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ACADEMIC ABSTRACTS: A GENRE ANALYSIS

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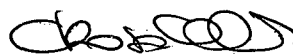para obtenção do grau de MESTRE EM LETRAS

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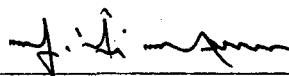
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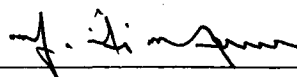
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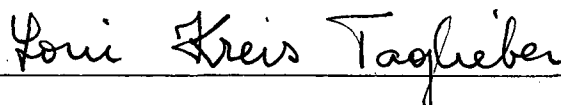
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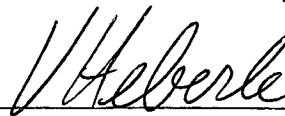ORIENTADOR

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To the memory of Lia Sarah

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ABSTRACT

ACADEMIC ABSTRACTS: A GENRE ANALYSIS

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Abstracts of research articles are an important site for the visibility of scientific endeavor. However, little research has been carried out on how abstracts can be characterized in terms of their discoursal organization and other key features. In addition, advice available in manuals seems to be of little avail to the production of quality abstracts. To remedy this deficiency, this study investigates the actual discourse organization of 94 abstracts in three leading journals from the field of Applied Linguistics. A move analysis revealed that abstracts follow a 5-move pattern, namely, Move 1 motivates the reader to the present research by setting the general field or topic and stating the shortcomings of previous research; Move 2 introduces the present research either by making a descriptive statement of what was done or by giving the purpose; Move 3 describes the study design; Move 4 states the main findings, and Move 5 advances the significance of the research by drawing conclusions or offering recommendations. This research concludes that there is a mismatch between descriptive practice and prescriptive advice. The proposed pattern may serve as a pedagogic tool to help the researchers in writing informative abstracts and, beyond that, in entering the mainstream of research debate. Genre analysis is recommended as a valuable approach for the description and explanation of discourse.

RESUMO

"ABSTRACTS" ACADÊMICOS: UMA ANÁLISE DE GÊNERO

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Resumos ("abstracts") em artigos acadêmicos são importantes meios de disseminação do conhecimento científico. Contudo, existem pouquíssimos estudos relativos à organização discursiva de resumos. Além disso, as normas disponíveis sobre a caracterização de resumos pouco ajudam na produção desse tipo de texto. O presente trabalho investiga a organização discursiva real de 94 resumos em três periódicos de maior circulação entre pesquisadores de Lingüística Aplicada. Através da análise de movimentos ("moves"), o estudo revelou que resumos seguem um padrão de 5 movimentos, a saber: o Movimento 1 motiva o leitor à pesquisa, indicando não só a área ou assunto mas também brechas em pesquisas anteriores; o Movimento 2 apresenta a pesquisa *per se*, descrevendo características principais e/ou objetivos; o Movimento 3 dispõe a metodologia utilizada; o Movimento 4 revela os resultados mais importantes; e o Movimento 5 discute o significado do estudo, apontando conclusões e/ou recomendações. Evidências sugerem que há discrepância entre prática e norma. O padrão proposto serve enquanto recurso pedagógico que auxilia pesquisadores a escreverem resumos mais comunicativos e assim contribuirem para avanços em sua comunidade científica. Recomenda-se a análise de gênero como uma abordagem valiosa para a descrição e explicação do discurso.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Although your project is very relevant and your topic is adequately researched, I just don't feel this monograph deserves an A. Because of the way it is written. If you are willing to rewrite some of its parts, then I might see what I can do about my recommendation for publication" was the feedback that Flávio got from his advisor. A student of the brand new graduate program of Environmental Engineering at UFSC, Flávio was most puzzled not with the evaluation itself, but with criteria for assessing his project. He thought it unfair that all the hard work and rich insights of his six-month research on shared water resources had been looked down just because of *words*.

Flávio well fits the picture of just graduated students who venture into postgraduate programs: they are eager to carry out research; but not equally motivated to report it. Research-doing is seen as an immediate, privileged activity; research-reporting is seen as a tangential, *rite de passage*. This is largely due, perhaps, to the fact that undergraduate academic reporting usually carries with it a sour flavor of mandatory, teacher-oriented, pass-or-fail activity. At this level, writing does not fulfill any social function other than meeting *bureaucratic* institutional requirements.

But it is important to argue that words *do matter*, if we are to offer a way out for our student researchers struggling with language. Research proper and research reporting are usually thought as distinct events. It is often the case that research reporting, specially in written form, is seen

as an unpleasant addendum to research. What novice researchers must understand then is that research-and-report can not be split apart. The objective of any young member of a research community is two-fold: to try to master at once the techniques of independent research and the art of expressing it. Day (1988:158) contends that "scientific research is not complete until the results have been published." In other words, the research cycle is not complete until the results have been communicated. Hence, the value of any completed research is latent. It exists, but it requires communication to make it active. Within this holistic perception of the research process, then, the research communication plays a leading, essential role.

This communication can take place through a number of channels. An obvious one is the presentation of papers in professional meetings such as conferences, seminars. These events offer an entire spectrum of field developments that broadens the horizons of research engagement as well as provides a rich environment for field experts from which much growth can be gained.

A second channel that members of a research community use to communicate their contribution to the field is the publication. Day (1988:5) once heard it said: "A scientific paper is not designed to be read. It is designed to be published." Although this was said in jest, there is much truth to it. Swales (1990:7) adds: "publication can be seen as documentary evidence that the writer qualifies for membership in the target discourse community."

In either case, one might argue that the private endeavor of the researcher is assuming a public face, a face that has the power to

represent the research/er. In sum, the oral presentation or writing of an accurate, understandable paper is just as important as the research itself.

What I am interested in discussing is an interface that links the production of research *per se* and the actual appearance of that research either in spoken or written form: the summarized account of research. This interest is not unmotivated. First, at least for the inexperienced researcher, professional engagement in his/her research community starts with attendance at professional meetings. Such events are rare occasions when s/he can get acquainted with current concerns, keep pace with the latest research findings, learn state-of-the-art views of work in his/her field. I have experienced that such effervescent and exciting events call for some strategic, fast decision-making like choosing which presentations to attend, prioritizing which workshops to take part in, where to find a given researcher that is working in a topic that interests you. While reading the hundreds of abstracts of presentations, workshops, conferences, etc. to make an informed decision, I have become convinced that far too many informative abstracts fail to inform adequately and that a proportionately equal portion of indicative abstracts either describe too much or too little information. Take, for example, this extremely compact abstract, as shown below:

A psychoanalytical study of dreams in both play and film.
(ANPOLL Boletim Informativo 17:72)

A sign of more engaged activity is observed when the researcher is thrown in a position of making a contribution: Suddenly her/his skills of abstract writer are called into scene. Suddenly s/he becomes more aware of the importance of the need to dress research in an adequately

summarized fashion so as to accurately inform what has been done. If this dissertation makes a contribution toward alleviating the above problems, its primary purpose will have been fulfilled.

Second, though the writing of the abstract is often the last visible part of research that is realized, it is the first that is in a position to project the research, functioning as a *window* for the research community. Therefore one of the primary functions of abstracts is to provide visibility of the work done. Coracini (1989:235) rightly argues when she claims that "o título é uma das unidades discursivas mais exposta à leitura". However, abstracts are not far behind. According to Handbook and Style Manual for ASA, CSSA, and SSSA Publications (1976:4), an abstract is often read by 10 to 500 times as many people as read the entire article. In short, the abstract of an article projects the research to the public eye.

Third, most journals require an abstract to accompany its original article.

Fourth, as journals which publish only abstracts have grown in number and importance (Rey 1972), these abstracting journals have become an obligatory source of consultation for the researcher who wants to keep up to date with the huge academic production within her/his field.

Finally, the acquired character of abstracts as an independent discourse is also evident when we examine such gate-keeping decisions as the selection of papers for presentations at congresses (van Dijk 1980).

So far, I have attempted to argue that the area of applied discourse analysis undertaken in this dissertation is one that might repay investigation in so far as it plays a pivotal role in the dissemination of information and exchange of ideas and knowledge. Yet, neither discourse

analysts nor style guides writers have given abstracts much attention. It has, of course, been discussed in the vast literature aimed at helping authors write technical reports, theses, term papers and articles. However, almost without exception, this advice is at a level of generality that makes it pointless rather than helpful for the prospective author. A typical extract from one of the best regarded manuals (Parsons 1973:66) must suffice:

> An abstract is a *summary* of the thesis. The abstract should indicate the *main points* that emerge during the course of the .thesis and the conclusions. The regulations usually stipulate its maximum length: *300* words but it can be as much as *600*.

If abstracts are to play their role effectively, an investigation of the features of abstracts is an important endeavor to be undertaken. The present study reports an empirical research into the features of the accompanying abstract of published papers. Specifically, this study examines the features that constitute the abstract of research articles at the macro level of textual organization and content as well as at the micro level of text organization. To those ends, 94 abstracts in three leading journals (*Language Learning, Applied Linguistics,* and *TESOL Quarterly*) from the field of Applied Linguistics are examined. The study also offers a tentative model to account for the discourse organization in academic abstracts. In order for these goals to be attained, this study tries to answer the following questions:

1. At the macro level: How can the abstract be characterized in terms of: (i) content, and (ii) its content organization?

2. At the micro level: How is the abstract characterized in terms of language? Is the use of past tense, third person, active, and the absence

of negatives a norm? May incomplete sentences be used? Are abbreviations, and other language shortcuts uncommon? Are active, subjectless verbs a preferred style? What is the average abstract length?

An outline of the dissertation follows:

In Chapter 2, I match earlier studies of language against a recent approach to the analysis of discourse in order to establish the theoretical foundation of this study. I then review the works of text analysts with regard to academic genre, and more specifically to abstracts.

In Chapter 3, I review instructional materials such as handbooks, manuals, and style guides aimed at helping the researchers to write research papers.

After I describe the research design of this study in Chapter 4, I present a preliminary analysis of my findings. Finally, I propose a five-move pattern for academic abstracts.

Throughout Chapter 5 I discuss the five moves in more detail. A final section presents empirical evidence as to what actually happens concerning several aspects raised by manuals. In Chapter 6, I draw conclusions and offer recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The role of language of research communities within a variety of academic and scholarly settings has been of vital interest to all those concerned with higher education, including students, teachers, researchers, and publishers. In such settings, the growth of knowledge has vastly increased, and consequently the number of researchers using the written language as the principal medium of knowledge dissemination has increased, too. In response to this new reality, various textual studies have investigated how language is used within different academic genres or text-types. These include short genres, e.g., research articles and book reviews, and long genres, such as theses and dissertations and textbooks. Perhaps a brief discussion of earlier attempts matched against more recent developments on textual studies will assist us in understanding current methodological trends.

Earlier interest in textual studies was founded on a view of language as a context-free, independent system. Within this narrower view, linguistic inquiry was concerned solely with the structure of linguistic system, without regard to developments in other disciplines which were also interested in language. Among the shortcomings that such strict view entailed was the lack a of socio-discoursal perspective. For one thing, these studies undermined the role of language in use, the existence of language users and the context in which language operates. Bazermann (1988:301) well observes the dangers of not seeing language as a social activity:

Any attempt to understand language that does not pay sufficient attention to how language works as a social tool in the material world invites the extremes of materialist and antimaterialist reductionism that see potatoes as more real than books or books more real than potatoes.

In addition, such monolithic perspective constrained linguistic approaches to focus on discrete surface features of texts. These studies narrowly described language in a formal, sentence-based perspective, thus being merely concerned with characterizing linguistic features. Consider, for example, Barber's (1962) statistical analysis of syntax and vocabulary to characterize the scientific language of university textbooks. Within the limited scope he has set himself, Barber's major descriptions of scientific language are restricted to linguistic forms *per se*: average sentence length, preferred verb tenses and lexical items. Although the usefulness of such quantitative analysis lies in that it informs materials designers the frequency with which given structures are used in *scientific language* against *general language* such treatments proved of little avail to account for the communicative effectiveness of language use (Widdowson 1979). Therefore, it is no surprise that the first studies of the scientific use of language did not find favor in researchers of other areas (Bazermann 1988). Part of the reason for this lack of interest was because these studies could not advance the communicative competence of people whose main interest lie outside linguistics proper. These scholars, who were interested in the communicative value of language, could not answer questions like "Why is a given text-type, say an abstract, written the way it is?" In short, the more self-centered linguistics was, the less it aroused interest in other language-related

disciplines - anthropology, sociology, psychology, and the less it interacted with those disciplines therefore not having access to insights that would best advance the comprehension of language use.

Conversely, recent developments have treated language not as a disembodied system, but with regard to its interaction with other systems. A theoretical framework that does exactly that and stands as a breakthrough in applied linguistic studies is what has been called *genre analysis*. Genre analysis grows from perceived shortcomings of earlier textual studies. For one thing, it treats language as social action. It is based on the claim that we need to study language use as instruments of communication, if we are to understand its communicative nature. Second, genre-oriented research approaches language with an amplified scope, viewing language at a higher or discourse level. The attention shifts from the linguistic features to the factors causing those features. By encompassing work in other disciplines that also study language, genre analysis studies raise language, or rather discourse, to a height that is able to attract the attention and insights of scholars of other orientations.

A widely accepted, positively assessed genre-centered approach is that proposed by John Swales (1981, 1990). His approach revolves around three key notions: *discourse community*, *genre*, and *task*. Broadly speaking, a *discourse community* is a community of individuals who share common goals, and who have established mechanisms for intercommunication among themselves. *Genre* is a class of communicative events (presumably mainly linguistic in type) which share common goals established by the discourse community. The third key concept, *task*, is defined as "one of a set of differentiated, sequenceable

goal-directed activities drawing upon a range of cognitive and communicative procedures" (Swales 1990:76). In all, Swales's concerns lie in the roles a text plays in particular settings. In fact, his central concern lies in the relation between these - that is, in the way texts are related to their uses and their users. To establish his theoretical framework, Swales skillfully draws upon related disciplines, such as psychology, sociolinguistics, ethnography, and cultural anthropology. This interdisciplinary viewpoint renders a genre analysis approach a useful tool to find answers to the kind of question raised above.

Textual Studies in General

As is evident from relevant studies on academic genre (see Swales 1990 for a comprehensive review), within textual studies prominence has been given to the *research article* or *research paper*, I will not attempt to distinguish the two. In this regard, various textual studies, on the one hand, have focused on the research article or paper (henceforth often RA) as a whole. Lackstrom, Selinker and Trimble (1973) investigated the relationship between grammatical choice and rhetorical function in the written language of science and technology. In their popular article, Hill, Soppelsa, and West (1982) attempted an account of the overall organization of the research article. In Myers' (1989), 60 scientific RAs on biology serve as the arena in which the interactions between writers and readers are examined through politeness devices. A more recent study of RAs (Gosden 1993) argued that unmarked themes (i.e. grammatical subjects) strongly characterize this genre as they assume different discourse roles throughout scientific RAs in the hard sciences.

On the other hand, some other studies have focused on one or more formally distinct components - commonly Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion (IMRD) - of the RA. The first component, the Introduction, has received the greatest deal of attention and thus is the firmest ground of the present knowledge of the IMRD pattern. For instance, in their analysis of approximately 100 RA introductions, Thompson and Yiyun (1991) discussed reporting verbs as a thread running through introductions and through which evaluation is conveyed. However, the most significant work here is Swales's *Create a Research Space* (CARS) Model (1990). In this pioneering schematic analysis of RA introductions, Swales considers the organization of article introductions as containing a series of *moves* - or movements - occurring in a predictable order as follows:

Move 1 - Establishing a territory

Move 2 - Establishing a niche

Move 3 - Occupying the niche

The CARS Model has received wide recognition and validity (Crookes 1987; Dudley-Evans 1986). As a study oriented to the Methods and Results section of RAs, Wood (1982) examined the rhetorical structure of ten genuine chemistry articles and checked it against the structure found in their simplified versions in university textbooks.

Other applications of Swales' model

Following the work of Swales (1990), Araújo (1994) applies *move* analysis to six book reviews so as to establish their rhetorical structure. Dudley-Evans (1986) adapts Swales' model as a result of analyzing the

introductions and discussion sections of seven M.Sc. dissertations in biology.

Although some studies have explored the textual properties and genre-specific conventions that constrain and shape academic discourse, little research has been carried out in other research-process genres, among them the abstract. The present study takes into account Swales's (1990:181) admonition that "abstracts continue to remain a neglected field among discourse analysts. This is unfortunate as they are texts particularly suited to genre investigation". In the next section I offer an overview of the few studies on abstracts.

Textual Studies on Abstracts

Very little research on the analysis of abstracts has been reported, which is surprising in view of the importance they have in knowledge development. Reported work has focused on abstract reading, on discourse organization, or on abstract writing.

Harvey and Horsella (1988) use 20 computer-originated abstracts to teach English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to engineering students. First, they propose a three-layer structure for computational abstracts. Then, they suggest a strategic approach to abstract reading, proceeding from the outer (heading, author, affiliation, bibliographical citations) through the intermediate (title and first sentence of the abstract) to the inner layer (the abstract itself). Their study is particularly interesting while highlighting the usefulness of abstracts not as a boring reading activity but as a practical step in bibliographical search.

Ferreira and Carvalho (1993) analyze the rhetorical structure of 10 abstracts drawn from four Applied Linguistics journals. They applied the

CARS model for RA introductions to 5 abstracts in Portuguese and 5 abstracts in English. Their findings are diversified in character and they conclude that the CARS model is applicable to explain the rhetorical structure found in abstracts, in both languages. Ferreira and Carvalho's analysis lays itself open to two lines of criticism. First, it is clear that studies which aim to describe generic characteristics should not be based on a small number of hand-picked examples of the genre under investigation. Second, while the RA abstract informs readers of the whole content of an article quickly and accurately, the RA introduction informs readers of part of the content of an article. The RA introduction privileges information on previous research in a given field of study so as to put the work being reported in perspective. In other words, abstracts and introductions have distinct communicative purposes and thus are distinct genres. Therefore, it seems that the authors have failed to recognize this and are forcing the CARS model as a straightjacket.

In examining 100 journal article abstracts, Johns (1992) is interested in evaluating the abstracts written in Portuguese and their equivalent abstracts in English. He primarily notes that a particular syntactic structure (the fronted passive) plays a central role in the discourse of academic abstracts in Portuguese. Then he detects the strategies employed by the writers of abstracts in constructing an equivalent abstract in English. The evidence is that abstract writers force a linear dislocation into their English abstracts which renders linguistically awkward, uninformative abstracts. Johns' work is particularly important as it warns us of the negative repercussions of a poorly dressed research reporting: Brazilian research may not be getting across to its

international research community because of the way abstracts are being textualized in English.

In this chapter, I have mainly tried to argue that Genre Analysis is a current descriptively powerful approach to add to our understanding of texts, and thus inform the theoretical principles adopted in this dissertation. Second, I have also tried to argue that the shortage of textual studies on abstracts is an underlying motivation to carry out the present study. In the next chapter, I discuss the guidelines and patterns for abstracts as recommended in publication manuals.

CHAPTER 3

A SURVEY OF MANUALS

The present discussion concentrates on instructional materials such as handbooks, manuals, and style guides aimed at assisting the prospective authors of papers to produce acceptable research reports. 'Instruction for authors' sections of journals and a primary source of guidance (the style guide produced by the field-specific association) are also examined.

Although this body of literature is expressively large, the amount of information devoted to abstracts is extremely limited. In fact, a number of well-regarded manuals either (i) do not consider abstracts at all or (ii) pay only marginal attention to them. Only fourteen out of more than 40 manuals examined contain *some* relevant information about abstracts. That is to say that the discussion here is extremely selective.

Instructions for abstract writing which can be found in manuals, style guides, and other secondary sources are too often vague and nebulous. Some style guides state that abstracts should be 'be well written', 'self-contained', 'a substantial summary', 'brief', 'complete, yet readable', or that they should 'use clear words' or 'be written in complete sentences' and still should 'not add statements not made in the article itself'. Such instructions do not stress the purposeful generation of ideas but remain at the level of rhetorical generality.

Along the same lines, instructions for abstract writing which are found in the 'instruction for authors' sections of the journals examined are not very explicit either. They simply mention that abstracts should limit themselves

to a certain number of words. Thus, the editors of *Language Learning* and the *Tesol Quarterly* state:

> All manuscripts of articles should be accompanied by an abstract of 100 to 200 words in length.

and the editors of *Applied Linguistics* specify:

> An abstract not exceeding 200 words in length should be included with all articles.

Besides being vague and nebulous, the bulk of information is generally less immediate, more tangential to the understanding of its content, discursive organization and other key features. Thus, Parsons, in its *Theses and project work. A guide to research and writing* (1973:66) succinctly offers the following:

> "An abstract is a *summary* of the thesis. The abstract should indicate the *main points* that emerge during the course of the thesis and the conclusions. The regulations usually stipulate its maximum length: *300* words but can be as much as *600*.

In this compressed instruction, Parsons restricts his advice to (i) a definition (or rather a tautology), (ii) a nebulous attempt to specify the content, and (iii) an elastic notion of length. In the following section, I identify a number of aspects of abstracts that illustrate the generality of advice found in manuals. I also comment on apparent disagreement among manuals.

Some Aspects of Abstracts

1. Definition

Within the literature of technical writing, abstracts are variously defined. The Associação Brasileira de Normas Técnicas' (ABNT) definition is one of the most succinct: "Apresentação concisa dos pontos relevantes de um texto." Day (1979), on the other hand, defines an abstract as "a brief summary of each of the main sections of the paper: Introduction; Materials and Methods, Results, and Discussion."

2. Designation

Abstract, summary, synopsis, and précis - terminology does not travel well across the literature - are the names this genre is referred to. In some manuals (Barrass 1979, Trelease 1982, Turk & Kirkman 1987), the word *summary* is used in place of *abstract* to describe the same thing: an attempt by the writer to draw out and state succinctly the essence of the subject-matter in the text. But O'Connor and Woodford (1978:24-25) rightly note that *abstracts* and *summaries* serve different communicative purposes. They point out that:

> 'A summary is for people who have already read the whole paper; it should not be a re-worded abstract. Include a summary only if the journal specifically asks one instead of or in addition to an abstract. State your main findings and conclusions.

Synopsis should be seen just as a synonym for *abstract*. As for *précis*, again, some authors (Turk and Kirkman 1987:131-2) make a distinction worth mentioning to avoid misunderstandings: 'A précis is a compressed version of a paper, and keeps the information in the same order. Second, a précis reduces length in proportion.' Last, the UFPR

style guide (1992) more than appropriately reminds novice writers that *resumo* is not to be taken for *sumário*, which is 'uma lista dos capítulos e seções do texto.'

3. Position

In general, the recommendation is to place the abstract at the beginning of the article. The previous advice is at variance with Barrass' (1979) and Trelease's (1982:42): 'either print an abstract at the beginning of the article or at the end of the article'.

4. Types of Abstracts

Abstracts often are classified on the basis of content. There are informative abstracts, indicative (or descriptive) abstracts, and critical abstracts. Many definitions suggest that an informative abstract should be a miniature version of the full paper, dispensing the need for reading the paper. An indicative abstract should resemble a table of contents in paragraph form. The ABNT and American National Standard Institute (ANSI) accordingly recognize the existence of mixed 'informative-indicative' abstracts. Critical abstracts contain evaluative comments on the significance of the article. A prevailing suggestion found is to write informative abstracts wherever possible. Abstracts may be further classified according to their authorship. Within this classification scheme, abstracts of original articles in primary journals are usually called *author abstracts*. Abstracts written for secondary publications are referred to as *access abstracts*. These are typically composed by subject specialists or abstractors.

5. Paragraph Structuring

The standard advice is to compress the abstract into a single paragraph. Litton (1975), however, recommends to split it into three paragraphs.

6. Length

Answers to the question "How long should it be?" are as varied in length as the actual abstracts that are published. The general suggestion is to use fewer than 250 words.

7. Style of Sentence and Words

Writers are advised to use short, simple, and active sentence structures, complete sentences instead of *telegraphese*. One author (Day 1979:142) proposes that "Most of the Abstract should be written in the past tense, because you are referring to your own present results." Preference should be given to the employment of familiar language or language that is accessible to the layperson.

8. Prohibitions

The following features should be avoided: negative sentences, citations, bibliographic, figure or table references, equations, diagrams, abbreviations, and acronyms. The first sentence should not repeat what is in the title.

