Chapter Three

Exploring the Use of Genre Analysis and the Place of Context in all the Writing Coursebooks Used at Aden University

3.0 Exploring the Use of Genre Analysis in all the Writing Coursebooks Used at Aden University

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Chapter Three

Exploring the Use of Genre Analysis and the Place of Context in all the Writing Coursebooks Used at Aden University

As stated in chapter one, one of the aims of this study is to explore the use of genre analysis in all the writing coursebooks used at Aden University. Therefore, this chapter will first explore the use of genre analysis in all the writing coursebooks used in the Departments of English / Colleges of Education at Aden University.

It will then discuss the impact of genre analysis on the teaching of writing for academic purposes. It will also highlight the place of context in semantics and pragmatics, and the importance of context. ‘Context’ is very important in pragmatics not in semantics. This chapter will make it clear that though they both study ‘meaning’, they are still different in relation to the context of situation. Pragmatics studies ‘meaning’ in relation to the context of situation such as users or hearers etc., whereas semantics studies ‘meaning’ in relation to the expressions contained in a language without taking into account the context of situation. The context of situation helps in understanding the ‘meaning’ intended to be conveyed.

The chapter will end with a clarification of the place of context in the writing coursebooks used in the Departments of English/colleges of Education at Aden University.
3.0 Exploring the Use of Genre Analysis in all the Writing Coursebooks Used at Aden University

**Context**

In the B.Ed. programme, three writing coursebooks are used in the Colleges of Education at Aden University, Yemen. The two coursebooks *Outlines* by Hopkins and Tribble (1989) and *Perspectives* by Hopkins (1989) are intended for use at the first two years of ESL/EFL instruction particularly in Aden University. They take for granted a basic language proficiency, in the sense that students have some previous knowledge of English grammar and functions. *Outlines* is intended for the pre-intermediate students, whereas *Perspectives* is for the intermediate students. The aim of the two coursebooks is to develop in students the ability to write effectively in English for a range of useful purposes.

The third writing coursebook is *Academic Writing Course* by Jordan (1999) which is intended for use at the advanced level of ESL/EFL instruction particularly in Aden University. It takes for granted a basic language proficiency in the sense that the learners have previously learned English as a foreign language at school and have probably learned English with the sentence as the grammatical unit. These learners may now need to write in English for general academic purposes.

The orientation of these three Coursebooks, according to Hyland (2003), is occasionally called "current traditional rhetoric" or a "functional approach" since they deal with text functions and are effective where L2 students to be prepared for academic writing at college or university (p. 6). Nevertheless, this section will try to explore the use of genre analysis in these three writing coursebooks.

Martin (1984), as mentioned by Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998), gives "the following examples of genres: making a dentist's appointment, buying vegetables,
telling a story, writing an essay, applying for a job, writing a letter to the editor, inviting someone for dinner and so on” (p. 309). “In this context”, they clarify, “the focus is on the social processes such as ‘explain’, ‘describe’, and ‘argue’”, that “are seen as genres in the school context” (i.e. the Australian school) since they form “products in their own right” (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 309). Therefore, this section will explore the use of genre analysis in all the writing coursebooks used at Aden University following the Australian school, particularly represented in the important work of Martin (1989) since such context is closer to my context in which students are in need to improve the ability to describe, explain, argue, etc., especially the ability to use English in its written form. This context would help them engage in the real social life situations as Aden is now in the phases of being truly a free zone. Therefore, the status of English will change and thereby the change of the future role of the Colleges of Education/Departments of English at Aden University.

Thus, the role of the Departments of English in the Colleges of Aden University will inevitably increase since it will not only be restricted to training the undergraduate students to be as teachers of English in schools or universities but also to preparing them to take up jobs in the business context. Therefore, the undergraduate students do not only need to be trained to be as teachers of English but also need to be equipped with English that can help them survive in the business context where they can explain, describe, argue, etc., and here lies the rationale behind exploring the use of genre analysis in all the writing coursebooks used at Aden University following the Australian school, particularly the work of Martin (1989).

Martin (1989) defines different kinds of genres such as the genres of Recount, Procedure, Description, Report, Explanation, and Exposition. He clarifies that the Recount genre talks about an event that has been experienced in the past.
The Procedure genre tells about the manner something is done. The Description describes what a particular thing is like. The Report makes general statements about a class of things. The Explanation gives a justification for a judgment that has been made. The Exposition explains the arguments 'for and against' that have been made in support of the thesis. Following is the explanation of the use of genre analysis explaining the higher level analysis in the writing books used for the B.Ed. programme at Aden University, describing and explaining the higher level organisation and structure of the genre sample used in these books.

Recounts

Recounts, as explained above, tell about something that has been experienced in the past. Martin (1989) says that "people tell stories" in informal and "more formal situations". These stories are usually experienced by those who tell the story and "this type of story" is called "Recount" (p. 3). Moreover, when telling stories, the speakers or writers usually give certain information to the listeners or readers. This information entails something about those who take part in the story; "the participants", the place of the events where the story occurs; "the location", the conditions where the story occurs; "the time; what the participants were doing" or "feeling at the beginning of the story; the setting", and the main events that take place; "the events" and "the outcome" (Hopkins, 1989, p. 62).

Considering the writing coursebooks used at Aden University, however, there is a certain type of the use of genre analysis in these writing coursebooks. In the Perspectives coursebook by (Hopkins, 1989), for example, which is intended for the intermediate students, there is an example of Recount genre. It is about the genre of creating mood: telling a story. Here is the text:
Bird

I was with my friend Patrick in northern Norway up in the Arctic Circle hitchhiking south from Hammerfest. We’d been trying to get a lift all morning but with no success. There was very little traffic - perhaps one or two cars every fifteen minutes. It was midday and we’d been walking for hours following the empty road as it wound along the coast in and out of the fjords. But we didn’t mind. It was a beautiful day - crisp and clear. The only sound was our voices which echoed back at us from the folds of the mountains as we talked. The air was still and the sea was calm.

Suddenly from the corner of my eye I noticed a large black shape swooping towards me out of the silent sky. Then a long ghostly scream... AIIIIIIIEEE... I ducked instinctively just in time as a huge bird rushed past my ears talons reaching out wildly. I turned quickly and watched it soar up into the empty sky and come to rest high above us on a nearby peak. It stood silhouetted against the skyline, screaming bitterly, the harsh sound reverberating eerily in the stillness. We hurried on, hearts pounding, until the screaming stopped and silence descended again.

(Hopkins, 1989, p. 62)

In this short narrative the writer has described the setting: the place where the events occurred - his opinion about the weather - the quietness, the lack of movement. He used certain words to tell us about the setting such as “little traffic”, “empty road”, “wound along the coast”, “beautiful day”, “crisp and clear”, “voices echoed”, “air was still”, and “sea was calm”.

The writer has also described the event which was frightening. He described the terrifying object which came out of that stillness and calm. He used words which described the bird and its action. These words used are: “large black shape”, “swooping”, “long ghostly scream”, “bird”, “rushed past”, “talons reaching out wildly”, “soar”, “silhouetted”, “screaming bitterly”, and “harsh sound reverberating eerily” (Hopkins, 1989, p. 62).

In addition, the story is built up around a sequence of events and this is usually with a narrative. The sequence of the most basic events of the story, as explained in the book, is:
1) I was hitchhiking with a friend in northern Norway.

2) We were walking along the road.

3) A bird attacked me.

4) I ducked. The bird just missed me.

5) The bird flew to a peak above us.

6) We hurried away with hearts pounding.

7) It screamed until we were some distance away.

Overall, the organisation or the schematic structure of this story is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation: Setting / location / participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem: Usually an event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response to problem: event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up: outcome</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the structure above can be clarified in detail as follows:

- The setting of this story is: empty, quiet road, beautiful day, midday, crisp and clear, calm sea, still air, walking for hours.

- The location is: Northern Norway near Hammerfest, on a country road next to the sea.

- The participants are: the writer, Patrick, the bird.

- The events are: 1. Two people walking along the road.
  
  2. A bird attacks them.
  
  3. The bird returns to a mountain peak.

- The outcome is: They walk on with the bird screaming behind them.
The other writing coursebook *Outlines* by (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989), which is intended for the pre-intermediate students at Aden University, has also the same type of genre. It is about the genre of writing narratives: telling a story. Here is the text:

I moved silently up the stairs towards the door. I turned the handle slowly. The door was not locked. It opened noiselessly and I peered in. The room was small and airless with a layer of dust covering the bare floorboards.

