CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is divided into five main parts. The first part (Section 1) reviews the general theories of discourse analysis. The second part (Section 2-6) deals with Aristotle's rhetoric, including its history, types, definitions, role in the trading world, the theory of rhetorical analysis, and it's dominance in CEO letters. The third part, (Section 7) deals with English Grammar including English tense. In this part, tense problems in Thai learners are reviewed. Realizing the serious tense problems, this researcher looks at the cause of the difficulty (language interference). Furthermore, the relationship between tense choice and rhetorical function is reviewed. In the fourth part (Section 8), the relationship between English for Special Purposes (ESP) and rhetoric are presented. Finally, the fifth part (Section 9) deals related studies are reviewed.

1. Discourse Analysis

According to Schiffrin, Tannen & Hamilton (2003), the communicative approach which has gradually taken over most language teaching since the early 1970s has led to awareness of the need to focus on communicative teaching, aiming to enable the learners to communicate through a communicative approach. However, because of the fact that discourse analysis represents intended meaning reflected by context and is consequently related to sequential relationships in production, discourse analysis cannot be neglected as it normally provides the framework for language teaching and learning (Brown & Yule, 2003).

The term *Discourse Analysis* covers a wide range of meanings which cover a wide range of activities; the term has been used by people from many disciplines, including Linguistics (Brown & Yule, 2003; Johnstone, 2002). Because of the wide range of discourse analysis, it can be said that if someone wants to understand human beings, the person must understand discourse analysis since discourse analysis can help in answering many questions that could be asked about humans in society (Johnstone, 2002).

Johnstone states that to understand the meaning of *Discourse Analysis*, both terms *discourse* and *analysis* must be first separately understood. In Linguistics, *discourse* usually means instances of communication in the medium of not only spoken and written but also manual language. However, other medium such as clothing, gestures and dance are also included. Turning to the term *analysis*, Johnstone suggests that to analyze something means looking at it in many ways: asking a number of questions, taking several theoretical perspectives, performing a variety of tests. In addition, Johnstone says, to analyze is to break down discourse into parts. For example, in linguistics, the discourse which will be analyzed can be broken down into functions. To conclude, in terms of Linguistics, Johnstone states that analyzing discourse is examining aspects of the structure and function of language in use. Discourse analysis in Linguistics can be said to be the analysis of discourse, in other words, the analysis of language in use (Brown and Yule, 2003).

It cannot be denied that the description of linguistic forms depends on the purpose or function which those forms are designed to serve (Brown & Yule, 2003). Discourse is shaped by the possibilities and limitations of language. On the other hand, discourse shapes language; everything people say arises out of the existing situation. In addition, everything people say is also a result of choices, conscious or unconscious, about how to shape the context that shapes our talk (Johnstone, 2002).

While some linguists analyze language focusing on formal properties of a language, discourse analysts consider how people use language to exchange information, to express feeling, to create beauty and etc. In other words, the discourse analysts attempt to investigate what that language is used for (Brown and Yule, 2003).

Gee (1999) and Brown & Yule (2003) discuss the primary purpose of human language. They disagree with the notion that the only primary purpose of language is to communicate information. They believe that there is more than one function in language use.

Brown and Yule (2003) suggest the two major functions of language: *transactional* and *interactional*. The first represents the expression of context, information, factual or propositional information, and the other expresses social relations and personal attitudes and the use of language to maintain social relationships. In addition, Gee (1999) believes that language, in fact, serves two

primary functions: to scaffold the performance of social activities and to scaffold human affiliation within cultures, and social groups and institutions.

Moreover, Georgakopoulou & Goutsos (2004) mention the two modes of discourse: *narrative mode* and *non-narrative mode*. The first is generally associated with events that happened in the past or in previous experiences; therefore, the general narrative tenses are past tenses and simple tenses referring to the past. In addition, narratives cover cases such as current reports, future narrations, procedural narratives, plot summaries, etc. In contrast, Non-narrative texts are built around subject matter that does not usually have a temporal dimension such as beliefs, opinions, and speech acts like offers, and promises.

Smith (2003) suggests a list of five major modes of discourse: *Narrative, Descriptive, Report, Information,* and *Argument*. He believes that it covers the major modes that appear in texts, and he surprisingly found that discourse modes have counterparts in rhetorical tradition; persuasive discourse is not listed separately. To clarify, all genres and modes of discourse may have a persuasive component (Smith, 2003). Besides leading to the understanding of why people tell stories, why they have conversations, discourse analysts tell what persuasion is and how it works (Johnstone, 2002). Therefore, it is not wrong to say that rhetorical study has always involved discourse analysis.

To sum up, despite the boom of communicative approach in language teaching and learning, discourse analysis with its wide range of activities is necessary for language teaching and learning because it can provide answers for the questions of how and which linguistic items should be taught and learned. With the notion that there is more than one function in language use besides communicating information, discourse analysts investigated what the language is used for and found that all language use cannot be totally separated from persuasion. Therefore, this researcher realizes the importance of the study on language use in relation to persuasive functions or rhetoric.

2. History of Rhetoric

Rhetoric is generally defined as the art or the study of persuasion (Herrick, 2001; Worthington, 2003). Rhetoric also means the act of persuasion and the analysis

of acts of persuasion (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000). The study of rhetoric rose to prominence in Ancient Greece. Actually, it's difficult to identify exactly when it began; it's believed that its origin and development were dependent on human evolution. Along with the verbal communication for persuasion called *oratory*, rhetoric was taught with the persuasive intention. Because of its great role in democratic reforms, the systematic approach was rapidly widespread (Herrick, 2001).

The approach was adopted and disseminated to Athens by *Sophists*, who were the professional persuasive speakers and teachers of rhetoric. It enormously influenced politics, dramatic changes of several Greek city-states, Greek education and the prosperity of the people. Consequently, the notion that human destiny can be shaped by human rationality and persuasion were gradually accepted. Despite the small number of sophists in Greece and Athens, their work dramatically affected changes in people's life and thought (Worthington, 2003; Herrick, 2001).

According to Herrick (2001), there were several very influential people in the rhetorical area in Ancient Greece. First, Gorgias was a successful diplomat, speaker, teacher, and philosopher. He was known as one of the most innovative theorists in Greek rhetoric, and his persuasion was considered almost magical power. He mentioned that nothing exists, but reality lies only in the deepest human thought or belief; therefore, by arousing emotions such as fear, pity and longing, the skilled rhetorician can capture an audience and shape their ideas and actions. By manipulating the sound of words with skill, the proficient rhetorician can powerfully prove any proposition.