9. Content and Organization

I have argued so far that most technical writing literature include advice that is only tangential to the production of quality abstracts. It is interesting to note that, in several of the works surveyed (for instance, Asti Vera 1989, Lakatos and Marconi 1991, Moore 1983, Tarubian 1973), there is no discussion of more important issues, such as the

content of abstracts and the organization of that content. However, where they are discussed, there is an interesting difference of opinion with regard to the above issues. The overall weight of advice is to include four, usually sequential, information elements. As described in the *American National Standard for Writing Abstracts* (ANSI 1979:1), these elements state the "purpose, methodology, results, and conclusions presented in the original document."

The Universidade Federal do Paraná, in its *Normas para apresentação de trabalhos: Parte 2 - Teses, Dissertações e Trabalhos Acadêmicos* (1992:14) presents a similar version of this advice, but with an addition:

> f) Expressar na primeira frase do resumo o **assunto** tratado;
> g) Ressaltar os objetivos, os métodos, os resultados e as conclusões do trabalho;

Similarly, O'Connor and Woodford (1978:48) suggest a slightly altered format:

> Begin the abstract by stating the **category** to which the paper belongs. Describe the purpose of the investigation being reported. Indicate the methods used and summarize the results and conclusions.

The four-element version of this advice is also contained in the well-known volume by Day on *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper* (1979:23). The suggested content for a good abstract is as shown below:

> The Abstract should (i) state the principal objectives and **scope** of the investigation, (ii) describe the methodology employed, (iii) summarize the results, and (iv) state the principal conclusions.

In contrast, recommendations to (i) include other elements, not to include one or more of the four-elements format, or to (ii) present them in an alternative order are also found. For instance, Barrass (1979:78) suggests a three-element format:

> A summary differs from a précis in that it should be as short as possible. The summary of an article includes only the **problem** and the principal **findings** and **conclusions**.

Litton (1975:156) recommends this format:

> **problema** em análise; indica as **descobertas**; revela as **conclusões** mais importantes; indica os **próximos passos a seguir**

Menzel, Jones, and Boyed's (1961:31) three-information pattern is:

> Try to present a clear, concise summary, preferably in one paragraph, of the **purpose** and the most important **results** of the investigation, together with a minimum of the **theory** it is based on.

Alternatively, Trelease (1982:43) advises:

> To serve its purpose, the abstract should indicate clearly all the **subjects** dealt with in the article, so that no reader interested in only one of these subject will fail to have his attention directed to it. The abstract should also summarize briefly but clearly the principal **new results** and **conclusions**.

In fact, I have traced only one manual guide which unequivocally recommends more than one possible organization, and that is Turk and Kirkman's *Effective Writing: Improving Scientific, Technical and Business Communication* (1987:140-41). They offer two rules of thumb:

As a general rule, start planning your summary round these structures:

follow the order of information in the paper: summarize the introduction, summarize the method and results, and state the main conclusions

or

present the facts and ideas in the paper in a different order of the paper itself depending on what the purpose is: something like half the summary may be a restatement of the most important **conclusions** or **recommendations**. Only one or two sentences are needed to summarize the **introduction**, and a few sentences to summarize the **methods** on which the conclusions are based.

The survey so far has considered general or secondary sources of advice. The primary source will naturally be the relevant style guide for the three journals. In this case, the primary document is the Linguistic Society of America (LSA) Style Sheet (1983). In fact, the issue is only superficially addressed, the only instruction being the following brief mention on type and length (1983:50):

11. **Abstracts.** Each manuscript submitted for publication should be accompanied by an informative abstract, summarizing the conceptual content of the article. It should have a maximum length of about 100 words, and be typed on a separate sheet of paper.

It would therefore seem that these conflicting recommendations serve as a starting point to carry out a research designed to validate the advice against what actually happens in abstracts of published papers. In the chapter to follow, I present the research design used in this study and preliminary evidence as to what actually happens, as opposed to what might be expected to happen.

CHAPTER 4

A MOVE ANALYSIS OF ABSTRACTS

The Corpus

The corpus consists of 94 article abstracts selected from three journals, all of which require abstracts:

A. 37 abstracts from the *Language Learning (LL)*
   (1) 14 from 1990, volume 40, Nos. 1-4
   (2) 10 from 1991, volume 41, Nos. 1-4
   (3) 13 from 1992, volume 42, Nos. 1-4

B. 31 abstracts from the *Applied Linguistics (AP)*
   (1) 8 from 1990, volume 11, Nos. 1-4
   (2) 14 from 1991, volume 12, Nos. 1-4
   (3) 9 from 1992, volume 13, Nos. 1-4

C. 26 abstracts from the *TESOL Quarterly (TQ)*
   (1) 8 from 1990, volume 24, Nos. 1-4
   (2) 5 from 1991, volume 25, Nos. 1-4
   (3) 13 from 1992, volume 26, Nos. 1-4

A corpus of 94 abstracts (see Appendix 1) is reasonably adequate to yield stable results (Bamberg *personal communication*). However, when the current findings are tested out on a further similar-sized selection of abstracts, reliability will be improved.

In selecting abstracts for analysis, several variables were considered, as follows:

I - Discipline

To control for discipline, it was intuitively felt that an analysis of several different areas of knowledge would require a considerable number of data

to yield stable results. Thus one single discipline was chosen in order to keep the data to a manageable size.

II - Journal

All three journals were roughly equivalent on the variables of date of publication, specificity of subject, and prestige in field: (i) journals covered the same time span (3 years); (ii) journals were for a specialized readership; and, (iii) journals were very prestigious among Brazilian Applied Linguists. Perhaps a few words are in order here. I examined the reference section in the main articles of THE ESPecialist (The ESP) and Trabalhos em Lingüística Aplicada (TLA), from 1989 to 1991. These are the leading journals in Applied Linguistics that are published in Brazil (Moita Lopes 1994). Initially, I counted the number of references to other journals, and thereby produced a list of journals ranked according to the number of citations received. There was a total of 268 citations to 27 journals. Five journals towered above the others: Language Learning with 36 references, The ESPecialist with 25, Trabalhos em Lingüística Aplicada with 24, Applied Linguistics with 22, and TQ with 17 references . The leaders of the pack are presented in Table 1 below:

Table 1. **References to journals in The ESP and TLA**

Rank	Cited Journal	No. of Citations	%
1	Language Learning	36	13,4
2	The ESPecialist	25	9,3
3	Trabalhos em Lingüística Aplicada	24	8,9
4	Applied Linguistics	22	8,2
5	TESOL	17	6,3
	Sub-total	124	46,1
	All Other Journals	144	53,9
	Totals	268	100,0

It is interesting to note that all 24 citations *received* by the TLA were *given* by the TLA itself. The same self-citation pattern also applies for the ESP: out of the 25 citations, only 1 is not done by the ESP. Due to this abnormally high level of self-citation, these journals were not taken as representative. It is as though applied linguists in these two fronts do not recognize work that is carried out in other research centers. However geographically near, the two research centers which publish these journals seem to assume an *independent* stance towards one another.

III - Type of Article

One major text-type or genre has been considered, namely, research articles. This choice reflects, to a certain extent, the importance and space given to this genre in applied linguistics journals and the genre that most often young researchers need to produce to make their entry in the research community. I did not include review or theoretical articles; I felt intuitively that such surveys and non-empirical studies would turn out to have a different organization, presumably reflecting their different communicative purposes.

Procedures

Following from the work of Swales (1990), Dudley-Evans (1986), and Crookes (1986), I began this analysis by a general perusal of each abstract to get the feel of the overall organization and presentation. In a preliminary analysis, I tried to relate each sentence of the abstract to one of the four components (IMRD) of the RA. There was little problem in relating one to the other. However, whenever difficulty arose, the relevant section of the paper was read to establish a precise relation. As

genres are purposed, staged activities, the *move* was chosen as the unit of analysis. A *move* is to be considered as a genre stage which has a particular, minor communicative purpose to fulfill, which in turn serves the major communicative purpose of the genre. In a rank scale, the *move* lies between the sentence and the paragraph. It is worth noting that no attempt to define *move* is found in Swales (1981, 1990) and that the use of *move* is clearly different from the use of the same term in Sinclair and Coulthard's analysis of classroom discourse (1975). Then followed an identification and marking of the *moves* or stages that appeared. At this point of the *move* analysis, I gave up any verbal categorization of their function and opted for a system of color-coding using a range of maker pens. This system apparently avoids the risk of pre-judgement while it allows clear and fast identification of *moves*, and also has pedagogical potential.

Preliminary Evidence

In analyzing the abstracts, an initial attempt was to discover to what extent abstracts reflect the IMRD pattern of their original article. It was assumed that the macro-structure of the original article would serve as a basis for selection of the content that should go into the abstract, since an abstract should inform all the important aspects of the very much lengthier research report. Swales (1990) hypothesizes that this might be the case and indicates the need for further research. This is exactly what is attempted here. Table 2 presents the frequency with which each of the four sections of the article was found in the abstracts. These results indicate that the Introduction, Methods, and Results section are well

visible in the abstracts whereas the Discussion section is absent in roughly 40% of the corpus.

Table 2. **Visibility of IMRD in the 94 abstracts**

Section	No. of abstracts	%
Introduction	93	99
Methods	92	98
Results	75	80
Discussion	58	61

Another interesting finding in this preliminary analysis of the reflection of the article's IMRD structure in the abstracts is the 'section' pattern that has been identified. As Table 3 indicates, 52 abstracts encapsulated a four-section pattern, 33 a three-section organization, and 9 a two-section patterning. Moreover, as Table 3 shows, the basic core organization of three-sections was IMR. As can be noticed, the Discussion section did not find its way in 27 three-section patterns and in 8 two-section structures. Again, as authors opted for a three-section representation of the article, they tended to dispense with the Discussion section.

Table 3. **Number of Sections and Section Pattern in the 94 abstracts**

No. of Sections	No. of abstracts	Section Pattern
4	52	IMRD
3	33	IMR (27) IMD (5) MRD (1)
2	9	IM (5) IR (3) ID (1)

The analysis also revealed other interesting phenomena. First, although the order of information in an abstract roughly followed that of the RA, the balance between the different aspects of that information did not. Thus, in some instances, authors allocated several sentences to convey Introduction-based information such as knowledge generalizations, problem statements, and an indication of the main features of the research (Fotos abstract # 20-LL). In other cases, most of the abstract was used to describe the methodology (Walker abstract # 40-AL). In still other examples, the bulk of the abstract was a statement of results (Chiang & Dunkel abstract # 88-TQ).

Because the abstract has a different readership and purpose from the RA itself, decisions about organization and balance have to be re-thought for the abstract. In writing an abstract, the researcher may think of all key ideas in the RA, grade them in terms of importance, and then write them accordingly. In sum, evidence seems to suggest that authors tend to provide ample textual room for that content that they perceive as being the most relevant.

Second, as a consequence of what I have argued above, there is no correlation between move- and sentence-boundary. That is, a move can extend over sentence-boundaries. Introductory moves, for instance, encompassed 2,6 sentences on average. On the other hand, different moves can merge in one sentence and thus form a single *hybrid* move. The typical case is an IM two-move sentence. However, embedding of three moves in one sentence also occurred, often in the first sentences of the abstract. In the next section, I present a possible organization for Research Abstracts according to a more detailed move-analysis.

Towards a 5-Move Pattern

As discussed in Chapter 1, I started out this investigation with the intention of seeing how researchers offer a summarized vision of their research article. It soon became apparent that such summarizations were firmly embedded within a 5-move pattern as follows:

1. There was an *opening* stage which prepared the ground for the presentation of research *per se*. This stage served the purpose of setting the general field, defining the topic, and/or stating the shortcomings of previous research.

2. The second part introduced the research in question either by making a preliminary descriptive statement of what was done, or by giving the purpose.

3. Immediately after the presentation of research - or in several cases partly embedded within it - there occurred a description of methodology. The commonest elements were information on subjects and procedures.

4. The fourth stage consisted of statements about the main findings of the research.

5. The final move included claims based on reported findings and advanced the significance of the research.

We can see this broad organization in the abstract # 93-TQ, as shown below:

[1] Work by discourse analysts show that listeners' interpretation of discourse is determined not only by a speaker's pronunciation and grammar but also by discourse-level patterns of language use. [2] To date, relatively little is known about the discourse-level patterns typically found in the English of nonnative speakers, how they diverge from discourse produced by native speakers, or how differences in nonnative discourse patterns affect native English listeners' understanding of the discourse. [3] Using a qualitative discourse-analytic framework, this paper compares the planned spoken English of a native speaker of Chinese whose English discourse was perceived by native speakers of English as difficult to follow with that of a native speaker of U.S. English. [4] The analyses reveal a variety of differences in the use of discourse structuring devices, specifically in the areas of lexical discourse markers, lexical specificity, and syntactic incorporation. [5] It is argued that these differences in discourse-level patterns interfere with the listeners' ability to construct a coherent interpretation of the Chinese speaker's discourse.

This abstract opens with a claim about our current state of knowledge on a given topic. There is a clear indication of the field and topic. Perhaps, the denial made tells the reader something of the author's orientation towards the topic. The second sentence evinces close links with [1] by indicating a gap in the previous research, and further builds up expectations of how that gap will be filled. The introductory phrase in [3] confirms those expectations by indicating an aspect of the methodology used. The author goes on to describe what he considers to be the main feature of the research. An interesting aspect to note is the embedding of stages: a descriptive statement of what was done together with a description of research design (the subjects). Generalized results are summarized in sentence [4]. The final sentence is given over to an explanation of reported findings.

I would therefore like to claim, on the basis of the 94 abstracts in the corpus, that the author or authors make up to five sequenced moves and that, the moves need to be clearly signaled to the reader. A proposed pattern, according to my sample, is given on the following page (Figure 1). The numbers in parenthesis refer to the number of instances found; *Repeated numbers* are those that co-occurred with other sub-moves. In the next chapter, I examine each of the five moves in more detail.

THE FIVE MOVES

MOVE 1   Situating the Research   (40)

        Sub-move 1A - Stating Current Knowledge   (33)

               and/or

        Sub-move 1B - Citing Previous Research   (7)

               and/or

        Sub-move 1C - Extending previous research   (3)

               and/or

        Sub-move 2 -   Stating a Problem   (24)

MOVE 2   Presenting the Research   (93)

        Sub-move 1A - Indicating Main Features   (77)

               and/or

        Sub-move 1B - Indicating Main Purpose   (26)

               and/or

        Sub-move 2 -   Hypothesis-raising   (18)

MOVE 3   Describing the Methodology   (92)

MOVE 4   Summarizing the Results   (75)

MOVE 5   Discussing the Research   (58)

        Sub-move 1 - Drawing Conclusions   (50)

               and/or

        Sub-move 2 - Giving Recommendations   (12)

Figure 1. **A Proposed Pattern for Research Article Abstracts**

CHAPTER 5

THE FIVE MOVES

MOVE 1 - SITUATING THE RESEARCH

The writer of an abstract has to compete for the attention of a busy readership and s/he has to persuade the academic peruser to concentrate on the work being offered. It seems to me that the way in which researchers typically attract readerships is by an initial move which visualizes where the current research fits in terms of research field and topic. The term I have chosen to characterize this opening move is *Situating the Research*. Move 1 actually provides orientation to the reader in relation to *where we are coming from* while motivating the reader to the research to be reported. The obligatory element in Move 1 is Sub-move 1. This can take one of three predominating forms:

> Sub-move 1A - Stating Current Knowledge
> Sub-move 1B - Citing Previous Research
> Sub-move 1C - Extending Previous Research

Sub-move 1A - Stating Current Knowledge

There are as many as 40 occurrences of Move 1 in the corpus. In 33 instances, Move 1 is realized by a statement of current knowledge. In Sub-move 1A, authors may (i) identify the field by stating that a given topic is of considerable professional interest. Examples are given in [1a,b] below. In all these cases, and subsequent ones, the figures and letters in parenthesis refer to the *abstract* number and the journal from where examples were taken (see appendix 1). For purposes of illustration, examples of the linguistic exponents - and signals - are often italicized.

[1a] Cloze tests have been the focus of considerable interest in recent years as easily constructed and scored measures of integrative proficiency. (# 20-LL)

[1b] The current interest in the development of communicative competence has led attention to the social uses of language in second language teaching and research. (# 60-AL)

Authors may also (ii) state current ideas or practice in teaching and research, as in [2a-d]:

[2a] Current research has supported the existence of a critical period for the acquisition of the grammar of a second language. (# 29-LL)

[2b] ... summarization is a task often required in academic classes, ... (# 43-AL)

[2c] Foreign language learners are commonly taught explicit rules of grammar, ... (# 64-AL)

[2d] Research and practice in composition pedagogy suggest that student-teacher conferences play an important role in helping students become more effective writers. (# 75-TQ)

or still (iii) offer the reader something like the generalization of the state of the art, as shown in [3a,b]:

[3a] The meanings and forms of tenses are complex and often difficult for nonnative speakers to acquire. (# 91-TQ)

[3b] Work by discourse analysts shows that listeners' interpretation of discourse is determined not only by a speaker's pronunciation and grammar but also by discourse-level patterns of language use. (# 93-TQ)

Other means of Situating the Research

Most Moves 1 are realized by a statement of current knowledge. There are, however, two further options which can be assigned to the following categories:

Sub-move 1B - Citing Previous Research

There are instances where reference to the state of previous research (Sub-move 1A) is accompanied by the naming of specific previous researchers. In such cases, then, text elements lose their *Stating Current Knowledge* status and are assigned the status of *Citing Previous Research*. Such citations co-occur also with problem-statements (Sub-move 2). In either case, this co-occurrence of Sub-move 1B may be best understood as the author's attempt to give further credibility to the claim outlined in Sub-moves 1A/2 by relating *what* has been claimed to *who* has claimed it. Although the discoursal function of current-knowledge-statements and research-citing seems almost totally identical, this semantic overlap apparently obscures a crucial feature of the latter: statements containing citations are more persuasive. Citing previous research is assigned a different sub-move status precisely to stress this plus. At any rate, as Swales (1990) contends, if there is no actual citation, as in [4a]:

> [4a] It has been customary among both language teachers and testers to regard listening as a separate skill in language proficiency. (# 31-LL)

then it is a statement of current knowledge. If there is, as in [4b], it falls under Sub-move 1B - *Citing Previous Research*:

[4b] Empty pronouns are not only acceptable in finite clauses of Spanish and Chinese but are pragmatically more natural (Rizzi, 1982; Huang, 1984, 1985). (# 9-LL)

Perhaps the citation format also helps background the force of Sub-move 1B. There are 14 occasions where previous researchers were specifically cited in Move 1. Eight of these referencings occur in a non-integral form of citation (Swales 1990), that is, the name of the researcher occurs in parenthetical form, always in statement-final position. Examples are given in [5a,b]:

[5a] The extent to which reading in a second language is a function of the transfer of first language reading abilities or of language proficiency in the second language has been a matter of debate for some time (Clarke 1979, 1980; Alderson 1984). (# 50-AL)

[5b] What has been missing is sufficient information on reading ability in the first language, reading ability in the foreign or second language, and information about the foreign or second language proficiency of the same individuals (Alderson 1984:21). (# 50-AL)

Despite this unprivileged position, research-citing may be foregrounded through extensive referencing, as in [6]:

[6] Research in second language reading has shown relationships among reading comprehension, reading strategies, and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies (Block, 1986; Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989). (# 25-LL)

Integral citations render a more persuasive format for Sub-move 1B. In the 5 instances below, the researcher occurs as passive agent, as shown in [7a,b]:

[7a] The estimate of English speech rates most widely known to teachers and researchers in EFL is that provided by Pimsleur et al. (1977). (# 38-AL)

[7b] ... The study follows earlier studies by Barnes and Todd (1977), Long and Porter (1985), Pica and Doughty (1985), Swain (1985), Doughty and Pica (1986), and Pica (1987) ... (# 46- AL)

as part of a possessive noun phrase, as follows in [8a,b]:

[8a] ...Pimsleur et al.'s estimate of ... (# 38-AL)

[8b] ...Pimsleur et al.'s data ... (# 38-AL)

and as adjunct of reporting (Tadros 1985), as given in [9]:

[9] Theoretical models of second language acquisition, such as Krashen (1982, 1985), have proposed that comprehending input' in a new language is the only way of acquiring it. (# 54-AL).

Sub-move 1C - Extending Previous Research

In 3 out of 94 abstracts, authors provide a weak challenge to previous research while presenting their research as in accordance with current research trends. The infrequency of this means of preparing for current research might suggest that research article abstracts require a *strong challenge statement* in order to justify the research to be reported. A second hypothesis might be that research-extension statements are seen as optional, supporting moves in situating the research, since all three statements are made in the absence of Sub-move 1A. Examples in [10a-c] below, thus, might be interpreted in terms of the author's effort to state that the current research is part of ongoing debate, as the citations may also suggest:

[10a] *Extending the research done on* the effects of different types of task and different participant arrangements used to foster negotiated interaction among L2 learners, we attempt to ... (# 13-LL)

[10b] ... The study *follows earlier studies by* Barnes and Todd (1977), Long and Porter (1985), Pica and Doughty (1985), Swain (1985), Doughty and Pica (1986), and Pica (1987) ... and examines ... (# 46-AL)

[10c] ... *By extending the scope of earlier studies,* this paper ... (Scotton & Bernsten, 1988). (# 84-TQ)

Sub-move 2 - Stating a Problem

Problem-statements offer some evaluation of the current state of knowledge as outlined in Sub-move 1. These evaluations indicate the degree of topic exploration and the amount of knowledge available, thus placing past research in the left or central part of the continuum shown in Figure 2:

Figure 2. **Topic and Knowledge Status**

Unexplored Topic	Partially explored Topic	Fully explored Topic
Lack of knowledge	Controversial knowledge	Established knowledge

In other words, problem-statements point out that previous research has not been thoroughly successful or complete. Sub-moves 2 can take a variety of forms, but generally fall into two categories: (i) statements that previous research is still *embryonic* or (ii) statements that, despite long and intense discussion, there is still a continuing debate in current research. Representative abbreviated examples of the first group are given in [11a-f] below.

