



THE RHETORICAL DEVELOPMENT REALIZATIONS  
OF THE READING TEXTS  
OF THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH  
TEXTBOOKS.

DISSERTATION

In partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the doctor degree in English Education

PERPUSTAKAAN  
UNNES

Dwi Rukmini  
2201602004

THE POST GRADUATE PROGRAM  
SEMARANG STATE UNIVERSITY  
2007

## ABSTRACT

Dwi Rukmini, 2007. *The Rhetorical Development Realizations of the Reading Texts in the Senior High School English Textbooks*. Dissertation. Study Program: English Education. Graduate Program, Semarang State University.

Promoter: Prof. Dr. Abbas Badib, MA, MA; Co-promoters: (1) Prof. Retmono Ph.D.; (2) Prof. Mursid Saleh, Ph.D.

Key words: rhetorical development, realization, lexicogrammar feature, reading text, genre.

The study is an attempt to examine the rhetorical development realization of reading texts of the *Senior High School* (SHS) English textbooks. Based on the research problem, this study is aimed at finding out the various genres available in the textbooks for SHS students, describing how those texts achieve their respective social purposes, explaining how their respective rhetorical developments serve to achieve their respective social purposes, describing how the linguistic features serve to accomplish their respective social purposes, explaining how compatible those texts are with the 2006 English Curriculum (2006 EC).

The method of the study is discourse analysis, and the approach is qualitative, however a simple quantification of the evidence in the form of percentage was done to support the finding. The data are all the reading texts provided in the six English textbooks published by six different publishers. They are the six out of fourteen publishers which are recommended by the Indonesian government to be used to teach English in the SHS. Two of the textbooks are for the tenth grade; two for the eleventh; and two for the twelfth. They are all a hundred and fifteen reading texts. The units of analysis consist of two kinds; a text and a clause. The former is for knowing the genre; it was done by segmenting the reading text into elements. The latter was done to find out how the elements of the text are realized based on the three strands of meanings that a clause can encode, the ones suggested by Halliday (1994). Those three meanings are: the interpersonal, textual, and the experiential meanings; however in this study the last meaning, the meaning of the text as representation is the priority since the texts analyzed were written ones.

The results reveal that there are thirteen genres available in the textbooks analyzed; two of them, anecdote and commentary, are not required by 2006 EC.

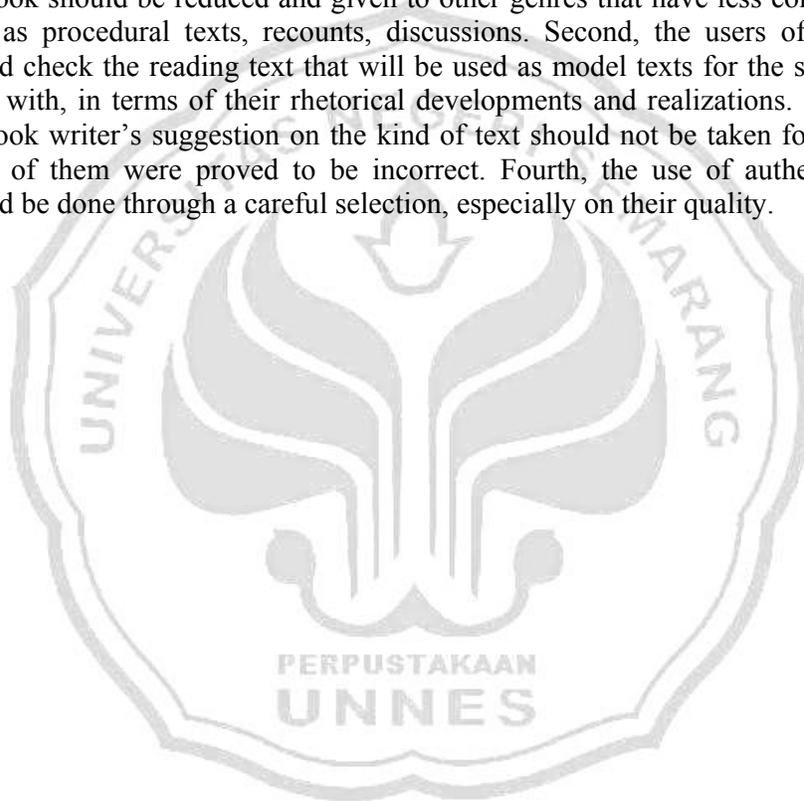
The distribution proportion among the genres is not balanced. Narrations are very dominant (20 %) and Procedures contribute the least constituent (1.7 %).

Eleven out of a hundred and fifteen reading texts are problematic. This indicates that most of them have good rhetorical developments and realizations, therefore they achieve their respective social purposes and can be used as model texts. Three of the texts are problematic since the kinds of text suggested by the writer are incorrect. Their rhetorical development analyses prove that they should have been classified into other genres.

In terms of the rhetorical development realization, ten out of eleven reading texts are problematic. Therefore they fail to achieve their social purposes. The following are the reasons : the clauses do not have MOOD for they have no subjects; some others use inappropriate time circumstances; the clauses do not make use of the thematization organization for the text to provide cohesion; the inappropriate use of minor clause is available in the text; and some clauses use inappropriate modals.

The final conclusion is that most of the reading texts (90.43 %) are compatible with the 2006 EC

There are four suggestions offered. First, the quantity of narratives in the textbook should be reduced and given to other genres that have less contribution, such as procedural texts, recounts, discussions. Second, the users of textbook should check the reading text that will be used as model texts for the students to work with, in terms of their rhetorical developments and realizations. Third, the textbook writer's suggestion on the kind of text should not be taken for granted; some of them were proved to be incorrect. Fourth, the use of authentic texts should be done through a careful selection, especially on their quality.



## ABSTRAK

Dwi Rukmini, 2007. *Realisasi Bangunan Retorika Teks Bacaan dalam Buku Teks Bahasa Inggris Sekolah Menengah Atas*. Disertasi. Program Studi: Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris. Program Pascasarjana Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, Universitas Negeri Semarang.  
Promotor: Prof. Abbas Badib, Ph.D., M.A, M.A; Kopromotor: Prof. Retmono; Ph.D.; Anggota: Prof. Mursid Saleh.

Kata kunci: bangunan retorika, realisasi, fitur lexis dan tata-bahasa, teks bacaan, genre.

Penelitian ini berusaha menilai realisasi bangunan retorika teks dalam buku teks bahasa Inggris Sekolah Menengah Atas (SMA). Berdasarkan masalah penelitiannya, penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mendapatkan informasi tentang berbagai genre yang terdapat dalam buku teks bahasa Inggris SMA, menjelaskan bagaimana teks-teks tersebut mencapai tujuan sosialnya; menerangkan sejauh mana bangunan retorika teks menyokong pencapaian tujuan sosialnya; menjelaskan sejauh mana fitur-fitur lexis dan tata bahasa yang merealisasi bangunan retorika teks mendukung pencapaian tujuan sosialnya; dan bagaimana teks-teks tersebut berkesesuaian dengan kurikulum bahasa Inggris 2006 (2006 KBI 2006).

Metode penelitian yang dipakai dalam penelitian ini adalah analisa diskursus, dan pendekatannya adalah kualitatif berhubung penghitungan statistika tidak diperlukan. Walaupun begitu penghitungan sederhana terhadap bukti-bukti yang diperoleh dalam bentuk prosentasi dilakukan untuk mendukung temuan-temuan yang didapat.

Data penelitian ini adalah semua teks bacaan yang terdapat dalam enam buku teks bahasa Inggris yang diterbitkan oleh penerbit yang berbeda. Keenam penerbit buku teks tersebut adalah enam dari empat belas yang diberi rekomendasi pemerintah Indonesia untuk menerbitkan secara resmi buku teks bahasa Inggris untuk jenjang pendidikan Sekolah Menengah Pertama dan SMA.. Dua buku teks untuk kelas sepuluh; dua, untuk kelas sebelas ;dan dua, untuk kelas dua-belas. Jumlah teks bacaan yang diteliti sebanyak seratus lima belas. Unit analisa penelitian ini ada dua teks dan klausa. Yang pertama untuk menentukan jenis teks. Yang kedua untuk menjelaskan bagaimana pilihan-pilihan lexis dan tata-bahasa teks merealisasi elemen-elemen bangunan retorikanya; dilakukan berdasarkan 'three strands of meanings' yang disarankan Halliday (1994). Tiga arti tersebut adalah arti interpersonal, tekstual dan 'experiential', walaupun demikian arti yang terakhir yang lebih dominan dari kedua yang lain berhubung teks yang diteliti adalah teks tulis.

Hasil penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa didalam buku teks yang diteliti terdapat tiga belas *genre*, dua diantaranya, anekdot dan komentar, tidak termasuk genre yang disarankan untuk diajarkan di SMA dalam kurikulum bahasa Inggris 2006.

Proporsi distribusi masing-masing genre tidak merata. Narasi terlalu dominan (20%) dan teks prosedur terlalu sedikit (1,7%)

Terdapat sebelas teks bacaan dari seratus lima belas teks yang diteliti terbukti bermasalah. Indikasinya adalah bahwa sebagian besar teks bacaan tersebut cenderung mempunyai bangunan retorika dan realisasi yang baik sehingga tujuan sosialnya tercapai dan dapat menjadi teks model bagi siswa.

Tiga dari sebelas teks bermasalah tersebut disebabkan oleh penentuan jenis teks yang keliru yang disarankan oleh penulis. Bangunan retorika teks-teks tersebut, setelah diteliti, termasuk jenis teks yang lain.

Dalam hal realisasi bangunan retorikanya, sepuluh dari sebelas teks bacaan yang bermasalah, tidak merealisasi bangunan retorikanya dengan baik, sehingga tujuan social teksnya cenderung tidak tercapai. Penyebabnya adalah sebagai berikut: beberapa klausa teks tidak memiliki subjek, beberapa klausa memiliki keterangan waktu yang kurang tepat, klausa-klausa teks tidak memanfaatkan organisasi tema-remas yang dapat menjamin kohesivitas teks; terdapat frase yang berdiri sendiri sebagai klausa, beberapa klausa tidak menggunakan 'modals' dengan tepat..

Kesimpulan akhir penelitian ini adalah bahwa sebagian besar teks dalam enam buku teks yang diteliti (90,43%) berkesuaian dengan kurikulum bahasa Inggris 2006.

Ada empat saran yang diusulkan. Yang pertama jumlah teks naratif sebaiknya dikurangi, porsinya dapat diberikan kepada jenis-jenis teks yang lain yang terbukti (berdasarkan hasil penelitian ini) berkontribusi kecil, seperti teks prosedur, 'recount', diskusi. Pengguna buku teks sebaiknya mengecek teks bacaan yang akan dijadikan model teks bagi para siswa. Pengecekannya meliputi bangunan retorika teks dan realisasinya. Yang ketiga, penentuan jenis teks yang disarankan penulis buku jangan dianggap pasti benar, terbukti beberapa saran keliru. Yang keempat, pemakaian teks otentik sebaiknya melalui pemilihan yang seksama, terutama dalam segi kualitasnya.

## APPROVAL

This dissertation has been approved by the Board of Examiners in the open examination held by the Post Graduate Program of Semarang State University on  
day : Tuesday  
date : November, 20<sup>th</sup>, 2007

Chairperson/Rector

Secretary/Director

Prof. Dr. H. Sudijono Sastroatmodjo, M.Si.  
M.M.  
NIP 131125646

Prof. Dr. H. A.T. Soegito, S.H.,  
NIP 130345757

First Examiner

Second Examiner

Prof. Dr.M. Sri Samiyati Tarjana.  
NIP

Prof. A. Maryanto, M.A., Ph.D.  
NIP 130529509

Third Examiner/First Co-promoter

Fourth Examiner/Second Co-

Prof. H. Retmono, Ph.D  
Ph. D.  
NIP 130098841

Prof. H. Mursid Saleh, M.A.,  
NIP 130354512

Fifth Examiner/Promoter

Prof. Abbas Achmad Badib, M.A., M.A., Ph.D.  
NIP 130325779

**To Mas Tok and Cisl**



## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all I would like to thank God, Allah SWT, who has given me the greatest blessing, so that this dissertation was completed

I realize that during the completion I have owed so much assistance from many people. I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to my promoter Prof. Abbas Badib, M.A, M.A, Ph.D. for his patient guidance, insightful comments, helpful suggestions, and meaningful advice. My deep thanks go to my two co-promoters, Prof. Retmono, Ph.D., and Prof. Mursid Saleh, Ph.D, who have never stopped giving me encouragements, supports, corrections, and advice. My appreciations also go to all the lecturers of the Post Graduate Program of the Semarang State University and all my English Department colleagues who have given me valuable knowledge, encouragement, and endless pray. My special thanks also go to my special advisors, ‘Ibu’ Helena, I.R.A., Ph.D. Prof. A. Maryanto, Ph.D. and ‘Ibu’ Prof. Dr. M. Sri Samiati Taryana – my examiners for their endless help, advice, correction, and guidance.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest thanks to my family, my beloved husband and daughter who have given their greatest understanding for allowing and supporting me to complete my education.

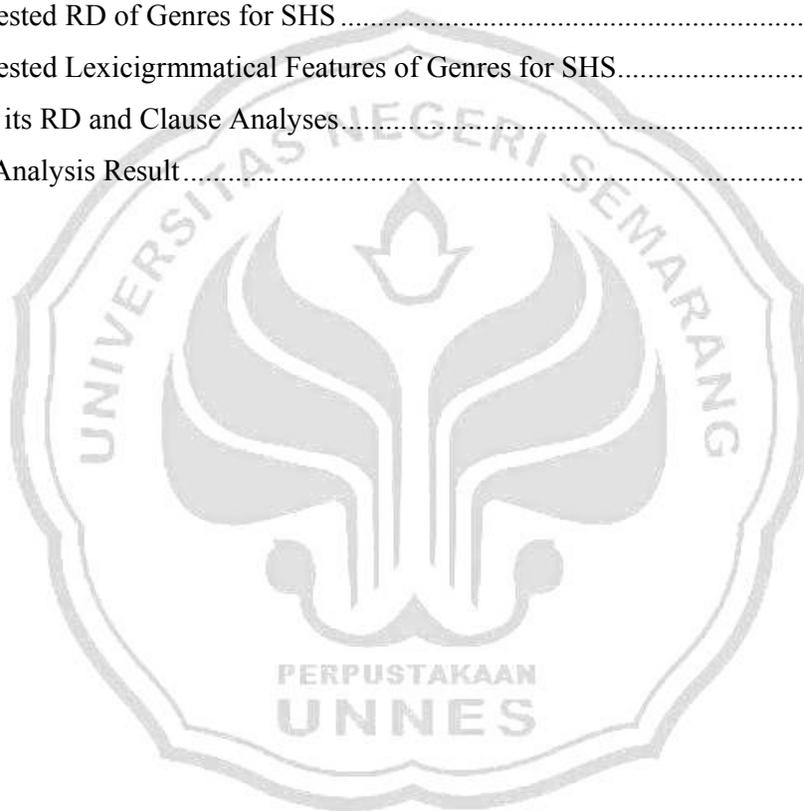
Semarang, May 17th, 2007

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract .....	ii
Page of Approval .....	vi
Acknowledgement .....	viii
Table of Contents .....	ix
List of Figures .....	xii
List of Tables .....	xiii
<b>I. INTRODUCTION1</b>	
1.1 Background .....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem .....	12
1.3 Objectives of the Study .....	13
1.4 Significance of the Study .....	14
1.5 Scope and Limitation .....	15
1.6 Key Terms .....	17
1.7 Punctuation .....	19
1.8 Dissertation Organization .....	19
<b>II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE .....</b>	<b>21</b>
2.1 Rhetoric .....	22
2.2 Communication .....	25
2.3 Communicative Competence .....	28
2.4 Paradigm Shift in Language Education .....	33
2.5 Text and Discourse .....	50
2.5.1 Text and Context .....	52
2.5.2 Genre and Register .....	58
2.6 Spoken and Written Language .....	60
2.7 Systemic Functional Linguistics .....	65
2.7.1 Clause .....	67
2.7.2 Clause Complex .....	68

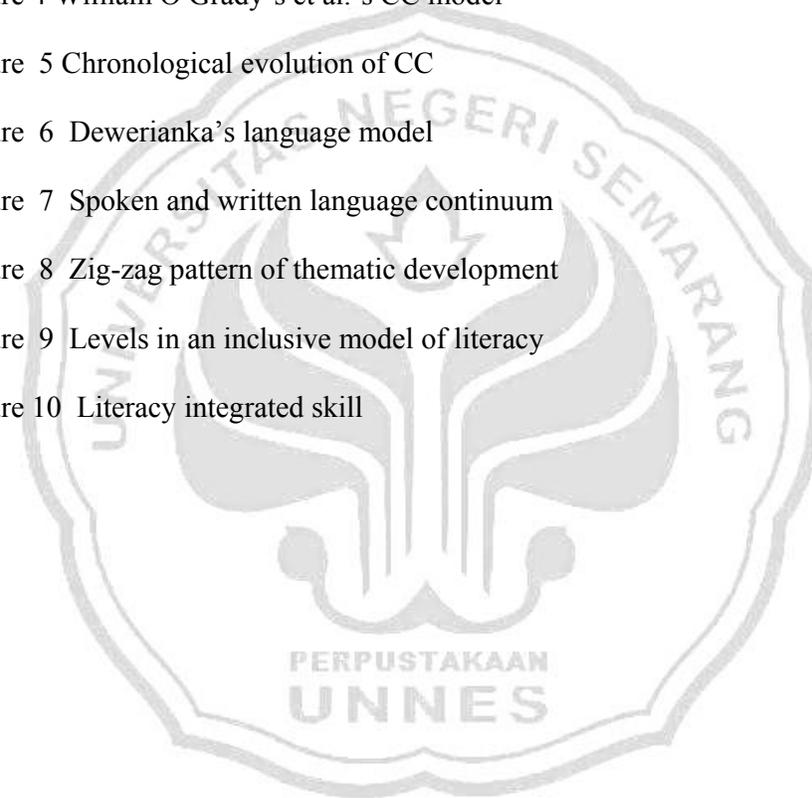
2.7.3 Three Strands of Meanings .....	73
2.7.3.1 Textual Meaning .....	75
2.7.3.2 Interpersonal Meaning .....	80
2.7.3.3 Experiential Meaning .....	87
2.8 The 2004 English Curriculum .....	94
2.8.1 The Rationale of the 2004 EC .....	96
2.8.2 The Communicative Competence of the 2004 EC .....	96
2.8.3 The Language Model of the 2004 EC .....	97
2.8.4 The Level of Literacy of the 2004 EC .....	97
2.8.5 The Language Competence Development of the 2004 EC .....	100
2.9 Reading .....	103
RESEARCH METHOD .....	111
3.1 Method .....	111
3.2 Data Source .....	111
3.3 Data .....	112
3.4 Research Unit .....	113
3.5 Procedure of Investigation .....	113
FINDING AND INTERPRETATION .....	120
4.1 Findings in Relation to all Analyzed Reading Texts .....	121
4.2 Findings in Relation to the Text as a Given Genre .....	126
4.2.1 Discussion .....	126
4.2.2 Recount .....	129
4.2.3 Report .....	135
4.2.4 Description .....	139
4.2.5 Commentary .....	143
4.2.6 Explanation .....	145
4.2.7 Analytical and Hortatory Expositions .....	153
4.2.8 Procedure .....	155
4.2.9 Narration .....	157

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION .....	159
5.1 Conclusion .....	159
5.2 Suggestion.....	161
BIBILOGRAPHY .....	164
APPENDICES .....	170
Suggested RD of Genres for SHS .....	170
Suggested Lexicigrmmatical Features of Genres for SHS.....	173
Text, its RD and Clause Analyses.....	175
RD Analysis Result.....	207



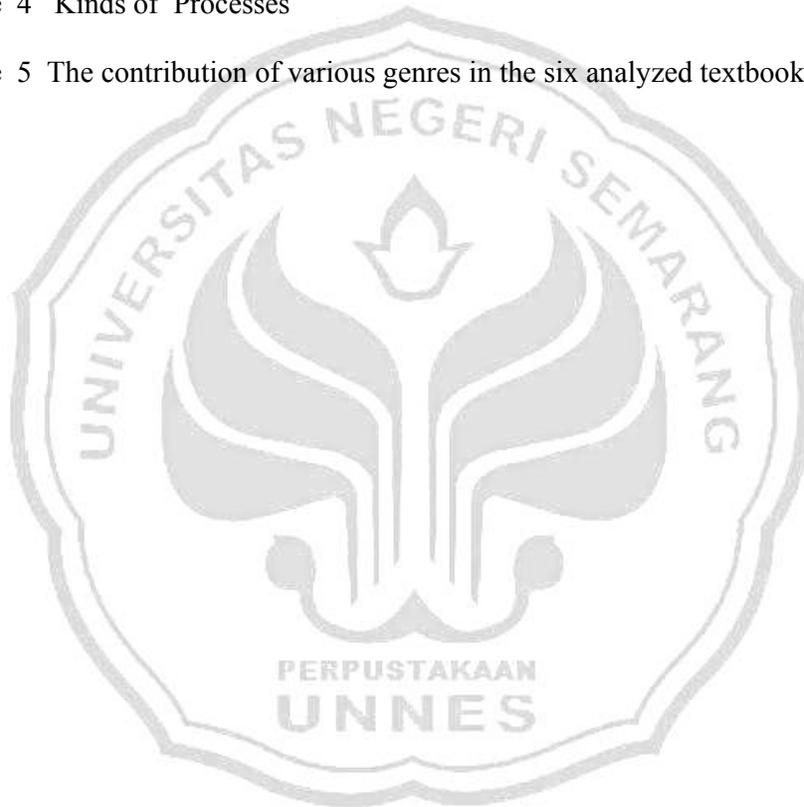
## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Rhetoric at its philosophical level	25
Figure 2 Message and meaning	27
Figure 3 Schematic representation of Celce-Murcia's CC model	31
Figure 4 William O Grady's et al.'s CC model	32
Figure 5 Chronological evolution of CC	33
Figure 6 Dewerianka's language model	52
Figure 7 Spoken and written language continuum	64
Figure 8 Zig-zag pattern of thematic development	79
Figure 9 Levels in an inclusive model of literacy	97
Figure 10 Literacy integrated skill	101



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Summary of goals of structural, communicative and literacy curricula	48
Table 2	Expansion and taxis summary	73
Table 3	Clause structure	75
Table 4	Kinds of Processes	88
Table 5	The contribution of various genres in the six analyzed textbooks	121



# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

The fast development of technology in the post twentieth century demands people to be literate in all aspects of life; educational, social, economic, spiritual, communicational, and so forth. In the development of communicational aspect, for example, people now have various high technology applications that they can take advantages of. They have a communication satellite that enables them to receive news, images, and entertainments from around the world and computer networks which provide a new basis for interpersonal communication, a modern means of keeping documents, linking and accessing huge amounts of information from every corner of the globe. Those developments may make people live comfortably; they can communicate, obtain information and data they need easily, only by spending some of their time browsing through the internet while relaxing on a chair. The use of the internet can even help people obtain scientific information from any source in the world. On the contrary, these developments pose a significant challenge since they involve the use of English, particularly the written type. As information is shown on monitors and English is still the language of the world, English written text is inevitably faced and this becomes problem for people who are not good English users like most Indonesians.

English is the first foreign language in Indonesia; this means that English is not

used as a means of communication in every day life of Indonesians. Most of them use English only when they learn it at school. That is probably one of the reasons why so many people in this country cannot communicate well in that language.

Alwasilah reports that ‘the English proficiency of students including university students in Indonesia is still unsatisfactory’ (“Suara Karya” Newspaper, March 10<sup>th</sup>, 1994). It is no wonder that on many occasions, university students tend to avoid having a conversation with foreign experts visiting their campus and look so worried when being required to access English references. This does not only happen in an undergraduate program; there are still many students of a graduate program who look so confused when facing English references they are required to read. They usually become busy searching the Indonesian translation; their limited ability to use English causes them to prefer reading the translated version although they know that it may create a shift of meaning compared to the original one.

Another disappointing issue related to English proficiency of Indonesians is the explanation given by one of the state university rectors on a newspaper (“Kompas” Newspaper, January, 24<sup>th</sup>, 2006:31), that ‘the reason why many lecturers failed to get scholarship for continuing their education abroad is their lack of English proficiency’.

In the case of university students’ problem with English proficiency mentioned above, it cannot be improved by depending on the English subject given in the university. The reason is because, in universities, particularly in the non-English faculties, English subject is given only in the first and/or second

terms; that information was given by participants of the regional round of the national university debate competition that was held in March 2007 in Semarang. Logically, within one or two terms, a term has twelve to sixteen sessions and one session lasts for two hours the longest, there is not much that can be done. As the improvement can hardly be realized here, the possible improvement that may be made is in the institutions lower than the higher education; it can be in the junior high school and senior high schools. In those schools English is given in every term of all grades within the three years of learning. Therefore, there is much time that can be used for making improvements.

With regard to the English education in the senior high school (SHS) in Indonesia, its curriculum -- the 2006 English Curriculum (2006 EC) suggests that 'to survive successfully in the global education, students should be able to understand and create various functional oral and written English texts' (2006 EC: 308). In other words English lessons in SHS should involve the students in working with texts. This coincides with the shift in the English language teaching paradigm that has taken place recently. The shift is 'from the tendency of focusing beyond text, i.e. stretches of concrete, observable language data, to discourse -- texts plus the social and cognitive processes involved in its realization as an expressive or communicative act' (Kern, 2000:19). This means that now a language is not regarded as autonomous structural system but as social phenomena. The implication is that the focus of language learning should not be on isolated sentences, displays of vocabularies and grammar structures but on the

connected stretches of language that create a text. This brings about such an impact on the language

education curriculum in which the text becomes the basis of learning a language.

That the text should be the basis of language learning is supported by Carrell whose research finding reveals that in English second language learning, learners that possessed and activated the appropriate text background knowledge or schemata; when processing texts were found to retrieve more information (Carrell, 1985:464-465). In addition, Grade writes that his research has demonstrated that text structure knowledge is an effective resource for comprehension both directly and indirectly; that is, students' comprehension and recall improve when they trained to recognize the organizational features of texts (2006:1). Those are the reasons why the SHS English text based curriculum suggests that working with texts does not only mean discussing its content and grammar used, but also by discussing the purpose of the text, the schematic structure (spoken text) or the rhetorical development (written text), the elements that construct the text, and the realization of the elements through lexicogrammatical features used. All of them may help learners interpret the texts they encounter and create texts which are acceptable for native English users. The native acceptance should be considered here because usually an Indonesian communicates in English with the native who cannot communicate in Indonesian language ("Pedoman Implementasi K-2004", 2004: 2).

The ability to interpret English text is crucially needed by anyone; since according to Flowerdew, 'English is now well established as the world language

of research and publication' (2002:1). In the past when the internet was not invented yet, students who wrote their final projects for completing their undergraduate education did not need to access scientific information as much as the recent students. At that time, they could just go to the library and chose books that have correlation with their final projects and used them as references. This is not sufficient for the recent students; the books in the library are inadequate for their references. They need to use the latest references that can easily be obtained via the internet. To do this they should not only be proficient in operating a computer having a modem but interpreting English written texts as well.

Considering the important role of texts in the recent language education, ideally the texts provided in the textbooks are model texts that students work with. This is proposed since English teachers of high schools and also elementary schools in Indonesia depend much on the textbooks. Whenever the curriculum is changed with a new one, teachers always ask about the availability of the textbooks that are written based on that new curriculum. They hardly have time to create the material themselves for their teaching. This makes sense, for a teacher of the elementary or high school in this country has to teach too much, that is more than thirty sessions in a week (a session lasts for 45 to 50 minutes). That information was given by most SHS English teachers participating in the Competency-Based English Teaching conference that was held in Bandung in February, 2006. Those teachers, especially the ones who teach out of the Java island (Ambon, Sulawesi, Irian Jaya), have been teaching alone for a long time

because there is only one English teacher in their respective schools. To them, having a good textbook is their dream.

Knowing that a text based curriculum would replace the existing curriculum, in 2003 so many publishers launched English textbooks which were claimed to be text based. The eagerness to have the idea about the quality of the written texts or 'reading texts' (the term used by the writers of SHS's textbooks) available in those textbooks, a preliminary study was conducted in the early 2003 by Rukmini. The textbooks used as the data sources were the ones published by *Balai Pustaka*. The reason for choosing those textbooks was because they were distributed by the state free of charge to all schools all over Indonesia and therefore were likely to be used by most schools in this country. The concern of that research was on the genres of the reading texts provided in those textbooks. The results reveal that the genres provided were only six. From the six genres available, 53 % was anecdote, 4% recount, 30% description, 7% explanation, 2% discussion, and 4 % narration. The genres that are needed for making a report of a study; the ones that university students are often involved in; such as a procedure (to describe how something is accomplished through a sequence of steps), a report (to describe the way things are), an exposition (to persuade readers that something is or should be the case), an explanation (to explain processes involved in the formation or workings of natural or sociocultural phenomena), were not found. According to Rukmini (2006:50) 53% anecdotes are inappropriate proportion; the genres involved in the academic scientific activities should have been provided, since SHS is not a terminal institution. Those who study in the SHS are the ones

that intend to continue their study to the higher education (“Pasal 15 Penjelasan atas Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional”).

Those problematic facts above spur the writer to study more on the reading texts available in SHS textbooks, whether they can be model texts for the students to work with. A model text means a text that is written by taking into account the two contexts encircling it, since ‘a text is influenced by the context of culture and context of situation’ (Butt, et al. 1996:12). The context of culture influences the text elements -- the stages that construct the text; whereas the context of situation influences the realization of the elements -- the lexicogramatical features that realize the elements of the text.

The development of the stages that constructs a text is called the rhetorical development when the text is written; when it is spoken, it is called the schematic structure (Eggins, 1994:37).

Considering the different social function of texts, their rhetorical developments vary from a given text to another, depending on its genre. Recount, for example, has the following rhetorical development: orientation ^ events ^ re-orientation, a discussion: issue ^ argument for and its elaboration ^ argument against and its elaboration ^ conclusion or recommendation (2004 EC: 47).

To have ideas of what have been done to the written texts provided for or created by the students of SHS in Indonesia the following studies will be discussed. Besides the other studies on written texts whose data were not texts

for or of SHS students are presented for their results have such connection with the current research.

Utomo (2000) analyzed the cohesion of reading texts in the English textbooks of SHS. It was found that only 30% of the texts analyzed had good cohesive ties. The cohesion of clauses in a text is important for 'it helps the text readers interpret easily the meaning relations existing within the text' (Halliday and Hasan, 1994: 4). However, an English text that is cohesive will not sound English if other conventions of a written text, its rhetorical development and realization, are not fulfilled. Their fulfillments make a text achieve its social purpose.

Another study on the text is conducted by Vijay K. Bhatia (1998); he studies the generic view of academic discourse. In this study he compares the generic view between the genres of economy and law textbooks. He finds similarities in the rhetorical development to make what is understood as the established disciplinary knowledge accessible to uninitiated readers. Both of them have predictive categories like: reporting, question, advance labeling, enumeration, recapitulation and hypothecticality. However they also have dissimilarities, such as in the nature and development of argumentation, especially the way evidence is used to make claims, for example the way cases and legislation are used to make claims and to argue for them in the discourse of law, and the way numerical data are used to construct, formulate and support argumentation in economics, etc. The study supports that the element realization of a text will be different if the purpose is different.

Ardriyati conducted a study on written texts in 2003; the focus is on the rhetorical

development of the text. In this study the students' Recount writings were taken as the data of the study. In the study, the rhetorical development of Recount was found improperly constructed, and even more its realization, therefore, the social purpose was not achieved. This makes sense since in 2003 the text based curriculum was not tried out yet, and therefore, students have not been trained to create Recount. The result of the study proves that the rhetorical development of a text of a language can be different from another language for it is influenced by the cultural context (Dewerianka, 1994).

A study on the rhetorical development of the students' written Narration was conducted in 2004 (Murman, 2004). The finding reveals that the students wrote the Narrations in good rhetorical developments; all the elements of the Narration: orientation, evaluation, complication, and resolution were found in their writings. Comparing the Indonesian and English Narration rhetorical developments, it is found that they are similar. The students' background knowledge of Indonesian Narration helps them write English Narration. This assumption coincides with the behaviorism theory which says that experience and models which are present in the immediate environment have a strong role in shaping behavior (Carroll, 1999:11).

A genre analysis that was conducted in 2003 by Supriatmaji whose data were the Friday Sermons prepared by the Islamic Council of Singapore is important to highlight, even though the data were not the text found in the SHS

textbooks, the results of the study have such a correlation with the research of this dissertation. The finding of the study confirms that in the application, the genre theory is flexible; the elements of a given genre may be modified to suit the needs of the user (the creator of the text) to satisfy the co-users (the co-speakers for an oral text or readers for the written ones) so that the social purpose of that genre is achieved. Supriatmaji adds that any modification of a text done by its creator always has an aim at achieving its social purpose. This finding can be taken into account in deciding whether the texts in the SHS textbooks can be model texts or not.

A written text study was done by Betty Samraj in 2002. Forty abstracts of the research articles published in prominent journals from two related fields, ecology and conservation biology, were studied (Flowerdew, 2002:40-55). The results indicate that each of them has its own focus. The ecology's article abstracts reveal to perform more persuasive function through its background move, whereas the conservation biology's abstracts have more pragmatic functions of conveying the newest information by giving prominence to the results and conclusion moves. Here the disciplinary preferences influence the genre norms. This implies that modification of genres can be done in the creation of a text. However, for a SHS level, the standard genre norms are to be firstly taught to form the student's text basic knowledge. The standard norms here mean the text generic structure potential. With regard to that, Haliday and Hasan wrote:

Genres can vary delicacy in the same way as contexts can. But for some given texts to belong to one specific genre, their structure should be some possible realization of a given *Generic Structure Potential* (GSP).....

(Haliday and Hasan, 1985:108)

GSP is obligatory for a text since without it a text can not be classified into any specific genre and that is what SHS students should firstly know when learning to create a text. After they achieve this, text variation may be taught. However, any variation done on the basic rhetorical development of a text is always aimed at achieving the purpose of the text.

As it is written above, the texts that students of SHS work with have to be model texts since in this level they begin to focus more on written texts, unlike when they are in the junior high schools -- they learn spoken texts more. This is implicitly suggested in 2004 EC, it says that 'the SHS students are supposed to achieve the informational level of literacy' (2004 EC, 2003:307). In this level, students are expected to access knowledge by using their English proficiency either by reading scientific books, browsing via the internet, or other media, in order to be able to survive academically and socially. Whatsoever media the SHS students are involved in when accessing scientific information, they pose to a written text. The involvement with written texts is also clarified in the Indonesian Government's Decree, No 19, 2005 about the language education in this country; it is stated that the language education should develop language competence with special emphasis on reading and writing according to the literacy level set up for every level of education. In short, English language education in Indonesia is aimed at developing competence that enables school graduates to communicate orally and especially, in writing (Agustien, 2005:62). One of the inevitable materials to provide in reading and writing exercises is a model written text.

## 1. 2 Statement of the Problem

Based on 2006 EC for SHS, English education is expected to help students able to understand their own culture, and others' themselves, beside being able to express ideas, feeling, participate in society, and even find and use their analytical ability and imagination for communicating with that language (38<sup>th</sup> 2006 EC's enclosure:24). This means that by learning English, students should be able to communicate orally and in writing. The ability to communicate, in general, means the ability to involve with discourse, i.e. being able to understand and produce texts both orally and in writing. In addition, English learning should focus on the development of the students' four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) as to produce graduates who are able to communicate and be involved in discourse within a given English literacy level.

