THE DISCUSSION SECTION OF RESEARCH ARTICLES IN
APPLIED LINGUISTICS: GENERIC STRUCTURE AND
STANCE FEATURES

LEILA DOBAKHTI

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**ABSTRACT**

This thesis is a mixed-method genre-based study which analyzes the Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of Applied Linguistics. It is particularly focused on examining the generic structures and stance features of these two sets of articles. The study consists of two main parts. In the first part, 15 qualitative and 15 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections were analyzed employing Swales' (1990, 2004) move structure model. In the second part of the study, Hyland's (1999, 2005, 2008) taxonomy of stance features – hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self mention – was used to investigate stance features. This part of the study was conducted in two sections. In the first part, using WordPilot 2002, these four stance features were investigated in two specialized sub-corpora of 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative research articles' Discussion sections. The corpus analysis gave insightful information about the overall frequency as well as forms of stance features in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. In the second part, in order to identify in which parts of the Discussion section each of these stance features were clustered in, these features were investigated in various moves of the Discussion sections of 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative research articles. Identifying the main moves in which each of these stance features occurred more frequently, helped to justify and account for the differences identified in the frequency of these features in 200 research articles. It also helped to identify the main function of these features based on the communicative purpose of the moves that the stance features appeared more frequently in. After the text analyses were completed, interviews were carried out with four specialist informants to supplement them. The aim of conducting these interviews was to obtain the insiders' views on the conventions of the field and to verify the findings. Overall, the analysis revealed similarities as well as interesting differences between these two sets of articles in terms of generic structure and stance features. The differences and similarities can be attributed to the disciplinary conventions, different methodologies, and in the case of stance features to generic structure of these two sets of articles.

**ABSTRAK**

Tesis in adalah kajian berasakan genre menggunakan kaedah campuran yang menganalisis seksyen "Discussion" yang terdapat dalam artikel ilmiah kualitatif dan kuantitatif dalam bidang Linguistik Terapan. Tesis ini bertumpu kepada menilai struktur generik dan ciri-ciri "stance" yang terdapat pada kedua-dua set artikel ini. Kajian ini mengandungi dua bahagian utama. Dalam bahagian pertama, 15 artikel ilmiah kualitatif dan 15 artikel ilmiah kuantitatif dianalisis menggunakan model struktur move Swales (1990, 2004). Dalam bahagian kedua kajian ini, taksonomi ciri-ciri "stance" Hyland (1999, 2005, 2008) – "hedges, boosters, attitude markers" dan "self mention" – digunakan untuk mengkaji ciri-ciri "stance" dalam seksyen "Discussion" artikel ilmiah kualitatif dan kuantitatif. Bahagian kedua ini dilaksanakan dalam dua seksyen. Dalam seksyen pertama, dengan menggunakan WordPilot 2002, keempat-empat ciri "stance" dikaji dalam dua sub-korpora khusus daripada 100 artikel ilmiah kualitatif dan 100 artikel ilmiah kuantitatif. Analisis korpora memberi maklumat bermakna tentang kekerapan keseluruhan dan juga bentuk untuk ciri-ciri "stance" di dalam sub-korpora kualitatif dan kuantitatif. Dalam seksyen kedua, bagi mengenal pasti bahagian mana ciri-ciri "stance" ini dikelompokkan dalam seksyen "Discussion", ciri-ciri "stance" ini telah dikaji dalam pelbagai "moves" dalam seksyen "Discussion" daripada 10 artikel ilmiah kualitatif dan 10 artikel ilmiah kuantitatif. Setelah mengenal pasti "moves" utama di mana setiap ciri "stance" berlaku dengan lebih kerap, dapatan ini membantu mengesahkan dan menjelaskan perbezaan yang dikenal pasti dari segi kekerapan ciri-ciri ini di dalam 200 artikel ilmiah. Ia juga membantu untuk mengenal pasti fungsi utama ciri-ciri ini berdasarkan tujuan komunikasi "moves" di mana ciri-ciri "stance" muncul dengan lebih kerap. Setelah analisis teks dilakukan, temu bual telah dijalankan bersama empat pakar informan bagi menyokong dapatan. Tujuan melakukan temu bual ini adalah untuk mendapatkan pandangan pakar tentang konvensyen dalam bidang ini dan juga mengesahkan dapatan. Secara keseluruhan, analisis menunjukkan terdapat persamaan dan perbezaan, termasuk juga perbezaan yang menarik tentang kedua-dua set artikel ini dari segi struktur generik dan ciri-ciri "stance". Perbezaan dan persamaan ini boleh dikaitkan kepada konvensyen disiplin dan kaedah penyelidikan yang berbeza, dan dalam kes "stance" perbezaan dan persamaan ini boleh dikaitkan kepada struktur generic kedua-dua set artikel ini.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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| | |
|---|---|
| APP | Applied Linguistics (journal) |
| ESP | English for Specific Purposes (journal) |
| LTR | Language Teaching Research (journal) |
| PRAG | Journal of Pragmatics |
| Quali. | Qualitative |
| Quati. | Quantitative |
| RA | Research Article |
| RAs | Research Articles |
| SpeInfo | Specialist Informant |
| TESOL | TESOL Quarterly (journal) |

