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**“GENRE PEDAGOGY AS A TOOL TO LEARN THE *HISTORICAL*
ACCOUNT GENRE AT AN EFL TERTIARY LEVEL”**

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigates the implementation of the SFL genre-based pedagogy to the teaching of historical accounts (HAs) in an EFL tertiary educational context in Córdoba, Argentina. Twenty-four students, the teacher-researcher and one rater participated in this study. Twelve subjects served as the control group (CG) and the other twelve as the experimental group (EG). A pre-test and a post-test were designed to evaluate the students' competence in writing HAs. Drawing on the theoretical and methodological tools of the 'Sydney School' (Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012), the main objective of the study was to find out whether or not SFL genre-based instruction enhances the HAs written productions of Spanish-speaking tertiary students with an intermediate level of proficiency in English in the context of an English Culture subject. To achieve this objective, the students' written productions were compared and contrasted in terms of five variables, namely, sequencing of the information, processes, circumstances, Theme-Rheme and grammatical cohesion.

The results support the hypothesis that SFL genre-based instruction is an effective pedagogical tool to teach HA writing to EFL tertiary students. This study is meant to be a contribution to existing research on genre-based pedagogy in general and to the teaching of HAs in a tertiary context in particular.

Key Words: Systemic Functional Linguistics- Genre Pedagogy- English as a Foreign Language- tertiary education- historical account.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|----------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| FL | Foreign Language |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| ESL | English as a Second Language |
| SFL | Systemic Functional Linguistics |
| GP | Genre Pedagogy |
| HA | Historical Account |
| ISFD | <i>Instituto Superior de Formación Docente</i> |
| CG | Control Group |
| EG | Experimental Group |
| NR | New Rhetoric |
| ESP | English for Specific Purposes |
| NNS | Non-Native Speakers |
| TLC | Teaching Learning Cycle |
| ZPD | Zone of Proximal Development |
| SS | Sydney School |
| LERN | Literacy and Education Research Network |
| CHP | California History Project |
| ACCELA | Access to Critical Content and English Language Acquisition Alliance |
| PRODEAC | Programme to Develop Academic Literacy Across the Curriculum |

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The mastering of the writing skill is essential at all levels of formal education as this skill is often part of the educational process in several teaching-learning activities which involve, among others, answering questions, making summaries and writing papers. In addition, it is the most usual means of evaluation of the acquired knowledge in the various content areas as students are expected to write coherent texts to show their understanding of the subjects. In undergraduate education, in particular, students are usually required to be proficient writers of a wide array of academic genres such as narratives, reports, expositions, critical responses and *historical accounts* in different subject areas like science, biology and history. These text types¹ are often difficult for students to master since learners are generally unaware of the structure and functional aspects which characterise a specific genre including the context and its relationship with the written text, its audience, purpose, schematic structure and prototypical lexicogrammatical features. Most of these features are self-evident, while others require exposure to a large number of model texts.

In the case of foreign language (FL)² teacher and translator trainees, the mastering of the types of texts required is even more difficult as the writing must be done in a FL. These learners are often at a major disadvantage as they are in need of mastering the lexico-grammatical aspect of a language in isolation as well as the functional aspects of the target genre. Both the lexico-grammatical features and the functional component of a text instantiate elements of the wider context of situation in which the text occurs (i.e. *register*) and the social purposes it serves (i.e. *genre*). Students need to master both concepts (i.e. *register* and *genre*) to meet the demands of a particular academic community. In order to become members of the community, learners need a more knowledgeable person to guide them and point to all the salient

¹ Systemic Functional Linguistic theorists do not distinguish between genre and text type (Hyland, 2004, p. 28). There are instances in educational institutions where the term 'text type' has been favoured over 'genre' because it is seen as less threatening politically, 'genre' being associated with left-wing ideologies and subversive activity (Derewianka, 2003, p. 135)

² English as a foreign language (EFL)/English as a second language (ESL) is a distinction based on the language spoken by the community in which English is being studied. Where the local community is largely English speaking (such as Australia, the United States or the U.K.), this is referred to as an ESL situation, while EFL contexts are those where English is not the host language (Hyland, 2004, p. 6).

features of the text type. Students thus face a double challenge: to effectively use the genres of disciplinary knowledge and to do this in a language which is not their mother tongue.

The importance of acquiring knowledge about the text types has been stressed by several scholars. Flowerdew (2002) asserts that students in L2 contexts need systematic exposure to and practice in target genres “in order to develop sensitivity to a range of generic features” (p. 102). Similarly, Johns (1997) states that knowledge about genre features such as communicative purposes, formal features, reader and writer roles, content and contexts “provides a shortcut for the initiated to the processing and production of familiar written texts” (p. 21). Along similar lines, Hyland (2004) suggests that the description of the typical stages and features of valued genres can provide students with clear options for writing, both within and beyond the sentence, to help them create texts that are well-formed and appropriate to readers. All these scholars agree that the mastery of text types does not occur naturally and it is thus of critical importance that students receive explicit and systematic instruction on issues related to the production of academic genres. In addition, Carlino (2006) contends that the specific genres of each discipline should be taught as each genre has specific requirements. This means that the writing skill would benefit from being developed simultaneously with knowledge of the content areas. As Schleppegrell (2010) points out, the learning of language and content are inextricably linked.

In this respect, a number of linguists and educators such as Martin (1989), Christie (1986, 1989), Martin and Rothery (1986), and Martin, Christie and Rothery (1987) of the so-called Sydney School have proposed an effective model of teaching reading and writing to understand and produce effective texts (Derewianka, 1990). This pedagogy, known as Genre-based Pedagogy, acknowledges the importance of teaching the social functions and contexts of texts and reveals how meanings are created in a particular genre. It provides a description of the texts students need to write in their disciplines and professions. In addition, it details its teaching application through an instructional methodology³ which involves different steps: *deconstruction*, *joint construction*, and *independent construction* of prototypical models of key genres (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). The main objective of this proposal is to

³ Halliday (2007) considers these terms, i.e., teaching and learning, two aspects of a single process (p.354)

provide students with the necessary scaffolding to produce effective text types that allow them to perform both in academic fields and in society, through the incorporation of models of particular academic genres.

The knowledge about culture and its implications related to genre can only be translated to the production of texts if there is knowledge about a certain approach that can relate this context to lexico-grammar itself. One way of achieving this is through the pedagogical application of a functional model of language in context which sees language as a resource for making meaning (Halliday, 1985). This can guide students to explore the way in which language makes meanings by deconstructing the language choices within a certain genre such as thematic selections, types of processes and circumstances, reference chains and use of junctives, among others. Macken et al. (1989) observe that without a basic understanding of functional grammar, neither teachers nor students can get beyond the level of intuition and of commonsense when it comes to writing. It is thus of critical importance that a literacy curriculum explores the basic aspects of functional grammar, that is, a grammar which is oriented towards explaining the function and meaning of language in context and whose categories describe the uses rather than the formal aspects of language. This approach has informed several literacy programmes across Australia since the 1980s and is being taken up in countries such as Hong Kong, Singapore, Indonesia, Brazil, Chile, Sweden, Denmark and the USA (Derewianka, 2012).

1.2 Significance of the study

Several studies have illustrated the usefulness of Genre-based Pedagogy, as conceived by Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and a functional model of language for the teaching of different text types and the development of students' writing skills in the mother tongue (Macken & Slade, 1993; Martin & Rothery, 1986; Moyano, 2005, among others) and in the target language (Perrett, 2000; Schleppegrell, 2000; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 1997; Schleppegrell, Achugar & Oteiza, 2004, among others). For example, there have been investigations concerning the teaching of expository texts (Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Hyejeong, 2012), biographical recounts (Luu, 2011) narratives (Boccia et al., 2013), reviews (Guan Eng Ho, 2009), literary criticisms (Ong, 2016), letters of apology (Wang, 2013) and scientific explanations (Unsworth,

1997)⁴. To the best of my knowledge, however, there has been no research regarding how Genre Pedagogy can be applied to the teaching of *historical accounts* (HAs) in an EFL tertiary educational context in Argentina.

This investigation intends to make a small contribution to the existing research on the effectiveness of Genre Pedagogy (GP) by teaching the HA genre in an EFL Teacher study programme in Córdoba city, Argentina.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Teacher trainees of English at the tertiary school *ISFD “Nueva Formación”* who attend the course *Estudios Socio-Culturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa II* tend to face serious problems when writing historical accounts, a key issue in written term-tests and final examinations. In most cases, the main difficulties are related to the lack of organisation in the development of their ideas, the omission of background information, the selection of suitable Themes and the proper use of reference, among others. These difficulties have given rise to this study as I consider that the explicit scaffolding provided by the SFL Genre-based Pedagogy together with the focus on textual and language features of the genre chosen will help me assist my students in the production of effective HAs.

1.4 Research questions

This study seeks to provide an answer to the following research questions:

1. Was there any improvement between the pre- and post-test holistic scores in the control group (CG)?
2. Was there any improvement between the pre- and post-test holistic scores in the experimental group (EG)?
3. Were there any differences between the HAs produced in the post-tests of the CG and the EG after 6 weeks of genre-based instruction for the EG? If any, which of the variables object of this study revealed the most substantial differences?

⁴ These studies will be reviewed fully in section 2.8.

1.5 General objective

Based on the assumption that genre-based instruction can improve students' writing skills, the general objective of this study is to assess whether SFL Genre Pedagogy can help FL students from a tertiary school develop their writing skills in the target language in the context of an English Culture subject.

1.5.1 Specific objectives

In order to accomplish this general aim, the following specific objectives are set:

- (a) to implement teaching practices that derive from the Genre Pedagogy such as models of the genre and worksheets for identifying the schematic structure and language features in this genre;
- (b) to assess and compare the CG students' pre- and post-tests in terms of their holistic scores and the five variables object of this study, namely, *processes, circumstances, sequencing of the information, Theme-Rheme* and *grammatical cohesion*;
- (c) to assess and compare the EG students' written productions of HAs before and after genre-based instruction in terms of their holistic scores and the five variables object of this study.

1.6 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been proposed:

- H0: Genre-based instruction is not an effective pedagogical tool to teach *historical account* writing to EFL tertiary students at an intermediate level of language proficiency.
- H1: Genre-based instruction is an effective pedagogical tool to teach *historical account* writing to EFL tertiary students at an intermediate level of language proficiency.

1.7 Overview of chapters

This thesis has been organised into five chapters. In this first chapter I have introduced the research problem addressed by the present study, stated its purpose, specific objectives and research questions. Chapter 2 describes the theoretical framework that supports the study and reviews previous research connected with the

topic of this investigation. Chapter 3 details the methodology, including how the data were collected and analysed. Chapter 4 reports and discusses the findings of the research. Chapter 5 presents some concluding remarks, explores the pedagogical implications and limitations of the present study, and suggests lines of action for further research.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the theory of language that serves as the theoretical framework for the present study and to review the literature related to the topic. First, I will briefly outline the key theoretical principles underlying the SFL model such as the notions of genre, register and the three metafunctions. Then, I will explore the three major traditions in genre-oriented research: the English for Specific Purposes tradition (Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990), the North American Rhetoric studies tradition (Bazerman, 1988; Freedman & Medway, 1994; Miller, 1984) and, in particular, the Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics tradition (Christie & Martin, 1997, 2007; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). Finally, I will review the literature which summarises the main studies concerning genre-based instruction.

2.1 Rationale and theoretical framework

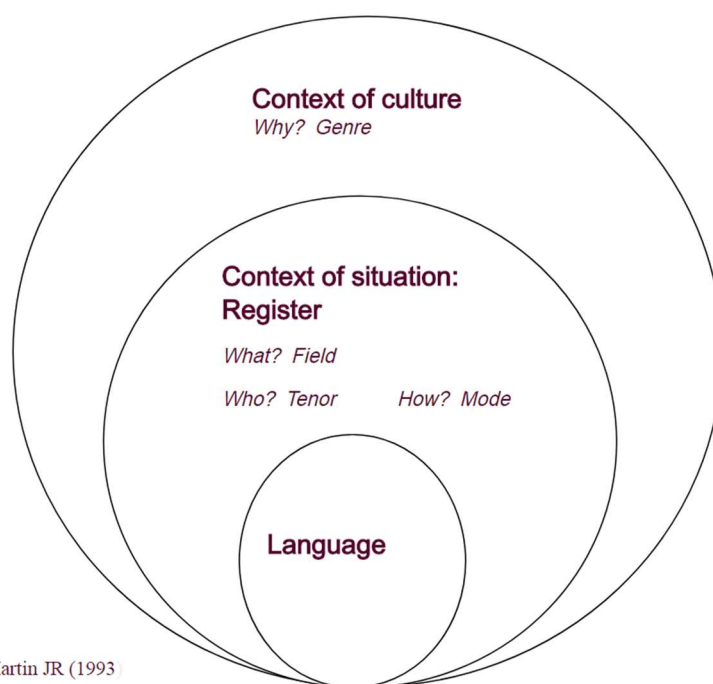
The present research study is theoretically anchored in the main tenets of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004; Eggins & Martin, 1997) and, in particular, on the notions of genre that have been developed since the late 1980s from the work of specialists such as J.R. Martin (1989), F. Christie (1986, 1989), Martin and Rothery (1986), Martin, Christie, and Rothery (1987), Rothery (1994) and Rose and Martin (2012).

2.1.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics: key aspects

Systemic Functional Linguistics is a social semiotic theory of language developed by the British linguist Michael Halliday (1985, 1994), his students and colleagues (Eggins & Martin, 1997; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin, 1992; Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997; Matthiessen, 1995). It is *systemic* as it foregrounds the organisation of language as a set of options for making and exchanging meaning in context and *functional* as it interprets the design of language with respect to the way people use it (Martin & Rose, 2008).

This theoretical framework sees language and social context as being inextricably linked. This means that the choices we make from the language system are determined by the specific contextual features in which language is produced, namely, the communicative purpose of the text (*genre*), the subject-matter (the *field*), the nature and proximity of the interlocutors (the *tenor*) and the channel of communication (the *mode*). In other words, our language choices are influenced by the particular purpose of the text as well as by the different aspects of the situation in which it occurs such as (i) the topic that is being talked about, (ii) the people involved in the interaction and the relationship between them, and (iii) the role that language plays in the interaction.

The contextual features mentioned above constitute the two major layers of the social context in which the text is produced: the context of culture (i.e. the *genre*) and the context of situation (i.e. the *register*) (Martin, 1992). The *genre* dimension helps us to consider the text as a whole with an identifiable purpose. This dimension is recognised as the highest level of abstraction and is realised through the *register* variables of *field*, *tenor* and *mode*, which help to anchor the text into the particular situation in which it occurs. *Register* is in turn instantiated through language to express different types of *meanings* (Eggins & Martin, 2003). This relationship between genre, the register variables and language (represented in the graph below) will be explored in the following sections:



Graph 1: The Functional model of language

Functionalists view language as a social phenomenon, as a meaning-making resource which serves to fulfill several functions. Language is defined by Lock (1996) as a dynamic, open network of interrelated systems which contain a set of options from which the speaker/writer selects for a whole range of different purposes. In other words, language is seen as a system of choices through which language users can express different types of meanings in context. These meanings, referred to as the *metafunctions*, are always created and exchanged in the form of texts, which are instances of language in use (Halliday, 1985). That is, a text is an instantiation of the choices that are potentially available to the speakers of the language, which reflects the immediate social and cultural context in which the text is embedded. In Eggins' (2004) terms, "a text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning" (p.28) in the sense that experiential, interpersonal and textual meanings are woven together.

The SFL analytical framework can be of practical use in the EFL classroom. It may be useful for text analysis as it is a theory of language which provides tools for exploring the lexico-grammatical features of a text systematically, making explicit relations which are otherwise unconscious and therefore implicit and inaccessible to

someone new in the culture (Bloor & Bloor, 1995). In addition, it can serve as a tool for assessing students' learning by considering one or more of the categories of *genre*, *field*, *tenor* and *mode* in the written texts students produce. That is, students' texts can be evaluated in terms of their control of the structure of the *genre*, their knowledge of the *field* of study, their adoption of the appropriate *tenor*, and their control of the written *mode* (Macken-Horarik, 2002).

In the present study I will analyse some aspects related to the *field* and the *mode*. More specifically, within the register variable of *field* I will explore *processes* and *circumstances*, and within *mode* I will analyse *sequencing of the information*, *Theme-Rheme* and *grammatical cohesion*. These concepts will be defined in section 2.7.

2.2 Genre and register

As mentioned before, SFL proposes a stratified system of social context in which *genre* (context of culture) is recognised as the highest level of abstraction and is realised through *register* (context of situation), which in turn is instantiated through language to express different types of *meanings*, referred to as metafunctions (Eggins & Martin, 2003).

Macken and Slade (1993) use a revealing metaphor in which they claim that a text can be seen as a “polyphonic construct” (p. 212) which harmonises three kinds of meanings in response to three functional pressures in the semiotic environment. They add that the category of *genre* integrates the meanings in a way allowable within a culture. In short, the lexico-grammatical choices which build up the text are the product of its situation (‘the semiotic environment’) and its culture. In the sections that follow, each of these concepts will be described in greater detail.

2.2.1 Context of culture: genre

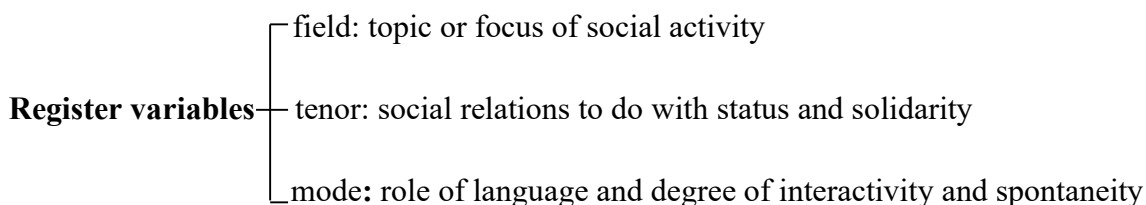
The concept of genre is defined by Martin (1992) as “a staged, goal-oriented, social process” (p. 505). Genres are staged as their purposes are usually achieved in steps; they are goal-oriented since they are used to get things done; and social because members of the culture interact through them. In other words, genres are used to do things with language, to accomplish actions inside a culture. For example, a service encounter facilitates the transaction of goods and services; a fable entertains and

initiates children into moral values, and an instruction manual shows how something is done.

As previously established, the purpose of a genre is fulfilled in different stages, that is, step by step as the social activity unfolds. Each of these stages serves a particular function which, in turn, contributes to achieving the overall purpose of the text as a whole. The stages of each genre are known as its schematic structure. The schematic structure of the genre that will be analysed in this work - a *historical account* - typically involves two stages: the *Background* stage, which summarises previous historical events, and the *Account of stages*⁵, which shows the causal relationship between the events as they unfolded over time (Rose & Martin, 2012, p.130). These stages contribute to the attainment of the global purpose of the text: to provide a chronological account of events and, at the same time, establish the causal connections between the events. Coffin's (2006) schematic structure of this genre includes a third optional stage, the *deduction* stage, whose purpose is to draw out the historical significance of the events recorded (pp. 59-60). In the present study, I have followed Rose and Martin's (2012) classification since I consider that the participants at this stage of their course of studies are not ready for Coffin's third stage.

2.2.2 Context of situation: register

As previously mentioned, *register* is another aspect in the stratified system of social context which comprises the *field*, *tenor* and *mode* variables (see graph 2 below). Halliday (1978) defines context of situation as “a theoretical construct for explaining how a text relates to the social processes within which it is located” (p. 10). Along similar lines, Coffin (2006) refers to the context of situation as an extralinguistic category for defining “the situation type in which a text is embedded” (p.29).



Graph 2: The register variables

(Coffin, 2006, p. 29)

⁵ Coffin (2004) calls this stage *Account of events*

2.2.2a The topic of the text: field

Field is defined by Halliday (1994) as “the total event in which the text is functioning, together with the purposive activity of the speaker or writer; it thus includes the subject-matter as one element in it” (p. 22). A similar description of field is provided by Macken and Slade (1993), who claim that field is concerned with social activity, with what is going on in terms of some overall social institution (p. 212). In Coffin’s terms (2006), field refers to “the topic or social activity in which language plays a part” (p. 30). The author claims that we can talk about the field of history at a broad level and that, in the case of historical texts, we are likely to come across participants such as kings and queens, soldiers, politicians, explorers engaged in different types of activities such as ruling, invading, governing, exploring.

2.2.2b The relationship between users of language: tenor

The concept of tenor refers to the roles we take up and the relationships with the other in any situation (Derewianka, 2012). It is concerned with how relationships and attitudes are negotiated between people within a text (Eggins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In Coffin’s words (2006), tenor refers to “the nature of the relationship between users of language in a particular social context” (p. 32). The linguist explains that language will vary according to contextual factors such as how often the interlocutors have contact, how well they know each other, their social roles, their social status, the degree to which their values are perceived to be aligned. She argues that in history books, authors tend to adopt an authoritative, impersonal tone and therefore create an unequal status relationship with the student reader. She adds there may be shifts to a more casual, friendly style in which the writer engages directly with the reader by using the pronoun ‘you’ and the interrogative mood. Although my intention is to tackle this variable in future research, I have not analysed tenor in this investigation because of time constraints.

2.2.2c The channel of communication: mode

The mode of the text refers both to the channel of communication chosen (spoken, written or a combination) and to how the language itself is organised (Coffin, 2006, p. 35). Unlike traditional grammar, which deals only with the language of the written mode, the functional approach describes how spoken language differs from written language. This distinction is essential as students move from the oral language at

home to the “increasingly dense and compact language of the written mode in academic contexts” (Derewianka, 2012, p.133). The language of historical genres is likely to be context independent, lexically dense and cohesive within the text itself, all of which are features typically associated with the written mode (Coffin, 2006).