Whereas Gorgia was known as a powerful rhetorical practitioner, there was a Sophist named Protagoras who developed the rhetorical philosophy. He advised that humans, themselves, determine what is true and that every argument could be met with a counterargument; issues depended on the clash of pro and con cases. He taught a practical approach to reasoning on political questions by a method known as *antiligike* which requires students to develop arguments for and against various issues based on the notion that an argument could be proved only when it has withstood the attacks of the opposing side (Herrick, 2001).

Fifty years after Gorgias and Protagoras, another influential Sophist, Isocrates was born. He classified himself as a Sophist even though he had harsh criticism of

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other Sophists and produced the essay *Against the Sophists*. He founded the first rhetoric school in Athens, where other rhetoric schools later were founded. His teaching did not focus on creating clever and entertaining speakers, but rather on improving the political practices of Athens. He suggested that rhetoric was the power to persuade each other and that made civilization possible. Isocrates grounded the highly intentional, nationalistic, and morally oriented rhetorical training. Beside natural talent, extensive practice, and education in basic principles of rhetoric, he also advocated high moral standards in his students and insisted on the high moral character of his students. Through the more rigid structured teaching of rhetoric, and supporting active political involvement, he finally became the most famous and successful teacher and was most respected by students who wanted to be successful in politics. Isocrates was the model of later philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle (Herrick, 2001).

Aristotle and Plato were concerned about good and bad rhetoric. They attempted to distinguish the good rhetoric from bad rhetoric. Moreover, they created categories of persuasive discourse and rules for creating good rhetoric. Plato said that rhetoric was somehow different from the truth according to the ideas of Gorgias. He also added that rhetoric was unable to be taught because good rhetoric was related to individual goodness. If the person was not decent, he or she could never be taught rhetoric, and their analysis would never come to anything, (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000).

Plato had a student who was called by him 'the heart of the school'. Aristotle was born in Greece, 348 BC. He emphasized education. For him, education is critical to prosperity. He believed that teachers, who educated children, deserved more honor than their parents, because parents gave them life but teachers helped them have a better life. To illustrate, education helps protect people from difficult and unlucky situations, and it leads to prosperity in old age (Herrick, 2001). Realizing the importance of education, Aristotle was interested in almost all subjects, including the art of persuasion - *rhetoric*.

According to Aristotle, rhetoric can be called the art of arousing emotion which may not be related to the facts. Aristotle refuted the assumption that argument is aimed to win arguments and not to find the truth, but that it was the art of finding arguments that persuade people to agree that something is true or usually true. He

suggested three ways to use persuasion: Ethos, Logos, Pathos (Herrick, 2001; Horton, 2004).

3. Aristotle's Three Modes of Rhetoric

Aristotle described first that people with positive characteristics tend to be successful in persuasion. Secondly, giving pleasure to audiences naturally affects their judgments. Third, speech may prove the truth by reasoning. To conclude, he suggested that logical reasoning (logos), understanding human character and goodness (ethos), and understanding emotions (pathos) are essential abilities for effective persuasion (Herrick, 2001; Horton, 2004).

3.1 Ethos

According to Aristotle, *ethos* – the ethical appeal or appeal from credibility – means persuasion by the character of the speaker or the writer. To answer the question why it is important in persuasion, Aristotle stated that people tend to believe a person with whom they are impressed or respect. For instance, we are naturally more likely to be persuaded by a person with personal warmth and a good mind. In addition, he or she must have a high level of knowledge on the subject of their speech or the paper they have produced.

To Aristotle, credibility is classified into two ways: *extrinsic ethos* and *intrinsic ethos*. *Extrinsic ethos* can be observed through tone and style of the message. It can also be affected by the character of speakers and writers, which we often know ahead of time based on their expertise, what they have done before, and their honesty and strong moral principle. It can be said that people with good education, experience, and previous performance tend to succeed in persuasion. On the other hand, whether or not we know the speaker or writer, the speech we hear or the text we read can reflect the author's character. If it causes an impression, this impression is called *intrinsic ethos*. In addition, Aristotle warned that even though both extrinsic and intrinsic ethos gain credibility for argumentation, the audience occasionally becomes disappointed with them. Above all, Aristotle supports the appearance of good sense and virtue in persuasion.

3.2 Pathos

Whereas ethos is aimed at the author's side, pathos involves the reader's sense of identity, self-interest and emotion. Pathos is another way to move the audience to decision or action by arousing the reader's emotions. With aspiration to persuasion, the author appeals for the audience's sympathies and imagination producing powerful language, emotional language and numerous sensory case and story telling. It can be said that language choice affects the audience's emotional response. Considering human nature and psychology, Aristotle discusses how to arouse various emotions in the audience and shows how to create feelings in various types of people; for example, young, and prime of life, old age, those of good fortune and those of bad fortune. Instead of insulting, the indirect praise sometimes affects persuasion. However, directly telling the audience to feel an emotion is hardly effective. Instead, creating an emotion with case or story telling seems more effective. He explained that there is an imaginative impact of the message on an audience. To illustrate, we usually feel anger at someone who, we believe, has received benefits without deserving them. The arguer who wants to make people angry with someone like this will make a case that the person was rewarded unfairly. If, a writer wants a reader to evaluate something negatively, he may arouse the reader's anger through the text. To persuade people to make a donation, an arguer may arouse their pity. Undoubtedly, pathos is considered the strongest mode of persuasion. Emotional appeal can effectively be used to enhance an argument. Above all, Aristotle warns us that knowing how to shape the audience's ideas and actions is different from playing on readers' emotions to make them mindless of concepts and corrupt the judgment of both individuals and the community in terms of virtue.

3.3 Logo

The other way of persuasion suggested by Aristotle is logos, which is considered the heart of argumentation. It is generally defined as persuading by the use of reasoning. In other words, it refers to the logic used to support a claim. It can also be the facts and statistics or other supporting evidence. In logos, agreements are constructed by either facts or values. However, he noted that the facts may not be facts and the values may not be accepted. With the aspiration to effective, persuasive reasons to back up their arguments, people usually use two ways of reasoning:

inductive and *deductive*. Inductive reasoning starts from providing many similar examples to the reader and then a general proposition is drawn from them. On the other hand, in deductive reasoning, the author first states a few general propositions, and then a specific truth is drawn from them.