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**CHAPTER 1**

**INTRODUCTION**

## 1.1    INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Research articles (henceforth RAs) have received a wide interest in discourse studies over the last few decades. Two factors contribute to this interest. First, RAs are a central and preferred genre in exchanging and disseminating knowledge among academic community members. Second, it is "an indicator of academic achievement" (Azirah, 2005, p. 4) and in order to join the academic world, researchers and scholars need to publish their works. In other words, RAs not only help to extend knowledge in a particular area but also help to establish the personal reputation of the writer (Hyland, 1996). According to Peacock (2002, p. 480), RAs are "the key medium for the legitimating of claims and of disciplines". In Swales' (1990, p. 95) words, "publication is the major route to tenure, promotion, research grants and so on". Even recently, publishing RAs has become a requirement by universities for postgraduate students' graduation and academic staffs' promotion. Meanwhile, writing a research report is a challenging task for writers as they need to be familiar with the norms of their discourse community to establish the importance of their research and to show that their study is worthy of attention. In order to be able to negotiate with their discourse community and persuade them to accept their knowledge claims, writers need to be able to apply the knowledge of norms and conventions of their discourse community in their writing. Writing is a socially situated practice which is purposeful and is written for an audience (discourse community) (Candlin, 2000; Hüttner, Smit, & Mehlmauer-Larcher, 2009), and the discourse community (audience) may refute authors' claims at any stage if

authors do not meet the expectations of their audience (discourse community) ( Hyland, 2000).

One attempt to identify the discourse community norms has been made by genre analysts. Genre studies try to analyze and identify the conventions of genres in terms of organizational patterns (move structure) and/or discoursal features such as hedging, modality, stance, verb tense, and use of passive voice. A large number of studies have investigated the generic features of RAs in various disciplines. They have studied either the whole article or one section of RAs within the IMRD (Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion) framework including: RAs in Applied Linguistics (R. Yang, 2001); RAs in Biochemistry (Kanoksilapatham, 2005); RAs in Computer Science (Posteguillo, 1999); RAs in Medicine (Nwogu, 1997); Abstracts in Linguistics (Lorés, 2004); Abstracts and Introductions in Conservation Biology and Wildlife Behavior (Samraj, 2005); Introductions in Applied Linguistics (Ozturk, 2007); Results section in Management (Lim, 2006); Results section in Medicine (Williams, 1999), Results section in Sociology (Brett, 1994); Discussion section in History, Sociology and Political Science (R. Holmes, 1997); Discussion section in Agricultural Economics (R. Holmes, 2000); and Discussion section in seven disciplines of  Physics, Language and Linguistics, Environmental Science , Biology , Business, Law, and Public and Social Administration (Matthew Peacock, 2002). Another line of inquiry has focused on the discoursal features of RAs including: hedging (Hyland, 1996, 1998b; Salager-Meyer, 1994); boosters (Matthew  Peacock, 2006); reporting verbs (Thompson & Ye, 1991); stance (Baratta, 2009; Biber, 2006a); evaluation (Hunston & Thompson, 2000); and engagement (Hyland, 2002, 2005b).

