CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the literature that is related to the title and the content in this chapter will be divided into three main categories.

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    - 1.2 Goals of Genre-Based Pedagogy
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1. Genre-Based Pedagogy and Related Principles

1.1 Definition

To date, many scholars in different fields have studied and defined the meaning of genre in a variety of contexts in which it is being used or prominent. The definition of this terminology, as a result, slightly varies among many realms of knowledge. This section reviewed some of the principles that was relevant to genre in order to understand its definition. In the ESP context, genre has been the center of interests for a number of respects. In academic and professional settings, Swales (1990) one of the leading figures in ESP context asserts that the properties and ideas of genre are influential from much previous work in both applied and non-applied fields. Actually, the genre studies may possess and integrate the work of different scholarships. It thus has combined and shaped its characteristics from different areas as shown in Figure 1.

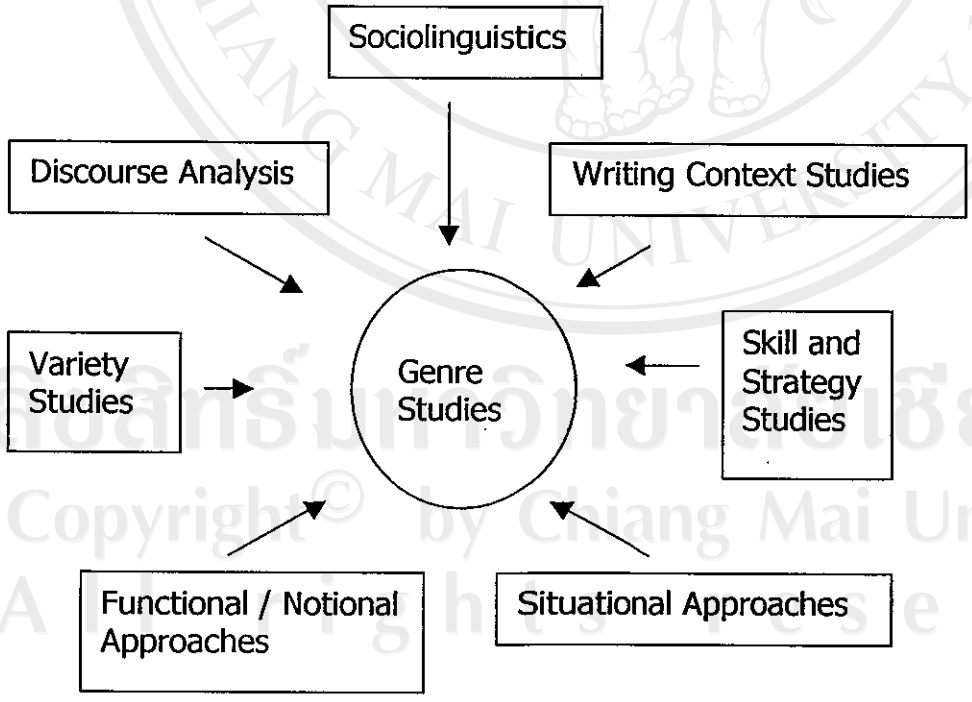

Figure 1 Influences on Genre Studies

Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993) provide aspects in defining the features of genre.

a) Genre is a group of the discourse types in the form of specific communicative situations featured by certain communicative purposes and it is linguistically aware by the members in a particular community in which it is socially accepted its occurrence.

b) Genre is an instance which has its own communicative properties and prototypes bearing the identical distinction and other properties such as structure and audience of an instance in which it is typical in particular genre.

Hyland (2003) asserts that genre refers to abstract, socially recognized ways of using language. It is based on the assumptions that the features of a similar group of texts depend on the social context of their creation and use, and that those features can be described in a way that relates a text to others as well as text producers.

Hyon (1996) also provides the definition of genre-based pedagogy in three research areas: (a) ESP, (b) New Rhetoric and (c) Australian genre theory.

a) In ESP context, the academic figures view genres as spoken and written texts which were framed by their communicative purposes within the social contexts and genres are also viewed as communicative events characterized by several patterns of social functions, structure, and style.

b) New Rhetoric scholars conceived genres from a various perspectives relevant to L1 instruction and genres are social actions relying on their forms within the situational contexts and using ethnographic methods for analyzing texts depending on situations.

c) Australian genre theories evolved upon systemic functional linguistics which views the language in terms of its functions in the social contexts known as the register of language controlled by field, tenor and mode. Researchers in this area defined genres as staged, goal-oriented social purposes in either spoken or written forms of language in specific contexts.

This study conceived most of a theoretical framework from genre-based pedagogy from Australian perspectives so it is very useful to have fuller insights about Function Grammar or Systemic Functional Linguistics so the next section will entirely discuss about this theory.

1.1.1 Functional Grammar or Systemic Functional Linguistics

Halliday (1994) has made a significant contribution to Functional Grammar or Systemic Functional Linguistics by giving a conceptual framework of why language is functional in three categories which are closely related senses.

a) Interpretation of texts

Language is functional in the sense that it is designed to account for how language is used. Every text that is said or written unfolds in some contexts of use; furthermore, it is the uses of language that have shaped the system. Language has evolved to satisfy human needs and the way it is organized is functional with respect to these needs. A functional grammar is essentially a 'natural' grammar, in the sense that everything in it can be explained, ultimately, by reference to how language used.

b) Interpretation of the system

Language is functional because the fundamental components of meaning in language are functional components. All languages are organized around two main kinds of meaning, the 'ideational' or reflective, and the 'interpersonal' or active. Combined with these two components are 'textual'. These components are called 'metafunctions' in the linguistic system of the general purposes which underlie all uses of language.

c) Interpretation of the elements of linguistics structures

Language is functional since each element in a language is explained by reference to its function in the total linguistic system. In this third sense, therefore, a functional grammar is one that construes all of the units of the language (its clauses, phrases and so on) as organic configurations of functions. In other words, each part is interpreted as functional with respect to the whole.

1.1.2 The Model of Language

The model of language also explains how the functions of the language work through the interpretation of texts. Derewianka (1990) and Hammond et al. (1997) assert the model of language which is based upon Halliday' Functional Grammar as follows:

In Figure 1, the outer layer represents the context of culture in which any language interaction take place. The context of culture incorporates: 1) the attitudes, values and shared experiences of any group of people living in the one culture, 2) culturally evolved expectation of ways of behaving, 3) culturally evolved ways of getting things done or of achieving common goals. The culturally evolved ways of getting things done typically involve language in one way or another and are referred to as genres in the model below. Each genre is characterized by schematic structure, that is, by a distinctive beginning, middle and end structure through which the social function of the genre is realized. While some purposes for speaking and writing remain constant across cultures, the ways in which these purposes are realized vary. Thus it is likely that there will be considerable variation of genres between cultures. Language is used in a context of situation as well as a context of culture. Halliday (1989), Cloran (1999), Hasan (1999), Martin (1999), Taylor (1998), Thompson (1999) note that there are three contextual variables (field, tenor, and mode) within any context of situation that largely determine the language text. These variables function together and are

responsible for the configuration of language features found in any text. This configuration of language features constitutes the register. Field is the subject matter or the social activity taking place- what is happening, to whom, when and where, why they are doing, what they are doing and so on. For example, Thai boxing, cooking, stamp collecting, studying Thai history, etc. Tenor refers to the social relationships between participants. Relationships can be described in terms of power (equal or unequal status), contact (how often you have contact with the person to whom you are speaking or writing), or affect (attitudes and feelings towards topics and participants). The relationships that exist between participants or the audience for whom a text is written have a considerable impact on the language that is used. It refers also to the role structure (question/answer, informer/enquirer, etc.).