Following the three appeals in producing speeches or writing, the author can produce effective and persuasive arguments. On the other hand, the readers who acknowledge themselves to argumentative development tend to be able to understand not only information but also the author's attitude in terms of persuasion along with the ability to distinguish facts and virtues out of what the author constructs. Because of immortality of the three persuasive modes, Worthington (2003) suggests that their continuity could be traced into our modern world.

4. Rhetoric in the Trading World

As mentioned, to survive in the trading world, the success of business competition depends on many factors, including the ability of persuasion. However, Horton (2004) notes that business people still have difficulty with persuasion even though the basic principles of persuasion have been around for 2,500 years. Rhetoric was taught through the 19th century. In the 20th century it was dismissed, although the 20th century had greater need for persuasive communication than at any other time in Western Civilization. However, in the 21st century, with expansion of the Internet, rhetorical principles again were considered essential to success in business. Despite its long history, its principles and considerations are not different from the present rhetorical principles in terms of communication. The reason for this similarity is that humans haven't changed much; their psychology endures from generation to generation. In addition, he suggests that living in an information age in which persuasive communications are more important than ever, business people are required to be skilled in persuasive communications for success in their business (Horton, 2004).

5. Rhetorical Analysis

Rhetorical analysis has been popular in humanities disciplines and theology through the present time. It had approximately 2,500 years to develop methodological

improvement and diversity. Traditionally, rhetorical analysis started from oral discourse critique such as those in the law court, parliament and the political arena, e.g. acceptance speeches because of their overt persuasive discourse. When they were presented in the form of report writing, those written documents were chosen as documentary sources such as scientific articles and newspaper features, as well as oral sources, for rhetorical analysis (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000).

There are some issues that the rhetorician must be concerned with when constructing rhetorical analysis. First, Bauer and Gaskell (2000) note that it's better to analyze natural discourses to avoid the fallacy that intentions of authors can be divined by their texts or oral performance. To illustrate, it is not acceptable to analyze a set of text produced from an interview that you performed because it is very difficult to sort out the intentions of the interviewer and interviewee. Second, it cannot be denied that rhetorical discourses can be analyzed by rhetoricians, and rhetoricians are also responsible for producing rhetorical discourse. Consequently, it is a question of whether the analysis of persuasion will not become persuasive itself (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000).

When we refer to rhetoric, we often talk about it as the art of persuasion, apart from many different strategies such as exemplification, description, narration, comparison and contrast, division and classification. Generally, when rhetoric is discussed, the purpose of the authors, the audience and the three persuasive modes (Ethos, Pathos and Logos) are mentioned. In a rhetorical analysis, Ethos, Pathos and Logos are essential basic elements for exploring context because they are forms from which persuasive arguments can be developed (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000).

From classical time through the medieval period, rhetoric was a core discipline taught along with grammar, aiming to explain how authors attempt to persuade their audiences and to give more details when interpreting the figures of speech, grammatical patterns and texts. Looking at rhetorical strategies such as repetition of certain words, counterpoints, imagery, and metaphor and symbolism which were created by rhetoricians in ancient Greece, the analysts try to answer the question of why those strategies are used.

As mentioned, the goal of rhetorical analysis is to articulate how the writer writes by considering the strategies which the writer uses to achieve his or her goal or

purpose of writing. When they have different goals, they use different writing strategies. For example, rhetorical analysis refers to analyzing a text by breaking down a text into parts. When conducting rhetorical analysis, an analyst looks at the various components by first breaking down the discourse into rhetorical parts and then interpreting how those components are equipped together.

6. Rhetoric in CEO Letters

As mentioned above, traditionally rhetorical analysis critiqued discourses which have overt persuasion; for example, those in the law court, parliament and the political arena, acceptance speeches and diatribes, a scientific article and a newspaper feature.

In the modern world, realizing the great role of commerce, this researcher has turned to the recent studies in the area of rhetorical analysis in business context. Many studies reveal that there is an overt persuasive discourse in CEO letters (Zhu, 2000; Hyland, 1998; Chakorn, 2008). In these studies, CEO letters in annual reports published in periods of economic crisis were explored to examine how persuasion was used by the chief executive officers in such troubled times.

Chakorn (2008) studied the author's language in CEO letters taken from Thai annual reports following the concept of persuasive rhetoric by Aristotle to understand what's in the mind of CEOs in terms of persuasion. For instance, she investigated three rhetorical appeals in 54 executive letters from chairmen in Thailand published during the economic crisis of 1997 and examined how the positive meaning was made to maintain stockholders' and investors' confidence. The results of Chakorn's study leads to more understanding about persuasion through the immortal modes of persuasion - Logos, Ethos and Pathos.

Following the same Aristotelian concept of persuasion, (Campbell, 1998; Zhu, 2001 cited in Chakorn, 2008) comparatively examined the three persuasive modes in business letters written in English by native English speakers and Chinese speakers. They both found that the Chinese letters have a combination of the three appeals whereas the letters written by the English speakers strongly favor Logos.

To maintain confidence of the readers in the company, paying attention only to business literature is not enough because of the fact that the reaction of the reader

also depends on emotional interaction (Jameson, 2000 cited in Chakorn, 2008). Brown (1999) suggests that to make decisions on investments, the reader should not only consider the content in the annual report but also pay attention to the attitudes of the senior leaders.

As mentioned, CEO letters convey not only the general information of the company but also the attitudes, values, and behaviors of senior leaders; therefore, it is widely read by investors to help them make decisions on investment (Hyland, 1998). Despite the importance of the CEO letter and widespread concern over its role in creating a positive corporate image, there has been surprisingly little research into its persuasion (Hyland, 1998).

Studying the previous research, this researcher came to realize the important role of the CEO letter in persuasion for business purposes and believes that study of CEO letters is required, especially in terms of the rhetorical functions defined by Aristotle which were noted as the center of the letters.

7. English Grammar

Many educators have defined 'grammar' in different ways (DeCarrio & Larsen-Freeman, 2002). Grammar has been considered as a collection of rules about the structure of language (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). According to Calderonello et. al (2003), grammar is the principles in which a language works. They state that it refers to a language structure or system in which word form change and word combination are described. In addition, Sinclair (1993) defines the meaning of grammar as the rules which describe how sentences are formed. In other words, grammar is a set of rules which describes the knowledge which a speaker has of their language.