One line of investigating the discoursal features has concentrated on stance. Over the last decade or so, a great deal of research has challenged the belief that writing

in professional academic discourse is presenting informational content objectively and has argued that in order to be persuasive the authors need to adopt certain positions. Hyland (2005b, p. 5) defines the features of a successful academic writing as "the ability of writers to offer a credible presentation of themselves and their work, by claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating their material and acknowledging alternative views". In other words, interacting with readers is an important element in persuading them. This interaction, according to Myers (1999), is the primary function of writing. Hyland (1999, 2005a, 2005b, 2008) argues that one of the ways of achieving this interaction is through the stance. Different studies have investigated the stance (e.g. Baratta, 2009; Berman, 2005; Biber, 2006; Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Hyland, 1999, 2005a, 2005b, 2008; Martin, 2000; Thompson, 2001; P. White, 2002). These studies have investigated the stance in written and spoken discourse and in writing of novice and expert writers and some have compared the use of stance by authors in different disciplines.

However, almost all of the genre studies investigating the RAs' generic structure or stance features have been concerned either with experimental RAs or with empirical (qualitative and quantitative) ones. While in some disciplines research might be equal to experimental research, in Applied Linguistics, research can be defined as "a systematic process of inquiry" which has three main components of "a question, problem, or hypothesis", "data", and "analysis and interpretation of these elements" (Nunan, 1999, p. 3). In disciplines such as the Applied Linguistics the problem or question can be investigated by gathering qualitative and/or quantitative data which are analyzed and interpreted qualitatively and/or quantitatively. In other words, research in the Applied Linguistics includes both the qualitative and quantitative design. As these two designs are different in some fundamental aspects (for more discussion see section 1.2), it can be expected that the writers employ different rhetorical strategies in writing

them. However, to date, no published research has been reported on investigating the affect of research design on the generic structure and stance features of RAs.

Given such a gap in previous research, this study aims to investigate the generic structure and stance features of the Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative English research articles in Applied Linguistics. The focus is on the Discussion section of RAs as it is an important section in establishing the importance of research works. To study the generic structure, the ESP approach to genre (see Chapter 2, section 2.4 for a detailed discussion on this approach) is followed. The stance features are investigated through a corpus-based study following Hyland's (2005c) taxonomy (see Chapter 2, section 2.11 for a detailed discussion of the concept of stance). Upon identifying the generic structure and stance features of the two corpora (qualitative and quantitative), the findings are supplemented with interviews with some specialist informants.

## 1.2 RATIONALE OF STUDYING QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

As already mentioned, to date, all the studies in genre analysis have investigated either the experimental or empirical RAs. The empirical research can be defined as "the construction of knowledge by means of systematic observation, analysis, and representation of behavior and/or its artifact" (Silva, 2005, p. 10). Based on this definition, the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method designs fall into empirical research. In a field such as Applied Linguistics that all these three types of research are conducted, investigating the empirical research articles includes analyzing the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method studies all together. However, as we know, qualitative and quantitative designs are different in the knowledge claim that they make, the main purpose that they follow, the research questions that they impose, the data that

they collect, and the methods that they use to analyze data (Creswell, 2003; McKay, 2006).

Quantitative research is based on the supposition that the world is governed by rules and knowledge is created when researchers "examine causes that influence outcomes" (Creswell, 2003, p. 5) to verify or refute these rules. It asserts that reality is out there and it needs to be found by objective methods. Thus, the reality is broken down into variables, and questions or hypotheses are formed. Then, experiments or surveys are conducted to collect the data that induces statistical analysis. Based on these numbers and counts, the causal relationships of variables or the context of concern are studied and finally the question is answered or the hypothesis is either verified or refuted and the results gained are considered as knowledge. As making generalizations from a sample to population is crucial in this design, applying standards of validity and reliability are important. Therefore, reliability, validity, and statistical significance are important concepts in this design. The quantitative research, thus, is based on prediction, hypothesizing, testing, and control.