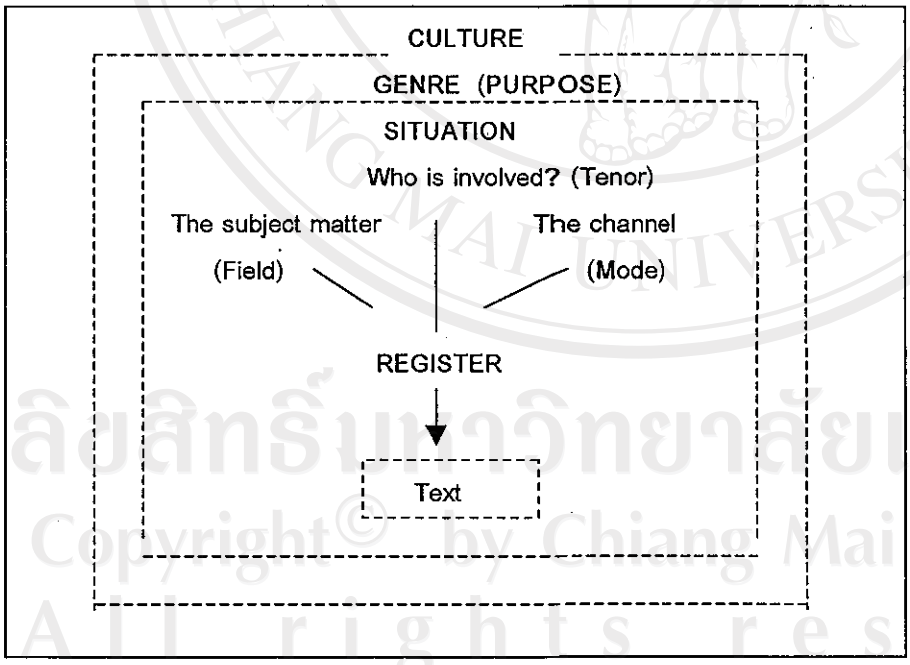

Figure 2 The Model of Language

Mode concerns how the language is being used, the organization of the text whether it is spoken or written. It refers to the channel of linguistics communication. It involves two perspectives on distance – 1) distance in space and distance in time between speaker/listener and reader/ writer, 2) distance between text and the events being referred to, such as listening to a cooking demonstration on TV; relating the TV demonstration to a friend: reading a recipe. These two notions of distance frequently relate to the translation from spoken to written language.

Field, tenor, mode determine the choices that the speaker or writer makes from the systems in the language of discourse, vocabulary and grammar. Some of the ways in which these choices operate as follows:

Field: choice of vocabulary, selection of verbs of doing, being or feeling

Tenor: use of modality and modulation, choices of personal pronouns

Mode: cohesive ties operating in spoken or written texts

1.1.3 The Relationship of Metafunctions and Contextual Variables

Halliday (1989) explained that the so-called metafunctions of systemic linguistic theory which he refers to as interpersonal and ideational. The interpersonal is doing the function; the ideational is the learning or thinking function. But these simply more fancy names for the same things. The meaning of metafunction is 'that part of the system of a language that has evolved to perform the function in question'. In English and any language, each of these metafunctions makes a clear and distinctive contribution to the grammar. But it does not so in a way that is very different from the 'either/or' of the functional theories from outside linguistics, according to which each utterance is either this or that. This sort of alteration is true in an infant protolanguage, where which symbol is doing only one thing. But it is not true about the adult language. Adult languages are organized in such a way that every utterance is both this and that: has both an interpersonal and ideational component to it. It does something,

and it is about something. This is the basis of the 'metafunction' theory. He also noted that there is a third metafunctional component in language to which there is a corresponding function in the sense of 'use'- it is not a way of using language, but rather a resource for ensuring that what is said is relevant and relates to its context. This he referred to as textual metafunction. To be able to read a text, or listen to it, effectively and with understanding, one has to be able to interpret it in terms of all these metafunctions. In other words, anyone who is learning by listening to a teacher, or reading a textbook, has to:

a) understand the processes being referred to, the participants in these processes, and circumstances (ideational);

b) understand the relationship between one process and another, or one participant and another, that share the same position in the text (ideational);

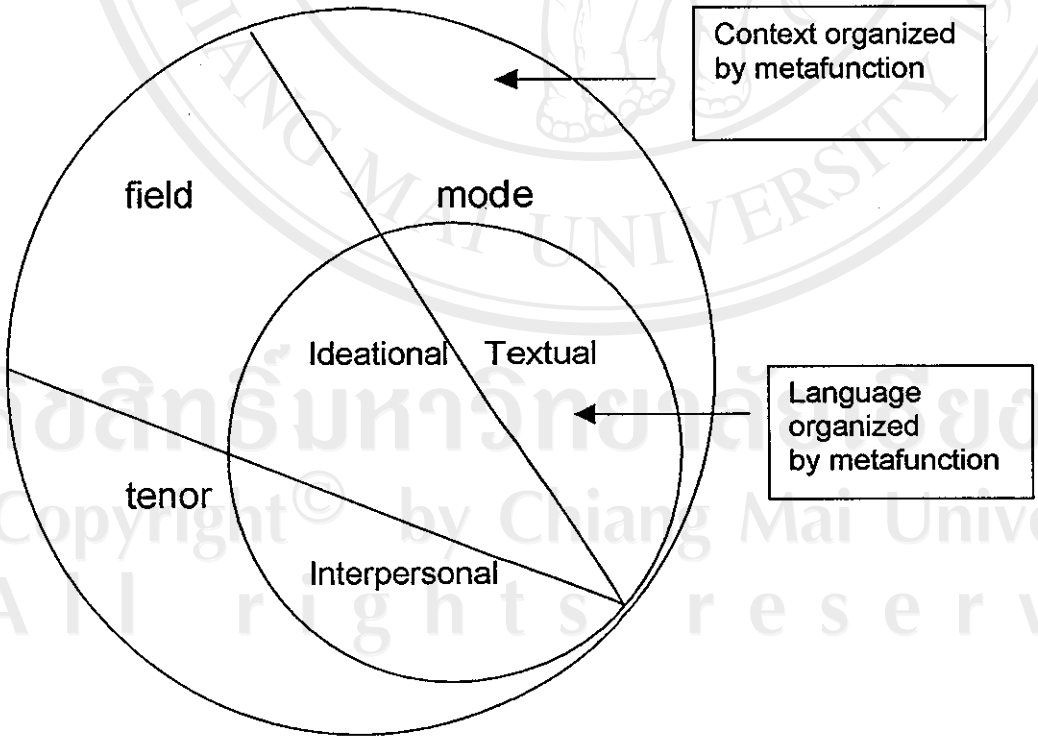

Figure 3 Language and context organized by metafunctions (Martin, 1999)

c) recognize the speech function, the type of offer, command, statement, or question, the attitudes and judgments embodied in it, and the theoretical features that constitute it as a symbolic act (interpersonal); and

d) grasp the news value and topically of the message, and the coherence between one part of the text and every other part (textual).

By understanding the functional organization of language, one is enabled to explain success and failure in learning through language: where a breakdown occurs, why it occurs, and how to overcome it from occurring again. All use of language has a context. The textual features enable the discourse to cohere not only with itself but also with its context of situation (contextual variables). The context of situation is the immediate environment in which a text is actually functioning. Halliday (1989) used this notion to explain why certain things have been said or written on this particular occasion and because of the close link between text and context, readers or listeners make predictions; they read and listen, with expectations for what is coming next. When someone is reading or listening in order to learn, the ability to predict in this way takes on a particular importance, as without it the whole process is slowed down. The whole point of a passage may be missed if the reader or listener does not bring to it appropriate assumptions derived from the context of situation. In Figure 3, the field is expressed through the ideational in the semantics, the tenor is expressed through the interpersonal function in the semantics, and the mode is expressed through the textual function in the semantics.

1.2 Goals of genre-based pedagogy

Hyon (1996) has deliberately categorized the two goals of genre-based pedagogy as follows:

a) Helping students succeed

The goals of genre-based pedagogy in concern with helping students master academic texts become more successful readers and writers and teachers should be aware of teaching the social functions and contexts as well as an emphasis on the function and meaning of language. The teaching should be included the features of genres and the analysis of each model so that the students would recognize these features in the written texts when reading and writing in classroom.

b) Empowering students

The Australian concern for the teaching the discourse conventions of school and workplace genres is often framed in ideological terms, with genre-based instruction described as a tool for empowering students with linguistic resources for social success. Some of the target populations that Australian researchers have attempted to reach with "power" school genres have been those from minority and other nonmainstream students who have had less exposure to such texts than mainstream students have. Christie (cited in Hyon, 1996) proposes that teaching students about genres and language in general is an ideological matter of social justice, insisting that "as long as we leave matters of language use available to some and not to others, then we maintain a society which permits and perpetuates justice of many kinds.