[11a] ... this ESL research has *not* investigated ... (# 25-LL)

[11b] *Nor* has the ESL research contrasted ... (# 25-LL)

[11c] ..., *little* is known about ... (# 43-AL)

[11d] ..., *few* details are known concerning ... (# 68-AL)

[11e] ..., *few* studies have been done on ... (# 76-TQ)

[11f] ..., relatively *little* is known about ... (# 93-TQ)

Typically, these Sub-moves 2 indicate a different direction for research by identifying a needed area of investigation, or stating that a certain topic has remained relatively unexplored. The second group of Sub-move 2 refers to statements that there is no full consensus concerning previous research. Consider the following examples in [12a-f]:

[12a] ..., studies... suggest that ... *(contrasting findings)* (# 27-LL)

[12b] ..., the evidence for ... is *contradictory*. (# 31-LL)

[12c] ...the standard approach is *heavily biased* against ... (# 42-AL)

[12d] ... has been *a matter of debate* for some time. ..., a major problem in the design of these studies has been ... (# 50-AL)

[12e] Empirical studies designed to ... have *provoked wildly conflicting* results. (# 55-AL)

[12f] Recent research ... has yielded *conflicting* findings and generated *limited* success in ... (# 71-TQ)

By indicating conflicting methods and few unequivocal findings, the above examples show that studies are not unanimous and prepare the announcement of research that will help resolve the controversy. In this sense, Sub-move 2 signals to the reader that the present research will then follow. Actually, the combination of Sub-moves 1 and 2 (24 instances) is highly predictive of Move 2 content. In [11e], the reader is

told that 'few studies have been done on nonnative speakers' reactions toward regional accents'. From this one might conclude the authors of this article will announce a study involving nonnative speakers. In fact, this announcement is made, as shown in [13]:

[13] This empirical investigation sought to determine the attitudes of both L1 and L2 listeners toward specific regional accents of US. English and to compare and/or contrast those attitudes. (# 76-TQ)

As has been argued, Problem-statements are used by the writer to offer some evaluation to the previous research, and, in turn, this evaluation is used as a justification for the research to be reported. It is, therefore, not surprising to find that this evaluation is sometimes marked by *evidentials of contrast* (Barton 1992) like *however (6)*, *although (3)*, *but (2)*, *though, in contrast, while, whereas, to date*. Evidentials, or "expressions of attitudes towards knowledge" (Barton 1992:2), can be seen marking the onset of problematization in sixteen instances such as:

[14a] *However*, the phenomena are not sanctioned in German, ... (# 9-LL)

[14b] Empirical studies, *however*, have not been conducted to examine closely how ... (# 54-AL)

[14c] *Although* some research has been done on ..., few studies have been done on ... (# 76-TQ)

[14d] *But* it is rarely tested in these institutions... (# 40-AL)

[14e] *Though* summarization is a task often required in academic classes, little is known ... (# 43-AL)

[14f] *While* many studies have examined ..., there has been less research on (# 60-AL)

[14g] *Whereas* previous research in ESL has examined ..., this ESL research has not investigated ...(# 25-LL)

[14h] *In contrast,* few details are known concerning ... (*# 68-AL*)

[14i] *To date,* relatively little is known about ... (*# 93-TQ*)

More interesting is the way in which the authors introduce negative elements in their evaluative problem-statements:

Figure 3. **Negation in Move 1/Sub-move 2 - Stating a Problem**

Negative Elements		
Lexical Negation	Negative Quantifiers	Negation in the Verb Phrase
40	6	6

As figure 3 shows, it can be immediately seen that the denial of a complete previous research history is mainly carried by a wide array of lexical items (40 instances):

Adjectives	15	(conflicting 2, inaccurate, inadequate, negative, biased, less,...)
Nouns	14	(problem 3, failure, lack, loss, disarray, controversy,...)
Verbs	6	(fail 3, miss, provoke, differ)
Adverbs	5	(unfortunately, very, heavily, widely, relatively)

Only occasionally the denial is expressed through a negative quantifier or verb phrase:

Negative Quantifiers	6	(Few 3, Little 2, One 1)
Negation in the Verb Phrase	6	(Not 4, Nor 1, Rarely 1)

The data seem to suggest that lexical negation is seen as a more powerful device to point out the unsuccessfulness of previous research

since authors can recursively use it. Such recursiveness allows authors to offer a strong challenge to previous research, which, consequently, creates a sounder justification for the study to be presented. Notice how the example in [15a] offers a somewhat *weak denial* (through verb negation) and the example in [15b] provides a *strong denial* (through recursive lexical negation):

[15a] However, the phenomena are *not* sanctioned in German, ... (# 9-LL)

[15b] *Failing* to test the speaking skill results in *inaccurate* assessment of students and *negative washback* effects on the teaching of oral skills. (# 40-AL)

Move 1 Tense

An analysis of the main verb tenses across Move 1 produced few instances of the Past, contrary to advice found in manuals. The figures, which are highly significant for the Present Simple and the Present Perfect, are given in Table 4 below:

Table 4. Tense in Move 1

Verb Tense	Total	%
Present Simple	48	58
Present Perfect	26	31
Simple Past	6	7
Others	3	4
	83	100

Move 1 has a combined percentage for the two present tenses of 89%. This preponderance of *presentness* in tense choice may be interpreted in terms of *generality*. This might not be difficult to accept if we remember

that Move 1 is the discoursal move that makes claims about *present* state of knowledge *generalizations*. Here are some instances:

[16a] Cloze tests *have been* ... (# 20-LL)

[16b] Research in second language reading *has shown* ... (# 25-LL)

[16c] Current research *has supported* ... (# 29-LL)

[16d] ... summarization *is* a task often required in ... (# 43-AL)

[16e] The current interest in the development of communicative competence *has led* ... (# 60-AL)

[16f] Foreign language learners *are* commonly taught ... (# 64-AL)

[16g] Research and practice in composition pedagogy *suggest* ... (# 75-TQ)

[16h] The meanings and forms of tenses *are* ... (# 91-TQ)

[16i] Work by discourse analysts *shows* ... (# 93-TQ)

The remaining 9 of the 83 occurrences of tenses, however, may be explained in the following ways. First, authors may want to establish a progression from past to present as a way of marking increasing proximity to current debate. Observe the instances in [17a,b]:

[17a] In earlier studies of classroom second language learning attention *was* focused on ... However, ... learners *learn* in many ways, and studies of 'group-fronted' classes *suggest* ... At the level of child second language acquisition, such interaction *has been studied* primarily as ..., but research on caretaker language and foreigner talk *has also led* to studies of ...how children simplify, *repeat*, and *expand* utterances as . (# 49-AL)

[17b] A crucial event in the historical evolution of scientific English *was* the birth of the scientific journal. This event, and its early rhetorical consequences, *have been* well *described* in recent research. In contrast, few details *are known* concerning subsequent developments in scientific writing from the eighteenth century onward. (# 68-AL)

As shown above, the Past tense followed by a series of Present (Simple and Perfect) tenses is apparently used to indicate increasing proximity or generality. A second reason for an author to choose a more remote tense may be connected to his/her attitude towards previous research. In fact, these instances occurred in the context of stating a problem. Consider example [18]:

> [18] However, Pimsleur et al.'s estimate of standard rates of speech *was* based on one particular variety of English: that of radio news announcers. Moreover, Pimsleur et al.'s data *included* ... and *reflected* ... (# 38-AL)

In [18] above, the author's choice of Past tense appears to signal that past research is to be considered as less general, established knowledge, due to its narrowness of scope and inappropriateness.

MOVE 2 - PRESENTING THE RESEARCH

The role of Move 2, which I have labeled *presenting the research*, is to make a kind of promissory statement that justifies the present article. I have argued that authors are obliged to respond in some way to the propositional content of Move 1. In other words, if they have identified a neglected topic, they are expected by the reader to investigate that topic; if they have addressed a controversy, they are expected to help solve that controversy; if they have referred to a certain possibility for extending research, they are required now to indicate that they are about to describe their attempts to realize that possibility; and if they have raised a question (see Sub-move 2 - Hypothesis-raising below), they are expected to suggest where an answer might lie.

Ninety-three of the 94 abstracts contain a Move 2, which means that this is an obligatory move in abstracts. Further, Move 2 opens 61 abstracts while, in 30 instances, it follows Move 1. This evidence appears to suggest that a typical abstract opens with Move 2 (64%) or Move 1 followed by Move 2 (31%). The Second Move can take one of two forms: a *descriptive* form or a *purposive* form.

Sub-move 1A - Indicating Main Features

There are 74 instances of *Descriptive* Sub-moves, thus constituting almost the entirety of the cases in the corpus. Some examples are listed in [19a-f] below:

[19a] This paper investigates Japanese speakers' interlanguage constructions of English existential sentences with a locative sentential topic. (# 8-LL)

[19b] This study investigated the hypothesis that people with multiple language skills have different language-acquisition strategies than do people with single language skills. (# 6-LL)

[19c] This study examines the production of Yes/No questions by native speakers of English and speakers of Singapore English, a non-native regional variety. (# 39-AL)

[19d] This paper reports on an empirical analysis of the forms, strategies, and functions of complimenting in one genre of written discourse. (# 61-AL)

[19e] This article examines revision in controlled L1 and L2 writing tasks. (# 69-TQ)

[19f] This paper reports on a statistical analysis of ESL student evaluations of teacher in two large ESL programs. (# 86-TQ).

As can be inferred from these examples, there is a clearly predominating formula-like pattern employed by the authors in the corpus to signal their Move 2, as illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4. Move 2/Sub-move 1A Pattern

Deictic Item	Inquiry Type or Genre	Reporting Verb	
This (67)	study (39)	investigates (8)	
The (16)	paper (25)	investigated (12)	
	article (6)	examines	(11)
		examined	(4)
		reports	(11)

Interestingly, 11 instances of *The* was embedded in the following deictic pattern, as shown in Figure 5:

Figure 5. Deictic Pattern for *The*

The	present (5)	study		
The		study	reported	in this article (4) here (2)

Descriptive Sub-moves 1A are interesting for a number of reasons. Firstly, the above pattern seems to contain a restriction concerning the verb tense, and we can see this if we divide the head nouns of the noun phrase in two sets, as shown in Figure 6:

Figure 6. Head Noun Types in Move 2/Sub-move 1A

Set 1 (those that indicate the genre)	paper (25) article (6)
Set 2 (those that indicate the type of inquiry)	study (39) investigation (1) examination (1) experiment (1) analysis(1) survey (1)

While the 53 instances of the Present occurred with both Sets, all 19 examples of the past occurred with Set 2. It can be hypothesized that the past will not occur with Set 1. Compare examples in [20a-d]:

[20a] This study investigates ... (# 3-LL)

[20b] This study investigated ... (# 6-LL)

[20c] This paper investigates ... (# 8-LL)

[20d] *This paper investigated ...

A tentative explanation might be that Set 1 describes what is being reported now; Set 2 can be used to retell the story of the research.

Secondly, the pattern in Figure 4 can be seen as a collapsed structure (Swales 1990), that is, a locative and an agent underlies it. Compare examples in [21a,b]:

[21a] This study investigates ... (# 3-LL) (collapsed)

[21b] In this study, we investigate ... (# 59-AL) (uncollapsed)

Uncollapsed structures occurred only casually (7 cases):

[22a] ...we developed... and analyzed... (# 13-LL)

[22b] Here I show ... (# 48-AL)

[22c] In our study we investigated ... (# 53-AL)

[22d] In this study, we investigate ... (# 59-AL)

[22e] In this paper, ... are investigated ... (# 68-AL)

[22f] Specifically, we investigated ... (# 73-TQ)

[22g] In a survey, ...were asked to ... (# 91-TQ)

In most of the above examples, Sub-move 1A is signaled by an introductory phrase (locative) and reinforced by the use of we\l (agentive). Interestingly, the use of first person pronouns (I, we, our) is in each case the first or only use in the abstract. It can thus be argued that first person referents mark a shift from one move to the next - a move into the author's own research.

Sub-move 1B - Indicating Main Purpose

Seventeen of the 26 *Purposive* Sub-moves contain a mixture of forms that essentially carry the purposive nature via the verb phrase. Some examples are:

[23a] This experimental study *was designed to* ... (# 16-LL)

[23b] This study *attempted to* ... (# 30-LL)

[23c] ... *was analyzed in order to* ... (# 38-AL)

[23d] ... *was employed to* ... (# 43-AL)

[23e] In this analysis of ..., we *attempted to* ... (# 72-TQ)

[23f] This empirical investigation *sought to* ... (# 76-TQ)

The remaining 9 are nominal. They are:

[24a] The *purpose* of this study was to (7 instances)

[24b] ..., with the *aim* of ... (# 3-LL)

[24c] The *aim* is to ... (# 52-AL)

Sub-move 2 - Hypothesis-raising

Although Descriptive and Purposive statements are the dominant means of *Presenting the Research*, there is still another exponent for introducing the work to be reported. Eighteen Second Moves have been assigned to the category of Sub-move 2 - Hypothesis-raising. In hypothesis-raising statements, authors outline their research hypotheses or questions. Seven instances occur after the actual presentation of (Sub-move 1A/B). Thus, it would seem that this sub-move plays a supporting role in the presentation of research as it helps further detail the main features of the work in question. Observe how examples [25a,b] below use considerable textual window to provide a more clear-cut vision of the investigation to be reported.

[25a] This paper reports on ... The initial research questions of interest concerned the degree to which patterns in listener clarification questions could differentiate learners of varying proficiency, the degree to which use of clarification strategies (move types) could be explicitly taught (rather than developed alongside long-term gains in proficiency), and the extent to which strategy use influenced actual understanding of listening passages. (# 19-LL)

[25b] The study was undertaken to determine whether... It also investigated whether... The hypothesis concerned predictions that (1) when the interlocutors have relatively equal content knowledge, the NS will participate more and (2) when the interlocutors have relatively unequal knowledge of the domain, the relative content 'expert' (NS or NNS) will show more conversational participation. (# 58-AL)

In the other 11 instances, however, this move assumes the pivotal role of introducing the research either by opening the abstract (examples [26a,b]), by appearing early in the abstract where no other second move

is found (example [26c]), or still by merging with a purposive move (examples [26d,e]. Perhaps the question format in [26b,c] also helps signal that this is the case. Observe:

[26a] The superior control of cognitive processing demonstrated by children in the early stages of additive bilingualism *may* enhance symbolic reasoning abilities. The developmental interdependence of L1 and L2 *may* allow additive-bilingual children to maintain normal native-language development. (# 22-LL)

[26b] *Can a language rule impede learner's oral accuracy?* (# 42-AL)

[26c] ... *How well have they learnt the rules? Do they recognize where they are to be applied? Are they better at some rules than others? Above all, how is getting the language right related to explicit rule knowledge?.* (# 64-AL)

[26d] ... was analyzed in order to check *whether ... was applicable to* ... (# 38-AL)

[26e] ... to determine *whether ... could be differentiated* ... (# 54-AL)

Move Tense

In addition to their position in the abstract, another preferred way of marking hypothesis-raising statements is through tense choice. The figures for tense are given in Table 5 below:

Table 5. Tense in Move 2/Sub-move 2

Verb Tense	Total	%
Modals	16	43
Past Simple	13	35
Present Simple	6	16
Present Perfect	1	3
Present Continuous	1	3
	37	100

There is nothing particularly surprising about these figures. First, the low frequency of present and perfect tenses may be linked to the fact that hypotheses or assumptions are less easily carried by tenses that indicate knowledge generalizations. Second, since the assumptions being reported are not presumed to be established knowledge until they are confirmed, the writer's use of Past tense (usually move initial) may be seen as hedging. Examples in [27a-c] show this:

[27a] ... if they *were* rank ordered ... (# 26-LL)

[27b] ...The initial research questions of interest *concerned* ... (# 19-LL)

[27c] ... The hypothesis *concerned* ... (# 58-AL)

Third, a more immediate means of expressing assumptions may be through modality. Thus, I found would (5), could (3), can (3), may (3), and will (2). In this sense, sentences that could make statements about current knowledge are assigned a Sub-move 3 - Hypothesis-raising status due to the presence of a modal verb. Examples in [28a,b] illustrate this point:

*[28a] ... The concepts associated with time ... *present* an additional level of complexity for learners.

[28b] ... The concepts associated with time ... *can* present an additional level of complexity for learners. (# 91-TQ)

Modality, however, should not be restricted to modal verbs (Amos, Araújo, Santos 1991). Actually, modality is expressed through lexical verbs (regardless of tense) in a few instances, as shown in [29a-c] below:

[29a] ... It was *assumed* ... (# 3-LL)

[29b] ... These facts were *taken to* indicate ... It was also *expected that* ... (# 9-LL)

[29c] ... It was *hypothesized* ... (# 33-LL)

MOVE 3 - DESCRIBING THE METHODOLOGY

When the abstract-writer has completed the introduction of his/her research, s/he then needs to offer some description of how the research was actually carried out. Thus, this move indicates the design of the study in terms of subjects, procedures, materials, instruments, variables, according to the type of experimentation. The major exponent of Move 3 is including information on the subjects, followed closely by procedures.

Perhaps a more interesting finding has to do with the frequency with which this move occurs by itself and merges with other moves. In 27 abstracts, Move 3 appears as a separate move immediately after a purposive Move 2. On most occasions (64 instances), however, Move 3 merges with Move 2, either partially or totally. Example [30a] illustrates the realization of Move 2 and 3 in distinct sentences while example [30b] shows Moves 2 and 3 occurring within the same sentence boundary (move embedding):

[30a] This paper reports on an empirical analysis of the forms, strategies, and functions of complimenting in one genre of written discourse. *The data base is a set of 51 peer-review texts written in an academic setting.* (# 61-AL)

[30b] This study examines the responses of *60 Spanish, Chinese, and German L2 learners* to English sentences with empty pronominal categories (ECs). (# 9-LL)

Furthermore, it was observed that these *hybrid* moves differ in the amount of information that Move 3 carried out. There are cases of only a brief mention of, for instance, the data, and cases where Move 3 occupies considerable textual space. It can thus be argued that authors utilize different strategies to indicate the research design: (1) some authors delay the occurrence of Move 3, by placing it entirely in a post-Move 2 sentence; (2) others anticipate somehow that information by merging it with Move 2, although in a quick, *en passant* fashion; and, (3) still others may see the opening statement as a privileged window to project a bulk of information as early as possible. Consider the following examples of *hybrid* moves, where the content of Move 3 is initially less informative and eventually becomes heavily charged:

[31a] This paper is concerned with how *advanced L2 learners of English* interpret reflexive anaphors such as himself and pronominals such as him in sentences such as John said Peter helps himself and John said Peter helps him.(# 14-LL)

[31b] The purpose of the present study was to identify factors that predict the first- and second-language proficiency of *ethnic minority children at the age of 6 years*. (# 18-LL)

[31c] This study investigated the behaviors for processing language input demonstrated by *five adults beginning to learn Hindi as a second language through the Total Physical Response Method*. (# 54-AL)

[31d] This study investigates the listening comprehension of *388 high-intermediate listening proficiency (HILP) and low-intermediate listening proficiency (LILP) Chinese students of English as a foreign language*. (# 88-TQ)

A varied but common practice that was also found in these *hybrid* moves is the reversal of syntactic order of the moves, as in [32a-d]:

[32a] *Using three information transfer tasks and intervening discussion sessions,* we attempted to investigate the actual communicative outcomes of interaction prompted by the tasks. (# 30-LL)

[32b] *Using a qualitative discourse-analytic framework* this paper compares the planned spoken English *of a native speaker of Chinese whose English discourse was perceived by native speakers of English as difficult to follow with that of a native speaker of U.S. English.* (# 93-TQ)

[32c] *Seventy-five Panjabi-speaking pupils* were assessed on their expression of the English modal auxiliaries can, could, may, and might. (# 45-AL)

[32d] In this analysis of the performance of *233 international graduate assistants during a 2-year period,* we attempted, *via Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and Graduate Record Exam (GRE) scores submitted at the time of application,* to predict which of these students would eventually receive positive or negative recommendations to be assigned teaching duties. (# 72-TQ)

It would be expected that Move 3 should occur after Move 2. However, the syntax allows the reversal of syntactic order of the two moves (Bhatia 1993). A possible explanation for such practice of embedding and reversed syntactical sequence of the initial moves in abstracts may be that the author feels s/he has to compete for the attention of a busy readership and if s/he can not attract the interest of his/her reader in the first statement(s), his/her case may be lost. The embedding of two (or more) moves is a typical phenomenon across all five moves (and sub-moves) of the abstract. One case of note is given in example [33] below, where the authors gradually describe their subjects throughout the abstract. So, in the first *hybrid* move (Move 1 - *Situating the Research*

and Move 3 - *Describing the Methodology*), the reader learns that subjects were *L2 learners;* the second move (Move 2 - *Presenting the Research* and Move 3 - *Describing the Methodology*) reveals that they were *two different pairings of learners;* and the third move (Move 3- *Describing the Methodology* and Move 4 - *Summarizing the Results*) eventually adds further information on the subjects (their proficiency level and interactive role).

> [33] Extending the research done on the effects of different types of task and different participant arrangements used to foster negotiated interaction among *L2 learners,* we developed a task that presents specific referential conflicts and analyzed the solutions adopted within *two different pairings of learners. Pairs in which the higher proficiency member had the dominant role* engaged in little interactive cooperation and in some cases changed the task rather than negotiate a solution. *Pairs in which the higher proficiency member had the nondominant role* engaged in substantial negotiational work .... (# 13-LL)

Move 3 Openings

Whenever Move 3 occurs independently, it opens with a syntactic subject realized by the data, subjects, procedures, materials, instruments, variables, rather than by the protagonists. Examples [34a-e] provide illustration of Move 3 openings:

> [34a] The 220 communication strategies employed by 12 Chinese EFL learners of both high and low proficiency in their target language communication with native speakers were identified and analyzed. (# 4-LL)

> [34b] Thirty-two academic advising sessions between faculty advisors and both native and highly proficient nonnative graduate students were examined. (# 11-LL)

[34c] Concurrent think-aloud protocols, as well as immediate and delayed retrospective reports were collected over twenty teaching sessions. (# 54-AL)

[34d] Sixty reading passage speech samples from SPEAK Test tapes of speakers from 11 language groups were rated impressionistically ... (# 36-LL)

[34e] The key variables investigated were ... (# 62-AL)

It seems clear from the above evidence that in Move 3, in contrast to Moves 1 and 2, there tends to be no signal of onset. Actually, the thematization of data, procedures, etc. can be said to mark Move 3 onset. However, in 22 instances, the writer does overtly indicate to the reader that s/he is in the process of describing the methodology. There are 7 cases where the start of the research design is signaled by a preparatory phrase:

[35a] To these ends ... (# 10-LL)

[35b] Through discriminant analysis, ... (# 34-LL)

[35c] In two subsequent experiments, ... (# 35-LL)

[35d] Over a two-week period, ... (# 59-AL)

[35e] Through the use of a modification of the matched guise technique, ... (# 76-TQ)

[35f] In one study, ... (# 29-LL)

[35g] In a survey, ... (# 91-TQ)

In 2 instances, a non-finite clause marks the onset of Move 3:

[36a] Using 3 information transfer tasks and intervening discussion sessions, ... (# 30-LL)

[36b] Using a qualitative discourse-analytic framework, ... (# 93-TQ)

In further 13 cases, Move 3 opens or contains an indication of time sequencing. This evidence might suggest that authors who offer a detailed description of the methodology want to signal to the reader the onset, development, and offset of move 3, as shown in [37a-m]:

[37a] The first phase of the study... (# 19-LL)

[37b] In this phase of the study, ... (# 19-LL)

[37c] The second phase of the study... (# 19-LL)

[37d] In the first comparison, ... (# 22-LL)

[37e] In the second comparison, ... (# 22-LL)

[37f] In addition, ... (# 25-LL)

[37g] In study 1 ... (# 32-LL)

[37h] In study 2 ... (# 32-LL)

[37i] Also, ... (# 32-LL)

[37j] First, ... (# 61-AL)

[37k] In the first phase of this study, ... (# 74-TQ)

[37l] In the second phase of this study, ... (# 74-TQ)

[37m] After the lecture, ... (# 88-TQ)

Move 3 Tense and Voice

Naturally enough, Move 3, as the discoursal move that is used to retell the story of the research proper, is almost exclusively *past* (96%). Of particular interest is the fact that this switch into the past is accompanied by a switch into the passive (70%). This preferred impersonal style predominates for the rest of the move. It can be concluded that tense-voice correlation necessarily implies move signaling, an additional device researchers might use to establish for their readership where they have

currently got to in their abstract. The figures for tense and voice are given in Table 6 below:

Table 6. Tense and Voice in Move 3

Verb Tense	Total	%
Past Simple	140	96
Present Simple	6	4
Passive	103	70
Active	43	30

MOVE 4 - SUMMARIZING THE RESULTS

Whereas the preceding moves contain answers to questions such as *What was the problem?*, *How did you study the problem?*, Move 4 provides an answer to the following question *What did you find?* Move 4, thus, summarizes briefly the main findings of the research, and indicates how the data was manipulated. Some typical examples of the exponents of results-statement are given in [38a-h] below:

[38a] Results showed that moderately fast speech rates resulted in a significant reduction in comprehension, but ... (# 7-LL)

[38b] Findings revealed two key areas of performance that ... (# 10-LL)

[38c] A factor analysis of the ESL teacher's data revealed ... (# 15-LL)

[38d] The results showed that the Experimental group performed significantly higher in writing both in the post and follow-up testing. Although this was not found for speaking, ... (# 16-LL)

[38e] Results showed that there were no differences in levels of awareness..., nor were there any differences in the quantity of

information recalled between text structures. However, ...
(# 25-LL)

[38f] The data demonstrate that routine international sequences in these classrooms are consistent with ... (# 37-LL)

[38g] The analysis showed that native speaking learners and foreign learners shared an order of difficulty:... (# 44-AL)

[38h] The study found no significant differences in the level of modification occurring (# 46-AL)

[38i] Outcomes of several measures reveal participation patterns which can be explained by the interlocutors' relative content knowledge. (# 58-AL)

[38j] The results, for the most part, indicate striking similarities across languages. (# 69-TQ)

[38k] The research reported here demonstrates that across cloze tests considered, the standard fixed-ratio procedure has a high level of ... (# 70-TQ)

[38l] The results indicated that the judgments of L2 subjects differed from those of L1 subjects and that ... (# 76-TQ)

As the above list indicates, in Move 4 the signaling optimally occurs at the beginning of the stretch articulating the move. In the corpus, there is significant variation in the lexical items chosen for the opening noun. The more common signals, in decreasing order of frequency, are: *results, analysis, study, findings, outcome, evidence, data, and research.* In that respect, Move 4 exponents are typically marked by the absence of references to *the present authors* but only to their products. Of the 94 abstracts, there is only one in which the protagonists occur in Move 4. Here it is:

[39] We find that there is, indeed, an underlying rhetorical structure common to all language groups and disciplines, but ... (# 55-AL)

In fact, there are a number of observations that can be made about the exponents - and signals - of Move 4s. A first observation concerns voice and tense in this move. Contrary to what manuals prescribe, 37 Moves 4 contain verbs in the passive, most commonly *was found, was observed, was noted, was shown, was demonstrated.* This evidence might be correlated with thematization. Similarly to Move 3, the researcher is non-thematic in Move 4. It is *results, analyses, data* which are generally placed into syntactic subject that represent thematic information . It thus can be hypothesized that if *results, analyses, data* representing the thematic information are the object of the clause, the passive is to be preferred. Examples are given in [40a-e] below:

[40a] The language distance between the learner's L1 and L2 *is* also *found* to affect their choice of communication strategies. (# 4-LL)

[40b] The extent of caretaker interaction in the first language *was* also positively *related* to the children's bilingual proficiency level. (# 18-LL)

[40c] Significant differences between the groups *were found* in two categories: ... (# 43-AL)

[40d] The beneficial effect of earlier age of first exposure to English *was demonstrated* by the better overall performance of ... (# 45-AL)

[40e] A significant interaction between prior knowledge (familiar vs. unfamiliar topic] and test type (passage-independent vs. passage-dependent items) *was* also *found.* (# 88-TQ)

On the other hand, the thematization of *results, analyses, data* in active sentences (77%) might be deliberately designed to create an additional effect in the academic readership: an *impersonal, neutral, scientific* tone in Move 4. In the examples below observe how this practice might imply the authors' detachment from what was being reported (Tadros 1985). So to speak, it is not the experimenter who is supposed to be talking, but her/his research package. Observe:

[41a] A factor analysis of the ESL teacher's data revealed five factors: ...
A factor analysis of the nonteachers' data yielded four factors: ...
A factor analysis of the combined-group data revealed five factors:
A MANOVA and a series of univariate analysis of ... showed ... (# 15-LL)

[41b] 'Less successful' learners showed ...
Slower learners repeated ...
... two of the 'more successful learners used
... they also exhibited ... (# 54-AL)

[41c] English native speakers were more ...
English native-speaking professors and graduate students gave more...
Japanese undergraduates evaluated ... much more ...
ENSs provided far more ...
JNSs left many ... (# 83-TQ)

For reasons comparable to those discussed in connection with Move 3 *Describing the Methodology*, there seems to be a strong preference for Past tense (78%), most presumably because reference to one's own research results requires a narrower claim. On the other hand, some authors risk to choose a Present tense. This less frequent practice can

presumably be seen as a bold attempt to imply that the research reported has yielded indisputable, established knowledge. Table 7 shows figures for voice and tense:

Table 7. Tense and Voice in Move 4

Tense / Voice	Passive	Active	Total
Past Simple	46 (20%)	134 (58%)	180 (78%)
Present Simple	8 (3%)	43 (19%)	51 (22%)
Total	54 (23%)	177 (77%)	

Second, Move 4, as the discoursal move that is largely taken up with statements of similarity and difference, comprises exponents which frame findings in *comparative structures* (61 instances).

