominalised themes in Byron's texts.

6. The scarcity and lack of variety of conjunctions has made it difficult to follow the logical development of the text. There was the tendency to realise logical connections between clauses rather than in the words and structure within the clause itself.

7. Although Byron has begun to use nominalisations in his text he was still operating at the initial stage set out by Eggins, Martin and Wignell. There was the tendency to revert to transferring spoken expressions in his writing, with the result that his text remained congruent.

Byron's limited success can be seen in his increased awareness and understanding of the nature and purpose of an expository essay. While there was evidence of progress in his writing ability, it was not smooth flowing and consistent. This is possibly due to the fact that Byron was faced with an abundance of information too quickly. Another reason for the limited progress achieved by Byron can be attributed to the great difficulty experienced by him in handling clauses effectively.
1. The failure to understand and correctly interpret the question evident in her earlier essays was overcome by the time Miranda wrote her final text.

2. Miranda has demonstrated her ability to create effective clauses where relationships between existing clauses are clear. However, her efforts in this area are not consistent in all the texts.

3. She has developed a good grasp of the generic (schematic) structure of an expository essay.

4. She has learnt to differentiate between an idea and its elaboration in the presentation of an argument.

5. Miranda has made increasing use of abstract themes to show the method of development of her texts.

6. Effective use of conjunctions enabled her to show the logical development of her text. There was a gradual move towards abstract realisations of logical relations which were coded in the words and structure within the clauses themselves.

7. Miranda has begun to use abstract language more competently. This was seen in her effective handling of nominalised expressions to assist her in organising her argument.

On the whole Miranda has mastered a high level of competency as a writer. Her progress has been steady and has incorporated several features of information presented to her in the course of the year.
5.9. *Educational implications of the study.*

Overall the results of the study indicate that both students did not derive equal benefits from the implementation of the linguistic approach of the DSP model. Byron's success was limited and he did not acquire much power from the exercise. Miranda has been more successful in her expository essay writing activities. One reason for this disparity is possibly due to the fact that there was a wide gap in Byron and Miranda's academic performance prior to the start of this study. Hence, while Byron was experiencing difficulty in understanding the issues involved in creating an expository text, Miranda's progress proceeded more smoothly. This disparity between the two students' rate of progress would require the DSP model to be examined more closely. In what ways can the model be modified or adapted to suit the needs of all students so that each individual can derive the maximum benefit from this learning environment? Teachers working with the genre-based model should be aware of this problem and should be prepared to be flexible in the application of this model which needs to take into consideration the different abilities of individual students.

The implementation of the DSP model should take into account that there is no clearly expressed provision within the model itself to explicitly teach students how to write effective clauses whereby the wide range of relationships between clauses is fully brought out. It is important that the set of interrelated phenomena within a clause complex be fully brought out, showing "that" and "how" the processes going together in a sequence are all related to each other [Halliday, 1985b, p.82].
Another major problem that is not adequately dealt with in the DSP model is ways and means by which students can reach an understanding of the question set and thereby recognise the genre they are required to deal with.

The results of the study strongly point to the fact that an understanding of the question set is crucial for the successful creation of an expository text. The ability to unpack the question will lead to a correct interpretation and consequently students will be able to address themselves to the issues raised by the question asked.

The wording of questions is vital to students developing a successful text. It is not enough to hand out the assignment topic and wait for the essay to be handed in for marking a week later. Students should be encouraged to 'unpack' the question. If necessary, assistance should be given to ensure that the topic is correctly interpreted. It might be useful sometimes to draw out a list of subsidiary questions or instructions that will point directly to the schematic structure of the text.

The difficulties encountered by the students in the interpretation of set questions raise another point of concern. What are the expectations of teachers/examiners when essay questions are framed? Does the question call for an expository/discussion/descriptive/recount genre? Teachers should be cautious in their selection of essay topics and should ensure that these signal the genre that is required.
One of the most significant observations to be drawn from the study is that the creation of an expository genre demands that students should be able to identify and be in control of the genre they are expected to write in. Teachers should be aware that there is a diverse set of demands that are made upon students' language when they are expected to write expository essays. Engagement in the writing activity will cause students to make appropriate selection of relevant linguistic items for the creation of the relevant genre. Experience of expository genre comes, to a large extent, mainly in reading. Once they can control the structure and the language features of the genre they are free to develop their own texts.