2.3 Meaning in grammar: metafunctions

As mentioned above, the SFL model establishes that there is a dialectical relationship between the social context and language choices; that is, each register variable (field, tenor and mode) is associated with one of the three metafunctions of language (ideational, interpersonal and textual) and with particular areas of language (Egins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The *ideational* metafunction enables users to represent the world; the *interpersonal* metafunction allows users to engage interpersonally and exchange points of view; and the *textual* metafunction enables users to create cohesive texts. These three metafunctions of language provide a functional way to analyse any kind of text (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2008). The following clause excerpted from Coffin (2006, p. 39) illustrates this:

“It **also** demonstrated how **unjustly** the Aboriginal people were treated **unfairly** by the White invaders”

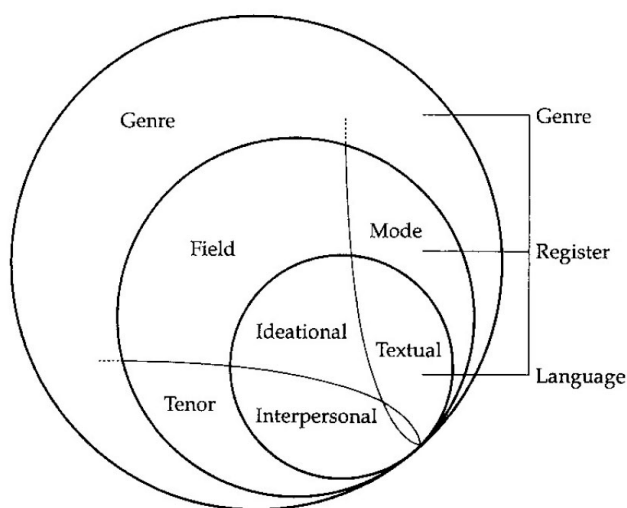
The clause shows how language is working simultaneously to represent past events (“Aboriginal people were treated unfairly by the White invaders”), to present a point of view (“the behavior of the White invaders was unethical”), and to link different parts of the message together (the conjunct “also” signals that the writer has already made a deduction about the significance of the events). In addition, it can be seen how participants (“the Aboriginal people”, “the White invaders”) and processes (“demonstrated”, “treated”), which are elements within the Transitivity system⁶, are fundamental to the building of ideational content, and the conjunction (“also”) to the building of cohesive texts. Finally, the attitudinal lexis (“unjustly”) is connected to the exchange of views and attitudes and thus it is an element that shows an interpersonal meaning.

As mentioned before, I will analyse some elements of the *ideational* and *textual* metafunctions. More specifically, I will explore *processes* and *circumstances* within the

⁶ This system belongs to the experiential metafunction and is the overall grammatical resource for construing our experience in terms of configurations of processes, participants and circumstances (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997, p.102).

Transitivity system (ideational metafunction), *thematic selections* within the system of Theme and *grammatical cohesion* within the system of cohesive devices (textual metafunction).

The following graph represents the relation between the metafunctions and the social context.



Graph 3: Metafunctions in relation to register and genre

(Eggins & Martin, 1997, p. 243)

2.4 Genre-based approaches to writing instruction: three traditions

Genre-based approaches to writing instruction are based on the idea that every successful text displays the writer’s awareness of its context and the readers that form part of that context (Hyland, 2004). In her seminal article “Genre in three traditions”, Hyon (1996) explores the three most prominent approaches to writing instruction; namely, The New Rhetoric (Bazerman, 1988; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1993; Freedman & Medway, 1994; Miller, 1984), English for Specific Purposes (Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990), and the Australian work in the tradition of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Martin, 2009; Kress, 1989; Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1994). Although these three approaches differ in the educational contexts to which they have been applied and their theoretical and pedagogical applications, they all share the same goal: helping students become more successful readers and writers of academic and professional genres (Hyon, 1996; Hyland, 2002).

In the section that follows, each of these approaches will be briefly reviewed.

2.4.1 The New Rhetoric approach

The New Rhetoric (NR) approach to genre is concerned with the socio-contextual aspects of genres. From this perspective, genre is “a form of social action that is centered not on the substance or the form of discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish” (Miller, 1994, p. 24, as cited in Hyland, 2004, p.35).

Most NR scholars are mainly interested in helping university students and novice professionals understand the social purposes of genres and the social, cultural and institutional contexts in which they occur (Bazerman, 1988; Devitt, 1993; Freedman & Medway, 1994; Miller, 1994, as cited in Hyon, 1996). In order to do so, they have provided descriptions of academic and professional genres and their contexts of use, but have not made explicit the instructional frameworks for teaching the language features and functions of such genres (Hyon, 1996). The reason for this may be that a number of NR researchers in this genre school are doubtful about the usefulness of explicit genre instruction in helping students become better readers and writers (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1993; Freedman, 1994; Freedman & Medway, 1994, as cited in Hyon, 1996). They suggest, instead, that much of genre knowledge can be acquired through students’ exposure to genres in their course readings.

NR research has generally been interested in how expert community users exploit genres for social purposes and the ways genres originate and evolve. More specifically, research has studied the historical evolution of genres (Atkinson, 1996, as cited in Hyland, 2004), the processes of revising and responding to editors and reviewers in writing scientific articles (Myers, 1990, as cited in Hyland, 2004) and the study of genres in the workplace (Pare, 2000; Dias et al., 1999, as cited in Hyland, 2004). To carry out these studies, researchers have employed ethnographic research tools such as participant observation, interviews and descriptions of physical settings (Hyon, 1996).

2.4.2 The English for Specific Purposes approach

The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) tradition defines genre as a communicative event with specific goals, which is schematically structured and varies across registers and styles. ESP genre analysis has focused, mainly, on describing one

or more sections of the key genres required of non-native speakers (NNSs) in academic and professional settings. Examples of such sections and genres are introductions to research articles (Swales, 1990), introductions and discussion sections of dissertations (Dudley-Evans, 1986), medical abstracts (Salager-Meyer, 1990), job applications, sales promotion letters, legal case studies (Bhatia, 1993), medical documents (Nwogu, 1991) and university letters (Thompson, 1994). The analysis involves exploring the organisation of the prototypical stages of these texts in terms of *moves* and *steps*, which are discussed in relation to the lexico-grammatical features that are commonly used for their realisation.

Scholars in this field have claimed that “genre-based applications can help NNS of English master the functions and linguistic conventions of texts that they need to read and write in their disciplines and professions” (Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990, as cited in Hyon, 1996, p. 698). Many ESP scholars have provided descriptions of genres but have not detailed its teaching applications (Gosden, 1992; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Love, 1991; Nwogu, 1991, as cited in Hyon, 1996). Other ESP researchers, however, have been explicit about instructional methodologies (Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990; Weissberg & Buker, 1990, as cited in Hyon, 1996). Swales (1990), for example, suggested activities for teaching the structure of RAs introductions and request letters to academics. Bhatia (1993) designed a set of self-access materials which provides students with models of business and scientific genres such as the sales promotion letter, business memo, job application, and lab report.

2.4.3 The Systemic Functional approach

The Systemic Functional approach to genre, known as the ‘Sydney School’ (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Martin, 1999; Martin & Rose, 2005, Martin & Rothery 1990) emerged in Australia in the late 1980s as Australian systemic linguists were dissatisfied with the process-based approaches to teaching writing in primary school (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993).

Genres within this tradition are “recognisable types of texts that have a particular purpose” (Schleppegrell, 2005, p. 5). They evolve in a culture to achieve common social purposes that are recognised by members of the culture, so the stages they go through are generally predictable for members of the culture.

This pedagogy was designed for empowering NNS of English from disadvantaged backgrounds with knowledge about language and genres needed for academic success (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Derewianka, 2012; Kress, 1993; Martin, 1993). There were three major phases in the pedagogy's development: (i) the initial design in the 1980s with a large number of genres in the primary school; (ii) the expansion of the pedagogy in the 1990s to genres across the secondary school curriculum and beyond; and (iii) the development of the reading pedagogy from the late 1990s integrating reading and writing with teaching practice across the curriculum at primary, secondary and tertiary education levels (see section 2.8.1 for a more detailed description of each of these phases). More recently, it has centered on adult migrant English education and workplace training programmes (Hyon, 1996).

As previously mentioned, a key feature of this approach is that students are explicitly taught the organising features, the functions, and the lexico-grammatical choices necessary to interpret and produce the various genres in the school curriculum (Martin & Rose, 2008) through an instructional cycle of text *deconstruction*, *joint construction*, and *independent construction* (Derewianka, 1990; Martin & Rose, 2007; Rose & Acevedo, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1989, 1996), which will be described in section 2.5.1

2.4.4 Similarities and differences between the three traditions

The ESP and Australian definitions of genres as “structured, communicative events and as staged, social processes, respectively, are useful for sensitising ESL instructors to links between formal and functional properties of texts that they teach in the classroom” (Hyon, 1996, p. 712).

In both ESP and NR, the texts central to genre theory and pedagogy have been fairly specialised, such as the research article (Swales, 1990) and the sales promotion letter (Bhatia, 1993). In the Australian school, however, the genres defined as elemental are the procedure, report, explanation, discussion, exposition, recount and narrative (Martin, 1989). Unlike the other two approaches to genre, SFL provides a framework that will help explain genre use at all educational levels rather than post-secondary (Hyland, 2004).

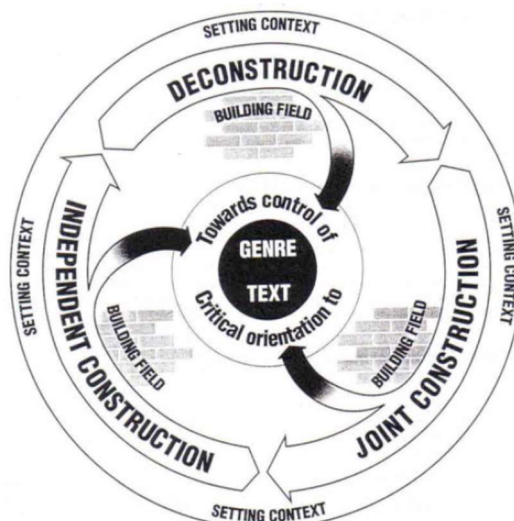
Even though both SFL and NR acknowledge the importance of context and social nature of genre, New Rhetoricians diverge from the Sydney School in following Bakhtin's notion of "dialogism" (Hyland, 2004, p. 35). This view of genre recognises regularities and conventions in genres but also considers them as dynamic, flexible, open to change and subject to negotiation.

ESL researchers and teachers can benefit from ESP and Australian analyses of genre forms as well as from NR descriptions of the functions and contexts of genres in academic and professional settings (Hyon, 1996).

For the purpose of this thesis, the genre-based approach of the Sydney School seems to be particularly suitable as it allows for systematic language instruction that reveals how meanings are created in a particular genre. This is achieved through the analysis of the texts students are required to write in terms of their communicative purposes, schematic structure and lexico-grammatical features.

2.5 Genre-based Pedagogy: The Teaching Learning Cycle

As already stated, the SFL tradition developed an instructional framework, known as the *Teaching Learning Cycle* (TLC), in the Australian 'Write it Right' project (Rothery, 1994). This cycle informs the sequencing and planning of genre-based classroom activities showing the process of learning a genre as a series of phases that involve the deconstruction of a model text, the joint construction of the target text and the independent construction of the genre under study (see section 2.5.1). Graph 4 below shows the cycle and its phases:



Graph 4: Write it Right teaching/learning cycle

(Rothery, 1994)

The principles of the TLC have been largely influenced by the work of the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1978) and the American educational psychologist Bruner (1986) as well as by research in child-language studies (e.g. Halliday, 1975, 1993, 2004; Painter, 1999). These scholars consider learning as a collaborative process between teacher and student, with the teacher assuming a facilitator role similar to that of an expert helping an apprentice. Bruner (1986, as cited in Feez, 2002) used the term *scaffolding* to describe the teacher's role. The *scaffolding* theory states that learning occurs most efficiently when learners interact with a more knowledgeable person who assists them within the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This is the zone where an individual can develop with or without assistance (Vygotsky, 1978). As Feez (2002) points out:

Vygotsky's notion of collaborative learning provides a theoretical basis for genre pedagogy, making it possible to plan language learning as a process of social construction with two key characteristics, scaffolding and joint construction. Scaffolding occurs when the teacher contributes what learners are not yet able to do alone or do not yet know. Teachers adjust, and strategically diminish, their contribution, supporting learners as they progress towards their potential level of independent performance. Joint construction occurs when the teacher and the learner share the responsibility for functioning until the learner has the knowledge and skills to perform independently and with sole responsibility (pp. 56-57).

In other words, learning to write evolves from the interaction with the teacher, who is an expert on language system and has a central role in scaffolding student development through a cyclical process (Hyland, 2004). Macken-Horarik (2002) points out that the teacher's assistance to students is essential in their early work on a text and that responsibility should be gradually shifted to the learners as they achieve greater control of the new genre (p. 26).

2.5.1 Phases of the Teaching Learning Cycle

The first phase of the cycle -referred to as the “deconstruction” phase- involves the students' exposure to a number of sample texts that exemplify the genre under analysis. Through a range of activities, teachers guide students to explore the functional aspects of the model text (i.e. its social purpose, its potential audience, and the text users' roles and relationships) and to identify its stages and phases, along with some pertinent language features. That is, this phase involves the explicit discussion of the purpose of the text, the different stages it goes through, and the key lexico-grammatical features of each stage.

Phase two of the cycle - referred to as the “joint construction” phase - entails the creation of the target text in collaboration with the teacher and peers. The teacher acts as a “scribe” (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993, p. 10) for the class group and takes, at times, a lead role as he/she both guides and scaffolds students by, for example, rewording the students' contributions. The purpose of this phase is to write a text of the same type as the one deconstructed in phase one but with a different subject matter, guided by the teacher in interaction with the students. For example, if learners deconstructed a text about the colonisation of the American colonies, they will be asked to write about the independence of these colonies.

Finally, in the third and final phase of the TLC, “independent construction”, students write an instance of the genre on their own following the model they have studied in phases one and two.

As shown in graph 4, “setting the context” and “building field” activities occur throughout the cycle rather than as part of independent phases (Feez & Joyce, 1998), and aim at raising learners' awareness of the social context and purpose of the genre

under study. This involves understanding what the genre is used for, its context, and the roles and relationships of the people involved (e.g. formal or informal, distant or close).

The TLC explicitly guides students to do a writing task through joint practice, before they are expected to do individual writing tasks. A more typical pattern in further education, however, is for teachers to assign writing tasks and then evaluate each student's productions with some written feedback. The TLC has reversed the pedagogic focus, to first prepare all students to do the task successfully through activities which focus on raising awareness of the rhetorical structure and language used of the target genre, rather than repairing less successful attempts afterwards (Rose, 2015).

Over time, the TLC was reconceptualised in various forms, which developed and foregrounded different aspects of the pedagogy, and some writers added one or two other phases to the cycle, such as "preparation in the cycle" proposed by Derewianka (1990, p. 6), "developing the context" (Feez, 1988, as cited in Hyland, 2004, p. 129), "building the context" (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988, as cited in Feez, 1988 p. 28) or "building knowledge of the field" (Hammond et al., 1992; Joyce, 1992, as cited in Hyon, 1996).

2.6 Genre Families in School History

Coffin (2004) has developed a classification distinguishing the key types of history genres that students are required to read and write as they move from the junior to the senior years of secondary school within the Australian educational system. The following table outlines these genres, their social purposes, the stages they move through, and their relationships to the broader categories of narrative and analysis.

| Genre Family | Genre | Social Purpose | Stages |
|--------------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| Recording genres (mapping onto narrative) | Autobiographical recount | To retell the events of your own life | Orientation, record of events (reorientation) |
| | Biographical recount | To retell the events of a person's life | Orientation, record of events (evaluation of person) |
| | Historical recount | To retell events in the past | Background, record of events (deduction) |
| | Historical account | To account for why events happened in a particular sequence | Background, account of events (deduction) |
| Explanatory genres (mapping onto analysis) | Factorial explanation | To explain the reasons or factors that contribute to a particular outcome | Outcome, factors, reinforcement of factors |
| | Consequential explanation | To explain the effects of consequences of a situation | Input, consequences, reinforcement of consequences |
| Arguing genres (mapping onto analysis) | Exposition | To put forward a point of view or argument | (Background), thesis, arguments, reinforcement of thesis |
| | Discussion | To argue the case for two or more points of view about an issue | (Background), issue, arguments, perspectives, position |
| | Challenge | To argue against a view | (Background), position challenged, arguments, antithesis |

Table 1.1: Key History Genres.

As can be seen, the first choice in the genre map is between texts whose central purpose is to *record*, *explain* or *argue* about the past. *Recording genres* are mainly concerned with specific people and events, *explanatory genres* with more abstract trends and structures and *arguing genres* with judging and negotiating their explanatory power (Coffin, 2004, p. 135). Rose and Martin (2012, p. 128) refer to *recording genres* as “chronicles”, which are types of factual texts whose central purpose is to inform readers (see Appendix A for the Map of school genres).

The sections that follow briefly outline the family of *recording genres* and describe the prototypical features of the *historical account*, which is the object of this study.

2.6.1 Recording genres

Within the recording genres, Coffin (2004) includes *autobiographical recounts*, *biographical recounts*, *historical recounts* and *historical accounts* (see Table 1.1). Each type is agnate to the other three in that all four genres share the overall purpose of recording history and have a similar schematic structure. However, what serves as

criteria for this four-way typology is the shift from specific participants (in *autobiographical* and *biographical recounts*) to generic participants (in *historical recounts* and *accounts*), together with shifts in the degree of abstraction and the use of language of time and cause-and-effect (Coffin, 2006).

2.6.2 The *historical account* genre

The *historical account* genre (see Appendix B for an example of an HA) is a type of historical narrative whose overall purpose is to explain historical events (Coffin; 2004, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012). Unlike *historical recounts*, which foreground time over cause, *historical accounts* foreground cause over time (Martin & Rose 2008, p. 114). That is, HAs not only recount history as a sequence of events but also establish cause-effect relations between events. These causal relations are one of the most fundamental topics of historical understanding, and therefore one of the most important aspects of history instruction. They can be expressed through a diversity of linguistic forms such as conjuncts (e.g. “because of this”, “this is why”, “therefore”, “as a result”), subordinating conjunctions (e.g. “because”, “as”, “since”), nouns (e.g. “reasons”, “effects”, “factor”, “outcome”, “consequence”), verb phrases (e.g. “caused by”, “this meant”, “forms the basis”, “resulted in”) and prepositions or prepositional clusters (e.g. “in spite of resistance”, “for the same reasons”)⁷ (Rose & Martin 2012, p. 122).

As mentioned in section 2.2.1, the prototypical stages of an HA are the *Background* and the *Account of stages* (Rose & Martin 2012, p.130). These stages organise the global structure of the text and include one or more phases that organise how the text unfolds. These phases were determined by the teacher-researcher for the present study, namely (a) “the setting”, (b) “the previous events” and (c) “the purpose” within the *Background* stage, and (d) “the events” and (e) “the outcome” within the *Account of stages*⁸ (see section 2.7.3 for an example of these stages and phases). “The setting” introduces the dates when the war began and ended, the place where it was fought and the parties involved, “the previous events”, refers to the context leading to the war, and “the purpose” explains why the different parties got involved in the war. Within the *Account of stages* “the events” includes the actions taken by each side and

⁷ The expression of causal relations through nouns, verb phrases and prepositions are instances of “logical grammatical metaphors” (Martin & Rose, 2008, p.40) as they involve non-congruent realisations of conjunctions.

⁸ Stages are labelled with capital letters and phases within each stage, with quotation marks.

their causes and consequences, and “the outcome” mentions the results of the war. It is worth mentioning that while the stages are highly predictable for each genre, the phases within each stage can be more flexible as they depend on the topic of the text.

Knowledge about the purpose of a particular genre and its schematic structure may help both teachers to approach the teaching of genres which are required in academic contexts more effectively and students to understand and produce the texts effectively. As Hyland (2003) points out, the teaching of key genres empowers learners gain access to ways of communicating in their academic and occupational communities.

In this research, I have chosen to work with the HA genre as EFL tertiary students with an intermediate level of language proficiency in the context of an English Culture subject tend to experience great difficulties when asked to produce this type of text. This study aims to address that problem by explicitly teaching the communicative purpose, schematic structure and prototypical lexico-grammatical features of this genre.

2.7 Variables analysed in this study

As stated before, this study will use some concepts of Halliday’s functional grammar to analyse the EFL students’ historical accounts. More specifically, *processes* and *circumstances* will be explored within the experiential metafunction, and the *sequencing of the information*, *Theme-Rheme* and *grammatical cohesion* will be examined within the textual metafunction.

In this section, I will define each of these variables in turn and illustrate their use by providing examples.

2.7.1 Processes

The experiential metafunction of language enables us to express patterns of experience, conceptualised as situation types, *processes* or states of affairs. The central part of the clause is what Halliday (1994) calls the *process*⁹; that is, the *process* is the action around which the clause is structured (Unsworth, 2000, p. 35). The three basic types of *processes* are (i) material, representing actions and events, accompanied by an Agent and a Goal (e.g. “fight”, “hide”, “use”); (ii) mental processes of cognition, perception and affectivity, in which the participants are Experiencer (e.g. “think”,

⁹ *Processes* are referred to as verbs from the point of view of formal or traditional grammar.

“saw”, “expect”) and Phenomenon; and (iii) relational *processes* of being, seeming, becoming and owning, (e.g. “be”, “appear”, “result”), which are accompanied by a Carrier and an Attribute.

Different genres have the tendency of using certain *process* types more than others. The *processes* typically used in HAs are (i) material *processes* or *processes* of doing/ happening, which narrate the sequence of historical events, and (ii) Relational *processes* or *processes* of being/ having, which mainly provide background information about the topic. Examples of both types of processes are highlighted in the following extract, where relational *processes* have been underlined and material *processes* are highlighted in bold type:

In the late 18th century, when the English **colonised** Australia, there were no signs of agriculture or the Aborigines depending on the land. According to English law, this meant that they need not be recognized as rightful residents. The English immediately assumed that Australia was ‘terra nullius’, or uninhabited; to them it was an unsettled land which they did not have to conquer to gain power.

As a result of their belief in ‘terra nullius’, from 1788 onwards, the English **began to occupy** sacred land and **use** Aboriginal hunting and fishing grounds. This abuse by the new British government soon led to Aborigines becoming involved in a physical struggle for power. The first main period of Aboriginal resistance was from 1794 to 1816 when the Eora people, under the leadership of Pemulwuy, **resisted** the Europeans through guerrilla warfare.

This Aboriginal resistance resulted in the colonisers using different methods of control. In the 19th century Protection stations **were set up** where Aborigines **were encouraged to replace** their traditional lifestyles with European ones. Many Aborigines **resisted**, however, and as a result **were shot or poisoned**.

(Adapted from Coffin, 2006, p. 59)

2.7.2 Circumstances

The other variable analysed in this study which realises the experiential metafunction is *circumstances*. *Circumstances* are elements of the clause that provide additional, and frequently optional, information regarding the time, place, reason, purpose, duration, distance, condition, and so on, of the process. They are typically realised by adverb groups (e.g. “later”) and prepositional phrases (e.g. “in 1914”, “because of the invasion”).

The type of *circumstances* typically found in HAs generally convey information related to time and cause-effect as the main purpose of this genre is both to provide a chronological account of events and, at the same time, establish the causal connections between those events (Rose & Martin, 2012). *Circumstances* of place and purpose are also used in this type of genre, though to a lesser extent.