I entered and closed the door behind me. There were a few pieces of old furniture in the room-a table with two broken chairs and a dirty sofa stood each side of the window and a large wooden wardrobe stood in the corner. Everything was quiet.

I crossed the room to the window and looked out. The street was empty. I turned to face the room again, and as I did, I thought I heard a scraping sound. I could feel that I was getting close now.

I walked towards the wardrobe trying to move as quietly as possible. As I reached for the handle my hands began to tremble... I pulled suddenly at the door... and there he was... Talbot stared out at me, a thin nervous smile on his lips.

'So... here I am', he mumbled. 'What are you going to do now?'

I looked back at him in amazement. How different he was! His hair was grey and his skin was pale and wrinkled. His filthy clothes hung from his skinny body.

'I'm going to do what I've been waiting to do for three years', I whispered calmly.

I raised the gun slowly until it pointed towards his chest. His lips parted slightly and a flicker of fear passed across his eyes.

'No... not that... you have to listen!' But I was finished with listening. My search was over.

The sound of the bullet leaving the gun shattered the silence and echoed in the empty room. He slumped to the floor, gasping for air. In the distance I heard a dog bark. I turned away and walked out of the room.

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, pp. 52-54)

In many respects the text above resembles the *Perspectives* text explained earlier. Both texts describe a sequence of events which took place in the past. The text here is similar to the one in the *Perspectives* explained earlier regarding the organisation. It is organised in the same way. It gives the readers information about
the setting: place-time; the characters: the people in the story; the events: things that
took place; and the outcome: what happened in the end. These can be explained
as follows:

- The setting: an upstairs room somewhere.
- The characters: a man and a woman who know each other.
- The events: woman comes up the stairs and into the room; she looks around and
  walks to the window; she hears a noise and walks to the wardrobe; she opens the
  wardrobe door.
- The outcome: she finds the man.

One more point regarding the similarity between these two texts which has to be
mentioned here is about the sound. In both texts, the writers use certain words to
tell the reader about sounds. In the *Outlines* text (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p.52) the
writer uses the following words: "silently", "noiselessly", "quiet", "empty", "scraping
sound", and "quietly", whereas in the *Perspectives* text (Hopkins, 1989) the writer
uses the following: 'echo", "still", "calm", "silent", "scream", "soar up", "empty",
"screaming bitterly", "the harsh sound", "stillness", and "silence" (p. 62).

There are, of course, differences between the two texts. The major
difference has to do with the writers of the two stories. In the *Outlines* text,
the writer of the story writes from the point of view of the woman. The room
is seen through her eyes. Thus, the writer makes the woman the 'I' in this
story. In the *Perspectives* text, the writer of the story writes from his point of
view. He has given us a lot of information about the setting and he has tried
to give a picture about what he felt through telling us about the weather, the
quietness, and the lack of movement.
There is, however, another text of the same text-type; Recount, which can be found but in the *Academic Writing Course*, which is intended for use at the advanced level of the B.Ed. programme at Aden University. Here is the text:

The United Nations

The origins of the UN can be traced back to the League of Nations. This was an international organisation which was created by the Treaty of Versailles in 1920 with the purpose of achieving world peace. Before 1930, the League, from its Geneva headquarters, organised international conferences and did useful humanitarian work. However, it failed to deal effectively with international aggression during the 1930s. The League was formally closed in 1946 and was superseded by the United Nations. The UN was founded on 24th October 1945, when the UN Charter was ratified by the 51 Founder member countries. Almost all the countries of the World are now members: 185 in all.

The UN was established to maintain international peace, and to encourage international co-operation to overcome economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems. Apart from the principal organs of the UN (The General Assembly The Security Council etc.), most of the UN's work is done through its specialised bodies and agencies. Some of the best known are, perhaps, the FAO, ILO, IMF, WHO, UNESCO and UNICEF.

(Jordan, 1999, p. 28)

This type of text is that which is used as an introduction to many pieces of academic writing. This introduction section is part of a genre which includes some kind of historical background or development. It is in the form of narrative that involves a description of events in the past. It also involves a time sequence or the chronological order of the events. Nevertheless, this text is similar to the two texts discussed above since it describes the events that took place in the past in sequence. It also resembles the two texts in using the same verb form; the simple past active, e.g. it failed.

The text, however, is also different from the two texts because it uses other verb form along with the simple past active verb form and certain verbs which can
also be used as nouns in the sentence context. It uses the simple past passive, e.g. *was created*. The text here has also used certain verbs associated with the historical background of any institution such as *created, founded, and established*. Another point which reflects the difference between this text and the other two texts discussed earlier is that the writer in this type of text cannot write the text from his point of view or change the sequence of the events since he writes about historical facts which took place in certain period of time. Here are the commonly verb tenses which can be used in this type of text and the verbs which can also be used as nouns:

1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Simple (Active)</th>
<th>Past Simple (Passive)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it created</td>
<td>it was established</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Perfect (Active)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it had developed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Verbs / nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to establish</td>
<td>establishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to create</td>
<td>creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to found</td>
<td>foundation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Procedure Writing_

Procedure writing, as Martin (1989) clarifies, resembles a narrative since procedural texts are written "around a sequence of events" (p. 5). Here is an example of this kind of text from the coursebook *Academic Writing Course* used for the advanced level students. It is about the genre of describing process and procedure.
How paper is made

Paper is made from wood, and many of the world's paper mills are found in those countries which have great forests – Canada, Sweden and Finland.

The trees are felled or cut down.
The branches and leaves are removed.
The trees are transported to the sawmill.
The bark is stripped from the trunks.
The trunks are sawn into logs.
They are conveyed to the paper mill.
They are placed in the shredder.
They are cut into small chips.
They are mixed with water and acid.
They are heated and crushed to a heavy pulp.
This wood pulp is cleaned.
It is also chemically bleached to whiten it.
It is passed through rollers to flatten it.
Sheets of wet paper are produced.
The water is removed from the sheets.
These sheets are pressed, dried and refined until the finished paper is produced.

(Jordan, 1999, p.14)

This procedural text is similar to the Recounts in that the sequence or order is important in both describing a process and reporting a procedure. However, the crucial difference can be characterised in many respects. The writer in this text uses the present passive verb forms; (is / are + verb stem+ed / past participle, e.g. The trees are felled or cut down/the trunks are sawn into logs) so as to give a general description. Therefore, the difference between procedural texts and the Recounts can be characterised in terms of generality. The text above is about how to make paper and talks about how to do this paper. The actions in the text are also general and therefore the verbs are timeless denoting not to what someone did, or is doing, or will do, but how the process is done in general.
Thus, what is needed in class is that students’ attention should be drawn to the main differences between Procedures and Recounts. Procedures are general; how things are done, whereas Recounts are about how things get be done and do not generalise. Recounts refer to particular people including the writer and particular things. They are specific. However, let us consider the following text which is from the same coursebook about describing process and procedure:

A survey was conducted among 50 overseas postgraduate students at Manchester University. The purpose of the survey was to discover the type, frequency and length of academic writing that was expected of the students by their supervisors or tutors. 34% of the students wrote reports, of an average frequency of two per term, of an average length of 4000 words.

(Jordan, 1999, p.16)

The above text reports a particular occasion in the past. It is similar to Recounts when it refers to particular people using the past simple verb form, e.g. “52% of the students wrote essays, of an average frequency of 5 per term, of an average length of 2000 words” (Jordan, 1999, p. 16). But there is another verb form in the text above which is the past passive tense. Nevertheless, the following text is from the same unit which reports a particular procedure in the past:

a. A survey was carried out among 50 students.
b. First, questionnaires were distributed to the students.
c. Then the students were requested to write answers to the questions.
d. After this, the completed questionnaires were collected.
e. Next, the answers were analysed.
f. Finally, the results were published.

(Jordan, 1999, p.17)

It is clear from the procedures above that the words like first, then, after this, next, and finally have been used to show the sequence; they are called “time linkers”.