1.3 Instructional Frameworks of genre-based pedagogy

There are three different pedagogical frameworks which have been conceived in different areas of scholars- Australian, New Rhetoric, and ESP contexts. These instructional frameworks have varied in the amount and types of guidelines developed for bringing genre into language classroom (Hyon, 1996).

a) The Australian Framework

The instructional and classroom framework as curriculum cycle provided by Derewianka (1990) illustrates the process of teaching generic structures of genres.

i) Preparation: Identify the major understandings and abilities to be developed in the lesson by providing specific topics and goals for students to work towards. Decide which genre would be appropriate to develop these understandings/ abilities and locate sample texts in the chosen genre to use for immersion and modelling.

ii) Modelling: Students first need to become familiar with its purpose and features through immersion in the genre and by exploring sample texts. Discuss the purposes for which we use each type of text in our society and identify how the text is structured since each genre has a distinctive set of stages which help it to achieve its purpose. These stages make up its schematic structure.

iii) Joint Construction: Before writing independent texts, it is useful for them to participate in the group writing of a text in the chosen genre. The whole class may jointly construct a text, by a small group, or by a teacher and students during conferencing.

iv) Independent Construction of the Text: Having read and examined specimen texts in the chosen genre, and having had the experience of jointly constructing a similar text, many students may choose to write their own texts.

b) The ESP Framework

In ESP, Gosden, Hanania & Akhtar, Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, Love, Nwogu, Trone *et al* (cited in Hyon, 1996) have presented their descriptions of genres as useful discourse models for ESP writing instructors but have not detailed instructional methodologies for presenting this content in the classroom. Hopkins & Dudley-Evans (cited in Hyon,1996) offer their analysis of cyclical move patterns in scientific

master's dissertations as a "teaching/learning resource" for ESP classroom but do not describe not to convert this model into materials and tasks, saying so only, "We regard it as self-evident that the description and classification of genres and subgenres will be of value to teachers and learners" Swales (1990), for example, discusses classroom tasks used in his Dissertation, Thesis, and Prospectus Writing class to help nonnative speakers become better writers of the genre of request letters to academics. He also suggests activities for teaching the structure of research article introductions, including marking up texts with colored pens and reconstructing the proper order of a jumbled introduction.

c) The New Rhetoric Framework

In contrast to the applied focus of some of this ESP work, New Rhetoric literature has generally lacked explicit instructional frameworks for teaching students about the language features and functions of academic and professional genres. As freedman and Medway (cited in Hyon, 1996) noted, "Direct translations into teaching are almost entirely absent". The recent work of a few L1 scholars, however, has reflected a greater focus on applications. Freedman and Medway's *Learning and Teaching Genre* (cited in Hyon, 1996) is the first collection of research to consider how New Rhetoric genre theory, with its emphasis on text context and function, can inform L1 composition instruction. Coe (cited in Hyon, 1996) describes classroom procedures for raising university students' awareness of the social contexts that shape their writing. At the top of each assignment, he asks students to specify the features of the rhetorical situation, including the purpose of the text, the audience of the text, and the circumstances of the writing.

1.4 The Teaching-Learning Cycle and Classroom Planning

The cycle is intended to be used flexibly and therefore it is possible to begin at different stages and move form stage to stage according to the needs of the learners. Decision about the point at which to begin the teaching- learning cycle will depend on what students already know about the texts they are working as well as the goals of program. Normally, however, it would be necessary to move through each stage when working on a particular genre for the first time. In some units of work, it may be appropriate to omit some of the stage of the cycle. This depends, for example, on whether the focus is upon reading or writing a text, or whether learners are ready to proceed to independent construction and the teacher may decide to recycle some of the activities introduced at an earlier stage (Hammond *et al.*, 1997)

Stage 1: Building knowledge of the field

The stage of building knowledge of the field is extremely important for adult learners, especially ESL learners, as it is the point at which overall knowledge of the cultural and social contexts of the topic is built and developed. It is at this stage that discussion of cross-cultural similarities and differences occur so that an understanding of the purpose of various written genres can be developed. The range and the nature of activities here depend on the extent of the learners' second language development and the degree of their similarity with the topic or text type. It is important for all learners to have an understanding of the topic before being expected to write about it.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage enable learners to:

a) explore cultural similarities and differences related to the topic including:

   i) processes involved in achieving goals such as visiting the doctor

   ii) or applying for a job

ii) shared experiences such as knowledge and experience of finding accommodation

b) practice grammatical patterns relevant to the topic or text type

c) build up and extend vocabulary relevant to the topic or text type.

Tasks and activities might include:

a) use of visuals- photographs, filmstrips, videos- to build context

b) 'hands-on' activities such as making bread, going on excursion, listening to guest speakers reconstructing and discussing 'hands-on' activities when back in the classroom a range of communicative activities designed to enable students to share, discuss, and argue about aspects of the topic language lessons focused on vocabulary or grammatical patterns introducing learners to a broad range of written texts related to the topic, such as school brochures, notes, newsletters and enrolments forms developing reading strategies appropriate to the texts, including predicting, skimming, scanning, or identifying the logo.

This first stage is one of the most important in the cycle and one that has traditionally been most neglected in the introduction of classroom tasks and activities. Assisting learners to gain an understanding of the context is an essential stage in program planning, but the amount of time spent at this stage before moving onto the reading or writing specific texts depends on the learners' knowledge of the topic. Teachers also need to return to this stage as preparation for the introduction of any new texts related to the topic.

Stage 2 Modelling of text

This stage involves introducing the learners to a model of the genre they will be reading or writing. It differs from the done in Stage 1, which aims at building learners' knowledge of the general context of the topic. In Stage 2, there is an explicit

on analysing the genre through a model text related to the course topic. This involves preparing the learner for reading and writing by:

a) focusing on a genre as a written or 'crafted' object
b) discussing the social function of the genre and the purpose intended by the reader or writer
c) analysing characteristic schematic structure and grammatical pattern.

The selection of the model texts depends upon the teacher's assessment of the learners. Generally, genres selected are those which reflect learners' needs outside the classroom and their goals in literacy development. If suitable models are unavailable, it may be necessary for teachers to write their own examples, based on their knowledge of the characteristic schematic structure and grammatical pattern of the genre. Learners need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do outside it, and real-life written text makes the connection obvious. Thus it is not appropriate to rewrite some texts, such as forms, which are readily available outside the classroom.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage enable learners to:

a) read the model text with the teacher, with other students or alone
b) develop an understanding of the social function and purpose of the text
    i) why are such texts written?
    ii) by whom are they written and read?
    iii) what is the context in which they will be used?
c) develop an understanding of the overall organsation and development of the text
    i) what is it schematic structure?
    ii) what are the major grammatical patterns?

d) develop an understanding that the organisation of the text is functional; that the text is as it is because of the purpose it fulfils. Its schematic structure and grammatical patterns are not accidental.

If the focus of the program is primarily on reading, it may not be necessary to go further than this second stage of the cycle. Instead the teacher could include additional tasks and activities which increase the learners' control of the genre through the introduction of other model texts. Assessment of the learners is crucial in determining whether the activities listed here are carried out in succession or whether it is necessary will depend on learners' progress at this point.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:

a) teacher reading model text(s) to students
b) shared reading of texts between students
c) discussion of who writes this genre, why and where likely to be found
d) exchanging class experiences of similar texts and the purpose of these texts
e) analysis, based on examples of the schematic structure of the genre and the function of each stage within the schematic structure of the genre
f) practice in distinguishing and labelling stages within the schematic structure of the genre
g) pointing out significant grammatical patterns within the genre
h) discussion of the function of the major grammatical pattern in the genre.

Stage 3: Joint construction of text

At this stage, the aim is for the teacher to work with the learners to construct a similar text. The teacher first needs to assess the extent of the learner's knowledge and understanding of the field. Further work may need to be done before the actual

construction of the text begins. This may include, for example, gathering relevant information, researching the topic through additional reading, or preparing a series of notes to be used as the basis of the text.

The emphasis of this stage is on the teacher providing guidance and support in order to convert and reshape the language from the spoken to the written mode. The teacher therefore provides explicit support the learners through questions and elicitations and by modelling the writing process with the learners. This support focuses initially on the structure of the genre and progressively, when the learners have demonstrated control of the schematic structure of the text, on aspects such as the grammatical patterns. Teacher may want to complete several jointly constructed texts or several drafts of the same text before learners attempt to write independently. Stage 3 emphasises and draw together both field and mode as it focuses on the learners' knowledge of the topic as well as using knowledge about language to assist them to move from spoken to written language.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage enable learners to:

a) explore further the purpose of the genre and its relation to the topic or field
b) contribute knowledge of the field in a shared construction of a text
c) negotiate with the teacher and other students regarding the most appropriate organisation of knowledge about topic into a written text
d) draw on knowledge of schematic structure and linguistic features of the genre (from analysis of models of the genre in Stage 2 of the teaching-learning cycle) in negotiation about appropriate organisation of the genre
e) develop an understanding of some of the differences between talking about a topic and writing about it.