The literacy levels suggested by Wells (1991:53) are the theoretical and practical considerations of 2004 EC ("Kurikulum" 2004:5). As stated above, the level of literacy for SHS students to achieve is the third one of the four Wells' literacy levels. It is called the informational level where the focus is on the role that literacy plays in communication of knowledge, particularly discipline-based knowledge. Explicitly Wells states that 'at this level, the curricular emphasis is on reading and writing -- but particularly reading -- is on the student's use for accessing the accumulated knowledge that is seen as the function of the school to transmit' (1991:53). This implies that reading and writing take paramount roles in SHS English education in Indonesia.

In reading and writing activities, the provision of a model text is inevitable. Therefore the quality of reading texts become the first priority and this inspires the writer in stating the problem of this study; that is **how the rhetorical developments of the reading texts in the SHS English textbooks are realized.**

However in details the study aims at answering the following problems:

1. Which genres are found in the SHS English textbooks?
2. To what extent do the rhetorical developments of those respective genres serve to achieve their respective social purposes?
3. To what extent do their linguistic features of those RD elements support the achievement of their respective social purposes?
4. To what extent are those texts compatible with the 2006 EC?

### **1.3 Objective of the Study**

Based on the problem statements, this study is aimed at describing the rhetorical development realization of the reading texts in the SHS English textbooks. This consists of:

1. finding out the genres available in the textbooks for SHS students.
2. explaining how those respective genre rhetorical developments achieve the social purposes.
3. describing how the respective linguistic features of RD elements achieve the social purposes.

4. explaining how those texts are compatible with the 2006 EC.

#### **1. 4 Significance of the Study**

The results of this study will hopefully be used as considerations for English

teachers of Senior High Schools, especially the ones who do not feel so confident in applying the 2006 EC, to evaluate reading texts in the textbooks they use for teaching. When the reading texts are proved to have an unsatisfactory quality, teachers can improve them to become sufficiently appropriate. If it is too much to improve, teachers can change them with good quality of reading texts, or use other textbooks with good reading texts.

For writers of textbooks, the results can guide them to write reading texts that are accepted by the native, meaning that the reading texts are written based on the conventions of English texts, i.e. consideration of the influence of both the English cultural and situational contexts. This can be done when revising their textbooks or when writing the new ones. Since the 2006 EC is new, it is very likely that new textbooks that are written based on it will be published.

For the textbook editors, the results of this study may be used as references to edit the reading texts of the textbooks.

If all reading texts in the English text books are of good quality, the exercises concerning their rhetorical development and realization, will hopefully build the students appropriate text schemata that can be activated when they deal with English texts so that they can get much information and write English texts which are acceptable by the native.

To sum up, by conducting this study the quality of reading texts can be seen. This is needed to determine whether they can be either used as model texts, or revised, or substituted with the good ones.

### **1. 5 Scope and Limitation**

The philosophical basis of this study is rhetoric. Two of five rhetoric arts, i.e. the arrangement and style, become the concerns of this study. The former is parallel with the rhetorical development (RD) of the reading text. The latter, style, can be regarded as parallel with the realization of the text RD. This is true, since in the realization there are suggested lexicogrammatical features that if they are applied in the RD, the text becomes culturally and situationally acceptable by the native speaker. This means the style of writing is appropriately done.

Another basis of the study is the discourse theory. Discourse is defined as ‘a communicative event within situational contexts that takes place systematically based on the cultural and situational contexts encircling it’ (2004EC:38). In the discourse study, the context of culture is analyzed through the stages that construct the text; whereas the context of situation, through the clauses that realize the stages. Those are the analyses done in the study therefore, this study is included in a discourse study.

The instrument used in this study is the theory of systemic functional linguistics (SFL). SFL confirms that language is useful as the basis for achieving

the two nexus of literacy skills, communicating orally and in writing, for it has three tenets (Hammond, 1992:1), which are summarized as follows:

First, language is functional; grammar and vocabulary are used to make a specific meaning.

Second, language can only be understood in relation to the context in which it is used. This means that a different purpose for using a language and a different context bring about a different language text, and, vice versa, the construction of language context affects on the context.

Third, a text should be viewed as a whole, therefore, students need to acquire the knowledge of how a text is culturally structured, developed, and how the structure and development are realized by the chosen lexicogrammar so that the goal is achieved.

The second and third tenets are used as the bases for analyzing the text's RD, and the first tenet is the basis for the realization of RD analysis.

In short, the scope of this research is philosophically rhetoric basis in the form of discourse analysis with the SFL theory as the instrument to analyze both the RD of a written text and its realization.

However, this study limits the scope by only analyzing a hundred and fifteen reading texts available in six recommended SHS English textbooks published by different publishers. Those publishers were recommended by the government of Indonesia, out of fourteen others, to publish English textbooks for both junior and senior high schools in Indonesia (Kompas, January 12, 2006:31).

## 1.6 Key Terms

The following terms are used in this dissertation especially in the description of its study.

1. Rhetorical development (RD) is the development of stages that constructs a written text.
2. Obligatory element refers to the element that a given text must have in order to be included in a given kind of text.
3. Optional element is the element of a text that may or may not available in it.
4. Textbook refers to a book designed for a given subject (usually based on the curriculum) with which a teacher uses to teach.
5. Reading text is a written text available in a textbook used for reading exercises.
6. Genre is an identifiable category of literary and non-literary composition; e.g. a recount, a discussion, a report, a novel, etc.
7. Predicator (P/Pred) is the lexical or content part of the verbal group.
8. Complement (C) refers to a non-essential participant in the clause.
9. MOOD (M) is the subject and finite of a clause.
10. Residue (Res) is the part of a clause with the exclusion of MOOD.
11. Theme (Th) is the part of a clause that tells what the clause is going to be about.
12. Rheme (Rh) refers to the part of a clause with the exclusion of the Theme part.
13. Material Process (Mat P) is the process of material doing which expresses the notion which some entity physically does something--which may be done to

some other entity. There are two kinds of it: creative (it brings about the Goal) and dispositive. The participants of this process are Actor (Act) and Goal (G)

14. Goal (G) is mostly like the direct object of the traditional grammar.
15. Mental Process (Men P) refers to the process which encodes meaning of thinking or feeling. There are three kinds of it: affective or reactive (feeling), cognitive (thinking), and perceptive (perceiving through the five senses). The participants of this process are : Senser (Sens) and Phenomenon (Ph).
16. Behavioral Process (Beh P) is the process of physiological and psychological behavior. This process only has one participant called Behavior (Beh).
17. Verbal Process (VP) refers to the process of saying, of symbolically signaling. The participants of this process are: Sayer (Say), Receiver (Rec)--the one to whom the verbalization is addressed, Target (Tar)--the one acted upon verbally, and Range/Verbiage (Ra/Ver)--the name for the verbalization itself.
18. Relational Process (Rel P) is the process which involves the state of being including having. It consists of two kinds: Attributive Relational Process (Att Rel P) with Carrier (Ca) and Attribute (Att) as the participants, and Identifying Relational Process (Id Rel P) with Token (To) and Value (Va) as its participants.
19. Existential Process (Ext P) is the process of existence with Existential (Ex) as the participant.

### 1.7 Punctuation

For the reason of practicality, special punctuations are used in this dissertation. They have their respective functions and meanings which are different from the ones of their common uses, they are as follows.

1. Capitalization of the first letter of genre (type of text) is for differentiating the genre from common meaning of the same word, such as: Description, Explanation, Narration, etc.
2. A text written in between two single quotation marks ('.....') is citation taken out of reference.
3. A text is written in between two double quotation marks (".....") is the text which is written in Indonesian.
4. Text written in italic is the text which is taken out of data being analyzed and a word group which is intended to be written as contraction.
5. A number written in between brackets below a text refers to the text number being analyzed.

### 1.8 Dissertation Organization

This dissertation consists of five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction

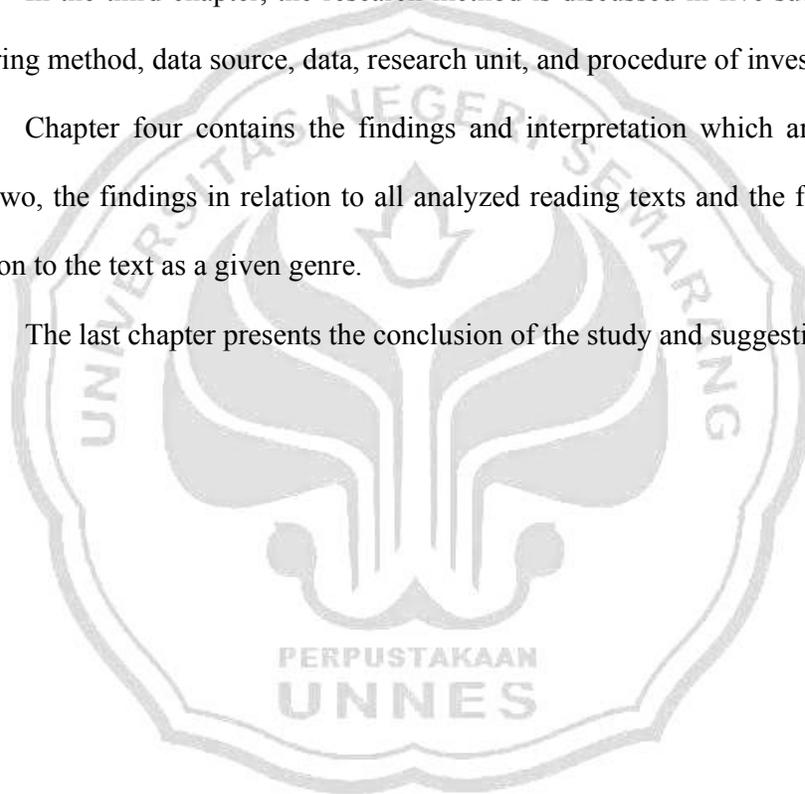
which has seven sub-chapters consisting of: the background of the study, statement of problem, objective of the study, significance of the study, scope and limitation, key term, punctuation, and dissertation organization.

The second chapter presents the review of related literature with nine sub-chapters which consist of rhetoric, communication, communicative competence, paradigm shift in language education, text and discourse, spoken and written language, systemic functional linguistics, the 2004 English curriculum, and reading.

In the third chapter, the research method is discussed in five sub-chapters covering method, data source, data, research unit, and procedure of investigation.

Chapter four contains the findings and interpretation which are divided into two, the findings in relation to all analyzed reading texts and the findings in relation to the text as a given genre.

The last chapter presents the conclusion of the study and suggestions.



## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter presents the theoretical bases of the study.

Since the study concerns with the rhetorical developments of texts, it is started with its underlying philosophical theory, rhetoric (2.1).

The next sub-chapter is the explanation about language communication and its school in which the current study is included (2.2).

As a text is the concrete form of discourse, the current study can be regarded as one of the efforts that supports the recent language education which focuses on the achievement of discourse competence. The reason why the focus is on it is explained through the evolution of communicative competence which is presented in sub-chapter 2.2.

Meanwhile, the evolution of language teaching paradigm from time to time is explained (2.4) to give a picture of how the view about language influences the language teaching until arriving at the literacy education, in which students are involved primarily in working with texts.

Texts are the data of this study; therefore a text is highlighted in this sub-chapter (2.5). Considering that a text, when it is used, is always situated in the two contexts, context of culture and context of situation, and each of which gives rise to genre and register; they are explained thoroughly in this sub-chapter.

Even though the rhetorical developments of both spoken and written texts of various genres are the same, they are different in terms of their lexicogrammatical realization. The explanation about it can be found in sub-chapter 2.6.

The three meanings a clause can encode--the ideational, interpersonal and textual which are offered by systemic functional grammar and used as the instruments of this study are explained in sub-chapter 2.7.

The parameter of the study, the 2006 EC which is designed based on 2004 EC, is presented in sub chapter 2.8.

It is mentioned above that reading texts are the data of this study, therefore reading is the last topic highlighted in this chapter, especially the difference between reading in the first language and the one in the second language.

## **2.1 Rhetoric**

The realization of rhetorical development of text is the concern of the study, therefore the first philosophical basis that underlies this study is rhetoric.

The word rhetoric comes from Greek words *techne rhetorike* which means art of speech, originally a discipline concerned with the skills of public speaking as a means of persuasion (Wales, 2001:344). Mc Arthur (1992:862) provides three definitions of rhetoric: first, the study and practice of effective communication; second, the art of persuasion; and third, an insincere eloquence intended to win points and get people what they want.

Based on the classical tradition of Greek theories, rhetoric does not only refer to speech or spoken language, but written language as well. Plato regarded rhetoric as the art of rational discourse rather than the art of eloquent expression (Young, et al., 1970: 2). For him rhetoric is not merely verbal expertise, the art of linguistic cosmetology; it is the expression of truth, which has power because it appealed to man's rationality. This is not supported by Aristotle who defines rhetoric as the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever (Young, et al., 1970:3). For Aristotle successful expressions cannot be merely judged through their truth and rationality, since experience shows that they often fail. He regarded rhetoric as a tool, like a knife, morally neutral and capable of being used for good or ill.

In the Roman classical development era of rhetoric, the Roman rhetoricians, Cicero and Quintilian, modified and developed Aristotle's theory of rhetoric that shaped the great tradition of Western rhetoric (Young, et al., 1970:4). This tradition treats rhetoric as the art of popular argument. Primarily, it is a spoken rather than written art that is designed for use in law courts, political meetings and ceremonies. It is not concerned with questions which can be answered conclusively but with questions which are open to debate so it deals with the probable rather than demonstrably true.

At the heart of the rhetoric theory, as it was elaborated by the Romans, rhetoric was said as having five arts: invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery

(Young, et al., 1970:4).

Invention is the discovery of valid or seemingly valid arguments to render one's cause probable that can be guided by a set of questions, like the ones used by a journalist when writing a newspaper report, the familiar who, when, where, how and why questions.

Arrangement is the art of organizing discourse by means of stages into which categories of subject matter are fitted. One of the such system has five stages; the exordium (or opening), the narrative (or exposition of the background of the subject), the proposition, the argument supporting it, the refutation of alternative position, and the close.

Style is generally the method of framing effective sentences, as for giving clarity, force, and beauty to the argument.

Memory is the arts of committing the speech to memory of various mnemonic devices, and delivery, an art akin to acting, are essential to rhetoric as a spoken art. As the importance of the written word increased, the memory the delivery as rhetorical disciplines diminished.

Compared to the five arts of rhetoric above, the concern of this study is proved to have two out of five arts of rhetoric, arrangement and style. The former coincides with the rhetorical development of a text, which consists of stages. They are different when the kind of text is different, since they are developed by considering the achievement of the text's social purpose. The latter, even it is not fully, coincides with the realization of stages by means of the suggested

lexicogrammatical features which develop the text. The words ‘it is not fully’ above means that the sentences used are not just for persuading but for other purposes too, such as for describing the way things are, presenting two points of view about an issue, retelling events, etc.

The figure below is designed by Badib (2006) to show how rhetoric works in its philosophical level underlying the current study.

It can be seen in the diagram that the current study belongs to the non-literary text used in education. Since the analyses are done based on the Systemic Functional Linguistics, and the concerns are on the rhetorical development and realization of the reading text available in the textbook; the study is included in both discourse and stylistic linguistics of non-literary text. But again, this is viewed at its philosophical level.

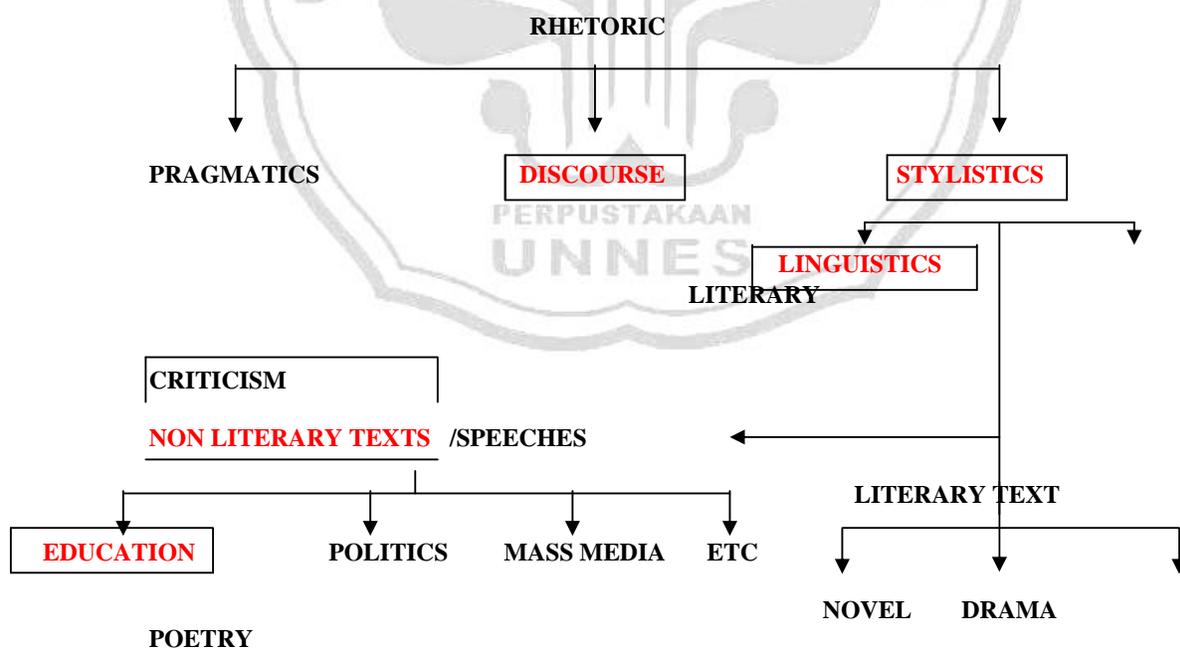


Fig.1 Rhetoric at its philosophical level (Badib, 2006)

## 2.2 Communication

Being a social creature, a human being inevitably needs communication.

The

human communication can be realized by means of many things, such as a style of hair, a black shirt, commentary, etc. Someone knows what somebody else is going to do by only looking at her hair style, what she wears, or even the comment she gives to a given thing. However the communication that this study concerns is not related to the ones mentioned above, it is a communication which takes place with the language as the medium -- the language communication.

Generally, a communication is defined as a social interaction through messages. With regards to it, there are two schools of (language) communication, a process school and a semiotic school. The former views a communication as the social interaction through messages (Fiske, 1990:2). This implies that this school sees the communication as the transmission of messages by which one person affects the behaviour of another. The latter views the communication as the production and exchange of meanings (Fiske, 1990:2). This school concerns with how messages or texts interact with people in order to produce meanings.

Comparing the two, they differ in their understanding of what constitutes a message. The process school believes that intention is a crucial factor in deciding what constitutes a message. Whereas the semiotic school believes that a message is the construction of signs, which, through interacting with a receiver, produces meanings. The message, for the process school, is affected by the sender's

intention. Whereas for semiotic school, it is affected by the receiver, how he interprets the received message.

The study of this dissertation belongs to the semiotic school, here the meanings of a reading text are analyzed in terms of its rhetorical development and lexicogrammar. When the text is being analyzed, its messages in the form signs interact with the researcher (acting as the receiver) producing meanings. The emphasis of the semiotic school is on the text and how it is read. Reading is the process of discovering meanings which takes place when the reader interacts or negotiates with it. In doing so s/he brings with her/him the aspects of her/his cultural experience which have relation to the codes and signs which make up the text. It also involves some of her/his shared understanding of what the text is about.

The three aspects involved in the process of discovering meanings of the text, the reader or the producer, the message in the form of a text and the referent, are illustrated in the figure below. They dynamically interact each other to discover/produce the text meanings.

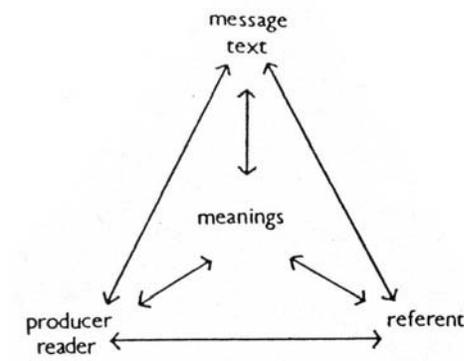


Fig.2 Message and Meaning (adopted from Fiske,1990:4)

To be able to discover the meanings of a text, however, someone should have sufficient communicative competence that is explained in the following sub-chapter.

### **2.3 Communicative Competence**

The basic need someone learns a language is for communication, i.e. for achieving communicative competence (CC).

Hymes in 1971 suggested that CC covers two components: grammatical competence and appropriateness. What he means by appropriateness here is the consideration of who is saying what to whom, in what circumstances and in what condition. The socioeconomic status of the encoder and decoder, age, topic, context, channel, all these bear on the choices of codes, styles or registers to be used for communicating. An example of the importance of appropriateness is a written note *'Don't be angry with me. I come will late today'*. That note is grammatically correct, but when it is given by a subordinate to his boss it becomes totally inappropriate. The interpersonal meaning does not work, here. That note cannot be given to a boss, it sounds rude. In other words, that note is inappropriately used.

Canale and Swain in 1980 elaborated the term appropriateness of Hymes into the strategic competence and the sociocultural competence, which was elaborated by Canale himself in 1983 in this definition of CC: 'communicative competence is the underlying system of knowledge and skill required for communication' (Canale, 1983 as cited in Celce-Murcia, 1995:7) .

According to Canale, CC consists of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. The grammatical competence includes vocabulary, rules of words and sentence formation, linguistic semantics, pronunciation and spelling. Sociolinguistic competence includes rules of appropriateness of both meaning and grammatical forms in different sociolinguistic contexts. Discourse competence is the knowledge required to combine forms and meanings to achieve spoken and written texts. Strategic competence is the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which may be called upon to compensate for limitations in one or more aspects of CC. Canale and Swain argued that knowledge is what someone knows consciously, about a language and about aspects of communicative language use, and skill is how well s/he can perform this knowledge in actual communication.

Bachman and Palmer (1990 as cited in Celce-Murcia, 1995:8), who divided language knowledge into two main categories, elaborated CC above as follows.

Language Knowledge consists of:

1. Organization knowledge; the knowledge of the components involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing and recognizing grammatically correct sentences and for ordering these to form texts;
  - grammatical knowledge is similar to Canale and Swain's grammatical competence, and textual knowledge
  - textual knowledge: similar to Canale and Swain's but more elaborate than their discourse competence
2. Pragmatic knowledge: the knowledge of the components that enable us to relate words and utterances to the meanings, to the intentions of language users and to relevant characteristics of the language use in contexts:

- lexical knowledge: the knowledge of the meanings of words and the ability to use figurative language.
  - functional knowledge or the relationship between the utterances and intentions, or communicative purposes of the language users.
  - sociolinguistic knowledge: similar to Canale and Swain's sociolinguistic competence.
- (Bachman and Palmer,1990 as cited in Celce-Murcia,1995:5)

Through their elaboration of CC above, Bachman and Palmer exposed that in use, the language knowledge interacts with the metacognitive strategies, i.e. assessment, goal-setting, and planning; the grammatical competence involves with textual and grammatical knowledge; whereas the discourse competence which involves with the pragmatic knowledge includes the lexical, functional, and sociocultural knowledge.

The other model of CC was introduced by Celce-Murcia, et al. in 1995. The model was represented by a pyramid enclosing a circle and surrounded by another circle. The circle within the pyramid is the discourse competence; the three points of the triangle are sociocultural competence, linguistic competence and actional competence; and the strategic competence is represented by the circle surrounding the pyramid as shown in the figure on the next page.

Celce, et al. (1995) use the term linguistic competence in their model with the consideration that linguistic competence is not only related to grammar, but lexis, phonology in addition to morphology and syntax, too. The term sociocultural competence is used here as to distinguish it from sociolinguistic competence, for the former distinguishes better sociolinguistic competence from the actional competence.

They confirm that all resources of language are in linguistic, actional and discourse components whereas sociocultural knowledge is used to achieve the appropriateness. They place lexical knowledge within linguistic competence since they follow Halliday (1985) who believes that the line between lexicon and grammar can not be neatly drawn. This CC model is one of the psychological bases of 2006 EC.

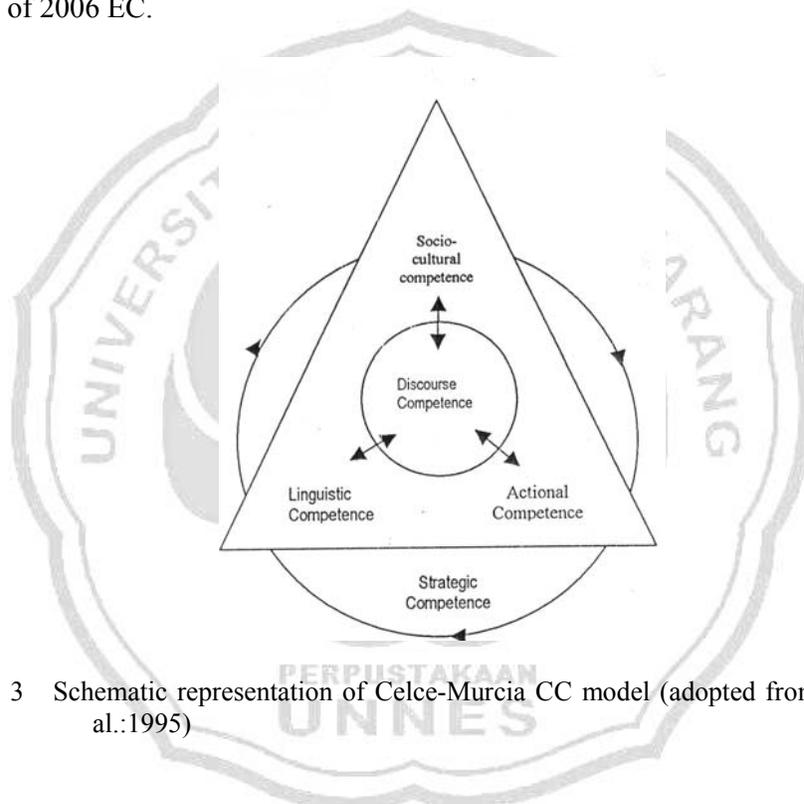


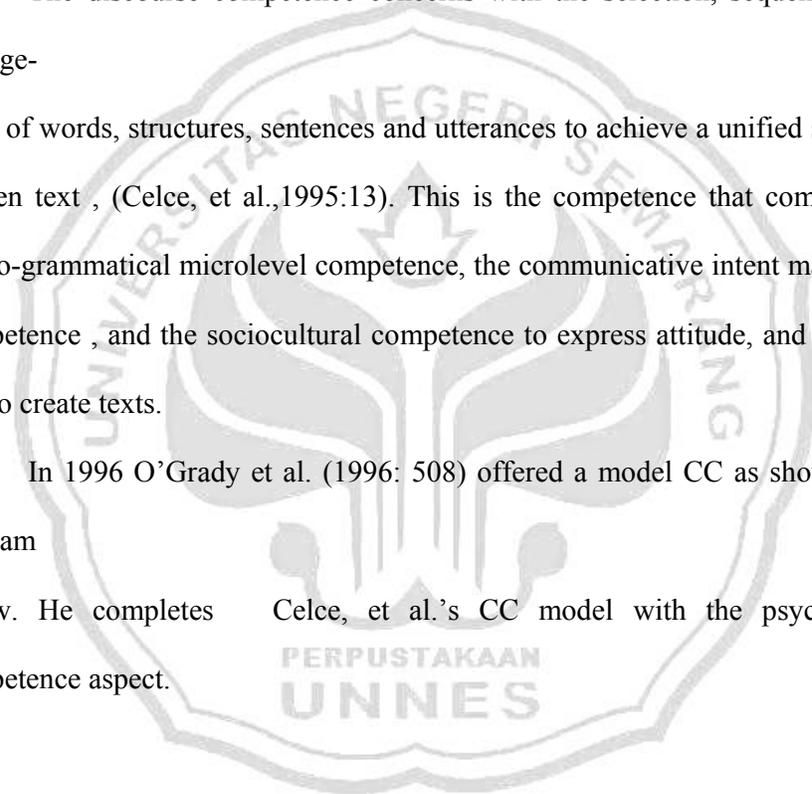
Fig. 3 Schematic representation of Celce-Murcia CC model (adopted from Celce, et al.:1995)

On page 34, the chronological evolution of CC is given. Observing it, the CC becomes more and more developed in terms of its components. Bachman, et al.'s functional competence is somehow different from the actional competence of Celce. The former is the one proposed by Halliday's theoretical conception of functional language in use. Whereas Celce, et al.'s actional competence is the competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is,

matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force, speech acts and speech act sets (Celce, et al.,1995:13). Thus the actional competence is related to the competence needed by a non-native when communication breakdown takes place in his actual communication.

The discourse competence concerns with the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, sentences and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written text , (Celce, et al.,1995:13). This is the competence that combines the lexico-grammatical microlevel competence, the communicative intent macro level competence , and the sociocultural competence to express attitude, and messages and to create texts.

In 1996 O'Grady et al. (1996: 508) offered a model CC as shown in the diagram below. He completes Celce, et al.'s CC model with the psychological competence aspect.



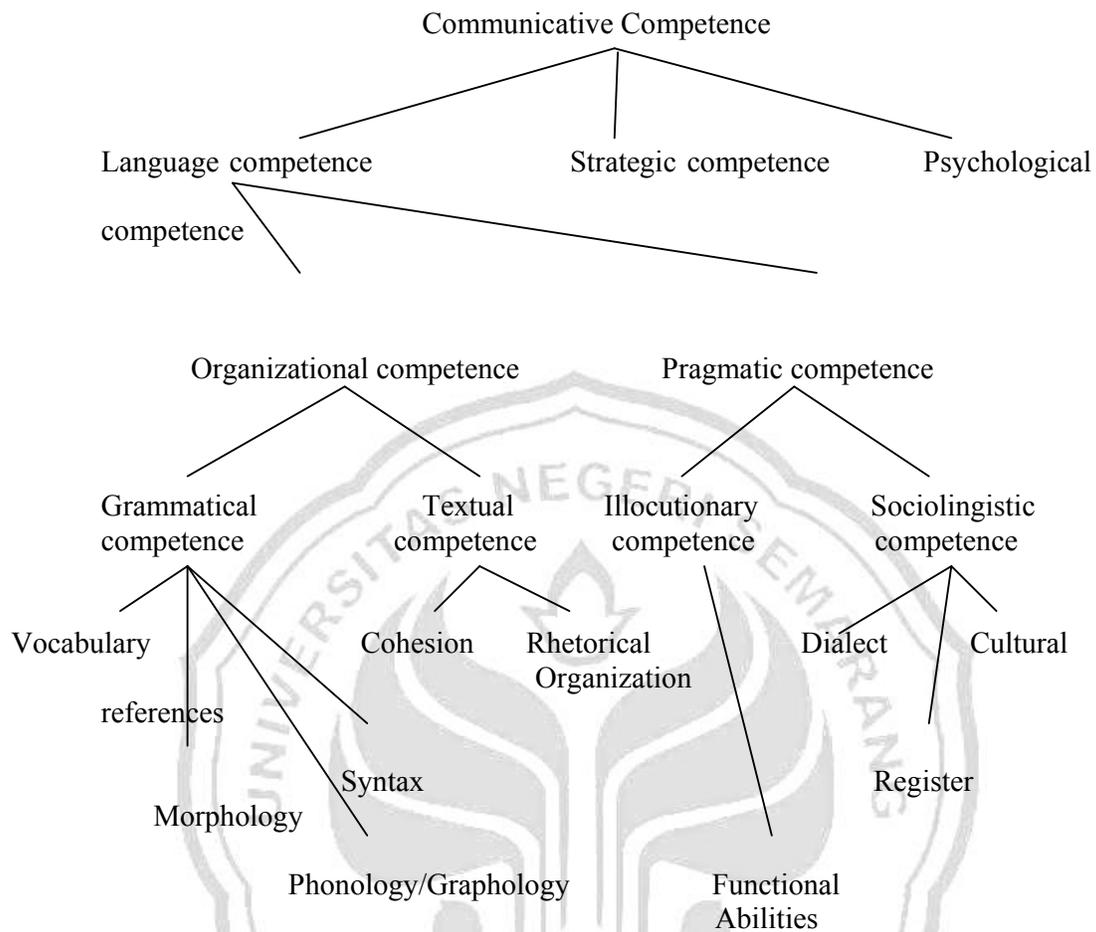


Fig. 4 William O'Grady et al.'s CC Model (1996: 508)

From the explanation above it can be summed up that the CC model changes in accordance with how a linguist views a language which changes from time to time. As the CC to achieve by a language learner changes, the language education paradigm also changes. The next sub-chapter presents the shift of the paradigm in the language education.

## 2.4 Paradigm Shift in Language Education

The language education paradigm shift is also the phenomenon which foregrounds

the current study. The recent paradigm suggests that the unit of language study is a text, not a sentence in isolation. How the recent paradigm arrives at that suggestion, an explanation about what really happens is discussed below.

‘Paradigm generally refers to a systematic pattern of thought or a set of principles and basic beliefs for understanding and explaining certain aspects of reality’ (Kohonen, et al, 2001: 11). In the case of foreign language education paradigm, its pattern of thought can guide action and provide an interpretive framework for inquiry. ‘The beliefs are basic, in the sense that they must be accepted on faith, however well argued as there is no way to establish their ultimate truthfulness’ (Guba and Lincoln, 1994 as cited in Brown, 2000: 11). The paradigm of foreign language education evolves from time to time. ‘Albert Marckwardt saw that the shifting of the paradigm tends to emerge every quarter of century with each new method breaking from the old but at the same time taking with it

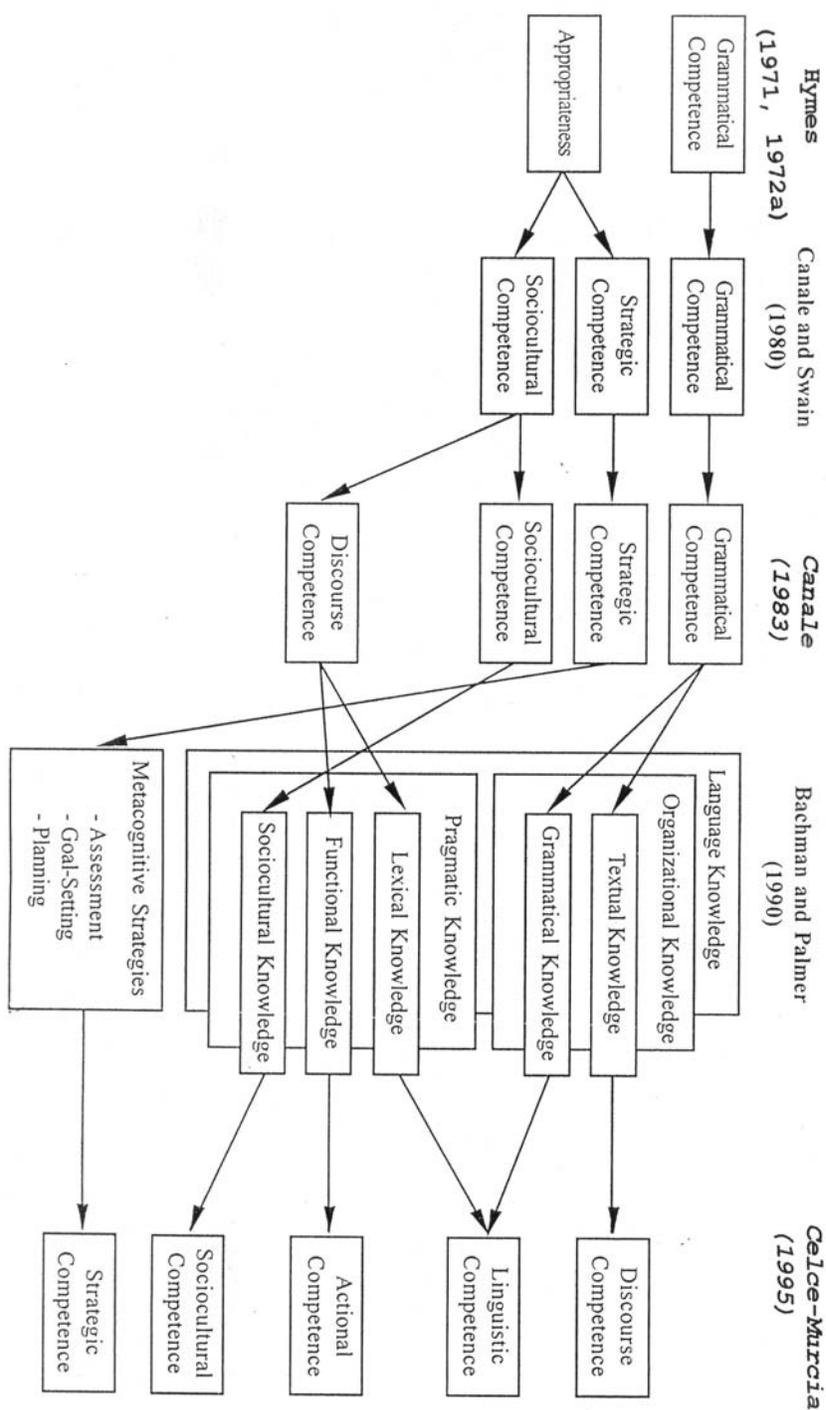


Figure 3 Chronological Evolution of Communicative Competence

some of the positive aspects of the previous paradigm' (Albert Marckwardt, 1972:5). The paradigm of language education is usually influenced by the

linguistic theory of the respective eras; therefore, the paradigm shifts will be explained in accordance with how a linguist views a language from time to time or what the concern of the study of a language is.