Students need to be able to recognise the schematic structure of expository genre. In the early stages of writing this particular genre, it might be a good idea for children to focus on specific stages of the schematic structure. As students develop more competency, attention could be extended to other stages until they are thoroughly proficient in producing a well structured expository essay. It is important to monitor the development in control of schematic structure over a period of time.

Another point worthy of consideration is that teaching strategies should be developed in assisting students to differentiate between an argument and its elaboration. This can be achieved through exposure to a wide variety of models, followed by intensive discussion of the texts. Teachers should provide continuous guidance in pointing out the distinction between the idea and supporting evidence.
Development of writing abilities in expository essays should not be the domain of any single faculty. Other disciplines that utilise expository writing should also teach students how to approach the task of creating such a text.

Although the application of the genre based approach to teaching provides teachers with specific goals to work towards in the classroom, one needs to be aware of the response of students to different approaches to teaching and learning. Children like to see continuity in what they are exposed to and in what they are being taught. If only one teacher in the school is using the genre based approach to teaching there is no ongoing support and reinforcement of this strategy of teaching writing and the development of writing abilities for the students will be a longer time coming.

The genre should be introduced in the context of subject matter with which students are already familiar. If they feel that they have to learn two different things at the same time, they can be overwhelmed and this would detract from their learning. Development of control of the genre will lead students to use it in contexts where they are dealing with new information.

The teacher who is committed to the crucial part played by language in education will have greater control over the education of the students under his care. More explicit guidance can empower students to gain more confidence with their writing.
The genre based approach to teaching writing is an enabling or empowering one for all students. It is a means of bringing success within the reach of a larger number and wider range of students and for this reason it should be an approach used with all students. However, the application of the model should take into consideration the individual needs of students and be modified accordingly.

5.10. Limitations of the study.

The project has demonstrated that the application of the functional model of language and implementation of specific teaching strategies in a particular high school classroom by the teacher as researcher has educational value to the extent that writing development occurs in students' texts. However, certain limitations apply to the study.

First of all the teacher/researcher's commitment to the theory contributed to and provided an extremely powerful impetus for the successful outcome of the project. The acceptance of the theory has shaped the entire pattern of teaching strategies used and consequently has influenced the responses of the students.

On the other hand, success of a study of this nature is dependent upon the implicit confidence and trust expressed by subjects in the researcher. The interaction between the teacher/researcher and students from Year 10H2 was based on such confidence and trust. Consequently the teaching strategies used had a powerful impact on the responses received.
Another limitation of the project lies in the size of the sample chosen. While it has been shown that writing development does occur in the texts created by two students, it would be more difficult to generalise the results obtained from this minute sample to apply to a larger population. Operating within a restricted framework of time and resources available, it would have been a monumental task to undertake analysis of a larger sample of texts from more than the two targeted students. The scope and depth of analysis involved in the study would have been beyond the capacity of one person and thus necessitated the selection of a minute sample. However, insofar as these students are representative of Year 10 students, the results can be generalised beyond this study.

One major criticism levelled at the study would be that changes in the writing of students would occur naturally over a period of one year. To effectively monitor the changes occurring in the writing of students one would have had to use another research paradigm where the same content was being taught to a separate group of students by another teacher who utilised different teaching strategies. However, because of the mammoth task of analysing data, this idea had to be abandoned. Hence, while the results emanating from the study demonstrate that writing development ensued as a consequence of the approach adopted by the researcher, they do not provide an adequate comparison of the extent to which changes occurred.

There is one significant limitation of the study that is grounded in the constraints imposed by the natural environment of the school setting where the research took place. The lack of audio–visual resources in the classroom rendered it difficult to implement, without any
modifications, all the strategies mentioned within the pedagogical framework. This may have influenced the outcome of the study.

The implementation of the DSP model in this study has revealed certain limitations which have probably contributed to the uneven rate of success in Byron's and Miranda's case. First of all, the DSP model is excellent when it is dealing with the text as a whole. However, when it comes down to the clause level, there is a major problem. The model was not used to explicitly teach students how to handle the writing of effective clauses which would show the set of relationships within the clause complex. It would be important to develop the model to reflect this issue.