The major focus at this stage is the discussion of the learners' contributions and their appropriateness to the genre. These discussions will draw on the learners' knowledge and understanding resulting from the text analysis which was carried out in Stage 2. It is important that, at this point, the teacher monitors and assesses the extent of the learners' control of the genre. Higher level of learners, for example, may be able to proceed by working together in groups, whereas other learners need much more explicit teacher support.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:

a) revision and further discussion of purpose, context and structure of genre
b) further field building activities where necessary
c) summarising in note form (on board or overhead projector) what students know about the topic of the shared text
d) negotiating between teacher and students, and between students, regarding appropriate beginning, middle, and end construction of text, drawing on shared knowledge about the genre
e) shared re-drafting and editing of text, drawing on shared knowledge about the genre.

Stage 4: Independent construction of text

Before moving on to this stage, the teacher needs to assess if students are ready to construct the text independently. Generally, independent construction occurs only after group or pair construction has shown that the learners have gained control of the field and the mode. According to the needs of learners, it may be necessary to recycle some of the tasks and activities at earlier stages, for example further modelling of text construction or analysis of grammatical patterns. The students will be drawing on their increased knowledge and control of the field and the mode as well as the models of the

texts produced in the Stage 2 and 3 of the cycle. Here the focus is less on the teacher providing explicit support than being available to consult with individual learners as they require assistance or feedback. The teacher's role is to provide constructive comments to the learners on what further development may be necessary. This means analysing and identifying through whole class, group or individual work, where and why problem areas are occurring in the texts and whether they relate, for example, to overall schematic structure or to grammatical patterns, spelling or punctuation. Classroom tasks and activities at this stage enable learners to:

a) incorporate knowledge of schematic structure and grammatical patterns into their own writing
b) produce written texts that approximate control of the genre
c) read other examples of the genre in contexts outside the classroom
d) feel confident about writing the genre in contexts outside the classroom.

In some cases, teachers will not go on to this fourth stage of independent construction. Again, this depends on the language level of the learners need to review earlier stages for some time and need considerable explicit support from the teacher. Other learners may achieve partial independent construction of the text. The teacher may then decide to begin the cycle again in order to assist the learners with sections of the text. More advanced learners on the other hand may be able to work straight to the cycle and demonstrate that they can plan and write a text independently.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:

a) building and developing knowledge of the field through activity such as reading, information gathering and note-taking
b) writing own text, approximating appropriate schematic structure and grammatical patterns

c) consulting with other students or with the teacher regarding the appropriateness of the text

d) re-drafting and editing where necessary

e) class discussion of any difficulties experienced by learners in writing their texts

f) focused language lessons (such as spelling, punctuation, layout of the text, hand-writing) for class or groups of learners where necessary.

1.5 Genre-Based Writing

The writing skills are known to be complicate among many ESL/EFL writers. This section, thus, reviews some of the principles within the developments of ESL/EFL writing instruction as foreknowledge to the teaching of genres to enhance writing ability.

1.5.1 Developments in ESL/EFL writing instruction

Silva (1994) notes that developments in ESL writing instruction have been influenced by developments in the teaching of writing to native speakers of English. The context of ESL/EFL writing, nevertheless, has distinct theory and practices. He also provides the history of ESL writing approaches ranging controlled composition to English for Academic Purposes(EAP).

a) Controlled composition

Controlled composition is developed under the structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology perspectives that language is speech and learning is habit formation. From these ideas, writing can be seen as a skill acquired from reinforcement and oral habits. Some scholars in traditional view believe that the written language is the manipulation of fixed expressions or fixed written exercises. Thus, learning to write gains through formal and correctness within systemic habit formation patterns and it's better to avoid errors caused by the learners' mother

tongue. Learning to write in ESL/EFL contexts is seen as habit formation and writing is simply a manipulation of previous learned grammatical and language patterns. The composition or essays become the collection of sentence patterns and regardless of audience and feedback.

b) Current-Traditional Rhetoric

This approach evokes the realization of writing in a wider context and controlled composition is not adequate in extended written discourse and it seeks to find more free writing. Current-Tradition Rhetoric, thus, is and approach combining basic notions of traditional writing technique from L1 essay instruction and the theory of contrastive rhetoric. Composition writing is seen as the writing beyond sentence boundaries and the major focus is the construction and arrangement of texts with global organization such as comparison, definition and so on. The major concern is the various writing development from its elements to larger organization patterns appropriate for tertiary level writers as well as the view of writing instruction in longer discourse.

c) The Process Approach

With the dissatisfaction with controlled composition and the current-traditional rhetoric approach, the process approach is introduced to encourage thoughts and ideas in writing. Many scholars in this area claim that this approach provides a generative and exploratory process for writers to articulate new ideas and the content would eventually determine form of the writing. The working processes of this theory encouraging collaborative writing environment as well as giving enough time to produce composition. The teacher's role is to help students develop writing strategies throughout the period of writing and the process advocates peer response.

d) English for Academic Purposes

An English for academic purposes, which seem a much reaction to the process approach as an attempt to construct a new and distinct perspective on ESL

composition, have become proponents of the process approach. One major part for this criticism is that the process approach does not adequately address some central issues in ESL writing. Many critics argue that the process approach doesn't encourage the students to produce proper academic work and gives some students a false assumption about how university writing is rated. The writer is pragmatic and primarily toward academic success meeting standards and requirements and the reader is a seasoned member of the hosting academic community who has well developed schemata for academic discourse and clear and stable views of what is appropriate.

Silva (1994) provides the first suggestion for basic element of ESL/EFL writing context that needs to be addressed is writer, reader and text and points out that within the writing context each element actively interacts to produce effective texts as shown in figure 4.

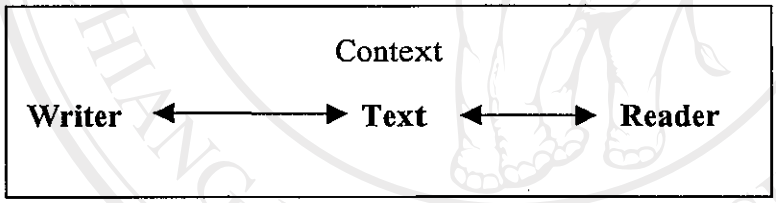

Figure 4 Writing Context

His second suggestion is that he considers the place or role of approaches (theory of L2 writing instruction) within a coherent model of the interrelationship of ESL writing theory, research, and practice. The following questions must be asked:

a) Is a given approach informed by an appropriate and adequate theory of L2 writing?

b) Is that L2 writing theory supported by credible (valid and reliable) empirical research?

Is the approach itself supported by valid and reliable research? That is, to what extend have programs based on the approach been shown to be efficient and effective in improving students' writing? (see Figure 5)