The studying of language has been done since the ancient time, even though Ramelan (1992:19) suggested that the ancient studies of language were not scientific.

According to him, the reason was that the interest of language study at the time was only around answering questions such as what language actually was, how language worked, what the oldest language in the world was, etc. The method to arrive at the answers were mostly speculated and made philosophical reasoning about language with the result that the conclusions and findings could not be verified and so rejected by modern scholars.

One of the unscientific studies of language is the 'bow-wow' theory. In this theory a linguist believed that language was originated from man's attempt to imitate natural sounds in his surroundings such as the sound of rainfall from the sky, the blowing of the wind through leaves of trees, and the howling of dogs. Another theory about the origin of language is the 'pooh-pooh' theory. It explains that 'the first time man produced speech sound, which later developed into language, was when he was so startled that he involuntarily produced sound out of his mouth as a response to a sudden and unexpected situation' (Ramelan, 1992:20). These theories are the results of speculation and not the results of direct and actual observation, the statements about things or events drawn as conclusions are beyond man's power to prove or disprove, and therefore the studies are

unscientific. Another reason that those studies are unscientific is because they have no clear significance. That so called unscientific study of language lasted until 1940s, the time when the scientific study of language started to exist.

In 1940s, behaviorism was regarded as a general theory of learning including language learning (Johnson, 2004:18); language learning was done by making stimulus and response connection, by creating new habits through reinforcement and practice of established links between stimuli and responses. Bloomfield, the most prominent representative in behaviouristic theory (BT), clarifies the theory in language learning as in the following sequence: S (practical stimulus) -- r (linguistic response) -- s (linguistic – stimulus) -- R (practical response) (Johnson, 2004:19). The following sequence of example may clarify the above theory: when A feels thirsty (S), as A wants to use a language as the medium, he says to B : “Would you take some fresh water?” ( r ). B answers: “Sure” (s), and after that B gives the drink to A ( R ).

It is stated above that BT with its fundamental principle views language learning as the habit formation. It was this belief that a second language learning was said to be problematic as the first language habits might be transferred by the learners in the process of forming habits of the second language. Related to this Lado wrote ‘individuals tend to transfer the forms of meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by the natives’

( 1957:2). He, then, explained that the old habits will be positively transferred in the target language when the grammatical structures of the native language are the same with the ones of the target language. On the contrary, when they are different the transfer will be negative. This is supported by Fries who said that the most efficient materials for learning are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learners (Fries 1945:9). In other words, learning a second or foreign language means learning the differences between native and the target languages and those differences were predicted to be the problems of the learners. The weakness of problem hypotheses that are resulted from contrastive analyses like that is the power of predicting, since the realities indicate that the differences may sometimes not bring about any problem at all, but the similarities do.

As Bloomfield was also the most prominent representative of American structuralism, both his two theories became the theoretical foundations of Contrastive Analysis: a general theory of learning behaviorism, and theory of language -- structural linguistics (Johnson, 2004:20).

The structural or descriptive linguistics lasted from 1940s to 1950s. A structuralist views language as a system of structurally related elements for coding of meaning, (Richard, et al.1992:18). The linguist's task, according to structuralists, was to describe human languages and to identify the structural characteristics of those languages' (Brown, 2000:10). The language learning target is, according to structural linguistics, the mastery of elements of the

language system: its phonological units (e.g. phonemes), grammatical units (e.g. clauses, phrases, sentences), grammatical operations (e.g. adding, shifting, joining, or transforming elements), and lexical items (e.g. function words and structure words) (Richards, et al. 1992:17). The learning was started from the lowest level of language, the phonemes. After mastering a given level it was continued to the next level, on and on until reaching the top structural level, sentences.

Structural linguistics has an important belief which says: 'languages can differ from each other without limits.' This made the contrastive analysis become popular in this era. The impact of the structural linguistics towards the English learning in Indonesia was the approach which put the differences between Indonesian and English as the focus of learning that foreign language. This was done since differences between the students' language and the target language were assumed to be the prominent problems of learning. This assumption was later rejected since in reality, the differences may not always become the problems for the students learning a language.

Another assumption of structural linguistics was that oral language was regarded as more important than written language (Johnson, 2004:20). Therefore, in the structural linguistic era, audio-lingual became the popular method in the foreign language teaching (FLT). Here, the FLT shifted to concentrate more on spoken language than the written version; 'dialogues were used as models, but the individual sentence remained the focus of the repetition and drills' (Kern, 2000:18). However, the formal accuracy remained the first priority for the

students to achieve. This method became such a conviction for the English teachers in Indonesia in 1950-1960. *English 900* and *English 9001* were the popular books used for learning instructions in the era.

It was also in this audio-lingual era that the student centered teaching and learning process was firstly introduced. The students were usually asked to vocalize and memory the word forms and their respective meanings, it was also done with the sentence forms and their meanings through their application in narrative texts or dialogs. The grammar and vocabulary aspects were taught to support the oral communication skill as well as the written one. The multiple choice and matching tests were done for knowing the students achievements in grammar and vocabulary, as well as the students' achievements in the four language skills.

In 1960s, the generative transformational linguistics (GTL) was developed by Noam Chomsky (Brown, 2000:10). Chomsky does not view language as speech to be used in real life communication but as a set of formal properties inherent in any natural language grammar, (Johnson, 2004:30). 'What Chomsky was trying to show is that language (not languages) cannot be scrutinized simply in terms of observable stimuli and responses or the volumes of raw data gathered by the field linguists', (Brown, 2000:10). The GTL does not only describe language in order to achieve the descriptive adequacy level (as the descriptive linguistics does) but it aims at arriving at an explanatory level of adequacy in the study of language. This implies that GTL tries to explain the

principled basis, independent of any particular language for the selection of the descriptively

adequate grammar of each language.

There are two types of generative theories, namely the nativist approach and the cognitive one. The former believes that we are born with a built-in device of some kind that predisposes us to language acquisition -- to a systematic perception of language around us, resulting in the construction of internalized system of language (Brown, 2000:21). This belief is supported by some linguists. Eric Lenneberg (1967 as cited in Brown, 2000:21) who proposed that language is a 'species-specific' behavior and that certain modes of perception, categorizing abilities, and other language-related mechanisms are biologically determined. Chomsky (1966, as cited in Brown, 2000:22) called that innate knowledge 'little black box' of sorts, a *language acquisition device* (LAD). Mc. Neil described LAD as consisting of four innate linguistic properties:

(1) the ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds in the environment, (2) the ability to organize linguistic events into various classes which can later be refined, (3) knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistic system is possible and that other kinds are not, and (4) the ability to engage in constant evaluation of developing linguistic system as to construct the simplest possible system out of the linguistic data that are encountered, (Mc. Neil, 1966 as cited in Brown,2000:22).

Unlike the behavioristic theory that believes in stimulus-response which is very limited, the nativist through LAD addresses many particular aspects of language acquisition such as meaning, abstractness, and creativity aspects. Therefore GTL was considered as the beginning of language study that yielded many possibilities compared to what the behaviorists could provide.

In sum, the nativist gave two contributions to the understanding of the first language learning process:

- (1) freedom from restrictions of the 'scientific method' to explore the unseen, unobservable, underlying, invisible, abstract linguistic structures being developed in the child;
  - (2) description of the child's language as a legitimate, rule-governed, consistent system
- (Brown, 2000:24)

In GTL era linguistics began to view language as one manifestation of general development, one aspect of the cognitive and affective abilities that deal with the world and with self. In other words, linguist began to see that language was hardly something that could be extracted and detached from the cognitive and affective framework and considered separately, and that linguistic rules written as mathematical equations failed to capture that ever elusive facet of language: meaning.

The second approach of GTL, the cognitive approach -- famous with the cognitive code of learning, was introduced in the late 1960s, after Chomsky rejected the structuralism and behavioristic models of FLT that promoted the accuracy of language habits into the students' mind (Kern, 2000:18). Here teachers gradually shifted the goal of FLT from producing accurate language habits to fostering the learners' mental construction of a second language system. Students were trained to learn rules of the foreign language but the level of language research was still individual sentence. At that time the language course organizations in Indonesia were likely to be planned around the sequence of grammatical structures.

All the above methods seemed to lose the functional aspect of language as a means to communicate. This shortage seemed to be responded in 1960s; 'Michael Halliday, a British linguist, and Dell Hymes, an American sociolinguist, argued that individual sentence was too narrow a lens to look through if someone wanted to understand language as it was used in social practice' (Kern 2000:18).

This implies that the basic unit of language research should be higher than a sentence: a text. According to them the structure of a sentence is influenced by the larger textual structures in which it is embedded. Hymes shifted his attention towards language education from grammatical well-formedness to appropriateness of language use in the real social contexts His famous statement is 'there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless' (Hymes, 1971:10) Soon after then, both Halliday and Hymes set the stage for the development of communicative approach to language education. This approach concentrates on the students' ability to communicate based on the embedding contexts when they communicate, therefore, in practice, it needs a teacher that has a broad knowledge of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. The former is for relating the activities in the classroom to the mental processes that are likely to be involved in the language use, and the latter is for creating situations that enable his/her students to communicate as in the real practice of use.

In connection with the real use of language in 1978, Widdowson differentiated the term 'usage' from 'use' of language as quoted below.

‘Usage’ is an aspect of performance that makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of language rules. ‘Use’ is another aspect of performance that makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication. (Widdowson, 1978:3)

Based on the quotation above, when an Indonesian student wants to know what something is called in English he should not ask ‘What is it?’, even it is structurally true but that question is not appropriately asked since he knows what that something is called in his native language. The appropriate question can be ‘What is it called in English?’. The question ‘What is it?’ is an example of ‘usage’ and ‘What is it called in English?’ is ‘use’. The implication was that ‘the pedagogy of language learning shifted from language as code to language as communication in social context’ (Breen and Candlin, 1980 as cited in Kern 2000:19). Widdowson argued ‘that all linguistic behavior was related to the underlying activity of interpreting’ (Widdowson, 1978: 144). He explained further that meaning is not simply found in a language; language learners should have guided experience in selecting, organizing, and interpreting linguistic clues via the creation and re-creation of discourse. For him, the ability of language learning to achieve is interpretive ability development and this can be achieved by means of an integrated approach to reading and writing. As it is named, this approach proposes cycles of reading and writing. The exercises that the learners involved are for example; reformulating procedures into descriptions, changing the tables, diagrams, flow charts of other subjects into verbal texts or vice versa. This integrated approach proposed by Widdowson ( 1978:

144) requires English teachers to cooperate with teachers of other subjects, for the reading-texts given to the students are the ones of those other subjects'. The implication of this is that during 1970s and 1980s many language educators were interested in guiding learners to work with texts. An example of English textbook written

based on the integrated approach is English in Focus.

'Widdowson's ideas echoed into the realization of language education that shifts its emphasis from sentence-grammar, structure drills, and information retrieval to a more thoughtful mode of learning that involves students' reflection on language and content, and especially on the connection between the details of the texts and the students' personal responses to those texts' ( Kern, 2000:20).

In 1991 Swaffar et al. confirmed that 'language students must go beyond mastering grammar rules and vocabulary lists and develop literacy in the sense of being able to use other language's structure to mediate the comprehension or expression of meaning outside their immediate experience' (Swaffar, 1991 as cited in Kern 2000:20). Kern further wrote that Swaffar , et al., Kramsch, Mueller, Berman, Zarrate, Bryam and Esarte Sarries, share a common interest in literacy, they believe that literacy is a means to encourage more reflective inquiry, purposefulness, and language skill development. Furthermore it is confirmed that 'FLT has to provide systemic guidance for the learners in their effort to create, interpret, and reflect on discourse and knowledge in order to promote their awareness of how meanings are made and received in both their own and others' culture' (Kern, 2000: 21). Taking into account the two cultures means that

language literacy education is aimed at preparing the students to actively participate in the globally social life. An Indonesian learner, for example, when expressing meaning in English will be influenced by both Indonesian culture and English culture. Sometimes the Indonesian culture is so dominant that it may influence the realization of meaning being conveyed. And as a result, the English use is somewhat Indonesian biased; this is still acceptable in a spoken language use, for direct negotiation of meaning can be done. But this is not so in a written language, the communicators are in a distance to each other. This means that in a written English communication, the English cultural and situational contexts should be considered well as not to create misinterpretation.

In connection with interpretation, the primary activity of the foreign language literacy education is the interpretive practice, both the teacher and the students are involved in the interpretive engagement of learning, using and enjoying the language being learned. In addition to this, Byrnes argues that 'foreign language departments must learn to play crucial role in enhancing students' literacy, students' ability to interpret and produce texts, orally and in writing, in a fashion that shows a rich awareness of the relation among the sociocultural contexts of use, meaning and significance' (Byrnes, 1998:283). Therefore in literacy language education, working with texts of the learned language is the activity students are involved with. As the text is always situated in both contexts of culture and situation, then the student awareness of sociocultural context of use is likely to be developed.

When employing literacy language education, there are seven principles suggested by Kern that should be taken into account, interpretation, collaboration, convention, cultural knowledge, problem solving, reflection and self reflection, and language use (Kern, 2000:16)

In the interpretation, the writers and readers participate in double acts of inter-pretation -- the writer interprets the world (events, experiences, ideas, and so on), and the reader then interprets the writer's interpretation in terms of his or her own conception of the world.

Collaboration means that the writers write for an audience, even if they write for themselves. Their decisions about what must be said, and what can go without saying are based on their understanding of their audience. Readers in turn must contribute their motivation, knowledge, and experience in order to make the writer's text meaningful.

What Kern means with conventions is how people read and write texts is not universal, but governed by cultural conventions that evolve through use and are modified for individual purposes.

Cultural knowledge refers to reading and writing function within particular systems of attitudes, beliefs, customs, ideals, and values. Readers and writers operating from outside a given cultural system risk misunderstanding or being misunderstood by those operating on the inside of the cultural system.

Problem solving is included because words are always embedded in linguistic and situational contexts, reading and writing involve figuring out relationships between words, between larger units of meaning, and between texts and real or imagined worlds. Literacy involves reflection and re-reflection; it means that readers and writers think about language and its relations to the world and themselves.

Reflection and self-reflection are involved when readers and writers think about language and its relation to the world and themselves.

Language use means that literacy is not just about writing systems, not just about the lexical and grammatical knowledge; it requires knowledge of how language is used in spoken and written context to create discourse.

These seven principles are not only framed for both reading and writing, as common people usually regard literacy approach as, but listening and speaking too. In other words students are involved with both spoken and written language, the two human communications in general. They do work with them, discussing and creating spoken and written texts, they are taught the different features of each.

Regarding that this dissertation concerns with the written language, when employing the literacy approach principles in the reading activities and comparing them to the same activities done in the past, it can be seen that the latter seems to be just rehearsing reading in terms of vocabulary and grammar. The former does not only involve the learners into those activities, they also learn about discourse and the processes by which it is created. Besides that they learn new alternative

ways of organizing their thought and expression that go beyond the learning facts about the second culture. In other words, the literacy language education tries to engage learners in the activities that involve with, as many as possible, the above seven principles for all levels of learners, the beginning, intermediate or advanced ones.

The differences that characterized the shifting in language education explained above are summarized by Kern (2000:19) in the following list .

Language as autonomous structural system	→	Language as social phenomenon
Product orientation	→	Process orientation
Focus on isolated sentences language	→	Focus on connected stretches
Focus on texts as displays of vocabulary and grammar structures	→	Focus on texts realized as communicative acts ('doing things with words')
Teaching as prescriptive norm	→	Attention to register and style variation.
Focus on mastery of discrete skills	→	Focus on self-expression
Emphasis on denotative meanings	→	Emphasis on communicative value in context

Summary of the shifts in pedagogical focus of language education from structural to communicative frameworks (adopted from Kern 2000:19)

Relating the shifts in language education to the curriculum, there have been three major bases of curriculum carried out in language education, namely; structural, communicative and literacy bases. Kern states that 'the literacy based curriculum is thus neither purely structural nor purely communicative in approach, but attempts to relate communicative to structural dimensions of language use' (Kern, 2000: 304).

He illustrates the characteristics of the different emphasis among structural, communicative and literacy curricula discussed above as follows.

Tab. 1 Summary of goals of structural, communicative, and literacy curricula

<b>Structural emphasis</b>	<b>Communicative emphasis</b>	<b>Literacy emphasis</b>
Knowing Usage Language forms Achievement (i.e. display of knowledge)	Doing Use Language forms Functional ability to communicate	Doing & reflecting on doing in term of knowing Usage/Use relations Form and function relationships Communicative appropriateness Formed by metacommunicative awareness

(Kern, 2000 :304)

In Indonesia, when the English education was structurally based, students mostly learned the various forms of structures of sentences, grammar by doing an excessive written exercises either from grammar exercise books, such as the one written by W Standard Allen. The exercises were in the forms of isolated sentences, the learners' achievement was just the display of knowledge. And as the result, the high scores the students got cannot guarantee them to communicate well. Students were not taught how to use those forms to apply in the real communication.

In the communicative era, as the results of misinterpretation of the word 'communicative', English text-books in Indonesia are likely to contain so many exercises on oral communication; the written language tends to be neglected. The English classes tends to be full of activities such as; memorization of conversations and functional expressions, the emphasis is on the use of language. However, it is only the oral use of language that is likely be emphasized, not both oral and written uses.

In the literacy language education, the use and usage are learned. Literacy approach treats oral and written language as having the equal proportions which can be seen through its approach which has two cycles, spoken and written cycles. In reality, now, when learning English, Indonesian students undergo both oral and written language learning experience.

It is explicitly stated in the table above that text is the focus of literacy era's language education, therefore, the next discussion will be about it.

## **2.5 Text and Discourse**

The term text and discourse are very often confusing, therefore, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of what each of them is. Some definitions of discourse are quoted below.

The classic definition of discourse as derived from formalist assumptions is 'language above the sentence or above the clause' (Stubbs, 1983:1). This definition is too deficient, for a piece of discourse in context can just consist of a word or a phrase; such as: 'STOP', 'No Smoking area'.

Cook defines discourse as 'language that has been used for communication' (Cook, 2001: 6). Therefore, language in use cannot be called as discourse if it does not communicate, even though the sentence is written/spoken in a correct grammar. For example, the sentence '*A chair speaks loudly*' does not communicate even though the grammar is correct for the meaning does not make sense.

Murcia and Olshtain (200:4) define discourse as ‘an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocuter’. The choices of grammar and words used for communicating orally or in writing are done to achieve the purpose of communication. In addition, the choice of words and grammar is done properly if the user considers the context and the participants, i.e. the relevant situational, social and cultural factors.

The 2004 EC defines discourse as ‘a communicative event within situational contexts that takes place systematically based on the cultural and situational contexts encircling it’ (2004 EC: 38). From them it can be inferred that discourse has these qualities:

- a. it has a social purpose,
- b. it can be spoken or written,
- c. it should be put in use,
- d. it should have meaning,
- e. its unity is a must,
- f. the form and the meaning can be described by relating to the contexts encircling it.

In the quotation below Murcia, et al. (2000:5) give the correlation between discourse and a text, as follows:

There are many different ways to classify discourse. One dimension is the written/spoken distinction **resulting in written or spoken texts.**

It can be seen explicitly, particularly the phrase in bold, that a text is the result of discourse. In other words, text is the concrete form of discourse. Beside the product of discourse, a text is defined by Stubb as ‘an instance of language in use, either spoken or written: a piece of language behavior which has occurred naturally, without the intervention of the linguist’ (Stubb, 1996:4). When a text is spoken, it can be recognized through phonological system of language, whereas the written text is recognized through graphological system. Stubb does not include the language that is invented by a linguist to illustrate a point of linguistic theory as a text, for it does not happen naturally.

Another definition of a text is given by Butt: ‘a text is a collection of meaning appropriate to its context’ (1995:11), whereas Feez and Joyze give another definition of text, they say that ‘text is any stretch of language which is held together cohesively through meaning’ (Feez, et al. 2002:4). Therefore, meaning cohesion of a text is inevitable, without that quality the stretch of language in use is not a text. Another important characteristic of a text is the appropriateness to the contexts. Ignoring one or both of the contexts, a text cannot be called a text, since it cannot be functioned properly.

### **2. 5.1. Text and Context**

There are two contexts that encircle a text; they are the context of culture and con-

text of situation. The relation between those three is well represented by the diagram

below.

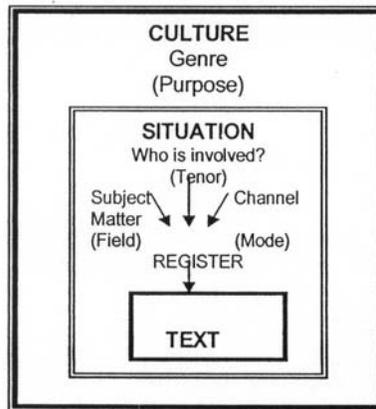


Fig.6 Derewianka's language model (adopted from Hammond, et al. 1992:1)

In the diagram, the outer layer represents the context of culture where any language interaction occurs. This context incorporates:

- the attitudes, values and shared experiences of any group of people living in the one culture.
- culturally evolved expectations of ways behaving
- culturally evolved ways of getting things done or of achieving common goals. (Hammond, et al., 1992:2)

Those incorporating constituents bring about convention that should be considered when someone communicates. It is the convention that makes a text of a given culture tends to be different compared to the one of other cultures. An invitation written in English, for example, is different from the one written in 'bahasa Indonesia'. The former is usually straight to the point. The latter usually has such a greeting and appraisals to God as an opening. The respective conventions that govern the texts (invitations) make them different.

The context of culture gives rise to genre. Genre is a French term borrowed from the Latin *genus* which means type or kind

<http://academic.brooklyn.cuny.edu/english>

[/melani/cs6/genres.htm](#)). The term used to be related to the category of literary composition, such as novel, plays, short stories, etc. However, today, it is widely used in rhetoric, literary and linguistics to refer to the distinctive type of text (Chandler in <http://www.aber.ac.uk/media/Document/intgenre/intgrnre2.html>, 1997:1), and lately it has

been applied to digital communication and on the internet (Breure in [http://www.cs.uu.nl/people/leen/GenreDev/Genre Development.htm](http://www.cs.uu.nl/people/leen/GenreDev/Genre%20Development.htm), 2001:2).

Those descriptions about genre are too general, Martin, a systemic linguist gives a clear definition and elaboration

to genre as follows:

Genres are how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them. They range from literary forms to far from literary: poems, narrative, exposition, lectures, seminars, recipes, manuals, appointment making, service encounters, new broadcasts and so on. The term genre is used here as to embrace each of the linguistically realized activity types which comprise so much of culture (Martin, 1985:250).

According to Martin genre is how language is used to realize various kinds of cultural events, can be literary and the non literary. This coincides with Swales who suggests that 'genre refers to any discourse category that can be spoken or written, with or without literary inspirations' (1990:32).

Martin and Rhotery (1986:243) define genre as 'staged purposeful social processes through which a culture is realized through language'. It implies that the stages of a genre and their realization are done purposely, that is to achieve its cultural (social) purpose.

The complete definition of genre is given by Couture who distinguishes genre from register. He suggests that ‘genre, unlike register, can only be realized in completed texts or texts that can be projected as complete, for a genre does more than specify kinds of codes extent in a group of related texts; it specifies conditions for beginning, continuing, and ending a text’ (1986:82). The inferences which can be taken from those definitions are :

1. genre has a social purpose,
2. it can only be realized as a whole text,
3. it has stages to accomplish

A recount genre, for example, has a social purpose as to retell events for the purpose of informing or entertaining. The stages are orientation (to provide the setting and introduces participants), and events (to tell what happened and in what sequence they happened). The omission of one stage causes it to fail to be called a recount.

The other context of a text which influences its realization is the context of situation. Butt, et al. suggest that:

Context of situation is a useful term to cover the things going on in the world outside the text which makes the text what it is. These are extralinguistic features of a text which are given substance in the words and grammatical patterns which speakers and writers use consciously and subconsciously to construct text of different varieties, and which their audience uses to classify and interpret. (Butt, et al., 1995:12).

It can be seen in the above quotation that the context of situation helps a speaker or a writer choose words (lexis) and grammar to communicate in the concerned context. Based on the systemic functional linguistics, there are three aspects of

the context of situation, namely: field, tenor and mode. ‘The field refers to what the text is about; the tenor, the interpersonal relationship between the involvers of the text; and the mode, the role language is playing’ (Eggins, 1994:26). Those three aspects determine the speaker’s or writer’s choices of words and grammar to construct a text. How each of those aspects does the job is as follows:

*Field* determines the choices of vocabulary, verb of doing, feeling or being.

*Tenor* determines the use of modality, modulation, and choices of personal pronouns

*Mode* determines the cohesive ties operating in spoken or written texts.

(Hammond, et al., 1992:3)

For example, the field is frying rice; the lexical choices are such as: rice, frying pan, fry, etc; and lexical choices such as: ball, goal, kick, are not chosen for they do not suit with that given field. The field is related to the topic or the subject matter of communication.

When the tenor is between two close friends; the clause such as ‘*You must come on time*’ may appropriately be used rather than ‘Would you mind coming on time?’ The latter clause seems inappropriately used between close friends since it may put them in such a distant relationship. The exchange of roles is made possible by appropriate choice of lexicogrammar that expresses the speakers’ MOOD, modality and also the English appraisal system’ (Martin and Rose, 2003) Tenor governs the formality of a text.

The second context influencing a text is the on text of situation which gives rise to register. Butt, et. al. argue that ‘when a set of texts share the same context of situation to a greater or lesser extent, they will share the same experiential, interpersonal and textual meanings and so they belong to the same

register' (1995:17). The experiential meaning refers to *field*; the interpersonal, *tenor*; and the textual meaning, *mode*.

Referring back to genre, some linguists regard genre as a type of text. Every type of text has its specific generic structure and lexicogrammatical features. With regard to the generic structure of a text Halliday and Hasan write:

Genres can vary in delicacy in the same way as contexts can. But for some given texts to belong to one specific genre, their structure should be some possible realization of a given Generic Structure Potential (GSP) ... It follows that texts belonging to the same genre can vary in their structure; the one respect in which they cannot vary without consequence to their genre-allocation is the obligatory elements and dispositions of the GSP. (Halliday & Hasan, 1985:108).

Based on the quotation above, a given text can be classified into a given genre or type of text when it fulfils the generic structure potential (GSP) -- potential obligatory elements that build a text. Related to this, Eggins reassures that

there are some elements that are somehow defining the genre, those which are keys to recognize the genre the text is included in. They are called the defining or obligatory elements. The other elements out of these obligatory ones are called the optional elements (Eggins, 1994: 40).

In the quotation above, Eggins suggests that there are two elements that develop a text, namely obligatory elements and optional ones. Having the former elements, a text can be classified into a given genre or type of text. This means that they should exist completely in a given text in order to be included in a given genre. The latter, as they are optional, may, and may not be available in a text of a given genre.

With regard to obligatory and optional elements of a text, Berkenkotter and Huckin point out that 'genres are inherently dynamic rhetorical structures that

can be manipulated according to condition of use, and that genre knowledge is therefore best conceptualized as a form of situated cognition embedded in disciplinary cultures' (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995 as cited in Flowerdew, 2002:23). For Berkenkotter and Huckin the rhetorical structure of a genre is not static, the manipulation of it can be done based on the situation of use. This is supported by Bathia (Bhatia, 1993 as cited in Flowerdew, 2002:24) who explains that the manipulation may be done by someone creating a text because of his private intentions within the rhetorical context of a socially recognized communicative purpose. Another possible reason of the manipulation is that s/he is in the position to respond to a changing socio-cognitive need that requires him to negotiate his response in the light of recognizable or established conventions. This means that the changing of rhetorical structure of a genre can be done as long as the reason is to achieve its social purpose. In addition, Flowerdew states explicitly that 'genres do change over time in response to the changing of socio-cognitive needs' (Flowerdew, 2002:24).

Based on the 2006 EC, the genres or type of texts that should be taught to students of SHS in Indonesia can be seen in the appendices on pages 167-170.

### **2.5.2 Genre and Register**

Bathia and Swales state that genre and register are interchangeably just like genre and text type, (Bathia and Swales, as cited in Lee, 2001:6). They give the clarification as to differentiate genre and register through their suggestion, as

follows: ‘one difference between the two is that genre tends to be associated more with the organization of the culture and social purposes around language, and is tied more closely to consideration of ideology and power; whereas register is associated with the organization of situation or immediate context’ (Bathia and Swales, as cited in Lee, 2001:7).

Swales (1990:58) clarifies genre and register through their respective foci of analyses, as follows:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitutes the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. This means that the purpose constitutes the logical basis of the genre and helps to shape the ways a text is structured and constrains the choices of content and style. Therefore the genre analyses of a text should cover the social function of the text, the schematic structure of it, and the choices of lexicogrammar used to achieve the purpose. (Swales,1990:58)

The long explanation about genre above suggests that the study of genre should be based on the conventions agreed by the parent discourse community. These conventions cover the social purpose of the genre, its schematic structure or rhetorical development as this dissertation calls it so, and the choice of content and style. For example, based on the conventions the purpose of a recount genre is to retell events for the purpose of informing or entertaining, its rhetorical development consists of orientation^events^re-orientation; whereas its significant lexicogrammatical choices are characterized by the focus on specific participants,

the use of material processes, the availability of circumstances of time and place, the use of past tense, and focus on the temporal sequence.

All those aspects should be taught to students of SHS, since the experience at working with them can make the students have a good understanding of how a given cultural event is realized through its genre stages and genre lexicogrammatical features. With that background knowledge, one can read and write a text more effectively. In reading, when he wants to find given information he may not read the whole text but focusing on the part he is sure to get that information. For example, when finding information about what he should do to a given material in a recipe he will not read on the material needed part but the part called the method of cooking. Whereas in writing, the knowledge of genre will guide him to know exactly where, what, and how to write a given stage of a text. For example, he will not write a twist in the orientation part of a spoof for he knows exactly that the twist provides the 'punchline' so it should be written at the end. He will use past tense in writing a spoof since it is used to retell a humorous event. The word retell implies that the event happened in the past time.

A study of a text, therefore, needs to take into account the two contexts. In the context of culture, the study views a text at its macro level, what being analyzed at this level is the overall structures of different texts. Whereas the study related to register views a text at its micro level, here the concern is 'the way certain grammatical features such as verb tense or voice are used in different genres writing, and different places within the same genre' (Flowerdew, 2002: 58).

The suggested lexicogramatical features of the genres that should be taught to the SHS students in Indonesia can be found on pp. 170-172 of the appendices.

The rhetorical development and lexicogrammar characteristics stated in the appendix are for both the written texts and spoken ones. However, there are differences between spoken and written languages and the following discussion is about them.

## 2.6 Spoken and Written Language

Spoken and written languages have differences in some ways. 'These differences are generally attributed to the distinct functions that speech and writing have evolved to perform' (Hyland 2002: 49). Speech is for oral communication and writing for written communication. 'Speech is very contextualized, depends much on shared situation, allows less planning, involves real-time monitoring, and relies to a greater extent on immediate feedback' (Hyland 2002:49). Involving in an oral communication, someone usually depends much on the context. Instead of that, in an oral communication the immediate response is demanded and the parties involved hardly have time to think when responding. The list below presents some of spoken and written language commonly perceived differences.

<b>Spoken language</b>	<b>Written language</b>
- more hesitations, interruptions and self passives	- more subordination and corrections
- no spelling and punctuation conventions	- longer sentences

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| - relies on gestures & paralinguages                 | - more explicit coding of logical relations |
| - concrete, fragmented, informal & context dependent | - less modal modification                   |
| complex,   | - structurally elaborate,                   |
| formal   | abstract &                                  |
| - characterized by turn-taking                       | - characterized by monologue                |

Hyland's differences between spoken and written language  
(adopted from Hyland, 2002:50).

The direct contact between the speakers in spoken communication causes them to have no time to think of what to say/respond; hesitations, interruptions, and self corrections very often happen.

The clauses produced are mostly spontaneous, therefore they are likely to be short. This does not tend to happen in a written language; every clause is preplanned, so written language tends to make use of conjunction, cohesive devices, sub-ordination to provide logical relation.

Spoken communication is highly contextualized, depending much on the immediate feedback. A text writer has hardly received immediate feedback because of his being absent. In addition meanings in written text tend to be expressed in passive tenses with a lot of nominalization. Eggins offers another list of differences as follows:

**Typical features of spoken lang.**

- dynamics
- interactive staging which is difficult to describe
- flexible, fluid
- on-going and open-ended
- spontaneity phenomena (false starts, hesitations, interruptions, overlap, incomplete clauses)
- turn-taking organization

**Typical features of written lang.**

- synoptic
- crafted staging which is easier to describe
- fixed, finite
- closed, progresses to a conclusion
- polished 'final draft' with indications of earlier drafts removed
- linear/monologic organization

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| - everyday lexis  | - prestige lexis (ideas, reason)   |
| - lexically sparse  | - lexically dense  |
| - non-standard grammar  | - standard grammar   |
| - grammatical complexity  | - grammatical simplicity   |
| - move rapidly from one point to another and sometimes back again | - each point is dealt with in turn and sometimes detail before writer moves on to the next points  |
| - string information out  | - packs information into the text  |
| - speakers can rely on shared physical context                    | - writers cannot rely on a shared physical context to convey meaning so writing must be independent of the physical context in which it is written (context-independent) |
| - speakers can request clarification                              | - readers cannot request clarification.  |

Differences between spoken and written language ( Feez, et al.,2002:77).

Spoken language is dynamic; it means that exchanging turns between communicators occur so naturally; what is going on in the communication is unpredictable and spontaneous; the topic may even change very often.

In a written language, the communicators are in a distance to each other; it means that written language is read while the writer is absent. Therefore, the language used tends to be synoptic instead of dynamic; meanings are expressed within stages required; and the context is independent (within the text).

Knowledge of those differences is very important for a writer to know in order that s/he does not write a text which is like speech written down.

However, Bibber (1988:36-37), in his research, does not find any explicit difference between speech and writing in terms of linguistic or situational characterization. He finds that some spoken genres are quite similar to the written genres but some are different. He further adds that some genres such as university lectures, sermons, and rap songs, maybe written to be delivered as speech; while some written forms, like advertisements, postcards and tabloid

articles often contain features more usually associated with spoken language. That opinion is supported by Hammond who observes more closely on the spoken and written language, and finds out that ‘those two can be usefully viewed as a continuum and difficult to be clearly cut’ (Hammond, 1992:5). The continuum relationship between the two is illustrated by the diagram on the next page.

The label **most spoken** above means language interaction where it is mostly accompanied actions and where there is the least physical distance between participants.

Thus it is the language that has the most characteristics of spoken language listed above.