[42a] ... for slow learners, L2 presented a *heavier* processing load ... *than* it did ... (# 12-LL)

[42b] Non teachers rated student's ... significantly *higher than* did ... (# 15-LL)

[42c] ... revealed *greater* and *more* consistent growth in ... *than* for ... (# 16-LL)

[42d] Experienced raters were *more* reliable and *more* lenient in ... *than* ... (# 17-LL)

[42e] ... appeared to be the *most* significant factor affecting ... (# 26-LL)

[42f] ... the prosodic variable proved to be the *strongest* effect. (# 36-LL)

[42g] ... showed a *greater* reliance on ... (# 54-AL)

[42h] The *largest* difference in Spanish proficiency was found ... (# 62-AL)

[42i] ... is virtually the *same* from ... (# 70-TQ)

[42j] Proficient L2 readers performed *similarly* to ...(# 87-TQ)

[42k] Those subjects who... had *higher* ... scores (# 88-TQ)

In other cases, results are often encompassed in *contrastive structures*, signaled by such adversative connectors as *but* (11), *whereas* (6), *(al)though* (5), and *however (5)*. The frequent occurrence of such exponents most certainly should facilitate the readers' journey through long segments of results-statements.

[43a] Interest in ... distinguished ... *On the other hand*, interest in characterized ... (# 5-LL)

[43b] *However, whereas* the subscales of ... tended to show ..., little support... (# 21-LL)

[43c] *Despite* variations in procedure, ... (# 32-LL)

[43d] *Though* there were differences between ..., none ... (# 43-AL)

[43e] The study found no significant differences in... *but* found significant ... (# 46-AL)

[43f] Associated with these tendencies was a greater focus on..., *rather than* on ... (# 54-AL)

[43g] Some variations characterize the discipline *rather than* ... (# 55-AL)

[43h] *In turn*, adult language choice ... (# 62-AL)

[43i] ..., *but instead* was predicted by ... (# 62-AL)

[43j] *However*, some differences are noted, ...(# 69-TQ)

[43k] learners ..., *though* they sometimes ... (# 71-TQ)

[43l] *In contrast*, when students ..., they tended ... (# 75-TQ)

Third, since a number of authors in the sample have worked under the tradition of qualitative research, they may feel that the nature of their results makes it discoursally wise to convey them through descriptive evaluative claims. Interestingly, the occurrence of evaluative lexical items

is very high (126 instances: adjectives, 70; adverbs, 36; nouns, 25 instances), of which the adjective *significant* (18), the noun *difference* (21), and the adverb *significantly* (12) are the commonest. Consider these further examples: large differences, largest differences, a significant difference, some differences, no differences, any differences, major difference, fundamental differences, high, higher, significantly higher, variable, good, adequate, remarkable, critical, generally less successful, always significantly related, slightly more difficult – all these terms might be seen as authors' attempt to present results in a more evaluative generalized fashion. The very high frequency of descriptive results might also be connected with a deliberate avoidance of numerical results. While it is clear that a considerable number of studies in the sample used statistical analyses as part of their methodology, numerical argumentation found its way into only 3 abstracts of these statistical language studies, as given in [44a-c]:

[44a] Improvement of note at the 0.05 level of significance was found for ... (# 10-LL)

[44b] ... a repeated measures ANCOVA ... indicated..., $F(1,35)=5.85$, $p=.02$.
... were revealed between groups, $t=.15$, $p=.88$, $N=37$. (# 22-LL)

[44c] ... was still observed...: $r=-.54$ for subjects of...; $r=-.73$ for subjects who ... (# 29-LL)

In the examples above, the statistical figures seem to be providing a further specification of more generalized results. While statistical reasoning is not to be taken as a meaningless enterprise (Brown 1991), it is quite possible that authors apparently prefer to substitute a *familiar*

language (words) for a rather *foreign* language (numbers) in the visualization of results, thus avoiding turning off a less statistically-proficient readership.

A last observation concerns the presence of negative exponents in Move 4 (Pagano 1992). In 37 cases, the authors present their findings for purposes of comparisons by employing negative elements. Most of the negations are signaled via verb phrases (*was not, were not*) or negative quantifiers (*no, nor, little*). There are only three cases of lexical negation. Observe the cases in [45a-h] below:

[45a] Differences in ... *were not* significant. (# 15-LL)

[45b] ..., and *was not* predicted by the subject's language choice ... (# 62-AL)

[45c] ... but the LILP students *did not.* (# 88-TQ)

[45d] ... *little* psychometric support for ... was found. (# 21-LL)

[45e] ... there were *no* differences in ..., *nor* were there any differences in ... (# 25-LL)

[45f] Though there were differences between ..., *none* were found to ... (# 43-AL)

[45g] A strong *negative* correlation was still observed between ... (# 29-LL)

[45h] ... though they sometimes applied strategies *inappropriately.* (# 71-TQ)

The use of negation in move 4, then, appears to be associated with the author needing to indicate the absence of *y* and *z*. Presumably, what is *not* found is as significant as what *is* found. Conversely, in other instances, authors are found employing negation in order to state whether

the hypotheses raised in Move 2 are actually confirmed or rejected. Observe:

[46a] But this outcome *was not fully* supported by the data as it was only the Spanish Ss and *not* the Chinese Ss whose ... (# 9-LL)

[46b] Surprisingly, self-corrections *did not* prove a good indicator. (# 10-LL)

[46c] Perceptions were found to be multidimensional *not* unidimensional. (# 15-LL)

[46d] As expected, *no* significant differences were revealed between groups, t=.15, p=.88, N=37. (# 22-LL)

[46e] *Neither* production *nor* identification errors were ranked in the predicted order. (# 26-LL)

[46f] It was found that this was *not* the case ... (# 38-AL)

[46g] The relationship of ... showed ... during the first year of graduate study, but *not* thereafter. (# 72-TQ)

The above evidence therefore appears to suggest that, particularly in Move 4, the recommendation offered by manuals not to include negatives does not hold true.

MOVE 5 - DISCUSSING THE RESEARCH

After looking more closely at the problem than most other people, the researcher is therefore in a position to advance the significance of his/her work, i.e., to make claims relative to the value or implications of the results obtained (Meurer 1994). The term I have settled on to characterize this ending move is *Discussing the Research*. This

expression in some respect covers both the *evaluation of findings*, and also the other type of sub-move which characterizes the *linking of the reported research back to the broad research field*. In other words, Move 5 makes claims based on reported findings which are typically realized by two sub-moves:

Sub-move 1 - Drawing Conclusions

The major exponent of Move 5 is Drawing Conclusions. There are as many as 50 instances of Sub-move 1 in the corpus. Conclusion-statements are meant to answer the question *What do the findings mean?* In this sense, they offer explanations about results summarized in Move 4. These explanations can either occur embedded inside Move 4 or in a distinct sentence. Examples in [47a,b] illustrate move embedding, whereas examples in [47c,d] show Sub-move 1 operating by itself.

[47a] *The results of Test 2 suggest that* although some students did not use the target-like constructions in Test 1, *this does not mean that they cannot use it under other conditions*.(# 8-LL)

[47b] This increased marking in the planned condition appeared to contribute significantly to comprehensibility, *suggesting that explicit marking of discourse structure is a crucial element of the comprehensibility of nonnative-speaker production*. (# 92-TQ)

[47c] *These results are interpreted as evidence that input enhancement can bring about genuine changes in learners' interlanguage systems*. (# 59-AL)

[47d] *The results suggest that misunderstanding of coreferential ties reflects a misunderstanding of the descriptive phrases to which the pronouns refer*. (# 74-TQ)

Conclusion-statements can fall into two categories: the author may offer a definite conclusion or draw a hypothetical conclusion from the data. In example [48], the writer employs both types in the summarization of her conclusions. Note that the onset (and development) of the hypothetical conclusion is naturally marked by modality devices (*possibility, may, possible*).

[48] Results suggest that factors which affect the acquisition of L2 pronunciation depend on type of primary exposure to L2, and that perception of a foreign accent depends on language samples presented for judgment and on the linguistic experience of listeners. The study also raises the *possibility* that the acquisition of fully accentless speech in L2 *may not be possible* if L1 is maintained at a high level of proficiency, not matter how young the age at which the individual started to acquire the second language. (# 17-LL)

The arrival at the final move of the abstract, in this case Sub-move 1, is clearly signaled in a number of ways. The principal signal is the use of verbs like *suggest, interpret,* as shown in [49a-e]:

[49a] The findings *suggest* that the error predictions for initial/final segments can be neutralized by the requirements of producing and perceiving particular speech sound. (# 26-LL)

[49b] The findings *suggest* that our notions of what constitutes target-like use remain ill-defined. (# 39-AL)

[49c] The results *suggest* that misunderstanding of coreferential ties reflects a misunderstanding of the descriptive phrases to which the pronouns refer. (# 74-TQ)

[49d] Results *were interpreted* to support Vygotsky's (1978) assertion that the mediation of language is an essential part of nonverbal problem-solving and Lambert's (1984) notion of "additive-bilingual" settings. (# 22-LL)

[49e] These results *are interpreted* in terms of the deficits created by anxiety during the cognitive processing of L2 stimuli. (# 23-LL)

There also seems to be a tendency for the signal (via verb phrase) to occur as early as possible - as examples in [50a-c] show - and the only items that precede them are occasional linking phrases such as *Based on the results of this study*. In such cases, the author strategically employs a fronted passive (Johns 1992), perhaps in an attempt to advance what is to come, and thus encourage a potential but hasty readership to read on for a few extra seconds.

[50a] *It is suggested* that the results show that parameter settings are related to performance as well as to grammatical competence. (# 14-LL)

[50b] *It is suggested* that L2 communicative effectiveness in an information transfer task will be enhanced when the speaker is led to think primarily about the listener's needs rather than the form of the speaker's message. (# 30-LL)

[50c] *It is concluded* that large-scale testing of oral communication is a practical proposition. (# 40-AL)

[50d] *It is concluded* that, while little sentence-level simplification is used by the tutors, extensive use is made of conversational and tutorial strategies similar to those used by native and non-native adults. (# 49-AL)

[50e] *It is argued* that writers use complimenting discourse strategies to establish and maintain rapport and to mitigate both global and specific face-threatening acts and that these social purposes help to account for both their frequency and patterning in the texts. (# 61-AL)

[50f] *It is argued* that these differences in discourse-level patterns interfere ...(# 93-TQ)

Still another signal of *Drawing Conclusions* is the use of deictic references to the findings or data being reported. The commonest signals are *this* and *these*. Typical examples are given below:

[51a] *These findings* lend strong support to our hypothesis that learner's communicative competence could probably be increased by development of their strategic competence. (# 4-LL)

[51b] *This finding* is discussed within a theoretical framework emphasizing the differentia long-term effect of experimenter-imposed versus subject-generated encodings. (# 32-LL)

[51c] *These data* suggest that L2 literacy development is a complex phenomenon...(# 73-TQ)

[51d] *This incongruity* raised several issues pertinent to the learnability and teachability of second languages for Native populations. (# 89-TQ)

In connection with the above argued, a fourth practice for the marking of Sub-move 1 is the reappearance of reference to the genre or type of inquiry, which was found to be so characteristic of Move 2 - *Presenting the Research*. Examples are given in [52a-e]:

[52a] The results of this second phase of the *study* indicate that prior training of learners in specific questioning strategies can exert an effect on their subsequent behavior in interactions and can influence their immediate comprehension of a text as well. (# 19-LL)

[52b] The *study* suggests that the level of challenge of a task, measured by its procedural or interpretive nature, may be an important variable in ensuring that the learners are pushed into framing their ideas in more novel language and thus have opportunities to 'learn' and not only to 'practice'. (# 46-AL)

[52c] This *research* provides evidence of the importance of case studies in verifying critical assumptions about second language learning. (# 71-TQ)

[52d] The results of this *study* suggest that the content comprehension approach can improve reading comprehension ... (# 77-TQ)

[52e] The limited results of this *investigation* suggest that grammar task encouraged communication about grammar and enabled EFL learners to increase their knowledge of a difficult L2 rule. (# 79-TQ)

A final option in the signaling of conclusion-statements is an overt nominal reference to the function of Move 5. Abbreviated examples are:

[53a] The main *conclusions* of this study are: ... (#'53-AL)

[53b] The *conclusions* are that ...(# 80-TQ)

[53c] The *discussion* concerns the ... (# 14-LL)

Sub-move 2 - Giving Recommendations

Recommendation-offers are meant to answer the question *So what?* Therefore, Sub-move 2 may briefly outline suggestions for future practice or investigation. There were only 12 instances of Sub-move 2 in the sample, thus being a rather marginal means of indicating a discussion (see Move 5 Loss below). Nevertheless, whenever recommendation-statements occurs, it is often immediately after a Move 4 - *Summarizing the Results* (8 instances), that is, in the absence of Sub-move 1. Examples are:

[54a] L1 learners understood ... Tutored L2 learners could understand ... *The research emphasizes the relevance of pedagogical practices to the foreign language learning process as opposed to so-called "natural sequences".* (# 24-LL)

[54b] Students highlighted ... Students also identified ... *In contrast to contemporary polarized models, the paper demonstrates the necessity of integrating training and development in teacher education.* (# 82-TQ)

[54c] Proficient L2 readers performed ...; less proficient L2 readers performed ... *Caution is advised in applying the results of L1 research to L2 readers.* (# 87-TQ)

In the remaining 4 cases, recommendation-offers operate independently and are logically found after Sub-move 1 *Drawing of Conclusions*, as example [55] illustrates:

[55] Issues regarding construct and predictive validity are addressed, and it is suggested that well-designed cloze tests are capable of assessing language skills ranging from basic to advance. *Use of cloze tests in their fixed-ratio deletion, exact-word scored format is recommended, with certain limiting considerations, as a substitute for essay tests on English proficiency examinations.* (# 20-LL)

Similarly to Sub-move 1, *Giving Recommendations* are very easy to spot as signaling is preferably carried out overtly via lexical items (usually a verb and/or noun), as shown in example [56a-d]:

[56a] *This necessitates* recognition of two types of listening test: (1) orally presented tests of general language comprehension, and (2) tests of the listening trait proper. (# 31-LL)

[56b] *Based on the results of this study*, a model integrating both reversed subtitling and bimodal input into a complete curriculum *is advocated.* (# 35-LL)

[56c] The findings of this study ... support the *need for* second language teacher preparation programs to provide opportunities for preservice ESL teachers to understand the dynamics of how they think and act as they learn to teach. (# 90-TQ)

[56d] My findings indicate *a need for* ... *Other areas* in which my findings suggest *further research* are ... Finally, my findings *call for* ... (# 48-AL)

MOVE 5 LOSS

A final observation about the exponents of Move 5 concerns loss of Move 5 status. In as many as 16 instances, the authors leave the reader guessing instead of delivering the hard facts. According to standard classification, such statements are categorized as indicative. It follows that such indicative statements neither do the job of Move 5, in particular, nor serve the purpose of the abstract, as a whole. It can thus be argued that lack of informativeness implies loss of Move 5 status. Here are a few examples:

[57a] The significance of these findings as well as directions for future research are discussed. (# 1-LL)

[57b] Implications and conclusions of the results to foreign language learning are drawn. (# 2-LL)

[57c] The implications of these results are discussed. (# 8-LL)

[57d] Suggestions for teaching and further research conclude the paper. (# 43-AL)

[57e] and implications for second language learning are discussed. (# 57-AL)

[57f] A final section discusses implications for pedagogy. (# 66-AL)

[57g] Possible applications of these findings are discussed. (# 81-TQ)

In all of the above instances, the reader's journey through the abstract ends up with a touch of a mystery tour. All in all, there is no doubt that writers who opt for a descriptive type of recommendation seem to attempt to convince their readership that their research has potential usefulness. This attempt, nevertheless, is a turn-off for the reader for purposes of decision-making.

Manuals and Handbooks Revisited

In Chapter 3, I made reference to several points raised in manuals and handbooks. In this section, I briefly present what actual practice revealed concerning those points and thus answer the research questions (at the micro level of analysis) posed in the introduction.

Definition

In dealing with post-graduate students who need to write the abstract of their dissertation in English, I often try to define what an abstract is to justify my revising cuts or additions. Definitions like "a very short version of the whole paper" (Day 1979:24) certainly help. However, the use of metaphors seems to me to be a more successful strategy to add to students' understanding of what abstracts are. The two metaphors that appear to hit several nails directly on the head are: (i) an abstract is like the tip of an iceberg, that is to say, just as iceberg tips give a rough indication of what is submerged, good abstracts give an approximate idea of the content of an article; and (ii) an abstract is like a window, that is to say, just as windows provide visibility, abstracts allow an intended readership to see the essence of a paper.

Designation

A communicative event is necessarily named by those who have sufficient expertise about the genre-specific conventions. The only genre name adopted by the three journals is *abstracts*. Since genre-naming adds to our understanding of what a communicative event is all about (Swales 1990:54), the metalanguages (*summary, synopsis, précis*) used by the technical writing literature may only add confusion and therefore have to be considered carefully.

Place and Communicative Purpose

The common practice is to place the abstract after the title and before the beginning of the paper; it is not found on a separate sheet at the beginning or after Discussion at the end of the article. This strategic positioning tells us something of the communicative purpose of abstracts: it helps the reader to make an informed decision about whether the full article (or parts of it) deserves further attention. This can be so because abstracts are necessarily more informative than titles and conveniently shorter than the whole text.

Types of Abstracts

Following standardized terminology, the 94 abstracts in the corpus may be categorized as *informative* abstracts. In reply to a request for clarification (see appendix 2), Cumming (*personal communication*) and McKay (*personal communication*), editors of LL and TQ, respectively, kindly informed this researcher that "abstracts are the sole responsibility of the author. The only changes that are typically made are minor editorial changes". Therefore, the present abstracts may be classified as author abstracts. It can be argued, however, that the categorizations offered by manuals do not serve the purpose of helping researchers and students write quality abstracts.

Paragraph Structuring

In a *quick and dirty* analysis of older issues of LL, AL, and TQ, abstracts are almost without exception confined to one single paragraph. In the corpus examined in this study, 19 abstracts are made up of more than one paragraph. (see Table 8 below). This current practice seems to suggest that paragraph structuring can be seen as a further signal to indicate move shift. In the fifteen abstracts organized with two or three paragraphs, a new paragraph indicates, for example, the shift to Move 3 *Describing the Methodology* or Move 4 *Summarizing the Results* or still Move 5 *Discussing the Research*.

Table 8. **Paragraph Structuring in the 94 Abstracts**

Number of paragraphs	1	2	3	4	5	6
Number of abstracts	75	7	8	2	1	1

Length

Although the average length of the abstracts in the corpus (207 words) is in accordance with the recommendation found in manuals (250 words or less), it was generally felt that any fixed length may be arbitrary. First, an abstract should be as long as the researcher feels it is necessary to inform her/his peers what merits further attention. Second, abstract length seems to be affected by the nature of what needs to be condensed.

Style of Sentence and Words and Prohibitions

As abstracts are written in a narrative rather than in a point form (as opposed to *summaries*), there is little need to advise the use of complete

sentences instead of *telegraphese*. Concerning verb tense and voice, evidence suggests a differential distribution of tense and voice across the five moves of the abstract. Interestingly, tense-change can give the reader an indication of where the writer has got to in his abstract. Concerning person, the predominating use is of third persons (the present study, this article, [subjects], results), but first person referents may naturally be used in Move 2 - *Presenting the Research* to mark a move into the author's own research. With reference to the absence of negative sentences, it was found that negation, not necessarily negative sentences signaled via verb phrases, assumed different discourse functions as they marked the statement of a problem in Move 1 and the confirmation/rejection of hypotheses In Move 4 *Summarizing the Results*.

The extensive use of jargon such as *morphemes, allomorphs, oral and nasal stops, foreigner register, speaker's interlanguage; topic-comment structure, subject-predicate structure, empty pronouns, finite clauses, anaphors, additive-bilingual children, prosody* may suggest that authors assume a considerable familiarity with the field and topic under investigation from their readership. By the same token, acronyms such as *ESL, EFL, FLL, L1, L2, NS, NNS, TESL, TOEFL, SVO* are quite common though rarely defined. On the other hand, the employment of less familiar abbreviations are usually followed by their definition. As expressions like *ENS for English native speaker, JNS for Japanese native speaker, HILP for high-intermediate listening proficiency, and LILP for low-intermediate listening proficiency* occurred more than once in the abstract, the rationale for the use of such abbreviations is simply to save space.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Throughout this dissertation I have dealt with abstracts in journal research articles as a specific genre or text-type. Initially, I made reference to the pivotal role of this communicative event for the dissemination of knowledge within research communities. I then argued that the main motivations for an investigation into academic abstracts were my observations that (i) the Applied Linguistic and Discourse analysis literature has yielded few investigations into the genre-specific conventions of abstracts; and (ii) the technical writing literature has paid only marginal attention to abstracts.

After the selection of a referenced and adequate corpus, I have attempted to develop a move analysis which reflects the characteristics of the genre itself. At the macro level of analysis, I have attempted an account of the discourse organization of abstracts. I have tentatively proposed that abstracts are firmly embedded within a 5-move organization. The five major moves have been glossed as:

1. Situating the Research
2. Presenting the Research
3. Describing Methodology
4. Summarizing Results
5. Discussing the Research

At the micro level of analysis, I have put forward textual evidence to justify why abstracts are written the way they are. In particular, I have

tried to argue that different moves serve different genre purposes and thus require different linguistic resources to realize those purposes, such as negation, thematization, tense choice, voice choice, paragraph structuring, etc.