Examples of temporal and cause-effect *circumstances* are highlighted in yellow and green respectively in the following extract:

In the early nineteenth century Napoleon Bonaparte became the Emperor of France, a position he utilized to dominate the European political landscape **for almost two decades**. He had grand ambitions to control France, all Europe and a particular interest in Russia, at that time the largest country in all of Europe.

On June 24, 1812, the main French army began to cross the Neman into Russia. Napoleon divided his forces into armies, commanding the principal one himself and providing two armies to protect the flanks and rear of his striking force. He met with early successes that appeared to guarantee that he might eventually rule the world as his personal domain. His soldiers captured Moscow and destroyed the city, which encouraged him to push farther in his military campaigns. However, **because of his dreams of glory**, Napoleon overlooked the simple fact that Russian winters are extremely cold. When the temperatures fell below freezing, many of his soldiers and their horses died in the brutal weather. **As a result of the failure of Napoleon's Russian campaigns**, his own rule ended relatively **soon after**. His defeat led to a reorganization of power throughout the European nations, as well as to the rise of Russia as a major world power.

(Adapted from <http://www.history.com/topics/napoleon>)

2.7.3 Sequencing of the information

Another important analytical category in this research is the concept of *sequencing of the information*. This concept is related to the schematic structure of the text; that is, “the beginning, middle and end structures of texts” (Martin, 1985, p. 86). In other words, the *sequencing of the information* refers to the overall organisation of the text as a unit and the prototypical stages through which the overall purpose of the text will be achieved.

In the case of the HA, object of this study, the teacher-researcher has followed Rose and Martin's (2012) genre stages -*Background* and *Account of stages*- and has determined the phases within these stages. The complete schematic structure of the HA,

then, can be represented in the following way: Background stage ['setting'] ^ ['previous events'] ^ ['purpose'] ^ Account of stages ['events'] ^ ['outcome']¹⁰. These stages and phases are portrayed in the following text:

¹⁰ Stages are labelled with capital letters and phases within each stage, with quotation marks. The symbol ^ means “followed by”, and the square brackets indicate phases within stages.

The Spanish Civil War

Background

The Spanish Civil War started in 1936 and finished in 1939. It was fought between the leftist Republicans, who were in government at the time, and the right-wing Nationalists. The Nationalists, as the rebels were called, received aid from Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany. The Republicans received aid from the Soviet Union, as well as from International Brigades, composed of volunteers from Europe and the United States.

setting

There were a number of issues that directly led to the outbreak of the Spanish Civil War. Economically, the country had been deeply hit by the Great Depression after the Wall Street Crash. Partly due to this turmoil, in 1929 the military dictatorship that had ruled Spain since 1923 collapsed. In 1931 the King abdicated after the Republicans came to power. There followed a period where the two political rivals had periods in power as the elected government. Violence had always been an inherent part of all attempts at democratic elections. Quite often the genuine results were altered due to intimidation and other tactics. Spain was quite literally ready to explode and the final spark that lit the fuse of war was the assassination of the right wing leader, Calvo Sotelo, in July 1936. Hitler and Mussolini (Italy's Fascist leader) both sent thousands of troops and weapons to Spain to aid the Nationalist forces. They both had similar aims and a common desire to see Spain fall to the right-wing Nationalists.

previous events

purpose

Account of Stages

At the start of the war, the military strength of the Nationalists gave them the upper hand. By the end of 1936, half of Spain was controlled by the military including the whole of the border with Portugal – a vital supply route. In the east and north, the Basques and Catalans held out far more effectively and the impact of the Nationalists here was minimal.

In 1937, the United States forbade exports of weapons to Spain, Germany conducted large-scale aerial bombings on undefended civilian targets (the most famous of which was Guernica, immortalized by a painting by Pablo Picasso), and the Nationalists conquered the last Republican center in the north. In a series of attacks from March to June 1938, the Nationalists drove to the Mediterranean and cut the Republican territory in two. Late in 1938, Franco mounted a major offensive against the anti-Nationalist stronghold of Catalonia, and after months of fighting, Barcelona finally fell in January 1939.

events

The Nationalist capture of Catalonia sealed the republic's defeat. Republican efforts for a negotiated peace failed in early 1939. Great Britain and France recognized the Franco regime in February and international recognition quickly followed. Finally, on April 1, 1939, the victorious Nationalists entered the final Republican stronghold of Madrid and received the unconditional surrender of the conquered Republican army in Madrid.

As a result, General Franco and the better organized and equipped Nationalist forces won the war. Hitler's position in Europe was strengthened since he had another potential ally in the right-wing dictator of Spain, General Franco. Participation and co-operation in the Spanish war strengthened the bond between Italy and Germany. As a result, the Rome-Berlin Axis was formed. Italy and Germany were now firm allies. By ignoring the Non-Intervention Committee and its chief architects, France and Britain, Hitler had shown his strength in European affairs.

outcome

Adapted from www.spanish.com/history/civil-war/

2.7.4 Theme-Rheme

As described in chapter 2, the textual metafunction includes both the structural system of Theme-Rheme, the non-structural system of cohesion and conjunctions.

2.7.4a Theme

The concept of *Theme* is defined by Halliday (1985) as “the element which serves as the point of departure of the message, it is that with which the clause is concerned” (p. 38). It can be identified as the element that comes in initial position in the clause and extends up to the first experiential element in the clause, i.e., up to the first element that has some representational function in the clause.

The ‘normal’ or unmarked *Theme* choice in a declarative clause coincides with the grammatical Subject (e.g. “The war lasted 8 months”) unless there is good reason for choosing another clause element (Thompson, 1996). A *Theme* that is something other than the Subject, in a declarative clause, is referred to as a marked theme. The most usual form of marked *Theme* in declarative clauses is a Circumstance, which can be realised by means of an adverbial group, (e.g. “Later, they regretted the decision”), a clause (e.g. “When the Treaty of Paris was signed on December 10, 1898, the war ended”), or a prepositional phrase, (e.g. “On April 25th, 1898 the United States declared war on Spain”). It is also possible to have a constituent other than the Subject or Circumstance as *Theme* such as an Object (e.g. “A treaty they signed”) or a Complement (e.g. “Restless the soldiers were”)¹¹, but these themes are less likely to happen and therefore highly marked. In general, the *Theme* is often realised through information which is given or known by both speaker and listener (Halliday, 1985).

2.7.4b Rheme

The part of the message in which the *Theme* is developed is called the *Rheme*¹² (Halliday, 1985, p. 38). Martin et al. (1997, pp. 21-22) categorised *Rheme* as the element of the clause that follows the *Theme* where the presentation moves after the point of departure. Once the *Theme* of a clause is identified, the *Rheme* can be easily recognised. In general, the *Rheme* contains unfamiliar or new information (Eggs, 1994, p. 275).

¹¹ The Themes have been underlined in all the examples.

¹² In Prague school terminology

For Halliday, the *Theme-Rheme* structure is “the basic form of organisation of the clause as message” (Halliday, 1985, p.53). For that reason, the notion of *Theme-Rheme* can be very useful in the comprehension and production of texts.

2.7.5 Theme in discourse

2.7.5a Thematic Progression

The choice of *Themes* plays a fundamental part in the overall development of a text as it carries forward the development of the text as a whole. One way of approaching the analysis of information flow in a text is by looking at its Thematic Progression (Danes, 1974). Danes defines Thematic Progression as “the choice and ordering of utterance Themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the Hyperthemes of the superior text units, to the whole of text, and to the situation” (p. 114). In other words, Thematic Progression shows how utterances link up to one another and make the text progress. Danes postulates three main types of Thematic Progression:

1. Simple Linear Progression or Linear Thematic Progression: part of the information contained in the *Rheme* of a clause becomes the *Theme* of the following clause, and so on.

$$\begin{array}{l} T1 \text{ -----} R1 \\ \qquad T2 (=R1) \text{ -----} R2 \\ \qquad \qquad T3(=R2) \text{ -----} R3 \end{array}$$

The following text illustrates this type of Thematic Progression:

The British won vast territory in North America after the Seven Years’ War, but with the land came numerous problems of how to govern it. **Conflicts** arose from the inability of British officials to balance the interests of colonists and Indians. **This** led to colonial dissatisfaction with imperial rule and, ultimately, to the causes of the American Revolution.

(Taken from www.history.state.gov)

The *Themes* of the second and third sentences, in bold type, contain given information which was presented as new in the *Rhemes* of the preceding sentences (underlined).

2. Constant Themes, Topic continuity, or Theme reiteration: the same *Theme* is repeated in different clauses and new information is added to the *Rhemes*. This pattern is common in short passages of biographical information and sometimes in narratives which focus on the behavior of one person. It is also frequently found in textbooks and descriptions of factual information focusing on one particular thing or concept (Bloor & Bloor, 2013, p. 90)

T1 ----- R1

T1 ----- R2

T1 ----- R3

The following text illustrates the constant pattern in use:

The French and Indian War was the North American conflict in a larger imperial war between Great Britain and France known as the Seven Years' War. It began in 1754 and ended with the Treaty of Paris in 1763. The war provided Great Britain enormous territorial gains in North America.

(Taken from www.history.state.gov)

This text follows the constant theme pattern (or topic continuity/ theme reiteration) as the experiential unmarked *Theme* “The French and Indian War” is repeated in the two subsequent clauses in the form of the pronoun “it” and the double cohesive device “the war”, and new information is added in *Rheme* position.

3. Derived Themes or Derived Hyperthematic Progression: there is a Hypertheme from which the subsequent *Themes* derive.

Argentina's economy is going through difficult times. Inflation is expected to tumble further today. Industry is virtually strike- free and wage settlements are the lowest in years.

In the previous example, the experiential unmarked *Themes* “inflation”, “industry”, and “wage settlements” are all derived from the Hypertheme “Argentina’s economy”.

During the instruction period, the EG students were taught how to distribute given and new information (system of information) and how *Theme-Rheme* combinations develop and pattern over a text. They were shown that HAs typically display Linear Thematic Progression since some of the *Themes* are related to previous

Rhemes in the text. This arrangement of the information contributes to textual coherence and facilitates the reading process.

2.7.5b Method of Development

Another way of approaching the analysis of information flow in a text is by focusing only on the *Themes*. The progression of *Themes* over the course of a text is referred to as the text's Method of Development (Fries, 1981, as cited in Martin, et al. 1997, p. 22); that is, Fries' Method of Development can also be used to examine how a text develops with respect to *Themes*. The most recurrently used Methods of Development are: chronological, from whole to parts, from general to particular and topographical.

Through Genre Pedagogy, the EG students learnt what to select as the point of departure of the clause (system of Theme) and the typical thematic structures used in an HA text. The Chronological Method of Development is frequently associated with this type of texts since many adjuncts of time are thematised and thus function as an organising principle by creating a timeline of relevant events.

2.7.6 Grammatical Cohesion

As mentioned before, a text is more than a sequence of clauses as there must be unity between them. There are different sources through which unity can be achieved in a text such as its generic structure, the organisation of information in clauses, the use of logical relations that occur across sentences and some cohesive resources. Cohesion, then, is one of the properties which gives texture to the text, that is, which contributes to create internal unity in texts. As Halliday and Hasan (1976) explain:

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

There are two main types of cohesion: *grammatical cohesion*, which is based on structural content, and *lexical cohesion*, which is based on lexical content and background knowledge. Because of time restrictions, I will only focus on grammatical cohesion and disregard lexical cohesion in this study.

Grammatical cohesion is defined as the set of grammatical relations that allow us to interpret the meaning of a text element from another element that appears earlier or later in the linguistic co-text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Eggins (2004) points out that the key notion behind *cohesion* is that there is a semantic tie between an item at one point and an item at another point. The types of *grammatical cohesion* are reference, substitution and ellipsis. In the present study, I will only explore the use of reference in the students' written productions as substitution and ellipsis are most commonly used in spoken English.

Reference is a resource that shows “how the writer/speaker introduces participants¹³ and then keeps track of them in the text” (Eggins, 2004, p. 33). It creates a link between a referring word or expression and a referent. In terms of grammatical realisation, there are three main types of reference: (1) *pronominal* or *personal*, (2) *demonstrative* and (3) *comparative*. What is known as *personal reference* is dependent on the use of personal pronouns (masculine, feminine and neuter). *Demonstrative reference* is dependent on the use of demonstrative determiners and pronouns (*this, these, that* and *those*) and adverbs (*here, now, then, there*), and comparative reference uses adjectives, determiners and pronouns like *same, other, identical, better, more* or their adverbial counterparts *identically, similarly, less* and so on, to forge links with previously mentioned entities (Bloor & Bloor, 2013, pp. 96-97). Each type of reference is illustrated in the following examples in which the reference form is in bold type and the referent underlined.

1. Personal reference:

The French and Indian war, also known as the Seven Years' War, was a significant precursor to the American Revolutionary War. **It** resulted in France losing almost all of **its** American and Canadian territory to the British Empire.

(Taken from kidskonnnect.com)

2. Demonstrative reference:

Machine guns, artillery and tanks were widely used in the WWI. **These** were efficient weapons.

¹³ Participants are the people, places and things that are addressed in the text (Eggins, 2004, p. 33). They are realised by the Subject, the Object and the Complement.

3. Comparative reference:

The Second World War led to a decisive change in the balance of power around the world. The countries that had dominated European affairs from 1919 to 1939 such as France, Britain or Germany were not **much poorer**.

(Taken from www.britannica.com/topic/balance-of-power)

2.8 Literature review

The present literature review is organised in four parts. The first section (2.8.1) describes the large-scale action research projects, known as the “Sydney School” project, conducted by educational linguists in Australia across three decades. These projects serve as a basis for my study since I have chosen to carry out a research project similar to the SS project. The second section (2.8.2) focuses on studies that have implemented the SS pedagogy for the teaching of various text types in the EFL classroom. These, in turn, have helped me frame my own research work showing the impact of genre-based instruction and learning about the implementation of methodological aspects. The third section (2.8.3) describes the body of research related to academic disciplines, and in particular, the discipline area of history, which is the focus of my own study. The final section (2.8.4) deals with the development of the SS genre-based literacy programmes oriented to the acquisition of writing skills in higher education in our country so as to delimit the areas that have not been explored in Argentina so far.

2.8.1 The three major phases of the “Sydney School” project¹⁴

As mentioned in section 2.4.3, the Sydney School (SS) project comprised three major phases: (1) the design of writing pedagogy in the 1980s that focused on the genres of primary schools, (2) the extension of the writing pedagogy to genres across secondary school subject areas in the 1990s, and (3) the integration of reading and writing with teaching practice across school levels beginning in the late 1990s (Rose, 2009).

The first phase of the project, known as the *Language and Social Power* project, focused on the description of genres that students were required to write in Australian primary school (e.g. recount, anecdote, observation, narrative, description, report,

¹⁴ Rose (2009, 2011)

procedure) in terms of their social purposes and stages (Martin & Rose, 2005). This phase of the Sydney School research showed teachers there was a social purpose in writing, and developed their skills and knowledge through extensive in-servicing, especially prepared materials and in-class support (Cope, Kalantzis, Kress & Martin, 1993, p. 240).

The second phase, termed the *Write it Right* project, provided linguistic descriptions of the genres students were required to read and write in secondary school in terms of the social purpose of the genre and its stages and phases. The main aim of this phase of the research was to provide all students with access to the language resources for producing effective academic texts (Martin & Rose, 2005). However, the intensive focus on writing did not provide sufficient support for many culturally and diverse students to read and understand the model texts.

The third phase, known as the *Reading to Learn* project, focused on teaching students to read texts across the curricula in each disciplinary area and to transfer what they had learned from reading in their writing (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose 2011; Rose & Martin, 2012). To this end, large volumes of classroom practice have been observed, recorded and analysed so as to provide teachers with pedagogical tools to employ in designing effective reading and writing instruction in any discipline area.

In addition, in 1988, a number of researchers (including Mike Callaghan, Bill Cope, Mary Kalantzis, Gunther Kress, Jim Martin, Joan Rothery & Diana Slade) founded the Literacy and Education Research Network (LERN) (Hyon, 1996). This project was committed to developing an instructional approach to help students master a variety of school genres such as reports, explanations, procedures and discussions. More specifically, it “involved the development of genre-based curriculum materials to support the *Writing K-12* syllabus” (Cope et al., 1993, p. 241). During the project, a four-volume set of teacher guidebooks was created for implementing a genre-based approach in primary schools. These guidebooks gave examples of students’ texts illustrating several school genres, offered sample lessons for teaching factual and story genres, introduced teachers to the key systemic concepts of register, genre, grammar and discourse, and presented strategies for evaluation (Hyon, 1996; Cope et al., 1993). Many teachers praised the project because they considered it “enabled them to give the

children clear direction in how, what and why to write” (Walsh et al., 1990, as cited in Cope et al., 1993, p.243).

2.8.2 The SFL genre-based approach in the EFL classroom

Since the late 1980’s, the SFL genre-based approach has been tried and tested in academic and professional teaching contexts in many parts of the world, including Australia, China, Singapore, Hong Kong, Vietnam, a number of European nations including France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and several South American countries such as Brazil and Argentina (Emilia, Christie, & Humphrey, 2012).

At the level of classroom practice, several investigations carried out with EFL/ESL students have shown the effectiveness of genre-based instruction on students’ writing performance at different levels of formal education (Chen & Su, 2012; Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Guan Eng Ho, 2009; Hyejeong, 2012; Luu, 2011; Ong, 2016; Wang 2013, among others).

In the international context, Hyejeong (2012) conducted a study in an ESL classroom in a public primary school in South Australia. The participants were 12 primary school students who were taught how to write *reports* and *expository* texts over a ten-week term with two sixty-minute lessons per week. Data were collected from the *reports* and *expository* texts students wrote before and after the instruction-period. The findings suggested that students progressed well beyond the initial stage of writing competence and that the genre approach encouraged a positive attitude towards writing activities.

Similarly, Emilia and Hamied (2015) investigated the effectiveness of the SFL genre approach in a tertiary EFL context in Indonesia. The study was conducted in one semester with 19 Indonesian students aged between 19 and 21 taking a writing course on *expository* texts. The teaching of expositions took seven ninety-minute lessons with the teacher acting as researcher. Data were collected from the production of the students’ texts over the research. The results showed that students’ texts depicted good control of the schematic structure and linguistic features of the texts in focus.

Chen and Su’s research (2012) involved forty-one EFL university students in Taiwan who received instruction on summary writing. During the instruction period, the participants were asked to summarize a simplified version of *The Adventures of Tom*

Sawyer in a maximum of 500 words at two different moments: a pre- and a post-test. The students' pre- and post-tests were evaluated against content, organisation, vocabulary, and language use. The statistical results showed that the genre-based approach was effective in improving students' summary writing strategies of a narrative source text and that the students benefited to a greater extent in content and organisation than in vocabulary and language use. These results were supported by the students' interview comments.

Along similar lines, Luu (2011) carried out an investigation in which 45 first-year university students of Finance-Marketing in Vietnam undertook instruction on the biographical recount genre. Data were collected through student writings (pre- and post-tests) and questionnaires administered right after the instruction period. The findings revealed that most of the participants gained control over the key features of the biographical recount genre, namely the social purpose of the text, its schematic structure and language features. In addition, students expressed their positive feelings towards the TLC.

Guan Eng Ho (2009) conducted a case-study in Brunei, South East Asia. The participant was a second-year ESL Chinese student pursuing an English medium Science degree who received a hundred and twenty-minute weekly instruction on *review* texts for two weeks. The results showed that there was an improvement in terms of schematic and clause structure after the instruction period.

In another case study, Ong (2016) examined the teaching of *literary criticism* texts to a group of first year ESL undergraduate students in Malaysia. All students were ethnic Chinese and most of them possessed average to good command of English language. Throughout the instruction period, students were asked to write three *literary criticism* texts: the first one before the deconstruction stage (the pre-test), the second one during the independent construction stage (the post-test) and the third one two months later (the delayed post-test). After the treatment, the students were able to write *literary criticism* texts which met both the rhetoric and lexico-grammatical conventions of the genre.

Wang (2013) also reported the positive results of a genre-based writing course at university in which EFL Chinese students improved their ability to write a *letter of apology* after a 16-week instruction period. Three sets of data from pre- and post-test

writings, questionnaires and interviews for the EG were collected and analysed. The findings suggested that genre awareness was raised in the SFL-genre-based writing class as it shortcut the process that L2 learners needed to fully understand how a text is constructed in terms of purpose, audience and social context. In addition, the EG students improved their written production considerably after the instruction period.

At the national level, several studies have been carried out in relation to EFL writing of academic texts. As an example, Cristina Boccia and a group of teachers and researchers of the EFL Department at *Universidad Nacional de Cuyo, Mendoza*, have provided detailed suggestions for incorporating language analysis and exploration of meaning in the EFL classroom in three types of texts: *narratives*, *service encounters* and *movie reviews* (Boccia, et al., 2013). At *Universidad Nacional de San Luis*, Mirallas (2017) assessed the effectiveness of a genre-based pedagogical implementation on the teaching of *abstracts* and *scientific research articles* to researchers in *Facultad de Ciencias Físico Matemáticas y Naturales*, with a special focus on interpersonal meanings and rhetorical components. The findings revealed that after-course abstracts show a larger amount of attitude and graduation elements, as well as the incorporation of rhetorical components when compared with before-course samples.

At the local level, two main investigation lines related to academic writing in higher education can be mentioned. At a privately-run University in Córdoba, Trebucq (2005) carried out a study of the effect of genre-based instruction on the teaching of *business report* writing. The results showed that genre-based teaching enhanced the written production of Business English learners at an intermediate level of language proficiency. At *Universidad Nacional de Córdoba*, Dalla Costa (2012) examined the effect of genre-based instruction on the teaching of *summary-response* writing in the context of an English language course. The results of the study provided evidence that genre-based instruction in *summary-response* writing had positive effects on the ratings of students' task performance, students' abilities and attitudes towards genre-based instruction, and teacher attitudes towards genre-based instruction and materials.

2.8.3 Research on the genres associated with specific disciplines

The last decades have witnessed a steady growth in research on the genres associated with specific disciplines, including history (e.g. Coffin, 1997, 2006; Schleppegrell & Achugar, 2003), social studies (Bunch, 2006), science (de Oliveira &

Dodds, 2010; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Veel, 2000), and mathematics (de Oliveira & Cheng, 2011; O'Halloran, 2000; Schleppegrell, 2007).