This resembles the Recounts where time linkers are used to link the events. Here is an example from the Outlines coursebook which uses time linkers in a story:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a) A man walked into a bar and asked for a pint of beer and a sandwich. He drank the beer first, then put the sandwich on his head and left.</th>
<th>b) The next day, the same thing happened. He ordered a sandwich and a beer again, drank the beer, put the sandwich on his head and left.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c) On the following day the same thing happened. By now the barman was becoming just a little curious, so he decided he would try to find out what was going on.</td>
<td>d) When the man came in the following day, the barman gave him his beer as usual, but when he asked for a sandwich, said that they had sold out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) The man looked confused for a moment. Then he said, 'Ok, I'll have a packet of nuts then.'</td>
<td>f) The barman gave him the nuts. He drank the beer, put the nuts on his head and started to leave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) But this time the barman stopped him. 'Look, I've got to ask you this. Why have you got that packet of nuts on your head?</td>
<td>h) The man looked at him as if he were an idiot. Then he said patiently... 'I've got these nuts on my head because you didn't have any sandwiches'. Then he left.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p. 12)

It is, however, worth noting that such text may not be culturally accepted by the Yemeni students and teachers for study and therefore prevents them from learning to write. This is because such a text is culturally biased since 'beer' is religiously forbidden for the Yemeni people and therefore they do not commonly drink beer. Thus, such texts which are against religious teachings should not be used in school or college books. However, it would be better if the words like 'bar', 'a pint of beer', and a 'barman' in the same story are replaced by words like, for example, 'restaurant', 'an orange juice', and a 'waiter' respectively which are common to the Yemeni people.

Thus, in this story a number of "time linkers" has been used which reflects the similarity with the description of the particular procedure. These time linkers, which
are used in the story help in showing the organisation or the sequence of the events in
the past. They are: the next day, then, this time, first, then, when, the following day, by
now, then.

In addition, it can also be noticed that the text which gives the steps of the
particular procedure is different from both Recounts and the text, which describes
a general procedure. It is different since it uses the past passive tense (was / were +
verb stem + ed, e.g. A survey was carried out) to report a particular procedure in the
past. Anyway, this Procedures genre is missing in the Outlines and Perspectives.
Thus, the structure of these genres can be exemplified in terms of verb tenses
commonly used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A general description of a process or procedure</th>
<th>A particular event in the past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present Simple (Passive)</td>
<td>Past Simple (Active)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is / are + verb stem+ (ed / past participle)</td>
<td>e.g. 52% of the students wrote essays...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g.:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The bark is stripped from the trunks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The trunks are sawn into legs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A particular procedure in the past

Past Simple (Passive)

was / were + stem verb + ed
e.g. A Survey was carried out

Report Writing

It has been noticed above that sequence or order of events is important in both
Recounts and Procedures since it contributes to their structure. Nonetheless, the
following text is from the Outlines coursebook (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989) which is an
example of the Report genre and it describes a graph:
During the period covered by the graph, the rate of population growth for the world has declined very slightly, from 1.8% in the early 1950s to about 1.7% in the 1980s. However, during the sixties and early seventies, this figure reached a peak of almost 2%. The projected global figure for 2000 is 1.6%.

In terms of reducing the rate of population growth, Latin America has had a great deal of success. From a figure of around 2.7% in 1950, the rate reached a peak of 2.8% in the early sixties, then fell dramatically to approximately 2.5% in the seventies. It is hoped that the rate will continue to fall, reaching 2.2% by the year 2000.

The rate of population growth in North America has also dropped significantly over the period. Starting at around 1.8% in the fifties the rate plummeted to about 0.9% in the early seventies. However, the seventies saw a gradual rise back to approximately 1% by the early eighties. By 2000 the rate is expected to reach a record low of 0.8%.

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p. 40)

Having considered the organisation of this text and its paragraphs, it is clear that this text has three paragraphs and each paragraph gives a description. Paragraph one, for example, gives an overall picture of world population growth. Paragraph two gives details of the changes in a particular region. Paragraph three also gives details of the changes in a particular region. However, all the three paragraphs in the text are
organised in a similar way. The first sentence in each paragraph introduces general comment on whole period for a named area. The second one talks about details of changes during each time period. The third one gives expectations for the future.

It can also be noticed that each of the paragraphs in the text begins with a general point then moves on to a particular point. The text starts with general world figures and then moves on to particular figures of each region. The paragraphs start with a comment on the changes during the whole period covered by general statistics and then introduce details of changes for each particular period.

Writing such report, however, describing the rate of population growth starting with general comment is what characterises the Report genre. Reports make general comments. They generalise particular experiences (e.g. world population growth). Reports, therefore, are like Procedures in generalising particular experiences. But they are different since Reports focus on people, places, and things rather than events (Martin, 1989). Therefore, teachers should pay their students' attention to similarities and differences among the genres so that they could help their students learn to write consistently in each genre.

Having focused on the language of the text above from the Outlines, which is about 'World population growth', there are certain verbs, adjectives, and adverbs used in the text that the writer uses to describe changes in the population growth rate. The verbs which were used are "declined", "reached", "reducing", "fell", "continue to fall", "dropped", and "plummeted". The adverbs used are: "slightly", "dramatically", and "significantly", whereas the adjectives are: "gradual" and "great" (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, pp. 40-41).

This type of genre, i.e. the Report genre, can also be found in the other book Perspectives, but is missing in the other book Academic Writing Course which is
intended for the advanced level of EFL/ESL teaching at Aden University. The following text is from the Perspectives (Hopkins, 1989). It is about the genre of writing a report, which reports the changes in Windham between 1960 and today.

Changes in Windham over the last Thirty Years.

Windham has changed a great deal over the last thirty years or so as the town has developed to meet the changing needs of the people who live there. The volume of traffic has of course increased considerably and the work and leisure activities of its inhabitants have altered.

In the sixties the High Street, which was also part of the main road to London, was a busy street and the most important shopping area. Now, however, the new motorway to London bypasses the town and most people do their shopping at the huge new shopping centre which has opened quite close to it.

Windham has far better leisure facilities than it had in 1960. There used to be just one small park on the outskirts of the town, but now there is a sports centre with a large swimming pool as well as a number of football pitches.

The secondary school has been pulled down and now children have to travel to the next town ten miles away.

Industrial activity has also changed significantly. The factories that used to produce clothes and plastic goods have been demolished and replaced by new ones producing electronic components and computers.

(Hopkins, 1989, p. 55)

This text is similar to that in the Outlines (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989) which was a report about the ‘world population growth’ since it has also the general – particular pattern organising the report. The slight difference, however, is that in the Outlines book (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989) all three paragraphs in the text are organised in a similar way. The sentences and what they describe are in the order they occur in each of the paragraphs. The first sentence introduces a general comment on whole period for a named area. The second one gives details of changes during each time period, whereas the third gives expectations for the future. Thus, each of the paragraphs in the text begins with a general point then moves on to a particular point.
But this differs from the text above because the first sentence only in the first paragraph begins with a general introductory sentence which introduces the main areas of change which will be dealt with and the second sentence does not deal with a particular point. However, the remaining paragraphs give particular examples of the change. Therefore, the general particular pattern in the Outlines text was used within each of paragraphs for organising the report, whereas this kind of pattern is used in the above text but at paragraphs 3 and 5. The general structure of the above text is as follows:

PARAGRAPH 1 General introductory sentence introducing main topics.

What are the main topics?

Traffic, work and leisure activities.

PARAGRAPH 2 Examples of change.

What two examples are given?

Example 1: Motorway has been built
Example 2: The main shopping area has moved from the town centre to the new shopping centre.

PARAGRAPH 3 Examples of change. General sentence followed by detail.

What example is given?

Example 3: Leisure facilities have improved: e.g. sports centre.

PARAGRAPH 4 Example of change.

What example is given?

Example 4: School has been pulled down
PARAGRAPH 5 Example of change. General sentence followed by detail.

What example is given?

Example 5: Factories make different products: computers and electronic components.