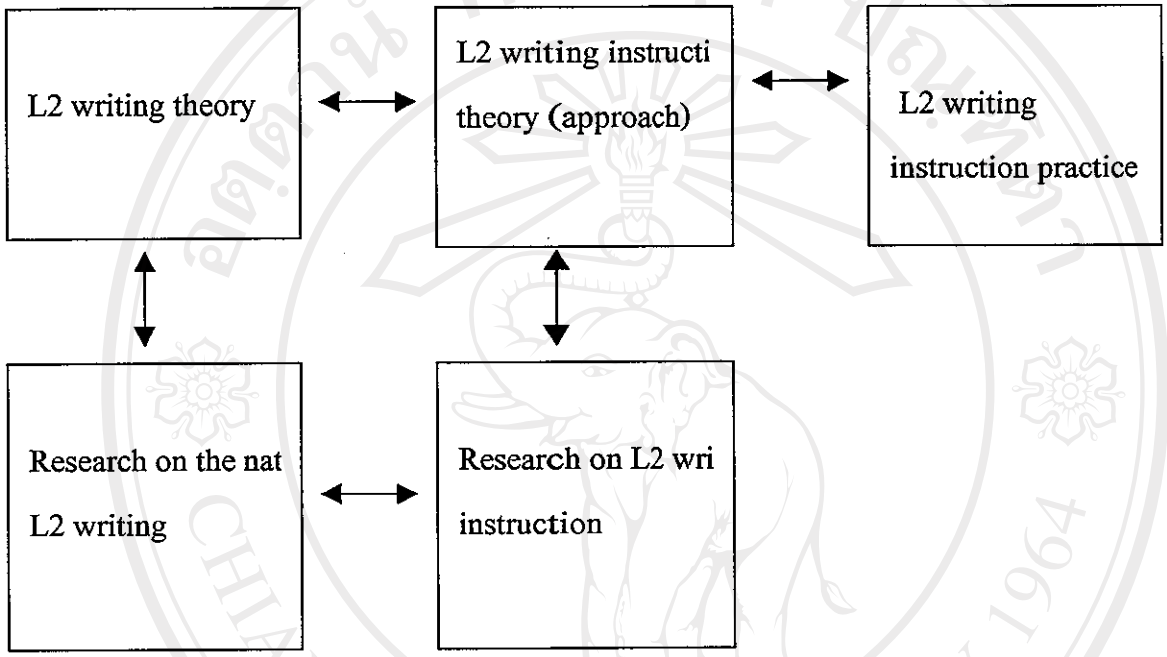

Figure 5 Relationship of Theory, Research and Practice in L2 Writing

1.5.2 Genre-Based Pedagogy to Writing Instruction

As mentioned earlier at the beginning of this chapter, genre in different areas of research has different features and concepts. Genre, however, is recognized as a universal terminology and it would be very helpful to integrate all asserts of genre to the teaching of writing. There are a numbers of work and studies conducted to investigate how genre has an impact not only on writing skills but other aspects of language-teaching pedagogy.

Henry and Roseberry (1998) have studied about the use of genre-based approach to the teaching of writing and the aim of the study was to determine to what extent genre-based approach instruction and materials improved the learners' ability to

produce effective writing of genre. The participants were first-year students in the Faculty of Management of the University of Brunei Darussalam. The groups were taught separately by the two teachers in the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, the genre group by one of the researchers and the nongenre group by a member of the department not involved in the research. At the early period of instruction, both groups were informed of the target audience for the texts they would be writing and were reminded that the communicative purpose of the genre was to attract tourists. The result of the study clearly indicated that a teaching approach focusing on the rhetoric organization can be successful in an EAP/ESP teaching situation with reasonably advanced learners. One possible explanation for the results is that an awareness of the generic structure of the text makes it easier for writers to organized their writing so the students' writing in the genre group improved significantly while the nongenre group did not.

Caudery (1998) claims in his study that transforming texts from one genre to another, using information and ideas in the source text to create new texts for different audiences and purposes, helps students to become aware of and take into account genre-related features such as writer-reader relationship, purpose of writing, and medium. Students learning to write in L2 need to be aware of text genres in the wider sense of communicative events or acts. With the use of texts transformation tasks, students become more aware of writing as a process of problem solving. In particular, they learn that there are many different ways of communicating the same message and the choice of language and texts organisation to communicate their message depends to a large extent on audience, communicative purpose and generic convention. Text transformation sharpens awareness of the need to consider more than surface- level accuracy.

Weber (2001) has investigated how genre-based pedagogy affected ESP essay writing context by focusing on the use of a concordance. The project aimed at

enhancing the ability to write formal legal texts for non-native, law undergraduates. There were three steps of his study: recognizing generic features of legal essays, using concordances to examine correlation between text structure and specific lexicons, writing short essays incorporating the ideas from the first and second steps. In each step the students were encouraged to peer response and group discussion with the explicit support from the teacher throughout the project. From the finding of this research, the researcher claims that the students could write more acceptable texts with proper linguistics forms and suitable legal point of view. He also insists that the concordance and genre-based approach has given the students sufficient knowledge both in composition writing and in legal reasoning.

Cresswell (2000) examines the use of genre-based approach and self-monitoring in student writing and whether or not the self-monitoring would develop the students' responsibility and increase autonomy in the learning of writing through the three-stage program: raising awareness of process and product, demonstrating annotations, and evaluating annotation. The aim of this study was to pin down the potential problems of self-monitoring technique: students may not have developed their ability to express their concerns and students may focus entirely on language rather than the content and organization of the text. The results showed that the students were able to express their concerns over the review of the global content and organization which made their writing successful.

2. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

2.1 A Historical Perspective

Audiolingual method, behaviorism, structuralism described by Stern (cited in Levy, 1997) were predominant in language teaching in the 1950s and 1960s since these principles were supportive when applied to language teaching and learning. Moreover, these three schools of thought had an influence on the diffuse introduction

and use of language laboratory. At that time there was programmed instruction by B.F.Skinner (cited in Levy, 1997) and he advocated the use of teaching machines for instruction which would be responsive to the preferred pace of the learner. There was also the use of instructional steps or frames and active responses from the learner which would be followed by immediate feedback. According to Kenning and Kenning (cited in Levy, 1997), programmed instruction influenced the grammatical sequencing that was very much in evidence in early CALL.

2.1.1 The PLATO project

Hart (cited in Levy, 1997) said that the first version of PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) was created by Don Bitzer, a professor of the electrical engineering at the University of Illinois in 1960. This first version was altered an improved, and three versions of PLATO were to follow. PLATO III was a fully functional educational computing system. Then the National Science Foundation provided significant funding for the development of PLATO IV and it was with this version of PLATO that the critical mass necessary for large-scale development was achieved. Smith and Sherwood (cited in Levy, 1997) noted that PLATO itself was designed specifically to provide interactive, self-paced instruction for large numbers of students and the system had a number of innovative features. It supported communication between users in the form of notes files and 'talk', a kind of restricted email system. Two kinds of notes files facilitated general announcements to all users and the exchange of messages between student and teacher. The 'talk' facility enabled written communication to take place between users who were simultaneously signed on to the system. Chapelle and Jamieson (cited in Levy, 1997) noted that PLATO also allowed for student records to be maintained for the student's information, the teacher's information, and for research purposes. According to Hart, lesson material for use on the PLATO system was written using the TUTOR authoring language which Hart describes as a high-level language which represents the toolbox approach.

2.1.2 The TICCIT project

TICCIT is an acronym for Time-Shared, Interactive, Computer Controlled Information Television and the project was initiated in 1971 at Brigham Young University. This system combined television technology with the compute. With its capacity to combined text, audio and video, TICCIT was perhaps the first example of multimedia CAI. So multimedia has been a reality for over twenty years, though admittedly not on computers that were widely available (Levy, 1997). TICCIT differs from PLATO system in that a specific instructional framework, which dictates actual form of the hardware, software, and courseware, is built into the system. The particular design framework, called Computer Display Theory (CDT) was created by Merril (cited in Levy, 1997). According to Merril CDT is comprised of three parts: a 2-dimensional performance-content classification system, taxonomy of presentation forms, and a set of prescriptions relating the classification to the presentation forms. CDT assumes that performance levels are associated with different presentational forms, and that when the presentational form is used, student achievement and efficiency are increased. Merril and Jones (cited in Levy, 1997) claim that a central principle of TICCIT system is learner control. Learner control goes beyond the simple selection of content, to include choice over the presentational form. To facilitate this choice, a specially designed keyboard containing fifteen learner can be used to select the instructional displays. Special keys including keys marked Rule, Example, Practice, Advice, Objective, Easy, Hard, enable the student to have control over both the content and the learning strategies used for study.

2.1.3 Storyboard

Levy (1997) stated that A typical authoring program of the 1980s is the *Storyboard* program written by John Higgins. *Storyboard* is a text construction program for the microcomputer where the aim is to reconstruct the text, word by word, using textual clues such as the title, introductory material, and textual clues within the

text. The program also falls into the authoring program or authoring package category, in that teachers (or students) can use the authoring facility within the program to write, or author, their own texts which are then incorporated program for future use. *Storyboard* has an interesting history that gives some indication of how a CALL software program evolves as the concept and the technology develop. Davies (cited in Levy, 1997) noted that the original total text reconstruction idea for a microcomputer probably produces form Tim Johns at the University of Birmingham, who wrote two programs called *Masker* and *Textbag* that variously exploited the general concept. Early versions of Storyboard were published by Wida Software, London in 1982. An agreement with a second publisher, who insisted on certain modifications to make the program more user-friendly, led the new version of the program called *CopyWrite* which was published in 1984. Storyboard itself underwent further modification, and the new versions of the program were created for different languages and for different microcomputers. In the mid to late 1980s text construction program proliferated, with many variations exploiting the same central idea in different ways. Over time the Storyboard idea has been refined and modified, both to exploit the capabilities of new hardware as it evolves, and to ensure that user needs are properly met. Legenhausen and Wolff (cited in Levy, 1997) assessed the Storyboard program more formally, particularly with regard to the learning strategies used by the students. They noted six strategy types: frequency strategies, form-oriented strategies, and strategies related to grammatical knowledge, semantic knowledge, textual knowledge, and world knowledge. They conclude that regardless of the particular learning strategy learners employ, the use of Storyboard is valuable for promoting language awareness.