Several scholars contend that if educators have an understanding of the discipline-specific language of their academic courses, they can scaffold this learning for students in their classrooms (Acevedo & Rose, 2007; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1996). Studies across a number of countries have found that explicit teaching of the prototypical language features found within disciplines supports learners to gain the language expertise required to access knowledge and present information specific to a discipline area (e.g. Coffin, 2006; Gebhard, Willet, Jimenez & Piedra, 2011; Martin, 2010; May & Wright, 2007; Schleppegrell & de Oliveira, 2006).

In the United States there are some in-service teacher education programmes and several emerging programmes of research influenced by the SS to equip teachers with SFL- based strategies to teach writing to English language learners (Gebhard, 2010; Schleppegrell, 2004). As an example, Schleppegrell and her colleagues developed the California History Project (CHP) to introduce secondary teachers to SFL tools not only to discuss lesson design and conduct text analysis but also to implement lessons in their classrooms. The teacher-participants attend literacy strategy workshops to learn new strategies for approaching reading and writing tasks and to focus on problematic language issues of history discourse such as sentence constituents, complex nominal groups, time markers, connectors, reference forms and nominalisations.

In a case study involving a teacher-participant of the University of CHP literacy workshops, Schleppegrell, Greer and Taylor (2008) reported that the functional metalanguage gave the teacher concrete tools for thinking and talking about meaning in the texts students read and write. The results of this case study are consistent with evaluations of other teacher-participants in the University of CHP Institutes, who concluded that the conversations they are able to have with their students about history are enriched by the close attention to language that the functional grammar strategies enable (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteiza, 2007). In addition, the findings provided evidence that the language learners of the CHP teachers scored higher on the state exams than those students whose teachers had not attended the workshops.

Another SFL-based teacher education programme is based in Massachusetts. This programme, called the Access to Critical Content and English Language

Acquisition Alliance (ACCELA), is a district-university partnership guided by the goal of providing sustained professional development to in-service teachers, teacher educators, and researchers by engaging in collaborative research regarding the academic literacy development of non-dominant students attending urban schools (Gebhard, 2010). Similar to the findings of Schleppegrell and her colleagues (2007), ACCELA case studies (Gebhard & Martin, 2010; Gebhard et al., 2011) suggested that teacher-participants developed a deeper understanding of disciplinary knowledge and that English language learners produced more coherent and cohesive texts reflective of the written mode.

A third programme, also in Massachusetts, has also produced positive results. Brisk and Zisselsberger's study (2010) found that eleven teachers in Boston improved in their ability to teach writing to bilingual students after the professionals participated in a summer institute that introduced them to key SFL concepts as well as to strategies for teaching specific genres, such as recounts, narratives, and explanations in the context of social studies and science.

2.8.4 Academic literacy programmes in our country

Due to the importance attributed to explicit teaching of the genres that students learn to read and write in school and beyond, and based on the assumption that the students' literacy skills can be improved by instruction, many intervention programmes started to implement the SFL genre-based pedagogy at some universities in our country. As an example, Estela Moyano and Lucía Natale, among others, have designed a "Programme to Develop Academic Literacy Across the Curriculum" (PRODEAC) for teaching literacy activities in the specific subject matters of the degrees at *Universidad Nacional de General Sarmiento*, Buenos Aires. The pedagogical orientation of this programme is based on the developments of the SS (Martin, 1999; Martin & Rose, 2005) and the theory of learning through language developed in SFL. The three main aims of the PRODEAC are to guide the improvement of students' academic development, to increase the professors' awareness of their disciplinary genres and to assist them in planning, assigning and evaluating the written and oral tasks that will be assigned to their students. In order to achieve these goals, the figure of a linguist as *profesor asistente de la materia* (Moyano, 2007) was created to accompany the subject's professor in the process of teaching literacy in the classroom.

A research carried out in two academic terms (2004-2005) to test this pedagogic proposal revealed: i) that the students developed genre and learning awareness during the teaching-learning process, ii) that the learners' texts showed adequacy to the context and appropriateness of the genre conventions taught, iii) the students were able to apply what they learnt in the teaching-learning process to genres which they were required to write later but had not been treated in detail in the class (Moyano, 2007).

Most of the studies described above have illustrated the usefulness of the SFL genre-based approach both in linguistic research and teaching practice. At the level of classroom practice, genre-based pedagogy has proved to be an effective tool for the teaching of a wide range of text types such as reports, expository texts, summary writing, biographical recounts, literary criticisms and summary responses. As mentioned in the introduction, this investigation intends to make a small contribution to the existing research on the effectiveness of Genre Pedagogy by teaching the HA genre in an EFL Teacher Education programme in Córdoba city, Argentina.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Chapter 2 provided the theoretical framework for the present study and a review of some relevant literature related to the topic. This chapter presents the methodology on which the present research study is grounded. It describes the action research approach as well as several contextual aspects of the research such as the setting and the participants. It also explains how data were collected and analysed.

3.1 Research approach

Action research is a tool that is used to help teachers and other educators uncover strategies to improve teaching practices (Sagor, 2004). Borg (2009) defines action research as “systematic, rigorous inquiry by teachers into their own professional contexts” (p. 377).

Ferrance (2000) identifies various types of action research in the fields of education depending upon the participants involved: (i) individual action research, (ii) collaborative action research, (iii) school-wide action research and (iv) district-wide action research. Individual action research involves a single teacher conducting his or her own in-class research project with her students. Collaborative action research involves a group of teachers or researchers working together to explore a problem that might be present beyond a single classroom, perhaps at the departmental level or an entire grade level. School-wide action research involves teams of staff members focusing on issues present throughout an entire school or across the district.

Since this study aims to find out whether a genre-based pedagogy anchored in SFL can contribute to the textual production of a particular genre written by L2 teacher trainees at a tertiary level, I will follow the methodology proposed by the individual action research type.

Several research studies through which teachers have conducted action research have been found to be the impetus for positive change (e.g. Ferrance, 2000; Johnson & Button, 2000). Examples of positive change include teacher improvement, self-reflection, and overall learning that enhances classroom practices. It is important to note that within the individual action research approach, I have decided to carry out an experimental pre-test/post-test study that will be thoroughly explained in the following sections.

3.2 Context of the study

This experimental pre-test/post-test study was conducted with official permission at the tertiary school *ISFD “Nueva Formación”* in Córdoba, Argentina. This college offers a four-year Teacher Training programme, which consists of thirty-one compulsory courses, and a three-year Translation Study programme, which consists of nineteen compulsory courses. Students attend classes from Monday to Friday in the evening for five hours every day. The study was carried out in the context of the second year of the Teacher Training and Translation study programmes.

3.3 Participants

The participants of the research were 24 students, the researcher and an extra rater.

3.3.1 Students

The students were male and female EFL learners in their early twenties with an intermediate level of language proficiency. They were all attending the course *Estudios Socio-Culturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa II*, which belongs to the second-year curriculum and is taught once a week on a two-hour class.

Twelve students conformed the experimental group (EG) and the other twelve students the control group (CG). The EG coincided with the second-year programme of the Teacher Training course and the CG with the second-year programme of the Translation Training course. All the students agreed to participate voluntarily in this research. In order to prevent discomfort, they were told that the texts they would produce would be anonymous and would not be used to evaluate their performance throughout the course.

None of the students received explicit instruction in HA writing before the present study. During the research, the students in the CG received traditional instruction on history that involved the reading and discussion of several texts on different wars and other topics related to the syllabus of the course (see Appendix C). This group of students, however, was not subjected to writing instruction of any type during that period. The EG, in contrast, studied the topics related to the syllabus content of the subject and received explicit GP instruction for the production of the HA. Even though both groups used the same study material, what changed between the CG and

GE was the teaching and pedagogical methods used for instruction (see description of GP instruction on section 3.7).

3.3.2 Raters

Almost one third of the HAs was read and allotted a score independently by the teacher-researcher (Rater 1) and by an EFL teacher (Rater 2). This was done so as to provide reliability and objectivity to the scores. Both teachers hold a degree in EFL Teaching granted by the School of Languages, *Universidad Nacional de Córdoba*, and belong to the Chair of *Estudios Socio-Culturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa II*. In addition, they have at least five years of experience in teaching ESL students at the tertiary level.

3.4 Pilot test

Before carrying out this full-scale research, a preliminary study was conducted in order to test the design and feasibility of the investigation. The pilot study was carried out with members of the relevant population, with texts of a similar nature to the corpus of the present study and with variables related to the *field* and the *mode* (Halliday, 1978) as tools for analysis to score the students' written productions.

3.5 Corpus

The corpus consists of 48 written productions *-historical accounts-* produced by the EG and the CG at two different moments. The subjects in the EG wrote 12 HAs before the instruction based on the GP (pre-tests) and 12 after instruction (post-tests). The participants in the CG produced 12 pre-tests and 12 post-tests but this group did not receive GP instruction. The period between the pre-test and the post-test was a month and a half.

The total number of words in the corpus is 9,252, divided among 48 texts which range from 102 to 363 words in length. About half of the texts is below 200 words. The errors that were detected were not corrected.

In order to preserve the anonymity of the writers, the texts were identified by a code with a capital letter and a number (e.g. C1, C2, E1, E2, etc). The letter "C" stands for the control group, the "E" for the experimental group, and the number for the particular student who produced the HA.

3.6 Testing instruments: Pre-test and post-test

In order to assess the effectiveness of the GP as a pedagogical method of instruction, a pre-test and a post-test were designed (see Appendix E). The pre-test was administered to all subjects in the CG and the EG in the first class, that is, prior to the teaching of HA writing to the EG. The students were required to write an HA of the *American Civil War*, and the text had to include information about the setting, the parties involved, the events leading to the war, its purpose, the actions taken by each side and the end of the war. This prompt was related to unit 1 on the syllabus and the students could take ninety minutes to finish their production in class. There were no limitations for writing length.

The post-test was administered to both groups after the instruction period. This HA was about the *Vietnam War*. The text had to provide information about the setting, the parties involved, the events leading to the war, its purpose, the actions taken by each side and the end of the war. This prompt was related to unit 6 on the syllabus. As in the pre-test, the students were given ninety minutes to write their HAs in class and they had no limitations for writing length.

3.7 Instruction period

The participants in the EG underwent a six-week period of genre-based instruction in their classroom schedule. The first fifty minutes of every class was devoted to the teaching of the HA genre. The aim of the instruction was to raise the subjects' awareness and understanding of the communicative purpose of such genre, the social context in which it is written and read (register, audience), its generic structure and prototypical lexico-grammatical features. It was carried out through a set of activities especially designed by the researcher to provide explicit instruction on the writing of HAs (see section 3.7.1). These activities had been successfully piloted with the students who took the same course in 2014. They were based on the three phases of the Teaching Learning Cycle described in section 2.5.1, namely, *deconstruction*, *joint construction* and *independent construction* of the genre.

3.7.1 Genre-based Pedagogy

In this section, I will briefly describe the activities carried out in class for the teaching of the HA to the EG. As mentioned before, the instruction was divided into six sessions and each session lasted 50 minutes.

Session 1: Deconstruction phase

In the first session, an instance of the genre was deconstructed by the teacher and students in terms of its schematic structure. The class started with the reading of an HA about “The Korean War” (shown below) and followed with a class discussion about the communicative purpose of the text. In the discussion, topics such as the chronological account of the war events and the causal connections between the events were analysed.

After the HA had been read and its purpose discussed, the students were shown that the schematic structure of the HA typically involves two stages: the *Background* stage, which summarises previous historical events, and the *Account of stages*, which explains the events as they unfolded over time (Rose and Martin, 2012). Next, the teacher-researcher guided the students to discover the phases within the stages (that is, the *setting*, the *previous events* and the *purpose* within the *Background stage*, and the *events* and the *outcome* within the *Account of stages*) and the functions that each of the phases fulfills. In order to do this, she asked the following questions:

I. Background stage:

- a. When did the war begin and end? Which were the parties involved? Where was it fought?
- b. Which were the events that led to the outbreak of the war?
- c. What was the purpose of the war?

II. Account of stages:

- d. Which were the actions taken by each side?
- e. When did the war finish? What were the consequences of the war?

Within the Background stage, question “a” corresponds to the *setting* phase, question “b” to the *previous events* and question “c” to the *purpose* of the war. Within the Account of stages, question “d” corresponds to the *events* phase and question “e” to the *outcome* phase.

Once the stages and phases were identified, the complete schematic structure of the text was represented as in the following way:

The Korean War

| | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|-----------------|
| Background | { | (1) The Korean War was fought between capitalist South Korea and communist North Korea. (2) It started on June 25th 1950 and finished on July 27th 1953. (3) South Korea was supported by the United States and North Korea by the Soviet Union. (4) <u>Before World War II</u> , the Korean Peninsula had been a part of Japan. (5) <u>After the War</u> , it was divided in two at the 38th parallel: the Northern half went under the control of the Soviet Union and the Southern half under the control of the United States. (6) Elections were to be held for a united Korea, but in the meantime separate states were set up. (7) Both were dictatorships: communist in the north and capitalist in the south. (8) North Korea wanted to unify the Korean peninsula under his communist regime and this created a conflict that led to war. | } | setting |
| | | | } | previous events |
| | | | } | purpose |
| Account of stages | { | (9) <u>On June 25th, 1950</u> North Korea, with the help of Soviet forces, crossed the 38th parallel and invaded South Korea very nearly taking the whole country. (10) The American President Truman acted fast as he sent troops to nearby Japan and battleships to wait off the coast. (11) He also asked the UN to condemn the invasion. (12) The United Nations was therefore able to order its forces to drive back the North Koreans. (13) <u>On June 28th</u> , the North Koreans captured Seoul. (14) <u>At first</u> , the United Nations was only trying to defend South Korea; however, after the first summer of fighting, President Truman decided to go on the offensive. (15) Because of this , the commander of the American troops, General MacArthur, attacked the city of Incheon by water, air, and ground, surprising the North Koreans. (16) This quick attack resulted in the American take-over of both Incheon and Seoul, and the push-back of North Korean troops. (17) As the American armies reached the Chinese border, Chinese leader Mao Zedong warned them to stop, but they did not do so. (18) As a result, in October and November thousands of Chinese troops joined the fighting to aid the North Koreans. (19) <u>Soon</u> , UN troops were pushed backed south and Chinese and North Koreans forces reoccupied Seoul on January 4 1951. | } | events |
| | | (20) Truman and MacArthur disagreed over the war. (21) Truman wanted to limit the war in Korea because he hoped that would preserve the lives of U.S. troops. (22) Mac Arthur, in contrast, wanted to defeat the Chinese by carrying the war onto Chinese territory. (23) Because of this profound disagreement, in April 1951 , Truman replaced MacArthur as commander of the UN forces in Korea by general Matthew Ridgway. (24) <u>By mid-June</u> , the UN forces had stopped the North Korean advance near the 38th parallel. (27) <u>A short time later</u> , the Chinese and North Koreans agreed to meet UN representatives at a town called Panmunjom to begin negotiating peace. (25) Such negotiations dragged on for months while sporadic fighting continued. (26) The issue of the exchange of prisoners of war became especially contentious since the US insisted that POWs should be free to stay in South Korea if they did not want to return to the North or China. | } | outcome |
| | | (27) <u>On July 27th, 1953</u> the peace treaty was finally signed with no clear winner. (28) Few things changed as a result of the war. (29) Both countries remained independent and the border remained at the 38th parallel. (30) However, a two-mile demilitarized zone was placed between the two countries to act as a buffer in hopes to prevent future wars. | } | outcome |

Adapted from: www.ducksters.com/history/cold_war/korean_war.php

The goal of this task was to raise students' awareness of the different stages and phases that make up the generic structure of an HA as well as of the different purposes that each phase serves.

Session 2: Deconstruction phase

Session 2 involved the deconstruction of the text in terms of the lexicogrammatical features typically found in this genre. The features analysed were *processes*, *circumstances*, and *grammatical cohesive ties*, which correspond to three of the variables object of this study.

First, the students were asked to identify the types of *processes* and *circumstances* that prevail in each of the stages, classify them and relate them to the purpose of the text. Then, the learners were made aware of their realisations and frequency of occurrence. Special emphasis was placed on material *processes* (e.g. “was fought”, “started”, “finished”, “crossed”, “invaded”, “captured”, “attacked”, “reached”, “joined”, “pushed back”, “replaced”) and the cause-effect relations¹⁵ (e.g. “and this created a conflict that led to war”, “as he sent troops to nearby Japan and battleships to wait off the coast”, “resulted in the American take-over of both Incheon and Seoul, and the push-back of North Korean troops”, “because of this profound disagreement”). Through these examples, the students were shown that causal relations can be introduced or expressed in a variety of ways, that is, through subordinators (*as*), conjuncts (*as a result*), processes (*led to*, *resulted in*) and prepositional clusters (*because of*), among others.

The aim of this task was to make students aware of the importance of the use of material *processes* and temporal and cause-effect *circumstances* in HAs as in these texts “events are packaged up in phases of time and organised into causes and effects as well” (Rose & Martin 2012, p. 122).

With respect to cohesive devices, students had to circle all the pronouns in the text and identify their corresponding referents (e.g. the pronoun “it” in sentence 2 refers back to “the Korean War” in sentence 1). Through this activity, students were shown how participants are tracked in the text.

¹⁵ The cause-effect relations are in bold in the text.

Session 3: Deconstruction phase

Session 3 was devoted to building the students' meta-knowledge of Theme-Rheme and Thematic Progression. To do this, the teacher-researcher, together with the students, underlined all the *Themes* in the text and discussed them. Next, the learners were shown that this genre predisposes a Chronological Method of Development since many of the Themes are *circumstances* of time which organise events along a chronological sequence (e.g. “before World War II”, “after the War”, “on June 25th, 1950”, “on June 28th”, “at first”, “soon”, “by mid-June”; “a short time later”, “on July 27th, 1953”).

After the thematic choices of the HA were analysed, the teacher-researcher introduced the concepts of *old* and *new* information. The students were shown that given information typically coincides with the *Theme* and new information with the *Rheme*. This was illustrated with sentences 1 and 3, where the Theme “South Korea” (sentence 3) presents given information that was introduced in part of the *Rheme* of sentence 1: “was fought between capitalist South Korea and communist North Korea”.

In addition, the learners were taught that in many stretches of the text the *Theme* picks up information that was presented in the *Rheme* of the previous clause, as in sentence 16, where the *Theme* “This quick attack” coincides with given information and compresses the information that was presented in the *Rheme* of the previous clause: “attacked the city of Incheon by water, air, and ground, surprising the North Koreans”. This example illustrates the use of Linear Thematic Progression.

As a follow-up activity, students were asked to complete a text by making choices from a set of three alternative clauses (a, b and c) which have the same experiential meaning but differ in their textual organisation (see Appendix F). In order to do so, they had to take into account the way in which information was presented along the text as a whole, i.e., what came before and what came afterwards in the co-text.

The aim of this activity was two-fold: to make students aware (i) that there are alternative ways of ordering information within clauses but not all of them will be equally suitable for the co-text; and (ii) that the arrangement of the constituents in a clause is relevant as it may contribute or impede information flow. Once students had

completed the text with the most suitable options, they were asked to find cases of Linear Thematic Progression in that text (see Appendix F).

Session 4: Deconstruction phase

Session 4 gave a general introduction to the concept of nominalisation. The explanation of this concept was provided with the instances of nominalisation highlighted in grey in the model text: “attack”, “take-over”, “push-back”, “fighting”, “disagreement”, “advance”, “negotiations” and “exchange”. As a follow-up activity, students were asked to nominalise some processes and find cases of Linear Thematic Progression in a stretch of text about the Crimean war (see Appendix G).

Session 5: Joint Construction Phase

In Session 5, after the *deconstruction* phase was completed, a new instance of the genre was jointly constructed on the class board. The topic selected was the *Yom Kippur War*, which is related to unit 6 on the syllabus.

To carry out this task, the class was divided into six groups and each group had to provide information about one of the following items: the setting, the parties involved, the events leading to the war, its purpose, the actions taken by each side and the outcomes of the war.

The teacher-researcher, acting as a “scribe” (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993, p. 10) for the class group, guided and scaffolded the students by, for example, rewording the students’ contributions into appropriate patterns of written language.

The purpose of this session was to help students write an HA as the one deconstructed in sessions 1 and 2 but on a different subject matter.

Session 6: Independent Construction Phase

In this final session, students were asked to produce a coherent and cohesive text on their own, following the model they had practised in sessions one and two. They were required to write an HA of the *French and Indian War*, and the text had to include information about the setting, the parties involved, the events leading to the war, its purpose, the actions taken by each side and the outcomes of the war. This prompt was

related to unit 1 on the syllabus. The students had 90 minutes to finish their production in class and there were no limitations for writing length.¹⁶

3.8 Analysis of the corpus

In order to assess the effectiveness of the GP as a pedagogical method of instruction, the pre- and post-test scores assigned to the HAs written by the CG and the EG were analysed and compared. Each piece of writing was assessed both holistically and analytically on a 4-point scale elaborated for this study (4=very good, 3=average, 2=poor, 1=very poor). Grades 3 and 4 are considered passing marks whereas grades 1 and 2 are considered non-passing marks. As mentioned in section 3.3.2, Rater 1 and Rater 2 graded 30% of the HAs independently and, as the assessment and scores were highly consistent, the teacher-researcher continued the evaluation of the rest of the papers on the same criteria. Grammatical mistakes which did not affect the understanding of the texts were disregarded (e.g. “they attack by surprise” instead of “they attacked by surprise”).

The holistic scores were obtained on the basis of two aspects: (i) the general impression after the first reading of the text and (ii) the evaluation of its content, coherence and organization, without taking into account particular aspects. The analytic scores were assigned to the two register variables object of this study as described by the SFL framework: *field* and *mode* (Halliday, 1978). Within *field*, (i) *processes* and (ii) *circumstances* were analysed and within *mode*, (iii) *sequencing of the information*, (iv) *Theme-Rheme* and (v) *grammatical cohesion*. Both the holistic and analytic scores were recorded on a scoring sheet (see Appendix D). These scores were then compared in “the overall analysis” to find out whether the students’ performance had improved or not in the post-test.

The term “overall analysis” in the present study refers to the difference between the pre- and post-tests score results. I will illustrate this concept with four examples. Student C1 obtained 2 points in the pre-test and 2 points in the post-test in the variable *sequencing of the information*. This means that in the “overall analysis” her grade is

¹⁶ The class jointly constructed the HA and later wrote their own texts using information taken from www.britannica.com.

zero (0), that is, that she neither improved nor lowered her performance in this variable. C7 got 3 points in the pre-test and 4 in the post-test, i.e., the overall analysis (+1) showed some improvement. Student C6 obtained 2 points in the pre-test and 1 in the post-test (-1), which reveals that she decreased her performance slightly. C2 got a 2 in the pre-test and a 4 in the post-test, which shows an overall analysis of (+2) and also that the learner moved from the non-passing grades (1 and 2) to the passing marks (3 and 4).