Another short-coming of the model is the fact that no explicit suggestions are made which would assist students in correctly interpreting the question set. This is a serious limitation as a wrong interpretation can lead to an unsuccessful text being created.

Finally, the DSP model does not directly state how students can differentiate between a point and an elaboration. The result of this failure can lead students to list a whole set of examples in their essay without really arguing a case.

5.11. **Recommendations for further study.**

This study indicates that an increasing knowledge and awareness of language use is of crucial importance in the development of writing abilities of students in a high school environment. Based on the successful outcome of the study it is recommended that:
1. A team of two or more researchers participate in a project of similar nature. It would be useful to have the classroom teacher as a member of the team. The external participant(s) would be in a position to view the situation in a different manner and provide constructive suggestions on the basis of their observation of the situation so as to counter biases and triangulate.

2. The number of subjects for study should be larger and should include students from a more varied background. This will enable the researcher to accurately measure the extent to which changes do occur in the texts created by different students and thus it will be possible to generalise the results to a wider population.

3. The focus of the study should be placed on assisting students to gain control over a greater range of genres. This would yield a more balanced view of the extent to which students become competent writers in a wide range of genres. One suggested approach would be to adopt similar teaching strategies as employed in this study and extend it to teaching across the curriculum. The emerging data would provide a reliable measurement of the development of writing observed in the targeted students.

4. Strategies should be devised to assist students in reaching a correct understanding and interpretation of the question asked. This will enable them to relate their answers to the question and in the process a greater understanding of the purpose of the genre will develop.

5. Attention should be focused on ways and means to teach students to handle the writing of clauses more effectively. The ability to show the wide range of relationships between clauses would assist students in creating a more tightly structured text.

6. Ways must be found to teach students to differentiate between a point and an elaboration. This skill is crucial for them to be able to argue effectively in their essays.
7. The Joint Construction stage of the Curriculum Genre could form the focus of a project. An examination of the concentrated language encounters occurring between teacher and students in the process of jointly constructing a text would offer significant information for possible future teaching strategies.

5.12. Conclusion.

Writing, the most valued medium of communication within modern society, is a prize much coveted by all members of the community. Competency in writing is an important measure of success or failure in this society. Hence, the development of writing abilities in children should be a principal aim for educators in their attempts to equip each child to realise his fullest potential.

The most challenging task faced by teachers is that of providing students with a constructive framework for writing whereby certain elements are built in to encourage the development of writing abilities. These elements should include the provision of an appropriate context for writing in respect to purpose, subject matter and specific linguistic features.

Success in writing will stem from an awareness and knowledge of language and the way it operates in social contexts. Consciousness of the powerful role of language will enable the students to make appropriate choices in their creation of texts. The student who has learnt to manipulate language to suit his purposes is thus empowered to recognise and control different genres which is essential for success in the education system.
"Conscious knowledge of language and the way it functions in social contexts then enables us to make choices, to exercise control. As long as we are ignorant of language, it and the ideological systems it embraces controls us. Learning about language means learning to choose. All choices are political. We don't write or talk just to pass the time away. ... Knowledge is power. Meaning is choice."

[Martin, 1985, p.62–3]

"A sound knowledge of the structure of language gives teachers ideas for setting up powerful contexts for teaching literacy [and a constructive framework for teaching writing]" [Callaghan and Rothery, 1988, p.108].
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Appendix 1

Questionnaire One – interview with teachers

Interview questions with teachers.

1. What is history?

2. What do you expect students to achieve in their study of History by the end of Year 10?

3. What sort of writing should Year 10 students be involved in?

4. What do you perceive to be the role of "empathy" writing?

5. Do you expect these students to think like a historian, to read and write like a historian? How does a historian think?

6. How do you teach them the schematic structure of history writing?

7. What sort of texts do you expose them to? What texts do they read and what model of history writing and reading do you make available to them?

8. Should you tell the students to write "in your own words"?

9. Does it help writing about a particular issue by talking about it? Classroom focus on talk.
Appendix 2

Questionnaire Two – interview questions with teachers.

1. What is history?

2. What do you expect students to achieve in their study of History by the end of Year 10?

3. What sort of writing should Year 10 students be involved in?

4. What do you perceive to be the role of "empathy" writing?

5. Do you expect these students to think like a historian, to read and write like a historian? How does a historian think?