The genre analysis described in this research raises a number of issues. A first issue concerns the genre-specific conventions of abstracts. It may be tentatively concluded that (1) the size of textual space allocated for each move (*move balance*), (2) the blending of moves into the same statement (*move embedding*), and (3) the reversed sequences of moves (*move reversal*) are the major genre-specific features of abstracts. *Move balance* is apparently connected with the author's need to offer wide textual space or visibility to that aspect of the research being reported which s/he feels is the most relevant. In other words, the more important a move is, the longer, and thus the more visible it will be. *Move embedding* as well as *move reversal* can be explained in terms of the author's need to produce a more cohesive text, since abstracts seem to be , in Hallydayan terms (1985), strong on coherence but weak on cohesion (Swales 1990:168). In other words, by embedding moves within one another and reversing the syntactical sequence of moves, authors avoid the creation of a text whose sentences read like "checklists" or "islands in a string".

A second issue is the apparent mismatch between recommendation in the technical writing literature and actual practice. As an applied linguist, I would certainly wish to advance the need of incorporating applied language studies findings into instructional materials, otherwise prescriptions run the risk of becoming obsolete.

Finally, as applied to this study of abstracts, I would also wish to argue that genre analysis is certainly a powerful tool that reveals the rationale that shapes the design of a standardized communicative event. Nevertheless, genre analysis has one major limitation: it can only say something about individual texts (Dudley-Evans 1987). It follows that the more I have to say about research article abstracts, the less I have to say about review article abstracts or about research article introductions.

Following van Dijk's (1988) recommendation that specialized genres (or discourse types in his terms) may require special training to be acquired, the proposed pattern may present potential advantages for novice researchers struggling with research reporting. For one thing, by providing research writers with a pattern that will help them to concisely organize and present their study, the proposed framework may force them to be more accurate, selective, and straightforward in their thinking and writing. For another, the suggested organization may allow faster and more precise, critical readings as a researcher may be interested in one aspect of research (for example, results, or research design).

Further research might throw light on questions like: Does the abstract vary from one disciplinary field to another in terms of degree of standardization? From one language to another? It would also be interesting to carry out an experimental study to test the validity of the tentative pattern proposed here.

At the introduction of this dissertation, I made reference to a novice researcher struggling with research reporting. By looking at one academic genre, and one that plays a pivotal role in facilitating one's entry into his/her research community, I have showed that abstracts are not an amateur affair. Ultimately, this research has attempted to enable these

struggling researchers to *see* what is concealed in an abstract. Pascal
well expresses the essence of my work (cited in Coe 1981):

> A town or a countryside, seen from a distance, is a town or a
> countryside. But as one draws closer, they are houses, trees,
> tiles, leaves, grasses, plants, weeds, ants, legs of ants, ad
> infinitum. All this is enveloped in the name countryside.'

APPENDIX 1

1e Divisibility of Language Competence: A Confirmatory Approach

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Egypt

Lyle F. Bachman
University of California at Los Angeles

Gary A. Cziko
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

[1] The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of second language proficiency with respect to its divisibility and components. [2] Specifically, the correlated-traits and the second-order hypotheses were evaluated using 334 university students learning English as a second language, a wide range of language proficiency measures, and confirmatory data-analytic techniques. [3] The focus was to determine the extent to which each model represented the data. [4] The results of this study provide evidence supporting both models. [5] The significance of these findings as well as directions for future research are discussed.

Factors Predicting Success in EFL Among Culturally Different Learners*

Elite Olshtain
Elana Shohamy
Judy Kemp
Rivka Chatow
Tel-Aviv University

[1] The paper reports on a multivariate study that examined the contribution of two independent variables—cognitive/academic proficiency in L1 and attitudes and motivation toward English as a foreign language—on success in English as a foreign language of two culturally different learners, one identified as a socio-culturally disadvantaged group and the other as a "regular" group. [2] A description of the development of the instruments used to measure the variables is provided, the results of which indicated that academic proficiency in L1 played the most important role in predicting success in FLL in school context are reported. [3] Within cognitive/academic proficiency in L1 it is awareness of language use, register, and ability to correct errors in L2 that emerged as the subvariables that differentiated best among the two groups of students. [4] Implications and conclusions of the results to foreign language learning are drawn.

Conceptualizing Motivation in Foreign-Language Learning*

Zoltán Dörnyei
Eötvös University, Budapest

[1] This study investigates the components of motivation in foreign-language learning (FLL)—which involves learning the target language in institutional/academic settings without regularly interacting with the target language community. [2] It was assumed that the results obtained from second-language acquisition (SLA) contexts—those in which the target language is learned at least partly embedded in the host environment—are not directly applicable to FLL situations. [3] Therefore a motivational questionnaire was developed and administered to 134 learners of English in Hungary, a typical European FLL environment, with the aim of defining the relevance and characteristics of integrativeness and instrumentality in FLL, as well as to locate other motivational components. [4] Based upon the results, a motivational construct was postulated consisting of (1) an Instrumental Motivational Subsystem, (2) an Integrative Motivational Subsystem, which is a multifaceted cluster with four dimensions, (3) Need for Achievement, and (4) Attributions about Past Failures. [5] The results also indicated that in mastering an intermediate target language proficiency, the Instrumental Motivational Subsystem and Need for Achievement especially, play a significant role, whereas the desire to go beyond this level is associated with integrative motives.

A Study of Communication Strategies in Interlanguage Production by Chinese EFL Learners*

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Guangzhou Institute of Foreign Languages

[1] This article reports an empirical research into the nature of the relationship between L2 learners' target language proficiency and their strategic competence. [2] The 220 communication strategies employed by 12 Chinese EFL learners of both high and low proficiency in their target language communication with native speakers were identified and analyzed. [3] The results indicate that the frequency, type, and effectiveness of communication strategies (CSs) employed by the learners vary according to their proficiency level. [4] The language distance between the learners' L1 and L2 is also found to affect their choice of communication strategies. [5] These findings lend strong support to our hypothesis that learners' communicative competence could probably be increased by development of their strategic competence.

Motivational Factors and Persistence in Foreign Language Study*

Katherine Ramage
San Francisco State University

[1] The predictive ability of motivational and attitudinal factors in continuation of foreign language study beyond the second level among high-school students was investigated among students in two different geographical areas in the U.S.[2] Three classes of French and three classes of Spanish Level 2 high-school students participated in the study.[3] The data were collected through a survey questionnaire.[4] Discriminant function analyses were used to address the research questions.

[5] The results of the study indicate that motivational and attitudinal factors in addition to grade level and course grade successfully discriminate between continuing and discontinuing students.[6] Interest in culture and in learning the language thoroughly—including reading, writing, and speaking it—distinguished continuing students from discontinuing students.[7] On the other hand, interest in fulfilling a college entrance requirement primarily characterized the discontinuing students.

[8] Grade level when taking the second level of a foreign language and grade in the foreign language course were also found to be discriminating variables.

[9] Based upon these findings, profiles of continuing and discontinuing students were constructed and recommendations are made for interventions that may promote the type of intrinsic interest in language learning indicated by continuing students.

Language-Learning Strategies in Monolingual and Multilingual Adults*

Nandini Nayak
Nina Hansen
Nancy Krueger
Barry McLaughlin
University of California, Santa Cruz

[1] This study investigated the hypothesis that people with multiple language skills have different language-acquisition strategies than do people with single language skills. [2] Multilingual and monolingual subjects learned a miniature linguistic system incorporating a reference world under instructions to "memorize" or instructions to "discover rules". [3] Although there was no clear evidence that multilinguals were superior in language learning abilities overall, multilingual subjects were found to be more able to adjust their learning strategies according to the requirements of the task.

Speech Rate and NNS Comprehension: A Preliminary Study in Time-Benefit Analysis*

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Japan

[1] The study reported in this article describes an investigation into the effects of three speech rates: 200 words per minute [wpm] (3.8 syllables per second [sps]); 150 wpm (2.85 sps); and 100 wpm (1.93 sps) on the comprehension of three 350- to 400-word lexically and grammatically graded passages delivered to a group of lower-intermediate level adult NNSs(nonnative speakers). [2] Results showed that moderately fast speech rates resulted in a significant reduction in comprehension, but that scores on passages delivered at slow rates did not significantly differ from those delivered at average rates. [3] Subjective responses confirmed previous research findings showing that perception of speech rate variation is frequently inaccurate. [4] Results of the investigation are discussed in relation to the practical recommendations that might be drawn from them, particularly in terms of time-benefit analysis, if future studies support the present tentative findings.

Topic Prominence in Japanese EFL Students' Existential Constructions*

Miyuki Sasaki
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[1] This paper investigates Japanese speakers' interlanguage constructions of English existential sentences with a locative sentential topic.[2] Written sentences produced by four different levels of learners were compared.[3] The investigation focuses on the following two issues: (1) the effect of learners' proficiency level on the degree of topic prominence in a relatively free writing task (Test 1) and (2) the effect of elicitation on production of target-like constructions (i.e., the subject-predicate structure) in a controlled writing task (Test 2).[4] The results of Test 1 indicate that there was a general shift from topic-comment to subject-predicate structures as the students' proficiency increases. [5] Interactions were also observed between the degree of topic-prominence and the location of the sentence in the students' writing tasks.[6] The results of Test 2 suggest that although some students did not use the target-like structure in Test 1, this does not mean that they cannot use it under other conditions.[7] The implications of these results are discussed.

Influences of Typological Parameters on L2 Learners' Judgments of Null Pronouns in English*

q

Norma Register
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[1]This study examines the responses of 60 Spanish, Chinese, and German L2 learners to English sentences with empty pronominal categories (ECs).[2]Empty pronouns are not only acceptable in finite clauses of Spanish and Chinese but are pragmatically more natural (Rizzi, 1982; Huang, 1984, 1985). [3]However, the phenomena are not sanctioned in standard German, which is similar to the condition for English.[4]These facts were taken to indicate that the parametric apparatus governing pronoun conduct in the L1 of the Spanish and Chinese L2 learners would be less like that of German learners to a significant degree.[5]It was also expected that if all three groups were asked to judge and edit English sentences with null pronouns, the Spanish and Chinese Ss would make significantly more errors than would the German Ss because of parametric adjustments than the former two groups would need to make. [6]But this outcome was not fully supported by the data as it was only the Spanish Ss and not the Chinese Ss whose mean errors were significantly higher than those of the German group.[7]Evidence indicated that typological parameters linked to pragmatic versus syntactic motivations of L1 had to be considered in accounting for the results.

Investigating Fluency in EFL: A Quantitative Approach*

10

Paul Lennon
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[1]This paper investigates various easily quantifiable performance features that might function as objective indicators of oral fluency. [2]It would be advantageous if we could assemble a set of variables that functioned as good indicators of what expert judges, such as experienced native-speaker EFL teachers, are reacting to when subjectively assessing fluency. [3]This would advance our knowledge of what constitutes fluency and especially what makes for perceived fluency differences among learners and how an individual learner improves in fluency over time.
[4]To these ends a sample of the spoken performance of four advanced EFL learners was recorded at the start of six-months' residence in Britain and again shortly before departure. [5]A panel of 10 native-speaker teachers of EFL subjectively rated the recordings for global fluency and generally agreed that the second set was more fluent than was the first, though for each subject one or two panel members dissented.
[6]A battery of 12 readily quantifiable performance variables considered to be related to fluency was then assembled. [7]Values per subject per recording were obtained, expressed as frequency rates or as proportions so that comparisons could be made between first and second renderings.[8]For each variable, subjects' scores were compared between the two time points to ascertain in which features improvements were consistently manifested. [9]For each variable t-tests were conducted between sample means at Week 2 and Week 23.[10]Improvement of note at the 0.05 level of significance was found for three variables (one-tailed test), namely, speech rate, filled pauses per T-Unit, and percentage of T-Units followed by pause. [11]Surprisingly, self-corrections did not prove a good indicator.
[12]The implications of the study are that quantitative analysis can indeed help to identify fluency improvements in individual learners, and may have the potential to provide objective assessment of spoken fluency.[13]Findings revealed two key areas of performance that seem to be important for fluency: (1) speech-pause relationships in performance and (2) frequency of occurrence of *dysfluency markers* such as filled pauses and repetitions (but not necessarily self-corrections).
[14]However, even from this small-scale study it does seem that there is scope for individual variation among subjects in the precise areas in which fluency improvements may occur. [15]Further research might be able to identify both "core" and "peripheral" fluency variables.
[16]Quantitative analysis has applications both as a testing instrument and as a diagnostic tool to identify individual learner strengths and weaknesses among the components of fluency. [17]Investigation of native-speaker performance might provide native-like target score ranges on each variable for learners to aim at.

Congruence in Native and Nonnative Conversations: Status Balance in the Academic Advising Session*

11

Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig
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Indiana University

[1] This paper examines the notion of status in institutional discourse and identifies *congruence* as a factor in determining the success of native speaker (NS) and nonnative speaker (NNS) interactions in that context. [2] Thirty-two academic advising sessions between faculty advisors and both native and highly proficient nonnative graduate students were examined. [3] Whereas both NSs and NNSs show variable success in negotiating noncongruent (status-challenging) speech acts such as suggestions, NNSs are generally less successful because of the absence of status-preserving strategies that minimize the force of noncongruent speech acts. [4] These strategies allow students to take out-of-status turns without jeopardizing their relationship with their advisors. Because of the advanced level of the NNSs, lack of success is not attributable to lack of *linguistic* competence but to lack of context-specific *pragmatic* competence involving the use, kind, and number of status-preserving strategies as well as the content and form appropriate for noncongruent speech acts.

Resolving Referential Conflicts in L2 Interaction: The Effect of Proficiency and Interactive Role*

13

George Yule
Doris Macdonald
Louisiana State University

[1] Extending the research done on the effects of different types of task and different participant arrangements used to foster negotiated interaction among L2 learners, we developed a task that presents specific referential conflicts and analyzed the solutions adopted within two different pairings of learners. [2] Pairs in which the higher proficiency member had the dominant role engaged in little interactive cooperation and in some cases changed the task rather than negotiate a solution. [3] Pairs in which the higher proficiency member had the nondominant role engaged in substantial negotiation work, sought each other's perspective and generally shared much more in the interactive turn-taking and the successful resolution of referential conflicts.

Phonological Recoding in the First and Second Language Reading of Skilled Bilinguals*

12

Norman Segalowitz
Martine Hébert
Concordia University

[1] This study investigated phonological recoding in reading by highly skilled English and French bilinguals. [2] Bilinguals with approximately equal reading rates in their first (L1) and second (L2) languages and bilinguals with significantly slower rates in L2 than in L1 participated in lexical decision and sentence verification tasks in each language with stimuli designed to assess sensitivity to the phonological properties of words. [3] The results suggested that: (1) in general, slow L2 readers were not more dependent upon phonological recoding than were fast L2 readers; (2) for slow readers, L2 presented a heavier processing load in working memory than it did for fast readers; and (3) there exist different phonological effects specific to English and French.

Timed Comprehension of Binding in Advanced L2 Learners of English

14

Vivian J. Cook
University of Essex

[1] This paper is concerned with how advanced L2 learners of English interpret reflexive anaphors such as *himself* and pronominals such as *him* in sentences such as *John said Peter helps himself* and *John said Peter helps him.* [2] Parameterized Binding Theory claims that the settings for the governing category parameter dictate whether particular anaphors or pronominals are bound to other noun phrases; the five possible settings are related in opposite hierarchies of inclusiveness for anaphors and pronominals according to the Subset Principle. [3] An experiment is described that tested the interpretation of *himself* and *him* across five sentence types by 14 native speakers and 47 advanced L2 learners of English from three different language backgrounds—Japanese, Romance, and Norwegian. [4] A computer-controlled comprehension task gave the subjects 40 sentences, for each of which they had to decide whether *him* or *himself* referred to *John* or *Peter* by pressing the appropriate key. [5] The results showed (1) anaphors were slightly more difficult than were pronominals overall, (2) pronominals were not treated as anaphors, (3) a consistent order of difficulty was found for the five sentence types, with certain exceptions, (4) common orders of difficulty and of response time occurred in all groups regardless of first language, again with exceptions, and (5) on one view the Subset Principle was positively related to difficulty for anaphors, negatively for pronominals. [6] The discussion concerns the validity of comprehension tests as evidence for the Universal Grammar model. [7] It is suggested that the results show that parameter settings are related to performance as well as to grammatical competence.

Teacher and Nonteacher Perceptions of Second-Language Communication*

1 5   Betsy L. Hadden
Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität

[1] The purpose of this study was to compare teacher and nonteacher perceptions of second-language communication. [2] Eight native speakers of Chinese enrolled in an advanced ESL class at The Ohio State University were videotaped speaking extemporaneously about the same topic. [3] These videotapes were shown to ESL teachers ($n=25$) and nonteachers ($n=32$) who completed a questionnaire about their perceptions of each speaker and his or her presentation. [4] All of the respondents were native speakers of American English. [5] Perceptions were found to be multidimensional not unidimensional. [6] A factor analysis of the ESL teachers' data revealed five factors: comprehensibility, social acceptability, linguistic ability, personality, and body language. [7] A factor analysis of the nonteachers' data yielded four factors: comprehensibility/linguistic ability, social acceptability, body language, and personality. [8] A factor analysis of the combined-group data revealed five factors: comprehensibility, social acceptability, linguistic ability, personality, and body language. [9] A MANOVA and a series of univariate analysis of variance comparing the two groups on the five factors found in the combined-group factor analysis showed a significant difference in ratings of students' linguistic ability. [10] Nonteachers rated students' linguistic ability significantly higher than did the ESL teachers. [11] Differences in ratings of students on other factors were not significant.

Integrating Formal and Functional Approaches to Language Teaching in French Immersion: An Experimental Study*

1 6   Elaine M. Day
Simon Fraser University

Stan M. Shapson
York University

[1] This experimental study was designed to evaluate the effect on French language proficiency of an integrated formal, analytic and functional, communicative approach to second-language teaching in French immersion. [2] The impetus for the study arises from research indicating that immersion children show persistent weaknesses in their grammatical skills despite the fluent, functional proficiency they achieve in their second language. [3] The experimental materials, which consist of a curriculum unit focusing on the conditional, were designed to provide opportunities for students to use the conditional in natural, communicative situations; reinforce their learning with systematic, linguistic games; and encourage their metalinguistic awareness. [4] They were also designed to encourage integration of concepts learned in other subjects with language learning and to promote group work and cooperative learning. [5] Pre-, post-, and follow-up tests of oral and written French were administered to Grade 7 early French immersion Experimental and Control classes. [6] The results showed that the Experimental group performed significantly higher in writing both in the post and follow-up testing. [7] Although this was not found for speaking, an examination of the individual class data revealed greater and more consistent growth in speaking for the Experimental than for the Control classes, suggesting that they benefited somewhat from the experimental treatment in this domain as well.

Foreign Accents Revisited: The English Pronunciation of Russian Immigrants*

1 7   Irene Thompson
The George Washington University

[1] This study investigated factors associated with the acquisition of L2 pronunciation and methodological problems associated with the study of foreign accents. [2] Thirty-six native speakers of Russian fluent in English read specially constructed English sentences and a prose passage, and talked spontaneously about their daily routine. [3] They also filled out background and attitude questionnaires. [4] The three speech samples were rated for accentedness by linguistically inexperienced native speakers of English representing "the person in the street" and by language experts. [5] The best model of pronunciation accuracy included Age at Arrival in the U.S., Sex, Ability to Mimic, and Global Speaking Proficiency in English. [6] Sentences "seeded" with difficult sounds were judged to be more accented than was spontaneous speech. [7] Experienced raters were more reliable and more lenient in their assessments of accent than were inexperienced ones. [8] Subjects who came to the U.S. between the ages of 4 and 10 years were judged to have a slight foreign accent. [9] Results suggest that factors which affect the acquisition of L2 pronunciation depend on type of primary exposure to L2, and that perception of a foreign accent depends on language samples presented for judgment and on the linguistic experience of listeners. [10] The study also raises the possibility that the acquisition of fully accentless speech in L2 may not be possible if L1 is maintained at a high level of proficiency, no matter how young the age at which the individual started to acquire the second language.

Predicting Minority Children's Bilingual Proficiency: Child, Family, and Institutional Factors*

1 8   Ludo T. Verhoeven
Tilburg University

[1] The purpose of the present study was to identify factors that predict the first- and second-language proficiency of ethnic minority children at the age of 6 years. [2] A sample of 72 six-year-old Turkish children, living in The Netherlands since their infant years, was identified prior to their entrance into the first grade of primary school. [3] Predictor measures originating from the child, his or her family, and the institutional care the child had gone through were collected, along with direct and indirect first- and second-language proficiency measures. [4] The results of the study make clear that two dimensions underlie the children's proficiency in either language: communicative skills versus cognitive/academic skills. [5] Measures of the cultural orientation of the children and their parents turned out to be related to all of the proficiency levels under consideration. [6] The extent of caretaker interaction in the first language was also positively related to the children's bilingual proficiency level. [7] Moreover, there was evidence for the notion of interdependency in bilingual development in that cognitive/academic abilities in the second language could be predicted from similar abilities in the first language.

Learner Use of Strategies in Interaction: Typology and Teachability*

Michael Rost
Temple University

Steven Ross
University of Hawai'i at Manoa

[1] This paper reports on a two-phase study of L2 learner use of listener feedback, particularly their use of clarification questions, in NS-NNS discourse. [2] The initial research questions of interest concerned the degree to which patterns in listener clarification questions could differentiate learners of varying proficiency, the degree to which use of clarification strategies (move types) could be explicitly taught (rather than developed alongside long-term gains in proficiency), and the extent to which strategy use influenced actual understanding of listening passages.

[3] The first phase of the study was designed to formulate a typology of clarification questions associated with learners along a continuum of L2 proficiency. [4] In this phase of the study, four types of clarification questions were identified through discriminant analysis as being related to language proficiency. [5] These move types are defined as *global reprise, local reprise, forward inferencing,* and *continuation signals.*

[6] The second phase of the study was an elicitation experiment in which learners listened to a narrative and asked clarification questions. [7] The study examined learner use of clarification questions in two distinct presentation settings (*distant*, video presentation and *live*, one-on-one presentation) and with three types of prior training in questioning strategies (*global, local,* and *inferential*). [8] The experiment was designed to assess the effects of these presentation settings and of the prior training on learners' ability to ask clarification questions of the native speakers and to summarize the story that they had heard. [9] The results of this second phase of the study indicate that prior training of learners in specific questioning strategies can exert an effect on their subsequent behavior in interactions and can influence their immediate comprehension of a text as well.

The Cloze Test as an Integrative Measure of EFL Proficiency: A Substitute for Essays on College Entrance Examinations?*

Sandra S. Fotos
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[1] Cloze tests have been the focus of considerable interest in recent years as easily constructed and scored measures of integrative proficiency. [2] Although there has been debate as to whether all forms produced by the cloze procedure are equally reliable and valid, as well as controversy over what is actually measured, the balance of evidence favors a positive view of the cloze test as an effective testing instrument. [3] These implications are especially significant in the EFL situation in which many English teachers are nonnative speakers who want to include an integrative measure of EFL proficiency within the English portion of their college entrance examinations. [4] The study reported here presents the necessary steps in the development of a reliable and valid cloze test and uses the form produced to measure EFL proficiency in two groups of Japanese college students, English majors and nonmajors. [5] Cloze test performance is correlated with essay scores and TOEFL scores to determine whether the cloze test can function as an alternative measure of integrative language ability. [6] Issues regarding construct and predictive validity are addressed, and it is suggested that well-designed cloze tests are capable of assessing language skills ranging from basic to advanced. [7] Use of cloze tests in their fixed-ratio deletion, exact-word scored format is recommended, with certain limiting considerations, as a substitute for essay tests on English proficiency examinations.

Communicative Writing Profiles: An Investigation of the Transferability of a Multiple-Trait Scoring Instrument Across ESL Writing Assessment Contexts*

21

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The University of Colorado at Denver

Grant Henning
Educational Testing Service

[1]This study investigated the validity of using a multiple-trait scoring procedure to obtain communicative writing profiles of the writing performance of adult nonnative English speakers in assessment contexts different from that for which the instrument was designed.[2]Transferability could be of great benefit to those without the resources to design and pilot a multiple-trait scoring instrument of their own. [3]A modification of the New Profile Scale (NPS)was applied in the rating of 170 essays taken from two non-NPS contexts, including 91 randomly selected essays of the Test of Written English and 79 essays written by a cohort of University of Michigan entering undergraduate nonnative English speaking students responding to the Michigan Writing Assessment. [4]The scoring method taken as a whole appeared to be highly reliable in composite assessment, appropriate for application to essays of different timed lengths and rhetorical modes, and appropriate to writers of different levels of educational preparation. [5]However, whereas the subscales of Communicative Quality and Linguistic Accuracy tended to show individual discriminant validity, little psychometric support for reporting scores on seven or five components of writing was found. [6]Arguments for transferring the NPS for use in new writing assessment contexts would thus be educational rather than statistical.