3.9 Expected results

In this section I will describe what students were expected to produce in each of the variables object of this study.

3.9.1 Processes

As mentioned before, the *processes* typically used in *historical accounts* are (i) material *processes*, which narrate the sequence of historical events, and relational *processes*, which provide background information about the topic. Therefore, students were expected to use mainly material *processes* to refer to the various battles or events of the wars and relational *processes*, though to a lesser extent, to describe the background of events. This does not imply that the learners were not expected to employ other types of *processes* such as existential, mental or verbal, but material and relational *processes* were expected to have a predominant role in comparison with the rest.

3.9.2 Circumstances

As previously mentioned, the overall purpose of the *historical account* genre is to provide a chronological account of events and at the same time establish the causal connections between the events (Rose & Martin, 2012). For this reason, a large number of *circumstances* of time and cause-effect were expected to be included in the students' HAs. The use of *circumstances* of place and purpose were also expected to be found, though to a lesser extent.

3.9.3 Sequencing of the information

In the present study, Rose and Martin's (2012) schematic structure model was used to analyse the *sequencing of the information* in the students' HAs. Thus, the

inclusion of the obligatory stages of this genre - *Background* and *Account of stages* - (p.130) and the extent to which each stage contributed to achieving the purpose of the whole text were considered highly important when scoring the texts. In addition, the researcher assessed whether the phases within these stages were included and helped the text to unfold.

3.9.4 Theme-Rheme

In relation to this variable, the Themes in independent clauses and the *Theme-Rheme* patterns across the texts were analysed to see how these elements contributed to or disrupted the information flow. More specifically, I analysed whether students had chosen appropriate Themes and whether they had connected the clauses mainly by organising the text with a Chronological Method of development and Linear Thematic Progression.

3.9.5 Cohesion

As already defined, *cohesion* is one of the aspects through which semantic ties can be created between different parts of a text so as to contribute to the unity of the text. Regarding this variable, students were expected to make an appropriate use of reference (pronominal, demonstrative and comparative) by including clear and unambiguous referents whose identities could be easily retrieved.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 3 described the design and the methodology of this research study. It included information in terms of the materials used, the methodology applied for data collection, and the analysis procedures carried out on the data.

This chapter reports and discusses the findings derived from the analysis of the collected data. First, I will present the holistic scores assigned to the HAs written by the CG and the EG in the two different instances: the pre-test and the post-test. Then, I will show and discuss the pre- and post-test scores assigned to each of the variables object of this study in turn, namely, *processes*, *Theme-Rheme*, *cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*.

4.1 General Results

As described in section 3.8, the pre- and post-tests produced by the CG and the EG were assessed both holistically and analytically. Tables 4.1 to 4.8 in this section display the pre-and post-test holistic and analytic scores assigned to both groups as well as the difference between these results, which is referred to as the overall analysis.

4.1.1 Control group. Holistic scores

Table 4.1 shows the pre- and post-test holistic scores of the *historical accounts* produced by each student in the control group.

Table 4.1: Pre- and post-test holistic scores for CG

| Student | Pre- test holistic score | Post- test holistic score | Overall analysis |
|---------|--------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|
| C1 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C2 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C3 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C4 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| C5 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C6 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C7 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C8 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C10 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C12 | 2 | 3 | +1 |

As shown in Table 4.1, ten students (83,3%) in the CG obtained the same holistic score in both tests, and only two of them (16,6%) obtained a higher score in the post-test. These two participants got 2 points in the pre-test and 3 points in the post-test, which means that they failed to produce an acceptable *historical account* according to the expected performance of the course in the pre-test, but managed to do so in the post-test. In general terms, the findings reveal that there was no substantial improvement between the results of the pre-and post-tests holistic scores within the CG.

4.1.2 Experimental group. Holistic scores

Table 4.2 shows the pre- and post-test holistic scores of the *historical accounts* written by the EG.

Table 4.2: Pre- and post-test holistic scores for EG

| Student | Pre- test holistic score | Post-test holistic score | Overall analysis |
|---------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|
| E1 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E2 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E3 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E4 | 2 | 4 | +2 |
| E5 | 2 | 4 | +2 |
| E6 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E7 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E8 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E10 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E12 | 2 | 3 | +1 |

Table 4.2 shows that, after the six-week genre-instruction, 75% (9) of the students in the EG obtained a higher holistic score in the post-test and only three of them (25%) got the same score in both tests. It is worth noting that while in the pre-test 83,3% (10) of the students failed, in the post-test there were only two (16,6%) who did not pass, that is, who did not obtain 3 points. In addition, two of those students who improved their performance got 2 points in the pre-test and 4 points in the post-test, doubling their initial score. This indicates that they failed to produce an acceptable *historical account* in the pre-test but improved their written productions considerably in the post-test after having received genre-based instruction.

These substantial differences in the EG pre- and the post-tests holistic scores may point to the positive effects of genre-based instruction. In other words, the findings seem to suggest that genre-based instruction was beneficial to the EG as there was a major improvement in their post-test holistic scores.

4.1.3 Control group. General results per variable

Tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 show the pre- and post-test scores assigned to the CG in each of the variables under study.

Table 4.3: Pre-test scores per variable for CG

| Student | Processes | Theme-Rheme | Cohesion | Circumstances | Sequencing of the information |
|---------|-----------|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| C1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| C2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| C3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| C4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| C5 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| C6 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| C7 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| C8 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| C9 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| C10 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| C11 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| C12 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 |

Table 4.4: Post-test scores per variable for CG

| Student | Processes | Theme-Rheme | Cohesion | Circumstances | Sequencing of the information |
|---------|-----------|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| C1 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| C2 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| C3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| C4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| C5 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| C6 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| C7 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| C8 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| C9 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| C10 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| C11 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| C12 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |

Table 4.5: Pre- and post-test overall analysis per variable for CG

| Student | Processes | Theme-Rheme | Cohesion | Circumstances | Sequencing of the information |
|---------|-----------|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| C1 | +1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| C2 | +1 | +1 | 0 | 0 | +2 |
| C3 | 0 | +1 | -1 | -1 | 0 |
| C4 | 0 | 0 | +1 | 0 | 0 |
| C5 | +1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 |
| C6 | -2 | 0 | 0 | -1 | -1 |
| C7 | 0 | +1 | 0 | 0 | +1 |
| C8 | +2 | +1 | +1 | -1 | +1 |
| C9 | 0 | -1 | 0 | -1 | 0 |
| C10 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 0 | -1 |
| C11 | +1 | 0 | +1 | +1 | 0 |
| C12 | 0 | +1 | +1 | 0 | 0 |

The results indicate that, in the post-test, 41,6 % (5) of the students in the CG performed better in the variables of *processes* and *Theme/Rheme*; 33,3% (4) improved in the variable of *cohesion*; 25% (3) in *sequencing of the information*, and only 8,3% (1) in the use of *circumstances*. In other words, fewer than half of the students in the CG improved their performance between the pre-test and the post-test in every variable under study. Even though there was some improvement in the variables of *processes* and *Theme-Rheme*, there was no substantial progress in the case of *cohesion* and *Sequencing of the Information* and almost no differences in terms of *circumstances*. This means that most of the students obtained the same score for each variable in both tests and others even scored fewer points in the post-test.

4.1.4 Experimental group. General results per variable

Tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 show the pre- and post-test scores assigned to the EG in each of the variables object of this study and their overall analysis.

Table 4.6: Pre-test scores per variable for EG

| Student | Processes | Theme-Rheme | Cohesion | Circumstances | Sequencing of the information |
|---------|-----------|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| E1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| E2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| E3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| E4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| E5 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| E6 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| E7 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| E8 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| E10 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| E11 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| E12 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 |

Table 4.7: Post-test scores per variable for EG

| Student | Processes | Theme-Rheme | Cohesion | Circumstances | Sequencing of the information |
|---------|-----------|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| E1 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| E2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| E3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 4 |
| E4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| E5 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| E6 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| E7 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| E8 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| E10 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| E11 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 |
| E12 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 |

Table 4.8: Pre and post-test overall analysis per variable for EG

| Student | Processes | Theme-Rheme | Cohesion | Circumstances | Sequencing of the Information |
|---------|-----------|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| E1 | +1 | 0 | 0 | +1 | +1 |
| E2 | 0 | +1 | 0 | 0 | +1 |
| E3 | 0 | +1 | +1 | 0 | +2 |
| E4 | +1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | +1 |
| E5 | +1 | +1 | +1 | +1 | +2 |
| E6 | 0 | 0 | +1 | +1 | +1 |
| E7 | -1 | +1 | +1 | 0 | 0 |
| E8 | 0 | +1 | +1 | +1 | 0 |
| E9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| E10 | +1 | 0 | +1 | +1 | 0 |
| E11 | +1 | +1 | +1 | +1 | 0 |
| E12 | 0 | -1 | +2 | +1 | +1 |

The results indicate that 66, 6% (8) of the students in the EG showed progress between the pre- and the post-test in the variable of *cohesion*; 58,3% (7) of them, in both *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*; 50% (6) in *Theme-Rheme*; and 41,6% (5) in the use of *processes*. In other words, most of the students in the EG improved their performance in the post-test in three variables (*cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*), half of the students performed better in the variable of *Theme-Rheme* and there was some progress in the case of *processes* as 41, 6% of the students used the variable more effectively. It should be noted, also, that only two students in the EG obtained a lower mark in one of the variables in the post-test, while six students in the CG showed a poorer performance in one or two of the variables.

The comparison of the pre- and post-test holistic and analytic scores in both groups seems to suggest that genre-based instruction was beneficial to the EG as 75% (9) of them obtained a higher holistic score in the post-test and their texts showed considerable progress in three of the variables under study, namely *cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*.

4.2 Results per variable

In this section, I will interpret and discuss the results obtained by the CG and EG in both tests concerning each of the variables object of this study: *processes*, *Theme-Rheme*, *grammatical cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*.

Unlike the previous section, this section explores the different variables separately so as to give a clearer and more detailed picture of the analysis.

4.2.1 Analysis of Processes

As stated before, the use of certain *process* types is typically associated with particular genres. In the case of the HA text, relational and material *processes* are frequently used to provide background information and to recount the events of the wars respectively.

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 below display the pre- and post-test scores assigned to the CG and EG in relation to this variable.

Table 4.9: Pre-and post-test scores for the process variable for CG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall Analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| C1 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C2 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| C3 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C4 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C5 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| C6 | 3 | 1 | -2 |
| C7 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C8 | 2 | 4 | +2 |
| C9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C10 | 3 | 1 | -2 |
| C11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C12 | 3 | 3 | 0 |

Table 4.10: Pre-and post-test scores for the process variable for EG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| E1 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E2 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E3 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E4 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E5 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E6 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E7 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| E8 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E10 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E11 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E12 | 3 | 3 | 0 |

The results obtained from the comparative analysis of the use of *processes* in both corpora showed no considerable differences between the two groups. In the case of the CG, 41,6% (5) of the subjects improved their performance; 41,6% (5) got the same mark; and 16,6% (2) obtained a lower score. As for the EG, 41,6% (5) of the students also improved their performance in the post-test; 50% (6) obtained the same score; and only 8,33% (1) lowered the performance. Even though the students in the CG did not receive genre-specific training in the type of *processes* typically used in the HAs, they were extensively exposed to reading various HAs which are part of the obligatory bibliography included in the course over the two months of the research. This exposure may have led the subjects in the CG to copy literally many of the material *processes* that appear in the reading material; that is, they may have acquired *processes* recalled verbatim from the source text, as shown in the following examples taken from the CG post-tests:

(Example 1/ C1): Before the Second World War, Vietnam **was ruled** by France.

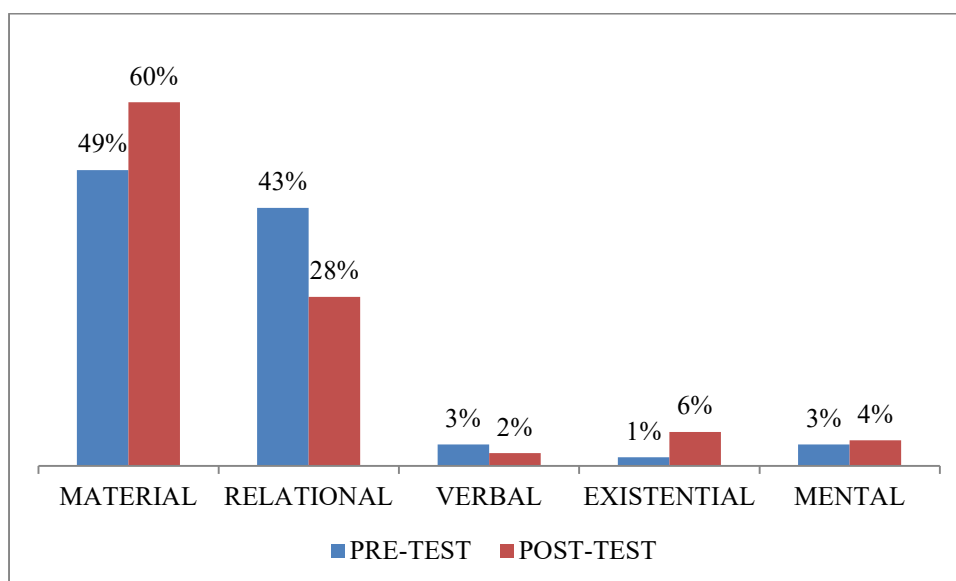
(Example 2/ C1): On april, 12 Confederate guns **open fire** on Fort Sumter.

(Example 3/ C3): During the war, the region **was conquered** by the Japanese.

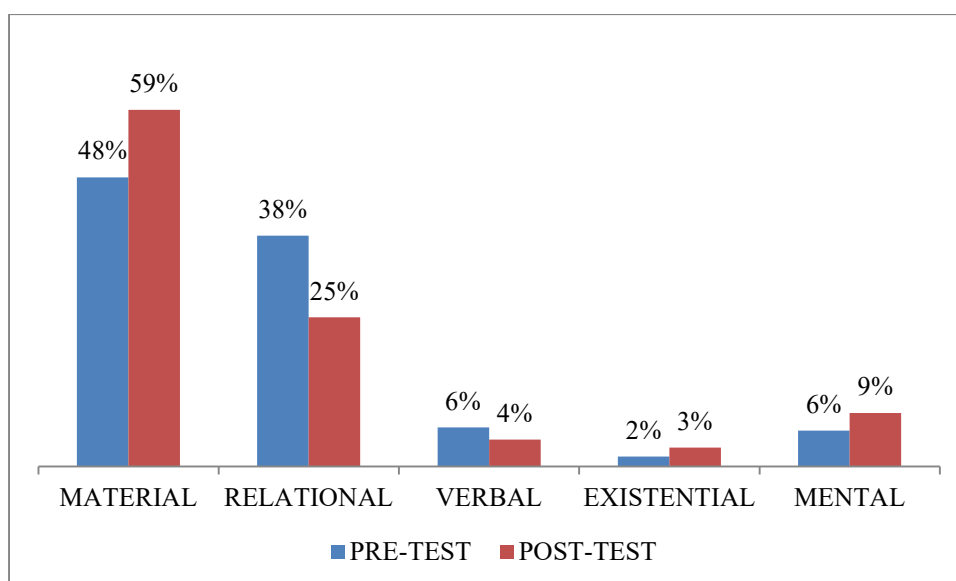
(Example 4/ C5): The USA **entered** the war and **supported** South Vietnam.

As for the type of *processes* used by the CG and the EG in both tests, material *processes* were the most frequent, and relational *processes* were next in both corpora. There were few instances of mental, verbal and existential *processes*, as shown in Graphs 5 and 6 below:

Graph 5: Process types used by CG in the pre-and post-test.



Graph 6: Process types used by the EG in the pre-and post-test.



It is worth noting that the EG students did not include sentences copied verbatim from the source text which contained material and relational *processes*. Instead, they employed these types of *processes*, which they may have learnt during the instruction period, in new sentences of their own production. Some of these *processes* are: “confronted”, “pulled out”, “set up”, “launched”, “settled”, “dropped”, “caused” and “surrendered”.

The sentences that follow illustrate the use of relational *processes* (Examples 5-8) and material (Examples 9-12) in both corpora. The *processes* are in bold type:

Relational Processes:

(Example 5/ C6): The Vietnam war **was** between 1954 to 1975. It **was** between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. North Vietnam **was** communist and South Vietnam was democratic.

(Example 6/ C10): As regards The Vietnam war, it **was** a conflicting war fought between 1954 to 1975 in Vietnam: territory of Indo-China. Soldiers who fought each other **were**: The Vietcong (terrorist) from North Vietnam and Americans who supported South Vietnam. The tactics that were used by Americans **were**: Helicopters, napalm, gases that destroyed the jungle, gunship, etc.

(Example 7/ E1): Before the second world war Vietnam **was** a french colony.

Finally in 1975 North vietnamese realized that there were no more US soldiers, attacked south Vietnam and all vietnamese **became** communist.

(Example 8/ E5): The Vietnam War **was** a conflict between North Vietnamise and South Vietnamise.

They thought they would really win the war because they had more money and technology but they **were** wrong.

Material Processes:

(Example 9/ C2): In 1962, President Kennedy **sent** troops.[...] By January 1973, American forces **left** Vietnam through the Peace Agreement.

(Example 10/ C5): The USA **entered** the war and **supported** Southern Vietnam in order to stop Communism to spread to the rest of the world.

(Example 11/ E1): In 1964 north Vietnamese **invaded** the Gulf of Tokin and a year later the US **started** Operation Rolling Thunder, a bombing campaign, against the north vietnamese.

(Example 12/ E4): In 1962, the US, as supporters of south Vietnam, **sent** military personnel in order to help them fight the Viet cong. In 1964, US ships **were attacked** in the Gulf of Tonking by North Vietnamese.

In the preceding examples, relational *processes* were used to give the reader the background information that is needed to understand the war by defining it (e.g. “it was a conflicting war”) and describing when it took place (e.g. “The Vietnam war **was** between 1954 to 1975”) and who were involved (e.g. “It **was** between North Vietnam

and South Vietnam”), while material *processes* were used to recount a series of events of the Vietnam war (e.g. “sent”, “left”, “entered”, “invaded”, “were attacked”).

Interestingly, most of the students in both groups who improved their performance in the post-test reduced the number of relational *processes* and considerably increased the use of material *processes*. This may be accounted for by the fact that material *processes* were used not only to describe the acts of doing and happening that led and escalated the Vietnam War, but also to summarise previous historical events that characterised the context of this war. The examples that follow illustrate this:

(Example 13/ C2): Before the Second World War Vietnam **was ruled** by France but then it **was conquered** by Japan.

(Example 14/ C8): During World War II, Vietnam **was ruled** by Japan, but they **treated** Vietnamese people brutally.

(Example 15/ E1): Before the second world war Vietnam was a french colony. During the second world war vietnam **was invaded** by Japan and a few years later in 1945 Ho Chi Minh, a communist vietnamese revolutionary, **fought** against Japan and declared Vietnam independent.

[...] Despite that, the french **were defeated** by the Viet Minh, which was a resistance movement led by Ho Chi Minh then France **was pulled out** and Vietnam was divided into communist north Vietnam and south non-communist.

(Example 16/ E2): In 1945 French **came back** because they wanted to rule Vietnam again. That was why France **started to fight** against the Vietnamese.

This expression of the Background of events of the Vietnam War by means of material *processes* rather than relational ones may be due to the nature of the war itself or to the reading material the students were exposed to, since it contains several material *processes* which described the conflict between the French and the Viet Minh¹⁷ leading to the Vietnam war¹⁸.

Another possible reason for the higher use of material *processes* in the post-test is that while students became familiar with the topic, they also learnt the type of *processes* typically used to construe the field in the HAs analysed. It could be inferred

¹⁷ The Viet Minh (League for the Independence of Vietnam) was formed in 1941 and primarily led by Communists under Ho Chi Minh to counter the Japanese invasion of Vietnam. Japan handed Vietnam to the Viet Minh in 1945.

¹⁸ This conflict began at the end of World War II and was known as the First Indochina War.

that this is so because content cannot be dissociated from language. This might also explain the similar performance of both groups in the pre- and post-test since the CG and the EG were exposed to the same reading material throughout the research.

4.2.2 Analysis of Theme-Rheme

As mentioned earlier, the textual component of the English language consists of features associated with both structural resources and cohesive resources. Structural resources involve both thematic structure (Theme-Rheme) and information structure (distribution of given information and new information). Cohesive resources, which establish semantic ties between different elements in a text, will be discussed in the following section.

During the instruction period, participants in the EG were made aware that the syntactic arrangement of constituents in the clause may or may not contribute to the texture of a text, that is, to information flow. They were shown that there are different possible versions for expressing the same experiential meaning, i.e., different possible arrangements of information. Students were taught which options were most suitable given a particular textual context. More specifically, they received instruction on what to select as the point of departure and how to distribute given and new information so that the word order selected was the most appropriate to fit the co-text.

In order to assess this variable in both corpora, I explored the use of Themes in the students' texts¹⁹ and then analysed whether there was a prevailing type of thematic progression (i.e., Topic Continuity or Linear Thematic Progression) and/or Method of Development (i.e., Chronological).

The scores assigned to the pre- and post-tests for both groups are displayed in Tables 4.11 and 4.12 below:

¹⁹ I identified the Themes of the independent clauses only.

Table 4.11: Pre-and post-test scores for the Theme-Rheme variable for CG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| C1 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C2 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C3 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C4 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C5 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C6 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C7 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C8 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| C9 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C10 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C11 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C12 | 2 | 3 | +1 |

Table 4.12: Pre-and post-test scores for Theme-Rheme variable for EG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| E1 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E2 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E3 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E4 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E5 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E6 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E7 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E8 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E10 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E12 | 3 | 2 | -1 |

The results in the pre-and post-tests of both groups were similar; however, there was a slight difference in favour of the EG after the genre-based instruction period. More specifically, 41,6% (5) of the subjects in the CG improved their performance between pre-test and post-test; 41,6% (5) obtained the same score; and 16,6% (2) lowered their performance. In the case of the students in the EG, 50% (6) improved; 41,6% (5) got the same mark, and only 8,3% (1) got a lower score.

As to Thematic Progression and Method of Development, most of the students in both groups used Chronological Method of Development in their post-test HAs; that

is, the majority of the students in the CG and EG incorporated temporal Themes to construe a time sequence in their accounts, as shown in the following examples:

(Example 17/ C7): **After world war II**, Vietnam territory was invaded by Japan the Japanese were very rude to the vietnamines. [...] **Between the 1945 and 1954** there was a war between the viet Minh (North Vietnam) and France (South Vietnam) because France wanted to have Vietnam territory but France lost the war and a Peace Conference was signed between North Vietnam (communist) and South Vietnam (anti-communist). **In 1960** the Viet Cong emerged causing a guerrilla war between the North and South.