While **most written** refers to language texts where the distance between participants is the maximum.

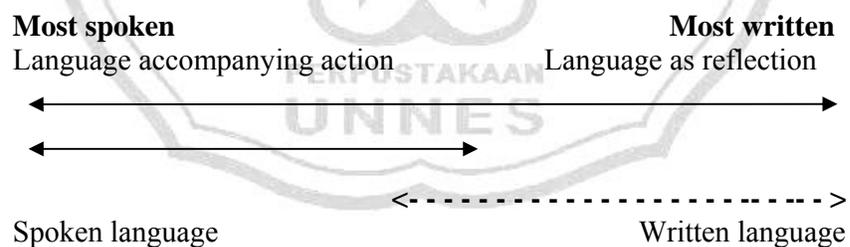


Fig. 7 Spoken and written language continuum (adopted from Hammond 1992:5)

In written text, as there is no physical interaction between participants, the meanings being conveyed should be labeled fully, later after that they can be replaced by using referring items, such as pronouns, substitutions, ellipsis, etc. Such those references serve to link parts of the text together into a cohesive text.

The non-physical context between the reader and the writer of a written text requires the writer to provide complete information. This causes the use of lexical items or content words to become increased. This is the indication that written language has higher lexical density than the spoken one. Besides the text construction of a written language is more logical, more highly structured and more systematically organized compared to the spoken form.

Other specific features of written language are the use of nominalization, the changing of other word classes into a noun. The word that is usually nominalized is the verb, for example; '*The completion of the design needs a considerably long enough time*' is indicated to be more written style rather than *The design is completed considerably long*. Here the verb *is completed* is changed into a noun phrase *the completion of...*. Nominalization like this tends to frequently be used in a written text. This tendency is done by the writer as to create formality.

The continuum of spoken to written language is in line with 'the natural continuity of a child learning a language; (in a normal condition) learning to speak takes place before learning to write (Gleason, et al., 1998).

These characteristics of spoken and written language as well as the continuum can be the considerations in evaluating the quality of a text. However, to explain how a text is constructed, the text has to be unfolded in terms of its clauses. This means that the realization of its rhetorical development through the clauses of its elements can be used to see whether a text is compatible with the

parent community's convention. The way to unfold clauses of a text that this research used is the one offered by the systemic functional grammar.

## 2.7 Systemic Functional Linguistics

*Systemic functional linguistics* (SFL), or as usually called 'systemic linguistics,

which views a language as a resource of making meaning, was firstly introduced by Halliday in 1983. It does not only ask functional questions about how people use a language, but it interprets the linguistic system itself from a functional-semantic perspective' (Egins, 1994: 11). It provides ways to unfold texts in terms of how the language is used to construct meanings functionally.

Egins suggests that SFL can describe four main theoretical claims about language:

1. that language use is functional,
2. that its function is to make meanings,
3. that these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural contexts in which they are exchanged, and
4. that the process of using language is a semiotic process -- a process of making meanings by choosing.

Egins (1994:2).

'The fundamental purpose language has evolved to serve is to enable us to make meanings with each other' Egins (1994:11). When communicating, language is used to exchange meanings, not sounds, words, or clauses. This implies that interaction to each other using a language is to make sense of the world and of each other. Linguistically, 'the overall purpose of language can be

described as a semantic one, and each text we participate in is a record of the meanings that have been made in a particular context' (Eggins 1994:11). When exchanging meanings through language, someone is involved in the activity of selecting lexicogrammatical choices since the use of the language is influenced by the two contexts encircling it. These contexts determine the choices of lexicogrammars that are used for communicating.

The meanings being exchanged consist of three kinds; experiential, interpersonal, and textual; Halliday calls them three strands of meanings (Halliday, 1994:34).

Before discussing those three strands of meanings, it is necessary to specify the term 'clause' that will be used frequently in this part.

### 2.7.1 Clause

Halliday and other experts of SFL prefer to use the term *clause* to *sentence* in their language analysis. The reason is because, for them, 'a sentence refers to a unit of written language; it does not apply in spoken language' (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:82). This indicates that a sentence is a grammatical unit of a written text whereas a clause has a broader sense of meaning that it can be used for both spoken and written language. Gerot and Wignell provide the rank scale of a sentence of traditional grammar which is contrasted with a clause of systemic grammar, as follows:

<b>Traditional (written and spoken)</b>	<b>Systemic-functional (written and spoken)</b>
sentence	clause
phrase	group
word	word

(Gerot and Wignell, 1994:82)

A clause is the largest grammatical unit in systemic functional grammar (Gerot, et al.,1994:82). It may be single, consisting of only one clause, or more than one clause. The latter is called a clause complex. Both a single clause and a clause complex can be found in a reading text of SHS text books, therefore it is necessary to discuss them further.

The single clause consists of two forms, namely; a minor clause and a major one (Gerot, et al., 1994: 83). A clause is minor when it has no predicator, and major when it has a predicator. A minor clause can be in the form of address (vocative), greeting, and exclamation, such as the following examples:

*Cisil, my sweety* ..... (vocatives)

*Good day, luv!* (greeting)

*Phew!, Wow!* (exclamation)

Those forms, the minor clauses, are often found in spoken language. Relating them to a written text, the genre that tends to have them is narrative. In narrative, direct conversation between characters happens very often.

The major clause can be independent or dependent (Gerot, et al.,1994: 84). The names reflect what each of them is; the independent clause can stand by itself, whereas the dependent one cannot stand by itself. The example of the former is shown in bold and the latter's example is in italic.

**Winston Churchill**, *who was serving in Chamberlain's cabinet*, **became the prime minister.**

The independent clause can be classified as elliptical and non-elliptical clauses (Gerot, et al., 1994:85). The elliptical has a or some part/s ellipsed, on the contrary the non-elliptical has no parts ellipsed. The examples are as follows.

#### **Non-elliptical**

1. Who was eliminated in this round?
2. Are you happy with all these?

#### **Elliptical**

- Jefri.  
No.

In the first elliptical clause example, *Jefri*, the parts ellipsed are *was eliminated in this round*; whereas in the second, *I am not happy with all these*.

### **2.7.2 Clause Complex**

A clause complex is a combination of clauses. As it is a combination, it consists of at least two clauses. 'The relation between clauses in a clause complex can be interpreted in terms of its logicosemantic relation and its system of interdependency' (Halliday, 1994: 216).

Regarding the logicosemantic relation, a clause complex can be combined in two ways, expansion and projection. The former links Processes by providing additional information (Gerot, et al., 1994: 89). This involves three types of relationships: elaboration, extension, and enhancement. The latter (projection) links clauses by having one process projected through another either by quoting or reporting (Gerot, et al., 1994: 91). Each of them will be explained below.

The elaborating expansion clause has four purposes: to specify in greater detail, restate, exemplify, and to comment. Therefore, it is usually started with: i.e., e.g., namely, etc. In the clause analysis, the marking used to identify this kind

of clause is the equal sign (=) since the level of the elaborated and the elaborating clauses are the same. For example:

Children should listen to their parents, *i.e. mothers and fathers.*

A

Children should listen to their parents.

B =

*i.e. mothers and fathers.*

Clause A is elaborated by clause B.

The extending expansion has a function as to add information. It extends the meaning of one clause by adding something new. It usually starts with 'and', 'but', and 'or', for example:

Snow White is very kind to anyone *but her step sisters are not.*

Since the function of the extending clause is for adding information, the sign used when identifying it is the plus sign (+), for example:

A

Snow White is very kind to anyone.

B +

but her step sisters do not.

Clause B adds information to clause A.

The enhancing expansion involves circumstantial relationships where the circumstantial information is coded as a new clause rather than within the clause. This can be temporal, conditional, causal, concessive, spatial or manner. In the clause analysis the mark used for identifying this is a multiplication sign (X), for example:

They do not have time to practice *if you teach both day and night*.

A  
They do not have time to practice.

B X  
if you teach both day and night.

Clause B enhances clause A by providing a condition that must be fulfilled by clause A.

As it is stated above, the things being projected can be meanings or ideas and wordings or locutions. The projected meanings are marked with a single apostrophe (') and the wordings with double apostrophes (""), for example:

The eldest daughter *thinks that Cinderella will not go to the ball*.

A  
The eldest daughter thinks

B'  
(that) Cinderella will not go to the ball.

The prince says softly: "I love you so much."

A  
The prince says

B''  
I love you so much.

Clause B' (*Cinderella will not go to the ball*) is called the projected idea clause, whereas the clause B'' (*I love you so much*) is the projected verbal clause.

Within the system of interdependency or taxis, a clause complex can be joined hypotactically or paratactically (Gerot, et al. 1994:92). Hypotaxis refers to relationships in which one clause is dependent on another clause, and parataxis refers to the relationship in which one clause follows from another.

In hypotaxis, clauses are referred as being either dominant or dependent. This status is marked through Greek letter, such as;  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $\delta$ , and so forth. Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) is given to the dominant clause, this does not necessarily come first in the clause complex.

In parataxis, the clauses are referred to as being initiating or continuing. Clauses of this kind are marked by numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 and so on. Both hypotaxis and parataxis examples are shown in the following examples.

*The term 'social' implies that under normal circumstances communication happens when there is somebody who creates a message and there is somebody who receives the message.*

A  $\alpha$   
The term 'social' implies

B  $\beta$  =  
(that) under normal circumstances communication happens

C1  $\mu$  X  
(when) there is somebody

D  $\delta$  =  
who creates a message

E 2 +  
 $\alpha$   
and there is somebody

F  $\beta$  =  
who receives the message.

Clauses B, C and D cannot stand by themselves; they are dependent on clause A.

Being

independent , this clause is regarded as dominant, therefore it is labeled  $\alpha$ ; whereas clauses B,C, and D are labeled  $\beta$ ,  $\mu$ , and  $\delta$ . They are hypotactically joined.

Clauses A and E are joined paratactically, clause E continues clause A. That is the reason why clause A is labeled 1 and clause E ,2.

The combination of expansion and projection with taxis that makes up the systems for joining clauses is summarized in the table below .

Tab. 2 Expansion & taxis summary (adopted from Gerot, et al., 1994:94) with addition

	<b>Elaborating</b>	<b>Extending</b>	
<b>Enhancing</b>	(=)	(+)	(X)
<b>Parataxis</b>	that is to say or (rather) in other words for example for instance	and, but not only but also except	so,then for,thus or else still or,yet
otherwise			
	<b>Elaborating</b>	<b>Extending</b>	
<b>Enhancing</b>	(=)	(+)	(X)
<b>Hypotaxis</b>	which	whereas	as,
while	who	while	when,
where	that	instead	because,
if		besides	even
though		rather than	despite

### 2.7.3 Three Strands of Meanings

The various clauses, when they are used in the actual communication have three meanings at the same time; meaning as a message, as an exchange and as a representation, as stated by Halliday below. According to him each of them governs the organization of a text based on its function.

1. The Theme functions in the structure of the clause as a message. A clause has a meaning as a message, a quantum of information; the Theme is the point of departure for the message. It is the element the user selects for grounding what it is going to say.
  2. The Subject functions in the structure of the clause as an exchange. A clause has meaning as an exchange, a transaction between the speaker and the listener, the Subject is the warranty of the exchange. It is the element the writer makes responsible for the validity of what he saying.
  3. The Actor functions in the structure of the clause as a representation. A clause has meaning as representation, a contrast of some process in ongoing human experience; the Actor is the active participant in the process. It is the element the writer portrays as the one does the deed.
- Halliday (1994:34)

How a text presents a message can be seen from the configuration of its Theme and Rheme of the clauses creating the text. Halliday explains those parts of a message, as follows,

The Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is with which the clause is concerned. The remainder of the message, the part in which the Theme is developed, is called the Rheme. (Halliday, 1994:37)

Theme is the clause element that serves as the starting point of the message; therefore it contains familiar information, usually it is the information that has been mentioned somewhere in the text. SFL calls the familiar information as 'given' and the unfamiliar one as 'new'. The organization of Given and New of a

text provides its cohesion, therefore it can maintain an easy flow of the message being conveyed.

The Mood and Residue of clauses in a text can help the communicators exchange meanings properly in the text they are involved in. Knowing the Mood (subject and finite of a clause) someone can see the clause's function, whether it is giving information, showing attendance, instructing, etc. The finite can also tell the relationship

A clause as representation is dominated by the function of processes. The other linguistic structures are participants and circumstances. Those three determine how well a text presents the human experience via the clauses that form the text. The uncovering of those clauses in terms of those three linguistic structure's functions makes someone knows who does what to whom, or who/what is what/who when, where, why and how function.

Those three meanings are used to realize the context of situation, one of the two contexts language is influenced when it is used for communication. They are well illustrated below.

Tab.3 Clause structure

<i>Children pets</i>		<i>are</i>	<i>welcome</i>
MOOD		Residue	
Subject	Finite		Complement
THEME		RHEME	
Token	Relational Process		Value

The clause *Children pets are welcome* encodes three meanings simultaneously, interpersonal via its MOOD (the first and second rows), textual via its Theme-Rheme (the third row), and experiential through its transitivity (the fourth row). Each of them is independent variable, the implication is that it can be applied independently. In the case of a reading text, as it is written, the dominant meaning is ideational one, a text as representation, therefore the concern is the transitivity. The functional elements of the clause above are realized by units of grammatical classes; a word, a group of words, and a clause. The above clause is realized by a word (*are, welcome*) and a group of words (*children pets*).

The detail explanation of how the three meanings encoded by a clause are described respectively.

### 2.7.3.1 Textual Meaning

When the concern is the textual meaning then the consideration is the clause's

character as a message, therefore is called *Clause as Message*. What is mainly learned

here is the Thematic Structure of the clause.

As in other culture, English is likely to have a habit of putting an important thing in the front part, and so does the Thematic Structure of a clause;

the Theme is put in the front part or at the beginning of a clause. That part is then developed in the rest part of the clause called the Rheme. In the Rheme part, the development of the Theme can be in the form of elaboration, enhancement, or extension.

Considering that the Theme is the important part that the user thinks is important, that part is the starting point of the message, 'it is the ground from which the clause is taking off' (Halliday 1994: 38). In other words the meaning of any clause lies in which element is chosen as its Theme. The message meaning of a clause will be different if the Theme is different, such as the following clauses:

- (a) **The dean** leaves the meeting room.
- (b) **The meeting room** is left by the dean.

In clause (a) the message is like 'I want to tell you that the dean leaves the meeting room', whereas in clause (b) the user of the language intends to emphasize that it is the meeting room, not any other rooms, that is left by the dean. Therefore we can characterize a clause by means of its Theme. The different choices of words used as the Theme bring about the different kinds of Theme in a clause.

Theme can be grouped into three main categories: ideational theme, interpersonal theme, and textual one. A clause may have any, all or one of these three categories.

### a. Ideational Theme

The ideational theme that is also called the topical theme, is usually the first

nominal group of a clause. Gerot, et al. (1994:104) suggest ‘that not all topical theme is the first nominal group in a clause, it can be a nominal group complexes, adverbial groups, prepositional phrases or even embedded clauses’ (Gerot, et al. 1994:104).

There are two kinds of topical Themes; **marked** and **unmarked**. According to Gerot et.al. (1994:104) ‘it is named ‘marked’ as it stands out, it is not the one that we normally expect to find, usually a topical theme is the subject of a clause’. The quotation implies that an unmarked topical Theme is the subject of a clause, while a marked one is not. The clauses below may help the above explanation become clear.

*Mega did not come to the meeting*  
*Mega and Sukma did not come to the meeting.*  
*Who were not invited did not come to the meeting.*

*Mega*, *Mega and Sukma*, and *Who were not invited* are the examples of unmarked topical Themes. They can be in the forms of a nominal group (*Mega*), a nominal group complex

(*Mega and Sukma*), or an embedded clause (*Who were not invited*).

The marked topical Theme can be found in the various forms, such as: adverb, a prepositional word group, or a complement, for example:

*Quickly*, he goes  
*In a moment*, he goes out  
*A book*, he gives

The bold type words are the examples of the marked topical Themes, *Quickly* is in the form of adverb, *In a moment*, a prepositional word group, and *A book*, a complement.

### b. Textual Theme

The textual theme relates the clause to its context. It can be a ‘continuative’ and/or a ‘conjunctive adjunct’ (e.g. right, well, OK, now, anyway, of course, nevertheless), and a conjunction (e.g. but, and).

The difference between the conjunctive adjunct and the conjunction is very slight. The former is the textual theme that can move freely in a clause, whereas the latter tends to remain at the beginning of a clause. Another difference between them is that the former tends to join text outside of the clause complexes and the latter within a clause complex. The continuative is a small set of items which is always at the beginning of a clause. For example:

<i>Right,</i>	<i>what we need to do today</i>	<i>is revise the writing.</i>
Continuative textual theme	Topical theme	Rheme

In the example above the continuative *Right* provides a signal to the listener that the speaker is about to start to say. As the function is such, it cannot be put somewhere else but at the beginning of the clause.

<i>Well,</i>	<i>on the other hand</i>	<i>if</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>wait until Friday .....</i>
Continuative textual theme	Conjunctive textual theme	Conjunction textual theme	Topical theme	Rheme



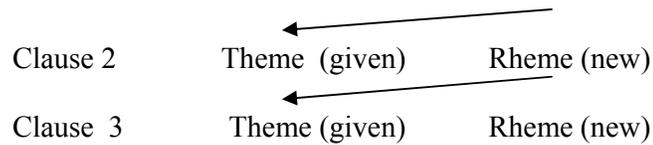


Fig.8 Zig-zag pattern of thematic development

This thematic development can keep a text cohesive. In addition, the new information provided in the previous Rheme which becomes the Theme in the following clause can avoid the creation of a boring text, the one that has the same themes in the clauses.

### 2.7.3.2 Interpersonal Meaning

The second meaning a clause can give is the interpersonal meaning; that is ‘the meaning that expresses the language user’s attitudes or judgments’ (Gerot, et al., 1995: 13). Eggins suggests ‘that analyzing the interpersonal meaning means establishing a relationship between the semantic organization of interaction and grammatical differences in the Mood configurations in clauses of different Mood types, and see the role of modality in interaction’ (Eggins, 1994: 146). Halliday states that ‘whenever we use language to interact, one of the things we are doing with it is establishing a relationship between us: between the person speaking now, and the person who will probably speak next’, (Halliday 1984:68). Considering Halliday’s argument, then the term given to the study concerning the relationship of the parties involved in the communication is called the study of the clause as an exchange.

The constituents of MOOD in a clause are the subject and the finite.

‘A subject realizes the thing by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied. It provides the person or thing in whom

is vested the success or failure of the proposition, what is held responsible (Halliday, 198a:76).

The second element or constituent of MOOD is the Finite. Halliday defines ‘the Finite in terms of its function in the clause, that is to make the proposition definite, to anchor the proposition in a way we can argue about it’ (Halliday, 1985a: 75).

With regard to the definitions of Subject and Finite above the MOOD of the clause below is *The president of Indonesia visited*.

The president of Indonesia visited the victims on the spot.

*The president of Indonesia* is the Subject and *visited* is the Finite.

When the verbal element of a clause is more than one word, two words (e.g. is coming), three words (e.g. had been taken), or more than three words (e.g. had been being taken, should have been being taken, etc.); the Finite is the first verbal element in the clause. Just like the clause examples below, the Finites of the respective clauses are the underlined words.

Tomorrow they are coming.

The bill had been taken out

Halliday suggests that when anchoring the proposition, the finite uses its temporal verbal operators and/or its modal operators (Halliday, 1985a:75). Those two kinds are:

- a) Temporal finite Verbal Operators: to anchor the proposition by reference to time. This means that it gives the tense to the Finite; past tense (e.g. The winner got the present), present tense (e.g. No one misses the chance), or future tense (You will come to that point later).

- b) Finite Modal Operators: to anchor the proposition not by reference to time but by reference to Modality, for examples:

The students must obey the rules of the department.

The door may be opened.

The underlined words are the Finite modal operators of the clauses, here they give the clause creature's judgment of how likely and unlikely of something.

The lists of the respective kinds of Finite Verbal Operators, are as follows:

### Temporal Finite Verbal Operators

Past	Present	Future
did, was	does, is	will, shall
had, used to	has	would, should

### Modal Finite Verbal Operators

Low	Median	High
can, may	will, would	must, ought to
could, might (dare)	is to, was to	need, has to, had to

Finite Verbal Operators (adopted from Halliday 1994:76)

These Finite verbal operators have their respective negations; e.g. does not, did not, can not, must not, etc. 'Sometimes the Finite element and the lexical verb are fused', (Gerot et.al., 1994: 26). This takes place when the verb is in:

- simple past or simple present; e.g. taught = did teach; teaches = does teach.
- active voice; e.g. they learned English = they did learn vs English is learned.
- positive polarity; e.g. they learn English = they do learn English vs

they do not learn English.

d. neutral contrast; e.g. move forward, do move forward.

The part of the clause out of the Mood is called the Residue. Eggins suggests that ‘residue is the clause part that is somehow less essential to the arguability of the clause than the Mood part’ (Eggins 1994: 161). To have further knowledge of Residue, the constituent of it is explained below. They can be the clause’s predicator, complement, or adjunct, or the combination of two or all of them.

a) Predicator Residue.

‘The predicator is the lexical or content part of the verbal group’ (Eggins, 1994: 161), for example;

<i>A research</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>conducted</i>	<i>for that purpose</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

*Conducted* is the content part of the verbal group ‘was conducted’, so it is the predicator.

If the verb has just a single verb constituent, the Finite and Predicator are fused,

the analysis will be like this:

Every evening	the husband	goes out
<i>Adjunct</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite    Predicator</i>
Residue	Mood	

The verbal constituent *goes out* above belongs to both Finite and Predicator, that is what Eggins means by the word **fused**.

Eggins (1994:162) suggests three functions of Predicators, as follows:

- a) it adds time secondary tense, e.g. They will be leaving.

‘will’ is the primary tense, and ‘ be ’ is the secondary tense includes in Predicator.

- b) it specifies aspects and phases: meanings such as *seeming, trying, hoping*, which colour the verbal process without changing its experiential meaning, e.g. The results are likely to be true.

The Predicator ‘likely to be’ colours the clause in order to express tendency, but its experiential meaning remains the same, it tells that the results are true.

The Predicator grades the trueness of the results.

- c) it specifies the voice of the clause, active or passive,

e.g. : 1. The victims of Tsunami were brought to the camp.(passive)

2. Parents were sending the children to schools. (active)

In example 1 above, the Predicator ‘brought’ makes the clause passive, whereas the Predicator ‘sending’ in example 2 makes the clause active.

Instead of Predicators, elements of Residue can be in the forms of complement and/or adjunct.

#### ***b/ Complement Residue***

The second component of Residue is complement. Eggins (1994:163) defines complement as a non-essential participant in the clause, a participant somewhat affected by the main argument of the proposition. Gerot, et al. complete this definition by stating that ‘complement answers the question *is/had what, to whom, did to what*’ (Gerot et al. , 1994:32). The examples below clarify the above explanation.

<i>The students</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>so many assignments</i>
Subject	Finite	Complement
Mood		Residue

In the example above, *so many assignments* answer the question: *have what?*.

<i>The government</i>	<i>Gives</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>the scholarship</i>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Complement
Mood		Residue	

The above clause has two complements, because the Finite *gives* is the one that has a potency of having two complements, the first answers the question ‘does to whom’ and the second answers the question *does to what*.

Learning the examples of complements above, it can be inferred that the function of complement is to describes Subject, offers attributes to Subject. The above complements can form passive since they can be put as the subjects of their respective clauses but the complement below can not.

<i>His hair</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>Purple</i>
Subject	Finite	Complement
Mood		Residue

The complement *purple* can not be put as the subject of the clause. The reason is because it is an attributive complement. In that clause it attributes his hair. The attributive complement is realized by an adjectival element (in the form of a word, or word group).

Another realization of complement is nominal, for example,

<i>The family</i>	<i>discussest</i>	<i>the problem</i>
Subject	Finities	Complement (nominal)
Mood		Residue

When the complement is nominal, its function can be changed into the subject of the clause and the clause becomes passive. The passivication of the clause does not change the proposition, for example:

*The problem was discussed by the family*

c/ Adjunct Residue

Another constituent of Residue is Adjunct. Eggins gives a definition of ‘Adjunct as an element of a clause which contributes some additional but non-essential information to the clause’ (Eggins, 1994:165). They are adverbial and prepositional, for example:

<i>Some people</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>to queue</i>	<i>all night</i>	<i>to see the game</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adverbial Adjunct	Prepositional Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

There are many kinds of Adjuncts, circumstantial, Mood, conjunctive, and comment adjuncts. The circumstantial adjunct answers the questions ‘how’, ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘by’, and ‘whom’. The conjunctive adjunct has a textual function, such as; *for instance, nevertheless, anyway, moreover, meanwhile, therefore, as, so as, then*, etc. The comment adjunct includes the item, such as; *frankly, apparently, hopefully*, etc. The Mood adjunct expresses the interpersonal meaning. ‘It relates specifically to the meaning of the Finite verbal operators, expressing probability, usuality, obligation, inclination, or time’ (Ge-rot, 1994:35). The clause below has two adjuncts.

<i>Fortunately</i>	<i>the plan to rebuild Aceh</i>	<i>is not</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>to realize</i>	<i>soon</i>
Comment Adj	Subject	Finite	Compl	Predicator	Cir Adj
Re -	Mood		si - due		

The lists below show the various kinds of Mood Adjunct and their respective functions.

**Adjuncts of polarity and modality;**

A/ Polarity: *not, yes, no, so*

B/ Probability: *probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe*

C/ Usuality: *usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely*

D/ Readiness: *willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily*

E/ Obligation: *definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all cost, by all means*

**Adjuncts of temporality:**

F/ Time: *yet, still, already, once, soon, just*

G/ Typically: *occasionally, generally, regularly, mainly*

**Adjuncts of mood**

H/ Obviousness: *of course, surely, obviously, clearly*

I/ Intensity: *just, simply, merely, only, even, actually, really*

J/ Degree: *quite, almost, nearly, scarcely, hardly, absolutely, totally, utterly, entirely, completely*

Principle items functioning as Mood Adjuncts (adopted from Gerot 1994:36)

### 2.7.3.3 Experiential Meaning

In this part a clause is viewed as its function to express experience, that is the clause as representation. ‘There are three semantic categories which explain in a general way how phenomena of the real world are presented as linguistic structures; circumstances, process, and participant’ (Gerot, et al. 1994: 52). Analyzing a clause that has a function as expressing experience means exploring who does what to whom, who/what is what/who, when, where, why or how function. ‘The major system grammatical choice of those three is the process, or the system of transitivity’ (Eggins, 1994:228). There are seven different process types identified (Gerot, et al., 1994:54). Those processes are realized by verbs, every process type has its own verb kind and association as follows:

Tab. 4. Table of processes (adopted from Gerot.et al. 1994: 54)

Process types	Verb kinds	Association
Material	Doing	Bodily, physically, materially
Behavioral	Behaving	physiologically, psychologically
Mental	Sensing	Emotionally, intellectually, sensorily
Verbal	Saying	Lingually, signaling
Relational	Being	equal to, or some attributes
Existential	Existing	there exist
Meteorological	Weathering	

It can be seen on the table that verbs are not always doing words, some verbs rather express state of being and having. For example, to *write* an accident, to *tell* an accident and to *hear* an accident are different orders of doings and beings'. The first is a process of material doing, the second is a process of saying, and the third is a process of sensing.

The other two linguistic structures, circumstances and participants, are incumbent upon any processes mentioned above. Circumstances realize meanings about: time, place, manner, quality, comparison cause, accompaniment, matter and role;

whereas the participants can vary from one kind of process to the other.

#### **a. Material process.**

Material process is a process of material doing. 'It expresses the notion that some entity physically does something' (Gerot, et al., 1994:55). It mostly has two participants (an Actor and a Goal), but the possible participants of a material process are four : Actor, Goal, Range, and Beneficiary.

'Actor is the constituent of the clause who does the deed or performs the action', whereas 'the Goal is that participant at whom the process is directed, to whom the action is extended', (Egins 19974:231).

<i>The cleaning staff</i>	<i>cleaned</i>	<i>five bedrooms</i>	<i>for the guests</i>	<i>yesterday</i>
Actor	Mat Process	Goal	Beneficiary	Cir:time

In the example, *the cleaning staff* is the Actor that performs the deed *cleaned*, and the deed is directed at *five bedrooms*. The word group *for the guest* is the Beneficiary.

Egins defines ‘beneficiary as participant that benefits from the process’ (Egins, 1994:235). There are two kinds of beneficiary; ‘a Recipient (the one to whom something is given), and a Client (the one for who something is done)’ (Egins, 1994:235). Whereas a Range specifies one or two things:

1. either it is a restatement or continuation of the process itself, or
  2. it expresses the extent or ‘range’ of the process.
- (Egins, 1994:233)

For example:

<i>She</i>	<i>gives</i>	<i>a smile</i>
Actor	Pr:material	Range

<i>She</i>	<i>gives</i>	<i>a book</i>
Actor	Pr:material	Goal

*A smile* in the example of the clause above does not exist when the giving is not done, so it is classified as Range; unlike *a book* in the second clause example it exists even the giving is not done. *A smile* expresses the extent of the process *gives*.

Instead of an Actor, a material process can be an Agent. Egins (1994:239) defines an Agent as the one who initiates the action, the one who makes something happen, for example:

<i>The boss</i>	<i>Causes</i>	<i>Her</i>	<i>to participate</i>	<i>in the seminar</i>
Agent	Pr:causative	Actor	Pr:material	Cir:place

The Actor is *her*, the one who does *to participate*. *The boss* is an Agent that causes *her to participate*.

### b. Behavioural Process

This process expresses meanings in between mental and material processes. The verbs that usually express this process are such as: ‘watch, look over, taste, sniff, stare, gawk, work out, think on, dream, breathe, cough, snuffle, smile, frown, laugh, grimace, scowl, etc.’ (Eggins, 1994:250).

<i>That old man</i>	<i>Cough</i>	<i>heavily</i>
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Cir: manner

Eggins suggests that the behavioural process can have just one, or two (2) participants, but the majority it has one participant (Eggins, 1994:250). When it has two participants; the first is Behaver and the second can be of two kinds. The one which is like a range, a restatement of the process is called Behaviour. The other one which is not a restatement of a process is called a Phenomenon. The examples are presented below:

<i>He</i>	<i>smiles</i>	<i>a broad smile</i>
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Behaviour

<i>Mom</i>	<i>Sniffed</i>	<i>the soup</i>
Behaver	Pr: behavioural	Phenomenon

*A broad smile* is a restatement of the *smile*, so it is called Behaviour; whereas *the soup* is not a restatement of *sniffed*, and therefore, it is called Phenomenon.

A Behavioural Process involves the role of conscious being, and it never takes present progressive tense (Eggins, 1994:250).

### c. Mental Process

Halliday (1994:105) calls 'a mental process as the one that encodes meaning of thinking and feeling'. Therefore, the mental process can be probed by the question 'What do you think/feel about X?' Eggins also suggests that when probing a mental process is done; what is asked is about the mental reactions; they can be cognition (realized by verbs of thinking, knowing, understanding), affection (realized by verbs of liking, fearing), and perception (realized by verbs of seeing, hearing).

The participant that a mental process is associated with must be at least two (2). One of them should be a conscious human since it is just a conscious human that can be a Senser acting as an active participant. The other participant is the passive one and it is called Phenomenon.

For example:

<i>He</i>	<i>knew</i>	<i>all the problem</i>	<i>before you came</i>
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon	Cir:time

### d. Verbal Process

A verbal process is realized by a verb of saying and all verbs that means the such; such as; tell, ask, talk, etc. It usually has three participants; Sayer, Receiver, and Verbiage.

For example:

<i>The victim</i>	<i>tells</i>	<i>Me</i>	<i>all her problem</i>
Sayer	Pr:verbal	Receiver	Verbiage

Sometime the clause that has a Verbal Process is in a direct speech as the example below.

<i>The prince</i>	<i>says:</i>		<i>“I</i>	<i>love</i>	<i>You”</i>
Sayer	Pr:V		Verbiage		
			Senser	Pr:mental	Phen

In the example above example, the Verbiage is in the form of a clause “*I love you*”. That Verbiage itself can be divided into its constituents as shown.

#### e. Relational Process

A relational process involves state of being including having (Gerot, et al. 1994:67). There are two main kinds of relational processes, namely an attributive relational process and an identifying one. The former has a function as to identify something and has two participants; Carrier and Attribute. The Attribute is usually in the form of ephitet, for example:

<i>The princess</i>	<i>has been</i>	<i>sick</i>	<i>for years</i>
Carrier	Pr: relational	Attribute	Cir:time

The identifying relational process which is used to qualify something usually has

two participants; Token and Value, for example:

<i>The father</i>	<i>has been</i>	<i>a teacher</i>	<i>since 1998</i>
Token	Pr: Rel: identify	Value	Cir:time

Halliday points out that ‘semantically, the Token will be a “sign, name, holder or occupant” of a Value, which gives the “meaning, referent, function, status or role to the Token” (Halliday, 1985:115). In the example, the Token is *The father* acting as holder

and the Value is *a teacher* acting as referent.

Sometimes it is difficult to identify whether a relational process is identifying or attributive; Gerot, et al. (1994:68) suggest that the clue to identify them is by reversing the two participants. An identifying process is reversible and the reversing does not change the meaning semantically, for example:

<i>Susilo Bambang Yudoyono</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>the president of Indonesia</i>
Token	Pr:Rel: inden:int	Value

When the Value’s and the Token’s positions are exchanged, the meaning remains the same, such as follows:

<i>The president of Indonesia</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>Susilo Bambang Yudoyono</i>
Token	Pr:Rel: inden:int	Value

#### f. Existential Process

This process is expressed by verbs of existing, such as: be, exist, arise and the existent can be a phenomenon of any kind (Gerot, et al.,1994: 72). For example:

<i>There</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>air</i>	<i>in the bottle</i>
	Pr: exist.	Existent	Cir:location

*There* has no function; it exists as the ‘need’ of a subject in an English clause.

### g. Meteorological Process

This process is associated with meteorology; such as: cloudy, windy, hot, etc,

for example:

<i>It</i>	<i>is not so cool</i>
<i>It</i>	<i>has been hot</i>
	Pr:meteorological Process

*It* here has no function, just as *There* in existential process above, it provides such a

subject of the clause.

### 2.8 The 2004 English Curriculum ( 2004 EC)

The reason why 2004 EC is highlighted here is because it is the 2004 EC that 2006 EC is practically based on. Using 2006 EC teachers of English should create themselves the syllabuses and when doing so they usually use the 2004 EC as the guide. This is the fact the write saw on the site when doing supervision at schools where her students were doing their practice teaching. Since the 2004 EC is competence-based, it is well known as 2004 Competence-Based Curriculum.

Actually the competence based curriculum has been used by the vocational schools in Indonesia since twenty years ago. For vocational schools, the stating of the English competencies are easy, such as knowing (of using) the English instructions to set a vice, knowing (of using as a guide) a job sheet on decreasing the surface of a spherical metal, knowing a manual of a given lathe (for realizing a job) written in English, etc.

Unfortunately the language curriculums of general high schools, junior high and senior high schools have not considered the real English competencies the students should achieve until the middle of 2004 when the 2004 EC was tried out. This is really historical in the foreign language education in Indonesia, since that moment the teachers' mind has been changed to consider of what English standard competencies their students are to achieve. Those competencies are the ones that students can use to survive successfully both in their recent and future lives. This means that the stating of the competencies considers that senior high school is not the terminal institution, after completing their education there; the graduates of which school will continue studying in universities ("Pasal 15 Penjelasan atas Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional"). English teachers need to equip the students with sufficient competencies which they can use for their present life survival as students of SHS and the later life in their universities.

The following description on the 2004 EC covers its rationale, the communicative competence model, language model, level of literacy, language competence development.