Additive-Bilingual (Immersion) Education: Cognitive and Language Development*

22

Kathryn W. Bamford
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University of Washington

[1]The superior control of cognitive processing demonstrated by children in the early stages of additive bilingualism may enhance symbolic reasoning abilities. [2]The developmental interdependence of L1 and L2 may allow additive-bilingual children to maintain normal native-language development. [3]This study examined the development of a Grade 2 additive-bilingual (Spanish-immersion) program class as compared to a monolingual classroom on measures of nonverbal problem-solving and native-language development.[4]The program was the independent variable in two comparisons. [5]In the first comparison, nonverbal problem-solving was the dependent variable, as measured by Raven's (1977) *Coloured Progressive Matrices* (CPM). [6]As hypoth-esized, a repeated measures ANCOVA of the results of fall and spring administrations of the CPM indicated significant differences in favor of the Spanish-immersion group, $F(1, 35)=5.85, p=.02.$[7]In the second comparison, native-language development was the dependent variable as measured by the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-R* (PPVT-R). [8]A parametric independent samples t-test was applied to the mean gain scores of the immersion and comparison groups on the fall and spring PPVT-R scores.[9]As expected, no significant differences were revealed between groups, $t=.15, p=.88, N=37.$[10]Results were interpreted to support Vygotsky's (1978) assertion that the mediation of language is an essential part of nonverbal problem-solving and Lambert's (1984) notion of "additive-bilingual" settings.

Language Anxiety: Its Relationship to Other Anxieties and to Processing in Native and Second Languages*

23

Peter D. MacIntyre
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The University of Western Ontario

[1]This study investigated the factor structure underlying 23 scales assessing both language anxiety as well as other forms of anxiety.[2]Three factors were obtained and identified as Social Evaluation Anxiety, State Anxiety, and Language Anxiety. [3]Correlations were obtained between scores based on these factors and measures of short-term memory (a Digit Span test) and vocabulary production (a Thing Category test). [4]These two measures were administered in both L1 (English) and L2 (French) versions. [5]It was shown that Language Anxiety was correlated significantly with both Digit Span and Thing Category scores, but only in L2.[6]Further analyses indicated that the French tasks were more anxiety-provoking than were the English ones and that for L1, digit span was more anxiety-provoking than was vocabulary.[7]These results are interpreted in terms of the deficits created by anxiety during the cognitive processing of L2 stimuli.

The Effects of Formal Instruction on the Second-Language Acquisition of Temporal Location*

24

Ewa Buczowska
Adam Mickiewicz University

Richard M. Weist
State University of New York at Fredonia

[1]The purpose of this research was to contrast the acquisition of temporal systems in L1 and tutored L2 learners.[2]The research focused on the distinction between absolute and relative temporal location: the former relates event time to speech time and the latter relates event time to reference time.[3]An experiment was conducted using a sentence-picture matching task with Polish adults learning English and American children ranging in age from 2½ to 6½ years.[4]The comprehension test contained contrasts that required absolute location (e.g., past/future) and relative location (e.g., before/after).[5]L1 learners comprehended problems involving absolute temporal contrasts first and those with a relative component later. [6]Tutored L2 learners follow a different pattern.[7]Their initial temporal system had both absolute and relative dimensions.[8]A second major difference between L1 and tutored L2 learners concerned the acquisition of tense and aspect.[9]L1 learners understood both tense and aspect contrasts from the earliest phase of development evaluated. [10]Tutored L2 learners could understand tense well before aspect.[11]The research emphasizes the relevance of pedagogical practices to the foreign language learning process as opposed to so-called "natural sequences".

Awareness of Text Structure: Effects on Recall*

25   *Patricia L. Carrell*
The University of Akron

[1]Research in second language reading has shown relationships among reading comprehension, reading strategies, and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies (Block, 1986; Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989, Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989).[2]Moreover, research with native speakers of English has shown differences in speakers' awareness of particular expository text structures (comparison/contrast, description, causation, and problem/solution) and their recall of texts written in those structures (Richgels, McGee, Lomax, & Sheard, 1987).[3] Whereas previous research in ESL has examined the effects of differences in rhetorical structure on learners' recall of English narrative (Carrell, 1984a) and expository text (Carrell, 1984b, 1985), this ESL research has not investigated differences between learners' awareness of particular text structures and their recall of texts written in those structures. [4]Nor has the ESL research contrasted different measures of structure awareness.[5]The study reported in this paper was designed to investigate these relationships in EFL/ESL reading.
[6]Forty-five high-intermediate proficiency ESL students produced written recalls of both comparison/contrast and collection of description texts.[7]In addition, two different measures of awareness were included: (1) *use* of organization in written recall, and (2) *recognition* of organization in response to a probe question.[8]Results showed that there were no differences in levels of awareness, regardless of how it was measured, due to differences in text structure, nor were there any differences in the quantity of information recalled between text structures.[9]However, there were differences in the quality of information recalled as a function of text structure.[10]Finally, in terms of relationships between awareness and recall, subjects who *used* the structure of the reading passages to organize written recalls showed superior recall both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Segment Composition as a Factor in the Syllabification Errors of Second-Language Speakers*

26   *Ida J. Stockman*
Michigan State University

Erna Pluut
Bodegraven, Holland

[1]Native Chinese Mandarin speakers spoke and aurally identified monosyllables that included oral and nasal stops. [2]These consonants represented English/Mandarin contrasts and noncontrasts in syllable-initial/-final positions. [3]Error frequencies for four syllable position/contrast conditions were compared to determine if they were rank ordered according to the hierarchy derived from Anderson's (1987) test of the Markedness Differential Hypothesis. [4]Neither production nor identification errors were ranked in the predicted order. [5]The presence of nasal as opposed to oral stop consonants in the syllables appeared to be the most significant factor affecting error distribution. [6]The findings suggest that the error predictions for initial/final segments can be neutralized by the requirements of producing and perceiving particular speech sounds.

Evidence of Transfer and Loss in Developing Second Language Writers*

27   *Joan Eisterhold Carson*
Georgia State University

Phyllis A. Kuehn
California State University, Fresno

[1] Literacy skills are thought to be transferable across languages.[2]That is, good L1 readers and writers should be able to transfer their reading and writing abilities to the L2. [3]However, studies of language attrition suggest that loss of language skills might influence the transfer of literacy skills from L1 to L2.[4]This study investigates the role that transfer and/or loss of L1 writing abilities plays in the development of L2 writing proficiency.[5]Data from native Chinese speakers enrolled in academic and preacademic English courses in American universities indicate that academic writing skills develop as a function of educational experience in L1 and in L2. [6]There is also evidence that good L1 writers tend to become good writers in their L2, but that L1 writing proficiency may decline as L2 writing proficiency increases. [7]Furthermore, there appears to be a writing aptitude factor that imposes a ceiling on writing development both in L1 and in L2.

Effects of First Language on Second Language Writing: Translation versus Direct Composition*

28   Hiroe Kobayashi
Carol Rinnert
Hiroshima University

[1]This study of English compositions written by 48 Japanese university students examined: (1) differences between the texts resulting from two writing processes, one writing first in Japanese and then translating into English and the other composing directly in English and (2) the relationship between these two writing processes and students' language proficiency.[2] In terms of quality of content, organization, and style, lower-level writers tended to benefit from translation, whereas higher-level writers did not benefit much.[3] Overall, syntactic complexity was greater in translations than in direct writings.[4] In terms of error frequency, higher-level students tended to make more errors that interfered with intended meaning in translation than in direct writing, but lower-level students did not show any difference.[5] Regarding the correlation between language proficiency and the quality of the writing resulting from the two composing processes, oral skills related more closely to writing quality than did grammar knowledge, particularly for direct writing.

Critical Period Effects in Second Language Acquisition: The Effect of Written versus Auditory Materials on the Assessment of Grammatical Competence*

29   Jacqueline S. Johnson
University of Virginia

[1]Current research has supported the existence of a critical period for the acquisition of the grammar of a second language.[2] In one study, native speakers of Chinese and Korean, who had arrived in the U.S. at varying ages, were tested on their knowledge of English grammar using an auditory grammaticality judgment task (Johnson & Newport, 1989).[3] Subjects were tested only after having lived in the U.S. for many years as students or academicians.[4] The present study asks whether the poorer performance exhibited by the older arrivals was due to their difficulty with English grammar or merely due to extragrammatical properties associated with an auditory task.[5] The same subjects who participated in the earlier study were tested a year later using an untimed written version of the same test.[6] A strong negative correlation was still observed between age of arrival and performance on the written test: $r=-.54$ for subjects of all ages of arrival; $r=-.73$ for subjects who arrived to the U.S. before adulthood.[7] Performance was higher on the written version than on the auditory version, but only for the older arrivals.[8] The possibility that earlier formal classroom training boosted the adult arrivals' performance on the written test is discussed.

The Variable Effects of Some Task-Based Learning Procedures on L2 Communicative Effectiveness

30   George Yule
Louisiana State University

Maggie Powers
West Virginia University

Doris Macdonald
Northern Arizona University

[1]This study attempted to evaluate the benefits of some task-based procedures used to develop L2 communicative effectiveness in spoken English among a group of advanced proficiency learners.[2] Using three information transfer tasks and intervening discussion sessions, we attempted to investigate the actual communicative outcomes of interaction prompted by the tasks.[3] When the intervening discussion focused on linguistic aspects of task performance, there was a tendency for speakers to adopt a noticeably more egocentric perspective in a subsequent communicative task.[4] When referential aspects of the task were discussed, subsequent communicative performance was characterized by speakers taking their interlocutor's perspective much more into account.[5] It is suggested that L2 communicative effectiveness in an information transfer task will be enhanced when the speaker is led to think primarily about the listener's needs rather than the form of the speaker's message.

Listening Comprehension: Construct Validity and Trait Characteristics*

31   Gary Buck
Monterey Institute for International Studies

[1]It has been customary among both language teachers and testers to regard listening as a separate skill in language proficiency.[2] However, the evidence for the existence of listening comprehension as a separate trait is contradictory.[3] This paper reviews the conflicting evidence, and presents two studies that use the multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) methodology to examine the construct validity of the listening trait.[4] These were carried out in Japan using college-level students of English ($N=220$ and 353).[5] Both studies had two traits, listening and reading comprehension, with three and four methods, respectively.[6] One study shows no significant trait effect, whereas the other shows a strong trait effect; indicating that there is a separate listening trait, but that this is not necessarily operationalized by oral input alone.[7] This necessitates recognition of two types of listening test: (1) orally presented tests of general language comprehension, and (2) tests of the listening trait proper.[8] The tests used in the two studies are compared and some tentative suggestions are made regarding those variables that may account for the separate nature of listening comprehension.

The Effect of Imagery-Based Mnemonics on the Long-Term Retention of Chinese Characters

3 2   *Alvin Y. Wang*
Margaret H. Thomas
University of Central Florida

[1]Two studies compared the effects of imagery-based instruction and rote learning on the long-term recall of English translations of Chinese ideographs.[2]Both studies used a 2×2 factorial design with Learning Condition (mnemonic vs. rote learning) and Time (immediate vs. delayed recall) as the between-subjects factors.[3]In Study 1 total exposure time to Chinese ideographs and their English equivalents was held constant for both learning conditions.[4]Cued recall was tested immediately and after a two-day delay.[5]In Study 2 total exposure time for the rote learning group was increased so that the immediate recall performance for both learning conditions would be comparable.[6]Also, the delayed retention period was lengthened to one week.[7]Despite variations in procedure, the pattern of results obtained in both studies was the same: in no instance was there any indication that imagery-based mnemonics conferred an advantage beyond the immediate test of recall.[8]In fact, greater forgetting was found under conditions of mnemonic learning compared to rote learning.[9]This finding is discussed within a theoretical framework emphasizing the differential long-term effect of experimenter-imposed versus subject-generated encodings.

Affective Variables and a Less Commonly Taught Language: A Study in Beginning Japanese Classes*

3 3   *Keiko Komiya Samimy*
Motoko Tabuse
The Ohio State University

[1]Learning a less commonly taught language or a "noncognate" language such as Japanese can be a daunting task for American students. [2]The number of American students who are studying Asian languages at the university level—in particular Japanese and Chinese—is skyrocketing. [3]Unfortunately, however, the attrition rate among these students is also very high. [4]The present study explored the possible relationships between affective variables (e.g., attitudes, motivation, classroom personality) and students' linguistic performance in beginning Japanese classes. [5]It was hypothesized that the high difficulty level of this noncognate non-IndoEuropean language would trigger strong negative affective reactions that would, in turn, affect their linguistic performance. [6]The results of the study indicate that motivation and attitudinal factors are critical in predicting students' success in Japanese. [7]Classroom personality factors such as risk taking and discomfort were also found to be determinants of the students' final grades. [8]In addition, negative changes in the students' attitude and motivation were observed when the results of the autumn quarter were compared with those of the spring quarter. [9]Based on these findings, recommendations are made to enhance students' motivation and attitude toward learning Japanese.

Sex Differences in Self-Reported Beliefs About Foreign-Language Learning and Authentic Oral and Written Input

3 4   *Susan M. C. Bacon*
University of Cincinnati

Michael D. Finnemann
Augustana College

[1]This study examined differences in the self-reports of men and women regarding their attitudes, beliefs, strategies, and experience in language learning. [2]Nine hundred and thirty-eight students of Spanish at two large institutions responded to a questionnaire that had previously yielded 11 stable factors (Bacon & Finnemann, 1990). [3]Through discriminant analysis, we could distinguish between the responses of men and women on two language-learning factors (LL), two dealing with authentic input (AI), and two exposure variables. [4]The discussion includes a justification for using discriminant analysis as a statistical tool in second-language attitude and belief research.

Reversed Subtitling and Dual Coding Theory: New Directions for Foreign Language Instruction

3 5

Martine Danan
Michigan Technological University

[1] The purpose of this study was to examine how subtitled video programs could enhance foreign language learning. [2] Three viewing methods were compared in a pilot study: French audio only, standard subtitling (English subtitles) and reversed subtitling (English dialogue with French titles). [3] In two subsequent experiments, standard subtitling was replaced with bimodal input (French audio with French titles). [4] The beginning and intermediate French college students selected for the study were tested on vocabulary recall after watching a five-minute video excerpt of *French in Action*. [5] The success of reversed subtitling, which proved to be the most beneficial condition, can be explained by the way translation facilitates foreign language encoding. [6] Retrieval is also enhanced by the multiple memory paths created by the visual and bilingual input (Paivio's bilingual dual coding model, 1986). [7] Dual processing in the bimodal input condition also gave positive results. [8] Based on the results of this study, a model integrating both reversed subtitling and bimodal input into a complete curriculum is advocated.

Language Socialization in the Second Language Classroom

3 7

Deborah Poole
San Diego State University

[1] This paper examines the kinds of cultural messages a second language teacher displays through classroom interaction. [2] The study analyzes teacher/student interaction in two beginning ESL classes in light of the language socialization perspective articulated by Ochs and Schieffelin, (1984; cf., Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986a; 1986b; Ochs 1988). [3] This approach views the acquisition of linguistic and sociocultural knowledge as integral to one another, and points to the pervasive influence of cultural norms and ideologies on various forms of expert-novice communication. [4] The data demonstrate that routine interactional sequences in these classrooms are consistent with a number of Ochs and Schieffelin's interpretations of middle class American caregiver language and suggest that a teacher's language behavior is culturally motivated to an extent not generally acknowledged in most L2 literature. [5] Discussion will focus specifically on how classroom discourse features encode cultural norms and beliefs with respect to (a) expert accommodation of novice incompetence, (b) task accomplishment, and (c) the display of asymmetry.

The Relationship Between Native Speaker Judgments of Nonnative Pronunciation and Deviance in Segmentals, Prosody, and Syllable Structure

3 6

Janet Anderson-Hsieh
Iowa State University

Ruth Johnson
Florida State University

Kenneth Koehler
Iowa State University

[1] This study investigated the relationship between experienced SPEAK Test raters' judgments of nonnative pronunciation and actual deviance in segmentals, prosody, and syllable structure. [2] Sixty reading passage speech samples from SPEAK Test tapes of speakers from 11 language groups were rated impressionistically on pronunciation and later analyzed for deviance in segmentals, prosody, and syllable structure. [3] The deviance found in each area of pronunciation was then correlated with the pronunciation ratings using Pearson correlations and multiple regression. [4] An analysis of the 60 speakers showed that whereas deviance in segmentals, prosody, and syllable structure all showed a significant influence on the pronunciation ratings, the prosodic variable proved to have the strongest effect. [5] When separate analyses were done on two language subgroups within the sample, prosody was always found to be significantly related to the global ratings, whereas this was not always true for the other variables investigated.

38 Speech Rates in British English

STEVE TAUROZA and DESMOND ALLISON

City Polytechnic of Hong Kong   *University of Hong Kong*

The estimate of English speech rates most widely known to teachers and researchers in EFL is that provided by Pimsleur et al. *(1977).*[2]*However*, Pimsleur et al.'s estimate of standard rates of speech was based on one particular variety of English: that of radio news announcers. [3]*Moreover,* Pimsleur et al.'s data included the speech rates of French-speaking radio news accouncers, and the range of speech rates they reported reflected the wide variations found between the French-speaking announcers rather than the smaller variations between the English-speaking announcers.

[4]*Speech produced in four different types of situation (conversations, academic lectures, interviews, and radio monologues) was analysed in order to check whether the standard range of speech rates reported by Pimsleur et al. was applicable to different varieties of English.*[5]*It was found that this was not the case and an alternative range of speech rates is proposed.*

Another Look at Yes/No Questions: Native Speakers and Non-native Speakers [1]

39 JESSICA WILLIAMS

University of Illinois

This study examines the production of Yes/No questions by native speakers of English and speakers of Singapore English, a non-native regional variety. The results indicate that there are a number of similarities between the two groups; specifically, both groups appear to prefer an invariant SVO order and tend to eliminate syntactic elements which are semantically redundant. Both groups use a variety of devices, including changes in intonation and final tags, to indicate that these SVO utterances are indeed questions.

[4]*The findings suggest that our notions of what constitutes target-like use remain ill-defined.*[5]*As long as native speaker behaviour is assumed or intuited, rather than documented, it is difficult to judge the performance of second language learners, in particular, to state when they have achieved a level of target-like production.*

Large-scale Oral Testing

40 CLIFFORD WALKER

West Sussex Institute of Higher Education

The ability to speak English is a valued skill in English-medium universities overseas and is a major aim of their English for academic purposes (EAP) programmes.[2]*But it is rarely tested in these institutions because the task is considered too difficult with such large numbers of students.*[3]*Failing to test the speaking skill results in inaccurate assessment of students and negative washback effects on the teaching of oral skills.*

[4]*An oral examination was established at Yarmouk University in Jordan to test the two thousand students who pass through its service English programme each year.*[5]*Practicality was achieved by allotting the oral examination only as much time as was spent on the setting, administration, and marking of the service English programme written examination.*[6]*The content was based on a description of the programme objectives and resulted in a two-stage interview.*

[7]*Inter-tester reliability is widely regarded as a potentially serious problem in oral tests and considerable efforts were made to achieve an adequate level.*[8]*The test format was standardized.*[9]*The evaluation criteria were made appropriate and explicit.*[10]*The number of bands was limited.*[11]*Testers were trained through detailed description of test documents, exemplification of the band description using video, observation of live interviews, and supervised practice in evaluation.*[12]*Testers were observed by moderators during the examination.*[13]*The test results were analysed statistically to identify which testers differed from their peers and by how much.*[14]*The statistical analysis indicated that adequate inter-tester reliability was achieved.*[15]*It is concluded that large-scale testing of oral communication is a practical proposition.*

Applied Linguistics in Court

41 JOHN GIBBONS

University of Sydney

Two issues are addressed here: the scope of applied linguistics, and the social justice issue of police procedures for dealing with limited proficiency speakers of majority languages.[2]*This is done by examining evidence produced by police in court, and the language addressed to second language speakers by police, particularly official cautions.*[3]*Linguistic challenges to police evidence in court demand a wide range of techniques, including language testing.*[4]*Some of these techniques clearly fall outside the domain of even a wide view of linguistics, thereby justifying through practical need the extension of applied linguistics beyond the 'linguistics applied' approach still advocated by some linguists.*[5]*The social justice issue is addressed by examining police cautions and police procedures: it is shown that these clearly disadvantage second language speakers, and a range of solutions to this problem is suggested.*

Morphology via Orthography: A Visual Approach to Oral Decisions

42 WAYNE B. DICKERSON

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Can a language rule impede learners' oral accuracy?[1]*The standard ESL/EFL presentation of the {Z} and {D} morphemes of English requires the distribution of allomorphs according to the phonological characteristics of stem-final sounds.*[3]*Examined from the learner's point of view, the standard approach is heavily biased against beginning students.*[4]*This study offers an alternative approach that is heavily biased in favor of beginning students but is no less precise in its predictions.*[5]*It requires the distribution of allomorphs according to orthographic criteria.*[6]*Learners from different language backgrounds and different proficiency levels who used the orthography-based approach improved their oral accuracy to such an extent that performance differences originally attributable to their dissimilar language backgrounds and proficiency levels disappeared.*[7]*The significant progress of students who learned the orthography-based rules suggests that the morpheme errors of those who learned only the standard rules may be the result of instruction, not the result of difficult content.*

An Analysis of Summary Protocols of University ESL Students

43 ANN M. JOHNS and PATRICIA MAYES

San Diego State University

Though summarization is a task often required in academic classes, little is known about summary processes and products of university ESL students.[2]*In this study, a coding scheme based on the Kintsch and van Dijk text-processing model (1978) was employed to compare idea units in summary protocols produced by university ESL students at two levels of proficiency.*[3]*Significant differences between the groups were found in two categories: replication of sentences from the original text, and combinations of idea units taken from two or more punctuated sentences in the original.*[4]*Though there were differences between the two groups in other idea unit replication and distortion categories, none were found to be significant.*[5]*Suggestions for teaching and further research conclude the paper.*

'Sequence' and 'Order' in the Development of L2 Lexis: Some Evidence from Lexical Confusions

44   BATIA LAUFER

University of Haifa

[1] The study compared native speaking learners of English with foreign learners, with regard to confusions of 'synforms' (similar lexical forms). [2] Tests were designed in which the learners were required to distinguish between synforms of ten categories (ten types of synformic similarity). [3] Hierarchies of difficulty (i.e. the extent to which synforms induced errors) were produced for the ten categories of synforms for the two groups of learners. [4] The orders of difficulty for the two groups (native and foreign) correlated at 0.83 at the 0.01 probability level. [5] A hierarchy of difficulty was also produced for four 'super-categories'. [6] The analysis showed that native speaking learners and foreign learners shared an order of difficulty: suffix synforms created the most difficult synformic distinctions, followed by the vocalic, and then the prefix and consonantal.

[7] Adopting the distinction between 'sequence' and 'order' in language acquisition it can be argued that, in learning to distinguish between synforms, all learners, native and foreign, follow a similar sequence, an overall developmental route, although the order within each super-category may differ for each group of learners.

Second Language Acquisition of the English Modal Auxiliaries can, could, may, and might

45   DOROTHY A. GIBBS

Henley College, Coventry

Seventy-five Panjabi-speaking pupils were assessed on their expression of the English modal auxiliaries can, could, may, and might. [2] Responses were elicited for four Root Modality functions—Ability, Permission, Possibility, and Hypothetical Possibility—plus the Epistemic Possibility function, and in Declarative, Negative and Interrogative environments. [3] Six groups of Panjabi-speaking subjects were selected, incorporating the two variables; Years of English, with conditions two, four, and six years; and Age Level, with the factors primary and secondary. [4] Pupils' test sheets were marked for errors and the total and subtotal scores subjected to an error analysis using the SPSS-X ANOVA programme. [5] The beneficial effect of earlier age of first exposure to English was demonstrated by the better overall performance of the primary school pupils as compared to the secondary school groups, except in the Interrogative environment. [6] A plateau effect was noted in the performance of the secondary school subjects between four and six years of exposure to English. [7] Modal acquisition by second language subjects followed first language order, with the three basic functions roughly co-emergent and Hypothetical and Epistemic Possibility much later acquired.