(Example 18/ C8): **During World War II** Vietnam was ruled by Japan, but they treated Vietnamese people brutally so a an antijapanese movement emerged called the Viet Minh.

After World War II Vietnam became independent, but France which ruled Vietnam before WWII, wanted to gain this territory back. **In 1945** a war Started between the Viet Minh (North) and France (South).

(Example 19/ E5): **In 1945** Ho Chi Minh, communist Vietnamise revolutionary leader, declared Vietnam independent. However, the French wanted to regain the exformal colony and a 9-year conflict started. **In 1954**, the French were defeated and Vietnam was divided into communist North Vietnam and not-communist South Vietnam.

In 1964, the North invaded the golf of Tonking and attacked the US navy.

(Example 20/ E8): **In 1965**, the Operation Rolling thunder born, and this was a massive bombing raid in North Vietnam from USA. United States dropped more bombs than all the bombs dropped in the Second World War, so USA lost too much money.

In 1975 the war finished, and North Vietnam won mainly because USA lost too much money and a big amount of people die. **Then** the new president of United States, Nixon, proposed the “Vietnamization”, that was a negotiation of peace.

In the previous examples, the elements highlighted in bold are the Circumstance adjuncts of time which have been thematised and which organise the text with a Chronological Method of Development. These thematic choices are related to the overall purpose of the *historical account* genre, which is to establish causal connections between the events as they unfolded over time (Rose & Martin, 2012). As can be noticed, even though the subjects in the CG did not receive genre-based instruction, they were able to front the adjuncts of time and thus provide a chronological retelling of the main war events. The reason for this may be that this group of students was exposed

to an overview with the most significant historical dates and events of both wars – the American Civil war and the Vietnam war– in the form of a timeline. This visual aid might have led the students in the CG to unconsciously thematise the adjuncts of time before recounting the key events related to both wars.

Even though the students in both groups used a Chronological Method of Development quite efficiently in the post-test, the main difference between the performance of both groups was shown particularly in the better use of Linear Thematic Progression in the EG. The use of Linear Thematic Progression is of particular importance for this genre as in this type of texts one event does not merely follow another, but events also produce or cause subsequent events.

Examples 21 and 22 below illustrate the effective use of Linear Thematic Progression by two EG students in their post-tests. The Themes have been highlighted with bold type, and the Rhemes they relate to underlined:

(Example 21/ E11): Before WW2, Vietnam has been ruled by France, but during the WWII, Vietnam was conquered by Japan. **The Japanese** treated the vietnamist brutally, so a movement emerged. **It** was called the Viet Minh and declared Vietnam independent. [...]

In 1968, Richard Nixon was elected president. **He** worked to end USA involvement in Vietnam, so this was called Vietnamization.

(Example 22/ E3): During the war, the Japanese took control of the area. **They treated the Vietnamese people savagely**. **As a result, the Viet Minh, a strong anti-Japanese resistance movement**, emerged under the leadership of Communist Ho Chi Minh. **He** wanted Vietnam to be free. [...]

In 1954, the French were pulled out of Vietnam. **The country** was divided into North Vietnam and South Vietnam.[...]

In 1968, there was a turning point in history. North Vietnam launched the Tet Offensive, attacking one hundred cities in South Vietnam. **This event** caused an anti-war feeling among Americans.

In example 21, the experiential unmarked themes “the Japanese”, “it” and “he” picked up information that was introduced as new in the Rhemes of their preceding clauses (*Japan, a movement emerged, Richard Nixon was elected president*).

The extracts in example 22 were taken from the same HA so as to show the variety of resources that one EG student used to organise his ideas following a Linear Thematic Progression. The textual theme “as a result”, which precedes the experiential

unmarked Theme “the Viet Minh, a strong anti-Japanese resistance movement”, and the experiential unmarked Theme “this event” compress the information presented in the Rheme of the previous clauses respectively (underlined). In the same way, the experiential unmarked themes “they”, “he” and “the country” picked up information that was presented as new in the preceding Rhemes (“the Japanese”, “Communist Ho Chi Minh” and “Vietnam”). The textual Theme “as a result” illustrates how the use of Linear Thematic Progression allows students to establish a meaning relation of effect between the information presented in two consecutive clauses.

By contrast, many of the pre-tests in the CG showed an overuse of Topic Continuity; that is, many clauses shared the same Theme, as illustrated below:

(Example 23/ C2): **The civil war** was a period of war between the Union that was represented by Abraham Lincoln and the Confederate States, represented by Davis.

The Civil war started in April 1861 and ended in 1865. [...]

The war took place mainly in Virginia, Mississippi Valley territories of the United States.

(Example 24/ C3): **The American civil war** started when Lincoln won the elections in 1860. [...]

The war was fought in two main areas, Virginia and the other east coast states of the confederacy. **The civil war** cause terrible destruction, all over the south cities and farms lay in ruins.

(Example 25/ C12): **The struggle** took place between the Union and the Confederate States. **It** took place in Virginia and Mississippi Valley.

It began on April 12, 1861.

In example 23, the experiential unmarked Theme “the civil war” has been taken as the Theme in two subsequent clauses. The clauses in examples 24 and 25 also share the same Theme (i.e., “the American civil war”, “the struggle”). The excessive use of Topic Continuity without variation or combination might result in a very simplistic way of organising information in a text. This type of Thematic Progression is typically used by authors of primary school texts as children often need a lot of repetition to understand a collection of clauses referring to the same participant. On the other hand, the Linear type of Thematic Progression establishes a relationship among several experiential elements, which assists the reader in establishing connections between the ideas presented in a text.

Even though the results presented above reveal similar findings in terms of Method of Development, the participants of the EG demonstrated to make better use of the Theme-Rheme variable in relation to Thematic Progression. It can be assumed, then, that SFL Genre Pedagogy had a positive effect on the EG as these students showed a more complex use of Linear Thematic Progression in their post-tests than the students in the CG. In other words, the students in the EG were able to arrange old and new information in a more sophisticated fashion in the clauses that realised their *historical accounts*.

This variable is important when using Genre Pedagogy as a pedagogical method of instruction, since students are taught key notions related to the organisation of information at clause level and at the level of the text. As Hyland (2004) states, it is essential that EFL students learn what information to present in Theme position and how to continually pick up given information and repeat it in some way so that the reader is always aware of what the key concepts are and how they are being developed.

4.2.3 Analysis of Cohesion

As introduced in chapter 2, a text is more than a mere collection of clauses as there must be unity between them. One of the basic properties of a text which contributes to its texture is *cohesion*. It is realised through linking devices that hook parts of a text together such as lexical cohesion (e.g. repetition, synonymy, antonymy) and grammatical cohesion (i.e., reference, substitution and ellipsis). As previously mentioned, the present study focuses on the analysis of reference and its three types of realisation, namely, pronominal, demonstrative and comparative reference.

During genre-based instruction, through the analysis of generic models, EG students were taught to introduce participants and keep track of them in the text by using noun groups, pronouns and determiners clearly and unambiguously. In other words, students were shown how to establish clear and unambiguous links between the referents and the reference forms (e.g. “the war”/ “it”), which in turn facilitate reading and full comprehension of the text on the part of the reader.

The pre- and post-test scores assigned to this variable are displayed in Tables 4.13 and 4.14 on the following page:

Table 4.13 Pre-and post-test scores for the cohesion variable for CG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| C1 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C2 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C3 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C4 | 1 | 2 | +1 |
| C5 | 4 | 3 | -1 |
| C6 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C7 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C8 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C10 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C12 | 2 | 3 | +1 |

Table 4.14: Pre-and post-test scores for cohesion variable for EG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| E1 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E2 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E3 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E4 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E5 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E6 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E7 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E8 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E10 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E12 | 1 | 3 | +2 |

The results in terms of the grammatical cohesive device studied indicate that the EG considerably outperformed the CG in the post-test. As Tables 4.13 and 4.14 show, 66,6% (8) of the students in the EG obtained a higher score in the post-test, whereas only 33,3% (4) of the subjects in the CG improved their performance in that test. Besides, none of the students in the EG lowered their performance in the post-test, while 16,6% (2) of the subjects in the CG obtained a lower score. In addition, 7 out of the 8 students in the EG (87,5%) who had obtained 1 or 2 points in the pre-test were able to get a passing mark (3 points) in their post-tests. This substantial improvement in the EG post-tests was not observed in the CG as only 3 out of the 7 students (25%) who got 1 or 2 points in the pre-test obtained 3 points in the post-test.

One of the most recurrent problems among the subjects in the CG was related to the absence of a referent or to the use of ambiguous referents. There were several cases in which the personal pronouns either did not have a real referent or the referent was not clear. This is shown in the following examples taken from the CG post-tests, in which the reference words are in bold type and both the referents and the noun groups which may cause difficulties for the reader are underlined.

(Example 26/ C4): **It** occurred between 1954 and 1975. The fighting was between Republic democratic of Vietnam (North Vietnam-China) and Republic of Vietnam (with help of U.S.A.) South Vietnam.

(Example 27/ C1): Before the Second World War Vietnam was ruled by France but then it was conquered by Japan. **They** treated the Vietnamese people brutally.

(Example 28/ C9): The USA helped South Vietnam because of the Domino Theory, that is to say that **they** wanted to prevent the spread of communism to the rest of the world.

(Example 29/ C8): In 1973 South Vietnam lost the war and there was a peace agreement, but two years later the South was beaten by communists and **it** became a communist country.

In example 26, the student begins the HA with the personal pronoun ‘it’. Even though the title of the HA is ‘the Vietnam war’, the identity of the pronoun cannot be retrieved from the text itself as the referent has not been mentioned before. In examples 27 and 28, the referent of the pronoun ‘they’ might be ambiguous since there are two noun groups which may refer to groups of people: in example 27 “Vietnam” and “Japan”, and in example 28 “the USA” and “South Vietnam”. In addition, the referents are not explicitly stated in the text so it is the reader that has to infer that “they” refers to “the Japanese people” and to “the American people” respectively. Eggins (2004) calls this process performed by the reader “bridging reference” (p. 36). In example 29, the pronoun “it” is quite distanced from its referent – “South Vietnam”- so the reader may be forced to go back through the text to find out what “it” is pointing back to. Although the reader can understand that the referent is “South Vietnam” once he/she has finished reading the sentence, the cognitive process is more demanding due to the number of singular noun groups between the referent and the reference form (“the war”, “a peace agreement”, “the South”).

Another problem found in the CG post-tests was the incorrect use of pronominal reference. The pronoun “it” was wrongly used in many cases and thus impeded easy-reading, as shown in the following examples:

(Example 30/ C4): In 1965, there were massive bombing raids on North Vietnam to try to stop supplies to the South. **It** called Operation Rolling Thunder.

(Example 31/ C6): In 1965 US attacked North Vietnam. **It** event was called Operation Rolling Thunder.

In example 30, the student chooses the personal pronoun “it” to refer back to the information presented in the previous finite clause (“In 1965 ... to the South”). The use of a double cohesive device such as “this event” might have been a better choice together with a passive construction (“was called”) so as to help the reader retrieve the information. In example 31, the student wrongly uses the pronoun “it” instead of the demonstrative determiner “this” before the hypernym “event” to form a double cohesive device (“this event”) which is frequent in this type of genre. The fact that the learner has made a lexico-grammatical mistake in “it event” seems to indicate that the mere reading of the material on their own does not mean that students will acquire the lexico-grammatical features that characterise the genre.

Finally, there were some mistakes related to the use of lexico-grammatical tokens that realise cohesion such as the lack of agreement between the referent and its personal pronoun (example 32) or the incorrect use of the demonstrative in the double cohesive device (examples 33 and 34):

(Example 32/ C6): The tactics of the US were called napalm and **it** consisted of helicopter gunships and gas.

(Example 33/ C7): On the other hand, the USA implemented several tactics such as chemical weapons, search-and-destroy, **this tactics** were ruled by president Kennedy which sent troops to help South Vietnam from Communism.

(Example 34/ C12): Vietcongs used a variety of Guerrilla tactics to defend themselves again Americans. **This tactics** consisted mainly on them hiding in underground tunnels in order to ambush American soldiers.

In example 32, the student seems to know that the noun group “the tactics of the US” is plural because of the agreement she has chosen (“were called”) but she fails to use the pronoun in the third person plural (“they”). It might be speculated that the

student believed that the pronoun “it” is the only choice for singular and plural when referring to an inanimate noun (“the tactics”). Examples 33 and 34 show lack of agreement between the demonstrative determiner “this” and the noun head “tactics”.

In what follows, some extracts from the pre- and post-test of an EG (E12) student are transcribed so as to illustrate the improvement in the texts written by many subjects in this group after genre-based instruction:

(Example 35/ E 12): **Improvement between the pre-and the post-test:**

E12/ **Pre-test**

On April 12, 1861 **the Confederate forces** opened fire upon **Union troops** in South Carolina. **The North** was much stronger than the South. **The South** was fighting for its independence.

[...] The Civil War put end to slavery. **It** was abolished by the 13th Amedment. **It** also declared that the United Sates were now one nation.

E12/ **Post-test**

Vietnam War started in 1954 when the **Communists** from **North Vietnam** wanted to expand into **South Vietnam**, these rebels were known as **Vietcongs**. **USA** joined this war in favour of **South Vietnam government**, they send a lot of soldiers and supplies but the Vietcongs used guerrilla tactics that were very powerful.[...]

The USA army used a lot of gases like napalm and desfoliant to kill **their** opponents. **They** wanted to make a Containment of the Communists.

These extracts show an improvement in establishing explicit semantic links between the noun groups referring to the same entities. In the extract which belongs to the pre-test corpus, the student mentions the noun groups “the Confederate forces”, “the Union troops”, “the North” and “the South” (in bold type), which are the main parties involved in the war. However, he does not specify that “the North” represents “the Union” and “the South”, “the Confederate States” throughout the text. Even though the reader is the teacher-researcher, who has disciplinary knowledge about the topics assessed in both tests, the student should demonstrate knowledge of the subject by connecting the noun groups referring to the same entities. As a result, the teacher-researcher is forced to assume that the learner knows the relationships between the reference forms and their referents. In the post-test, after the pedagogical intervention, the same student manages to establish clear links among the main sides at war as he

identifies ‘North Vietnam’ with ‘Communism’ and ‘South Vietnam’ with ‘the United States’.

Another improvement in the EG written production concerns the use of pronouns and determiners as reference forms. In the pre-test, two “its” (underlined) have been thematised in the last two sentences, but their referents are unclear. In the first case, the reader has to work out that “it” refers back to “slavery” and not to the “Civil war”. Similarly, the reader is forced to infer that the second “it” makes reference to “the 13th Amendment” and not to the “Civil war”. In the post-test of the same student, the use of cohesion seems to have improved considerably. For example, the referent of the determiner “their” and the pronoun “they” (underlined) can be easily retrieved by the reader as it is clear and unambiguous: “the USA army”.

The findings presented above suggest that knowledge of reference seems to have facilitated the use of this grammatical cohesive device among the EG subjects as the majority of them -8 out of 12- obtained a higher score in the post-test.

4.2.4 Analysis of Circumstances

Tables 4.15 and 4.16 below show the pre- and post-test scores of the *circumstance* variable for both the CG and the EG.

Table 4.15: Pre-and post-test scores for circumstances variable for CG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| C1 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C2 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C3 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C4 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C5 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C6 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C7 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C8 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C9 | 3 | 2 | -1 |
| C10 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C11 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| C12 | 3 | 3 | 0 |

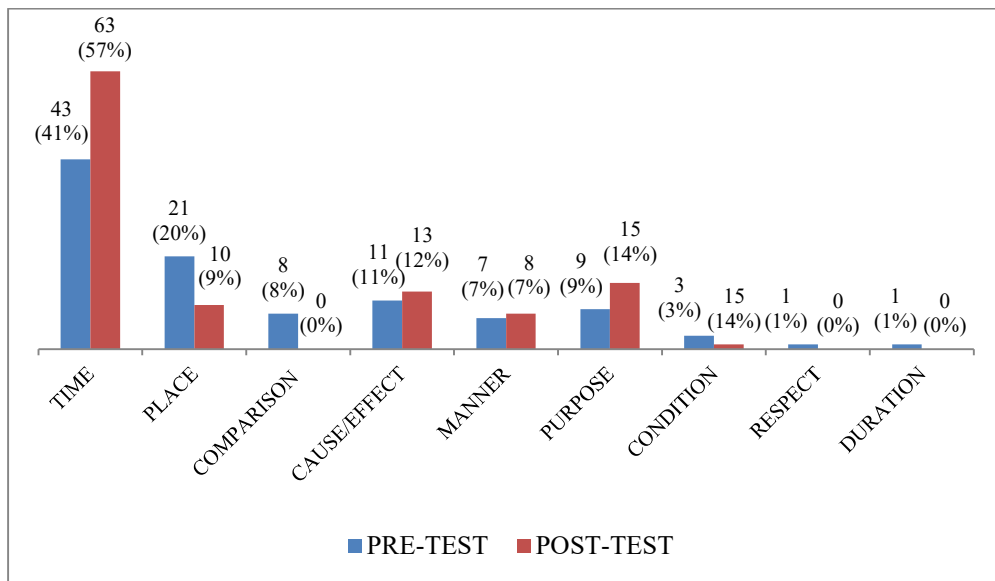
Table 4.16: Pre-and post-test scores for circumstances variable for EG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| E1 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E2 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E3 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E4 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E5 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E6 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E7 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E8 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E9 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E10 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E11 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E12 | 2 | 3 | +1 |

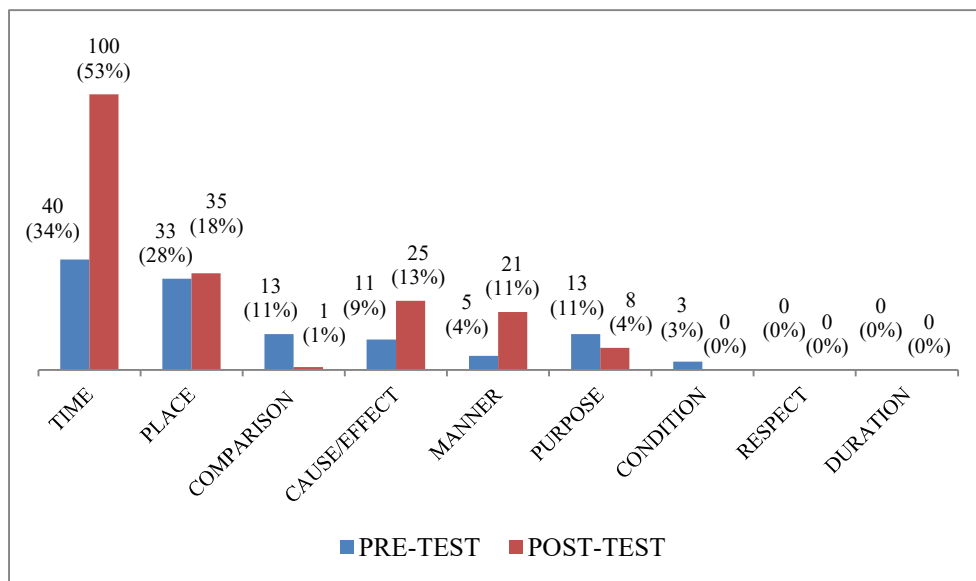
The comparative analysis of the pre and post-test scores of both groups in relation to this variable indicate that there was an important difference in favour of the EG in the post-test. More specifically, 58,3% (7) of the students in the EG obtained a higher score in the post-test whereas only 8,3% (1) of the subjects in the CG improved their performance in that test. In addition, none of the students in the EG had lower scores in the post-test whereas 33,3% (4) of the subjects in the CG obtained a lower score.

A further comparison between the two corpora was carried out by analysing the types of circumstances used in both texts. The graphs that follow show the circumstance types for both groups in both tests and their frequency of occurrence in terms of numbers and percentages.

Graph 7: Types of circumstances used by CG in the pre-and post-test



Graph 8: Types of circumstances used by EG in the pre-and post-test



The distribution of circumstances in the CG and EG pre-tests was very similar (see graphs 7 and 8). The subjects in the CG used 104 circumstances, 43 of which corresponded to time and 11 to cause-effect, whereas students in the EG used 118 circumstances in the pre-test, 40 of which corresponded to time and only 11 to cause-effect (see graph 8). The rest were types of circumstances not prototypically expected for HAs, for instance, comparison, manner and condition.

In the post-test, subjects in the CG hardly increased their number of circumstances: they used altogether 110 circumstances, 63 of which were of time and only 13 of cause-effect. In contrast, the students in the EG used more circumstances typical of the HA genre in their post-tests. They included 190 circumstances in their HAs, 125 of which were typical of this genre: 100 of time and 25 of cause-effect. In other words, students in the EG doubled their use of both temporal and causal circumstances in their post-tests as opposed to subjects in the CG, who did not increase their use of causal circumstances in their post-tests to establish causal connections between the events in their accounts. The extracts that follow illustrate how subjects in the EG included a large number of cause-effect circumstances (highlighted in bold type) in their post-tests:

(Example 36/ E4): The Vietnam War took place between 1954 and 1975. During this period, the Northern Vietnamese together with their allies such as China and the Viet Cong confronted the southern Vietnamese whose principal ally was the US. This major event happened **as North Vietnam wanted to unify the country under the communist regime** but South Vietnam wanted to prevent the spreading of communism in the country.

Before the Second world war Vietnam or Indochina was ruled by France. During the Second world war this region was conquered by the Japanese who treated the Vietnamese people savagely. **As a reaction to this**, a communist leader, entered Vietnam and declared it independent.

A major point in the war was the Tet offensive which was an attack by the Vietcong over 100 cities. **Because of this**, the American realised that they were not able to win the war **because of Viet cong's better tactics**.

(Example 37/ E8): USA didn't want to Communism to grow up, **so they started this war**. [...]

USA had disadvantage **because they didn't know the territory**. [...]

United States dropped more bombs than all the bombs dropped in the Second World War, **so USA lost too much money and a big amount of people die**.

(Example 38/ E11): Then, France decide to invade Vietnam again but it was defeated but the Viet Minh and there was a peace conference where they decided that Vietnam was divided into two until elections could be held, but USA prevented the elections **because they fears that communism win**.

But in USA there was a peace of movement **because Americans didn't in favour of the Vietnam war**.