On the other hand, qualitative research is based on the supposition that reality is multiple and can be studies holistically. Instead of "narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas", the researcher's aim is to "interpret" the multiple meanings that "others have about the world" (Creswell, 2003, pp. 8-9). Using strategies such as narratives, case studies, ethnographies, phenomenologies, discourse studies, and ground theories, the researcher collects data through instruments such as open-ended questions, interviews, observations, text and image. Instead of analyzing the data statistically, as in quantitative research, the qualitative researcher's aim is to categorize and interpret the data in order to provide a deep verbal description of the "meanings that people attach to things in their lives" (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998, p. 3) with an aim to understand how

people make sense of their world. In other words, qualitative research "refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols and description of things" (Berg, 2001, p. 2).

Considering all these differences, it is not unreasonable to assume that the writers might use various rhetorical strategies and stance features in writing qualitative and quantitative research articles. In fact, these research designs might have "rhetorical effects which are reflected in preferred patterns of persuasion" (Hyland, 1999c, p. 81). Hyland's study on soft and hard disciplines has shown that the differences in epistemology and how these disciplines see the world and what they consider as knowledge influences the way the academics write in these disciplines. While quantitative research is more close to the hard side of the continuum and qualitative research to the soft side, this study aims to find out whether the distinctions in these two types of research designs are reflected in the writers' preferred generic structures and stance taking. It focuses on the discussion section of the qualitative and quantitative RAs in the field of Applied Linguistics. The discussion section enjoys a crucial role in any academic writing. This section is important because "results and interpretations need to be presented in ways that readers are likely to find persuasive" (Hyland, 2005c, p. 176). As in this section the writers present and argue their own points of view about their findings, it can be expected that they take stance more explicitly in this section. Besides, it is the section that students find the most problematic to write and understand (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006; Dudley-Evans, 1994).

## 1.3    PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study is pedagogically motivated whose ultimate aim is to provide the basis for a genre approach to academic reading and writing for ESL/EFL postgraduate students in the field of Applied Linguistics. The first purpose of the present study is to describe and

account for the preferred patterns that authors of English articles use to organize their Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative research articles in this field. It also attempts to identify the similarities and differences between the generic structures of Discussion section of these two types of RAs. It should be noted that linguistic features specific to each move and step will not be investigated in their own right in this thesis; however, they will be used during the analysis to identify the moves and steps. The second purpose of this study is to pin point the stance features that are used in the Discussion section of quantitative and qualitative research articles in this field. In doing so, it tries to find out whether the authors of qualitative and quantitative articles adopt the same or different stance features while writing the Discussion section. The main focus is on the type, frequency, and form of these features. It also aims to examine the stance features in various moves of the RAs' Discussion section to identify the moves that each of these stance features occur more frequently in order to identify the main function of these features based on the communicative purpose of the moves.

## 1.4    OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study can be summarized as follows:

1- To identify the generic structure of Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics.

2- To find out the similarities and differences between the generic structures of these two groups of RAs.

3- To identify the stance features of Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics.

4- To find out the similarities and differences of stance features used in these two groups of RAs.

5- To identify the moves that each of these stance features has been clustered in.

## 1.5    RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the above mentioned objectives, the research questions for this study will be as follows:

1- What are the generic structures of discussion section of qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of Applied Linguistics?

2- What are the similarities and differences between the generic structures of these two sets of articles?

3- What are the stance features that are used in qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of Applied Linguistics?

4- What are the similarities and differences of stance features used in these two sets of articles?

5- In which moves has each of these stance features been clustered?