Description

An example of a Report genre is Descriptions. Descriptions are like Reports in concentrating on "classes of things rather than individuals" (Martin, 1989, p. 7), but unlike Reports in giving particular statements about things (Martin, 1989). In short, according to Martin (1989), Descriptions are similar and dissimilar in terms of "focus" and "generality" (p. 8). Descriptions are like Reports since they are both things focused, but unlike Reports as they make specific not general statements (Martin, 1989). The following text is from the Academic Writing Course book (Jordan, 1999), which is an example of a physical Description genre of a country:

The United Kingdom

Britain (or Great Britain) is an island that lies off the north-west coast of Europe. The nearest country is France, which is 20 miles away and from which Britain is separated by the English Channel. The island is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean to the west, and the North Sea to the east. It comprises the mainlands of England, Wales and Scotland, that is, three countries. Scotland is in the north, while Wales is in the west. Ireland, which is also an island, lies off the West Coast of Britain. It consists of Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. Britain together with Northern Ireland constitute the United Kingdom (UK). Thus, the United Kingdom is composed of four countries, the largest of which is England. The capital city is London, which is situated in south-east England.

(Jordan, 1999: p. 21)

There are, of course, differences between this text and the other two texts of the Recounts genre explained earlier. The major difference is that the
description in this text, which is about 'The United Kingdom', uses present simple active verb forms (e.g. *it consists*) and present simple passive verb forms (e.g. *The Island is Surrounded*), whereas the two texts of the Recount genre use the past simple active verb forms. However, the text here uses certain Nouns and Adjectives to describe directions like: North - (Northern), North - West (North - Western), North-East (North - Eastern), West (Western), East (Eastern), South-West (South-Western), South-East (South-Eastern), South (Southern). It also uses certain verbs to describe the composition of a country and certain structure for location. These verbs are: *comprises, consists of, constitute, and is composed of*. It is noticed from these verbs that some take prepositions such as 'consists of' and 'is composed of', whereas the other does not, e.g. 'comprises'. The structure used to describe the location can be shown as follows:

![Diagram of C Location]

It is also noticeable that 'lies' is used for islands, whereas 'is situated' is used for mainland (joined to a continent) to refer to location.

So far, four genres and their relationship to each other have been considered. The relationship between them can be summed up as follows:
**Exposition**

Thus, the four genres above discussed the way things get done and the events or experiences that took place in the past. The texts exhibited the *how* and *what* but not the *why*. Nevertheless, some reports normally include full detailed explanations. They give reasons to support statements. This type of genre is called Expositions. Martin (1989) clarifies that Expositions differ from Reports and Explanations since they are “more fully developed Explanations” and the judgements in Expositions are “more socially” important and require “longer” time “to justify” (p. 13). In addition, Martin (1989) names the judgements as a “THESIS” and the reasons that support it as “ARGUMENT” (Martin, 1989, p. 14). He makes it clear that in an advanced Exposition each argument for the thesis is likely to constitute a paragraph and that the arguments and thesis are summarised in a final paragraph. Anyway, here is an example from the *Outlines*, which is about the genre of writing a composition, saying what you think, where there are reasons justifying the statement (or opinion).
'Meat eating is as bad for you as it is for animals.'

What is your opinion?

Human beings have eaten meat for many thousands of years. We have teeth that can cut and chew meat and stomachs that can digest meat. In many parts of the world it is the main food of most people and perhaps it always will be. However, during this century there have been many changes in the way animals are looked after and the way meat is produced. Now, there are many people who think that meat eating is not good for you.

I agree with these people. In my opinion, the changes in the way meat is produced have been so serious that I do not want to buy meat or eat meat. For example, chicken has become a very popular food in Britain in the last twenty years. In the past it was quite expensive and you ate roast chicken on Sunday or on special occasions. Now it is very cheap and people can eat it every day, but it is not as good as it was.

This is because the chickens are kept in very bad conditions in very small spaces and they are fed with hormones and antibiotics to keep them healthy until they are killed. Not only are the chickens killed in a horrible way after a horrible life, but I think the meat from these chickens is not good for you. It is full of water (to make it heavier) and chemicals and it does not taste good. I do not feel that this sort of meat is good for me and I am happier eating vegetarian food which is cheaper and tastes better.

Perhaps the statement 'Meat eating is as bad for you as it is for animals' is too extreme. I do not think that people should all stop eating meat immediately or that meat will kill you. However, I do not think that meat is very good for you anymore and I do not want to eat it myself.

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, pp. 68-69)

It is worth bearing here that the above text may be acceptable for the Yemeni students since it is not culturally biased. This is because Islam, which is the religion of the Yemeni people, does not forbid Muslims to eat meat (except pork) or vegetables. Therefore, the classification of vegetarian and non-vegetarian does not exist in the Yemeni context.

However, there are two important things to be clarified about this text. The first thing is that it explains why chicken is not good. The second and last thing is
that this explanation concentrates on a statement made by the writer that chicken is not as good as it was.

Here the writer expresses his opinion towards chicken saying that chicken is not good and giving justification for his statement. And this exemplifies the use of exposition in writing.

This text, however, is organised into different sections. These sections are **background information, problem, opinion, justification, and final comment**. The Background Information Section, for example, deals with the general information of the topic giving information which narrows the scope of the topic.

Human beings have eaten meat for many thousands of years. We have teeth that can cut and chew meat and stomachs that can digest meat. In many parts of the world it is the main food of most people and perhaps it always will be.

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p. 68)

It is noticed in this section that the writer starts his writing by describing the situation without expressing his opinion. He does so later in the text. However, in the Problem Section, the writer introduces the problem using contrast markers such as 'however' and 'now' which reflect the contrast between the ideas of the background information and the ideas of the problem.

However, during this century there have been many changes in the way animals are looked after and the way meat is produced. Now, there are many people who think that meat eating is not good for you.

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, pp. 68-69)

In the Opinion Section, the writer expresses his thoughts. He thinks that eating meat is bad for us. The writer introduces his opinion by using phrases like: *I agree with, in my opinion, I don't feel.*
I agree with these people. In my opinion, these changes in the way meat is produced have been so serious that I do not want to buy meat or eat meat. I do not feel that this sort of meat is good for me...

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p. 69)

In the Justification Section, which is clearly noticed to be the longest part of the text, reasons are given which support the writer's opinion. It explains why chicken is not good by giving certain reasons.

**Reason** This is because the chickens are kept in very bad conditions in very small spaces and they are fed with hormones and antibiotics to keep them healthy until they are killed.

**Reason** It is full of water (to make it heavier) and chemicals and it does not taste good.

In the Final Comment Section, the writer states his opinion connecting it with the title of the text using certain phrases to express opinion.

Perhaps the statement 'Meat eating is as bad for you as it is for animals' is too extreme. I do not think that people should all...

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p. 69)

Thus, the rhetorical structure of this structure is as follows:

- 1. Background Information
- 2. Problem
- 3. Opinion
- 4. Justification
- 5. Final Comment

Besides, what is clearly noted in the general structure of the text sections is that they are not organised in separate paragraphs and that the Opinion Section is the third section. This, however, differs from other texts, which have separate paragraphs.
and fewer sections as well. Here is an example of this type of text taken from the *Perspectives* (Hopkins, 1989).

**Should Military Service Be Compulsory**

Military service is compulsory in most countries of the world. In some European countries all citizens are required to spend two years full-time in the army, air force or navy from the age of eighteen and to continue to train on a part-time basis throughout their adult lives to be ready in case of war. In other countries, notably Britain and the United States, military service is not compulsory.

In this essay I intend to look at some of the arguments for and against compulsory military service. First I want to look at the arguments in its favour.

I think there are three main points in support of compulsory military service. Firstly, all countries need a military force. This force defends all the citizens in times of war and therefore all citizens should make some contribution. The second point is a practical one. If a country is unable to attract enough volunteers to the military service then it cannot operate an effective defence. The third and most often mentioned point is that military service is a good discipline for young people – it teaches them practical and social skills and encourages them to take responsibility for themselves and others. A society with compulsory military service is therefore a better society.

The main arguments against are to do with individual freedom. Many people question the value of a young person breaking his or her career or education in order to learn how to kill.

In my opinion, military service should not be compulsory, but some kind of useful social service should be. That is, all young people should be required either to do military service or to work with disadvantaged groups in the community - for example, with those in hospitals, old people's homes, special schools. This experience would be valuable to the community and would also build a sense of responsibility in the individual. However, whether a person chooses military or community service, their commitment should be part-time so that education and career are not interrupted. I also think that all young people should be involved - male and female.