The previous examples show that most of the EG students successfully established causal relations between the events involved in the Vietnam War through the use of circumstances of cause-effect. The higher use of these circumstances might reveal that the EG students acquired more lexico-grammatical resources to express this type of circumstances during genre-based instruction. In other words, they learnt the different realisations that cause-effect circumstances may have (e.g. “As a reaction to this”, “because of this”, “because of Viet cong’s better tactics”).

A further point worth noting is that temporal circumstances were the prevailing type of circumstances used by both groups in both tests and their main type of realisation was prepositional phrases (e.g. “from 1954 to 1974”). However, there was a substantial difference in favour of the EG as after the intervention most of the subjects in this group placed the circumstances of time in Theme position, whereas subjects in the CG did not do so in general terms. This reveals that the EG students were able to build up a Chronological Method of Development, which is typically associated with this type of texts, as discussed in the section devoted to Theme/Rheme. This is illustrated in the following examples, with the temporal *circumstances* in bold type and underlined:

(Example 39/ C5): The Vietnam war took place **from 1954 to 1975**. [...] . There was a massive bombing **in 1965** from the USA army called The Operation Rolling Thunder.

(Example 40/ C12): The struggle took place between the Union and the Confederate States. It took place in Virginia and Mississippi Valley. It began **on April 12, 1861**. [...] General Grant from the North splitted the Confederancy in two. They could never recover and **in June, 1863** the North defeated the South.

(Example 41/ E5): **In 1964**, the North invaded the golf of Tonking and attacked the US navy. As a response, **in 1965** the US started bombing North Vietnam. They thought they would really win the war because they had more money and technology but they were wrong. **In 1968**, with the Tet Offensive, the American realized they couldn’t win the war because of the Viet Cong Tactics.

(Example 42/ E6): The Vietnam War was a conflict held **from 1954 to 1974**. [...] **Before the Second World War**, Vietnam was ruled by the French, **during the war** it was invaded by Japanese. **In 1945** Ho Chi Minh declared Vietnam independent.

Examples 39 and 40 illustrate how the students in the CG used many *circumstances* of time in their accounts but did not thematise them. By contrast,

examples 41 and 42 show that the subjects in the EG, who received genre-based instruction, thematised most of the circumstances of time and thus made an effective use of a Chronological of Method of Development. This demonstrates that EG students were more proficient in handling Theme choices and patterns of Themes.

It can be concluded, then, that genre-based instruction had a positive impact on the EG's use of circumstances as they were taught that the overall purpose of an HA is to provide a chronological account of events and at the same time establish the causal relationships between the events. In Rose and Martin's words (2012, p. 107), HAs "do not simply chronicle, they explain why".

4.2.5 Analysis of Sequencing of the information

As stated earlier, the schematic structure of a text is an aspect related to the arrangement of information in a text at a macro level, that is, the overall organisation of a text as a whole. A prototypical HA has an identifiable purpose, two constitutive stages and a detectable prevailing pattern in its Method of Development.

In order to assess this variable, the researcher evaluated whether the texts successfully included both (i) the prototypical stages of the HA as identified by Rose and Martin (2012), i.e., the *Background* and the *Account of stages* and (ii) the phases within these stages as determined by the teacher-researcher for the present study: (a) the *setting*, (b) the *previous events* and (c) the *purpose* within the *Background stage*, and (d) the *events* and (e) the *outcome* within the *Account of stages*. The researcher also assessed whether the actual realisation of these stages and phases contributed to fulfilling the overall purpose of this type of genre. An example of how the teacher-researcher introduced and practised the concepts of stages and phases of an HA was presented in Section 3.7.1.

The pre- and post-test scores in relation to this variable are displayed in Tables 4.17 and 4.18 below:

Table 4.17: Pre-and post-test scores for the sequencing of the information variable for CG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| C1 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C2 | 2 | 4 | +2 |
| C3 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C4 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| C5 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| C6 | 2 | 1 | -1 |
| C7 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| C8 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| C9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C10 | 2 | 1 | -1 |
| C11 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| C12 | 2 | 2 | 0 |

Table 4.18: Pre-and post-test scores for the sequencing of the information variable for EG

| Student | Pre-test score | Post-test score | Overall analysis |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| E1 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| E2 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E3 | 2 | 4 | +2 |
| E4 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E5 | 2 | 4 | +2 |
| E6 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| E7 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E8 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E9 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E10 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| E11 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| E12 | 2 | 3 | +1 |

Tables 4.17 and 4.18 above show that 58,3% (7) of the EG students obtained a higher score in the post-test, whereas only 25% (3) of the subjects in the CG improved their performance in that test. The findings also reveal that none of the EG students lowered their performance in the post-test while 16,6% (2) of the subjects in the CG obtained a lower score.

As regards the CG, most students (9) obtained a failing score in the pre-test, which means that their compositions exhibited a poor schematic structure. A low performance was also detected in the post-test of most CG students. In fact, 66,6 % (8)

of them did not get a passing mark and even two obtained a lower score. The main problem in the students' texts was that most did not include the constitutive stages and/or phases of the HA. The *Background* stage was included in half (6) of the texts and the *outcome* of the war, one of the phases within the *Account of stages*, was present in only 33,3% (4) of the compositions. In addition, 33,3% (4) of the HAs consisted of a single paragraph, which means that the *Background* information and the *Account of stages* with all their phases were included in the same paragraph without a clear organisation. This might suggest that the students wrote their ideas without stopping to reflect upon their organisation and without taking into account the stages or phases of the HA. The following texts illustrate some of the problems mentioned above. The sentences within the texts have been numbered to facilitate the discussion of the different cases.

(Example 43/ C 10): **Pre- and post-test**

C10/ Pre-test

The American Civil War

(1) On April 12, 1861 begun the American Civil War. (2) It was fought between the Union, whose leader was the American President Abraham Lincoln and the Confederate states, whose leader was Jefferson Davis. (3) The North was stronger, than the South because they had resources such as food, weapons and clothing. (4) However, the South was weaker because they had on 9 million people to fight and they also had the advantage of having expert riders and leaders. (5) In order to win the war the North had to invade the South and occupy its land. (6) The Civil War lasted four years and it was mainly fought in Virginia and the Mississippi Valley. (7) Finally, the war ended in June 1865 and confederate army was defeated. (8) The 13th Amendment of 1865 was to abolish slavery in the United States.

This HA, which was written for the pre-test, consists of a single paragraph and reveals an inappropriate schematic structure. The first two sentences contain information about the beginning of the war ("On April 12, 1861") and the parties involved, which are identified as "the Union" and "the Confederate States". The following two sentences (i.e., 3 and 4) compare "the North" and "the South" in terms of men and material resources, but "the North" is not identified with "the Union" neither "the South" with "the Confederate States". Almost at the end of the paragraph, the student includes some more information about the *setting* by referring to the duration of the war and the places where it was fought (sentence 6). In addition, the purpose of the

war is not stated throughout the text and there are only two causal *circumstances* (underlined), which do not establish links between the wars. These causal *circumstances* support the comparison between “the North” and “the South” but do not explain the actions taken by the parties and their consequences, an essential phase in the HA.

Below is the transcription of the HA written by the same student for the post-test:

C 10/ Post-test

The Vietnam war

(1) As regards The Vietnam war, it was a conflicting war fought between 1954 to 1975 in Vietnam: territory of Indo-China. Soldiers who fought each other were: The Vietcong (terrorist) from North Vietnam and Americans who supported South Vietnam. (2) The tactics that were used by Americans were: Helicopter, napalm, gases that destroyed the jungle, gunship, etc. (3) What is more an important operation was the Operation Rolling Thunder in 1965. (4) It was a bombing from the USA.

(5) The Vietcong used some tactics such as: pyjamas, “The men in black pyjamas” as the American called them. (6) Later on, President Nixon complained about war and it was called “Vietnamisation” because all the damaged and injured soldiers from war. (7) Another important fact was the Domino Theory/ containment: it was a theory thought by politicians that if one country become comunists the rest of them would become comunists too.

This HA consists of two paragraphs. The first paragraph starts with the *setting* phase describing the dates, the place and the parties of the war (1). Within the same paragraph, the student moves on to the tactics used by the Americans, which are included within the *events* phase. The second paragraph begins with the description of the Vietcong tactics, which demonstrates that the student failed to organise the information appropriately by grouping the tactics of both parties in the same paragraph. Another problem concerns the inclusion of the causal *Circumstance* in (6) “because all the damaged and injured soldiers from war”, which is irrelevant and misses some important information, as “Vietnamisation”²⁰ is a term that refers to the withdrawal of

²⁰ Vietnamisation was the term used by Richard Nixon to describe US policy towards South Vietnam in the later stages of the Vietnam War. Vietnamisation was Nixon’s desired policy to enable South Vietnam to take a greater responsibility for the war while America started a planned withdrawal, while at the same time supporting the government in Saigon in its fight against the National Liberation Front. In June 1969, Nixon announced the first reduction in troop numbers – 25,000 US troops were to be withdrawn. However, this still left 515,000 US troops in South Vietnam. In December 1969, Nixon announced a further 60,000 men were to leave South Vietnam. (Taken from: www.historylearningsite.co.uk/vietnam-war/vietnamisation)

the American troops from Vietnam. The student finishes the HA stating the purpose (7) but expresses it as “another important fact”. The text ends without expressing the result of the war.

As for the EG, the majority of the pre-tests exhibited very poor schematic structure. In general terms, students were not able to group the information within both stages and tended to “scatter” the ideas in different parts of the text. This is illustrated in the EG pre-test that has been transcribed below:

(Example 44/E3): **Improvement between the pre-and the post-test of EG:**

E3/Pre-test

The American Civil War

(1) The American Civil War started in 1861 when Abraham Lincoln became president. (2) The southern states got angry, so they decided to form The Confederate States of America (Confederacy). (3) It was like a new country, with its own president. (4) The Civil War took place in Fort Sumter, South Carolina.

(5) The first decision of Lincoln was to block the ships from the southern areas, so ships couldn't enter or go out from the South. (6) This was called the Union Blockade. (7) After this, there were many battles between the Union (North people) and the South. (8) However, the Union had some advantages: they were more men, they had more weapons and clothing at war. (9) But the Southernmen were expert riders and leaders. (10) The biggest battle took place in Pennsylvania. (11) **The North was fighting to have the South back and to avoid slavery, the South was fighting for their freedom and to have slavery.** (12) Finally, the Union was declared winner of the war in 1865 which meant the end of slavery too. (13) Lee, the general of the South army was defeated, southerners were forgiven and sent home. (14) The US had all its states again.

The opening paragraph makes reference to the beginning of the war and the place where it was fought (i.e. the *setting*), but there is no information concerning the *previous events* and the *purpose* of the war. The latter phase is stated almost at the end of the second paragraph (sentence 11, highlighted in bold) within the *Account of stages*, showing an inadequate grouping of information and possibly suggesting a lack of planning.

The second paragraph contains few instances of cause-effect logical relations (underlined), which indicates that the learner failed to accomplish the main purpose of

the HA, that of establishing causal connections between the events of the war, as expected in the *Account of stages*.

After the administration of the pre-test, the EG students and the teacher-researcher deconstructed the target genre so to analyse its purpose, generic structure and lexico-grammatical features through language scaffolding tasks (see Section 3.7.1). That is, students were shown that the prototypical stages of an HA are the *Background* stage, in which information about the setting, the previous events leading to the war and its purpose is given, followed by the *Account of stages*, in which events are disclosed as they unfolded over time. They were also taught that each of these stages serves a particular purpose, is presented in a particular order and can be identified on the basis of shifts in lexical and grammatical patterning that correlate with different functions of this text type: providing general background information and accounting for the reasons why the events happened in a particular sequence.

This genre-based instruction seems to have been beneficial for the EG post-tests as the majority of them showed a schematic structure pattern that corresponds quite closely to the HA genre. In 66,6% (8) of the HAs, the students included the *Background* stage, and in 75% (9) of the texts the subjects mentioned the *outcome* of the war within the *Account of stages*. Also, the majority of the students were able to group information into different paragraphs, which may indicate that the learners planned the organisation of the ideas in their texts before writing, with the schematic structure in mind. This improvement is illustrated in the following transcription of a post-test, by the same student whose pre-test was transcribed above.

E3/ Post-test

The Vietnam War

(1)The Vietnam war started in 1954 and it finished in 1975. (2) It was fought between Communist North Vietnam and the government of South Vietnam. (3) Before WWII, Vietnam had been a French colony. (4) During the war, the Japanese took control of the area. (5) They treated the Vietnamese people savagely. (6) As a result, the Viet Minh, a strong anti-Japanese resistance movement emerged under the leadership of Communist Ho Chi Minh. (7) He wanted Vietnam to be free. (8) However, the Allies agreed that Vietnam belonged to France. (9)People from the Viet Minh began to fight the French.

(10) In 1954, the French were pulled out of Vietnam. (11)The country was divided into North Vietnam and South Vietnam until the 1956

election. (12) However the USA did not want to become Communist. (13) So, they helped Diem to get elected in the South. (14) Although he was an anti-Communist, he was very unpopular because he treated the Vietnamese people with contempt and was corrupt. (15) In 1960, the Viet Cong was set up. (16) It was a Communist movement of Vietnamese rebels who started a guerrilla war South Vietnam government and the USA. (17) The Viet Cong included South Vietnamese opponents of the government and Communist North Vietnamese. (18) They used guerrilla warfare as a tactic. (19) Fighters did not wear uniform, they had no known base camp, they attacked and then disappeared in the jungle. (20) On the other hand, the main US tactics were the use of bombs and chemical weapons. (21) In 1968, there was a turning point in history. (22) North Vietnam launched the Tet Offensive, attacking one hundred cities in South Vietnam. (23) This event caused an anti-war feeling among Americans. (24) In 1968, Richard Nixon became president and withdrew US troops completely by 1973. (25) In this year in Paris, all parties signed a peace agreement. (26) Finally, in 1975 South Vietnam surrendered to North Vietnam. (27) **The country became officially unified as the Socialist Republic of Vietnam.** (28) **It was now a Communist country.**

The student organised the text following the schematic structure of an HA. The first paragraph, which coincides with the *Background* stage, contains information about the beginning and the end of the war (1), the parties involved (2), its purpose (7) and the events leading to it (sentences 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9). That is, the student appealed to her knowledge of the genre and successfully included the three constitutive phases within the *Background stage*: the *setting*, the *purpose* and the *previous events*.

In the second paragraph, which coincides with the *Account of stages*, the student managed to include several cause-effect relations between the historical events (underlined) and therefore fulfilled the primary purpose of the genre under analysis. In addition, she included the *outcome* phase (in bold type), which demonstrates her awareness of stages and phases of the HA.

The results presented seem to prove the positive effect of SFL genre-based instruction as most of the EG post-tests were well-developed and included the prototypical stages and phases of the HA. In particular, students made progress not only in the grouping of ideas within the different stages but also in the inclusion of cause-and-effect relations within the *Account of stages*.

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study aimed to investigate whether the implementation of genre-based instruction within the SFL would help develop students' ability when writing *historical accounts* in a tertiary EFL context in Argentina. To accomplish this aim, a group of students was taught the *historical account* genre through this instruction and their performance was compared with a control group. The results provide empirical evidence that shows that SFL genre-based instruction seems to be an effective pedagogical tool to teach the HA genre to a group of EFL tertiary students with an intermediate level of language proficiency in the context of an English Culture subject. The study was meant to be a contribution to existing research on genre-based pedagogy in general and to the teaching of HAs in tertiary academic contexts in particular.

On the basis of the findings of this study, this chapter reviews the research questions stated in chapter 1, explores the pedagogical implications and limitations of the study and provides some possible lines for future research

5.1 Research questions

This study has aimed to provide an answer to the following research questions:

1. Was there any improvement between the pre- and post-test holistic scores in the CG?
2. Was there any improvement between the pre- and post-test holistic scores in the EG?
3. Were there any differences between the HAs produced in the post-tests of the CG and the EG after 6 weeks of genre-based instruction for the EG? If any, which of the variables object of this study revealed the most substantial differences?

In order to answer these questions, the pre-test and post-test scores assigned for both the CG and the EG were analysed and compared considering the holistic scores allotted and the five variables investigated, namely, *processes*, *Theme-Rheme*, *cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*.

As to the first and second research questions, the findings revealed there was no substantial improvement between the pre-and post-test holistic scores within the CG,

but there was an important impact in the EG. Most of the EG students obtained a higher holistic score in their post-tests after the 6 weeks of genre-based instruction, which meant that the writings caused a better first impression in terms of the texts' content, coherence and organisation. Even though both groups showed knowledge of the content, the EG students' writings were clearer and better organised, making it easier for the reader to follow the information flow. The improvement in these aspects may be related to a more effective use of the variables studied throughout the instruction period.

Concerning question number three, the EG students performed better than the CG in the post-tests after receiving 6 weeks of genre-based instruction in *historical account* writing. The analysis of the variables in each of the students' texts showed that fewer than half of the CG students were not able to obtain a higher mark in their post-tests in every variable under study. Even though there was some progress in the variables of *processes* and *Theme-Rheme*, there was no substantial improvement in the case of *cohesion* and *sequencing of the information* and almost no differences in terms of *circumstances*. Conversely, most of the EG students improved their performance after the genre-based training course in three of the variables, namely *cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*; half of the students performed better in the variable of *Theme-Rheme* and there was a moderate improvement in the case of *processes*. In other words, the EG outperformed the CG in most of the variables after the genre-based pedagogical implementation.

In the case of *cohesion*, most of the EG learners were able to introduce participants and keep track of them in the text by establishing clear and unambiguous links between the referents and the reference forms. This progress was not shown in the CG post-tests as most of the texts produced by these students included reference forms which could not be traced in the text and showed no agreement between the reference form and the referent.

With respect to the *circumstances* variable, many of the EG students doubled the use of both temporal and cause-effect *circumstances* in their post-tests, which are essential in this genre. By contrast, the CG learners barely increased their number of *circumstances* in their post-tests, particularly the use of cause-effect *circumstances*, and thus failed to achieve the main purpose of the text: to show the causal relationships between the events as they unfolded over time. The understanding of these causal

relations will probably allow the students to get a better grasp of the content of the subject.

Regarding *sequencing of the information*, most of the EG students improved in this variable as their texts included the constitutive stages of an HA, namely the *Background* stage and the *Account of stages*, as identified by Rose and Martin (2012), and the phases within these stages as established by the teacher-researcher: (a) the *setting*, (b) the *previous events* and (c) the *purpose* within the *Background stage*, and (d) the *events* and (e) the *outcome* within the *Account of stages*. In addition, the majority of the EG post-tests were carefully planned and organised, which seems to reveal the students' awareness of the HA schematic structure. However, most of the CG post-tests showed a poor schematic structure. The majority of the students' texts (i) did not include the constitutive stages and/ or phases of the HA, (ii) failed to group the information appropriately within both stages and (iii) contained few instances of cause-effect logical relations. The last aspect relates as well to the use of *circumstances*. The problems shown by the CG apparently reveal their unawareness, due to the lack of instruction, of the prototypical schematic structure of the HA.

The evidence of improvement in the EG post-test written productions seems to demonstrate the positive effects of Genre Pedagogy as throughout the genre-based instruction period the students developed knowledge of the communicative purpose of the HA, its schematic structure and prototypical lexico-grammatical features. During this period, the EG learners were explicitly taught (i) the constitutive stages and phases of an HA and the extent to which each stage contributes to fulfilling the purpose of the whole text, (ii) how to use relational *processes* to provide background information about the topic and material *processes* to narrate the sequence of historical events, (iii) how to use both temporal *circumstances* to provide a chronological account of events and cause-effect *circumstances* to establish causal connections between the events (iv) and how to appropriately use pronominal, demonstrative and comparative reference in their texts. In addition, this group of students received instruction in some of the linguistic complexities required by the HA genre such as nominalisations (e.g. "invasion", "withdrawal") and logical metaphors, which build causal connections within clauses (e.g. "caused", "resulted in").

It is worth noting that the *processes* variable showed little progress in comparison with the other variables in spite of having been part of the intervention.

During the genre-based instruction, the students were asked to identify the *processes* in the texts and group them into some general categories labeled as material, relational and existential. This task was useful for few students in the EG so it might be necessary to design other exercises to work on this variable.

All these findings reveal that the genre-based approach had a positive effect on the EG students' written productions as most of the learners in this group did better in the post-test after receiving genre-based instruction, particularly with respect to the variables of *cohesion*, *circumstances* and *sequencing of the information*. It is then possible to assert that for this group of EFL tertiary students at an intermediate level of language proficiency and in this particular context, SFL genre-based instruction is an effective pedagogical tool to teach *historical account* writing as it had a positive effect on the ratings of the students' task performance.

Genre Pedagogy appears to be particularly suitable for the teaching of different text types and the development of students' writing skills as it allows for systematic language instruction that reveals how meanings are created in a particular genre (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). This approach represents a "visible pedagogy" (Bernstein, 1975) in which the prototypical features of a particular genre are made explicit in order to facilitate the understanding of disciplinary texts and their subsequent production. The more learners are aware of the generic features of the target text, the more tools they will have to understand and produce HAs and to develop their writing skills.

As stated in previous chapters, the mastery of text types does not occur naturally; consequently, it is of critical importance that students receive explicit and systematic instruction on issues related to the production of academic genres (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Johns, 1997; Hyland, 2004; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1996). This is evidenced in the present study as the group who did not receive genre-based instruction did not show considerable improvement in any of the variables object of this study nor in their holistic scores. The results of the present study are consistent with the findings of Macken and Slade (1993), Martin and Rothery (1986), Moyano (2005), Perrett (2000), Schleppegrell (2000), Schleppegrell and Colombi (1997), Schleppegrell, Achugar and Oteiza (2004), among others, which provided evidence for the positive effects of genre-based instruction in academic writing.

5.2 Pedagogical implications

From a pedagogical perspective, several major implications for language teaching and learning arise from this study.

As stated in the introductory section, EFL learners who study content-based subjects face the double challenge of handling both mastery of content knowledge and the genres associated with the discipline (Halliday & Matthiesen, 1999). In the case of the students of *Estudios Socioculturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa II*, they are required to produce HAs in their examinations to demonstrate through writing what they have learnt. This requirement, which seems to be more complex when writing in a FL, represents severe difficulties for the learners as they have seldom been exposed to academic genres and are consequently unaware of their purpose, schematic structure and lexico-grammatical features (Carlino, 2006). It cannot be assumed that students will know how to intuitively write the different types of genres required at higher education. Besides, the teaching of disciplinary subjects generally focuses on the topics dealt with in the syllabus units and often disregards the role of language and literacy.