Grammar is mentioned in two main aspects; prescriptive grammar and descriptive grammar. According to DeCarrio, Jeanette and Freeman (2000), prescriptive grammar tells us what standard or non-standard language is. The distinctions between correct forms (Standard English) and incorrect forms (Non-Standard English) are clearly made under sets of rules. In other words, it makes value judgments. In contrast, descriptive grammar tries to describe how native speakers speak. It does not focus on how the language should be used and there is no value judgment. Instead, the terms grammatical and ungrammatical are used.

7.1 Grammar Teaching and Learning

When you learn a language, you learn the sounds used in that language (Phonology), the basic units of meaning, such as words (Morphology), and the rules to combine these to form new sentences (Syntax). In language learning, to understand the nature of language, we must understand the nature of this internalized, unconscious set of rules which is part of the grammar of every language. We have used the word grammar in two ways: the first in reference to the grammar speakers have in their brains; the second as the model or description of internalized grammar (Rodman & Fromkin, 1978).

Grammar has been taught in many ways. Deductive and inductive approaches are mentioned in terms of their characteristics and their advantages and disadvantages (Tongpoon, 2001). In the deductive approach, which is considered more traditional and suitable for the higher-level learners who have already known the basic knowledge of the grammar rules, the rules are first presented to the learners and then the learners do exercises in many ways and practice the outlined structures. On the contrary, in the inductive approach, meaningful context is provided to the learners. To clarify, the structure or rules are presented to the learners in real context. Then the teacher draws the learners' attention to the structure to help them learn and finally realize the rules. In this approach, many examples are provided so that the learners can draw the conclusion of the rule. Later, the learners practice the structure in groups or pairs. Turning to the role of the teacher, instead of being responsible for all the presentation and explanation as in the deductive approach, he or she provides meaningful contexts and encourages demonstration of the rules. This approach is more modern and promotes student participation.

In Thailand, the communicative approach has been considered very important to English language teaching for the reason that studying language also requires learning to be able to communicate (Hymes, 1997; cited in Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004). The communicative approach has been applied to English language teaching at the urging of the government (Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004).

In some communicative teaching approaches, the necessity of grammar teaching is sometimes questioned because of fears that it may make the students bored with the lessons (Krashen, 1985 cited in Ellis, 1997). Language grammar can be

acquired automatically and naturally through meaning-focused tasks in the classroom, not by explicitly teaching (Krashen 1982; Prabu, 1987).

However, Ellis Rod has argued that L2 acquisition has a delayed effect rather than instantly when grammar is taught explicitly. In addition, according to the results from questionnaires responded to by thirty-five teachers and 655 students, Thai teachers (46%) insist that English fluency is more important than accuracy and 42% of them think that role plays, games, group and pair work should be brought into teaching in classes. However, Thai students (74%) do not think the same. The students prefer accurate English rather than fluent but ungrammatical English (Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004). Moreover, to support grammar teaching, Swan (2002) has mentioned two aspects, comprehensibility and acceptability, which Swan considers essential in terms of language acquisition. To emphasize the necessity of grammar teaching and learning, Colderronello, Martin and Blair (2003) states that many teachers believe that the underlying objective of English grammar teaching in elementary and high school is to provide the students knowledge of language so that they can communicate easily and effectively in terms of both oral and written communication. Without the ability to create effective, comprehensible communication and to use acceptable language, it is impossible to be successful in the modern world. Learners' needs must be paid attention to, and since teaching grammar explicitly leads to longer-term knowledge, grammar teaching cannot be neglected but should be more emphasized.

Considering the significance of grammar to language acquisition in terms of comprehensibility and acceptability, the learners' needs and the great advantage of explicit grammar teaching to language acquisition, it is not wrong to state that grammar teaching and learning in Thai context is considerable and not less important than other skills. In other words, grammar is the skeleton of a language as it is the basis of the four skills and deserves much attention because it determines the nature of the language (Fromkin & Rodman, 1978).

7.2 Importance of Grammar Teaching to Writing

Considering the importance of grammar to language learning, formal grammar instruction has been thought to be essential to writing instruction. Because a writer transfers his or her ideas and feeling through the words, grammatical

correctness is required (Earle & Zimmermann, 2003). If the writing is incorrect, the readers will misinterpret the meaning. Hudson (2001) also notes that teaching grammar benefits writing skills. In other words, without grammar competence, the writers cannot effectively express their opinions through their writing. However, the relationship of grammatical proficiency to writing improvement is not explicit and there is not much evidence supporting the assumption (Calderonello, Martin & Blair, 2003).

7.3 Rhetorical Grammar Teaching

While grammar instruction can be considered unfashionable, Kolln (2003) presents grammar as a rhetorical tool, and Micciche (2011) states that in teaching grammar, critical thinking skills are also taught. Besides, he explains, rhetorical grammar helps students to learn the rules of grammatical concepts through analysis and imitation. They learn how a given grammatical concept creates and/or alters meanings. In addition, according to Lefstein (2011), while rule-based grammar teaching tends to focus on rules to be obeyed, one's correctness, and decontexualised grammar exercises, rhetorical grammar teaching focuses more on meaningful communication.

In rhetorical grammar teaching, making *judgments* on language use should be avoided. To clarify, the instructor should not say which grammar must be or must not be used. Instead, the instructor should encourage the learners to recognize the structure and stylistic choices available and practice using them properly and appropriately. By recognizing the structure and choices, the students are encouraged to understand how the use of those choices affects the readers' thinking and action. The systematic description of grammar that they know subconsciously is reviewed with the students, and the students are encouraged to use this reviewed knowledge to understand their choices as writers.

7.4 English Tenses

In English, when making a statement, a speaker needs to indicate the point in time, i.e. whether the statement exists now, in the past or is expected to happen in the future. The point in time is usually indicated by a particular verb form. To distinguish the three points in time, present, past and future, from each other, inflections to the base form of verb, auxiliaries or modals are included in the set of

verb forms. When the inflections, auxiliaries or modals do not sufficiently indicate the point in time, adjunct of time is used to clarify or to emphasize. When discussing tenses, aspect is also discussed. Whereas tense relates to time, aspect relates to the internal structure of the action occurring at any time.

According to Freeman and Murcia (1999), in English, there are twelve tenses which are the combination of the three tenses and the four aspects. The three tenses are present, past and future. The four aspects are simple, perfect, progressive, and perfect progressive as presented in the following table.