6. How do you teach them the schematic structure of history writing?

7. What sort of texts do you expose them to? What texts do they read and what model of history writing and reading do you make available to them?

8. Should you tell the students to write "in your own words"?

9. Does it help writing about a particular issue by talking about it? Classroom focus on talk.

10. Your strategies for teaching writing?


Criteria you judge the work by?
Appendix 3 – Student interview

Questionnaire – Year 10 History 1990

1. Why did you choose to study History?

2. In your opinion, what is History
   a. story of people
   b. events of the past
   c. story of people + events of the past + interpretation of events?

3. What are some of the things about History that you like the most?

4. What are some of the things about History that you dislike the most?

5. To what extent has the study of History helped you to develop skills in the following areas –
   A   B   C   D   E
   a. think critically
   b. interpret evidence
   c. write in a variety of forms
      – essays
      – report
      – note taking
      – comprehension questions
   d. participating in group discussion
   e. participating in class discussion

6. What forms of History writing have you done in Junior school:
   a. comprehension questions
   b. reports
   c. empathy stories
   d. essay
   e. interpreting evidence
   f. report on group discussion
   g. note taking
7. How do you feel about the following forms of History writing:
   Enjoy the most – Good – All right – dislike – dislike the most
   a. comprehension questions
   b. reports
   c. empathy stories
   d. essay
   e. interpreting evidence
   f. report on group discussion
   b. note taking

8. How easy/difficult is it for you to tackle the following forms of writing:
   a. comprehension questions
   b. reports
   c. empathy stories
   d. essay
   e. interpreting evidence
   f. report on group discussion
   g. note taking

9. How useful do you find research work in assignment/project?

10. What are your major difficulties in writing of essays:
    a. getting started
    b. paragraphing
    c. linking ideas
    d. choice of appropriate words
    e. writing a conclusion

11. What aspects of your history class do you find the most/least helpful in improving your writing of history:
    a. reading a variety of history texts
    b. discussion of history texts at – classroom level
       – group discussion
    c. explanation of the purpose of the various parts of the texts
    d. being made aware of the various language features of the texts
    e. being made aware of how the text is structured – beginning, middle, end
    f. engaging in writing after discussion with teacher/peers
    g. writing accompanied by discussion at various points with teacher and peer
    h. independent writing
12. Which form of writing has the most value for you:
   - report
   - comic strips
   - interpreting evidence
   - essay
   - story
   - comprehension questions

13. Do you intend to proceed to Year 11–12?

14. Do you intend to study history in Year 11–12?
Criteria for evaluation of expository essay

1. Schematic Structure
   Thesis – opinion/point of view.

   This is usually written in an introductory paragraph where general statement is made about the topic i.e. a very "wide" statement or a Topic sentence.

   The introductory paragraph sometimes can include a preview [like the preview of movies] giving the highlights of your essay in an attempt to capture the interest of your reader, to let him/her know what you intend to discuss.

   Do not include examples in your introduction

2. Arguments + Supporting evidence.
   This section forms the body of your essay. It consists of a series of paragraphs. Each paragraph deals with one point selected from your preview. Each of these points will be further elaborated/supported by examples/evidence. The examples given should be relevant to the point raised. A paragraph is like a mini essay.

3. Conclusion
   This should be a restatement of your thesis – to show that purpose of the essay has been achieved.

4. Purpose
   Look at the question and see what is being required of you. Be clear about your purpose.

5. Content
   a. Recall of significant/relevant information available to you – through class discussion, textbooks, library resources...
   b. Vocabulary related to the question.
6. **Audience**
   Who is your reader? Keep this in mind. Aim your language to that specific reader.
   Be objective – do not use "I", "In my opinion"...

7. **Grammar**
   Use complete sentences [sentences which make sense by themselves].
   Words, phrases and sentences to be ordered "effectively". Remember the difference between SPOKEN and WRITTEN English.
   Use past tense to discuss the long distant past.

8. **Cohesion**
   Linking words/phrases/ideas/paragraphs within and across sentences.

9. **Editing**
   Individual/teacher/peer conference. Check your work against the criteria sheet.
21 August 1990

What were some of the major arguments put forward by those opposed U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War?