(Hopkins, 1989, p.70)

The text above consists of four sections which are clearly organised into separate paragraphs. The first section, which is the Background Information Section, is similar to that text in the *Outlines*, whereas the second and third sections are different compared with the text in the *Outlines* (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989). The
second section in the above text is the statement of the text organisation which tells the reader how the text is organised. This section is done in two sentences and it refers forward to the rest of the text. The words which were used to refer to the rest of the text are: "this essay", "intend", and "first" (Hopkins, 1989, p. 70).

The third section, which is the Arguments 'for' and 'against', is the section where many reasons are given to support the arguments and which also embodies the Exposition genre. This section is similar to the Justification Section in the Outlines since it justifies or gives reasons to support the judgment. However, the arguments for and against section is different from the text in the Outlines in two respects. It gives two different arguments: for and against and gives reasons for each to support. The other difference is that this section is organised into two separate paragraphs. One more point to be added here is that the phrase 'I think' is generally used to express opinion. However, in this section, the writer is not giving his own opinion, but presenting the main arguments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paragraph 1 Arguments for</th>
<th>Paragraph 2 Arguments against</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introductory sentence:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Introductory sentence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think there are three main points in favour of military service.</td>
<td>The main arguments against are to do with individual freedom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Point 1</strong></td>
<td><strong>Point 1</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firstly, all countries need a military to defend citizens in times of War.</td>
<td>Many people question the value of a young person breaking his or her career or education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Point 2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Point 2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a country is unable to attract enough volunteers to the military then it cannot operate an effective defence.</td>
<td>In order to learn how to kill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Point 3</strong></td>
<td><strong>Point 3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Service is a good discipline for young people.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final section is the Statement of Opinion where the writer's opinion is said. It parallels that final section in the Outlines, i.e. the Final Comment Section.
Thus, the final rhetorical structure of this text in the *Perspectives* can be summarised as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paragraph 1</th>
<th>Giving background information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph 2</td>
<td>Stating how the essay is organised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph 3</td>
<td>Arguments for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory sentence</td>
<td>• Point 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Point 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Point 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph 4</td>
<td>Arguments against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory sentence</td>
<td>• Point 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Point 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph 5</td>
<td>Stating your opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last point, however, which should be talked about when these two texts are compared is that no clear explanation or justification has been presented to clarify the reason why the statement of opinions about a particular topic is organised into one paragraph not into separate ones in the text in the *Outlines*, or why the sections of the text in the *Perspectives* have been revised and this why they are, to some extent, different from the sections of the text in the *Outlines*. Students, however, should know the differences among the genres and know the reasons behind the change among the genres of the same type so that they can write them consistently and successfully.

In addition, this type of genre is also dealt with in the *Academic Writing Course* at the advanced level of the B.Ed. programme. The example of the Exposition genre in this book is different from the two examples of Exposition genre in the two books *Outlines* and *Perspectives* since the Arguments 'for' and 'against' Section is
dealt with separately without including the other sections. The other Sections the
Introduction and Conclusion are looked at later in the same unit but with a different
topic. The following text is about lecturing as a method of teaching. It looks at the
advantages and disadvantages of this particular idea looking at arguments 'for' and
'against'. Here is the text from the Academic Writing Course:

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Lecturing Method
Lecturing as a method of teaching is so frequently under attack today from educational
psychologists and by students that some justification is needed to retain it. Critics
believe that it results in passive methods of learning which tend to be less effective than
those which fully engage the learner. They also maintain that students have no
opportunity to ask questions and must all receive the same content at the same pace, that
they are exposed only to one teacher’s interpretation of subject matter which will
inevitably be biased and that, anyway, few lectures rise above dullness. Nevertheless, in
a number of inquiries this pessimistic assessment of lecturing as a teaching method
proves not to be general among students, although they do fairly often comment on poor
lecturing techniques.

Students praise lectures which are clear, orderly synopses in which basic
principles are emphasised, but dislike too numerous digressions or lectures which
consist in part of the contexts of a textbook. Students of science subjects consider that a
lecture is a good way to introduce a new subject, putting it in its context, or to present
material not yet included in books. They also appreciate its value as a period of
discussion of problems and possible solutions with their lecturer. They do not
look for inspiration – this is more commonly mentioned by teachers – but arts students look for
originality in lectures. Medical and dental students who have reported on teaching
methods, or specifically on lecturing suggest that there should be fewer lectures or that,
at the least, more would be unpopular.

(Jordan, 1999, pp. 76-77)

The text above is similar to the text in the Perspectives (Hopkins, 1989) which
was about ‘Military service’, in two respects. The first is that the Arguments ‘for’ and
‘against’ Section is organised into two paragraphs. But the arguments ‘against’ in this
text are looked at first, whereas the arguments ‘for’ are dealt with later. The second
similarity of this text to the text in the Perspectives (Hopkins, 1989) is that in both
texts the writers are not giving their opinions but presenting arguments 'for' and 'against'. Therefore, the style of writing is impersonal in both texts.

Moreover, the difference between the text above and the one in the Perspectives is that the writer of the above text is assessing several different views held by different groups of students and a number of generalisations have been used. These generalisations are more clear and accurate since they are qualified. This kind of qualification has been made through giving certain different opinions of certain groups.

**Explanations**

It can be noticed from what has been discussed above that Expositions take longer to be explained and each argument may be explained in a separate paragraph. However, this is not the case with Explanations. As clarified by Martin (1989), Explanations do not need to be longer but they are needed to help in “developing the argumentations” which is “needed in Expository texts” (p. 12). Martin (1989) makes it clear that Explanations concentrate on “a judgment” made by the writer and that “justifying” it “seems to be the most common use of Explanations” (pp. 11-12). The following text explains the use of explanations but not in the way Explanations occur in some expository texts which involve impersonal judgements and justifications. This text is from the Outlines (Hopkins & Tribble, 1989) and it is from the point of view of students.

Today we did what I always wished to do. We had a test. Tests are important to show you where you still are weak. By a test you feel you are 'strong' or about which topic you need to study more. Why can't we make such an exercise in class? Not as a test but just to discuss the problems. Or why not work with such a sheet at home and ask questions at school?

(Hopkins & Tribble, 1989, p.16)
In the text above the writer describes what happened in the class, e.g. *We had a test*. She/he gives a reason for feelings, e.g. *Today we did what I always wished to do*. The writer then describes his/her feeling/attitude and gives a reason for this feeling/attitude, e.g. *Tests are important to show you where you still are weak*. Finally, he/she makes suggestions, e.g. *Why can't we make such an exercise in class? Why not work with a sheet at home and ask questions at school?*

However, this text is similar to Recounts and Reports since it talks about a particular event. This event happened in the class and has been experienced by a student. It uses the past tense to describe this event that happened in the class and uses the past verb ‘had’. Like Reports, it is general – it explains why tests are important. The Explanations genre in the text above concentrates on a judgement made by the student who says: *tests are important* and he gives justification or a reason for its importance which is: *to show you where you still are weak*. Nevertheless, the rhetorical structure or sections of this text is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describing feelings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describing something that happened in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving reasons for feeling / attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making suggestions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This kind of genre can also be found in the *Perspectives* (Hopkins, 1989) but in the form of cause and effect relationship. Here are some examples:

- The match this afternoon is cancelled because of bad weather.
- People are in danger as a result of radiation leaks from nuclear power stations.

(Hopkins, 1989, p.15)
The relationship between the parts of each text is that of cause-effect relationship. The reason behind the effect or consequence is explained. In the first text, for example, the second part explains why the match is cancelled. It gives justification for this cancellation. This text, however, is like Procedures in using the present passive verb forms (is + verb stem + ed) but unlike Procedures since it is not general. It is like Recounts in referring to a particular event.

The second text is like Procedures and Reports, it is general. It explains why people are in danger. This explanation focuses on a judgement of the writer which says people are in danger. However, the thing which can be noticed here is that the cause-effect linker which was used is not the common or familiar linker 'because'.