### **2.8.1 The Rationale of the 2004 EC**

Based on the 2004 EC, language has a central role in the development of intellectual, social and emotional of a student and that is the key means to learn and achieve all the subjects that he/she has to learn. Considering that the function of a language for the students is to reflect their experience and others' experience, to express ideas and feeling, and to understand various kinds of meanings. With the learned language, hopefully, a student can be helped to know himself, his culture, and others', express ideas and

feeling, participate in the society using that learned language, obtain and use his analytical and imaginative abilities, (the 2004EC:1).

To achieve those functions, the 2004 EC starts with theoretical and practical foundations which underlie the stating of all the standard competencies, basic competencies and their indicators.

There are some theoretical bases which have practical and supporting implications to the curriculum. Those theories are adopted as the systematic frame of thought to make decisions in the process of designing the curriculum; they include the communicative competence model, the language model, and the literacy level to achieve by the graduates, and the basic difference between spoken and written language.

### **2.8.2 The Communicative Competence Model of the 2004 EC**

There have been some language competence models that view language competence from various perspectives. In the 2004 EC, communicative competence (CC) model used is the one that is motivated by language pedagogical considerations offered by Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrel (1995). This model has been explained in sub-chapter 2.2. page 30.

### **2.8.3 The Language Model of the 2004 EC**

Besides the Competence Language Model, the 2004 EC is also motivated by the Language Model that views a language as communication or as social semiotic as suggested by Halliday (1978 as cited in the 2004 EC:3). It says that there are at least three main aspects that should be considered by anyone using a

language to communicate: contexts, text, and language system. This language model is offered by Dewerianka and has been discussed thoroughly in sub-chapter 2.5 on p. 53.

#### 2.8.4 The Level of Literacy of the 2004 EC

Another basic consideration of the 2004 EC is the level of literacy that should be achieved by language learners. Based on Wells (1991: 53 as cited in Hammond 1992:11) there are four levels of literacy, namely: performative, functional, informational, and epistemic, as illustrated in Figure 9 below.

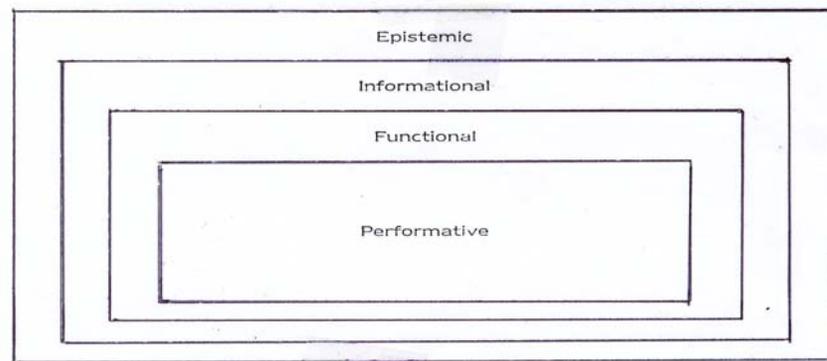


Fig.9 Levels in an inclusive Model of Literacy (adopted from Hammond 1992:11)

In the basic level of literacy, the performative level, people should be able to read, write, speak, and spell correctly by using the symbols used; as it is suggested by Wells, as follows:

The emphasis at this level is on the code as code. Becoming literate, according to this perspective, is simply a matter of acquiring those skills that allow a written message to be decoded into speech in order to ascertain its meaning and those skills that allow a spoken message to be encoded in writing, according to the conventions of letter of formation, spelling and punctuation. At the performative level it is tacitly assumed that written messages differ from spoken messages only in the medium employed for communication.

(Wells, 1991:52-53)).

Freebody and Luke (1990, as cited in Hammond 1992:9) describe this level as 'the breaking code' of knowing the relationship between spoken and written symbols, therefore, the writing is just simply speech written down.

The second level is known as the functional level, it is described by Wells as follows:

This perspective emphasizes the uses that are made of literacy in interpersonal communication. To be literate, according to this perspective, is to be able as a member of that particular society to cope with the demands of everyday life that involve written language'. (Wells, 1991 as cited in Hammond 1992, 1992:9).

As it is indicated by the level's name, at this level, people are expected to be able to function the language to accomplish their daily life, such as reading newspapers they like, reading manuals, reading a popular newspaper, writing a job application letter, following procedural instructions, etc.

The third level is the informative as it is described by Wells in the following quotation: 'At this level, then, the curricular emphasis on reading and writing-but particularly reading -- is on the student's use for accessing the accumulated knowledge that is seen as the function of the school to transmit' (Wells,1991 as cited in Hammond, 1992:10). At this level people are supposed to comprehend a text, or being a text participant. As literate readers, they need to be able to relate what is in a written text to their background knowledge in order to construct a meaning that reciprocates the intention of the writer.

The last level is the epistemic where people are able to transform knowledge using a given language. Therefore, the aesthetic aspect of language as art is needed. Wells explained this level as follows:

At each of the preceding levels, but particularly at the second and third, the concern is with literacy as a mode of communication. However, to focus only on the interpersonal communicative functions of literacy is to fail to recognize the changes that reading and writing can make in the mental lives of the individuals, and by extension, of the societies to which those individuals belong. To be literate, according to this fourth perspective, is to have available ways of acting upon and transforming knowledge and experience that are in general unavailable to those who have never learned to read and write. (Wells, 1991 as cited in Hammond, 1992:10).

The figure of inclusive model of literacy above also shows that functional level includes performative achievement, informational includes performative and functional achievement, and the epistemic includes all levels achievement of literacy.

The 2004 EC states that the first level is for elementary school students to achieve; the second level is for junior high school students; the third is for the senior high school students; and the last level is for students of the higher education. According to the 2004 EC (2004 EC:5), there are two reasons why the epistemic level is not appropriate for SHS students; the first reason is because of the consideration of the real educational condition in Indonesia, and the second one is because English in Indonesia is the foreign language for the students.

Considering that literacy is the focus of English learning development, in this

curriculum, then, the types of texts suggested by the 2004 EC are those texts that support the achievement of academic literacy (2004 EC: 5). All the reading texts are the genres required for the academic literacy purpose. There are twelve genres that should be taught in SHS: Recount, Spoof, Report, Discussion, Explanation, Exposition (Analytical and Hortatory), News Item, Narration, Procedure, Description, and Review.

### **2.8.5 Language Competence Development of the 2004 EC**

The last significant important consideration of the 2004 EC is the language continuum that starts from the spoken language and moves to more and more written language. Both the spoken and written languages are developed from the modest level to more and more complicated one (2004 EC:6).

2004 EC further suggests that students of junior high school learn spoken language more than students of SHS do, vice versa, the latter learn more written language than the former do. The former are trained to learn simple linguistic features, such as short clauses, conversational gambits, modals, interpersonal expressions, etc.; the writing is just like 'spoken language written down'. The latter learn sophisticated linguistic features used in written language, such as; structural variation of noun phrases (structure modification), variation use of parts of speech in Theme, various compound and complex clauses, etc.

The gradation of problem in language is not determined by the quantity of words in a text provided by the teacher or a textbook, or produced by the students but by the quality of the text (2004 EC: 6). It is suggested that the teaching can start with a text consisting of simple clauses using simple lexicogrammar. Later,

when the simple level is achieved, it can be continued to more and more complicated one.

The above facts generate the need of integrated English skills, unlike in the past, the four language skills are positioned as a linear. This integrated skills that color 2004 EC is like the one on the next page.

The diagram suggests that the speaking, listening, reading and writing skills are trained integratedly. For example, in order to produce a writing, speaking, listening, and reading processes are needed; speaking and listening are done in almost every activities

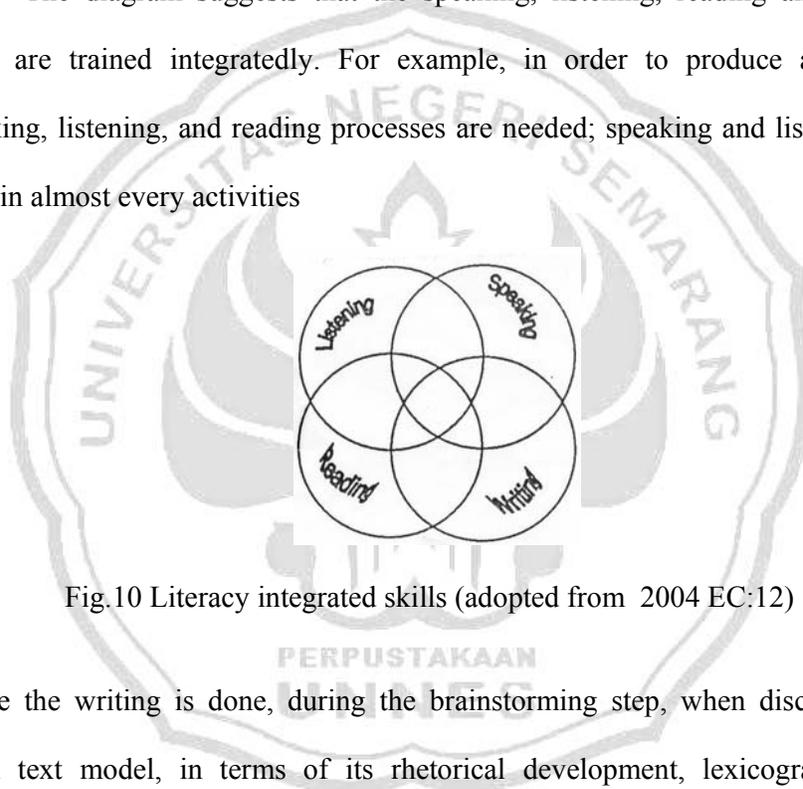


Fig.10 Literacy integrated skills (adopted from 2004 EC:12)

before the writing is done, during the brainstorming step, when discussing a given text model, in terms of its rhetorical development, lexicogrammatical features, social functions, etc. The reading activities are done when, for example, reading a text model, reading the written explanation of the teacher on the board, etc. The curriculum also suggests that the scaffolding talks, the talks between the teacher and the students during the lesson takes place, should be done in English.

The last important suggestion of 2004 EC to expose is the qualitative approach.

This approach should become the mindset of the teacher. For instance; the curriculum does not explicitly state the length of a text to read or write. The reason underpinning this is that quality is more important than quantity. Therefore, a learner may write a long text but if its rhetorical development of his text does not fulfill the conventions then the text will be regarded as not qualified. Based on this, a teacher should be keen in choosing a text for comprehension exercise, not only the quantity (length) that is needed to be considered but also the quality (rhetorical development and linguistic features) too.

Talking about the consideration that an English teacher should take into account when choosing appropriate use of lexical items and grammar. This is the reason why the use of authentic texts is suggested since usually they fulfill the convention requirements. Leaflets, brochures, manuals are examples of authentic texts in our social life that are originally written in English. Considering that language is social semiotic, the table, graph, diagram can also be used to teach.

It is clear now what an important role is a text (spoken and written) in a literacy-based curriculum. Besides, reading and writing skills are primarily to be achieved (Kern,2002 :22).

Since the recent study concerns with written text, particularly reading texts then the next sub-chapter discusses reading.

## **2.9 Reading**

Prior to the discussion about reading, the term ‘reading text’ which is often used in this dissertation is clarified. ‘Reading text’ refers to a written or spoken

passage provided in the text book which is used for reading exercise activities. However, the concern of this research is the written passage or the written text.

Before the literacy approach was applied, the reading exercises used mostly concern with the content of the text. They can be in the forms of finding the synonyms/ antonyms of words, phrases used in the text, the answering questions about the text content, finding the main and detail ideas of the text, and the such activities. When literacy approach in English language education is the basis to work with, those activities are inadequate for the students.

In the era of literacy approach, a reading text becomes important as the focus of the students' learning, since the reading activities do not just concern with the content of the text but also how the text is developed. Students are guided to learn the purpose of the text, its rhetorical development, the respective functions of constituents of rhetorical development, and the lexicogrammar used to realize the meanings. These are the strategies suggested by the teaching and learning cycle of Feez (Feez, 1998).

Because of those strategies, texts in the textbook should be model texts. This means that they should be written by considering the two contexts that encircle the texts. In other words, they are written based on the requirements suggested by the native community; otherwise they cannot be used to build the students' appropriate knowledge of text.

Considering the many variables that someone involves when reading, reading may have so many definitions. One of the definitions is very basic, given by Grabe, et al. 'reading is the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and

interpret this information appropriately', (2002:9). In fact, when someone reads something; s/he will have a purpose, the different purposes may bring about different emphasis, and processes and therefore the definitions will be different. However they are not discussed here since the aspects of reading are even more important.

There are two central aspects of reading; 'its interactive nature as a dynamic process of deriving discourse from a text, and its determination by both individual and social factors', Kern (2000: 107).

The process of deriving discourse from a text is not easy, sometimes readers do not produce any discourse at all, they simply produce a series of decoded words. The reason is not just because of the difficulty in understanding the words, but in elaborating an appropriate context to interpret. Related to this Tierney and La Zansky point out, 'reading relies on a tacit contractual agreement of shared conventions and assumptions between readers and writers', (Tierney and La Zansky, 1980 as cited in Kern, 2000:110). When the readers and writers do not share the same conventions and assumptions, the contract breaks down. This can be seen when someone reads a text in the native language or foreign one; when the reader is not familiar with the writer's choice of design conventions; s/he cannot comprehend the text well. However there are differences between reading in a native language (L1) and in a second language (L2).

Grabe (2002:63) classifies the differences between reading L1 and reading L2 into three groups, such as follows:

**Linguistic and processing differences:**

1. Differing amount of lexical, grammatical and discourse knowledge at initial stages of L1 and L2 reading.
2. Greater metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness in L2 settings.
3. Differing amounts of exposure to L2 reading.
4. Varying linguistic differences across any two languages.
5. Varying linguistic proficiencies as a foundation for L2 reading.
6. Varying language transfer influences.
7. Interacting influence of working with two languages.

**Individual and experiential differences**

8. Differing levels of L1 reading abilities
9. Differing motivations for reading in the L2.
10. Differing kinds of texts in L2 contexts.
11. Differing language resources for L2 readers.

**Socio-cultural and institutional differences**

11. Differing socio-cultural backgrounds of L2 readers.
12. Differing ways of organizing discourse and texts.
13. Differing expectations of L2 educational institutions.

Differences between L1 and L2 reading (Grabe, 2002:63)

It is very often unconsidered that readers of L1 and L2 at the beginning stage have different foundation of vocabulary, grammar, and knowledge of discourse. They start to read L1 texts when they have already had sufficient knowledge of L1, in Indonesia students usually start to read a text at the age of seven (7) years. This means after achieving sufficient knowledge of vocabulary, grammar and discourse, they start to read. The condition is different when they start to read a text in English, since after being involved in learning that foreign language for only about a year (this is the longest period, sometimes after half a year of learning) they start to read. That short period of L2 learning, consequently causes them to have insufficient foundation.

The greater difference of metalinguistics and metacognitive knowledge of L1 and L2, the more problem the students will face in reading. The explanation about metalinguistics and metacognitive are given below.

**Metalinguistic knowledge** is the knowledge of how language works including knowledge of letters and sounds and how they relate, knowledge of words and word parts, knowledge of sentences and their parts, and knowledge of texts and genres and how they are organized. **Metacognitive knowledge** is the knowledge that represents a basic way to understand learning strategies and, especially, the explicit and conscious use of reading strategies. (Grabe, 2002:46)

‘L1 readers have typically a more tacit metalinguistic knowledge (the unspoken metalinguistic knowledge) of their native language compared to L2’s metalinguistic one’, (Gracia, 2000 as cited in Grabe, et al. 2002:44), and this helps much on their L1 reading comprehension.

Related to metacognitive knowledge, Grabe states that ‘the extension of linguistic awareness is a more developed metacognitive awareness of learning activities used while reading in the L2’, (Grabe, et al., 2002:45). Therefore, recently, in second and foreign language instruction, much attention has been given to the improvement of L2 metalinguistic ability.

Exposure to L2 print and L2 reading also influence the L2 reading ability of learners. The more frequency of exposure to L2, the more development of fluency and automaticity in word and syntactic processing is achieved . This implies that the frequency of exposure to L2 may improve the reading comprehension of the learners. This does not tend to happen with Indonesian students learning English. They read English text just when they learn English at schools. Other texts outside the classroom they encounter, such as brochures,

leaflets, manuals, are very rarely met. Moreover those texts are very often accompanied by the Indonesian version.

Students of various L1 learning in the same L2 class may use different strategies, this depends on the linguistic characteristics of their native language. Grabe, et al. (2002:47) suggest that 'students whose L1 is Romance language (Spanish, French, Italian and Portuguese) tend to pay greater attention to the ends of words because there is much more grammatical information in the suffixes of their L1s than in English'. 'Another example, readers of Chinese and Japanese make greater use of visual processing than do readers of English because of their L1 orthography', (Hanley, Tzeng and Huang, 1999 as cited in Grabe, et al., 2002:47). These differences lead to variation in reading rates and fluency in word processing.

It is said that L2 proficiency plays a large role as a foundation for L2 reading. In connection with this, there is the so called 'threshold hypothesis that says: L2 readers need to know enough L2 knowledge (vocabulary and structure) so that L2 reading strategies and skills can be used effectively to help them comprehend the L2 text', (Grabe, 2002:51). However, up till now there is no information about L2 definite foundation knowledge (threshold) that should be owned by someone to read L2 text fluently. The information just tells that students can be said to pass above the threshold when they have enough linguistic knowledge to read a text without great vocabulary and grammatical difficulties.

The next is 'transfer', it refers to the idea that L2 readers will use their L1 knowledge and experiences to help them carry out L2 tasks. What are being

transferred can be various, such as phonological knowledge, topical knowledge (the familiarity of the topic to the reader), general background knowledge, problem-solving strategies and inferring skills. All these L1 knowledge and skills are likely to be transferred by L2 learners when reading L2 text.

In the L2 comprehension processes, of both native and second or foreign languages of reader are involved. Based on the research done by Segalowitz, Poulson and Komoda, 'the inevitable interplay between them in L2 reading influences the word recognition, reading rate, the organization of lexicon, the speed of syntactic processing, strategies for comprehension, experiences in task performance, expectation of success and failure, motivations for reading and a number of other possible points of interactions', (Segalowitz, et al. ,1991:54).

In a given class of L2 learners, it is never possible to teach learners with exactly the same L1 reading abilities and motivation, since they come from different family/school/back ground/attitude towards L2. The various L1 reading abilities and motivation of learners may influence reading comprehension of L2.

The kinds of text learners read in L1 are different from the ones they encounter with texts of L2. It seems no teachers of L2 pay attention to this; actually knowledge of kinds of genres taught in L1 can be their reference in stating genres of L2. They may start from genres that learners used to learn in L1.

The term resources here refer to dictionaries, textbooks, exercises that learners used to work with when learning reading. How to use those resources effectively have to be taught by the teachers as a part of their reading activities, (Grabe, 2002:58).

The last three differences are related to the different sociocultural background, ways of organizing texts, and expectations of L2 educational institution.

Every culture has its own way of organizing its discourse and text, since the way is influenced by the context of culture and context of situation. Cultures of any societies tend to be different from those of others. The differences are likely to make reading L1 become different from L2 reading. The condition that learners and writers do not share the same cultural assumptions may affect the learners' reading L2 texts.

Ogbu argues that 'in L1 contexts, ethnic minority often see school institutions as representing interests at odds with their own, and they tend to develop resistant attitudes toward educational efforts (Ogbu (1987 as cited in Grabe, 2002:60). This is an extreme example of condition that shows different expectation of L2 educational institutions that causes L1 and L2 reading difficulties to be different.

However problematic and challenging L2 reading is, it is the priority skill together with writing that literacy curriculum concerns.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **RESEARCH METHOD**

In this chapter the research design is presented. It covers the method, data source, data, research unit, and procedure of investigation.

#### **3.1 Method**

The concerns of the study are the rhetorical developments of reading texts in the English textbooks for senior high school students and their realization. Therefore, the method used in this research is discourse analysis, while the approach is qualitative. However, to support the findings, a simple quantification of the result was used to provide evidence. It is in the form of percentage.

The text rhetorical development analysis was done based on the suggestion of elements of various genres provided in the 2004 EC (of Indonesia) that can be found in the appendices on pp. 167 to 170.

The text rhetorical development realization was done through the analysis of the text clauses which is suggested by Halliday (1994) with his three strands of meanings which was explained thoroughly on pp. 74 to 96 of this dissertation.

#### **3.2 Data Source**

On December 26<sup>th</sup>, 2006 the government of Indonesia recommended English textbooks published by fourteen (14) publishers which can legally be used by senior high school students for they had been proved to have satisfactorily good quality after being evaluated thoroughly (Kompas, January 12, 2006). The

evaluation involved professionals such as selected teachers, lecturers, and linguists through out Indonesia, and each textbook was evaluated five times by different evaluators. Six out of those recommended textbooks are used as the data sources. The consideration of using them as the data sources is due to some reasons. First, as they are recommended, the tendency to be used by schools in Indonesia is great; second, their scope of use is very large, that is throughout Indonesia; and finally, their reading texts realizations have not been analyzed yet.

The choosing of six textbooks as the sources of data was done purposively, that is by taking into account the following purposes:

1. to include the textbooks used by all the SHS grades, the choices of textbooks should consist of the ones used for the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades of SHS. As the chosen textbooks are six, two textbooks are nominated for every grade.
2. to provide variability the nominated textbooks should be published by different recommended publishers. It means six various textbooks get a chance to be analyzed in terms of their respective reading texts.

### **3.3 Data**

The chosen textbooks provide different quantity of reading texts; they range from twelve to twenty-four. All the reading texts found in them are the data of this research. There are all a hundred and fifteen reading texts.

### 3.4 Research Unit

There are two units of analysis in the research, texts and clauses. The text study was aimed at finding the rhetorical development of the text, the fulfillment of the text obligatory elements; whereas the clause study is to find out how the elements of the rhetorical development are realized through the use of lexicogrammatical choices, and the achievement of the social purpose of the text.

Those strategies are supported by Halliday in his following argument:

It is sometimes assumed that discourse analysis can be carried on without grammar or even that it is somehow an alternative to grammar. But this is illusion. A discourse analysis that is not based on grammar is not an analysis at all, but simply a running commentary on the text, (Halliday, 1985:xvi).

The quotation above implies that a *rhetorical development* (RD) analysis will not be considered as an analysis without being completed by its realization analysis. The RD analysis views a text at its macro level and the realization of the rhetorical development element analysis views a text at its micro level. The micro analysis depends on the macro analysis results. Therefore, the RD analysis was done prior to the clause analysis.

### 3.5 Procedure of Investigation

The investigation was conducted in the following steps:

#### Step 1:

The text was read over and over until the prediction of the text type (genre) is identified. The term prediction was used here, since sometimes the obligatory elements were not found as completely as they are required by a given

genre and the text being analyzed could not be included in the predicted genre. This was done to all the texts although some textbook writers give suggestion on the genre of the text since some suggestions are proved incorrect.

### Step 2:

After the prediction of genre was stated, the text rhetorical development analysis was conducted by segmenting the text into elements, followed by the labeling of each element and its function. The example of the analysis is presented below.

#### Spring Gardens Apartment

Element	Function	Realization
Identification	Identifying what is going to be described, in this case is the Spring Garden Apartment.	<i>The Spring Garden Apartment Complex offers you and your family country living at its best.</i>
Description 1	Describing about the surrounding and location.	<i>Surrounded by beautiful woods and hills, Spring Garden is located ten miles outside the city but is only minutes downtown on the freeway.</i>
Description 2	Describing about the inside of the apartment; what each apartment has and the possibility to take pets inside it.	<i>Unfurnished two bedroom apartments are available. Each apartment has a dishwasher, central heating, air conditioning, and laundry room. Children pets are welcome.</i>
Description 3	Describing the existence of sports facilities and parking area.	<i>In addition, there are tennis and basketball courts, two swimming pools, and a playground. There are two parking spaces for each apartment.</i>

(82)

### Step 3

In this step the text was segmented into clauses, and labeled. The labeling was done three times.

The first labeling was given to every clause by using alphabets, such as A,B,C, etc. The second labeling was given only to the clauses which are parts of a clause complex. It indicates that single clauses were not second labeled. The labeling was done according to the system of interdependency between the clauses in the clause complex.

Two or more clauses can be joined to form a clause complex in two ways paratactic or hypotaxis. The explanation about parataxis and hypotaxis can be found on pp. 70 to 72 of this dissertation.

When the clause complex is parataxis the labeling was done by using numerals, such as 1, 2, 3, etc.; when it is hypotaxis the labeling was done by means of Greek letters, such as  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $\delta$ , etc.

The third labeling was done based on the logicosemantic relationship between the clauses in the clause complex. Therefore, single clauses were not logicosemantic labeled. Clause complexes in a text can have two logicosemantic relationships, expansion and projection. The expansion relationship is divided into three, elaborating, extending, and enhancing, and therefore, the labeling was done based on those respective relationships. The elaborating clause was labeled with an equal sign (=), the extending with a plus sign (+), and the enhancing with a multiplication sign (X). The projection relationship is divided into two; locution and idea. When the clause projects an idea the label was done with a single apostrophe (') and a double apostrophes (‘‘) was given to a clause that projects a locution. The complete explanation of the kinds of logicosemantic relation can be found on pp. 68 to 70 of this dissertation.

The example of the segmentation of text 82 and the labeling are presented as follows.

A

*The Spring Garden Apartment Complex offers you and your family country living at its best.*

B1

*Surrounded by beautiful woods and hills, Spring Garden is located ten miles outside the city*

C 2+

*but is only minutes downtown on the freeway.*

D

*Unfurnished two bedroom apartments are available.*

E

*Each apartment has a dishwasher, central heating, air conditioning, and laundry room.*

F

*Children pets are welcome.*

G

*In addition, there are tennis and basketball courts, two swimming pools, and a playground.*

H

*There are two parking spaces for each apartment.*

In the above example, it can be seen that every clause is labeled A, B, C etc.

The second labeling is done to clauses B and C because only those clauses which are joined as a clause complex. Based on the system of interdependency, those two clauses have a parataxis boundary and therefore the labels are 1 and 2. Whereas based on the logicosemantic relationship, clause C expands the meaning

of clause B by extending its meaning, and therefore the plus label (+) is given to it.

#### Step 4

In this step each clause was analyzed in terms of the three meanings it simultaneously encodes interpersonal, textual and ideational meanings, such as follows:

A  
The Spring Garden Apartment Complex offers you and your family country living at its best.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	Comp 1	Comp 2
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	G 1	G 2

B 1  
Surrounded by beautiful woods and hills, Spring Garden is located ten miles outside the city

MOOD			
Res			
Cir.adj	S	F	Pred
Th	Rh		
Cir. P	Car	Rel P	Att

C 2 +  
but (Spring Garden) is only minutes downtown on the freeway.

MOOD		Res	
(S)	F	Cir. P	
Th	(Th)	Rh	
	(Car)	Rel P	Att

The first and second rows are the analyses of the clause interpersonal meaning; the third row is the textual meaning analysis and the fourth row, the experiential meaning.

Clause C actually has two Themes; *but* is the marked textual Theme in the form of conjunction and *(Spring Garden)* is the unmarked topical Theme.

However the second Theme is an ellipsis, therefore, it was written in between brackets – in the actual text it is not written.

### Step 5

In this step the calculations were done. First, the calculation of the number of every genre was done, followed by the calculation of percentage availability of every genre. The latter was done by dividing the number of texts of a given genre and the number all the analyzed text and the result was multiplied by 100%. For example; the number of descriptive texts is M and the number of all the reading texts being analyzed is N then the availability of genre in the analysis is:

$$M/N \times 100 \%$$

### Step 6

The calculation of the kinds of Process available in every reading text was done in the same way as the calculation of genre. The number of the same process was divided by all the number of the processes available in the text and multiplied by 100%.

### Step 7

The results were put in the table, table of genres available in the textbooks and table of Processes. They were used to support the description, and/or explanation when the interpretation of the findings was done. The tables are such as the ones below.

Table of genre contribution

No	Genre	Text number	Percentage
1.	Procedure		
2.	Recount		
3.	Report		
4.	News item		

Table of Process in *Spring Garden Apartment* text

No	Kinds of process	Clause	Percentage
1.	Material (MP)	A	12.5 %
2.	Relational (RP)	B,C,D,E,F	62.5 %
3.	Existential	G,H	25 %

**Step 8**

In this step and the findings and interpretation were presented.

**Step 9**

Based on the findings the conclusion was drawn.



## **CHAPTER IV**

### **FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION**

There are two analyses conducted in this study, RD analysis and RD realization analysis. The former is the analysis of the reading text elements; it is done to know whether the reading text is written by considering the context of culture or the elements suggested by the parents' community (English). To be included into a given genre, a text should have the obligatory elements of the concerned genre. The obligatory elements of various genres that should be taught in the SHS can be seen on pp. 168-171 of this dissertation.

The latter is the analysis of the reading text clauses, it is conducted to know whether they are written by considering the context of situation, i.e. the lexicogrammatical features suggested by the parents' community. The suggested lexicogrammatical features of various genres can be found in the appendices on pp. 171-173.

Based on the explanation of analyses above; the first consideration in stating the quality of the text is the result of RD analysis. It means if a reading text which is included in a given genre does not have its required obligatory elements without clause analysis, that very text will not be classified as a model text. However, a text with a good RD does not always have a good RD realization, therefore, the clause analysis on the RD realization is done after the text RD analysis.

To make the presentation of findings and interpretation easily done, it is divided into two; the findings in relation to all analyzed reading texts and the findings in relation to the reading text itself as a given genre.

#### 4.1 Findings in Connection with all Analyzed Reading Texts

After all the reading texts (115 texts) are analyzed in terms of their respective rhetorical developments of which the way can be seen in the example of RD analysis in Chapter Three and the results are compared to the required elements of their respective genre (in the appendices on pp. 168-171), the table below was made. It contains the results of the RD analyses. However, only the significant results were discussed here.

Table 5 The various genre in six (6) analyzed textbooks

No	Genre	Text number	Percentage
1.	Procedure	33,34	1.7 %
2.	Spoof/recount	36,49,59,71,77,97	5.2 %
3.	Report	4,20,37,38,39,40,41,42,43,44,45,55,66,72,99,108,113	14.8 %
4.	News item	8,23,47,48,52,63,74,98	7 %
5.	Description	7,13,18,22,24,56,57,60,67,82,86	9.6 %
6.	Anecdote	35,50,61,62,78,79,110	6.1 %
7.	Analytical exposition	1,2,3,17,21,28,53,65,76,92	8.7 %
8.	Hortatory exposition	5, 9,64,70,80,81,95	6.1 %
9.	Narrative	11,14,19,25,26,27,29,30,31,68,69,75,85,87,90,91, 96,101,105,106,109,111,114	20 %
10.	Explanation	6,10, 12, 46,83,88,107	6.1 %
11.	Discussion	15, 16,54, 58,73	4.3 %
12.	Review	89, 93,94,100,102,103,112,	6.1 %
13.	Commentary	32, 104, 115	2.6 %
14.	Others	51, 84	1.7 %

The column 'others' in the table is provided for any text that has a problematic rhetorical development. It is stated problematic because of two reasons. It can be that the obligatory elements of the text are not complete and therefore cannot be included into any genre, or the suggestion of genre given by the textbook writer is incorrect. Looking at the RD results of all analyzed text, only two out of a hundred and fifteen texts do not have appropriate rhetorical developments. Their rhetorical developments do not fulfill the required elements. This implies that there is only 1.7 % of the analyzed texts; the smallest number, cannot be included into any basic genres whereas the most number of them (98.3%) have appropriate rhetorical developments. This finding also reveals that the text writers have written the texts by considering the (English) cultural context.

Observing the percentages of the genre availabilities in the table, the balance proportions between genres is not achieved. Compared to other genres, Procedure constitutes the smallest contribution; only two reading texts out of a hundred and fifteen are included in it. This implies that the textbook writers are not aware of the benefits of learning it. Actually, there are so many procedural texts which are posed by people in this era; tools, devices, appliances, mobile telephones, various kinds of electronics and a lot others are usually accompanied with English manuals. They can actually be used as models of procedural text for a textbook whose content can provide life skill information for the students.

The greatest number of genre available in all the analyzed reading texts is Narration. The table shows that Narration takes twenty percents (20 %) of all

texts under study, this is a crucial domination. After checking the curriculum, it is found that this very genre is always included in the required genres that should be taught in every grade of SHS. This means that every year within three years of SHS education students are involved with it. This is a very excessive contribution.

Narration is a genre which has a purpose to amuse or entertain readers and to deal

with actual or vicarious experience. Compared to the other genres, Narration does not support the students' academic knowledge so much. The portion of Narration could have been given to other genres which are needed for academic communication, such as making commentary, reviews, procedures (of observations, researches) that they are doing when learning other subjects.

The finding related to Narration also reveals that the textbook writers do not consider the interest of SHS students. They are in their late teens, they have been adult, not children who love imaginative stories very much. Fourteen out of twenty-three Narrations available in the textbooks are imaginative stories for kids, such as *Cinderella*, *The Clever Princess*, *A Voyage to Liliput*, and fables from the western. It indicates that the writers forget that Narration can also be about actual experience that has complication and resolution elements, the ones that can be taken from the factual events or happenings taking place recently.

Another indication is that the writers are not aware that actually Indonesia has a lot of folktales which can be exposed and used as the text models for the students. Besides the use of Indonesian folktales can make the students know more about their country.

Long texts of Narration are dominant; many of them have a length of more than two pages. Too long texts do not tend to keep students' enthusiasm to read completely.

To develop their enthusiasm, short, interesting narrative texts can be provided. It can encourage students to love reading. This is supported by the 2004 EC which suggests explicitly its users that the reading text provided for a text book should not be very long since the quality of the text is more important than the length of it (2004 EC:10). In addition the stories like Cinderella, the Voyage to Liliput have been very familiar for SHS students. Since childhood they have been involved with those stories because it has been hard to find books of Indonesian such stories. Their familiarity makes them know definitely what event happens next after a given event takes place; this decreases their enthusiasm.

The reducing of Narration should unavoidably be done. Beside the reasons explained above the time allocation given for English subject is limited. To use the time effectively, the proportion of various genres to be learned by the students should have been considered wisely.

An improvement is done by textbook writers in providing Anecdote. When the preliminary research was conducted in the early 2004, 53% of the genres available in the analyzed textbook was Anecdote meaning that Anecdotes dominated the contribution. In the recent research Anecdotes constitute only 6.1 % of all the genres available in the analyzed textbooks. This has an implication that the writers

of SHS English textbooks have considered that this text should not dominate the contribution. Moreover, according to 2006 EC, this text has been excluded from the required genres to be taught in SHS (2006 EC's enclosure: 308).

Report, although constitutes 14.8 % of all the genres, is acceptable. This genre usually describes the way things are, with reference to a range of natural, man made and social phenomena in our environment, the subject matters are such as mango trees, family's life cycle, irrigation, flowering plants, etc. The content is related to the real world the students should know in order to involve actively in the world science discussion.

In the fourteenth row of the table, it can be seen that the reading texts having the problematic RD are only two out of a hundred and fifteen analyzed texts. It indicates that generally the RD of the reading texts provided in the English textbooks for SHS has been satisfactory. Most of them have been written based on the cultural English context. It implies that the respective obligatory elements of the required genres which should be taught in the SHS have been available in most analyzed texts.

However the 98.3% of the analyzed texts which are fulfilled the respective required elements of genres may not be appropriate and cannot be model texts if they are not realized as the suggested lexicogrammatical features. The realization of them are presented below.

#### **4.2 Findings in Connection with the Reading Text as a Given Genre**

Considering two contexts encircling a text, not all the texts with complete RD can be regarded as accepted texts. The good RD of a text is only judged through one of its contexts, context of culture; the other context, context of situation, has not been considered yet. This second context can be analyzed through the text clauses, as explained in chapter three on pp. 115-118.

After completing the clause analyses of all the reading texts, which can be seen in the appendices, it is found that most of them can be model texts, meaning that the choices of lexicogrammar used in the clauses to realize the RD which construct the reading texts have mostly been done based on the context of situation. Only eleven out of a hundred and fifteen reading texts proved to be problematic in their RD realizations.