Table 1 The English tense-aspect system

	Aspects			
	Simple	**Perfect**	**Progressive**	**Perfect Progressive**
Present	*Write/writes*	*Has/have written*	*Is/am/are writing*	*Has/Have been writing*
Past	*Wrote*	*Had written*	*Was/were writing*	*Had been writing*
Future	*Will write*	*Will have written*	*Will be writing*	*Will have been writing*

(Murcia & Freeman, 1999:110)

1. Present Simple
2. Present Perfect
3. Present Progressive
4. Present Prefect Progressive
5. Past Simple
6. Past Perfect
7. Past Progressive
8. Past Perfect Progressive
9. Future Simple
10. Future Perfect
11. Future Progressive
12. Future Perfect Progressive

The core meanings and the basic uses of the tenses are presented in Appendix B, Table 2: basic meanings and uses of the tenses categories adapted from Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999: 110-122 cited in Taylor, 2001.

7.5 Tense Problems in Thai Learners

There are some error analyses of compositions produced by Thai learners. They show a great number of error of tenses (Chownahe, 2000; Boonyavanich, 2002; Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007).

In 2000, Chownahe analyzed both interlingual errors, and intralingual and developmental errors to compare the students' errors from the first and the second composition. The greatest number of errors is caused by incomplete application of rules. The second ranked cause is ignorance of rule restrictions. In the detail of the second ranked cause, an error of incorrect tense is the greatest number. The tenses which are used incorrectly are;

resent simple instead of past simple

- Past simple instead of present simple
- Present simple instead of present perfect
- Present continuous instead of present simple
- Future tense in present situation

Later, in 2002 Boonyavanich analyzed structural problems in Thai-English translation, and found that the third-year students at Burapha University made some structural errors in the translation. Again, the greatest number of errors was incorrect tense. In other words, concerning the translation of tenses, the subjects made the greatest percentage of errors on the misuse of tenses. Those errors are;

- Using other tenses instead of present perfect (25.58%)
- Using other tenses instead of past continuous (17.45%)
- Using other tenses instead of simple past (17.44%)
- Using other tenses instead of future perfect continuous (13.37%)
- Using other tenses instead of future perfect (11.63%)
- Using other tenses instead of past perfect (11.63%)

As we can see, the misuse of present perfect tense is the biggest group of errors. The second is past continuous and the third is simple past tense. In addition, the result shows that perfect aspect is the biggest problems to the students.

Moreover, Sattayatham & Honsa (2007) studied error analysis of first-year medical students from the medical schools at Mahidol University. The students were asked to translate sentences from Thai into English. The students' translations

were analyzed to find the most frequent errors by using the distribution of frequency. The top-ten errors were identified. Articles, tenses and verb forms appeared to be the source of the most frequent errors.

In addition, according to the independent study by Ayurawatana, (2002), tense is in the top five errors in an error analysis of fourth year English majors' research proposals. Tense is the fifth percentage of errors (3.64%) that the students made. They made errors in tenses when writing, as evidenced by the frequency of errors found per t-unit in all compositions.

Additionally, Baker (2002) mentions that the English past simple tense and present perfect tense are two areas of English grammar that many Thai learners seem to have repeated difficulties using, even though these concepts are often introduced to Thai learners at an early stage of English teaching. Baker also found that the learners have difficulties distinguishing between the two even at an advanced level.

Observing errors in 8 business plans (group work) written by the third-year business English students at Khon Kaen University for their group work in the Business Writing course, this researcher found that the students seem to have difficulties using the present perfect tense properly. Their business plans were checked by English native teachers. Most of them used the present and past simple tenses instead of the present perfect tense. However, the finding hasn't been systematically proven yet.

To sum up, *tense misuse* can be considered a very serious problem in Thai learners since most of the subjects of the study are advance learners who are supposed to have advanced level of language proficiency. According to the error analyses, the subjects use other tenses instead of more appropriate tenses and they still have repeated errors despite the long-term tense teaching and learning (Chownahe, 2000; Boonyavanich, 2002; Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007; Ayurawatana, 2002; Baker, 2002). They still cannot distinguish tenses when making decision on tense use (Baker, 2002). n Thai context, the tense teaching and learning has focused on time reference. In most text, tense and aspect are introduced in terms of temporal reference despite the fact that tense serves not only for time relations, but also for other purposes such as subject matter and rhetorical functions in scientific and technical discourse

(Jesperson 1931 quoted in Noochoochai, 1978; Lackstrom, 1970 & 1973; Taylor, 2001;Martinez, 2010). The conventional tense teaching and learning has been focused on temporal consideration, which is necessary. However, tense teaching and learning focusing on rhetorical function deserves more consideration because of its lack of popularity and the usefulness of the rhetorical grammar approach in terms of meaningful grammar teaching and purposeful language use.

7.6 anguage Interference

To explain the phenomenon, the difference between the first language and the target language, *language interference* is mentioned (Chownahe, 2000; Baker, 2002; Ayurawattana, 2002; Boonyavanich, 2002; Tawilapakul, 2003).

Will Baker, in an article from Karen's Linguistics Issues in January 2002, discussed the problem of present perfect and past simple in Thai learners. He emphasizes the difference between English and Thai in terms of tense system. He explains that there is no tense system in Thai. Although there are ways to make explicit temporal references, they are often not analogous to all the uses of past simple or present perfect in English. He also adds that there are no obligatory inflections on verb forms in Thai for either tense or aspect; however, temporal references in Thai are made commonly through context, optionally through time adverbials, or auxiliary verb 'tense markers'. Although their functions at times coincide with English tense and aspect functions, none of them are exact equivalents. For many of the non-temporal functions, of past tense in particular, there are no analogous forms involving the verb group in Thai.

English is a language concerned with time. A sentence in English requires the overt time marking. Nevertheless, according to Jespersen (1931 quoted in Noochoochai (1978)), time and tense do not have correspondence between Thai and English. Unlike English, Thai has neither verbs nor auxiliaries to convey the time concepts. Instead, time phrase, time markers, aspect markers, and certain types of verbs are used in sentence as a clue to indicate present, past or future time (Kanchanawan, 1978). To conclude, time markers are optional in Thai (Chaiyaratana, 1961). Because of the difference, it can be ambiguous when sentences in Thai are translated into a tense language like English.

However, Sattayatham & Honsa (2007) claim that the errors caused by mother tongue interference are a small proportion. According to the result of their study, it was found that errors are both from the interlanguage and mother tongue interference. However, the errors caused by mother tongue interference are a small proportion. In terms of sentence level translation, the use of tense sequence troubles the students most. This includes the overgeneralization of tense sequence in the conditional sentence showing past unreal and the wrong tense-sequence in coordinate structure. These errors are mostly due to the overgeneralization of the target-language restrictions on tense sequence.