## 1.6    ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This thesis consists of eight chapters. The first chapter, Introduction, currently under discussion, presents the primary issues and sets the ground for the research. Chapter 2, Review of the Related Literature, covers the theory and practice related to the genre analysis (from the perspective of applied linguistics) and stance features (based on Hyland's 2005 taxonomy). It mainly draws on English for Specific Purpose (ESP), Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and New Rhetoric perspectives on genre analysis and focuses on the four stance features of Hedges, Boosters, Attitude Markers, and Self- Mention. In chapter 3, Design and Methodology, the research methodology of this study is presented. It discusses the design of the study, corpus of the study, and the methods of data analysis. Chapters 4 and 5 present the findings from the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative corpus in terms of the generic structure. In these chapters, only the description of the generic structures of these two corpora is introduced. Chapter 6 compares the two sub-corpora and discusses the similarities and differences between them and tries to provide possible explanations for the findings. Chapter 7 presents and

discusses the results from investigating the stance features of the two sub-corpora. Finally, chapter 8 presents a summary of the research and makes some concluding remarks.

## 1.7     SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter introduced the present study. It tried to show the importance of the genre analysis, the gap that exists in the studies in this filed, and justify investigating the qualitative and quantitative RAs. Also, the purpose of the study and research questions that the study is based on were introduced. The outline of the study was also presented briefly. The next chapter attempts to cover the theory and practice related to this study.

# CHAPTER 2
# REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

## 2.1    INTRODUCTION

This chapter attempts to cover the related literature on the genre analysis and stance features. The concept of genre has been used in various fields including literary studies, linguistic anthropology, rhetoric, folklore studies, conversational analysis, and applied linguistics. The focus of this research is on the concept of genre in the field of applied linguistics. Hyon (1996, p. 9) classifies genre studies into three approaches: New Rhetoric approach, Systemic Functional approach, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach. Such categories are somehow arbitrary and "the genre movement has coalesced somewhat so that the divisions among the traditions have become much less sharp —although by no means disappeared" (Swales, 2009, p. 3). Nevertheless, these labels identified by Hyon are used in this study for the convenience of description.

After the introduction, the next three parts explore these three approaches to genre. The next part covers a discussion on similarities and differences of these approaches. Then, Swales' model in the genre analysis is discussed in detail which is followed by a review of the related studies on the discussion section which have used Swales' model. The next section explores the relation between genres. This is followed by two sections on contrastive rhetoric studies and corpus based linguistics. After that, the concept of stance is discussed in detail. Finally, the last part is a summary of the chapter.

## 2.2    THE NEW RHETORIC APPROACH TO GENRE

The New Rhetoric approach to genre is the first approach to be discussed in this section. From the viewpoint of New Rhetoric approach, also referred to as the North American school, genres are social actions which emerge in response to recurrent rhetorical situations (Miller, 1994). The focus of this approach is on the exploration of the situational contexts of these genres and unpacking "complex relations between text and context" (Freedman & Medway, 1994, p. 9) rather than on the formal characteristics of texts. Therefore, "a genre consists of something beyond simple similarity of formal characteristics among a number of texts … a genre is a social construct that regularizes communication, interpretation, and relations" (Bazerman, 1988, p. 62).

Miller (1984, 1994), in a seminal work in the New Rhetoric studies, argues that "a rhetorical sound definition of genre is centered not on the substance or form of discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish" (1994, p. 24). Two elements of *situations* and *motive*, according to Miller, are necessary for an action to represent a genre. That is because human actions are only interpretable according to the context of situation in which they occur and the motive that has caused the action (ibid.). In this sense, the genres can be defined based on the social actions and social motives. Miller argues that the genres are dynamic and they "change, evolve and decay" (ibid. p. 36) and do not lend themselves to taxonomies. Miller (1984, 1994), with a social constructionist view on genre, identifies five features of genres which differentiate them from other kinds of social actions.