2.1.4 The Athena Language Learning Project

While many language instructors were becoming directly involved in creating CALL software for the microcomputer, the tradition of the larger scale project for more sophisticated computer continued, notably through the Athena Project. In 1983,

the Massachusetts Institute of technology (MIT) established Project Athena as an eight-year research program to explore innovative uses of the computer in education. One focus of the project was to crate an experimental system for building multimedia learning environments. Morgenstern (cited in Levy, 1997) noted that within this framework is the Athena Language Learning Project (ALLP), whose aim is the creation of communication- based prototypes for beginning and intermediate courses in French, German, Spanish, Russian, and English as a Second Language. ALLP was conceived within the communicative approach to language learning. Lampe (cited in Levy, 1997) stated that Project Athena began in 1983 at MIT with initial funding of $50 million dollars from Digital Equipment Corporation and IBM with the aim of exploring innovative uses of the computer in education. As of 1998, MIT had 450 computer workstations, interconnected using a campus-wide network, on various sites around the institute. Among these workstations is a cluster of 32- bit "Visual Workstation" machine that are capable of combining full-motion digitized colour videodisc, cable television, digital audio, high resolution graphics and CD-ROM. Of many new research initiatives associated with this project, two are particularly noteworthy. The first is the development of the MUSE multimedia authoring environment. It uses the basic structure of hypertext and hypermedia systems to provide for extensive-cross referencing video, audio, and graphic materials. Murray *et al.* (cited in Levy, 1997) said that the second important initiative employed in the ALLP is MIT-based artificial intelligence techniques where the goal is to develop a natural language processing system that can intelligently guess meanings intended from minimal clues, and check its understanding with the user.

2.1.5 The International Email Tandem Network

Brammerts (cited in Levy, 1997) launched the International Tandem Network in 1993 and it is described as language learning by computer mediated communication using the Internet. In the Tandem Network, universities from the world are linked

together to enable students to learn languages in tandem via email on the same basis. The Tandem Network consists of a steadily increasing number of subnets, each of which includes a bilingual forum, where participants can engage in discussions and ask each other for advice in either language, and a database, where users can both access and add teaching and learning materials themselves. The Tandem Network functions via a discussion list on the Internet where a posting goes to all subscribers on the list. The label 'list' or 'listserv' is used because the groups are driven by a special program; they are also under control of a system administrator who manages the list. In Tandem Network, two or more coordinators look after each subnet. The coordinators help participants in various ways: they moderate the discussion in the forum, and they oversee the development of the database. Levy (1997) claimed that the use of email in this way raises a number of issues. It points toward language learning beyond the offering of the institution and highlights learner autonomy. Interactions may be determined by individual ideas how language is learned, through mutual negotiation and agreement, rather than more ideas formally received. In this instance, the email work accompanied a formal course of study, but there is no reason for this to be so. Such interactions entrain more formal learner-teacher relationships, where curriculum, methodology, and techniques are negotiated and determined by individual participants. Such modes of operation emphasize emancipatory qualities of technology in bringing more options to the learner to access language learning opportunities, perhaps entirely more tradition institution-based environments.

2.2 Influences on Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Chapelle (2001) stated that education, linguistics, and psychology had an influences on creating some subdisciplines directly relevant to computer applications in second language acquisition. Six computer-related subdisciplines have made significant contributions to computer applications in second language acquisition:

educational technology, computer- supported collaborative learning, artificial intelligence, computational linguistics, corpus linguistics, and computer-assisted assessment. These six principles have provided bases for computer application in second language acquisition.

2.2.1 Educational Technology

By the early 1970s, computer had been much active in the field of education since then there were a number of journals devoted to this topic. Researchers and practitioners in educational technology attempt to devise the best ways of using computer technology for instruction across subject areas and to design valid ways of evaluating its effectiveness. In the 1960s, both computer- assisted instruction and evaluation methods were strongly influenced by the 'systems approach' to instructional design (Dick and Carey, cited in Chapelle, 2001), which encompasses the philosophy and board range of practices for planning, developing, and implementing instruction. Alderman, Kulik, Kulik and Schwalb (cited in Chapelle, 2001) contend that perspectives from educational technology on how to evaluate learning activities have evolved over the years from the view that research should adopt an experimental and quasi-experimental design. The earliest CALL, evaluation efforts were launched through larger projects in educational technology and researchers in this area were obliged to provided evidence about the effectiveness.

2.2.2 Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning

The area called 'computer-supported collaborative learning' (CSCL) may be considered a branch of educational technology, but work in this area appears to be motivated by some distinct philosophies and practices. Researchers in this area refer to the emerging paradigm as 'a cultural constructivist approach' (Scott, Cole, and Engel cited in Chapelle, 2001). Constructivism encompasses a complex of philosophies and beliefs about the way learning and experience are internalized and transferred. The cultural dimension includes the essential roles the environment plays in learning. The

significance placed on the context of learning is reflected by their expression 'situated learning'. Abraham & Liou, Esling, Mohan, Piper, Renie & Chanier (cited in Chapelle, 2001) noted that some of the methodological approach of CSCL, which overlap with those of second language classroom researchers, have been applied in collaborative activities.

2.2.3 Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence (AI), which encompasses principles for the design of computer programs, combines perspectives from disciplines such as computer science, cognitive psychology, and linguistics (Charniak & McDermott, cited in Chapelle, 2001). The particular area of AI which has played a significant role in the development of some types of instrumenal software such as intelligence tutoring systems (ITS) research and development by Sleeman and Brown (cited in Chapelle, 2001) and these systems attempt to provide the problem-solving experience and motivation of 'discovery' learning with the effective guidance of tutorial interactions. In fact, a number of CALL developers work with AI approaches; however, in many cases AI refers only to the language recognition component of the system rather than the full set of tutorial strategies.

2.2.4 Computational Linguistics

Computational linguistics is sometimes viewed as one of the topics within AI but, in fact, this area does maintain a distinct academic community with an annual conference and the Journal Computational Linguistics, which appeared in 1974. It is useful to consider this area independently because of the specific relevance it holds for computer applications in second language acquisition (CASLA) in providing natural language processing technologies. The area of computational linguistics investigates machine recognition and production of human language, including theoretical implications of a processing perspective toward linguistics description and the formal characteristics of computational grammars (Gazer & Mellish, Winograd, cited in

Chapelle, 2001). Despite the progress in speech recognition, the best developed technologies within computational linguistics are those for recognizing written linguistic input to the computer and producing appropriate responses in an interactive mode within a defined topic domain. An example of such a 'conversation' comes from a classic early of computational linguistics project, where purpose was to identify precisely the information that the computer program (C) would have to include in order to carry on a conversation with a human (H) about coloured blocks on the table. The following is an example of a segment from such a 'conversation:'

H: What does the box contain?

C: THE BLUE PYRAMID AND THE BLUE BLOCK.

H: What is the pyramid supported by?

C: THE BOX.

H: How many boxes are not in the box?

C: FOUR OF THEM. (Winograd, cited in Chapelle, 2001)

The idea of such a human-computer dialog within a limited domain captured the imagination of CALL researchers, who began to work on instructional software which offered learners interactive environments for conversing with the computer. Computational linguistics has proven useful for analysis of learners' language in CALL, and yet an important difference exists between the work of the majority of computational linguists and developers of CASLA. Computational linguists work primarily on recognition problems involving the language of proficient language users whereas language recognition in CASLA requires computer programs which can identify learner language (Chapelle, 2001).

2.2.5 Corpus Linguistics

The historical distinction between computational linguistics and corpus linguistics is less clear to than it was in the past and yet each makes unique contributions to CASLA. Computational linguists' primary interest has been on the nature of the

grammars required to parse various constructions of human language whereas corpus linguistics tend to focus on the results that can be obtained through observation of large databases comprised of texts. The history of corpus linguistics is more typically recounted through the chronology of corpus development, beginning with the announcement of Randolph Quirk's Survey of English Usage Corpus in 1959 and the corpus shortly thereafter (Leech, cited in Chapelle, 2001).