Similarly, this is the case with the Explanations genre found in the Academic Writing Course book intended for the advanced level of the B.Ed. programme. In this coursebook, this kind of genre is practised at the level of separate sentences through explaining the cause-effect relationship. These sentences are not more developed explanatory texts. Here are some examples of the cause-effect relationship:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connectives</th>
<th>Heat</th>
<th>Prices rose.</th>
<th>Any marks on the leaves are probably</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>causes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a result</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>iron to expand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>fewer goods were sold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the same virus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Jordan, 1999, p. 58)

The causes in these texts are put into boxes, whereas the effects are underlined. But what is noted here is that the cause is sometimes given before the effect and the effect is also sometimes given first. This also happens in the example
given above from the *Perspectives* (Hopkins, 1989). What can be observed here about the Explanations genre is that different kinds of connectives can be used.

In conclusion, the analysis of genres in all the writing coursebooks used in the B.Ed. programme indicated that different types of genres were used in these coursebooks. It showed that Recounts occurred in large numbers along with Expositions in these books. They were found in all the three coursebooks. It is, however, worth mentioning that Expositions genre in the *Academic Writing Course*, which is intended for the advanced level students, was dealt with as a separate section disconnected from the other sections - Introduction and Conclusion, which are available in this coursebook later in the same unit with a different topic. Therefore, the Exposition genre is to be practised separately with a different topic and subject matter.

In addition, the analysis of genres in these writing coursebooks also showed that Explanations genre in these books was not used in a way that develops argumentation needed in expository texts. For instance, the example of this type of genre in the *Outlines* given above is more personal since it expresses one's own feelings but “writing is impersonal” and it “discourages the overt expression of feelings and attitudes” (Martin, 1989, p. 12). The other examples of this type of genre in the *Perspectives* and *Academic Writing Course* shown above are not more developed explanatory texts, especially for the undergraduate college students. They do not teach students to give, for instance, subsequent justifications of each judgment. They are practised at a sentence level in the form of cause-effect relationship. Therefore, students at the advanced level practise such type of genre in a simple way.

Descriptions were only used in the advanced level of the B.Ed. Programme. Reports writing occurred in two coursebooks *Outlines* and *Perspectives* but it is missing from
the Academic Writing Course. Procedures occurred only in the advanced level coursebook Academic Writing Course.

Thus, it is clear from the analysis of genres in all the writing coursebooks used in the B.Ed. programme that only Recounts and Expositions occurred in large numbers in these coursebooks. Recounts in these books tell “how things get done” but “they do not generalise beyond particular experiences” (Martin, 1989, p. 6). Students, however, can learn through narrative writing; expressing their experiences but what is also needed in writing is “to go beyond particular experiences, in order to interpret and understand” (Martin, 1989, p. 6), though “the impersonality of writing bothers some people” since “they find it cold and alienating” (Martin, 1989, p. 4).

Like Recounts, Expositions, along with the function of “organising arguments in support of a thesis”, can do the function of entertaining and this also depends on “whenever a writer wishes to design them in this way” (Martin, 1989, p. 15). However, the preoccupation with certain genres may result in a negative effect on students’ ability to learn to write. For students have different attitudes regarding what they want to learn. Moreover, this effect may be extended to the outside classroom or business context of the students in Yemen where certain genres are needed like Descriptions. For instance, students in Yemen may need Descriptions to learn to write how a particular person is like. This is what is uncovered in these coursebooks.

Genres, thus, should be dealt with equally, especially those that students will need to use in business or outside classroom contexts. Recounts are important but “creativity has much more to do with mastering a genre and then adjusting it to meet one’s own purposes than writing stories” (Martin, 1989, p. 15). Notwithstanding, the point that should be borne in mind is that teachers in college settings should draw the
students’ attention to the similarities and differences among genres so that they can have confidence in what they write.

The next section will show the impact of genre analysis on the teaching of writing for academic purposes.

3.1 Genre Analysis and its Impact on Teaching Writing

Bhatia (1993) suggests seven steps for investigating any genre but on the basis of the aim of the analysis, the type of genre to be analysed, and the familiarity with the genre that is intended to be examined. The first step is to consider the context of the text in order to know the textual “clues” (p. 22) used and the purpose behind the writing of this particular text. The analysis of the text may include the analysis of “the writer’s previous experience and background knowledge of the specialist discipline as well as that of the communicative conventions typically associated with it” (p. 22).

The second step is to examine detailed studies of a genre of the same text-type or by considering relevant analyses of genres having the same situation. The third step is to improve the social analyses of the text. This can be done through describing “the speaker / writer of the text” (p. 23), the receivers, “their role-relationship and their goals” (p. 23), and the text relationships to the related texts and the social context which form this target text.

The fourth step is to choose the correct type and number of texts which are intended to be analysed. This will depend on describing the target “genre/sub-genre” (p. 23) in a good way in order to distinguish it from other text-types. The description should involve telling the aim of the text, its social setting(s), and its “textual” (p. 23) properties. The fifth step is to examine a university, school, etc. setting where the target genre is practised. That is, to find out about the “linguistic, social, culture,
academic”, and “professional” (p. 24) activities and systems that control the act of using language in this institution.

The sixth step is to determine the aspects of language that are intended to be examined in the target genre. These aspects may be the words and grammatical structures contained in the genre. This may involve using quantitative examination of these aspects that are mostly characterising that target genre. Other aspects of language might be the parts of the text that organise and form it such as structures, vocabulary, and discourse and their function in use. The examination of such aspects reflects the importance given by text writers to these parts. Also, there are other aspects that can be examined in the target genre. These aspects are those, which are related to the organisational structure of the genre, i.e. the way the genre is organised.

The seventh step is to examine the findings against other “specialist informant” (p. 34). That is, help is needed from a particular specialist who has experience with the target genre to be analysed. This informant would ensure “validity” and “psychological reality” (p. 34) to the analysis (Bhatia, 1993).

However, from what has been explained above, it is evident that knowledge of genre analysis helped a lot in teaching writing. This knowledge of genre analysis has been exemplified in the coursebooks which have been produced for teaching writing. These books contain exercises which reflect all the genre features that underlie the analysis of any genre. Here is an exercise from a writing book which is entitled Perspectives (Hopkins, 1989). This exercise raises the students’ awareness of the importance of the context of text: its purpose, the audience, and the genre type.
Points to consider when writing

3 check the key to make sure you have completed exercise 2 correctly. You will now realise that writers make mistakes not only of punctuation, spelling, grammar and organisation but also of appropriacy. To write appropriately it is important to consider the following points carefully:

Our purpose for writing.
The audience – the person or people we are writing to.
The type of text chosen (letter, telex, report, etc.)

Look at these two texts, work with your partner to fill in the grid at the top of the next page. Then discuss with your group the features (words, grammar, pictures, etc.) that helped you to decide.

A

It was a lovely morning in Greendale. The sun was shining. The birds were singing. Where was Postman Pat? It was long past his time to be up and on his way, but his curtains were closed and his van stood outside. All was silent and still.

Then... the door opened and Pat looked out. He looked sleepily at his watch. “Oh dear, is it that time?”

Postman Pat’s Difficult Day.

B

Sitter target

Now that I am 14 my parents have finally allowed me to baby sit for my three sisters, who are 12, and 10 and eight. But my grandmother strongly disapproves, saying that by law I cannot be left responsible for younger children until I am 16. Is this true? I fear she is purposely misinforming my parents to weaken their trust in me.

Julia
Chichester
West Sussex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEXT</th>
<th>PURPOSE</th>
<th>AUDIENCE</th>
<th>TEXT TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>Story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Hopkins, 1989, pp.12-13)

The above exercise, however, would help students to be aware of the important aspects of writing, i.e., the context of writing — purpose and audience,
which determines the content and style of a text. These aspects should be stated clearly to the students when assigning them writing tasks so that they can write effectively.

Nevertheless, such a task does not ask the students to go through the actual process of writing through which students can discover a meaning as they write. Instead, they are asked to fill in a grid and discuss the surface aspects of writing such as words and grammar that can find their place as writing goes on.

This, therefore, may give the students the wrong belief that writing is the skill of controlling words and grammar. Thus, writing should not be practised and acquired through exercises such as filling the blanks or grids. Students should be encouraged to write rough drafts, revise, edit, and redraft. Such an act can, then, be named as the real practice of writing.