7.7 Tenses and Rhetorical Functions

Realizing the influence of rhetorical functions on tense choice, many researchers studied the relationship of the two elements (Taylor, 2001; Martinez, 2010; Shaw, 2011; Malcolm, 2002). According to Taylor (2001) and Martinez (2010), there is correlation between tense choices and rhetorical functions in specific context such as scientific, technical, humanities, economics and business discourse. In addition, Shaw (2011) found some correlations of voice, tense, and sentence function in reporting verbs. Moreover, Malcolm (2002) conducted an analysis of tense choice in scientific articles. This analysis outlines the optional rhetorical choices and obligatory temporal constraints affecting tense usage. It allows us to predict when authors can choose the temporal identity of a referent and when they cannot. He suggests that under certain conditions, authors can choose the temporal identity of a referent depending on their rhetorical purposes. To sum up, in many languages particular verb forms can indicate the discourse function of utterances (Buston, 1986 cited in Shaw, 2011).

As mentioned earlier, tense serves not only for time relations, but also for other purposes; they are often inextricably linked with marks for person, mood, etc. In addition, tense is not only concerned with the time of a sentence but also intertwined with other grammatical features such as aspect and mood. Moreover, tense choice also depends on rhetorical function that lies beyond the writer's or the speaker's words (Martinez, 2010; Taylor, 2001).

To support the notion that tense choice also depends on rhetorical functions, Taylor (2001) first examined tense usage in academic writing in the

humanities. Next, the contextual analysis was constructed to identify factors that affect tense choice. The analysis identified the tense occurrence in relation to the rhetorical functions unique to the journal article genre. Finally, these tense functions were analyzed in terms of time and basic meanings as described in general English. The result of the study leads to more understanding of how they can be applied to rhetorical uses in academic writing. To support his study, Taylor shows a rhetorical-grammatical process chart constructed by Lackstrom et. al. (1973). The chart consists of a hierarchy of levels organized in descending order. They propose that a choice at any level determines the choices available at the next lower level. They argue that different grammatical choices may be restricted to a particular level and that tense choices are made mostly at a second level which represents the rhetorical functions that make up the total discourse.

8. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Rhetoric

The long time development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) since the late 1960s has influenced the variety of its definitions (Hutchison & Waters, 2006). ESP is generally based on the learners' needs. Its content and the method of teaching usually depend on the learners' reason and their specific needs for learning.

Because much attention is on the learners' needs in ESP, both the learners and the teachers tend to be more motivated and satisfied than in general English. With the language appropriate specifically to content, disciplines, occupations and activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., the learners know clearly what they need to learn with the specific purpose in mind, and they will learn what they find useful for their work (Strevens, 1988; Strevens, 1980).

As mentioned, language teaching in ESP is designed based on learners' specific requirements. Therefore, many categories of ESP exist. According to Hutchison and Water (1987), ESP is mainly divided into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). EAP covers various academic disciplines such as Business, Science, Technology, Medicine and The Law (Evans & John, 1998; Johns & Machado, 2001). EOP is also called EVP, English for Vocational Purposes and VESL, Vocational English as a Second Language. Moreover, EOP can be subdivided into EPP, English for Professional Purposes and

EVP English for Vocational Purposes (Evans & John, 1998; Johns & Machado, 2001).

In the early 1970s, it was rapidly developed due to the oil crisis, since there was a massive flow of cash and Western expertise into the oil-rich countries. Therefore English has become big business because of time and money constraints (Hutchison & Waters, 2006). Since there has been a demand for business English courses, under EPP comes EBP (English for Business Purposes).

In the first stage of the development, ESP had focused on language at sentence level. However, in the second phase it shifted to the level above the sentence because of the emergence of rhetorical analysis (Hutchison & Waters, 1987). While traditional linguistics aims to describe the rules of English usage, the studies in ESP shifted to examine the language used in a real community (Widdowson, 1978 cited in Hutchison & Waters, 2006).

In the 1960s and early 1970s, the studies focused on specializing the grammatical and lexical features of specific text. The results of the studies benefited material designing (Ewer & Latorre, 1969). The motive behind their analyses was to make a course which is more relevant to learners' needs. The analyses emphasized the language forms students would meet in their studies. They also concluded that the ESP course should give priorities to the form frequently found in register analysis. Ewer & Latorre (1969) and Allen & Widdowson (1974) claim that the difficulties in language learning of students are from unfamiliarity with English use rather than a defective knowledge.

In terms of grammar teaching and learning, the importance of rhetorical grammar approach has been mentioned. In rhetorical grammar approach, the communicators' needs of language use are considered. The students are led to consider what they truly are trying to express (Pecora, 2011). It can be said that rhetorical grammatical approach seems to be related to ESP since it responds to the needs of the learners to achieve meaningful and purposeful language use.

9. Related Studies

The design of research procedure and the construction of research tools are based on the studies by Chakorn, 2008 and Taylor, 2001.

Chakorn (2008) studied the author's language in CEO letters in Thai annual reports. She found that there were many researchers who had used the Aristotelian concept of persuasive rhetoric in researching persuasive business correspondence. Following the concept of persuasive rhetoric by Aristotle, she investigated three rhetorical appeals (Logos, Ethos and Pathos) in the fifty-four executive letters from chairmen in Thailand published during the economic crisis of 1997 and examined how the positive meaning was made to maintain stockholders' and investors' confidence during the crisis. The findings show that the rhetorical appeals found in her corpus are mostly Logos and Ethos. She also provides the characteristics and examples of contents of CEO letters in each modes of persuasion (gathered and presented in the form of table by this researcher in Appendix C).