Group Work, Task Difference, and Second Language Acquisition

46   RAYMOND BROWN

Ain Shams University, Cairo

[1] This article is based on a study which attempted to find evidence of factors influencing the kind of interaction found in small group work in language learning among young adult English teacher trainees in a developing country. [2] The particular factors studied were the degree of 'tightness' or 'looseness' of the tasks, the degree of 'openness' or 'closedness' of the tasks, and the degree to which the tasks could be described as 'procedural', meaning that they led to discussions about what decisions to make, or 'interpretive', meaning that they led to the participants having to interpret data according to their understanding and experience. [3] The study follows earlier studies by Barnes and Todd (1977), Long and Porter (1985), Pica and Doughty (1985), Swain (1985), Doughty and Pica (1986), and Pica (1987), and examines the data, using mostly similar categories but adding two new categories—instructional input and hypothesizing—in an attempt to characterize features of learner output. [4] The data itself consists of task-based, small-group discussions set as part of their normal work to three small groups of trainees with the purpose of developing their language ability. [5] The task types differ in objective and demand and the study tries to see how these differing task types may influence the kind of interaction that results. [6] The study found no significant differences in the level of modification occurring in the three task types but found significant differences in the levels of hypothesizing and of instructional input between the interpretive tasks and the task requiring decisions about procedures. [7] The study suggests that the level of challenge of a task, measured by its procedural or interpretive nature, may be an important variable in ensuring that the learners are pushed into framing their ideas in more novel language and thus have opportunities to 'learn' and not only to 'practice'.

The Influence of Environment on Vowel Epenthesis in Spanish/English Interphonology

47   ROBERT S. CARLISLE

California State University, Bakersfield

This paper presents the results of two separate studies that examined epenthesis before three word-initial onsets of the form $/sC_i/$ in English (where C_i represents a voiceless stop). [2] The first study was strictly exploratory and designed to discover if the frequency of epenthesis before $/sC_i/$ was influenced by environment. [3] Appropriate statistical analyses revealed that epenthesis occurred significantly more frequently after word-final consonants than after word-final vowels before the three onsets. [4] The second study tested three specific statistical hypotheses based upon the exploratory study. [5] Again, vowel epenthesis was significantly more frequent after consonants than after vowels before the onsets.

Tying it all in: Asides in university lectures

48   BARBARA STRODT-LOPEZ

Queens College, CUNY

Here I show how professors at a major American university use asides, local breaks in topicality, to increase global semantic coherence and pragmatic consistency, as well as to evoke in students a variety of interpretive frames. [2] My findings indicate a need for analysis re-evaluating basic concepts of discourse unity and the use of interpretive frames, and my analysis provides a rigorous explanatory model. [3] Other areas in which my findings suggest further research are the structure of multiple-strand discourse, where one component of the discourse provides a running commentary on another, and the devices for creating simultaneous clear demarcation of and strong cohesion between discourse episodes. [4] Finally, my findings call for revision of current materials for teaching academic listening comprehension and for less immediate goal-orientation in applied analysis.

Peer Tutoring and Second Language Acquisition in the Elementary School[1]

49   BEVERLY OLSON FLANIGAN

Ohio University

[1] In earlier studies of classroom second language learning attention was focused on teacher-pupil interaction. However, it is evident that learners learn in many ways, and studies of 'group-fronted' classes suggest that pupil-pupil interaction may lead to more comprehensible linguistic input and more productive and 'negotiated' output. At the level of child second language acquisition, such interaction has been studied primarily as language-in-play, with the focus on learner output, but research on caretaker language and foreigner talk has also led to studies of whether, and how, children simplify, repeat, and expand utterances as they speak with less proficient interlocutors. The present study reports on the 'tutor talk' used in two typical peer situations within a local elementary school: (1) in teacher-directed NNS-NNS (non-native speaker) pairings in the ESL classroom, and (2) in pupil-initiated pairings as native or more proficient non-native English-speaking children help LEP (low English proficiency) children in content-based lessons. It is concluded that, while little sentence-level simplification is used by the tutors, extensive use is made of conversational and tutorial strategies similar to those used by native and non-native adults. Samples and tabulations are given of the 'tutor talk' used in the six dyads observed.

Second Language Reading: Reading Ability or Language Proficiency?

50   PATRICIA L. CARRELL

University of Akron

The extent to which reading in a second language is a function of the transfer of first language reading abilities or of language proficiency in the second language has been a matter of debate for some time (Clarke 1979, 1980; Alderson 1984). Although studies of this question have been carried out, a major problem in the design of these studies has been their failure to gather sufficient information. What has been missing is sufficient information on reading ability in the first language, reading ability in the foreign or second language, and information about the foreign or second language proficiency of the same individuals (Alderson 1984:21). The study reported in this article investigated the first and second language reading comprehension of adult native speakers of Spanish and English who were foreign or second language learners of the other language at different proficiency levels. Results, reported in terms of second language reading as a function of first language reading ability, and second language proficiency, show both to be statistically significant factors. Of particular interest is the difference in the relative importance of each factor for each group of readers.

Error: Some Problems of Definition, Identification, and Distinction

51   PAUL LENNON

University of Kassel

This paper provides various procedural criteria for performing error analysis, and introduces two new dimensions of error, 'extent' and 'domain', which serve to differentiate errors systematically. Section 1 examines previous approaches to error analysis (1.1), offers a working definition of error (1.2), and considers the problems involved in error identification, particularly of a spoken corpus (1.3), with regard to both 'global' and 'local' errors (1.4). Attention is drawn, too, to the middle ground of advanced learner performance, which is neither fully erroneous nor fully nativelike (1.5). Section 2 examines an advanced learner spoken corpus for error; subjects, methods, and aims are presented (2.1, 2.2); the definition in 1.2 is applied (2.3); error identification by a native speaker panel is reported (2.4), and procedural criteria for distinguishing between 'type' and 'token' are developed (2.5); the most borderline error cases are scrutinized, and it is suggested that proximate cumulation of infelicity may make for perceived error in some cases (2.6). Section 3 introduces and defines error extent and domain (3.1, 3.2), illustrated by examples from the corpus. The concepts are applied to define three distinct types of lexical error (3.3), to deal systematically with error embedded within error (3.4), and to distinguish between type and token (3.4).

Second Language Learners in a Stratified Multilingual Setting

52   M. B. H. RAMPTON

University College of Ripon and York St John

This paper discusses the ethnographic investigation of a multilingual adolescent peer group in which various forms of second/other language learner status had considerable social significance. The paper describes the learning and use of minority languages by youngsters from other language backgrounds, and begins by discussing the role of Panjabi as a language learner language within jocular abuse. This is compared with other Panjabi second language socialising contexts, and brief reference is made to the ways in which language learner English is symbolically invoked in peer group discourse. The aim is to illustrate the ways that a repertoire of languages and language learner statuses serve as differentiated resources which adolescents draw on in efforts to define community and affirm or contest social structure. In the light of this evidence, the paper then examines possible extensions in second language acquisition (SLA) discussion of communication strategies and the social and affective influences on language learning. The social symbolic aspects of language are stressed and a shift in methodological emphases is suggested. Finally, questions are raised about the manner in which SLA research often seeks educational relevance. Interactional sociolinguistics is identified as a particularly useful approach to SLA research and application.

The Effects of Contextual Richness on the Guessability and the Retention of Words in a Foreign Language[1]

53

JAN-ARJEN MONDRIA and MARIJKE WIT-DE BOER

University of Groningen

One of the ideas that are currently gaining ground with regard to vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language is the view that inferring the meaning of a word from its context makes an important contribution towards the retention of the word in question. [2] A precondition for this is that the meaning be guessed correctly.

[3] In our study we investigated (1) which contextual factors influence the guessability of words, (2) how these factors influence receptive retention (after guessing and memorizing), and (3) what is the relationship between correctly or incorrectly guessing and retention (after a learning stage). [4] The main conclusions of this study are: (1) a specific filling-in of the factors subject, verb, and function contributes to the guessability of a word in a particular sentence context; (2) a specific filling-in of the above-mentioned factors in the process of guessing and learning has no effect on the retention (subject and verb) or a negative effect (function); (3) correctly guessing a word does not lead to an improved retention (after a learning stage) as compared with guessing a word incorrectly; for some words retention is even worse.

[5] To summarize: the factors that are conducive to guessing are not conducive to retention, at least not when after guessing a learning stage occurs with the aid of the same context as in the process of guessing.

The Processing Behaviours of Adult Second Language Learners and their Relationship to Second Language Proficiency[1]

54

FRANCIS MANGUBHAI

University College of Southern Queensland

This study investigated the behaviours for processing language input demonstrated by five adults beginning to learn Hindi as a second language through the Total Physical Response Method. [2] Theoretical models of second language acquisition, such as Krashen (1982, 1985) have proposed that comprehending 'input' in a new language is the only way of acquiring it. [3] Empirical studies, however, have not been conducted to examine closely how learners may vary in their behaviours for processing such input. [4] Concurrent think-aloud protocols, as well as immediate and delayed retrospective reports were collected over twenty teaching sessions. [5] Analyses set out to determine whether learners could be differentiated on the basis of the quantity and quality of their respective processing behaviours.

[6] A large proportion of the behaviours the learners engaged in to process the input were devoted to the extraction of meaning of utterances. [7] In addition, some learners occasionally devoted their attention to the form. [8] Such behaviours tended to occur when meaning retrieval was more automatic.

[9] 'Less successful' learners showed a greater reliance on just a few processing strategies. [10] These tended to involve either (1) a focus on content words and the use of extra-linguistic information to arrive at the meaning or (2) a translation method that gave equal weight to each word in an utterance. [11] Associated with these tendencies was a greater focus on single words, rather than on phrases or clauses. [12] Slower learners repeated Hindi less often for the purpose of practice. [13] In contrast, two of the 'more successful' learners used a variety of approaches to processing the input and preferred to extract the meaning of utterances via Hindi itself rather than translating Hindi into English. [14] In addition they also exhibited proportionally more instances of repetition for the purpose of practice.

[15] The study suggests that when adult learners are provided with comprehensible input, they engage in a variety of behaviours to extract meaning from it. Some learners, when the retrieval of meaning is relatively automatic, occasionally devote their attention to form. [16] The better learners also practise more. [17] Overall, the frequency of certain behaviours appears to be related to a higher attainment in a second language.

Linguistic, Cultural, and Subcultural Issues in Contrastive Discoure Analysis: Anglo-American and Chinese Scientific Texts

55

GORDON TAYLOR and CHEN TINGGUANG

Monash University, Melbourne   *Central South University of Technology, Changsha*

[1] Empirical studies designed to test Kaplan's thesis that discourse structure varies widely with 'culturo-linguistic systems' have provoked wildly conflicting results. [2] This lack of agreement is due in large measure to certain assumptions being made about the relation between a language system and a culture, to the nature of the questions being asked, and to a certain amount of disarray in the methodology of studies mounted to test the claim. [3] To overcome these problems, this paper focuses on the likely sources of variability in discourse structure by comparing the introductions to papers written in variety of related disciplines by three groups of physical scientists: Anglo-Americans writing in English, Chinese writing in English, and Chinese writing in Chinese. [4] We find that there is, indeed, an underlying rhetorical structure common to all language groups and disciplines, but that there are systematic variations from this structure. [5] Some variations characterize the discipline rather than the language or nationality of the writers. [6] Others show strong differences between western and Chinese scientists, irrespective of language. [7] The nature of these variations indicates the futility of broad generalizations about the connections between discourse structure and 'culturo-linguistic systems', a finding that courses in English for academic purposes should heed.

Evaluation in the Reporting Verbs Used in Academic Papers

56

GEOFF THOMPSON   and   YE YIYUN

University of Liverpool   *Tongji University, Shanghai*

[1] This paper discusses the results of a project to identify the kinds of verbs used in citations in academic papers, as a basis for developing teaching materials for non-native-speaker students who need to read or write academic papers. [2] Categories are suggested for classifying the verbs both in terms of their denotation and of their evaluative potential, in order to illuminate the role that they play in the evaluation that their presence entails. [3] The ways in which denotation and evaluative potential interact and some of the effects of the immediate context (for example, negation) are examined. [4] Particular attention is paid to the ways in which the writer commits herself to or detaches herself from the reported proposition to varying degrees. [5] Finally, an idealized model of the 'layers of report' that may be involved in citations is presented as a means of drawing together the various choices available. [6] The model may serve as a pedagogic image to help the students in understanding or choosing reporting verbs and, beyond that, in interpreting or conveying evaluation in academic papers.

Incorporating Native Speaker Norms in Second Language Materials[1]

57

NADINE O'CONNOR DI VITO

Georgetown University

This paper examines the distribution and productivity of different linguistic structures and patterns in one target language, French, and shows why this information is important when deciding the linguistic content of French second language textbooks. [2] Comparisons are made between French native speaker language use and the grammar rules typically presented in French second language textbooks, and implications for second language learning are discussed.

Relative Knowledge of Content Domain: An Influence on Native–Non-native Conversations

58 JANE ZUENGLER and BARBARA BENT

University of Wisconsin-Madison   University of Iowa

[1]The study was undertaken to determine whether content knowledge influences conversational participation when native speakers (NSs) interact with non-native speakers (NNSs).[2]It also investigated whether NSs tend to participate more actively than NNSs in NS-NNS interactions.[3]The hypotheses concerned predictions that (1) when the interlocutors have relatively equal content knowledge, the NS will participate more and (2) when the interlocutors have relatively unequal knowledge of the domain, the relative content 'expert' (NS or NNS) will show more conversational participation.[4]The content domains chosen were the subjects' major field and a domain outside their major field.
[5]Conversations from 45 NS-NNS pairs were analysed for amount of talk, fillers, back-channels, interruptions, resisting interruptions, and topic moves. [6]Outcomes of several measures reveal participation patterns which can be explained by the interlocutors' relative content knowledge.[7]No clear, overall tendency was found for the NS to participate more actively in the conversation.

Input Enhancement and L2 Question Formation

59 LYDIA WHITE, NINA SPADA

McGill University

PATSY M. LIGHTBOWN, LEILA RANTA

Concordia University

[1]In this study, we investigate the extent to which form-focused instruction and corrective feedback (i.e. 'input enhancement'), provided within a primarily communicative program, contribute to learners' accuracy in question formation.[2]Over a two-week period, three experimental classes of beginner level francophone ESL learners (aged 10–12 years) were exposed to a variety of input enhancement activities on question formation.[3]Their performance on paper and-pencil tasks and an oral communication task was assessed on a pre-post test basis and compared with an uninstructed control group.[4]The results indicate that instruction contributed to syntactic accuracy and that learners who were exposed to the input enhancement activities significantly out performed the uninstructed learners.[5]These results are interpreted as evidence that input enhancement can bring about genuine changes in learners' interlanguage systems.

Learning a New Script: An Exploration of Sociolinguistic Competence

60 SUSAN RANNEY

University of Minnesota

The current interest in the development of communicative competence has led attention to the social uses of language in second language teaching and research.[2]While many studies have examined the acquisition of speech acts, there has been less research on the knowledge of how speech acts fit together in extended discourse.
[3]The present study proposes an alternative approach to research on the acquisition of sociocultural competence, focusing on a speech event rather than a speech act, and drawing on the concept of scripts as developed by cognitive psychologists.[4]The speech event examined here is the medical consultation, and the non-native speakers are Hmong learners of English, a group of refugees from Southeast Asia whose traditional view of illness and medicine is very different from the western model they encounter in the United States.
[5]This study is exploratory in nature, proposing a combination of methods to investigate norms for a speech event.[6]Script elicitation uncovered cultural knowledge of the choice and sequencing of language functions in the medical consultation.[7]Information from interviews and a discourse completion task for relevant speech acts was combined with the script data to provide a multi-dimensional picture of sociolinguistic knowledge for one speech event.

Compliments and Politeness in Peer-review Texts

61 DONNA M. JOHNSON

University of Arizona

[1]This paper reports on an empirical analysis of the forms, strategies, and functions of complimenting in one genre of written discourse.[2]The data base is a set of 51 peer-review texts written in an academic setting.[3]First, analyses are provided of the syntactic and lexical patterns of 256 compliments.[4]These analyses reveal the degree and nature of formulaicity in the compliments.[5]A related discussion of politeness considerations in the use of syntactic framing strategies is also offered.[6]Next, several complimenting discourse strategies used by writers to construct their texts are identified.[7]It was found, for example, that writers exhibited a remarkable regularity in the use of opening compliments. It is argued that writers use complimenting discourse strategies to establish and maintain rapport and to mitigate both global and specific face-threatening acts and that these social purposes help to account for both their frequency and patterning in the texts.

Some Properties of Bilingual Maintenance and Loss in Mexican Background High-School Students[1]

62

KENJI HAKUTA and DANIEL D'ANDREA

Stanford University   University of California,
                            Santa Cruz

[1]*Properties of the maintenance and loss of Spanish English bilingualism were investigated in 308 high-school students of Mexican background.*[2]*Subjects were classified by their depth of familial establishment in the United States.*[3]*The key variables investigated were their actual and self-reported proficiencies in Spanish and English, self-reported language choice behavior in various settings, and their language attitude.*[4]*The largest difference in Spanish proficiency was found between the cohort who were born in the United States but whose parents were born in Mexico and the cohort whose parents were born in the United States, with maintenance of Spanish evident up to this group.*[5]*Maintenance of Spanish proficiency was principally associated with adult language practice in the home, and was not predicted by the subject's language choice outside the home or their language attitude.*[6]*In turn, adult language choice was found to be affected by the demographic fact of immigration, the adult's ability to use English in the home, and increasing distance in the familial social network ties to Mexico.*[7]*Outside of the home domain, language choice was found to show rapid and constant shift towards English.*[8]*This shift in language choice was unrelated to Spanish proficiency, but instead was predicted by the subject's language attitude.*[9]*Language attitude also appeared to contaminate self-reported proficiency in both Spanish and English.*[10]*Finally, a response latency task for vocabulary production and recognition in Spanish suggested that attrition of Spanish is best characterized as difficulty in retrieval rather than total loss.*

Possession in a New Language

63

PETER BROEDER

Tilburg University

During the early stages of the language acquisition process, learner varieties necessarily consist of a restricted set of linguistic devices which the learner has to use as efficiently as possible in daily interactions with other speakers of the target language.[2]*This paper deals with the untutored acquisition of possessive constructions in Dutch by two Turkish and two Moroccan adults during the first three years of their stay in The Netherlands.*[3]*The main questions are how adult language learners start out encoding possessive relationships between people and objects, how their repertoire develops, and why they make the choices they make.*[4]*The focus is on the order of the owner and the possession in possessive constructions.*[5]*The hypothesis is that the order preferences of adult learners in the target language are strongly influenced by ordering conventions in the source systems.*

Implicit and Explicit Grammar: An Empirical Study

64

PETER S. GREEN and KARLHEINZ HECHT

University of York   University of Munich

Foreign language learners are commonly taught explicit rules of grammar, but often fail to apply them when confronted with communicative tasks.[2]*How well have they learnt the rules?*[3]*Do they recognize where they are to be applied?*[4]*Are they better at some rules than others?*[5]*Above all, how is getting the language right related to explicit rule knowledge?*
[6]*Twelve errors commonly committed by German pupils performing communicative tasks in English were put before 300 German learners of English at different levels.*[7]*They were asked to state the rules they believed had been transgressed and to correct the errors.*[8]*A peer group of 50 native speakers of English was given the same test.*[9]*The learners' ability to state relevant rules and supply appropriate corrections for the errors is examined with reference to some of the assumptions and expectations that lie behind explicit grammar teaching.*

Forced Choice Recognition of Sign in Novice Learners of British Sign Language

65

RUTH CAMPBELL,   PAULA MARTIN,   THERESA WHITE

Goldsmiths College   Friends World College, New York   University of Oxford

[1]*Novice learners of British Sign Language (BSL) and matched sign-naïve subjects were given a recognition test for possible and 'impossible' BSL signs (Experiment 1).*[2]*Three list types were investigated: a list of signs known to the learners; a similar list not known to the learners; and a list of 'non-signs' formed using 'illegal' BSL formational parameters.*[3]*Novice-learners were superior to non-learners on all lists.*[4]*In a different population of sign-naïve subjects (Experiment 2), people who tried to name the signs on presentations were significantly better than non-namers.*[5]*Recognition performance was significantly better for 'legal' than 'illegal' signs in all groups and conditions.*
[6]*Overall, it was rated iconicity, not knowledge of sign, that determined recognition accuracy.*[7]*Iconicity also correlated with ease of naming where naming was required at presentation, although naming did not interact with iconicity in predicting recognition scores in Experiment 2.*
[8]*We conclude that the superiority of sign-learners in this task may reflect a general improvement in the ability to process potentially meaningful gestures (which have the perceptual property of configural coherence, reflected in high iconicity scores) and that naming on presentation can be one aspect of such improvement.*[9]*This may be a transitory stage in the acquisition of sign as a second language.*

Definitions in Science Lectures

66

JOHN FLOWERDEW

City Polytechnic of Hong Kong

[1]*This paper is an empirical study of the speech act of definition in science lectures.*[2]*Definitions occurring in sixteen lectures by native speaker biology and chemistry lecturers to non-native speaker students were transcribed and coded onto a computer data base, according to twenty-eight linguistic and paralinguistic features.*[3]*Data were obtained regarding frequency, distribution, function, and form of definitions.*[4]*A total of 315 terms were defined, indicating an average frequency of occurrence of one definition per 1 minute 55 seconds.*[5]*Definitions were found to fulfil one of two main functions: signposting the logical/discourse structure of the subject/lecture, or helping to maintain comprehension as the discourse progresses.*[6]*Definitions were found to often cluster together in discourse, but there was no evidence of them being more frequent at the beginning of lectures.*[7]*Definitions were classified into three major types and one minor type, each of the major types being further subclassified.*[8]*Findings are reported for ordering of the semantic elements of definitions, syntactic and lexical signalling devices, and various rhetorical and paralinguistic features which accompany definitions.*[9]*A final section discusses implications for pedagogy.*

Reasons for the Correlation of Voice, Tense, and Sentence Function in Reporting Verbs

6 7

PHILIP SHAW

University of Newcastle upon Tyne

[1]*The tense, aspect, or voice of verbs in academic writing often seems to be related to degrees of generality or relevance or to signal discourse functions like transition or foregrounding.* [2]*The Introduction sections of some Ph.D theses were examined to determine the significance of verb form in reporting verbs like* find *or* show. [3]*When forms were classified in relation to sentence function some correlation with tense was found.* [4]*However, there were also correlations between tense and voice (past going with active and perfect with passive) and between these two and sentence form.* [5]*This can be explained in terms of thematization: selection of a particular noun as subject/theme entails selection of active or passive, and with them apparently past or perfect.* [6]*The correlations between verb form and sentence function are partly secondary consequences of subject choice which itself derives from considerations of information structure and cohesion.* [7]*Discussion of topicalization and topic change should be as important in analysis of formal writing as the assignation of meaning to verb forms.*

The Evolution of Medical Research Writing from 1735 to 1985: The Case of the Edinburgh Medical Journal

6 8

DWIGHT ATKINSON

University of Southern California

[1]*A crucial event in the historical evolution of scientific English was the birth of the scientific journal.* [2]*This event, and its early rhetorical consequences, have been well described in recent research.* [3]*In contrast, few details are known concerning subsequent developments in scientific writing from the eighteenth century onward.* [4]*In this paper, the changing language and rhetoric of medical research reporting over the last 250 years are characterized and the underlying causes of these changes investigated.*

[5]*Research articles from the* Edinburgh Medical Journal, *the oldest continuing medical journal in English, constitute the corpus in this study.* [6]*Sampling took place at seven intervals beween 1735 and 1985, with two types of data analysis being performed: rhetorical analysis focusing on the broad genre characteristics of articles; and linguistic analysis of these articles' registral features using Biber's system of text analysis.*

[7]*Results indicate that the linguistic/rhetorical evolution of medical research writing can be accounted for on the basis of the changing epistemological norms of medical knowledge, the growth of a professional medical community, and the periodic redefinition of medicine vis-à-vis the non-medical sciences.*

Managing the Complexity of Revising Across Languages 69

CHRIS HALL
Wright State University

[1]Although previous research in ESL composition suggests a link between writing in a first and second language, few studies have investigated this relationship in the context of the revising process. [2]This article examines revision in controlled L1 and L2 writing tasks. [3]Four advanced ESL writers with differing first language backgrounds wrote two argumentative essays in their native languages and two in English. [4]Revisions were then analyzed for specific discourse and linguistic features. [5]The results, for the most part, indicate striking similarities across languages. [6]However, some differences are noted, suggesting that while proficient writers are capable of transferring their revision processes across languages, they are also capable of adapting some of those processes to new problems imposed by a second language.