First, "genre refers to a conventional category of discourse based in large scale typification of rhetorical meaningful action" (Miller, 1994, p. 37). It means that a genre is a typified form of communication that people purposefully use in particular contexts and situations in order to fulfill an activity that they are involved in. Second, "as a

meaningful action, genre is interpretable by means of rules". That is, genres are rule governed. Third, genre is different from form because "form is a more general term than genre." It means that genres are not merely a set of texts that have some common formal features. Fourth, genres are "recurrent patterns of language use, genres help constitute the substance of our cultural life". That is, genres are patterned responses to recurring rhetorical situations that in some way shape the culture. Fifth, "a genre is a rhetorical means for mediating private intentions and social exigence". Although genres are patterned responses that help people to respond to particular situations, at the same time, genre users can bend and change genres in order to cater for their own "private intentions".

Studying genre, according to Miller (1994, p. 31), is "studying the typical uses of rhetoric and the forms that it takes in those uses". Miller argues that knowledge of genre is crucial in participating in successful communication, and for students it "serves as keys to understanding how to participate in the actions of a community" (ibid., p. 39). Bazerman (2000) puts it this way,

> Genres help us navigate the complex worlds of written communication and symbolic activity, because in recognizing a text type we recognize many things about the institutional and social setting, and activities being proposed, the roles available to writer and reader, the motives, ideas, ideology, and expected context of the document and where this all might fit in our life. (p. 16)

Another important contribution to the New Rhetoric genre theory has been made by Berkenkotter & Huckin (1995). Genres, according to them, "are inherently dynamic rhetorical structures that can be manipulated according to the conditions of use and that genre knowledge is therefore best conceptualized as a form of situated cognition embedded in disciplinary activities" (Berkenkotter, & Huckin, 1993, p. 477). With a sociocognitive approach to genre, they suggest five principles that form a theoretical framework. Their first principle is "dynamism". That means, genres are dynamic and

"develop from responses to recurrent situations". According to Berkenkotter and Huckin, these recurrent situations are similar to each other only to a certain degree; however, they are different in some ways. Therefore, considering variation in recurrent situations and each individual's unique world knowledge, genres may change according to "user's sociocognitive needs" (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995, p. 4) in response to different rhetorical situations over time.

Their second principle is "situatedness". That is, the knowledge of genre is acquired by continuous interaction of genre users with others in communicative activities. According to Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995, p. 7) genre knowledge "rather than explicitly taught, is transmitted through enculturation as apprentices become socialized to the ways of speaking in particular discipline communities". The third principle suggested by Berkenkotter and Huckin is that genre knowledge involves both "form and content". That is, the genre knowledge "is not just a knowledge of formal conventions but a knowledge of appropriate topics and relevant details as well" (ibid. , p. 14). This refers to the genre user's ability in understanding and applying the appropriate form of genre in producing appropriate responses to a particular recurrent situation in a given time.

Berkenkotter and Huckin's fourth principle is "duality of structure" which means that "as we draw on genre rules to engage in professional activities, we constitute social structures (in professional, institutional, and organizational contexts) and simultaneously *reproduce* these structures" (ibid. p.4). The last principle of Berkenkotter and Huckin is "community ownership" which means that "genre conventions signal a discourse community's norms, epistemology, ideology, and social ontology" (ibid.).

In line with their focus on the social aspects of nonliterary forms of writing (e.g. experimental articles, reports by tax accounts, business reports, students' writing for their discipline at university, government proposals), the researchers in New Rhetoric studies have mainly employed ethnographic and case studies rather than linguistic approach to genre (e.g. Atkinson, 1999; Bazerman, 1988; Myers, 1985) . According to Hyon (1996, p. 696) such methods offer "thick descriptions of academic and professional contexts surrounding genres and the actions texts perform within these situations".