Taylor (2001) examined academic writing in Humanities. He used the corpus of eighteen journal articles in English, History and Philosophy, six articles from each discipline. First, conducting a quantitative analysis, he examined tense use within each discipline and compared patterns of use across the disciplines. Next, he did a contextual analysis to identify factors which affect tense choice. In this step, he identified the tense choices associated with the rhetorical functions unique to the journal article genre. The main rhetorical functions which are focused on in this case are *deictic* (utterances through which the writer communicates with the reader) and *referential* (references to other sources). After that, he analyzed these rhetorical functions and the associated tenses in terms of time and meaning, exploring plausible explanations for each choice. The methodology of the research study is illustrated by the following diagram:

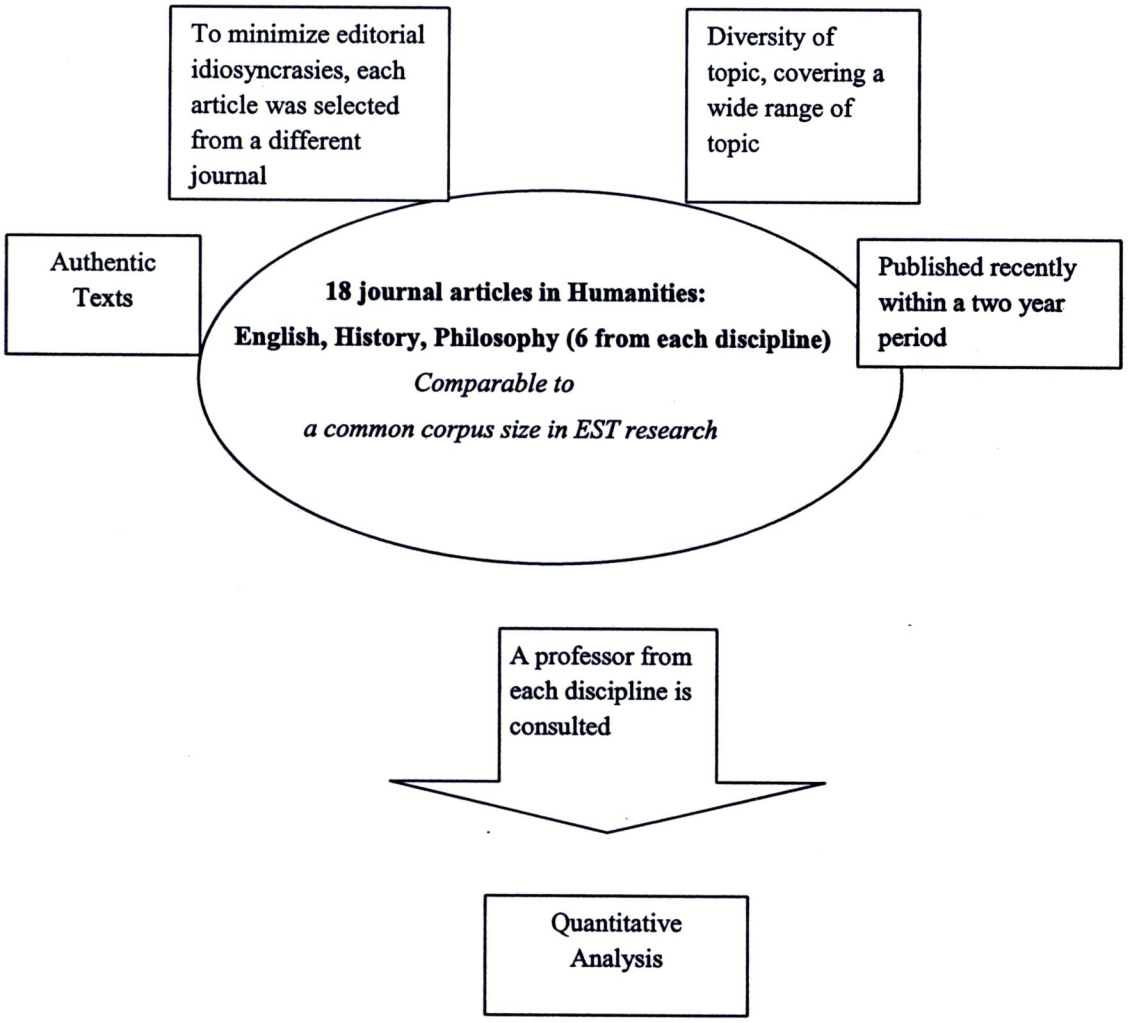

Figure 1 The research methodology of the study on tense usage in academic writing: a cross-disciplinary study by Taylor, 2001