Here is another example from the same book, which describes the schematic structure for the arguments 'for' and 'against':

3.3 Stating the arguments for and against
In this section you are presenting the main arguments. Remember that you are not giving your own opinions. A good way to construct this section can be represented like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARAGRAPH 1</th>
<th>PARAGRAPH 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARGUMENTS FOR</td>
<td>ARGUMENTS AGAINST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory sentence</td>
<td>Introductory sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(there are three main points...)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point 1</td>
<td>Point 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Firstly...)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point 2</td>
<td>Point 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(The Second Point...)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(The Third argument...)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Now look at the sample text. Find the introductory sentences and main points and label them.

(Hopkins, 1989, p. 72)
The exercise above would help students to be aware of certain information on the organisational structure of the Section Arguments ‘for’ and ‘against’ of an essay. This structure would guide the students when writing. But such information would restrict the students to this certain prescribed structure, which can be determined through group discussions. This discussion decides the schematic structure of the target text.

The latest example here is from the *Perspectives* (Hopkins, 1989), which represents the general structure or organisation of an essay.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing model</th>
<th>5 In this unit you have worked with the following model for an essay:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARAGRAPH 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Giving background information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARAGRAPH 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stating how the essay is organised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARAGRAPH 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arguments for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Introductory sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Point 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Point 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Point 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARAGRAPH 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arguments for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Introductory sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Point 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Point 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARAGRAPH 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stating your opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Hopkins, 1989, p. 73)
Again, the example written above would help students to be aware of certain information on the organisational structure of an essay (i.e. five sections). Further, the example would help them know what should be included in each section. But there is a certain sort of restriction regarding the number of paragraphs. The restriction may give the belief that any essay should be consisted of five paragraphs but not more or less than this limit. This, therefore, may lead the students to increase the size of the paragraphs in case they have a lot of ideas which should be written or translated into more than five paragraphs. Nevertheless, the following sections will try to show the place of context in semantics and pragmatics and its importance as well as its place in the writing coursebooks used in the B.Ed. programme at Aden University.

3.2 The Place of Context

Carnie and Harley (2003) say that Chomsky (1957, 1965) is the one who has split the field of linguistics into two groups regarding the attitudes, methods, and experiments of the discipline. Traditional grammarians, they clarify, who followed the work of the “Prague school of linguistics” and the linguists of the “computational neural net theory” and “typological descriptive traditions” name themselves as “functional linguists”. These linguists concentrated on the communicative function of the grammatical structure. The other group, Carnie and Harley (2003) continue to clarify, is that which followed “the American Structuralists School of linguistics” (e.g. the work of Bloomfield), and was strengthened in “Chomskyan generative grammar”, and other approaches. This group focused on the form and structure of the language and name themselves as formalists (p. 1).
The distinction between being as functionalist or formalist, Carnie and Harley (2003) make it clear, appears to have something to do with a number of dimensions. These dimensions, which are the results of the work of Croft (1995) and Newmeyer (1998), are as follows:

1. The degree to which structure is involved in “grammatical theory”, i.e., to be less dependent on structure is a sign of being more functionalist.

2. The part “arbitrariness” plays in grammar: Formalists say that language as well as the grammar is mainly arbitrary, whereas the most radical functionalists see that arbitrariness is that of lexical.

3. The independency of “syntax”: Many formalists see that grammatical knowledge can formally be defined without describing their situational or contextual function. Dissimilarly, all functionalists acknowledge the importance of the contextual function of the grammatical facts in shaping the form of language.

4. The “diachronic and synchronic” difference: Formalists see that the linguistic theory must define the grammatical knowledge of a speaker at a particular period of time without mentioning the historical events which developed that grammatical knowledge. Dissimilarly, functionalists see that the description of the grammatical knowledge is not complete unless there is an understanding of the historical events which caused that development.

5. The “competence and performance” difference: Formalists say that the core grammatical rules can be described without taking into account the “production comprehension system”, which explains them, whereas the functionalists see that the “performance system” is as much important as the “competence system”.

6. The issue for what should be included as data: Formalists depend on “grammaticality” decisions, “typological comparison” and “data from language
acquisition”, whereas functionalists rely on statistical measurements as well as “historical” and “sociological” information which are rejected from the formalists (Carnie & Harley, 2003, p. 2).

Taking the two perspectives clarified above into account, the proposed new approach in this study will not neglect the importance of teaching the form of language to get an error-free piece of writing but within the context of the writing process. The main aim of this new approach is to help students understand that writing is a tool of using a language in its communicative context to discover meaning going through certain processes such as planning, organising, composing, revising, editing, and redrafting. So, and since meaning is concerned, the following section will give an overview of the different researchers’ views on meaning from their different scopes.

3.3 Meanings of Meaning

Most writers on semantics may give the same statement about the subject ‘Semantics’ as the study of meaning. However, each may speak about what is meant by meaning differently.

Leech (1974) mentions three main points about the study of meaning. The first point is that it is wrong to define meaning by restricting it to “the terms of sciences (i.e. the terms of psychology or chemistry) other than the science of language: e.g. to the terms of psychology or chemistry” (p. 9). The second point is that meaning should be examined as “a linguistic phenomenon” within the domain of language. The third and last point is that “knowledge of language and knowledge of the real world” must be distinguished (p. 9).

Lyons (1977) says that semanticists often stress the fact that the words “meaning” and “to mean” are having a large number of different meanings in the
different contexts of sentences, which are not unrelated. Nevertheless, their relation to each other, he also says, is not easy and causing a lot of discussion and disagreement. He indicates that the semanticists, to whatever degree, disagree with the relevance of the terms “intention” and “significance” to the sense of “meaning”. These terms have something to do with the lowest possible number of the senses of “meaning” and “to mean”. He adds that the idea of “communication” presumes the idea of “significance” and “intention” and that the words and sentences of a language signify a meaning in relation to what their users intend to mean (Lyons, 1977, pp. 1-4). Richards et. al (1992) also defines ‘meaning’ as: “what a language expresses about the world we live in or any possible or imaginary world” (pp. 222).

Beside what has been said above, the Indian linguists have also their own words to say about ‘meaning’ and they have really introduced new ideas and ways of defining it. Prakasam and Abbi (1986), for example, presented a comprehensive view of meaning from the viewpoint of linguists. They explain that human life surrounds “three worlds of experience: the cognitive, the physical, and the linguistic” which make up three names as a “triangle”: “the idea, item, and label”. Prakasam and Abbi indicate that the idea is represented by the linguistic label that stands for physical item and includes the concrete and the abstract experience which explains the idea. They define this relationship as the “ILI relationship”, which can productively be used in the communicative situation which includes the speaker and the hearer (pp. 1-2).

![ILI Triangle Box](Prakasam & Abbi, 1986, p.1)
This relationship, Prakasam and Abbi (1986) also clarify, can be explained the other way round. The idea is demonstrated (manifestation) in the item which explains it; the idea is held very firmly in our minds (fixation) by the label which stands for it; the use of the label is made stronger (reinforcement) by an item which is represented by the label.

Meaning can, they conclude, be defined as a term used to express the relationships among the three different worlds of experience. With this perspective in mind, the following two sections will attempt to expose the place of the context in semantics and pragmatics, which has its significance in clearly imparting the intended meaning as well as its importance in language comprehension.

3.4 Semantics and Pragmatics

The problem of differentiating 'Language' and 'language use' is analogous to the dispute between semantics and pragmatics. Both are concerned with meaning. But meaning in pragmatics, as indicated by Leech (1983), can be defined in relation to "a speaker or user of the language", whereas meaning in semantics can be defined in relation to "the expressions in a particular language", without taking into account the particular "situations, speakers, or hearers". He then changes the definition of pragmatics for the purposes of linguistics, as he said, as concerned with meaning in
relation to “speech situation” (p. 6). Richards et al. (1992) has also defined pragmatics as the examination of language in use, especially how the “sentences and the context and situations in which they are used” (284) are connected? Pragmatics, in particular, he made it clear, examines:

a. how the interpretation and use of utterances depend on knowledge of world  
b. how speakers use and understand SPEECH ACTS  
c. how the structure of sentences is influenced by the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. (pp. 284-285)

For Peccei (1999) semantics and pragmatics are primarily the two topics of “linguistic study”, which consider the knowledge used both to get meaning when hearing or reading and to impart meaning when speaking or writing. In defining semantics and pragmatics, however, Peccei does not differ from those who defined them above. Semantics, for Peccei, focuses on meaning that depends completely on “linguistic knowledge”, whereas pragmatics focuses on meaning that relies on “the physical and social world” (pp. 1-2). Nevertheless, Verma and Prakasham (1993) define semantics and pragmatics in a particular logical way. They describe semantics as “the study of code-based meaning”, whereas pragmatics as “the study of coder-based meaning”. They explain that both study meaning which can be included under “semics” which is “the study of meaning” (p.299).