The involvement of the United States troops immediately raised points of interference in another countries policies, the unnecessary loss of the U.S. lives in that conflict, the use of conscripted men and, as the war wore on, the fact that it was a war that could not be won.

Soon after President Johnson was elected to a second term as president, he authorised the use of U.S. troops in offensive operation. At the same time the First New York Times said U.S. support for South Vietnam had been transformed into "an American war against Asians".

As time went on it became evident that no matter how many troops and armaments were committed, the U.S. would not win. It was clear that there many communist sympathisers in the south who helped and hid the Vietcong. The jungles were the home of the Vietcong and they moved freely through them using booby traps and ambushes as effective weapons. To clear patches of jungle the U.S. used Agent Orange. This use of chemicals also caused an outcry in the U.S.

Citizens ask why so many American were being sent to Vietnam and why many were being killed by the Vietcong. Added to this was the unrest caused by conscription and the number of young men feed the country rather that be drafted into the army.

Returning servicemen told terrible experiences in the jungle, the atrocities committed and the toll of human lives.

The Vietnamese war was an example of the uselessness of force used, however will meant, in a country where the hopes of the people themselves were not considerd and not understood. Instead of boosting U.S. prestige it had the opposite effect when the troops not having overcome the Vietcong, were called home because of the demands of the United States people.

How did the U.S. justify its involvement in the Vietnam War?

The United States became involved in Vietnam when it feared the spread of communism and then feared losing the U.S.'s prestige as a leader and a defender of the free world.

America's presence in Vietnam was brought about by the desire to counter the aid being given by the communists to the northern rebels. At the time America was violently opposed to the spread of communism outside the European bloc.

As the U.S. was committed to a Free Vietnam they not only intended to preserve the independance of South Vietnam, but also tried buffers against communism in the whole free world.
To begin with, the U.S. presence was limited to advisors, but with the strengthening of the Soviet presence, President Kennedy committed U.S. troops to halt the northern army. This change of policy was partly brought around by the demands of the U.S. military itself. Taylor Johnson is military advisor, believed that the U.S. troops could give the South Vietnamese army the elan and style that was needed to win.

On arrival of the first U.S. troops, President Johnson stated that the U.S. forces couldn't enter the war unless requested to do so by the South Vietnamese military and that they should also operate jointly with the South Vietnamese troops.
Vietnam Conflict

Introduction: Vietnam was tossed around between China, France and Japan. China took Vietnam in the North in 111 B.C. and ended it in 939 A.D. In 1802 Nguyen Anh united the country and called it Vietnam. 1858-1883 France took control, during the war Japan took control and then back to France which in;

Body: 1946 war began between the French and the Vietminh, then in 1954 the Vietminh defeated the French and the Geneva conference divided Vietnam into two nations North and South, three years later 1957 North Vietnamese communists attacked villages in South Vietnam the fighting developed into the Vietnam conflict between North and South Vietnam.

1964 the US military forces entered Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese from the North Vietnamese communists regime.

President Johnson authorised the use of 53,000 U.S. military forces to protect the activities of offensive operations in South Vietnam, in 1961 the total amount of military forces is 3,164 and had increased by 430,000 in 1967.

President Johnson also delivered a speech to congress on the 10th January 1967 which stated the reason US forces were sent into Vietnam to protect the South Vietnamese right to stay non-communists, the US military forces went into Vietnam on the same ground which America also went into Korea they are commited by the SEATO act which states that "to act to meet the common danger of aggression in Southeast Asia"

The South Vietnamese people living in the country side which had been killed or kidnapped by the Vietcong, North Vietnamese was 26,900 in the last 32 months.

During the wars duration the Americans bombing raids were approximately 64 daily this went on none stop, people around the world oposed the Vietnam conflict specially the hippies the protesters people who believed in peace and not war they burn't down building and protested.

Ngo Dinh diem was the president of South Vietnam from 1955 to 1963 he talked but never listened; he looked but never saw he was a man who had good and bag sides to him, Ho Chi Minh was president of the communists party in North Vietnam he went to make South Vietnam a communist state as well.

During the Vietnam conflict the America used 'napalm bombs' containing a substance which sticks wherever it splashes and burns fiercely.

Conclusion: After the French were defeated by Vietminh in 1954 the US became a major influence in the ares and by 1968 more