For instance, Bazerman (1988) traced the emergence of experimental studies in *Transactions* over a period of 135 years (1665-1800). His findings revealed that while in the early days only a few studies in *Transactions* were experimental, most of the articles in journals were experimental in the later days. His study revealed a change in the methodology and results reports of these researches too. As Azirah (2005, p. 4) states, Bazerman's study "shows how production of texts evolved in order to negotiate scientific knowledge at different times and places." In an another study, Atkinson (1999) examined the variation of research writing over 300 years (1675-1976). He adopted two approaches to the analysis of written discourse: linguistic and rhetorical. He combined the qualitative and quantitative research methodologies in order to investigate the linguistic changes of scientific research within a sociohistorical context. Atkinson (1999, p. 141) synthesized the results from the rhetorical and linguistic analysis in terms of three sets: first, "the decline of an "author-centered" rhetoric and a shift … to a highly "informational" discourse; second, "the rise of an "object centered" rhetoric and the development … of a highly "abstract"/passivized form of language" and third, "the gradual loss of narrative elements … over time".

To sum up, the new rhetoricians go "beyond the conventional notion of genre as a set of formally definable text features that certain texts have in common across various contexts" (Russell, 1997, p. 511) and consider genres as typified social actions. In other words, they tie these regularities in texts with broader social and cultural features. Thus, genres can be defined as the social actions that writers use to respond to particular social situations. The genre users acquire the knowledge of genre by participating in daily social actions. Although genres are recurrent patterns of language use, the genre users, having the knowledge of these patters, may bend and accommodate them in order to cater for their "private intentions" (Russell, 1997). Furthermore, genres convey the conventions of a discourse community which uses them.

## 2.3    SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS APPROACH TO GENRE

The next approach to be discussed in this section is the Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) approach to genre, also known as the Sydney School (Hyon, 1996) which mainly is based on the linguistic theory of Michael Halliday. The SFL is centered on the notion of language function and views language as systemic and functional. That is, language is made of a set of systems of meaning and writer/speaker chooses from among these systems according to their intended meaning. Also, "by functional we mean language that is doing some job in some context" (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 52). Thus, the SFL considers language as a social semiotic system that people use to accomplish their everyday social life needs (Eggins, 2004).

According to Eggins, the SFL makes four theoretical claims about language. They are as follows: "language is functional; its function is to make meaning; these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged; and the process in using language is a semiotic process making meaning by choosing" (2004, p. 3). Eggins concludes that these four characteristics of language (functional,

semantic, contextual, and semiotic) in systemic functional view indicate that the SFL is a functional-semantic approach to language.

Viewing language as a social semiotic system, the SFL places great emphasis on the relation between text and context. For the SFL, the relationship between language and context is predictable. That is, every text can be interpreted only by considering the context in which it has been created. The other way round, the language can be predicted by knowing its context. This relation between language and the context in which it has been created, and the fact that language is used differently in various contexts has led systemicists to examine how and in which aspects the context influences language (Eggins, 2004). To investigate these issues, the SFL divides context into two major levels: context of situation and context of culture. Context of situation which is "the immediate environment in which a text is actually functioning" (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 46) gives rise to the notion of register. Context of culture which is "a broader background against which the text has to be interpreted" (ibid.) gives rise to the notion of genre. Therefore, register theory describes the impact of context of situation and genre describes the influence of the context of culture on the way language is used.

### 2.3.1    The Context of Situation

Register theory describes three dimensions of context of situation that have an impact on how people use language. These variables which are also called the register variables are: field, tenor, and mode. Field is the situational variable which deals with the subject matter of the text. In other words "fields are about people interacting with their world" (Martin, 2001, p. 156). Tenor is concerned with the relationship between interactants. According to Martin (2001), tenor is affected by the social distance of the interactants which in turn is reflected in the degree of formality and informality of the language selected for use. Mode which is related to the role of language in interaction (Eggins,

2004) refers to the distance between language and the social process (Eggins, 2004; Martin, 2001). Generally, two factors affect the mode of an interaction (Martin, 2001). One is channel (e.g. face to face, TV, newspaper, book, telephone) which affect the aural and visual contact between interactants and impact on the interpersonal distance between them. The other one is whether language is in action (e.g. language is used during a football game where it is used alongside an activity) or it is a reflection (e.g. a book on football where no other activity is involved and language is used to create the social process).