Verma and Prakasham (1993) explain that the minimum standard measurement of “code-based meaning is ‘sememe’” and the minimum standard measurement of “coder-based meaning is ‘pragmeme’” and that understanding a particular discourse requires hearer / reader to decipher all the sememes and pragmemes. A lack of understanding one of the two or both may cause a failure of communication. They make it clear that the “source”; the person who starts the process of communication, who can also be the “target” in certain contexts; may be “a speaker, a writer or
a character” in the written texts or printed information encodes the information which is intended to be decoded with the help of “the expression structure, a configuration of meanings by the “target”, i.e., a hearer, a reader, the person of a particular group of an audience, or another character” (p. 299) in the written texts.

Beside what has been said above, Verma and Prakasam (1993) painted a very beautiful picture of this recreative process. They explain that there are noticeable stages of communication process when the source thinks to communicate his ideas. He filters off the 1) “shared information” and the 2) “private information”. The shared information is that part of information known by the encoder and the decoder by means of being experienced to the same context of situation and context of culture. The private information is that part of information which the source intends to conceal from the target. This act of hiding may include “the truth and devices like irony, sarcasm and flattery”. The original configuration in the mind of the source (i.e. “intention”), they continue to explain, is as a result of “the source, the cognitive capabilities of the source and the factors of the context”. The “message” or “pragmatic configuration” is obtained when “private filters” conceal the private information, whereas the “content”; “the meaning” or “the semantic structure” is obtained when “shared filters” filter off the “sociocultural and contextual information”.

```
SOURCE [Nature, Capabilities, Factors]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{INTENTION} & \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{PRIVATE FILTERS} \\
& \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{SHARED FILTERS} \\
& \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{MESSAGE OR PRAGMATIC CONFIGURATION} \\
& \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CONTENT OR SEMANTIC STRUCTURE}
\end{align*}
\]
```
The content is changed into "expression or formal structure" through "structuration processes". These processes change content into "lexical items, grammatical categories and enunciation device".

The expression structure then becomes "speech" or "writing" through "realisation rules". The "enunciation devices" become intonation patterns in speech and act as punctuation marks in writing; the target gets the signals as a whole.

A gap in the act of receiving signals will make the expression structure received by the target faulty. The target deciphers the information trying to reach the 'intention' through the processes explained above. The target obtains the 'formal structure' and works with the output using "identification techniques" which differ from the realisation rules. The disturbance in the channel or the mental state of the target can cause differences in the formal structure of the source and the target. The mental state of the target, as Verma and Prakasam (1993) clarify, is both the decoder's ability to understand and his command of the code. The ability might be his innate capacity or the capacity at a particular moment in a particular context.
The target brings back "meaning" from the "formal structures" using the "interpretation strategies".

The "content" retrieved is not, however, the total product, since the target should use the shared indicators to obtain the message. Moreover, the private indicators should be used and the nature of the source should be known in order to get the intention of the source. "These information defilter the filtered information".

Any lack of knowledge or information about the indicators, they conclude, may cause wrong decoding of the signals (pp. 299-301).

3.5 The importance of Context

To wind up the discussion, semantics and pragmatics are related areas of study. They both study meaning. However, the basic way into understanding about language depends on the study of texts. This may lead to mentioning two terms which are related: context and text. Halliday (1989) says that they are the topics of the "same process" (p. 5) and that the context is that which also includes what is not said or written, including the "non-verbal" (p. 5) language and the "environment" (p. 5) in which a text is communicated. This, therefore, makes a connection between the text and the situation in which texts appear (Halliday, 1989). Halliday (1989) explains that the idea "context of situations" is essential for interpreting any main language since
culture differs from place to place or from time to time. Therefore, language can be understood in its context of situation (p. 8).

According to Halliday (1989), the social context of a text can be analysed in terms of three concepts; the field, the tenor, and the mode, which help in interpreting a text and the environment in which meanings are communicated. “The field of discourse” denotes “what is happening”, including what is being talked about, “the tenor of discourse” denotes the participants who are taking part in the exchange of meaning; who they are and their role-relationship to each other in the act of exchanging meaning, which affects their way of speaking to each other, and “the mode of discourse” denotes the role language plays in a given situation and the channel used in this particular communication; “spoken or written” or “a combination of the two” (p. 12).

But what is meant by a text? Halliday (1989) defines it as a “language”, which is “functional” having some job in certain social setting. He clarifies that a text “may be spoken or written, or any other medium of expression” (p. 10). For He (1989), “a text is a semantic unit” and a “social” communication of meanings, which are produced by the “social” activities or rules and are communicated by the members of a community in terms of text (pp. 10-11).

Prakasam and Abbi (1986) also discussed the importance of context and culture through their explanation of what Firth said about meaning. According to Firth (1957), they explain, context gives the word a complete meaning and that meaning should be studied in a complete context. They also explain that meaning, according to Firth (1957, pp. 19-26), consists of many different connected “contextual relations, and phonetics, grammar, lexicography and semantics” each controls “its own components of the complex in its appropriate context” (p. 63).
Prakasam and Abbi (1986) contend, based on Firth (1957, p. 29), that meaning is that which explains the "phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic and the semantic" functions and the "context of situation (semantic function)". They indicate that the cultural "study of words", according to (Firth, 1957, p. 29), defines "the semantic aspect of language" (p. 63). Prakasam and Abbi (1986) state that meaning is found at the level of "form and the interlevels of medium and context" having three types of meaning: "(i) phonological or graphological meaning – significance; (ii) formal meaning – value (lexical and grammatical); and (iii) contextual meaning – content (semantic and pragmatic)" (p. 79), and that they are, they clarify, a sign of a good analysis of any piece of language. Thus, the explanation of the importance of context discussed above supports the researcher's suggestion to include the genre approach in the syllabus of Aden University as context of situation contributes to the success of the writing process. Therefore, the following section will try to consider the place of context in the writing coursebooks used at Aden University.

3.6 The Place of Context in the Writing Coursebooks Used at Aden University

It is possible to find in these coursebooks writing tasks which do not specify a context to help the students when they start writing. In the book Academic Writing Course, for example, which is intended for use at the advanced level of ESL / EFL instruction at Aden University, Yemen, Exercise 2, in Unit 6, which says: "Write a brief explanation of the advantages of knowing a foreign language with some examples" (p. 42), has no context. This is because of the absence of the reason for writing and for whom this explanation should be written.

If I were a student I would certainly want to know why and who for? How should I explain these advantages? Could I write this explanation in the way I would explain it to a friend or the way I would explain these advantages in a university...
exam? Without a context it is not easy to know what to include and what to exclude, or how to write any piece of writing; in a formal or an informal way.

This also reminded me with the letter I have written to my embassy in Delhi asking them to write for me a coverage letter to my university in Yemen. At that time, I was preparing myself for the field work and I wanted my university to send me tickets so that I could go back to my country to do the research project for my Ph.D. programme. But my university will not send me the tickets unless I send them a coverage letter from the Yemeni Embassy in Delhi.

In such situation, I have a reader in mind, i.e. the cultural attaché who worked at the embassy and who decided the style of my letter; formal, and there was the purpose for writing which was getting a coverage letter from the embassy to send it to my university so that they can send me the tickets. This context, however, provided me with a motive for writing. Hedge (1989) contends that the basis of "content and style" (p. 9) when writing relies on knowledge of readers to whom the act of writing is done. Thus, the context of writing is very important since it helps in writing effectively. This also another support for the researcher's suggestion to include the genre approach in the syllabus of English Departments at Aden University.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has explored the use of genre analysis in all the writing course books used in the Departments of English/Colleges of Education at Aden University. It has then clarified the impact of genre analysis on the teaching of writing for academic purposes.

The chapter concluded with showing the place of context in semantics and pragmatics and its importance as well as the place of context in the writing coursebooks used at Aden University. The next chapter will present an analysis of the
data collected by different research tools and a summary of the findings of the analysis of the data of each tool used.