2.2.6 Computer-Assisted Assessment

Computer-assisted assessment refers to testing practices requiring a computer to assist in construction, delivery, response analysis and score reporting. CASLA includes only a subset of computer-assisted assessment issues-those which involve computer-assisted test delivery has been tied closely to developments in item response theory (IRT), a psychometric theory and related practices which allow test developers to use item statistics. Computer-adaptive tests based on IRT models have been used successfully in operational testing programs for increasing the efficiency of multi-choice testing.

2.3 Criteria for CALL Evaluation

Chapelle (2001) has drawn some criteria from theory and research on second language acquisition to evaluate the details of CALL use and learning outcomes as follows:

2.3.1 Language Learning Potential

Language learning potential refers to the extent to which the activity can be considered to be a language learning activity rather than simply an opportunity for language use. The difference between language learning and language use might best be characterized by the extent to which the task promotes beneficial focus on form. Given the importance of focus on language for language acquisition, characteristics

among those Skehan identified as relevant for promoting focus on form – interactional modification, modification of output, time pressure, modality, support, surprise, control, and stakes – need to be considered in an argument for language learning potential. This list of conditions will no doubt change as additional research sheds light on these and other factors. Moreover, the complete meaning of language learning potential will develop as theory and research in SLA develop, but past research and theory-based predictions suggest that Skehan's list warrants serious consideration for the time being.

2.3.2 Learner Fit

Whereas language learning potential captures the findings concerning general processes, *learner fit* takes into account the individual differences in linguistics ability level and non-linguistic characteristics. Skehan suggests that the teacher choose task that will provide learners an opportunity to work with a range of target structures appropriate to their level. If a language of a CALL task is already known to the learner, the task presents no opportunity for development; language that is beyond the learner's grasp relative to their ability, is not useful either. Learner characteristics such as willingness to communicate, age, and learning style also come into play in task choice.

2.3.3 Meaning Focus

The importance of meaning focus in language learning tasks may go without saying, but in order tot underscore the dual goals of focus on form during completion of a meaning-focused task, meaning focus included as one of the criteria. Meaning focus denotes that the learner's primary attention is directed toward the meaning of the language that is required to accomplish the task, the clearest example of meaning communication tasks as defined by Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (cited in Chapelle, 2001). Their primary defining feature is that they require learners to use the target language to accomplish something such as making a decision on an issue, or

exchanging information to accomplish a goal. Such tasks differ from form-based tasks which might have learners fill in correct verb tenses in a written list of sentences, or changing declarative statements to yes/ no questions in an oral drill. Meaning focus is not limited to oral communication tasks, but also can occur during tasks involving reading and writing when learners use the written language purposefully for constructing and interacting meaning.

2.3.4 Authenticity

The criterion of authenticity indicates the need to develop learners' willingness to communicate but it also extends beyond the conditions believed important for acquisition. Authenticity refers to the degree of correspondence between an L2 learning task and tasks that the learner is likely to encounter outside the classroom. The choice of pedagogical tasks that learners see as relevant to their language use beyond the classroom should help to engage learners' interest and therefore their willingness to participate.

2.3.5 Positive Impact

The *positive impact* of a CALL refers to its effects beyond its language learning potential. Bachman & Palmer (cited in 2001) have pointed that the significance of this quality for an assessment tasks. Ideally classroom language tasks teach more than language; they should help learners develop their metacognitive strategies in a way that will allow them to develop their accountability for their learning in the classroom as well as to learn beyond the classroom. They should learners' interest in the target culture in a way that will help develop their willingness to seek out opportunity to communicate in the L2. They should help learner to gain pragmatic ability that will serve in communications beyond the classroom. An argument concerning the positive impact may be based on the impact on the learners and teachers who use a learning activity as well as on the educational as a whole.

2.3.5 Practicality

Practicality refers to how easy it is for the learners and teachers to implement a CALL task within the particular constraints of a class or language program. Relevant constraints include the availability of hardware and software that are adequate for the planned activities. In addition, knowledgeable personnel need to be on hand to assist with unforeseen problems. Early experience with CALL showed that learners had to have adequate access to well-maintained software and hardware for CALL. This observation is equally valid today because even though learners use computer regardless of infrastructure provided by language programs, they cannot be expected to use computers for language learning without guidance, and guidance requires resources. Issues of practicality are closely tied characteristics of institutional, social, and cultural practices in which some members have the power to make decisions about the amount and type of resources to be made available for CALL.

2.4 Genre-Based Courseware

The recent proliferation of computer application in language classroom is dramatically changing the classroom practices and it is inevitable that computers provide new paths for instructions. The writing class, especially, can make use of computer and Internet as tools to assist and improve writing skills in a number of respects. The implementation of genre-based approach and computer-assisted language learning is still much to explore its impact on EFL instructions.

Lê (N.D.) states in his study titled "A Genre-Based Approach to Computer Assisted Language Learning" that the feature of the multimedia package used provides learners with various alternatives and interactions during the learning process. There are four modules in the package: a) general aspects of scientific English (kiosk-based presentation), b) scientific genres (kiosk-based presentation), c) Practical lessons on scientific genres (tutorial pathways), d) Resources on scientific genres e.g. glossary,

publications (kiosk-based presentation). The combination of genre and computer features of this study would be beneficial for students in some ways. Unfortunately, the research didn't state clearly about its results and the study, however, might be in its preliminary stage.

Cunningham (2000) studied the effects of computer in writing class and the subjects were thirty-seven Japanese female undergraduates. This research aimed to assess students' attitudes toward the word processing experience in the EFL writing class and all students completed survey questionnaires eliciting their attitudes toward their experience in the computer-assisted classroom. The results specified that 88% of the students believed the computer helped improve their writing skills and 53% of the students agreed that it was not difficult to learn to use the computer. It also showed that the computer facilitated their writing performance and helped them concentrate on certain aspects of their writing (e.g., grammar, word choice and organization).

Potha (2002) studied about the use of computer-assisted language learning to promote reading comprehension, summary writing ability and learner autonomy. The subjects of the study were 22 high-school students. In her study, she used the computer application to facilitate the students' reading ability as well as assisting them to learn independently over the period of study. The findings revealed that students had higher scores in both writing and reading in the post-test after accessing to the lessons. The study also ensured that they had higher autonomy ability.

Schultz (2000) indicates in her profound study over the use of computer application called "InterChange" program with a number of students in French writing course. The study was conducted at the University of California at Berkeley and there were eight sections of French 3 and 4. In each course level there were two control and two experimental sections. For both French 3 and 4, the control groups engaged in the face-to-face response group format and the two experimental sections in French 3 used only the InterChange program for their response-group work. The two experimental

French 4 groups used both formats allowed for a comparative analysis of the work done by the same student using different formats. Statistical analysis was carried out using multivariate regression analysis on content, organization, style and grammar. The results indicated that the two experimental French 4 groups using both face-to-face response and computer format made more changes on content and style categories and neither response-group formats had a significant impact on organizational and grammatical improvement.

3 Learner Autonomy

Currently, the learner autonomy movement has argued that foreign language learners should determine their own learning plans, materials and strategies and this includes some of or all of the a language course be self-instructed, i.e. planned and implemented by learners (Jones, 1998). In Jones' study has presented some scope and definition of independent learning as follows.

3.1 A cline of Self-Instruction

In Jones' study presented a cline of self-instruction in foreign language learning as shown in figure 6.

This model suggests a single 'learner-independence cline. Self-instruction is defined as a deliberate long-term learning project instigated, planned, and carried out by the learner alone, without teacher intervention. It contains two paradigms;

a) teach-yourself, i.e. solo instruction led by the syllabus of a language-learning package;
b) full-autonomy, i.e. solo instruction according to the learner's own syllabus; there is 'no involvement of a teacher or institution, and the learner is also independent of specially prepared materials'.

It excludes:

self-access, learner-selected materials work as a backup to teacher-led classwork; what might be called 'teacher-led autonomy', i.e. the contracting out of elements of a taught language course to solo work, but with teacher prompting and/or evaluation.

It also excludes:

haphazard naturalistic immersion in the L2 environment, with no deliberate pedagogic plan or choice of learning activities.

The desire to focus on how learners deliberately go about learning a language without a teacher has given a fairly narrow definition of self-instruction. Like any definition, however, it has fuzzy boundaries. Thus certain findings may well be generalizable to self-access/teacher-led autonomy on the one hand and to naturalistic immersion on the other.