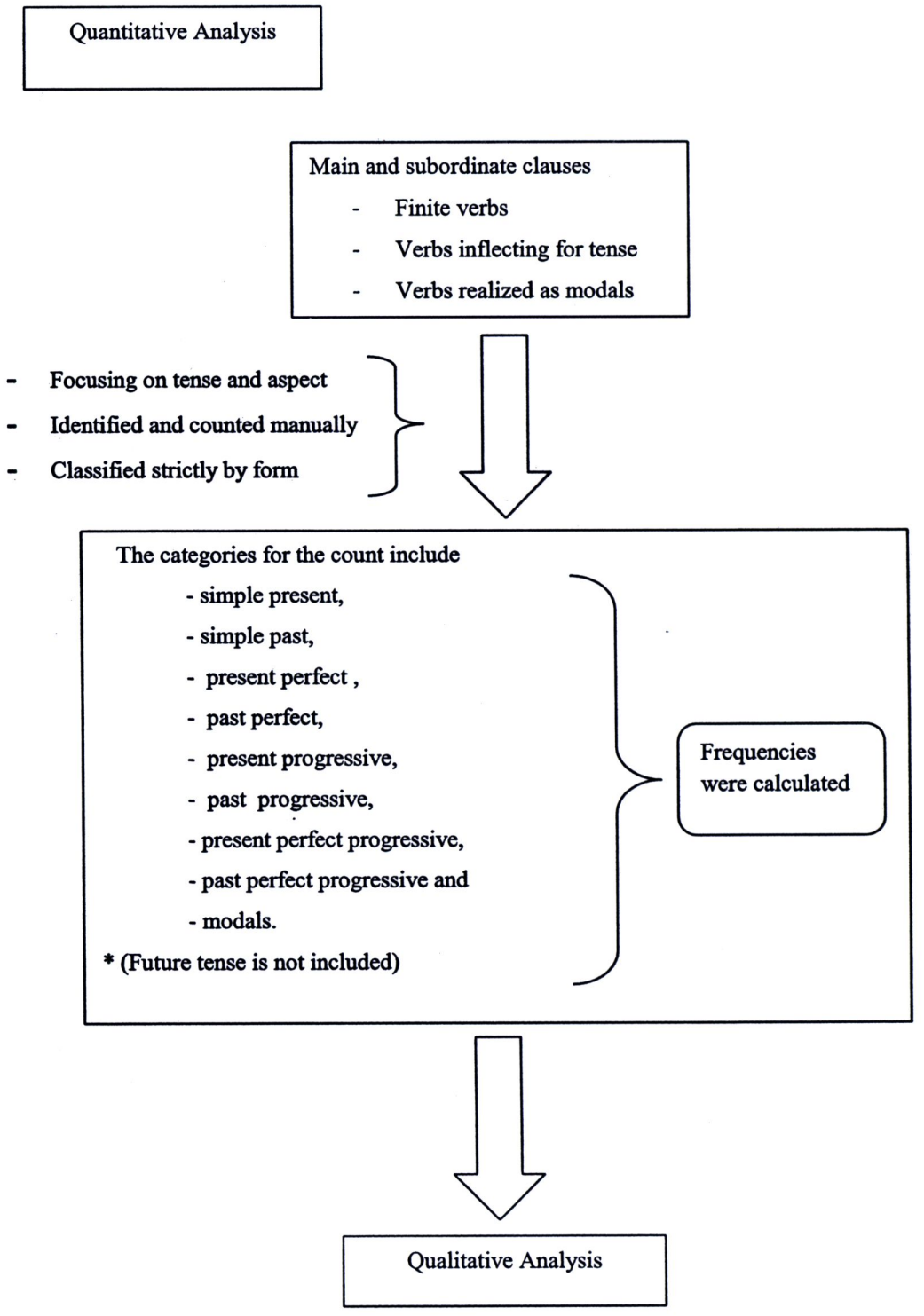

Figure 1 The research methodology of the study on tense usage in academic writing: a cross-disciplinary study by Taylor, 2001 (Cont.)

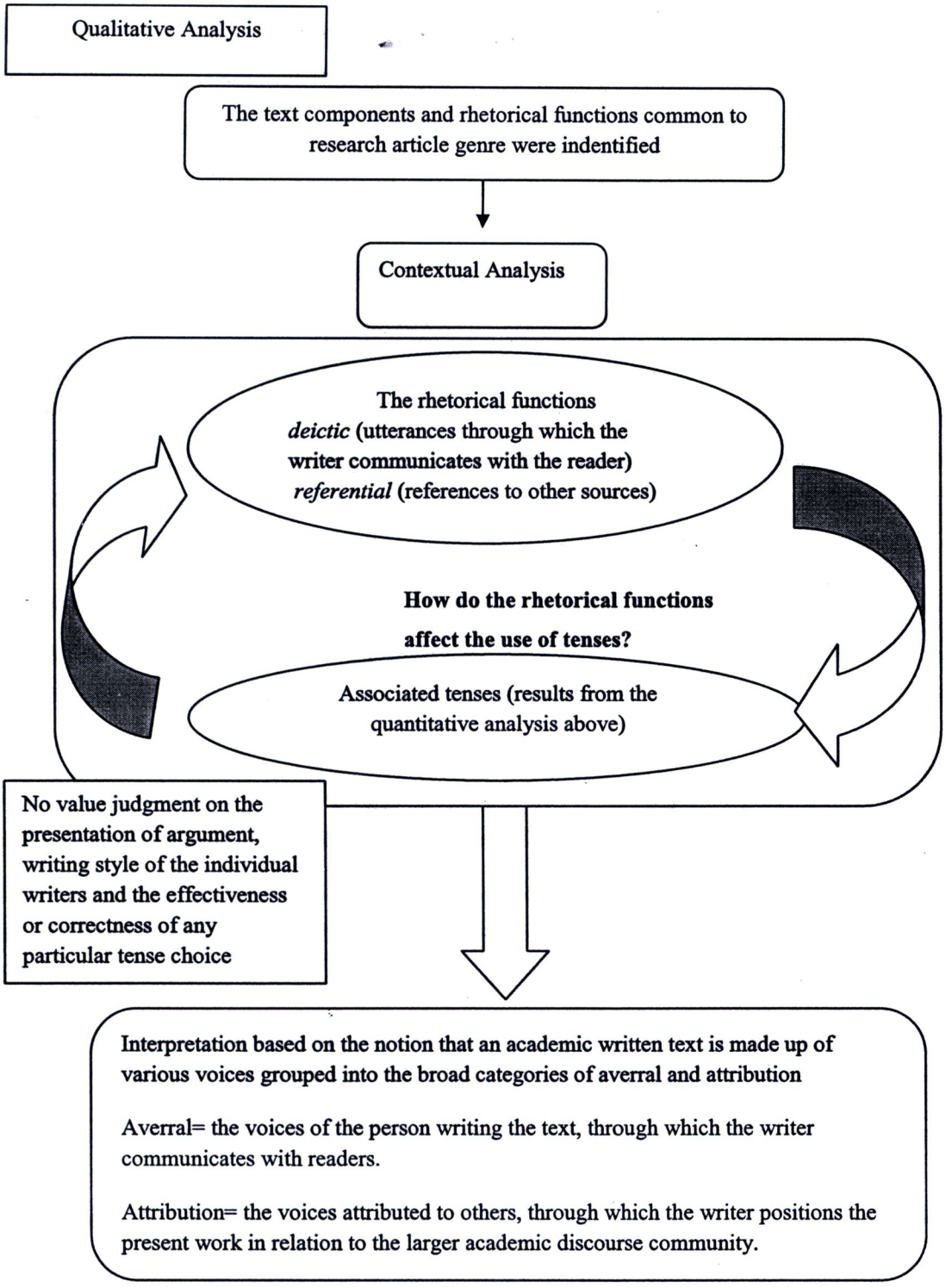

Figure 1 The research methodology of the study on tense usage in academic writing: a cross-disciplinary study by Taylor, 2001 (Cont.)

According to Taylor's study, it is obvious that the basic meanings and use of tenses described in general English serve the rhetorical functions in two ways: *deictic* (utterances through which the writer communicates with the reader) and *referential* (references to other sources). Despite the success of the study, according to Johnstone (2002) and Smith (2003), there is no research on the tense choice in relation to Aristotle's rhetoric, ethos, logos and pathos, despite its counterparts of all genres and modes of discourse. On the other hand, Chakorn (2008) mentioned Aristotle's rhetoric as an important part of persuasive writing (CEO letters). Unfortunately, there is no research available on its relationship to any grammatical points. Therefore, in order to make the grammar teachers understand the importance of persuasive rhetoric as it can be found in all genres and modes of discourse, the relationship between Aristotle's rhetoric and grammatical structures, especially tense choice, is required to be investigated and explained.