Those problematic reading texts consist of the following genres: Discussion, Recount, Spoof, Report, Description, Commentary, Explanation, Analytical Exposition, and Hortatory Exposition. The findings are presented based on their respective genres.

#### **4.2.1 Discussion**

Two out of eight reading texts included in Discussion are problematic, they are reading texts numbers 51 and 84.

The RD analysis of this text is presented below.

### No Talking while Eating

Element	Function	Realization
Thesis	Introducing a topic and indicating the writer's position.	<i>A rule that a whole family must obey at the dinner table in most Indonesian custom is "no talking while eating"</i>
Argument: - Point	Stating an argument for supporting the topic.	<i>Father will usually get angry when one of the family members talks or speaks when we are eating.</i>
Element	Function	Realization
Elaboration	Elaborating the argument by providing a fact and a happening in a given situation	<i>No sound comes out from our mouth except the sound of fork and spoon tinkles when they hit the plate and sound of our mouth chewing. Yesterday, my father had my mother bought lettuces. He wanted fresh vegetables and fried chicken for dinner. As usual we sat on the chair and ate the food calmly. After a few minutes my sister eager to say something and sat restlessly. She kept looking at my father who was eating gluttonously. When my sister said "Dad", my father eyes bulged out. His expression made her stop speaking. "Dad, there is ....". My mother asked her to be quiet and continue eating. Again my sister said, "Dad, I want to tell you something. There is ...." Before she finished her sentence my father with loud voice shouted, "Stop talking and continue your eating". The clear sentence made her silent and continued eating without looking at father again.</i>

(84)

Reading text number 84 is suggested by the textbook's writer as included in Discussion. Discussion should at least consist of two arguments; an argument for and an argument against, each of them should have an elaboration element.

In the analysis of the text above, it can be seen that the text has only one (1) point of view -- the argument for and its elaboration, without the differing argument and no summary. Thus the RD of text 84 is: Thesis ^ Argument (consists of a point and its elaboration). The result reveals that the requirements of being Discussion are not fulfilled and, therefore, the writer's suggestion is proved

incorrect. Observing the RD's elements this very text should have been included in the Analytical Exposition after its reiteration element is added.

Another reading text which is also found problematic in its RD is text number fifty-one. The text, entitled *The Old and the Young*, is claimed by the textbook writer as included in Discussion. It is very likely that the suggestion is given by only considering the title of the text; the words *young* and *old* may lead the writer to include it into Discussion. The RD analysis on the next page proves that this text does not have the characteristics of Discussion at all. It does not have two arguments that contradict each other as the important constituents of the RD of Discussion. All clauses in the text tend to support *Katoen*. The RD analysis result does not prove that the text can be included in Discussion. The RD analysis of this text is presented on the next page.

### **The Old and the Young**

<b>Element (1)</b>	<b>Function (2)</b>	<b>Realization (3)</b>
News worthy event	Providing the news	<i>Katoen in the Edogawa district of Tokyo is the home for elderly, so you might expect it be a gloomy place. However, the people who live there are always bright and cheerful. The reason for this is the happy voices of children who attend Edogawa Nursery School located in the same building.</i>
Back ground event	Elaborating what happened, to whom, in what circumstance	<i>The nursery school on the ground floor accommodates 80 pre school children aged one and a half for about 100 senior citizens. Although many of the elderly residents live in the home by choice, they still long for family life. Being in the same building allows them to visit the nursery school whenever they wish, while the children often go upstairs to play. In the morning both the old and young gather outside for exercises. Special time, such as Christmas and sport day are always celebrated together</i>
Source 1	Comments given by the director	<i>"We find the children learn how to care for others by talking and being with their older co residents," explained Maeda Takini, the director of Katoen. "As for the elderly, through their association with children, they become more alive and their health improves. Seeing these old people, many of whom we thought had forgotten how to laugh or even express their thoughts, holding the children and happily talking with them, brings home just how important an affectionate relationship</i>

		<i>between the very old and the very young."</i>
Source 2	Comments of the writer.	<i>The success of Katoen has created a sensation in Japan and brought responses from all over the country. The declining number of children now being born each year has left unused space at many nursery schools. It has therefore been suggested that these surplus areas are utilized by the elderly. In this way, in spite of living in small nuclear households, children can experience the advantages of close contact with people of much older generation.</i>

(51)

Observing the analysis of the text, it can be inferred that the text has these following RD: News worthy event ^ Background event ^ Source 1 ^ Source 2 .

This implies that text 51 should have been included in News Item.

To sum up the two reading texts, text 84 and 51, are not qualified to be model texts.

#### 4.2.2 Recount

Six analyzed recounts are found to have complete obligatory elements. Only one out of six that has no re-orientation element, that is text number fifty-nine, however as that element is optional, that text can still be included as Recount. Its RD analysis is presented below.

#### An Unforgettable Night

<b>Element</b>	<b>Function</b>	<b>Text</b>
Orientation	Providing the setting & introducing the participants	<i>One night in the early fall in 1980, I was driving home alone in my 1978 Fort Pinto. Something told me that I should not have passed the highway. But John, my best friend said that this was the fastest way to get to my house.</i>
<b>Element</b>	<b>Function</b>	<b>Realization</b>
Events	Telling what happened	<i>A few minutes ago, it started raining hard, and now the shower was coming down. The highway was dark that I could barely see my way. Suddenly there was a white shadow. It appeared so sudden that I could not stop my car and hit the shadow.</i>
Re-orientation (optional)	Closing the events	(this part was not provided)

(59)

The RD analysis above shows that the text, although its RD has no re-orientation, depicts what happened to *I* one night in the early fall in 1980. It can be so, for re-orientation is an optional element; it may or may not be available in the text. However, based on the clause analysis, there is a realization of meaning in one of its clauses that is problematic. That problematic clause realization, clause G realization, can be seen in the clause analysis shown below.

A  
One night in the early fall in 1980, I was driving home alone in my 1978 Fort Pinto.

Res	MOOD		Res			
Adj	S	F	Pred	C	M Adj	Adj
Th	Rh					
Cir. T	Act	Mat P		Cir.p	C.m	Cir.p

B  
 $\alpha$   
Something told me

MOOD	Res	
S	F	Comp
Th	Rh	
Sayer	Ver P	Receiver

C  
B'  
that I should not have passed the highway

	MOOD		Resi	
	S	F	Pred	C
Th1	Th2	Rh		
	Ac	Mat P		Goal

D  
 $\alpha$   
But John, my best friend said

	MOOD	
	S	F
Th1	Th2	Rh
	Sayer	Ver P

E  
 $\beta$   
 that this was the fastest way to get to my house.

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	Comp	Pred	Comp
	Th	Rheme			
	Tok	Rel P	Value	Mat P	Cir. P

F  
 1  
 A few minutes ago, it started raining hard,

Re	MOOD		Sidue		
Adj	S	F	Pred	Adj	
Th1	Th2	Rh			
Cir.t		Mat P		Cir.m	

G  
 2 +  
 and now the shower was coming down.

Res	MOOD		Res		
	Adj	S	F	Pred	C
Th1	Th2	Rh			
	Cir t	Act	Mat P		Cir m

H  
 $\alpha$   
 The highway was dark

MOOD		Res	
S	F	C	
Th	Res		
Car	Rel P	Att	

I  
 $\beta$  X  
 that I could barely see my way.

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	Mood	Pred	C
Th1	Th2	Rh			
	Sen	Men P	Cir	Men P	Ph

J

Suddenly there was a white shadow.

Res	MOOD		Res
Adj	S	F	C
Th	Rh		
Cir m		Ext P	Existent

K

 $\alpha$ 

It appeared so sudden

MOOD		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Act	Mat P	Cir:m

L

 $\beta X 1$ 

that I could not stop my car

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	Pred   C
Th1	Th	Rh	
	Act	Mat P	Goal

M

2 +

and (my car) hit the shadow.

	MOOD		Res
	(S)	F	C
Th1		Th2	Res
	(Act)	Mat	Goal

Process	Clause	Percentage
Material	A,C,E,F,G,K,L,M	61.5 %
Mental	I	7.7 %
Relational	H	7.7 %
Existential	J	7.7 %
Verbal	B,D	15.4 %

Processes used in text 59

The table shows that eight material processes are dominantly used in this text.

This text is Recount whose social purpose is for retelling past event. Past experience is usually related to activities, happenings, events whose realization needs the use of material processes, the processes that express a notion whose

entity physically does something which is done to some other entity. This implies that the domination of material processes to realize the rhetorical development elements of Recount has to be such. However, clause G is problematic. Since the clause is paratactically bound with the previous clause (F), both clauses (F and G) and their clause analyses are shown below.

F 1

A few minutes ago, it started raining hard,

Re	MOOD		Sidue	
Adj	S	F	Pred	Adj
Th1	Th2	Rh		
Cir.t	Mat P		Cir.m	

G

2 +

and **now** the shower was coming down.

Res	MOOD		Res	
	Adj	S	F	Pred C
Th1	Th2	Rh		
	Cir t	Act	Mat P	Cir m

The time circumstance *now* is not appropriately used here. It would have been appropriate if *now* in clause G is changed into *then*, and the complete clause complex becomes *A few minutes ago it started raining hard, then the shower was coming down*. That finding causes this text inappropriate to be a model text.

One of the analyzed Recounts is Historical Recount. That is reading text number seventy-one. The last paragraph of it has an incomplete clause that makes the text fail to be a model. The two last clauses are presented below.

Q

The main purpose of this meeting will be to assess the program made in attaining the goals of the 1974 and 1984 conferences.

MOOD		Res		
S		F	Pred	C
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P		Goal	

R  
Also on the agenda will be promotion of international awareness of population issues, guidance on population problems, and the adoption of an updated set of recommendation.

MOOD	Res		
Adj .p	F	Pred	C
Th	Rh		
Cir place	Exist P	Existent	

(71)

In the analysis of clause R above, precisely in the second row, it can be seen that the clause does not have any subject. The construction ‘Adjunct + Process + Subject’ is only possible when the Process is not Relational or Existential one. This is suggested by Wales (2001:141) who states that ‘in formal English, especially literary, other verbs than *be* can be found (in that construction)’, for example: *There rose in the distance a huge cloud of yellow dust*. In the example the verb is *rose*, not *be*.

Clause G, therefore, should have been improved, otherwise the reading text ha-ving it (reading text number 71) fails to be a model text.

#### 4.2.3 Report

Most of the analyzed Reports have the requirements of being model texts, they are taken from scientific books such as biology, physics, economics, etc. which are originally written in English by the native writers. The information about it is derived from the note of reference given below most of these texts.

Their Report elements, the general statement and description, are completely found in all the analyzed texts. Not only those that make them to be model texts; the choices of lexicogrammar used to realize the meanings of the

clauses deserve them to be so. The participants are generic, such as cheetah, bananas, mangoes, etc.; the description element uses mostly relational process and simple present tense as they are required for Report.

However, when observing thoroughly there is one Report, text number forty-five (45) that is problematic. The RD and clause analyses are presented below.

### RD Analysis

#### Siberian Tigers

Elements	Function	Realization
General Statement	Stating the Siberian tigers are the phenomenon under discussion.	<i>Siberian tigers come from the mammal family. You can find Siberian tigers in the Ammur-Ussuri region of Siberia, also northern China and Korea.</i>
Description	Describing what the Siberian tigers are like, in terms of the appearance, habitat, behavior, food, etc.	<i>Siberian tigers move on four legs, They look like a big cat with black stripes and an orange and white body. They eat meat. After a gestation period of 104-106 days, two to four blind cubs are born in the sheltered den and they suck from their mother who rarely leaves them, except to the hunt.</i>

(45)

### Clause Analysis

A  
Siberian tigers come from the mammal family.

MOOD		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Token	Iden Rel P	Value

B

You can find Siberian tigers in the Ammur-Ussuri region of Siberia, also northern  
China and Korea.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	Pred	C	Adjunct of place
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir.P	

C

Siberian tigers move on four legs.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	C	
Th	Rh		
Behaver	Beh P	Range	

D

They look like a big cat with black stripes and an orange and white body.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	Pred	C
TH	Rh		
Tok	Iden Rel P	Value	

E

They eat meat.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	C	
Th	Rh		
Behavior	Beh P	Range	

F 1

After a gestation period of 104-106 days, two to four blind cubs are born in the  
shel  
tere  
d  
den

Res	MOOD			Res
Adjunct	S	F	Pred	Adjunct
Th1	Th2	Rh		
Cir T	Goal	Mat P	Cir P	

G 2 +

$\alpha$   
and they suck from their mother

	MOOD	Res
	S	F
Th1	Th2	Rh
	Beh	Beh P
		Range

H

 $\beta$  X

who rarely leaves them, except to the hunt.

MOOD	Res	MOOD	Res
S	M Adj	F	C Adjunct
Th1	Th2	Rh	
Act	Cir m	Mat P	Goal Cir . cause

Process	Clause	Percentage
Relational	A,D	25 %
Material	B,F, H	37.5 %
Behavioral	C,G,E	37.5 %

Observing the table of processes used in text 45, 37.5 % of the processes are behavioral and 25 %, relational. Those two processes are usually used to describe things, and therefore, they are found in the description element of that text. The description covers the Siberian tigers' habitat (clause B), their behaviour (clauses C, E, F, G, H), and their appearance (clause D).

Here the use of material processes in clauses B, F, and H also aim at describing that animal. The implication is that using other processes, out of the suggested ones, in the realization of rhetorical development of a text proves to be acceptable as long as the aim is for achieving the social purpose of the text.

However when observing the text further it is found that two of its clauses do not maintain their cohesion through thematization organization well. They are found in the first paragraph of the text, as follows.

- (A) *Siberian tigers* come from the mammal family.  
 (B) You can find *Siberian tigers* in the Ammur-Ussuri region of Siberia, also northern China and Korea.  
 (45)

The repetition of the phrase *Siberian tigers* could actually be avoided if the thematization organization of the text was good.

The Theme *You* in the second clause could have been replaced by *These mammals*, so that the second clause becomes *These mammals can be found in the Ammur-Ussuri region of Siberia, also northern China and Korea*. This suggests that a model text should maintain the thematization organization in order to provide cohesion between clauses in the text.

### **Description**

There are three Descriptions which are problematic: texts numbers 7, 60, and 82.

Based on the clause analysis which can be seen in the appendices on pp .... , reading text number eighty-two has the relational process domination, five out of eight processes used in which text are relational processes. Usually, this process is dominantly used to describe things; it supports the suggestion of genre given to be correct. In Description, the clauses are used to describe the characteristics of the thing identified in the identification element, in the text is *Spring Garden Apartment*.

However this text can not be included as a model text, since some of its clauses are problematic in their realization, such as follows:

The first problematic clause is clause A. It is realized as follows:

A

*The Spring Garden Apartment Complex offers you and your family country living at its best.*

(82)

The Material Process *offers* above brings about an indication that the text is not Description; it looks like an advertisement which is used as a descriptive model text. The writer uses it without considering the purpose, since an advertisement looks like Descriptive. The fact is that an advertisement does not only describe something but persuades the reader to become interested to try too, therefore, it has more Analytical Exposition characteristics than Description. Analytical exposition text has a function to persuade the reader that something is the case. The case, here, is *Spring Garden Apartment* with all its facilities and comforts which invite the reader to stay in or to buy.

The second problem is the realization of two last clauses, clauses G and H, of that reading text. There are two same Themes (in italic bold ) available successively. These are not appropriate uses of the word-group *there are*.

G.

*In addition, **there are** tennis and basketball courts, two swimming pools, and a playground.*

H.

***There are** two parking spaces for each apartment.*

(82)

Observing the meanings of the two clauses, clause H's meaning has a function as to extend the meaning of clause G. Considering that, it would have been better if those two clauses were combined into a clause complex, such as:

*In addition, there are tennis and basket ball courts, two swimming pools, a playground, and two parking spaces for each apartment.*

Another finding that can be inferred from the above problem is the inappropriate use of an authentic material (the note below the text implies that the text is authentic) as a model text. Since every text has its own purpose, when making use of an authentic text, its purpose should be checked and compared to the purpose of the model text going to be provided. It was done to know whether they are the same. If they were not, the modification should have been done to suit with the purpose of the text to be provided.

The second problematic Description was reading text number seven. The problem is in the following clause.

You **must visit** Soho, the city's current art scene center .

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	Pr	Complement

(7)

The finite *must* that is used in the clause above has an implication that the clause expresses an absolute persuasion; it should not have been used in Description. Description's social purpose is to describe a particular place, thing or person. Describing is not persuading, so it should be neutral. The possible improvement of that clause is: Soho is the city's current art scene center.

The third Description which is also problematic is reading text number 60, that is in its long first clause complex, such as follows:

A  
1

2 +  
 $\alpha$

Inland *can* *be found* a wealth of geographical variety and in its coastal waters,

Res	(no MOOD)	Res		
Adj	F	Pred	Comp	Adjunct
Th	Rh			
Cir: Place	Existential process		Existent	Cir:place

optimum fishing condition on account of a branch of the tropical warm Kuroshio current

Res
Compl
Rh
Existent

B

$\beta$  X

**that** blends with the still, deep waters of the Seto Inland Sea.

MOOD	Res	
(S)	F	C
Th	Rh	
(Actor)	Mat Pro	Goal

(60)

Clause A above has no complete MOOD, it has no subject. Between the adjunct *Inland* and the Finite *can*, there should have been *it*, otherwise the stretch of words did not construct a clause. The construction ‘Adjunct + Process + Subject’ is only possible when the Process is not Relational or Existential one (the explanation is the same as the clause of reading text number 71 on page 133).

With regard to the problem explained above, those three Descriptions, texts numbers 7, 60, and 82 cannot be included as model texts.

#### 4.2.5 Commentary

One of the three commentary texts, reading text number eighty-nine, is found problematic. The RD is acceptable, it has the required obligatory elements, a sequence of comments of which every comment consists of an issue about a fact and its comment. The problem as other problematic texts is on its realization, particularly the last paragraph.

The clause analysis below shows which part of the element causing the problem.

R  
Next, the pilots.

S  
1  
Are they as competent

MOOD		Res	
F	S	C	
Th		Rh	
Att:Rel P	Carr	Attribute	

T  
2 +  
and (they) rigorously assessed as those of premium airlines

MOOD			Res	
(S)	Cir:Adj	F	C	
Th1		Rh		
(Act)	Cir:m	Mat P	Goal	

U  
Do they fly more hours than are permitted?

MOOD		Res		
F	S	Pred	C	
Th		Rh		
Mat P	Act	Mat P	Goal	

V  
α

Do          rookie pilots          abound,

	M	Res
F	S	Pred
Th	Rh	
Ext P	Act	Ext P

Clause R above is a minor clause. A minor clause can only be used in spoken language; it cannot be used as a clause of a formal written text. A written text should consist of major clauses. Moreover, when the text is used for the students to work with, it should have been a model text.

However, below the text, there is a note informing that the text is taken from the Strait Times Singapore, so it is an authentic commentary. It is also such an approval that an authentic text can possibly be inappropriate to be a model text.

With regard to the quality of a text taken from a newspaper, there should be consideration about the quality of the newspaper. Like the newspapers in Indonesia, not all newspapers use Indonesian language appropriately. Another consideration is that the language used in the newspaper has its own style which is usually influenced by business reasons. It coincides with the theory of language in context that says 'that language can only be understood in relation to the context in which the language is used', Hammond (1992: 1). The theory has an implication that different purposes for using a language and different contexts result in different language texts. Therefore, the language used in newspapers is not the same as the language used for learning. However, if that kind of text is

unavoidably used, there should be an explanation given to the students that the very text is written that way because of a given reason.

#### 4.2.6 Explanation

The table of the RD results on page 120 above shows that reading text number eighty-three is included in the Explanation; however, this text does not fulfill the Explanation requirements completely. The clauses do not use passive voice as the suggested lexicogrammatical features of Explanation, but it does not give any negative effects to the meanings being conveyed. The finding implies that the use of passive voice is not obligatory. The following is the clause analysis of the text.

A  
 $\alpha$   
 Have you ever heard

MOOD		Res
F	S	C
Th	Rh	
Men-	Senser	tal P

B  
 $\beta$  X  
 how your voice can travel through telephone

	MOOD		Residue	
	S	F	Pred	C
Th1	Th 2	Rheme		
	Actor	Mat P	Cir:place	

C  
 $\alpha$   
 Alexander Graham Bell

D  
 $\beta$  =  
 who invented the first telephone discovered

MO	MOOD2	Residue		OD 1
S 1	S 2	F	C	F2
Th1	Th 2	Rh 2		Rh 2
Actor	(actor)	Mat P	Goal	Mat P

E  
 $\mu X$   
 that voices could travel by electricity

Res	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	Pred	C
Th1	Th2	Rheme		
	Actor	Mat P	Cir:manner	

F  
 $\beta X$   
 When you speak into telephone

Res	MOOD		Res
	S	F	C
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Sens	Men P	Cir:place

G  
 $\alpha$   
 you cause a thin metal to vibrate

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	C	Pred
Th	Rh		
Sens	Men	Phen	P

H  
 1  
 This piece of metal is called a diaphragm

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	Pred	Comp
Th	Rh		
Token	Iden Rel P	Value	

I  
 2 +  
 and it is in the mouth of your telephone

	MOOD	Residue	
	S	F	Adjunct
Th1	Th2	Rheme	
	Token	Id R P	Cir:place

J  
 Behind the diaphragm is a small cup filled with carbon.

Res		Res
Adjunct:place	F	C
Th	Rh	

Cir:place	At Rel P	Attribute
-----------	----------------	-----------

K

 $\beta X$ 

As your voice vibrates

	MOOD	
	S	F
Th1	Th2	Rh
	Actor	Mat P

L

 $\alpha$ 

it presses against the carbon grain sometimes weakly sometimes very hard

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	C	Adjunct
Th	Rheme		
Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir:manner

M

1

Electric current passes through the carbon

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	C	
Th	Rh		
Actor	Mat P	Cir:place	

N

2+

and (electric current) goes into the telephone wires

	MOOD		Res
		F	Adjunct
Th1	Th2		Rh
	(actor)	Mat P	Cir:place

O

 $\beta X$ 

When the carbon is squeezed

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	Pred
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Goal	Mat P	

P

 $\alpha$

the current goes very easily

MOOD		Res
S	F	Adjunct
Th	Rh	
Actor	MatP	Cir:manner

Q

$\beta X$

But when the carbon grains are spread apart

	MOOD	Residue
	S	F Comp
Th1	Th2	Rh
	Goal	Mat P

R

$\alpha$

only a little current goes through.

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Actor	Mat P

S

The strength of your voice travels through the telephone wires.

MOOD		Res
S	F	Comp
Th	Rh	
Actor	Mat P	Cir:place

T

At the other end of the line, the earpiece of your friend's telephone receives the current

Res	MOOD		Res
Adjunct	S	F	C
Th1	Th 2	Rh	
Cir:place	Actor	Mat P	Goal

through electromagnet

Res
Adjunct
Rh
Cir:place

U

 $\alpha$ 

This is a coil of wire wound around an iron center

MOOD		Residue		
S	F	C	Pred	Cir:place
Th	Rh			
Token	Id R P	Value		Cir:place

V

 $\beta X$ 

which acts like a magnet

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	Adjunct	
Th	Rh		
Sens	Men	Cir:manner	
	P		

W

There is also a diaphragm inside your friend's earpiece

MOOD		Residue	
S	F	C	Adjunct
Th	Rh		
Exist	Existent	Cir:place	

X

 $\beta X$ 

When the current from your mouthpiece reaches your friend's earpiece,

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	C
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Actor	Mat	Goal
		P	

Y

 $\alpha$ 

1

it pulls this diaphragm

MOOD		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Ac	Mat P	Goal

Z

2+

and (it) makes it vibrate, producing the sound of your voice

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	C	Pred	C
Th1	Th2		Rh		
	Sen	Men	Ph	P	Goal

Aa

In other words, the electric current has made a copy of your voice

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	Pred	C	
Th1	Th2		Rh		
	Actor		Mat P	Goal	

Ab

$\alpha$

And that 's

	MOOD	
	S	F
Th1	Th2	
	Tok	Rel P

Ac

$\beta$  X

how your voice travels through telephone

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	C	
Th1	Th2		Rh	
	Actor	Mat P	Cir:place	

Process	Clause	Percentage
Material	B,C,D,E,K,L,M,N,O,P,Q,R,S,T,X,Y,Aa,Ac.	62.06 %
Mental	A,F,G,V,Z	17.24 %
Relational	H,I,J,U,,Ab	17.24 %
Existential	W	3.46 %

Summary of the processes used in reading text number 83.

In the above text, material process dominates the realization of the RD elements; the second domination is taken by the relational and mental Processes.

The social purpose of Explanation is to explain the processes involved in the formation or workings of natural or sociocultural phenomena. In this text, the process being explained is the working of a telephone. To explain how something

works, material processes, the process that expresses the notion that an entity physically does something, is usually used. In this text, the material processes are such as: *vibrate, travel, invent, discover, press*, etc. Eighteen out of twenty-nine processes in this text are material processes.

The relational process, a process that involves state of being including having which is used to relate participant and its identities or attributes, is used for describing things. The activity of explaining very often involves describing. In this text, the relational processes are precisely six of all Processes used to realize the RD elements.

Observing the participants in the text, they are generic, non-human, such as *voice, the piece of metal, electric current, carbon*, etc. These coincide with the social purpose of Explanation, to explain processes involved in the working of natural and social phenomena. It implies that the participants should be generic and non-human (inanimate).

Because of its properties, the reading text can be used as a model text of Explanation. However, after a thorough observation, one clause, clause J, is found to be ungrammatically realized. That clause's analysis is as follows.

J

Behind the diaphragm is a small cup filled with carbon.

Res		Res
Adjunct:place	F	C
Theme	Rheme	
Cir:place	At Rel P	Attribute

(83)

This clause does not have MOOD; the clause has only a finite but no subject. Actually the placing of an adjunct at the beginning of a clause followed by a relational process is acceptable as long as it is not a written language; moreover the text is used as a model. This kind of problem is found in the three analyzed reading texts. The word *there* is missing. The explanation about this problem is exactly the same as the one of the clauses in reading text numbers 71 on page 133.

#### 4.2.7 Analytical Exposition and Hortatory Exposition

Reading text number five which is suggested by the writer to be included in Analytical Exposition is problematic; the writer does not know that Analytical Exposition is different from Hortatory Exposition. The function of the former is to persuade the reader /listener that something is the case, and the latter's function is to persuade that something should be the case. It implies that the persuasion of the analytical exposition cannot be excluded from the fact, and not the one influenced by the writer's intent. It is also the reason that the analytical exposition ends with reiteration and the hortatory exposition with recommendation.

In the case of this problematic analytical exposition, the problem is in the realization of the first clause and the last clause. The analyses of them are shown below.

A  
Cars should be banned in the city.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	Pred	Adj`
Th	Rh		
Goal	Mat P		Cir

(5)

The finite *should* involves the writer's intent to persuade the readers to accept his advice in the banning of the cars in the city. Therefore the clause should have been changed into the one that reflects the facts going to be discussed, and no involvements of the writer's advice or suggestion. It can be, for example, *Cars bring about problem in the city*.

In Analytical Exposition, the argument must be given based on the facts, however the reiteration is not so. Here, again the writer persuades the readers to accept his proposal of the banning of the cars in the city. It is written *In conclusion, cars **should** be banned from the city because of the reasons listed*. The finite *should* indicates that the writer proposes the banning of the cars in the city. Therefore, the text does not persuade the readers that something is the case, but something should be the case. The case in this text is that *cars bring problem in the city*, and not *cars should be banned in the city*. The quotation below supports the analysis.

Hortatory Exposition differs from Analytical Exposition in that the latter argues that X is the case. Hortatory Exposition argues that X ought or ought not to be or should or should not be the case. The latter type of Exposition exhorts someone to take or desist in some action, Gerot and Wignel, (1994:210).

The analysis of the last clause can be seen below.

'In conclusion, cars **should** be banned from the city because of the reasons listed'.

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	Pred	Adj	Ad
Th1	Th2	Rh			
	Goal	Mat P	Cir p	Cir cause	

(5)

The last part of the text should have been reiteration; that is the restating of the statement that refers to the writer's position as stated in the first clause. Since the first clause is inappropriate, the last clause is also inappropriate. One of the possible improvements is by changing that with this proposed closing: *In conclusion , cars really cause problem in the city.* If the first and the last problematic clauses are not changed, the text will be included as Hortatory Exposition instead of Analytical Exposition.

#### 4.2.8 Procedure

The two procedural texts in the analyzed textbooks are found to be good model texts. Both the RD and clause analyses are presented below. Their rhetorical developments consist of all the required elements of procedure; the goal, list of materials needed, and the steps. The RD and clause analyses of one of them are presented below.

#### RD Analysis

Element	Function	Realization
Goal	Stating the aim, that is how to plant bean seeds.	<i>How to Plant Bean Seeds</i>
List of things needed	Listing things needed to plant bean seeds	<i>What you need:</i> <i>Pot</i> <i>Soil</i> <i>Water</i> <i>Bean seeds Labels or paddle pop sticks</i> <i>Waterproof pen</i>
Steps	Instructing activities to	<i>1.Fill the pot with soil.</i> <i>2.Level the soil off neatly with your hands.</i>

	be carried out to plant bean seeds	<p>3. <b>Make</b> three holes with your finger in the middle of the soil.</p> <p>4. <b>Place</b> one bean seed in each hole.</p> <p>5. <b>Cover</b> the bean seed with soil.</p> <p>6. <b>Water</b> the plant.</p> <p>7. <b>Write</b> your name, date and 'Green Beans' n the paddle pop stick.</p>
--	------------------------------------	---

(33)

**Clause Analysis**

A

Fill the pot with soil.

	Res	
F	C	Adj
Th	Rh	
Mat P	Goal	Cir. M

B

Level the soil off neatly with your hands.

	Res	
F	C	Adj
Th	Rh	
Mat	Goal	P Cir. M

C

Make three holes with your finger in the middle of the soil.

	Res		
F	C	Adj	
Th	Rh		
Mat P	Goal	Cir m	Cir p

D

Place one bean seed in each hole.

	Res	
F	C	Adj
Th	Rh	
Mat P	Goal	Cir p

E

Cover the bean seed with soil.

	Res	
F	C	Adj
Th	Rh	
Mat P	Goal	Cir m

F

Water the plant.

	Res
F	C
Th	Rh
Mat P	Goal

G

Write your name, date and 'Green Beans' on the paddle pop stick.

	Res	
F	C	Adj
Th	Rh	
Mat P	Goal	Cir p

Referring to the above analysis, the aim is clearly stated in the goal element, the things needed are listed in a good sequence, so as to coincide with the step's sequence.

The steps themselves are realized with material processes (in bold) at the beginning of the clauses telling what physical actions should be conducted when someone wants to plant bean seeds. All clauses in the steps have no subjects, indicating that they are imperative. This is done to make the steps easily understood. Having all those attributes, this procedural text achieves its social purpose, to describe how something is accomplished through sequence of steps, and therefore can be used as a model text.

#### 4.2.9 Narration

The findings of this very genre have actually been given above, in the findings in connection with all the analyzed reading texts.

The twenty-three analyzed narratives have no problem at all. They are authentic texts taken from reliable books, such as People and Progress, Stories of

Shakespeare's Plays, Graded Reading Series, Folktales from Indonesia, Bedtime Stories, etc.



## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This chapter presents the conclusion which is drawn according to the findings and interpretations given in the previous chapter. In the presentation, the conclusion answering the main problem (how the RD of reading texts in the SHS English textbooks are realized) is given through the answers of four detail problems stated in the introduction while the suggestion is presented as the closing of this dissertation.

#### 5.1 Conclusion

Based on the detail problems stated in chapter one, the conclusion is divided into two; one is the conclusion in connection with RD, and the other is the conclusion in connection with the RD realization. The former is for answering the first and second questions, the genres available in the analyzed textbooks and the achievement of the social purpose of each reading text through its RD. The latter is for answering the third and fourth questions, the achievement of each text i.e. social purpose through its lexicogrammatical choices and the compatibility of reading texts with 2006 EC.

There are fourteen genres available in six analyzed textbooks: Procedure, Spoof, Recount, Report, News Item, Description, Anecdote, Analytical Exposition, Hortatory Exposition, Narration, Explanation, Discussion, Review, and Commentary. This means that two genres are added, Anecdote and Commentary. According to the 2006 EC those two genres are not included in the required genres that should be taught to SHS students, (2006EC:308). Although their contributions are only small compared to the whole; Anecdote contributes 6.1%, and Commentary, 2.6 %, those contributions can actually be given to other genres which have small contributions, such as: Procedure (1.7%), Discussion (6.1%), Recount (5.2%), Explanation (6.1%).

In connection to RD findings is the proportion of the genre distribution. There is no balance of distribution proportion among genres provided in six analyzed

textbooks. The fact that Narration is suggested to be taught in every grade by both the 2004 EC and the 2006 EC, causes its contribution to become the biggest (20%), almost a fifth of the contribution is dominated by that genre.

Only two RD of all the analyzed texts are problematic. The implication is that the text RD of almost all reading texts being analyzed (98.17%) support the achievement of the texts' social purposes.

The suggestion of genre given by the textbook writers for a given reading text cannot be taken for granted. The suggestions given to three reading texts are proved incorrect.

Eleven reading texts out of a hundred and fifteen are problematic in their RD realization. It implies that the majority reading texts being analyzed (90.44 %) have good realizations of rhetorical developments, meaning that the RD is realized based on the lexicogrammatical features of various genres suggested by the parents' community. Based on the findings above, it can be concluded that the RD realization of 90.44 % of all analyzed reading texts support the achievement of the text social purposes.

One of Explanations is not realized based on the suggested lexicogrammar, that is in the use of passive voice. However, it does not give any effects in the social purpose achievement. It proves that the realization of rhetorical development of a text is flexible; it can be changed from the suggested lexicogrammar stated in the curriculum as long as the reason is to achieve its social purpose.

The following are the reasons why the rhetorical development realizations of some genres fail:

1. some clauses do not have a complete MOOD elements, they do not have any subject,
2. inappropriate time circumstances are still available,
3. some clauses do not make use of the thematization organization of the text to make it cohesive and not boring,

4. inappropriate minor clauses are found in the text,
5. inappropriate modals are still used in the clauses.

The final conclusion is that most of the reading texts are compatible with 2006 EC.

## 5.2 Suggestions

To improve the quality of the reading texts in the SHS English textbooks, some suggestions below can be considered:

The quantity of Narration should be reduced and the portion can be given to other genres that have less contribution so that the contribution balance between genres is achieved. The balance can be achieved by providing the same portion to every genre.

Textbook writers should include as many as possible the factual Narration and the ones which are from Indonesia.

The users of textbooks are suggested to, previously, check the reading texts that will be used as model texts for the students to work with, in terms of their rhetorical development and their realizations. If they are proved to be unsatisfactory, users can improve or change them with the good ones.

The suggestion of the genre given by the textbook writer to a given reading text should not be taken for granted. Some of them are proved incorrect.

The textbook's writer should only provide reading texts that can be model texts for the students to work with. When authentic materials are used, the textbook writer should select them carefully as to only provide model texts.

The curriculum creator should evaluate whether the genres required to be taught in a given institution are really the ones the students of that institution need to learn. Need analysis should previously be done before designing a curriculum. As changes always take place everywhere, then the evaluation of the curriculum should be at least done every three years. Based on my experience in teaching English as a

foreign language in Indonesia, learners will be motivated if they feel they need to learn.

The last suggestion which can be given is the one for the next researcher, an analysis on the exercises which are made based on the model texts, such as the questions about the text, whether the exercises are made by considering the literacy approach, whether the text book's writer includes the exercises of linguistic features—whether s/he takes into account the text based mindset.



## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Agustien, H.I.R. 2002. *Shifting the Paradigm:from Language Teaching to Literacy Education*. A paper presented in the National Seminar on ELS, October 26<sup>th</sup>,2002 at LPUSD Yogyakarta.