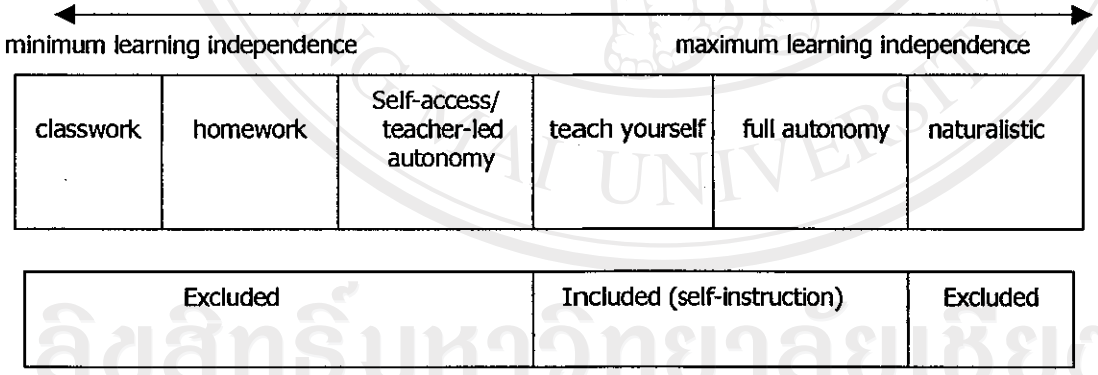

Figure 6 A Cline of Self-Instruction

3.2 Definition of Learner Autonomy

Autonomy in foreign language learning has, in the last decade and a half, gained a large and enthusiastic literature. Early definitions distinguish between

'autonomy' as the ability 'to take charge of one's own learning', and 'self-direction' as its practical implementation; later definitions see autonomy as both. The term 'independent learning' has evolved similarly, with recent usage seeing it as virtually synonymous with autonomous learning (Benson and Voller cited by Jones, 1998).

There are indeed strong arguments for autonomous/ independent learning

a) Autonomy may well strengthen intrinsic motivation and help learners to see learning as their own responsibility. Both factors appear linked to success (Dickinson cited in Jones, 1998).

b) Absence of teacher control can enable personalization of texts and tasks, i.e. basing them on the learner's own interests and experience (Campbell, and kryszewska, cited in Jones, 1998). This may also increase intrinsic motivation, and there is evidence that personalized practice activities increase retention of input (Slimani, cited in Jones, 1998).

c) Autonomous interpersonal communication activities are probably needed for learners to develop a full range of communicative skills (Broady and Kenning, cited in Jones, 1998)).

d) Teacher-directed learning can be seen as imposing inflexible external goals and structure on the learner; taking charge of one's own learning therefore, means self-empowerment (Holec; Kenny, Little; Benson and Voller, cited in Jones, 1998). However, a counter-argument might be that, when learners are exploring a field they do not yet know, robbing their learning of structure actually disempowers them.

Though much of this indirect evidence appears convincing, there is little direct evidence that autonomy, whether teacher-led or full, improves learning. The only empirical study into autonomy and achievement known to the writer showed no difference in achievement between classwork, plus (teacher-led) autonomy on the one hand and classwork without autonomy on the other, though the autonomous learners'

learning competence presumably a strategic ability-teach was higher. Nevertheless, there is evidence that many class learners who undergo autonomy training come to believe that autonomy is more useful than classwork alone-though they may show apprehension or resistance especially at first.

The lack of hard SLA evidence, however, has not prevented methodologists and teachers from assembling a useful body of practical autonomy-training techniques. These should not be sniffed at teacher intuition, especially if backed up by learner intuition, can be as valid a source of evidence as empirical research.

Schwienhorst (1997) also argues that the concept of learner autonomy has been around for a few years and even become a buzzword within the context of language learning. Unfortunately, however, it has been understanding as being no more than self- instruction. Wile it may be true that learners who are able to follow a path of self-instruction successfully may have acquired a high degree of learner autonomy, it is also true that self-instruction often fails to provide successful results.

Littlewood (1990) state that definitions of autonomy have of course varied but they have usually included the following features:

a) Students take responsibility for their own learning. This is both because all learning can in any case only be carried out by the students themselves and also because they need to develop the ability to continue learning after the end of their formal education.

b) 'Taking responsibility' involves learners in taking ownership (partial or total) of many processes which have traditionally belonged to the teacher, such as deciding on learning objectives, selecting learning methods and evaluating progress.

Formulated in this way, the concept of autonomy has associations with independence, self-fulfilment, freedom from external constraint and authoring one's own world without being subject to the will of others' (Young cited by Littlewood, 1999).

Ryan (cited in Littlewood, 1999) defines autonomy as a process of self-determination on self-regulation. In autonomy, one experiences the self to be an agent, the 'locus of causality' of one's behaviour. A sense of autonomy produces action which are 'authentic' in the sense that one identifies them to be one's own. Ryan sees the achievement of a sense of autonomy as one of the most fundamental needs and purposes of human beings. Another fundamental need is for what he calls 'relatedness', that is for 'contact, support and community with others'. If this contact with others is felt to be 'instrumental or controlling', it can lose our sense of autonomy. However, if the contact is felt to be supportive, it does not interfere with autonomy but facilitates it. Ryan states that learner autonomy is the product of interdependence rather than independence. He surveys a number of studies of his own and others which suggest that autonomy and relatedness do not stand in opposition to each other but that, on the contrary, autonomy develop most effectively in an interpersonal environment which support it. He concludes that the factors which constitute the ideal ' facilitating environment' for autonomy include:

a) concrete support through the provision of help and resources;
b) personal concern and involvement from significant others;
c) opportunities for making choices;
d) freedom from a sense of being controlled by external agents.

Little (2000) states that learner autonomy depends on teacher autonomy in two senses: (i) it is unreasonable to expect teachers to foster the growth of autonomy in their learners if they themselves do not know what it is to be an autonomous learner; (ii) in determining the initiatives they take in their classrooms, teachers must be able to apply to their teaching those same reflective and self-managing processes that they apply to their learning. Learner autonomy has been thought important for two reasons: (i) if learners are themselves reflectively engaged in planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning, it should follow that their learning will be more successful

than otherwise because it is more sharply focussed; and (ii) the same reflective engagement should help to make what they learn a fully integrated part of what they are, so that they can use the knowledge and skills acquired in the classroom in the world beyond. In the foreign language classroom, this means that the target language must be used as the channel through which teaching and learning take place - including the reflective processes of planning, monitoring and evaluation.

3.3 Genre-Based Writing and Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy is known to be one of the focal factors in learning another language in pursuing academic accomplishments and acquiring writing ability. Learner autonomy, in fact, holds true at the certain extent that students might gain through the genre-based pedagogy by ways of developing their self-monitoring technique and explicit responsibility for learning process.

Cresswell (2000) examines the use of genre-based approach and self-monitoring in student writing and whether or not the self-monitoring would develop the students' responsibility and increase autonomy in the learning of writing through the three-stage program: raising awareness of process and product, demonstrating annotations, and evaluating annotation. The aim of this study was to pin down the potential problems of self-monitoring technique: students may not have developed their ability to express their concerns and students may focus entirely on language rather than the content and organization of the text. The results showed that the students were able to express their concerns over the review of the global content and organization which made their writing successful.

McClure (2001) has investigated the course designed to provide the pedagogical environment for international postgraduates to develop language skills and learner autonomy. There were 200 international postgraduates enrolling in the

course "Managing and Communicating Your Research" at Nanyang Technological University and the objectives of the course were for students to develop: a) an awareness of themselves as learners, b) a systemic approach to managing their reading, writing, and research, c) an increased awareness of the way in which successful writers structure their writing, and the register of language appropriate to research writing, d) an increased confidence in orally presenting and communicating their research. Activities were designed to promote collaborative process such as group work, research work, reading, writing, working with a supervisor and oral presentations. This research also used genre-based pedagogy in the field of ESP as a tool to assist autonomy in writing. The findings indicated that the students felt that the materials were very effective, relevant, and interesting and the presentation of the subject was very well organized.

Xiang (2004) indicated in his study that the self-monitoring technique had an impact on the student writing. The subjects of the study were two classes of English majors attending the writing course and one class served as a control group and the other was experimental one. The findings verified that the students in this sample could be trained to use self-monitoring in their writing, and they had positive attitudes towards it, for they believed that it could help them revise their drafts, and improve their writing proficiency. Self monitoring is effective in improving the organization of the students' compositions. It was very helpful for students in high level and had little impact on students in low level.