A major implication of this study is that SFL Genre Pedagogy may be incorporated in the teaching of the course *Estudios Socioculturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa II* at the EFL tertiary school where this research was conducted. This pedagogy, which involves the deconstruction, joint construction, and independent construction of prototypical models of key genres, offers students an explicit understanding of how target texts are structured and why they are written in the ways they are (Hyland, 2004). More specifically, this pedagogy enhances students' understanding of the purpose of the target genre, its schematic structure and prototypical lexico-grammatical features. As a result, students become aware of the salient features of the target genre and can appeal to their knowledge of these characteristics to understand and produce effective texts. In addition, students would greatly benefit if this approach could also be applied in the other subjects that form the course of study.

Another important implication of this study is the role the disciplinary teachers will take up in their classrooms. In the early stages of genre-based instruction, the teachers guide the students' analysis of the generic features of model texts and provide explicit teaching of the rhetorical and linguistic features that realise the genre as they move towards their potential level of performance (Hyland, 2003). This scaffolding

should be gradually removed and become a guide to the learners as they achieve greater control of the new genre (Macken-Horarik, 2002). Teachers' knowledge of their disciplinary genres would provide them with more tools to enhance their teaching practices. In this respect, several scholars contend that if educators have an understanding of the discipline-specific language of their academic courses, they can scaffold this learning for students in their classrooms (Acevedo & Rose, 2007; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1996).

5.3 Limitations and further research

Although the findings of this study prove the efficacy of Genre Pedagogy for the improvement of students' writing skills, a few limitations should be taken into consideration for future studies.

First, the study involved a six-week genre-based instruction for the EG. Therefore, a more longitudinal study with a longer instruction period could be carried out in order to explore the effects of this approach over time. This longitudinal study could include various post-tests to be done some months after the instruction to test whether knowledge of the genre under study remains or not in the long term.

Second, the participants of the EG and the CG belonged to different courses of studies: EFL Teacher-Training and Translation Study programmes respectively. Even though both groups shared the majority of the subjects, the fact that only a few of the disciplinary subjects that each group attended were different might have influenced the performance in the post-test. It would be interesting to carry out an investigation with two groups from the same course of study.

In the future, this investigation could be replicated in similar contexts to the one where it was carried out, that is, in other tertiary institutions which offer EFL Teacher-Training and Translation Study programmes. This would strengthen the validity of the findings of this research study.

This study could also be complemented with an analysis of the students' perceptions on genre-based instruction and their attitudes towards the classroom activities by using questionnaires and interviews, as partial indicators of this Genre Pedagogy's efficacy. It is worth noting that I did not administer these instruments in the

present study as the focus was the analysis of some aspects of the students' written productions related to the field and the mode register variables.

With this thesis, it is my intention to have contributed both to existing research on genre-based pedagogy and to the improvement of EFL education by assessing the effectiveness of the Sydney School genre pedagogy in a tertiary school context.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

| Central purpose | Genre family | Types of genres | Purpose |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| ENGAGING | Stories | recount | recounting events |
| | | narrative | resolving a complication in a story |
| | | exemplum | judging character or behavior in a story |
| | | anecdote | sharing an emotional reaction in a story |
| INFORMING | Histories/ Chronicles | autobiographical recount | recounting life events |
| | | biographical recount | recounting life stages |
| | | historical recount | recounting historical events |
| | | historical account | explaining historical events |
| | Explanations | sequential explanation | explaining a sequence |
| conditional explanation | | alternative causes and effects | |
| factorial explanation | | explaining multiple causes | |
| Procedures | consequential explanation | explaining multiple effects | |
| | explanation | | |
| | procedure | how to do experiments and observations | |
| | procedural recount | recounting experiments and observations | |
| Reports | descriptive report | classifying and describing a phenomenon | |
| | classifying report | classifying and describing types of phenomena | |
| | compositional report | describing parts of wholes | |
| EVALUATING | Arguments | exposition | arguing for a point of view |
| | | discussion | discussing two or more points of view |
| | Text responses | review | evaluating a literary, visual or musical text |
| | | interpretation | interpreting the message of a text |
| | | critical response | challenging the message of a text |

Map of school genres (Adapted from Rose & Martin, 2012, p.128)

APPENDIX B

Historical account

What has happened to the Aborigines since the time of white settlement? (Coffin, 2006, pp. 59-60)

In the late 18th century, when the English colonised Australia, there were small tribes, or colonies of Aboriginal natives who had lived harmoniously and in tune with their surroundings for 40 000 years. However, there were no signs of agriculture or the Aborigines depending on the land. According to English law, this meant that they need not be recognised as rightful residents. The English immediately assumed that Australia was ‘terra nullius’, or uninhabited; to them it was an unsettled land which they did not have to conquer to gain power.

As a result of their belief in ‘terra nullius’, from 1788 onwards, the English began to occupy sacred land and use Aboriginal hunting and fishing grounds. This abuse by the new British government soon led to Aborigines becoming involved in a physical struggle for power. The first main period of Aboriginal resistance was from 1794 to 1816 when the Eora people, under the leadership of Pemulwuy, resisted the Europeans through guerrilla warfare.

This Aboriginal resistance resulted in the colonisers using different methods of control. In the 19th century Protection stations were set up where Aborigines were encouraged to replace their traditional lifestyles with European ones. Many Aborigines resisted, however, and as a result were shot or poisoned.

In 1909, the continuation of Aboriginal resistance led to the NSW Aborigines Protection Act which gave the Aborigines Protection Board the power to remove Aboriginal children from their own families and place them into white families, often as cheap labour.

In response to these injustices the Aboriginal community began to fight for their rights. In 1967, they won the right to vote and in 1983 their struggle resulted in the creation of the NSW Aboriginal Land Rights Act. Their fight for land rights continues today. The Mabo case is a recent example of their success.

APPENDIX C

Instituto Superior de Formación Docente Nueva Formación

Programa Académico Ciclo Lectivo 2015

Carrera: Profesorado de Inglés

Espacio Curricular: ESTUDIOS SOCIO-CULTURALES Y LITERARIOS DE PUEBLOS DE HABLA INGLESA II

Formato Curricular: Seminario

Curso: Segundo año

Profesora: Natalia Ríos

Régimen de Coursado: Anual

Carga Horaria Semanal: 3 horas cátedra (+ 1 hora de taller integrador)

“The more you know about the past, the better prepared you are for the future.”

Theodore Roosevelt

I. FUNDAMENTACIÓN

El aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera nos ayuda a reflexionar sobre nuestra propia lengua, nos permite comprender otras culturas y nos brinda una cosmovisión más amplia del mundo en su diversidad. En la actualidad, el fenómeno de la globalización ha acentuado la importancia que tiene el idioma inglés en las relaciones internacionales y entre las diversas culturas. Este idioma es la “lingua franca” del siglo XXI, es decir, se ha convertido en la principal herramienta de comunicación utilizada por hablantes de distintas lenguas en diversas áreas tales como economía, política, telecomunicaciones y tecnología, entre otras.

Considerando que una lengua refleja la sociedad donde se habla, sus modos de vida y sistema de valores, es decir, que los significados están culturalmente determinados, el aprendizaje sistemático de la Cultura constituye una etapa necesaria del proceso de adquisición del idioma extranjero en el marco de la carrera “Profesorado en Lengua Inglesa”. Por lo antes expuesto, considero que la enseñanza de la cultura angloamericana es fundamental en el nivel superior, para así brindar a nuestros alumnos

las herramientas necesarias para enseñar la lengua y enseñar a reflexionar sobre ella, no sólo en la vida diaria sino también en su futura vida laboral o profesional. A través de un estudio sistemático y cronológico de la cultura y de las civilizaciones angloparlantes desde principios del siglo XX hasta comienzos del siglo XXI, contemplando los aspectos sociales, político-económicos, artísticos y filosóficos, el alumno internalizará una visión global de la historia político-cultural de los pueblos angloparlantes y de la difusión de la lengua y de la cultura inglesa en el mundo, como así también será capaz de comprender el nuevo orden mundial en el que se encuentra inmerso.

II. OBJETIVO GENERAL

A través de un estudio sistemático y cronológico de la cultura y la civilización de los pueblos de habla inglesa, el alumno contemplará los aspectos sociales, políticos, económicos, artísticos y filosóficos e internalizará una visión global de la historia político-cultural de estos pueblos y de la difusión de la lengua y de la cultura inglesa en el mundo, como así también será capaz de comprender el nuevo orden mundial en el que se encuentra inmerso.

OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS

Los objetivos específicos de la asignatura son lograr que el estudiante:

- sea capaz de realizar una lectura comprensiva y analítica de textos históricos.
- sea capaz de contestar preguntas en forma oral y escrita y escribir informes históricos, demostrando su competencia comunicativa en inglés y utilizando la terminología correspondiente, para referirse al desarrollo histórico de aspectos económicos, sociales, religiosos y políticos de las culturas y civilizaciones angloparlantes a partir del siglo XVII y hasta la actualidad.
- sea capaz de contestar preguntas en forma oral y escrita, y escribir informes históricos, demostrando comprensión de las interrelaciones existentes entre los aspectos económicos, políticos y sociales.

III. CONTENIDOS:

A) Contenidos Conceptuales

Unit N° 1: COLONIES IN THE NEW WORLD. A NEW NATION

- **First Migration**
 - The Thirteen Colonies
- **The Independence Movement**
 - Causes of the movement
 - The American Independence War
 - The Constitution and the Bill of Rights
 - Manifest Destiny
- **The Westward Movement**
- **The American Civil War**
- **Cultural manifestations**
 - *O Captain! My Captain!* (Walt Whitman, 1900 poem).

Unit N° 2: INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND

- **Factors that accelerated the change in the industry**
 - Growth of population
 - Improved transport
 - New materials
 - Great mechanical inventions
- **Social consequences**
- **Literary movement: Romanticism**
 - Main characteristics
 - W. Wordsworth: *The Daffodils*- Lord Byron: *The Tear*

Unit N° 3: WORLD WAR I

- **The causes of WWI**
 - The Assassination at Sarajevo.
 - The Great Powers in 1914.
 - Four Steps to War.
- **The First World War (1914- 1918)**
 - The Schlieffen Plan.
 - Why were so many killed?
 - Main events of the war in the western front.
 - The home front.
 - The war at sea.
 - The war in the air.
 - The war on other fronts.
 - The end of the war.
- **The Treaty of Versailles**
 - The Versailles peacemakers.
 - A dictated peace.
 - The terms of the treaty.

- How did Germany react to the treaty?
- Criticism of the treaty.
- **Cultural manifestations**
 - “The Soldier” (Rupert Brooke, 1914) and “Dulce et decorum est” (Wilfred Owen, 1917).

UNIT N° 4: INTERWAR PERIOD

- **Britain between the wars**
 - Post-war economic problems.
 - Post-war policies.
 - The general strike 1926.
 - The great depression.
- **The USA between the wars**
 - The Roaring Twenties.
 - The Wall Street Crash.
 - The Great Depression.
 - Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal.
- **The League of Nations**
 - Setting up the League.
 - The League in action in the 1920s.
 - The League of Nations in the 1930s.
 - The Reason for the failure of the League of Nations.
- **Cultural manifestations**
 - Political cartoons

UNIT N° 5: WORLD WAR II

- **Germany and the outbreak of the WWII.**
- **WWII in Europe.**
- **WWII in the Far East.**
- **Cultural manifestations**
 - “Stones” by (Timothy Findley, 1988)

UNIT N° 6: THE COLD WAR

- **The Cold War**
 - How did the Cold war begin?
 - Cold War in Europe 1945- 1949.
 - Containment around the globe.
 - The Dulles Years.
 - Cuba.
 - Vietnam.
 - Détente in the 1970s
 - The end of the Cold War.
- **The United Nations**

- Organization and differences from the League of Nations.
- The United Nations in action.
- **Cultural movements**
 - the Hippie Movement and the Beat Generation
- **Cultural manifestations**
 - The Crucible (Arthur Miller, 1953 play)

B) Contenidos Procedimentales

- Previsión de acciones que favorezcan la interacción del desarrollo cognitivo, social y afectivo.
- Descripción de procesos históricos.
- Análisis individual y grupal de los contenidos.
- Exposición oral de los contenidos.
- Deducción, comprensión y producción del vocabulario adecuado a los tópicos seleccionados.
- Empleo de recursos bibliográficos y tecnológicos.

C) Contenidos Actitudinales

- Respeto y participación en los espacios reflexivos.
- Formulación de los propios puntos de vista y aceptación de posiciones diferentes.
- Valoración del intercambio grupal como una forma de construcción colectiva.

IV. COMPETENCIAS A DESARROLLAR

- Desarrollar estrategias para realizar una lectura comprensiva y analítica de un texto histórico.
- Activar procesos de reflexión, comparación, identificación, interrogación, creación y verificación de problemáticas culturales.
- Desarrollar capacidades para analizar la realidad en transformación.
- Desarrollar las capacidades de análisis y síntesis, y el juicio crítico.
- Contestar preguntas en forma oral y escrita, y escribir informes históricos, demostrando competencia comunicativa en inglés en todos sus niveles (morfológico, sintáctico, léxico y textual) y utilizando la terminología específica correspondiente, para referirse al desarrollo histórico de aspectos económicos,

sociales, religiosos y políticos de las culturas y de las civilizaciones angloparlantes desde principios del siglo XX hasta comienzos del siglo XXI

- Ser capaz de contestar preguntas en forma oral y escrita, y escribir informes históricos, demostrando comprensión de las interrelaciones existentes entre los diferentes aspectos de la cultura, considerados como esferas en permanente estado de cambio e interacción.

V. METODOLOGÍA DE TRABAJO:

La metodología de trabajo responde a un enfoque cognitivo que aspira a favorecer la construcción autónoma del conocimiento, respetando los tiempos individuales y otorgando a lo afectivo un rol principal como motor energético del conocimiento. Esta aproximación otorga una importancia fundamental a la negociación de los significados, la metacognición y la metacalse.

Las actividades han sido pensadas desde la construcción de significados y la creatividad, teniendo en presente que la actividad no es necesariamente activismo y apuntando a los procesos de análisis y a los procesos de generalización. Las mismas incluyen: clases magistrales (con presentaciones en PowerPoint), la proyección de películas ilustrativas, la elaboración de mapas conceptuales, cronologías, cuadros sinópticos, la deconstrucción de textos modelos, la construcción conjunta de informes históricos, la redacción de párrafos y de informes históricos, la presentación de informes orales y la búsqueda de información en Internet.

VI. INSTANCIAS EVALUATIVAS

Los alumnos serán evaluados mediante 5 Instancias Evaluativas. Una de estas instancias evaluativas consiste en una presentación oral de a dos de uno de los temas incluidos en el programa. La modalidad del resto de las instancias evaluativas será fijada por la docente (pruebas objetivas, exposiciones orales, respuestas a desarrollar en párrafos cortos, escritura de informes históricos, mapas conceptuales)

VII. CRITERIOS DE EVALUACIÓN:

- Preparación de la presentación oral: organización, claridad al expresar las ideas, manejo del lenguaje, uso del metalenguaje y preparación de actividades.
- Participación en clase.

- Cumplimiento de la tarea.
- 3 errores elementales dentro de la misma categoría o 5 errores dentro de las diferentes categorías implican la reprobación de la instancia evaluativa.
 - Errores de omisión de “s” 3ra persona del Presente Simple, plurales de sustantivos y casos posesivos.
 - Errores de concordancia entre sustantivos y/o pronombres y verbos.
 - Omisión de sujetos.

VIII. REGIMEN DE CURSADO

Estudiante Promocional

Para ser considerado estudiante Promocional de un taller o seminario se requiere:

75% de asistencia (50% alumnos que trabajen y/o situaciones excepcionales – consultar con coordinadores cada caso).

Tener TODAS las instancias evaluativas aprobadas con 7 (siete) o más puntos.

Las notas no se promedian y el alumno no puede recuperar ninguna instancia para obtener la promoción. Sólo si el alumno estuviera ausente por causa médica y justifica su inasistencia con certificado médico hasta 48 horas después de la evaluación, tendrá la posibilidad de rendir la instancia evaluativa y mantener la promoción (si obtiene 7 (siete) o más puntos). El/La profesor/a fijará la fecha para rendir dicha instancia evaluativa.

Para la acreditación definitiva deberá aprobar una Evaluación Integradora Final (EFI) ante el profesor responsable de la cátedra con 7 (siete) o más puntos dentro del período de cursado (establecido por el/la profesor/a). De no obtener 7 (siete) puntos o más o estar ausente, el alumno/a queda en condición de REGULAR.

Estudiante Regular

Para ser considerado estudiante Regular de un taller o seminario se requiere:

75% de asistencia (50% alumnos que trabajen y/o situaciones excepcionales – consultar con coordinadores cada caso)

Tener TODAS las instancias evaluativas durante el ciclo lectivo aprobadas con 4 (cuatro) o más puntos, se podrán recuperar 2 (dos) de ellas.

Una vez regularizado el taller/seminario, cada alumno/a deberá rendir un examen final que tendrá formato de coloquio y aprobar con 7 (siete) o más puntos. **Para aprobar este examen coloquio el alumno tendrá 3 (tres) turnos consecutivos (Diciembre-Febrero y Marzo)**. Dicho examen/coloquio es tomado por el docente de la unidad curricular. En caso de no aprobar, debe recurrir a la UC.

Los seminarios y talleres y las prácticas docentes no podrán acreditarse en condición de estudiantes libres.

IX. CORRELATIVIDADES

| PARA / TENER CURSAR | APROBADA | REGULARIZADA |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------|
| | Estudios Socioculturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa I (Sem) | ----- |
| PROMOCIONAR – RENDIR | Estudios Socioculturales y Literarios de Pueblos de Habla Inglesa I (Sem) | ----- |

X. BIBLIOGRAFÍA:

A. Obligatoria

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(Incluye material de autores que figuran en la bibliografía general)

B. Complementaria

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Child, J. et al. (1992). *Understanding History 2*. Harlow: Heinemann.

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- O'Callaghan, B. (1990). *An Illustrated History of the USA*. Harlow: Longman.
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- Sitios en Internet:

- www.britainexpress.com/history
- www.britannia.com
- www.buenosairesherald.com
- www.english-heritage.org.uk
- www.msnbc.msn.com/id/3032542/site/newsweek
- www.time.com

APPENDIX D

Scoring Sheets

| STUDENT: | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| HOLISTIC SCORE | Pre-test | Post-test |
| | | |

| STUDENT: | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| VARIABLE | Pre-test score | Post-test score |
| Sequencing of the information | | |
| Processes | | |
| Circumstances | | |
| Theme-Rheme | | |
| Cohesion | | |

APPENDIX F

Session 3

Activity 1: Circle the most appropriate alternative (a, b, c) to continue the text.

America's response to developments in Vietnam was dramatically influenced by two events:

- a. In 1949, China fell to the communists. This intensified the fears of a global communist expansion, and led to criticism of the Democrat President Truman from two members of the rival Republican Party. In the US Republicans blamed Truman for 'losing China'.
- b. China fell to the communists in 1949. This intensified the fears of a global communist expansion, and led to criticism of the Democrat President Truman from two members of the rival Republican Party. In the US Republicans blamed Truman for 'losing China'.
- c. In 1949, China fell to the communists. The fears of a global communist expansion were intensified by this, and led to criticism of the Democrat President Truman from two members of the rival Republican Party. In the US Republicans blamed Truman for 'losing China'.

In 1950, President Truman saw the outbreak of the Korean war as a deliberate challenge to world peace and his policy of containment.

- a. With the intention of halting the global spread of communism by supporting anti-communist regimes, the containment policy had been put in place in 1947 as the Truman Doctrine.
- b. The containment policy had been put in place in 1947 as the Truman Doctrine, with the intention of halting the global spread of communism by supporting anti-communist regimes.
- c. In 1947, with the intention of halting the global spread of communism by supporting anti-communist regimes, the containment policy had been put in place as the Truman Doctrine.

At the same time that Truman committed US forces to Korea, he ordered a major military assistance package for the French in Indochina. American aid was administered by the Military Assistance and Advisory Group Indochina (MAAGI). Aid to the French and the forces of SOV in the forms of weapons and equipment amounted to between \$2.6 and \$3 billion.

(Text adapted from Rose & Martin 2012, p. 122)

Activity 2: Go back to the text and find cases of Linear Thematic Progression.

APPENDIX G

Session 4

Activity 1:

Read the following sentences and pay attention to the underlined words:

- a. Australia was involved in the Second World War for six years and so things changed economically, politically and socially.
- b. The reason for economic, political and social changes was Australia's six years of involvement in the Second World War.

In sentence a “was involved” and “changed” are **processes** and “so” is a **conjunct**. In sentence b “was involved”, “changed” and “so” have been turned into the **nouns** “involvement”, “changes” and “reason”. One important communicative effect of the grammatical changes is that by turning the conjunct “so” into the noun phrase “The reason”, cause is given a more prominent place in sentence initial position. Thus, sentence ‘b’ gives greater emphasis to the causal dimension of past events.

When writing about history, **processes** and **conjuncts** often become **nouns**.

Activity 2: (Adapted from Coffin’s 2006, p. 174)

2a. Change each underlined process to complete the following sentence.

1. The Europeans settlers arrived in 1788. Two years after _____, conflict between blacks and whites began.
2. In 1788 the Europeans invaded the Aborigines’ land. This _____ destroyed the Aboriginal way of life.
3. The Aborigines resisted the Europeans. The black _____ lasted until 1816.
4. In 1974, the Eora people attacked the settlement of Brickflied. During this _____ 36 British and fourteen Eora were killed.

2b. Identify the word category in which the processes underlined have been turned into.

2c. Is there any relation between the end of clause 1 (“the Europeans invaded the Aborigines’ land”) and the beginning of the following clause (“This” ...)? Complete the following statement:

The Theme “...” picks up information provided for in the previous Rheme “.....”. This pattern is called *linear thematic progression* (Danes, 1974).

Activity 3:

Find cases of Linear Thematic Progression in the following text:

Causes of the Crimean War

Various powers have sought to gain control of Crimea for a long time. Control over this region means control over Black Sea ports that are located on this peninsula. These ports provide quick access to the Eastern Mediterranean, Balkans, and Middle East, thus providing Central and Eastern Europe access to the Caucasus region. The area around the border of Europe and Asia is known as the Caucasus region. The peninsula is thus important from a trade point of view as well. The Ottoman Empire had occupied the Crimean Peninsula since the second half of the 15th century. They had annexed it from the Byzantine Empire. Towards the 19th century, the Ottoman Empire had started to decline. This coincided with the rise in Russian expansion towards the south. The main reason behind this expansionist policy of Russia was to move to the warmer areas in the south where the ports did not freeze, unlike in the north. Russia put its focus on Crimea, claiming that it had become the 'sick man of Europe'.

Taken from www.historyplex.com/crimean-war-causes-timeline-summary