- ..... 2006. *Competence-Based Curriculum and its Practical Implications*. A paper presented in the International Seminar at “Institut Teknologi Bandung”, February, 21<sup>st</sup>-23<sup>rd</sup> 2006 in Bandung.
- Alwasilah, A.C. 1994. *Gagal Bahasa Inggris di Perguruan Tinggi*. “Suara Karya” News paper, March 10<sup>th</sup>, p. 5.
- Ardiyati, W. 2003. *Learners’ problems in Maintaining Contextual Coherence in Recount Essays*. (Unpublished Thesis)
- Badib, A. 2006. *Rhetoric*, a lecture paper given to graduate program students of the State Surabaya University.
- Bathia, Vijay. K. 1998. *Generic conflicts in academic discourse*. In I. Fortanet, J.C. Plamer, S. Posteguillo and J.F. Coll (eds), *Genre Studies in English for Academic Purposes*. Bancaixa:Fundacio Caixa Castello.
- Breure, Leen. 2001 *Development of the Genre Concept*.  
<http://academic.brooklyn.cuny.edu/english/melani/cs6/genres.htm>. (19 December, 2006)
- Birley, G; Neil M. 1998. *A Practical Guide to Academic Research*. London: Kogen Page.
- Bowen, J.D., Harold M., Ann H. 1985. *Tesol Techniques and Procedures*. London: Newbury House Publisher, Inc.
- Brown, H.D. 2000. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. San Fransisco: Longman
- Butt, D, et.al. 1995. *Using Functional Grammar-An Explorer’s Guide*. Macquarie: National Center for English Language Teaching and Research Macquarie University.
- Canale, Michael. 1983. *From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Paedagogy*. In jack C and Richard W. Schmidt (eds). *Language and Communication*. New York:Longman Group Limited.
- Candler, Daniel,1997. *An Introduction to Genre Theory*. (19 December,2006)  
<http://www.aber.ac.uk/media/Document/intgenre/intgnre2.html>. (19 December, 2006)
- Carrell, P.L. 1985. *Facilitating ESL Reading by Teaching Text Structure*. TESOL Quarterly.
- Carroll, D.W. 1999. *Psychology of Language*. Pasific Grove: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Celce, M.; Murcia; Zoltan D.; Sarah T. 1995. *Communicative Competence: A Paedagogically Moti-vated Model with Content Specifications*. Issues in Applied Linguistics, Vol.6 No.2. pp. 5-35.
- Cook, G. 2001. *Discourse*. Oxford:Oxford University Press.
- Couture, Barbara (ed).1986.*Functional Approach to Writing: research perspective*. Norwood, NJ:Ablex.

- Crystal, D. 1995. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.
- Denzin, N. K; Yvonna S. L.1994. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London:Sage Publication.
- Dixon, P. 1971. *Rhetoric*. Norfolk: Meuthen & Co Ltd.
- Eggins,S. 1994. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Pinter Publisher.
- Flowerdew, J. 2002. *Academic Discourse*. Harlow: Longman.
- Fiske, J.1990.*Introduction to Communication Studies*. New York: Routledge.
- Fries, C. C. 1945. *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. Ann Arbor:University of Michigan Press.
- Feez, S.; Helen J.1998. *Text-Based Syllabus Design*. Sydney: AMES.
- Gerot,L. and Peter W. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Sydney: Gerd Stabler.
- Grabe, W.; Fredicka L.S. 2002. *Teaching and Researching Reading*. London: Pearson Education.
- Halliday, M.A.K. 1978. *Language as Social Semiotic*. London: Edward Arnold.
- 1994. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Matthiessen C.M.I.M. 2000. *Construing Experience Through Meaning - A Language-based Approach to Cognition*. London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Ruqaiya H. 1976. *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- 1985. *Language Context and Text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Victoria:Deakin University Press.
- Hammond, J. 1992. *English for Social Purposes*. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching Research Macquary University.
- Hyland, K. 2002. *Teaching and Researching Writing*. Harlow::Longman.
- Hymes, D. 1971. *Competence and Performance in Linguistic Theory*. In R. Huxley and E. Ingram (eds): *Language Acquisition: Models and Methods*. London:Academic Press.
- Jacob, R. A.; Peter S. R. 1988. *English Transformational Grammar*. Massachusetts:Blaisdell Publishing Company.
- Johnson, M. 2004. *A Philosophy of Second Language Acquisition*. London:Yale University Press.
- K-6 English Syllabus and Support Document*. 1994. Sydney: Board of Studies NSW.
- Kern, R. 2000. *Literacy and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Kohonen, V; Ritta J.; Pauli K.; Jorma L. 2001. *Experiential Learning in Foreign Language Education*. Harlow:Longman.
- Kurikulum Bahasa Inggris Sekolah Menengah Atas dan Madrasah Aliyah-2004*, 2003. Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Nasional.
- '*Keluar Negeri...*'.2006. Article on 'Kompas' Newspaper. January, 24<sup>th</sup>, page 53.
- Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistic Across Culture:Applied Linguistics for Language Teacher*.Ann Arbor:University of Michigan Press.
- Larsen, D.; Freeman. 1986. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford:Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Lock, G. 1996. *Functional English Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lemke, J.L. 1994. *Typology, Topology, Topography: Genre Semantics*. Unpublished paper. New York:Brooklyn College School of Education.
- Lee, D. Y.W. 2001. *Genres ,Register, Text Types, Domains, and styles:Clarifying the Comcept and Navigating a Paththrough the BNC Jungle- Language Learning and Technology*. Volume 5, Number 3, September 2001: 37-72. Lancaster. <http://lt.edu/vol5num3/lee/> (December 19, 2006).
- Marckwardt, Albert D. 1972. *Changing winds and shifting sands*. MST English Quarterly 21:3-11.
- Mc Arthur, Tom. 1992. *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Marshall, C.; Greschen B. R. 1989. *Designing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publication.
- Martin, J.R. 1992. *English Text-System and Structure*. Philadelphia: John Benjamin Publishing Company.
- Martin, J.R. & David R. 2003. *Working with Discourse.-Meaning beyond the Clause*. Sydney.
- Matthiessen, C. 1995. *Lexicogrammatical Cartography*. Tokyo: International Language Sciences Publishers.
- Miles, M. B.; A. Michael H. 1992. "*Analisis Data Kualitatif*". Jakarta:UI Press.
- Miller, Tom. 1997. *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*. Washington, D.C.: United States Information Agency.:
- Murcia, Marianne C., Elite O. 2000. *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching- A guide for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Murman. 2004. *Thematic Organization of Student's Written Narratives*. (Unpublished Thesis).
- O'Grady, William; Michael Dobrowolsky; Francis Katamba. 1996. *Communicative Competence*. UK: Coop Clark Pitman Ltd.

- Oliver, R. 1999. *Another Look at Genre in the Teaching of Writing*. A paper presented at the IFTE conference, 'The Power of Language'. Warwick, July 1999.
- "Pengumuman tentang Buku Teks Pelajaran yang Memenuhi Kelayakan untuk Digunakan dalam Pembelajaran untuk SMP dan MTs, serta SMA dan MA". 'Kompas' Newspaper, 12 th January, 2006
- Ramelan. 1991. *Introduction to Linguistic Analysis*. Semarang: IKIP Semarang Press.
- Richards, J.C.; Theodore S.R. 1992. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching- A Description and Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C.; David N. 1993. *Second Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Roth, M.; Desiree. 1999. *Text and Genre Literacy in the Classroom*. Belo Horizonte, MG: UFMG e ABRAPUI. pp. 94-02.
- Rukmini, D. 2005. *Genre Analysis of the Reading Texts in the English Textbook for High School Students Published by 'Balai Pustaka'*. Journal of Language and Literatute. Volume 1/Number 1/April 2005.
- Singeton, Jr; Royce A.; Bruce C. S. 1999. *Approaches to Social Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stubbs, M. 1996. *Text and Corpus Analysis*. Blackwell: Blackwell Publisher Ltd.
- Skehan, P. 2003. *A Cognitive Approach to Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Supriatmadji, L. 2003. *Genres Analysis on English Friday Sermons Prepared by the Islamic Religious Council of Singapore*. (Unpublished Thesis).
- Swales, J. M. 1990. *Genre Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schiffrin, D. 1994. *Approaches to Discourse*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Utomo, S. 2000. *Cohesion of Reading Passages Used in English Textbooks for First Term, Second Year of Senior High School*. (Unpublished Thesis).
- Wales, K. 2001. *A Dictionary of Stylistics*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Wells, G. 1987. *Apprenticeship in Literacy*. In *Interchange* 18,1/2: 109-123.
- Widdowson, H.G. 1978. *Teaching English as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Young, R.E.; Alton L.B.; Kenneth L. P. 1970. *Rhetoric Discovery and Change*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Publisher.

## APPENDICES

### I. Suggested RD of Genres for SHS

The following genres or text types are the ones that are suggested to be taught to SHS students in Indonesia. The stating of the genres, according to 2006 EC, is done based on the now and future activities that need the use of English the SHS learners are involved in. They are accompanied by their respective social purposes, obligatory elements with their respective functions, and the optional elements. Those accompanying part explanations are adopted from New South Wales K-6 English Syllabus and Support Document (1994).

#### 1. Recount

Social purpose: to retell events for the purpose of informing or entertaining.

Rhetorical development:

Orientation : provides the setting and introduces participants.

Events: tell what happened, in what sequence.

Re-orientation: optional-closure of events.

#### 2. Spoof

Social purpose: to retell events for the purpose of entertaining.

Rhetorical development:

Orientation : provides the setting and introduces participants.

Events: tell what happened, in what sequence.

Twist: provides unusual ending

#### 3. Report

Social purpose : to describe the way things are with reference to a range of natural, man made and social phenomena in our environment.

Rhetorical development:

General classification: tells what phenomenon under discussion is.

Description: tells what the phenomenon under discussion is like in terms of parts, qualities, and habits or behaviors (if it is living), uses (if it is non-natural).

#### 4. Discussion

Social purpose: to present (at least) two points of view about an issue.

Rhetorical development:

Issue: in the form of statement or preview

Arguments for and against, or statement of differing points of view, consisting of : point and elaboration.

Conclusion or recommendation.

### 5. Explanation

Social purpose: to explain the processes involved in the formation or workings of natural or sociocultural phenomena.

Rhetorical development:

A general statement to position the reader.

A sequenced explanation of 'why' or 'how' something occurs.

### 6. Analytical Exposition

Social purpose: to persuade the reader or listener that something is the case.

Rhetorical development:

Thesis. This can be in the form of :

position: introduces topic and indicates writer's position, or:

preview: outlines the main arguments to be presented.

Arguments, consisting of:

point: restates the main arguments outlined in the preview, and

elaboration: develops and supports each point or argument.

Reiteration: restates the writer's position.

### 7. Hortatory Exposition

Social purpose: to persuade the reader or listener that something should or should not be the case.

Rhetorical development:

Thesis: announcement of issue concern.

Arguments: reasons for concern, leading to recommendation.

Recommendation: statement of what ought or ought not to happen.

### 8. News Items

Social purpose: to inform readers or viewers about events of the day that are considered newsworthy or important.

Rhetorical development:

Newsworthy event(s): recounts the event in summary form.

Background events: elaborate what happened, to whom, in what circumstance.

Source: comments by participants in, witnesses to and authorities expert on the event.

### 9. Narration

Social purpose: to amuse, entertain, and to deal with actual or vicarious experience in different ways; narratives deals with problematic events which lead to a crisis or turning point of some kind, which in turn finds a resolution.

Rhetorical development:

Orientation: sets the scene and introduces the participants.

Evaluation: a stepping back to evaluate the plight.

Complication: a crisis arises.

Resolution: the crisis is resolved, for better or for worse.

Reorientation: optional.

### 10. Procedure

Social purpose: to describe how something is accomplished through sequence of actions or steps.

Rhetorical development:

Goal.

Material (not required for all procedural texts).

Steps.

### 11. Description

Social purpose: to describe a particular person, place or thing.

Rhetorical development:

Identification: identifies phenomenon to be described.

Description: describes parts, qualities, characteristics.

### 12. Review

Social purpose: to critique an art work, event for a public audience. The works of art include: movies, television show, books, plays, operas, recordings, exhibitions, concerts, and ballets.

Rhetorical development:

Orientation: places the work in its general and particular context, often by comparing it with others of its kind or through analogue with a non-art object or event.

Interpretive recount: summaries the plot and/or provides an account of how the reviewed rendition of the work came into being; is optional, but if present, often recursive.

Evaluation: provides an evaluation of the work and/or its performance or production; is usually recursive.

Evaluative summation: provides a kind of punch-line which sums up the reviewer's opinion of the art event as a whole; is optional.

(adopted from New South Wales K-6 Syllabus, 1994)

## II. Suggested Lexicogrammatical Features of Genres for SHS

The following are the lexicogrammar features of different text types that are suggested to

be given to SHS students.

### 1. Spoof's/Recount

- a) focus on specific participants
- b) use of material processes
- c) circumstances of time and place
- d) focus on temporal sequence.

### 2. Report

- a) focus on generic participants
- b) use of relational processes to state what is that and which it is
- c) use of simple present tense

- d) no temporal sequences

### 3. Discussion

- a) focus on generic human and generic non-human participants
- b) use of: material processes, e.g. has produced, have developed, to feed, etc.
- c) use relational processes, e.g. is, could have, cause, are;
- d) mental processes, e.g. feel, think.
- d) use of comparative: contrastive and consequential conjunctions
- e) reasoning expressed as verbs and nouns.

### 4. Explanation

- a) focus on generic and non-human participants
- b) use mainly material and relational processes
- c) use mainly temporal and casual circumstances and conjunctions
- d) some use of passive voice to get theme right.

### 5. Analytical Exposition

- a) focus on generic and non-human participants
- b) use of simple present tense
- c) use of relational processes
- d) use of internal conjunction to state argument
- e) reasoning through causal conjunction or nominalization

### 6. Hortatory Exposition

- a) focus on generic and non-human participants, except for a speaker or writer referring to self
- b) use of : mental processes: to state what writer thinks or feels about an issue, e.g. realize, feel, appreciate
- c) material processes: to state what happens, e.g. is polluting, drive, travel, spend, should be treated
- d) relational processes: to state what is or should be, e.g. does not seem to have been, is
- e) use of simple present tense

### 7. News item

- a) short, telegraphic information about story captured in headline
- b) use of material processes to retell event (many of material processes are nominalized)
- c) use of projecting verbal processes in sources stage
- d) focus on circumstances , e.g. mostly within qualifiers.

### 8. Narration

- a) focus on specific and usually individualized participants
- b) use of material processes, behavioral and verbal processes
- c) use of relational processes and mental processes
- d) use of past tense.

### 9. Procedure

- a) focus on generalized human agents
- b) use of simple present tense, it is often imperative
- c) use mainly of temporal conjunctions or numbering to indicate sequence
- d) use mainly material processes

### 10. Description

- a) focus on specific participants
- b) use of attributive and identifying processes
- c) frequent use of epithets and classifiers in nominal groups
- d) use of simple present tense.

### 11. Review

- a) focus on particular participants
- b) direct expression of options through use of attitudinal epithets in nominal groups, qualitative attributes and affective mental processes
- c) use of elaborating and extending clause and group complexes to package the information
- d) use of metaphorical language, e.g. the wit was there, dexterously ping-ponged, to and fro.

(adopted from New South Wales K-6 English Syllabus)

### III. Text, its RD and Clause Analyses

Samples of various texts being analyzed are presented below

#### No Talking Whole Eating

A rule that a whole family must obey at the dinner table in most Indonesian custom is “no talking while eating” Father will usually get angry when one of the family members talks or speaks when we are eating.

No sound comes out from our mouth except the sound of fork and spoon tinkles when they hit the plate and sound of our mouth chewing. Yesterday, my father had my mother bought lettuces. He wanted fresh vegetables and fried chicken for dinner.

As usual we sat on the chair and ate the food calmly. After a few minutes my sister eager to say something and sat restlessly. She kept looking at my father who was eating gluttonously. When my sister said “Dad”, my father eyes bulged out. His expression made her stop speaking. “Dad, there is ....”. My mother asked her to be quiet and continue eating. Again my sister said, “Dad, I want to tell you something. There is ....” Before she finished her sentence my father with loud voice shouted, “Stop talking and continue your eating”. The clear sentence made her silent and continued eating without looking at father again

A rule that a whole family must obey at the dinner table in most Indonesian custom is “no talking while eating” Father will usually get angry when one of the family members talks or speaks when we are eating.

(84)

**RD Analysis** (it is presented in chapter four)

#### Clause Analysis

A

$\alpha$

A rule is “no talking while eating”.

MOOD		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Tok	Rel P	Value

B

$\beta =$   
that a whole family must obey at the dinner table in most Indonesian custom

	MOOD			Res	
	S	F	P	Cir Adj	
Th1	Th2		Rh		
	Act	Mat P		Cir:pl	

C  
 $\alpha$   
Father will usually get angry

	MOOD			Res	
	S	F	M Adj	P	C
Th	Rh				
Car	Att Rel P			Att	

D  
 $\beta X$   
when one of the family members talks or speaks

	MOOD			Res	
	S		F	P	
Th1	Th2		Rh		
	Act		Mat P		

E  
 $\gamma X$   
when we are eating.

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	P
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Act	Mat P	

F  
 $\alpha$   
No sound comes out from our mouth except the sound of fork and spoon tinkles

	MOOD			Res		
	S	F	P	Cir:Adj	C	
Th	Rh					
Act	Mat P		Cir:pl		Cir:accompaniment	

G  
 $\beta X$   
when they hit the plate and sound of our mouth chewing.

	MOOD			Res		
	S	F	P	C		
Th1	Th2	Rh				
	Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir: accompaniment		

H  
Yesterday, my father had my mother bought lettuces.

Res	MOOD			Res		
Cir:Adj	S	F	C	P	C	
Th	Rh					
Cir:t	Initiator	Mat P	Act	Mat P	Goal	

I  
He wanted fresh vegetables and fried chicken for dinner.

MOOD	Res					
------	-----	--	--	--	--	--

S	F	P	C	Cir Adj
Th	Rh			
Sens	Men P	Ph		Cir:cause

J

1

As usual we sat on the chair

Res	MOOD		Res	
Cir:Adj	S	F	P	Cir Adj
Th1	Rh			
Cir:t	Act	Mat P	Cir:p	

K

2+

and (we) ate the food calmly.

	MOOD		Res	
	(S)	F	P	Cir:Adj
Th	Rh			
	(Act)	Mat P	Goal	Cir:m

L

1

After a few minutes my sister eager to say something

Res	MOOD		Res	
T Adj	S	F	P	C
Th	Rh			
Cir:t	Sens	Men P	Ph	

M

2 +

and (my sister) sat restlessly.

	MOOD		Res	
	(S)	F	P	Cir:Adj
Th1	Rh			
	(Act)	Mat P	Cir:m	

N

 $\alpha$ 

She kept looking at my father

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	

O

 $\beta=$ 

who was eating gluttonously.

MOOD		MOOD		Res	
(S)	F	P	Cir Adj		
Th	Rh				
(Act)	Mat P		Cir:m		

P

βX

When my sister said "Dad",

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	P	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh			
	Sayer	VP	Verbiage		

Q

α

my father eyes bulged out.

MOOD			
S	F	P	
Th2	Rh		
Act	Mat P		

R

His expression made her stop speaking.

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	C	P	
Th	Rh				
Initiator	Mat P	Act	Mat P		

S

"Dad, there is ...".

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Voc	Ext P

T

My mother asked her to be quiet and continue eating.

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	C	P	
Th	Rh				
Initiator	Men P	Act	Att	Mat P	

U

1

Again my sister said,

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
	Sayer VP

V

2"

"Dad, I want to tell you something.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	C
Th1	Th2	Rh		
Voc	Sens	Men P	Ph	Ph

W

There is ....”

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Ext P	

X

1 X

Before she finished her sentence

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	P	C
Th1	Th2	Rh		
	Act	Mat P	Goal	

Y

2

my father with loud voice shouted,

MOOD			Res	
S	Cir Adj	F	P	
Th	Rh			
Sayer	Cir: m	V P		

Z

3”

“Stop talking and continue your eating”.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
Voc	Mat P			

Aa

1

The clear sentence made her silent

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Goal		

Ab

2+

and (she) continued eating without looking at father again

	MOOD		Res		
	(S)	F	P	C	
Th1	Rh				
	(Act)	Mat P			

Ac

α

A rule at the dinner table in most Indonesian custom is “no talking while eating”

MOOD			Res		
S	Cir: pl		F	C	
Th	Rh				
Car	Cir: pl		Att Rel P	Att	

\  
Ad  
 $\beta^+$   
that a whole family must obey

	MOOD		
	S	F	P
Th1	Th2		
	Act	Mat P	

Ae  
 $\alpha$   
Father will usually get angry

MOOD		Res		
S	F	M Adj	P	C
Th	Rh			
Car	Att Rel P			Att

Af  
 $\beta^X$   
when one of the family members talks or speaks

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	P	
Th1	Th2		Rh	
	Act		Mat P	

Ag  
 $\gamma^X$   
when we are eating.

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	P	
Th1	Th2	Rh		
	Act	Mat P		

### Table of Process

No	Process	Clauses	Percentage
1	Material	B,D,E,F,G,H,J,K,M,N,O,Q,R,T,X,Z,Aa,Ab,Ad,Af,Ag	63.6 %
2	Mental	I,L,V	9.1 %
3	Relational	A,C,Ac,Ae	12.1 %
4	Behavioural	P	3.0 %
5	Existential	W	3.0 %
6	Verbal	S, U,Y	9.1 %

### Cars Should be Banned in the City

Cars should be banned in the city. As we all know, cars create pollution, and cause a lot of road deaths and other accidents.

Firstly, cars, as we all know, contribute to most of the pollution in the world.

Cars emit a deadly gas that causes illness such as bronchitis, lung cancer, and 'triggers' off asthma. Some of these illnesses are so bad that people can die from them.

Secondly, the city is very busy.

Pedestrians wander everywhere and cars commonly hit pedestrians in the city, which causes them to die. Cars today are our roads biggest killers.

Thirdly, cars are very noisy.

If you live in the city, you may find it hard to sleep at night, or concentrate on your homework, and especially talk to someone.

In conclusion, cars should be banned from the city of the reasons listed.

(5)

### RD Analysis

#### GENRE: Hortatory exposition

Element	Function	Realization
Thesis	Announcing the issue	Cars should be banned in the city. As we all know, cars create pollution, and cause a lot of road deaths and other accidents.
Argument	Providing the 1 <sup>st</sup> reason and its elaboration (related to air pollution)	Firstly, cars, as we all know, contribute to most of the pollution in the world. Cars emit a deadly gas that causes illness such as bronchitis, lung cancer, and 'triggers' off asthma. Some of these illnesses are so bad that people can die from them.
Argument	Providing the 2 <sup>nd</sup> reason and its elaboration (related to pedestrians)	Secondly, the city is very busy. Pedestrians wander everywhere and cars commonly hit pedestrians in the city, which causes them to die. Cars today are our roads biggest killers.
Argument	Providing the 3 <sup>rd</sup> reason and its elaboration (related to air pollution)	Thirdly, cars are very noisy. If you live in the city, you may find it hard to sleep at night, or concentrate on your homework, and especially talk to someone.
Recommendation	Stating what should be done.	In conclusion, cars should be banned from the city of he reasons listed.

### Clause Analysis

A

Cars should be banned in the city.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	Cir Adj
Th	Rh		
Goal	Mat P	Cir: pl	

B

β X

As we all know,

	MOOD	Res	
	S	F	P
Th1	Th 2	Rh	
	Sens	Men P: Cog	

C

α 1

cars create pollution,

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C

Th	Rh	
Act	Mat P	Goal

D

2 +

and (cars) cause a lot of road deaths and other accidents.

	MOOD		Res	
	(S)	F	P	C
Th	Rh			
	(Act)	Mat P	Goal	

E

 $\alpha$ 

Firstly, cars, contribute to most of the pollution in the world.

	MOOD			Res	
	S	F	P	C	Cir Adj
Th1	Th 2	Rh			
	Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir:pl	

F

 $\beta$  X

as we all know,

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	P	
Th1	Th 2	Rh		
	Sens	Men P: Cog		

G

 $\alpha$ 

Cars emit a deadly gas

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Goal		

H

 $\beta$ =

that causes illness such as bronchitis lung cancer and 'triggers' off asthma.

MOOD		Res		
(S)	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
(Act)	Mat P	Goal		

I

 $\alpha$ 

Some of these illnesses are so bad

MOOD			Res	
S		F	C	
Th	Rh			
Car	Att: Rel P		Att	

J  $\beta$ =

that people can die from them.

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	P	Cir Adj
Th1	Th2	Rh		

	Beh	Beh P	Cir:cause
--	-----	-------	-----------

K

Secondly, the city is very busy.

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	C
Th1	Th 2	Rh	
	Car	Att: Rel P	Att

L

1

Pedestrians wander everywhere

	MOOD			Res
	S	F	P	Cir Adj
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Circ: pl		

M

+ 2

 $\alpha$ 

and cars commonly hit pedestrians in the city,

	MOOD				Res
	S	Cir Adj	F	P	C
Th	Rh				
Act	Circ: m	Mat P	Goal	Circ: pl	

N

 $\beta=$ 

which causes them to die.

	MOOD		Res	
	(S)	F	P	C
Th	Rh			
(Act)	Mat P	Goal	Mat P	

O

Cars today are our roads biggest killers.

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	C
Th	Rh		
Tok	Cir:pl	Rel P	Value

P

Thirdly, cars are very noisy.

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	C
Th1	Th 2	Rh	
	Car	Att: Rel P	Att

Q

 $\beta X$ 

If you live in the city,

	MOOD		Res
	S	F	P
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Beh	Beh P	Cir:p

R  
 $\alpha X$   
 1

you may find it hard to sleep at night,

MOOD			Res			
S	F	P	C	P		C
Th	Rh					
Act	Men P: Cog	Ph	Cir: m	Beh P	Cir: time	

S  
 2 =

or (you) concentrate on your homework,

MOOD			Res		
(S)	F	P	C		
Th 1	(Th 2)	Rh			
(Act)	Mat P	Goal			

T  
 3 +

and especially (you) talk to someone.

Res		MOOD			Res	
Cir Adj		(S)	F	P	C	
Th	Rh					
Cir:m		(Act)	Mat P	Goal		

U

In conclusion, cars should be banned from the city of the reasons listed.

MOOD			Res			
(S)	F	P	C			
Th 1	(Th 2)	Rh				
(Act)	Mat P	Goal				

### Table of Process

No	Process	Clauses	Percentage
1	Material	A,C,D,E,G,H,L,M,N,S,T,U	57.14 %
2	Mental	B,F,R	14.28 %
3	Relational	I,K,O,P	19.05 %
4	Behavioural	J,Q	9.53 %

### Safety and Budget Flights

The budget airline frenzy in Asia has been all about crazily low fares and more destinations opening up. It is unlocking a new travel market and has forced mainstream airlines, even the aristocratic Singapore Airlines, to slum it with the herd by offering more promotional fares.

But a troubling omission has been that safety is hardly talked about by the trade or regulators. If travelers are apprehensive, they keep it to themselves.

This has to change. The accident in Solo (Surakarta) on Tuesday involving an MD-82 plane of the Indonesian budget airline Lion Air has forced the issue into the open. Singapore operators Valuair and Tiger Airways quickly assured the public that safety was top priority. But this has been a fortuitous development; an indication of how neglectful the nascent business in Asia had been in not discussing safety matters openly from the start.

But operators would know a no-survivors crash would shake public confidence, perhaps fatally. They should reassure the traveling public, first of all, on the age and maintenance of their planes. New planes not maintained to required standards, and by competent engineers and technicians, can prove problematic.

Next, the pilots. Are they as competent and rigorously assessed as those of premium airlines? Do they fly more hours than are permitted? Do rookie pilots abound, as they are cheaper to hire? Airlines operate to tight turnaround times, more so the budgets. Would this place pilots under undue pressure, so as to cut operating cost? Regulators would seek satisfaction on all safety aspects before licenses are given.

(89)

#### RD Analysis

**Genre :** This text is suggested by the textbook's writer as to be included in Discussion , but there is only one argument available in the text, the argument

against the issue. The result of analysis proves that the text should have been included in Hortatory Exposition.

GENRE: Element	Function	Realization
Thesis	Announcing an issue on the low fares of flight and opening of new destinations, but	The budget airline frenzy in Asia has been all about crazily low fares and more destinations opening up. It is unlocking a new travel market and has forced mainstream airlines, even the aristocratic Singapore Airlines, to slum it with the

	neglecting safety that leads to proposing for a changing .	herd by offering more promotional fares. But a troubling omission has been that safety is hardly talked about by the trade or regulators. If travelers are apprehensive, they keep it to themselves. This has to change.
Argument 1	Providing reason to support the proposal	The accident in Solo (Surakarta) on Tuesday involving an MD-82 plane of the Indonesian budget airline Lion Air has forced the issue into the open. Singapore operators Valuair and Tiger Airways quickly assured the public that safety was top priority. But this has been a fortuitous development; an indication of how neglectful the nascent business in Asia had been in not discussing safety matters openly from the start.
Argument 2	Providing another reason.	But operators would know a no-survivors crash would shake public confidence, perhaps fatally.
Recommendation	Persuading what should be done by operators.	They should reassure the traveling public, first of all, on the age and maintenance of their planes. New planes not maintained to required standards, and by competent engineers and technicians, can prove problematic.
Argument	Reasoning related to pilots	Next, the pilots. Are they as competent and rigorously assessed as those of premium airlines? Do they fly more hours than are permitted? Do rookie pilots abound, as they are cheaper to hire? Airlines operate to tight turnaround times, more so the budgets. Would this place pilots under undue pressure, so as to cut operating cost?
Recommendation	Stating what should be done	Regulators would seek satisfaction on all safety aspects before licenses are given.

### Clause Analysis

A

The budget airline frenzy in Asia has been all about crazily low fares and more destinations opening up.

MOOD				Res	
S	Cir Adj	F	P	C	
Th			Rh		
Tok		Cir: pl	Id Rel P	Value	

B

1

It is unlocking a new travel market

M		Res			
S	F	P	C		
Th		Rh			
Act	Mat P		Goal		

C

2 +

and (it) has forced mainstream airlines, even the aristocratic Singapore Airlines,

M		Res			
(S)	F	P	C		
Th 1	Th 2		Rh		
(Act)	Mat P		Goal		

to slum it with the herd by offering more promotional fares.

		Res	
P	C	Cir Adj	
		Rh	
Mat P	Goal	Cir: m	

D  
 $\alpha$   
 But a troubling omission has been

		MOOD		Res	
		S	F	P	
Th1	Th2	Rh			
		Tok		Id Rel P	

E  
 $\beta X$   
 that safety is hardly talked about by the trade or regulators.

		MOOD		Res		
		S	F	M Adj	P	Cir Adj
Th 1	Th 2	Rh				
		Goal	Mat P	Cir: m	Mat P	Act

F  
 $\beta X$   
 If travelers are apprehensive,

		MOOD		Res	
		S	F	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh			
		Car	Att Rel P		Att

G  
 $\alpha$   
 they keep it to themselves.

		MOOD		Res	
		S	F	P	C
Th	Rh				
Act	Mat P	Goal	Recipient		

H  
 This has to to change.

		M		Res	
		S	F	C	
Th	Rh				
Act	Mat P				

The accident in Solo (Surakarta) on Tuesday involving an MD-82 plane of the Indonesian budget airline Lion Air has forced the issue into the open.

		MOOD		Res		
		S	F	P	C	Cir Adj
Th	Rh					
Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir:p			

J

α

Singapore operators Valuair and Tiger Airways quickly assured the public

MOOD			Res	
S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
Sens	Cir: m	Men P	Ph	

K  
β X

at safety was top priority.

MOOD		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Car	Att. Rel P	Att

L

But this has been a fortuitous development

MOOD			Res	
S	F	P	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh		
	Tok	Att Rel P	Value	

M

An indication of how neglectful the nascent business in Asia had been in not discussing safety matters openly from the start.

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	Rh	C	
Th	Rh				
Car	Att Rel P			Att	

N

But operators would know .

MOOD		Res
S	F	P
Th1	Th2	Rh
	Sens	Men P

O

a no-survivors crash would shake public confidence, perhaps fatally.

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	C	Cir Adj	
Th	Rh				
Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir: m		

P

They should reassure the traveling public, first of all, on the age and maintenance of their planes,

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	C		
Th	Rh				
Sens	Men P	Ph	Cir: accomp		

Q

New planes not maintained to required standards, and by competent engineers and technicians, can prove problematic.

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	C		

Th	Rh
Car	Att Rel P   Att

R  
Next, the pilots. ( THIS IS A MINOR CLAUSE; It cannot be found in the written language)

S  
1  
Are they as competent

MOOD		Res
F	S	C
Th	Rh	
Att Rel P	Car	Att

T  
2 +  
and (they) rigorously assessed as those of premium airlines

	MOOD		Res
	(S)	Cir Adj	F   C
Th1	Rh		
	(Act)	Cir: m	Mat P   Goal

U  
Do they fly more hours than are permitted?

MOOD		Res	
F	S	P	C
Th	Rh		
Mat P	Act	Mat P	Cir:t

V  
α  
Do rookie pilots abound,

M		Res
F	S	P
Th	Rh	
Ext P	Act	Ext P

W  
βX  
as they are cheaper to hire?

	M	Res	
	S	F	C
Th1	Th2		Rh
	Car	Att Rel P	Att

X  
Airlines operate too tight turnaround times, more so the budgets.

M		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	

Y  
Would this place pilots be under undue pressure, so as to cut operating cost?

MOOD			Res
F	S	P	C
Rh	Th		Rh
	Car		(?)

Z

$\alpha$   
Regulators would seek satisfaction on all safety aspects

M			
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	

Aa  
 $\beta X$   
before licenses are given.

M			Res
S	F	P	
Th1	Th2	Rh	
Goal		Mat P	

No	Process	Clauses	Percentage
1	Material	B,C,E,G,H,I,O,T,U,X,Z,Aa	48 %
2	Mental	J,N,P	12 %
3	Relational	A,D,F,K,L,M,Q,S,W	36 %
4	Existential	V	4 %



### The Old and the Young

Katoen in the Edogawa district of Tokyo is the home for elderly, so you might expect it be a gloomy place. However, the people who live there are always bright and cheerful. The reason for this is the happy voices of children who attend Edogawa Nursery School located in the same building.

The nursery school on the ground floor accommodates 80 pre school children aged one and half for about 100 senior citizens. Although many of the elderly residents live in the home by voice, they still long for family life. Being in the same building allows them to visit the nursery school whenever they wish, while the children often go upstairs to play. In the morning both the old and young gather outside for exercises. Special time, such as Christmas and sport day are always celebrated together.

“We find the children learn how to care for others by talking and being with their older co residents,” explained Maeda Takini, the director of Katoen. “As for the elderly, through their association with children, they become more alive and their health improves. Seeing these old people, many of whom we thought had forgotten how to laugh or even express their thoughts, holding the children and happily talking with them, brings home just how important an affectionate relationship between the very old and the very young.”

The success of Katoen has created a sensation in Japan and brought responses from all over the country. The declining number of children now being born each year has left unused space at many nursery schools. It has therefore been suggested that these surplus areas are utilized by the elderly. In this way, in spite of living in small nuclear households, children can experience the advantages of close contact with people of much older generation.

Yesterday, my father had my mother bought lettuces. He wanted fresh vegetables and fried chicken for dinner. As usual we sat on the chair and ate the food calmly. After a few minutes my sister eager to say something and sat restlessly. She kept looking at my father who was eating gluttonously. When my sister said, “Dad”, my father eyes bulged out. His expression made her stop speaking. “Dad, there is ...”. My mother asked her to be quiet and continue eating. Again my sister said, “Dad, I want to tell you something. There is ...” Before she finished her sentence my father with loud voice shouted, “Stop talking and continue your eating”. The clear sentence made her silent and continued eating without looking at father again.