Another Turn in the Conversation: What Does Cloze Measure? 70

JOHN JONZ
East Texas State University

[1]This study addresses a controversy in cloze testing. [2]At issue is whether the cloze procedure measures comprehension that ranges beyond the context immediately surrounding a cloze deletion. [3]Eight cloze passages published over the past 15 years were analyzed, using a system that (a) estimates the quantity of text required to cue closure of any one blank (Bachman, 1985) and (b) considers the linguistic category of the deleted word. [4]The research reported here demonstrates that across the cloze tests considered, the standard fixed-ratio cloze procedure has a high level of sensitivity to intersentential ties and lexical selections, and that the kinds of language knowledge required to complete cloze tests is virtually the same from one test to the next. [5]The implication of these findings is that the fixed-ratio cloze procedure is far from erratic in its selection of item types. [6]This study suggests that, for deriving tests of language comprehension, the cloze procedure produces tests that are generally consistent in the ways they measure the language knowledge of examinees.

Strategies of Unsuccessful Language Learners 71

ROBERTA J. VANN and ROBERTA G. ABRAHAM
Iowa State University

[1]Recent research on learning strategies has yielded conflicting findings and generated limited success in learner training. [2]These problems may be rooted in inadequate knowledge of the actual strategies used by unsuccessful learners in contrast to what they *report* doing. [3]The present study combines methods to probe the strategies of two unsuccessful learners—both Saudi Arabian women enrolled in an academically oriented intensive English program (IEP)—as they completed four activities (an interview, a verb exercise, a cloze passage, and a composition). [4]After task requirements were determined, learner strategies were ascertained by analyzing think-aloud protocols and task products. [5]These combined analyses offer a detailed and insightful picture of learner strategies, providing counterevidence for the claim that unsuccessful learners are inactive. [6]When viewed through the task-demand model proposed here, these unsuccessful learners emerged as active strategy users, though they sometimes applied strategies inappropriately. [7]The model also revealed fundamental differences in the approaches to problem solving used by learners who appear similar on the basis of simple strategy counts. [8]This research provides evidence of the importance of case studies in verifying critical assumptions about second language learning.

Predicting Success for International Teaching Assistants in a U.S. University 72

GEORGE YULE and PAUL HOFFMAN
Louisiana State University

[1]In this analysis of the performance of 233 international graduate assistants during a 2-year period, we attempted, via Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and Graduate Record Exam (GRE) scores submitted at the time of application, to predict which of these students would eventually receive positive or negative recommendations to be assigned teaching duties. [2]Students who received negative recommendations were found, on average, to have significantly lower TOEFL and GRE Verbal scores than those who received positive recommendations. [3]The percentage of each recommendation group scoring at or above a series of TOEFL cutoff scores was established and used to calculate the ratio of risk (funding students who will receive a negative recommendation) to reward (funding students who will receive a positive recommendation). [4]The relationship of recommendation type to subsequent grade point average (GPA) showed a significant difference in favor of the positive group during the first year of graduate study, but not thereafter. [5]Implications are explored for decision making and the advising of other academic departments regarding the awarding of teaching assistantships to international students.

Reading-Writing Relationships in First and Second Language* 73

JOAN EISTERHOLD CARSON
Georgia State University

PATRICIA L. CARRELL
University of Akron

SANDRA SILBERSTEIN
University of Washington

BARBARA KROLL
California State University, Northridge

PHYLLIS A. KUEHN
Georgia State University

[1] The study reported in this article examined the first language and second language reading and writing abilities of adult ESL learners to determine the relationships across languages (L1 and L2) and across modalities (reading and writing) in the acquisition of L2 literacy skills.[2]Specifically, we investigated relationships (a) between literacy skills in a first language and literacy development in a second language (i.e., between reading in L1 and L2, and between writing in L1 and L2), and (b) between reading and writing in L1 and L2 (i.e., between reading and writing in L1, and between reading and writing in L2).[3]The subjects, Japanese and Chinese ESL students in academic settings, were asked to write an essay and to complete a cloze passage in both their first and second languages.[4]The results indicate that literacy skills can transfer across languages, but that the pattern of this transfer varies for the two language groups.[5]It also appears that reading ability transfers more easily from L1 to L2 than does writing ability, and that the relationship between reading and writing skills varies for the two language groups.[6]These data suggest that L2 literacy development is a complex phenomenon for already literate adult second language learners involving variables such as L2 language proficiency, L1 and L2 educational experience, and cultural literacy practices that may be related to different patterns of L2 literacy acquisition.

The Relationship Between Overall Reading Comprehension and Comprehension of Coreferential Ties for Second Language Readers of English 74

MARJORIE C. DEMEL
Denison University

[1] The study reported here investigates the relationship between overall comprehension and the comprehension of coreferential pronouns for second language readers of English.[2]In the first phase of the study, L2 students at The Ohio State University read a passage of contemporary U.S. literature.[3]Overall comprehension was measured by an immediate recall protocol, and coreferent comprehension was measured by a coreferent-identification task. [4]In the second phase of the study, both L1 and L2 subjects were observed.[5]Discriminant function analysis, along with information from interviews, provided insight into the types of errors made by L1 and L2 readers.[6]The results suggest that misunderstanding of coreferential ties reflects a misunderstanding of the descriptive phrases to which the pronouns refer.

Student Input and Negotiation of Meaning in ESL Writing Conferences 75

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Monterey Institute of International Studies

SUSAN M. CONRAD
Central Washington University

[1]Research and practice in composition pedagogy suggest that student-teacher conferences play an important role in helping students become more effective writers.[2]Many students, teachers, and researchers believe that conferences are valuable because they allow students to control the interaction, actively participate, and clarify their teachers' responses.[3]This paper reports the results of a study that examined the degree to which these characteristics were present in conferences between one teacher and each of three students enrolled in an advanced ESL composition course.[4]In addition, the study looked at the students' texts to determine how students dealt with the revisions discussed in the conferences and the role negotiation of meaning played in the success of such revisions.[5]There were large differences in the degree to which students participated in the conferences and negotiated meaning. [6]In addition, students who negotiated meaning made revisions in the following draft that improved the text.[7]In contrast, when students did not negotiate meaning, even when they actively participated in the conference, they tended either not to make revisions or to make mechanical, sentence-level changes that often resulted in texts that were not qualitatively better than previous drafts.

Attitudes of Native and Nonnative Speakers Toward Selected Regional Accents of U.S. English 76

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Florida Institute of Technology

[1]Although some research has been done on the attitudes of native speakers of English toward various regional varieties of U.S. English, few studies have been done on nonnative speakers' reactions toward regional accents.[2]This empirical investigation sought to determine the attitudes of both L1 and L2 listeners toward specific regional accents of U.S. English and to compare and/or contrast those attitudes.[3]The subjects were 97 university students from Florida Institute of Technology, half of whom were L2 listeners (advanced ESL students) and half of whom were L1 listeners. [4]Through the use of a modification of the matched guise technique, the students listened to tapes of the same passage read by a male and female native speaker from each of the following accent groups: (a) southern (South Carolina), (b) northern (New York), and (c) midwestern (Illinois).[5]Respondents then recorded their attitudes about each of the readers using a Likert scale.[6]The results indicated that the judgments of L2 subjects differed from those of L1 subjects and that L2 subjects were able to perceive differences in regional accents of U.S. English.

A Content Comprehension Approach to Reading English for Science and Technology   77

THOM HUDSON
University of Hawaii at Manoa

English for special purposes (ESP) reading programs often take specific grammar, vocabulary, and isolated reading skills as the organizing principle for syllabus design and fail to acknowledge how the act of comprehending text can affect reading ability. The present study reports on an ESP reading project which emphasizes the role of content comprehension. The context of the study is the Reading English for Science and Technology Project in the Chemical Engineering Department of the Universidad de Guadalajara. The materials for the 2-year course were developed around thematic units which correspond to undergraduate course content. Instruction presented grammar and vocabulary only as they were necessary for comprehension of the text. The study examines whether the emphasis on reading for content improved reading comprehension as well as knowledge of reading grammar and general reading ability. Students were administered three reading tests: reading grammar, comprehension, and cloze. Significant differences were found for instructional status and subtest and for each subtest by instructional level. The results of this study suggest that the content comprehension approach can improve reading comprehension as well as knowledge of reading grammar and general reading ability.

Do English and ESL Faculties Rate Writing Samples Differently?   78

JAMES DEAN BROWN
University of Hawaii at Manoa

This study investigates the degree to which differences exist in the writing scores of native speakers and international students at the end of their respective first-year composition courses (ESL 100 and ENG 100, in this case). Eight members each from the ESL and English faculties at the University of Hawaii at Manoa rated 112 randomly assigned compositions without knowing which type of students had written each. A holistic 6-point (0-5) rating scale initially devised by the English faculty was used by all raters. Raters were also asked to choose the best and worst features (from among cohesion, content, mechanics, organization, syntax, or vocabulary) of each composition as they rated it. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant mean differences between native-speaker and ESL compositions or between the ratings given by the English and ESL faculties. However, the features analysis showed that the ESL and English faculties may have arrived at their scores from somewhat different perspectives.

Communicating About Grammar: A Task-Based Approach   79

SANDRA FOTOS and ROD ELLIS
Temple University Japan

Providing learners with grammar problems they must solve interactively integrates grammar instruction with opportunities for meaningful communication. This article reports the results of an exploratory study of the use of a communicative, grammar-based task in the college EFL classroom. The two research questions addressed are whether the task successfully promoted L2 linguistic knowledge of a specific grammar point and whether it produced the kind of negotiated interaction which has been assumed to facilitate L2 acquisition. The limited results of this investigation suggest that the grammar task encouraged communication about grammar and enabled EFL learners to increase their knowledge of a difficult L2 rule.

Building a Vocabulary Through Academic Reading   80

KATE PARRY
Hunter College, The City University of New York

This paper reports a series of longitudinal case studies designed to address the question of how language learners build their vocabularies. Students who were enrolled in an anthropology class were asked to record the words that caused them difficulty as they read their anthropology texts, and to write down, if they could, what they thought the words meant. The resulting lists are analyzed in terms of the kinds of words listed, the accuracy of the glosses, and the probable reasons for misinterpretation; the analysis is considered in relation to data collected in protocols and a translation task. The conclusions are that a range of strategies may be used for learning vocabulary, each involving liabilities as well as assets. Students need to be aware of the range so as to develop flexibility in their responses to unfamiliar words.

A Comparison of Three Learning Strategies for ESL Vocabulary Acquisition   81

THOMAS S. BROWN
Boise, Idaho

FRED L. PERRY, JR.
American University in Cairo

The purpose of this study was to compare three learning strategies—differentiated according to Craik & Lockhart's (1972) "depths of processing" theory—for ESL vocabulary. Six intact ESL classes at two levels of proficiency were divided into three treatment groups (keyword, semantic, and keyword-semantic). These Arabic-speaking students then received 4 days of instruction. Both recognition and cued-recall instruments were used to measure effects both 1 day and 9 days after treatment. Cued-recall results immediately after treatment revealed that the keyword method facilitated vocabulary acquisition for lower-proficiency students. The delayed results for both the recognition and cued-recall tests suggested that the combined keyword-semantic strategy increased retention above the other strategies. Possible applications of these findings are discussed.

"Spinach to Chocolate": Changing Awareness and Attitudes in ESL Writing Teachers   82

LISE WINER
Southern Illinois University–Carbondale

[1] This paper uses data from student journals in a TESL writing practicum to trace the process by which practice of and reflection on specific activities change awareness of and attitudes toward writing and the teaching of writing. [2] Students highlighted four areas as problems: dread of writing, boring or intimidating topics, insecurity about writing skills, and insecurity about teaching skills (particularly providing feedback). [3] Students also identified five strategies on the part of the instructor as most helpful in effecting change: having students design and respond to writing tasks, requiring mandatory revision, guiding peer coaching, providing guided practice in topic development, and developing understanding of the writing process. [4] In contrast to contemporary polarized models, the paper demonstrates the necessity of integrating training and development in teacher education.

Native and Nonnative Reactions to ESL Compositions   83

TOSHIHIKO KOBAYASHI
University of Hawaii Kapiolani Community College

[1] This study investigated how English native speakers (ENSs) and Japanese native speakers (JNSs) at professorial, graduate, and undergraduate levels evaluate and edit ESL compositions written by Japanese college students. [2] A total of 269 subjects first evaluated two compositions in terms of grammaticality, clarity of meaning, naturalness, and organization, using 10-point scales. [3] English native speakers were more strict about grammaticality than were Japanese native speakers. [4] In terms of clarity of meaning and organization, English native-speaking professors and graduate students gave more positive evaluations for both compositions than did the comparable Japanese-speaking groups. [5] However, the Japanese undergraduates evaluated both compositions much more positively than did the English undergraduates. [6] Comparisons in terms of naturalness were not generalizable because they showed different results between the two compositions. [7] The subjects then edited the composition, correcting everything that seemed ungrammatical, unacceptable, or unnatural. [8] ENSs provided far more corrections and corrected errors more accurately than did the JNSs. [9] In both L1 groups, the higher the academic status of the evaluating group, the more accurately the group corrected errors. [10] JNSs left many errors uncorrected, especially errors involving articles, number, prepositions, and lexical items which occur in Japanese as loan words from English.

Discourse Structure of Direction Giving: Effects of Native/Nonnative Speaker Status and Gender   84

BETHYL A. PEARSON and K. SAMUEL LEE
Arizona State University

[1] This article tests the effects of native/nonnative (NS/NNS) English-speaker status and gender on the structure of directions issued by native speakers of English. [2] By extending the scope of earlier studies, this paper confirms that direction giving on the U.S. university campus is highly conventionalized (Scotton & Bernsten, 1988). [3] At the same time, it argues that NS/NNS status and gender systematically influence a small range of linguistic choices in the exchange. [4] Specifically, direction givers do make coordinated speech modifications, i.e., use certain features of *foreigner register* to NNSs in this conversation type, but these adjustments do not match earlier findings (Varonis & Gass, 1982). [5] In addition, gender of both the direction giver (Scotton & Bernsten, 1988) and the direction seeker influence the structure and content of the discourse. [6] The joint effects of these variables also play a relevant role. ESOL instruction can benefit, it is argued, by understanding the components of this discourse patterning.

Bilingual Readers' Use of Background Knowledge in Learning from Text   85

CATHY M. ROLLER
The University of Iowa

ALEX R. MATAMBO
University of Zimbabwe

[1] An experiment exploring Zimbabwean bilingual readers' use of background knowledge in reading comprehension is reported. [2] In contrast to previous results (Carrell, 1983), the bilingual participants of these experiments do use context to improve comprehension on some passages. [3] An interaction between passages and provision of a context is similar to an interaction reported by Lee (1986), who conducted a partial replication of Carrell's study. [4] Post hoc explanations for passage-context interactions are offered.

ESL Student Bias in Instructional Evaluation   86

ANN K. WENNERSTROM and PATTY HEISER
University of Washington

[1] This paper reports on a statistical analysis of ESL student evaluations of teachers in two large ESL programs. [2] Evaluation responses were collected along with information on students' cultural and personal backgrounds. [3] Results indicated that systematic bias occurs in ESL student evaluations due to ethnic background, level of English, course content, and attitude toward the course. [4] Another finding was a student perception of subgroups among the evaluation questions, implying that not all questions should be counted equally. [5] These results raise issues of fairness in the use of student evaluations of ESL teachers for purposes of personnel decisions.

See How They Read: Comprehension Monitoring of L1 and L2 Readers

87

ELLEN L. BLOCK
Baruch College, The City University of New York

[1] This paper illustrates the comprehension-monitoring process used by first and second language readers of English as they read expository prose. [2] The think-aloud protocols of 25 college freshmen were collected. [3] Sixteen (8 L1 and 8 L2 readers) were classified as proficient, 9 as nonproficient (3 L1 and 6 L2 readers). [4] The monitoring process is discussed with respect to two specific problems: one involving a search for a referent, the other, a vocabulary problem. [5] Three phases and six specific steps are defined: evaluation phase (problem recognition and problem source identification), action phase (strategic plan and action/solution attempt), and checking phase (check and revision). [6] The responses indicated that monitoring was most thorough with the referent problem when the problem was explicitly signaled. [7] The process was somewhat truncated with the vocabulary problem. [8] Proficient L2 readers performed similarly to proficient L1 readers; less proficient L2 readers performed similarly to less proficient L1 readers. [9] Although the general trends shown in L1 research were supported, there were some discrepancies in developmental trends. [10] Caution is advised in applying the results of L1 research to L2 readers.

The Effect of Speech Modification, Prior Knowledge, and Listening Proficiency on EFL Lecture Learning

88

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PATRICIA DUNKEL
The Pennsylvania State University

[1] This study investigates the listening comprehension of 388 high-intermediate listening proficiency (HILP) and low-intermediate listening proficiency (LILP) Chinese students of English as a foreign language. [2] These students listened to a lecture, the discourse of which was (a) familiar-unmodified, (b) familiar-modified, (c) unfamiliar-unmodified, or (d) unfamiliar-modified. [3] The modified discourse contained information redundancies and elaborations. [4] After the lecture, the EFL subjects took a multiple-choice exam testing recognition of information presented in the lecture and general knowledge of the familiar ("Confucius and Confucianism") and unfamiliar ("The Amish People") topics. [5] A significant interaction between speech modification (redundant vs. nonredundant speech) and listening proficiency (HILP vs. LILP) indicated that the HILP students benefited from speech modification, which entailed elaboration/redundancy of information, but the LILP students did not. [6] A significant interaction between prior knowledge (familiar vs. unfamiliar topic) and test type (passage-independent vs. passage-dependent items) was also found. [7] For both the HILP and LILP subjects, prior knowledge had a significant impact on subjects' memory for information contained in the passage-independent test items on the postlecture comprehension test. [8] Those EFL subjects who listened to the familiar-topic lecture on Confucius had higher passage-independent than passage-dependent scores. [9] There was no difference in the performance on the passage-independent and passage-dependent items of those who listened to the lecture on an unfamiliar topic (the Amish). [10] However, the passage-independent performance of subjects who listened to the familiar topic lecture was superior to that of those who listened to the lecture on the unfamiliar topic. [11] Subjects' performance on passage-dependent items did not differ significantly whether the familiar or unfamiliar topic was presented. [12] Implications of the findings for assessing and teaching EFL listening comprehension are suggested.

Communicative Interaction and Second Language Acquisition: An Inuit Example

89

MARTHA B. CRAGO
McGill University

[1] This article reports on research findings that emerged during a longitudinal ethnographic study on the role of cultural context in the communicative interactions of young Inuit (Eskimo) children and their caregivers. [2] The study was conducted in two small communities of arctic Quebec where Inuktitut, the native language of the Inuit, is spoken on a routine, daily basis. [3] The focus of the research was on discourse features of primary language socialization in Inuit families. [4] The incongruity of these features with the discourse in classrooms taught by non-Inuit second language teachers surfaced repeatedly during the course of the study. [5] This incongruity raised several issues pertinent to the learnability and teachability of second languages for Native populations. [6] Such issues are discussed here with reference to related second language acquisition literature. [7] In doing so, the interface between the sociocultural aspects of communicative interaction and second language acquisition is emphasized.

Learning to Teach: Instructional Actions and Decisions of Preservice ESL Teachers

90

KAREN E. JOHNSON
The Pennsylvania State University

[1] This study examines the instructional actions and decisions of preservice English as a second language teachers during their initial teaching experiences. [2] Six preservice ESL teachers viewed videotapes of their own teaching and provided recall comments that detailed their instructional decisions while teaching. [3] Transcriptions of videotaped lessons along with corresponding recall comments were examined to determine the ways in which these teachers perceived and responded to student input during second language instruction, the instructional decisions they made, and the prior knowledge they considered while making those decisions. [4] The results suggest that preservice ESL teachers' instructional actions were directed by unexpected student responses and the desire to maintain the flow of instructional activities. [5] Their instructional decisions were overwhelmingly influenced by the need to ensure student understanding, to increase student motivation and involvement, and to maintain control over instructional management. [6] The findings of this study highlight the cognitive demands placed on preservice ESL teachers and support the need for second language teacher preparation programs to provide opportunities for preservice ESL teachers to understand the dynamics of how they think and act as they learn to teach.

L2 Tense and Time Reference *q 1*

ELI HINKEL
The Ohio State University

[1]The meanings and forms of tenses are complex and often difficult for nonnative speakers to acquire.[2]The concepts associated with time which differ among language communities can present an additional level of complexity for learners.[3]In a survey, 130 ESL students were asked to describe the meanings of English tenses in terms of time concepts used in ESL grammar texts.[4]The results suggest that speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Arabic associate different temporal relationships with the terms *right now, present,* and *past* than do native speakers.[5]An implication of this finding is that grammar teaching that utilizes descriptions of time accepted in English-speaking communities to explain usages and meanings of English tenses can produce a low rate of learner comprehension.

Planning, Discourse Marking, and the Comprehensibility of International Teaching Assistants *q 2*

JESSICA WILLIAMS
University of Illinois

[1]An examination of the planned and unplanned production of 24 nonnative-speaking teaching assistants indicates that there is a greater difference between the 2 conditions in the degree of discourse marking than in grammatical accuracy.[2]In planned production, discourse moves were more likely to be marked overtly and explicitly than in unplanned production, whereas the level of syntactic and morphological errors differed only slightly.[3]This increased marking in the planned condition appeared to contribute significantly to comprehensibility, suggesting that explicit marking of discourse structure is a crucial element of the comprehensibility of nonnative-speaker production.

Discourse Structure and the Perception of Incoherence in International Teaching Assistants' Spoken Discourse *q 3*

ANDREA TYLER
University of Florida

[1]Work by discourse analysts shows that listeners' interpretation of discourse is determined not only by a speaker's pronunciation and grammar but also by discourse-level patterns of language use.[2]To date, relatively little is known about the discourse-level patterns typically found in the English of nonnative speakers, how they diverge from discourse produced by native speakers, or how differences in nonnative discourse patterns affect native English listeners' understanding of the discourse.[3]Using a qualitative discourse-analytic framework, this paper compares the planned spoken English of a native speaker of Chinese whose English discourse was perceived by native speakers of English as difficult to follow with that of a native speaker of U.S. English.[4]The analyses reveal a variety of differences in the use of discourse structuring devices, specifically in the areas of lexical discourse markers, lexical specificity, and syntactic incorporation.[5]It is argued that these differences in discourse-level patterns interfere with the listeners' ability to construct a coherent interpretation of the Chinese speaker's discourse.

The Role of Conjunctions in L2 Text Comprehension *q 4*

ESTHER GEVA
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

[1]Conjunctions make explicit the logical relations between propositions and signal text structure.[2]There is evidence from L1 research literature to show that skilled and less skilled readers differ in the degree to which they utilize explicit logical relations markers (i.e., conjunctions) in text and in the degree to which they infer implicit logical relations.[3]The purpose of the research reported here was to discover whether and at what level of L2 proficiency the meaning of conjunctions is comprehended by the adult literate L2 learner.[4]University-level L2 learners with English as L2 performed a number of tasks in which their comprehension of logical relationships and the conjunctions used to signal them was tested intrasententially, intersententially, and at discourse level.[5]Results suggest that the ability to realize the nature of logical relationships within local contexts is a necessary but not sufficient component of comprehension of such relations in extended discourse.[6]With increased proficiency, L2 learners improve their ability to utilize and infer logical relationships in extended discourse.

APPENDIX 2

Florianópolis, Brazil,

Dear Editor,

I am a graduate student doing research on genre analysis, specifically on the writing of journal abstracts. In my study, [NAME OF JOURNAL] appeared as one of the top three journals that are extensively read and cited by Brazilian applied linguistics researchers. It would be very helpful if I could receive the following information, concerning abstracts:

1) In actual practice, who usually writes the abstract: the author of the article or a journal abstractor?

2) In case the abstract is the work of the author:

(a) does s/he receive any guidelines in modifying his/her abstract?

(b) what minor and/or major editorial modifications s/he is generally advised to make?

(c) Are there any specific requirements that should be met?

3) In case the abstract is specially written by a journal abstractor, is there any format, style to conform to?

Thank you for your assistance.

Mauro Bittencourt dos Santos

Address:
E-mail:

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