(51)

### RD Analysis

**GENRE:** This text is suggested by the textbook’s writer as included in discussion; however the RD analysis proves that it should have been included in News Item.

lement	Function	Realization
News worthy event	Providing the news.	Katoen in the Edogawa district of Tokyo is the home for elderly, so you might expect it be a gloomy place. However, the people who live there are always bright and cheerful. The reason for this is the happy voices of children who attend Edogawa Nursery School located

		in the same building.
Back ground event	Elaborating what happened, to whom, in what circumstance	The nursery school on the ground floor accommodates 80 pre school children aged one and half for about 100 senior citizens. Although many of the elderly residents live in the home by voice, they still long for family life. Being in the same building allows them to visit the nursery school whenever they wish, while the children often go upstairs to play. In the morning both the old and young gather outside for exercises. Special time, such as Christmas and sport day are always celebrated together.
Sources	Comments given by the director	“We find the children learn how to care for others by talking and being with their older co residents,” explained Maeda Takini, the director of Katoen. “As for the elderly, through their association with children, they become more alive and their health improves. Seeing these old people, many of whom we thought had forgotten how to laugh or even express their thoughts, holding the children and happily talking with them, brings home just how important an affectionate relationship between the very old and the very young.”
Sources	Comments of the writer.	The success of Katoen has created a sensation in Japan and brought responses from all over the country. The declining number of children now being born each year has left unused space at many nursery schools. It has therefore been suggested that these surplus areas are utilized by the elderly. In this way, in spite of living in small nuclear households, children can experience the advantages of close contact with people of much older generation
	By providing a happening in a given situation.	Yesterday, my father had my mother bought lettuces. He wanted fresh vegetables and fried chicken for dinner. As usual we sat on the chair and ate the food calmly. After a few minutes my sister eager to say something and sat restlessly. She kept looking at my father who was eating gluttonously. When my sister said, “Dad”, my father eyes bulged out. His expression made her stop speaking. “Dad, there is ....”. My mother asked her to be quiet and continue eating. Again my sister said, “Dad, I want to tell you something. There is ....” Before she finished her sentence my father with loud voice shouted, “Stop talking and continue your eating”. The clear sentence made her silent and continued eating without looking at father again.
Summary		

### Clause Analysis

#### The Old and the Young

A

1

Katoen in the Edogawa district of Tokyo is the home for elderly,

MOOD			Res
S	Adj of place	F	C
Th	Rh		
Car	Cir: pl	Att. Rel P	Att

B

2X

so you might expect it be a gloomy place.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Sens	Men P	Ph

C α X

However, the people who live there

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh		
	Beh	Beh P	Cir: pl	

D

β

(people) are always bright and cheerful.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	M Adj	C	
Th	Rh			
Car	Att. Rel P	Cir: m	Att	

E

α

The reason for this is the happy voices of children

MOOD		Res	
S	F	C	
Th	Rh		
Car	Att. Rel P	Att	

F

β X

who (children) attend Edogawa Nursery School located in the same building.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Goal		

G

1

The nursery school on the ground floor accommodates 80 pre school children aged one

MOOD		Res		
S	Adj of pl	F	P	C
Th	Rh			
Act	Cir: pl	Mat P	Goal	

H  
2+  
and (The nursery school accommodates) half for about 100 senior citizens.

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	P	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh			
	Act	Mat P		Goal	

I  
1 +  
Although many of the elderly residents live in the home by voice,

	MOOD			Res		
	S		F	P	C	
Th1	Th2		Rh			
	Beh		Beh P	Cir: pl		

J  
2  
they still (live) long for family life.

	MOOD			Res		
	S	M Adj	F	P	C	
Th	Rh					
Act	Mat P		Goal			

K  
 $\alpha$   
Being in the same building allows them to visit the nursery school

	MOOD			Res			
	S	F	P	C	P	C	
	Th			Rh			
	Act	Mat P	Goal	Mat P	Goal		

L  
 $\beta$  X  
whenever they wish,

	MOOD		Res	
	S	F	P	
Th 1	Th 2	Rh		
Cir: t	Act	Men: Cog		

M  
 $\gamma$  X  
while the children often go upstairs to play.

	MOOD			Res		
	S	M Adj	F	P	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh				
	Act	Mat P		Goal		

N  
In the morning both the old and young gather outside for exercises.

	MOOD			Res		
T Adj	S		F	P	C	
Th1	Th2		Rh			
Cir: pl	Act		Mat P	Goal		

O

Special time, such as Christmas and sport day are always celebrated together.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	M Adj	C
Th	Rh		
Car	Att. Rel P	Cir:m	Att

P

“We find

MOOD		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Sens	Men P	

Q

the children learn how to care for others by talking and being with their older co residents.”

MOOD			Res		
S	F	P	P	C	
Th	Rh				
Act	Mat P		Mat P	Goal	

R

1

Maeda Takini, the director of Katoen explained

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Sayer	Verbal P

S

2 “

“As for the elderly, through their association with children, they become more alive

Res		MOOD		Res
Cir:Adj		S	F	C
Th		Rh		
Cir:man		Car	Rel P	Att

T

2+

and their health improves”.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Act	Mat P	

U

a

Seeing these old people, brings home just how important an affectionate relationship between the very old and the very young.”

MOOD	Res
------	-----

S	S	C
Th	Rh	
Sens	Men P	Ph

V

 $\beta$  X

we thought

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Sens	Men P

W

 $\gamma$  =

many of whom had forgotten how to laugh or even express their thoughts, holding the

children and happily talking with them, brings home just how important an affectionate relationship

between

the very old and the very young.”

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Sens	Men P	Ph	

X

1

The success of Katoen has created a sensation in Japan

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	Cic: pl

Y

2 +

and (The success of Katoen) brought responses from all over the country.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	

Z

The declining number of children now being

born each year has left unused space at many nursery schools.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	Adj:pl
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Goal	Cir:pl	

Aa

 $\alpha$ 

It has therefore been suggested

MOOD		Res
S	F	P
Th	Rh	
	Men P	Men P

Ab  
 β X  
 that these surplus areas are utilized by the elderly.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Goal	Mat P	Act	

Ac  
 In this way, in spite of living in small nuclear households,

Res
Cir Adj
Th
Cir:man

children can experience the advantages of close contact with people of much older generation.

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th2	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	

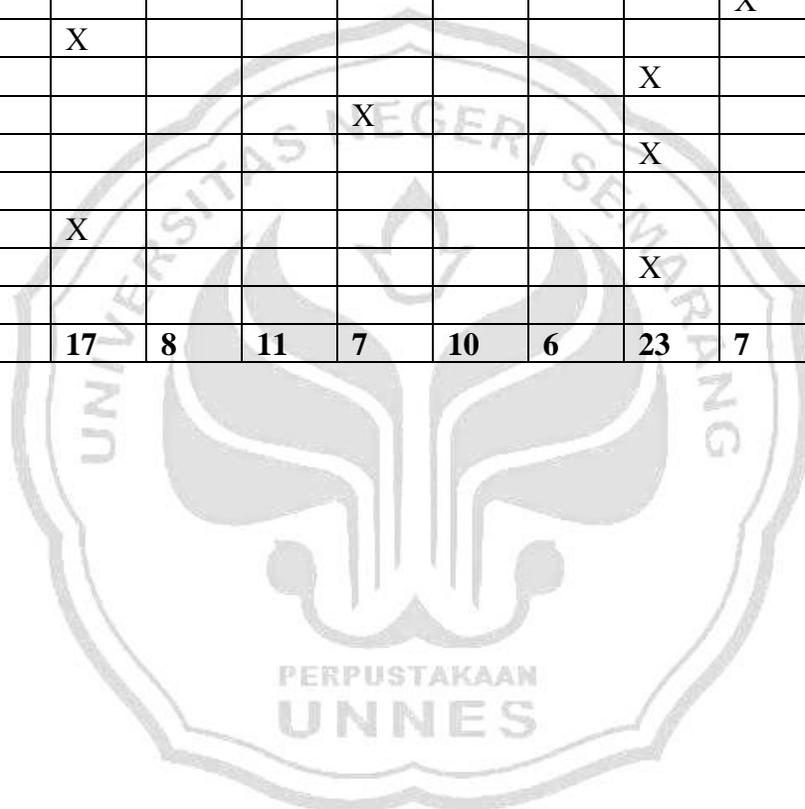
Process	Clause	Percentage
Material	F,G,H,J,K,M,N,Q,T, X,Y,Z,Ab,Ac	48.3%
Mental	B,L,P,U,V,W,Aa	24.1 %
Relational	A,D,E,O,S	13.8 %
Behavioral	C,I	6.9 %
Verbal	B,D	6.9 %



44			X											
45			X											
46										X				
47				X										
48				X										
49		X												
50						X								
51														X
52				X										
53							X							
54											X			
55			X											
56					X									
57					X									
58											X			
59		X												
60					X									
61						X								
62						X								
63				X										
64								X						
65							X							
66			X											
67				X										
68									X					
69									X					
70								X						
71		X												
72			X											
73											X			
74				X										
75									X					
76							X							
77		X												
<b>TOT</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>

Text No	Procedure	Spooof /re-count	Report	News Item	Description	Anecdote	Ana. Exposition	Hor. Exposition	Narrative	Explanation	Discussion	Review	Comment	Other
<b>TOT</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
78						X								
79						X								
80								X						
81								X						
82					X									
83										X				
84														X
85									X					
86					X									
87									X					
88										X				
89												X		
90									X					

91									X					
92							X							
93												X		
94												X		
95								X						
96									X					
97		X												
98				X										
99			X											
100												X		
101									X					
102												X		
103												X		
104													X	
105									X					
106									X					
107										X				
108			X											
109									X					
110						X								
111									X					
112												X		
113			X											
114									X					
115													X	
<b>TOT</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>



Ad

Yesterday, my father had my mother bought lettuces.

Res	MOOD			Res		
Cir:Adj	S	F	C	P	C	
Th	Rh					
Cir:t	Initiator	Mat P	Act	Mat P	Goal	

Ae

I

He wanted fresh vegetables and fried chicken for dinner.

MOOD			Res			
S	F	P	C		Cir Adj	
Th	Rh					
Sens	Men P	Ph		Cir:cause		

Af

1

As usual we sat on the chair

Res	MOOD			Res	
Cir:Adj	S	F	P	Cir Adj	
Th1	Rh				
Cir:t	Act	Mat P	Cir:p		

Ag

2+

and (we) ate the food calmly.

	MOOD			Res	
	(S)	F	P	C	Cir:Adj
Th	Rh				
	(Act)	Mat P	Goal	Cir:m	

Ah

1

After a few minutes my sister eager to say something

Res		MOOD		Res	
T Adj	S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh				
Cir:t	Sens	Men P	Ph		

Ai

2+

and (my sister) sat restlessly.

	MOOD			Res	
	(S)	F	P	Cir:Adj	
Th1	Rh				
	(Act)	Mat P	Cir:m		

Aj

 $\alpha$ 

She kept looking at my father

MOOD		Res	
S	F	P	C
Th	Rh		
Act	Mat P	Goal	

Ak

 $\beta=$ 

who was eating gluttonously.

MOOD		MOOD	Res
(S)	F	P	Cir Adj
Th	Rh		
(Act)	Mat P	Cir:m	

Al

 $\beta X$ 

When my sister said "Dad",

MOOD			Res
S	F	P	C
Th1	Th2	Rh	
	Sayer	V P	Verbiage

Am

 $\alpha$ 

my father eyes bulged out.

MOOD		
S	F	P
Th2	Rh	
Act	Mat P	

An

His expression made her stop speaking.

MOOD			Res	
S	F	P	C	P
Th	Rh			
Initiator	Mat P	Act	Mat P	

Ao

"Dad, there is ....".

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Voc	Ext P

Ap

My mother asked her to be quiet and continue eating.

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	P
Th	Rh			
Initiator	Men P	Act	Att	Mat P

Aq

Again my sister said,

MOOD	
------	--

	S	F
Th	Rh	
	Sayer	VP

Ar

2"

"Dad, I want to tell you something.

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	P	C	C
Th1	Th2	Rh			
Voc	Sens	Men P	Ph	Ph	

As

There is ...."

MOOD	
S	F
Th	Rh
Ext P	

At

1 X

Before she finished her sentence

	MOOD		Res		
	S	F	P	C	
Th1	Th2	Rh			
	Act	Mat P	Goal		

Au

2

my father with loud voice shouted,

MOOD				Res	
S	Cir Adj		F	P	
Th	Rh				
Sayer	Cir: m		V P		

Av

3"

"Stop talking and continue your eating".

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P		C
Th	Rh			
Voc	Mat P			

Aw

1

The clear sentence made her silent

MOOD		Res		
S	F	P	C	
Th	Rh			
Act	Mat P	Goal		

Ax  
2+  
and (she) continued eating without looking at father again

	MOOD		Res	
	(S)	F	P	C
Th1	Rh			
	(Act)	Mat P		

**Table of Process**

No	Process	Clauses	Percentage
1	Material	B,F,G,H,J,K,L,M,N,P,Q,T,U,X,Y,Aa,Ab,Ac,Ad,Af,Ag,Ai,Aj, Ak,Am,An,Ap,Av,Aw,Ax,Z	63,3 %
2	Mental	V,Ae,Ah,Ap,Ar	10,2 %
3	Relational	A,D,E,O	8,2 %
4	Behavioural	C,I	4,1 %
5	Existential	Ao,As	4,1 %
6	Verbal	R,Al,Aq,Au,S	10,2 %

Dwi Rukmini. 2008. *The Rhetorical Development Realizations of the Reading Texts in the Senior High School English Textbooks.*

Key words: genre, rhetorical development, realization, lexicogrammar feature, model text.

#### ABSTRACT

The article is written based on the study of the rhetorical development realization of reading texts provided in the *Senior High School* (SHS) English textbooks. It is aimed at finding out the various genres available in the textbooks for SHS students, describing how those texts achieve their respective social purposes, explaining how their respective *rhetorical developments* (RD) serve to achieve their respective social purposes, describing how the linguistic features serve to accomplish their respective social purposes.

The method of the study is discourse analysis, and the approach is qualitative. The data are 115 the reading texts provided in the six English textbooks published by six different publishers. The units of analysis are a text and a clause. The former is for knowing the genre; it is done by segmenting the reading text into elements. The latter is done to find out how the elements of the text are realized based on the three strands of meanings that a clause can encode, the ones suggested by Halliday (1994); however the ideational meaning of the text is the priority since the texts analyzed were written -- the text as representation.

The results reveal that there are thirteen genres available in the textbooks analyzed. The distribution proportion among the genres is not balanced. Narrations are very dominant (20 %) and Procedures contribute the least constituent (1.7 %).

Eleven out of a hundred and fifteen reading texts are problematic in their rhetorical developments. This indicates that most of them have good rhetorical developments and realizations, therefore they achieve their respective social purposes

and can be used as model texts. Three of the texts are problematic since the kinds of text suggested by the writer are incorrect. Their rhetorical development analyses prove that they should have been classified into other genres.

In terms of the rhetorical development realization, ten out of eleven reading texts are problematic. Therefore they fail to achieve their social purposes. The following are the reasons: the clauses do not have MOOD for they have no subjects; some others use inappropriate time circumstances; the clauses do not make use of the thematization organization for the text to provide cohesion; the inappropriate use of minor clause is available in the text; and some clauses use inappropriate modals.

The final conclusion is that most of the reading texts (90.43 %) have the required conventions of genre writing suggested by English community meaning that majority of the texts analyzed have both appropriate rhetorical developments and realizations, and therefore achieve their respective social purposes.

### **Background**

Living in this era, people are greatly demanded to use the internet. Using it people can communicate, obtain information, entertainment, etc. However since English is the world language, when using the internet, they will be posed to English written texts. This becomes problem for those who are not good English users like most Indonesians. In Indonesia, the ones having the low English proficiency are not only common people but the educated ones as well. This is supported by the following statement, 'the reason why the greatest numbers of university members fail to get a scholarship to study abroad is because of their lack of English proficiency' (Alwasilah, 1994). Those may bring about an implication that the English education in this country is not so satisfactory. To improve the condition of it, the government of Indonesia through the department of education changed the English curriculum. It was in 2004 when the English education curriculum was changed.

The changing is from the curriculum which focuses on sentences in isolation to focusing on a text. Actually the changing of the focus is also demanded by the recent paradigm in language education. In that curriculum, which is known as the 2004 English curriculum, students, when learning a language, are involved with a text both spoken and written. They do not only discuss about the content of the text but also the rhetorical development -- the elements that construct a text and the realization in terms of the lexicogrammatical features used to realize those elements.

That a text should be the basis of learning a language is also supported by Carrell whose research finding reveals that in English second language learning, learners who possessed and activated the appropriate text background knowledge when processing texts were found to retrieve more information (Carrell, 1985:464).

Since a text is the concrete form of discourse, the focusing of the language education on the text can be regarded as one of the efforts to support the communicative competence model offered by Celce-Murcia, et al. (1995) which proposes the students learning English to achieve the discourse competence. According to her the discourse competence is comprised of linguistic competence,

socio-cultural competence, actional competence, and supported by the strategic competence.

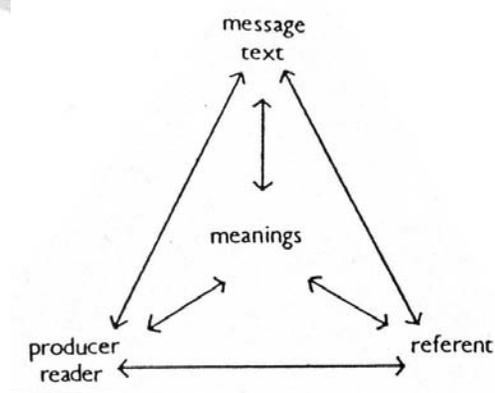
In the process of teaching, like in other countries teachers of English in Indonesia also make use of English textbooks, which are usually written based on the current curriculum. Considering the central role of a text in language learning, this study, on which this article is based, concerns about the quality of a text provided in them, whether they can be model texts for learning. However, the limitation of time makes the study only focuses on the textbooks provided for *senior high school* (SHS). It is aimed at finding out the various genres available in the textbooks for SHS students, explaining how their respective rhetorical developments serve the social purposes, describing how the linguistic features serve to accomplish their respective social purposes.

### Scope of the Study

The study analyzes a text as a whole, i.e. its RD, so it is included in discourse analysis. It also analysis the realization of RD i.e. the choices of lexicogrammar used to realize the RD therefore it is included in stylistics particularly linguistics. The data are reading texts in the textbooks, so they are included in non literary text in education.

### Theory of Communication

The first theory underlying this study is the communication theory; Fiske (1990) proposes two schools of communication, process school and semiotic school. This study belongs to the latter. The diagram below illustrates how meanings of a writer in the form of a text are interpreted by the reader.



Message and Meaning (adopted from Fiske,1990:4)

When the meanings of a reading text are read by someone, the messages in the forms of signs and codes interact with him (the reader) producing meanings created by the text writer (producer). In doing so he brings with her the aspects of their cultural experience which have relation to the codes and signs that make up the text.

Considering it, when reading a text, students are not only trained to interpret the content of the text but also its RD and realization. This is also done to suit the shifting of paradigm in language education. What of language education are shifted is listed below.

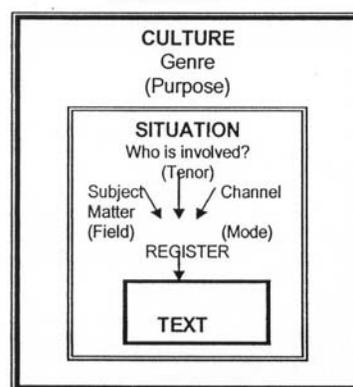
### The Shifting of Paradigm in Language Education

Language as autonomous structural system	→ Language as social phenomenon
Product orientation	→ Process orientation
Focus on isolated sentences language	→ Focus on connected stretches
Focus on texts as displays of vocabulary and grammar structures	→ Focus on texts realized as communicative acts ('doing things with words')
Teaching as prescriptive norm	→ Attention to register and style variation.
Focus on mastery of discrete skills	→ Focus on self-expression
Emphasis on denotative meanings	→ Emphasis on communicative value in context

Summary of the shifts in pedagogical focus of language education from structural to communicative frameworks (adopted from Kern 2000:19)

### Model Text

Prior to the explanation of model text, the definition of a text is given. 'A text is a collection of meanings appropriate to its contexts' (Butt, 1995:11). The contexts of a text, according to Derewianka (as cited in Hammond, et al.1992:2) in his model of language, consist of two — the cultural context and the situational one. The correlation between text, and those two contexts is illustrated well below.



Derewianka's language model (adopted from Hammond, et al., 1992:1)

The context of culture give rise to genre. This term used to be related to the category of literary composition, such as novel, plays, short stories, etc. However, today, it is widely used in rhetoric, literary and linguistics to refer to the distinctive type of text (Chandler in [http://www.aber.ac.uk/media/Document/intgenre\\_2.html](http://www.aber.ac.uk/media/Document/intgenre_2.html), 1997:1). The various kinds of text are characterized by the different elements the text is structured. In this article the text structure is called the rhetorical development. Description's rhetorical development, for example, has two elements: identification^descriptions; Procedure has three elements: goal^(list of things needed)^steps.

The elements of a text can be obligatory or optional. It is obligatory if the existence in the text is a must. Unlike the optional element, a text may have it or not.

The list of things, the second element of Procedure is optional therefore it is written in between brackets.

The context of situation gives rise to the lexicogrammatical features of a text. A Description, for example, has the following lexicogrammatical features: focus on specific participants, use of attributive and identifying processes, frequent use of epithets and classifiers in nominal groups, and the use of simple present tense.

Both the structure of the text and its realization are conventions suggested by the parents' community (Swales,1990). If the text is in English the parents' community is English.

A model text is the one that fulfills both the elements and the lexicogrammatical features suggested by English community. The texts in the textbooks are those that the students work with, they do not only learn the content of the text but also its rhetorical development and lexicogrammatical features, since based on the current curriculum, at the end of the course they should be able to write the various kinds of texts.

### **Data**

It has been mentioned in the abstract that the data of this study are taken from 6 textbooks that are published by different publishers. In December 2006 the Indonesian government recommended 14 publishers to publish English textbooks for SHS. The 6 textbooks are chosen purposively, two of them are for the tenth grade, two for the eleventh, and the other two are for the twelfth grade. All the reading texts (reading passages) in the chosen textbooks are the data of the study, they are all 115 reading texts.

### **RD Analysis**

Based on the cultural context, every kind of text has its own rhetorical development. With regard to this, every text analyzed is segmented into its elements, followed by the labeling of each element and its function. Those are done to find out the genre, such as the one below:

#### **Spring Gardens Apartment**

Element	Function	Realization
Identification	Identifying what is going to be described, in this case is the Spring Garden Apartment.	<i>The Spring Garden Apartment Complex offers you and your family country living at its best.</i>
Description 1	Describing the surrounding and location.	<i>Surrounded by beautiful woods and hills, Spring Garden is located ten miles outside the city but is only minutes downtown on the freeway.</i>
Description 2	Describing the inside of the apartment; what each apartment has and the possibility to take pets inside it.	<i>Unfurnished two bedroom apartments are available. Each apartment has a dishwasher, central heating, air conditioning, and laundry room. Children pets are welcome.</i>
Description 3	Describing the existence of sports facilities and parking area.	<i>In addition, there are tennis and basketball courts, two swimming pools, and a playground. There are two parking spaces for each apartment.</i>

The above text is included in Description since the required elements of Description are provided in it.

### RD Realization Analysis

Looking at the convention of RD realization suggested in the background, it can be seen that the terms used are the ones of systemic functional grammar of Halliday (1994). The RD realization of a text is, therefore, done by analyzing every clause in the text in terms of its three strands of meanings, interpersonal, textual and ideational. Since the text analyzed is written, the ideational meaning analyzes is considered to be the priority.

Egins suggests that analyzing the interpersonal meaning means establishing a relationship between the semantic organization of interaction and grammatical differences in the MOOD configurations in clauses of different MOOD types, and see the role of modality in interaction (Egins, 1994:146). MOOD is the subject and finite of the clause; while the rest of the clause is called the Residue. In connection with the written text, the text type that needs the appropriate role of modality is Exposition, of which the social purpose is to persuade the reader that something is the case or something should be the case.

The textual meaning analysis concerns a clause character as a message. What is mainly learned here is the Thematic structure of a clause. Theme is the first meaning which is put at the beginning or in the front part of a clause. How the Themes of clauses in the text are structured govern how well the messages are developed in the text.

The ideational meaning analysis views a clause as its function to express experience; that is the clause as representation. 'There are three semantic categories which explain in a general way how phenomena of the real world are presented as

linguistic structure -- circumstances, process, and participant' (Gerot, et al. 1994:52). Analyzing ideational meaning means exploring who does what to whom; who/what is what/who, when, where, why or how function.

The example below shows how the three meaning analysis is done to a given clause.

A rule is "no talking while eating".

M		Res
S	F	C
Th	Rh	
Tok	Rel P	Value

The first and second rows are the interpersonal meaning analysis. 'A rule is' is the MOOD, and 'no talking while eating' is the residue. The MOOD indicates that the clause is declarative.

The third row is the textual meaning analysis. The Theme is 'A rule'; the writer intends to first expose 'A rule' as the point of departure of the meaning, and become the most important meaning exposed to the reader.

The fourth row is the ideational meaning analysis. 'The rule' is 'no talking while eating'; what is what. 'is' therefore is classified as identifying Relational Process. 'no talking while eating is the value of the token 'A rule'.

The results of the analyses are then calculated and compared to the convention suggested which functions as the parameter of the study.

### Findings of Study

To make the findings presented systematically, they are divided into two, the findings related to the whole texts analyzed and the ones related to the particular kind of text.

Findings related to all the analyzed reading texts:

- There are 14 genres provided in 6 analyzed textbooks.
- The proportion balance between genres is not achieved.
- Procedure constitutes 1.74 % of all 115 reading texts available in 6 analyzed textbooks.
- Narration gives 20% contribution: 14 out of 23 narrations are imaginative stories.
- Only 2 reading texts have problematic RDs. The problem is caused by the textbook writer's suggestion on the genre to those texts. The suggestions are proved incorrect.

Findings related to the reading text as a given genre:

11 reading texts have problems with their RD realization therefore they cannot be used as model texts. The inappropriate realization are as follows:

- The time circumstances in some Recounts are inappropriately used.
- There are clauses in reading texts 60,71,and 83 which have no subjects.
- Reading text 45 and 82 do not make use of the thematization organization well to maintain cohesion between clauses in the text.
- Reading text 5, 7, 82 do not use modals appropriately.
- Reading text 89 has a minor clause which functions as a major clause. This is inappropriately used of minor clause, a written text should consist of major clauses.

### Conclusion

Considering the findings of the study, conclusion is drawn, as follows:

- There are 2 genres which are not required to teach in SHS available in the analyzed textbooks.
- 98.17% of all analyzed reading texts have good rhetorical developments.
- 90.44% of all analyzed reading texts have good rhetorical development realization, and therefore achieve their respective social purposes.

### Suggestion

Some suggestions are proposed below.

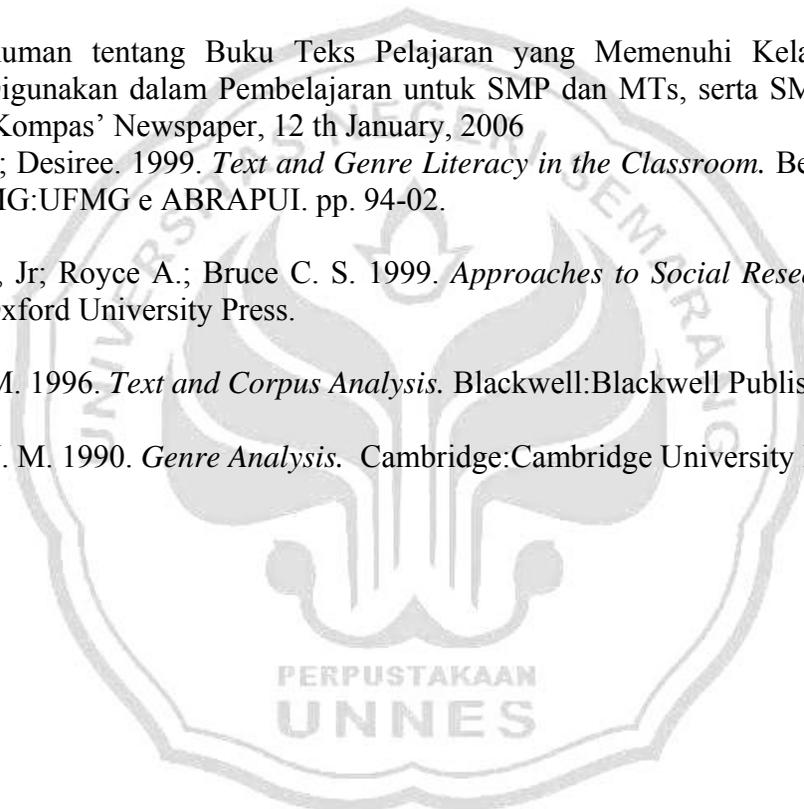
- Narrations should be reduced proportionally so the balance proportion between genres is achieved.
- The textbook user should check the reading text (in the textbook) in terms of its RD and realization before using it for reading activities.
- The textbook writer's suggestion on the genre of a given text should not be taken for granted.
- The textbook writer should select an authentic text carefully before using it for a model text.
- The textbook writer should only provide model reading texts.
- The next researcher can study on the exercises which are provided based on the model text.

### Reference

- Alwasilah, A.C. 1994. *Gagal Bahasa Inggris di Perguruan Tinggi*. "Suara Karya" News paper, March 10<sup>th</sup>, p. 5.
- Badib, A. 2006. *Rhetoric*, a lecture paper given to graduate program students of the State Surabaya University.

- Breure, Leen. 2001 *Development of the Genre Concept*.  
<http://academic.brooklyn.cuny.edu/english/melani/cs6/genres.htm>. (19  
 Decem ber, 2006)
- Birley, G; Neil M. 1998. *A Practical Guide to Academic Research*. London: Kogen  
 Page.
- Butt, D, et.al. 1995. *Using Functional Grammar-An Explorer's Guide*. Macquarie:  
 National Center for English Language Teaching and Research Macquarie  
 University.
- Candler, Daniel,1997. *An Introduction to Genre Theory*.  
<http://www.aber.ac.uk/media/Document/intgenre/intgnre2.html>. (19  
 December,  
 2006)
- Carrell, P.L. 1985. *Facilitating ESL Reading by Teaching Text Structure*. TESOL  
 Quarterly.
- Celce, M.; Murcia; Zoltan D.; Sarah T. 1995. *Communicative Competence: A  
 Paedagogically Moti-vated Model with Content Specifications*. Issues in  
 Applied Linguistics, Vol.6 No.2. pp. 5-35.
- Eggins,S. 1994. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Pinter  
 Publisher.
- Fiske, J.1990.*Introduction to Communication Studies*. New York: Routledge.
- Gerot,L. and Peter W. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Sydney: Gerd  
 Stabler.
- Halliday, M.A.K. 1978. *Language as Social Semiotic*. London: Edward Arnold.
- , 1994. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Matthiessen C.M.I.M. 2000. *Construing Experience Through  
 Meaning - A Language-based Approach to Cognition*. London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Ruqaiya H. 1976. *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- , 1985. *Language Context and Text: Aspects of language in a social-  
 semiotic perspective*. Victoria:Deakin University Press.
- Hammond, J. 1992. *English for Social Purposes*. Sydney: National Centre for English  
 Language Teaching Research Macquary University.
- K-6 English Syllabus and Support Document*. 1994. Sydney: Board of Studies NSW.
- Kern, R. 2000. *Literacy and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kurikulum Bahasa Inggris Sekolah Menengah Atas dan Madrasah Aliyah-2004'*,  
 2003. Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Nasional.
- '*Keluar Negeri...*'.2006. Article on 'Kompas' Newspaper. January, 24<sup>th</sup>, page 53.
- Lock, G. 1996. *Functional English Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University  
 Press.

- Lemke, J.L. 1994. *Typology, Topology, Topography: Genre Semantics*. Unpublished paper. New York:Brooklyn College School of Education.
- Lee, D. Y.W. 2001. *Genres ,Register, Text Types, Domains, and styles:Clarifying the Comcept and Navigating a Paththrough the BNC Jungle- Language Learning and Technology*. Volume 5, Number 3, September 2001: 37-72. Lancaster. <http://lt.edu/vol5num3/lee/> (December 19, 2006).
- Miller, Tom. 1997. *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*. Washington, D.C.: United States Information Agency.:
- Murcia, Marianne C., Elite O. 2000. *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching- A guide for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O’Grady, William; Michael Dobrowolsky; Francis Katamba. 1996. *Communicative Competence*. UK: Coop Clark Pitman Ltd.
- “Pengumuman tentang Buku Teks Pelajaran yang Memenuhi Kelayakan untuk Digunakan dalam Pembelajaran untuk SMP dan MTs, serta SMA dan MA”. ‘Kompas’ Newspaper, 12 th January, 2006
- Roth, M.; Desiree. 1999. *Text and Genre Literacy in the Classroom*. Belo Horizonte, MG:UFMG e ABRAPUI. pp. 94-02.
- Singeton, Jr; Royce A.; Bruce C. S. 1999. *Approaches to Social Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stubbs, M. 1996. *Text and Corpus Analysis*. Blackwell:Blackwell Publisher Ltd.
- Swales, J. M. 1990. *Genre Analysis*. Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.



**I. RD Analysis**

No of text	Proce-dure	Spoof /re-count	Re-port	News Item	Des-crip-tion	Anec-dote	Ana. Ex-po-sition	Hor. Ex-po-sition	Narra-tive	Expla-nation	Discus-sion	Re-view	Com-ment	Other
1							X							
2							X							
3							X							
4			X											
5														X
6										X				
7					X									
8				X										
9								X						
10										X				
11									X					
12										X				
13					X									
14									X					
15											X			
16											X			
17							X							
18					X									
19									X					
20			X											
21							X							
22					X									
23				X										
24					X									
25									X					
26									X					
27									X					
28							X							
29									X					
30									X					
31									X					
32													X	
33	X													
34	X													
35						X								
36		X												
37			X											
38			X											
39			X											
40			X											
<b>TOT</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Text No</b>	<b>Proce-dure</b>	<b>Spoof /re-count</b>	<b>Re-port</b>	<b>News Item</b>	<b>Des-crip-tion</b>	<b>Anec-dote</b>	<b>Ana. Ex-po-sition</b>	<b>Hor. Ex-po-sition</b>	<b>Narra-tive</b>	<b>Expla-nation</b>	<b>Discus-sion</b>	<b>Re-view</b>	<b>Com-ment</b>	<b>Other</b>
	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>
41			X											
42			X											
43			X											
44			X											
45			X											
46										X				

47				X										
48				X										
49		X												
50						X								
51														X
52				X										
53							X							
54											X			
55			X											
56					X									
57					X									
58											X			
59		X												
60					X									
61						X								
62						X								
63				X										
64								X						
65							X							
66			X											
67				X										
68									X					
69									X					
70								X						
71		X												
72			X											
73											X			
74				X										
75									X					
76							X							
77		X												
<b>TOT</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>

Text No	Procedure	Spoof /re-count	Report	News Item	Description	Anecdote	Ana. Exposition	Hor. Exposition	Narrative	Explanation	Discussion	Review	Comment	Other
<b>TOT</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
78						X								
79						X								
80								X						
81								X						
82					X									
83										X				
84														X
85									X					
86					X									
87									X					
88										X				
89												X		
90									X					
91									X					
92							X							
93												X		

94												X		
95							X							
96								X						
97		X												
98				X										
99			X											
100												X		
101								X						
102												X		
103												X		
104													X	
105								X						
106								X						
107									X					
108			X											
109								X						
110						X								
111								X						
112												X		
113			X											
114								X						
115													X	