Therefore, the field, tenor, and mode are the three dimensions of context of situation which have an impact on how people use language. In other words, as these aspects of context of situation (register) vary, so do the language. Moreover, register, according to Martin (2001), is a connotative semiotics which cannot make meaning by itself and is dependent on other semiotic system, i.e. language, in order to express itself. Martin refers to the register as a "parasite" which does not have words and structures and can be realized only by using language (Martin, 2001). In describing the relationship between text and context, Halliday (e.g. 1989) suggests that each type of contextual information is realized through a particular part of language system. According to Halliday (e.g. 1989), whenever language is used to create meaning, it serves three functions. These functions are ideational, interpersonal and textual. Ideational function helps to make meaning about the world; interpersonal function helps to develop social relationship and interaction with people, and textual function helps to organize what is going to be said and written in a coherent and cohesive text. Halliday claims that language simultaneously realizes these three purposes or *metafunctions*. He suggests that the three variables of register are related to these three functions of language. In other words, Halliday states that field of a text is correlated with ideational

meaning; tenor of a text is correlated with the interpersonal meaning; and mode of a text is related to textual meaning.

### 2.3.2 The Context of Culture

As was mentioned earlier, the other context which is of great interest in the SFL is the context of culture: genre. Martin (2001) argues that similar to register genre is "parasite" and does not have its own phonology and can make meaning only by shaping the register variables (field, tenor, and mode). Moreover, as was discussed earlier in this section, the register can only be realized through language. Martin (2001, p.156) illustrates this relationship as follows:
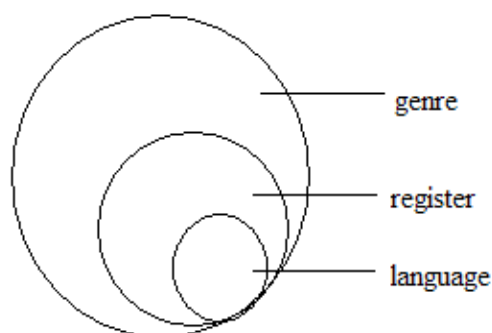


Figure 2.1: Language, Register and Genre

Therefore, Martin places register as intervening between language (below) and genre (above) where language is part of register and register in turn is part of genre. Genre encompasses register and goes above and beyond it (Martin, 1993).

The concept of genre in the SFL is defined as "a staged, goal-oriented social process" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 7). It is social because people use genre to interact with each other, it is goal-oriented because people use genres to accomplish a purpose and it is staged "because it usually takes more than one step for people to achieve their goals" (Martin, Christie, & Rothery, 1987, p. 58). The principle function of genre,

according to Martin (1985), is to restrict the possibilities that variables of register (field, tenor, and mode) can combine in a given culture. These combinations are determined and constrained by the culture in which the language event happens.

Genres, thus, are "cultural purpose of texts" and identifying the purpose can help the reader of a text to read and negotiate the meaning of the text (Eggins, 2004, p. 54). Interpreting texts, according to Eggins (2004), is partly dependent on recognizing the ways a text is similar to other texts existing in a given culture. She argues that if a given text cannot be featured to a particular genre, the text is problematic in one way or another. Therefore, identifying the ways in which a text can be attributed to a particular genre is important.

### 2.3.3    Distinguishing the Generic Identity

Eggins (2004, p. 56) suggests three dimensions that help to distinguish the "generic identity". These three dimensions are: "register configuration", "schematic structure", and "realizational patterns". With regard to the register configuration, Eggins argues that when contexts recur, people develop recurrent ways of language to deal with them. As was discussed earlier, the register theory identifies three aspects of these situations (field, tenor, and mode). Eggins (2004) concludes that

> genres develop as ways of dealing linguistically with recurrent configurations of register variables. In other words, as certain contextual combinations become stable, ways of interacting within those contexts also become habitualized and, eventually, institutionalized as genres. There come to be preferred, typical ways of negotiating such contexts. (p. 58)

The next dimension in "generic identity" is the schematic structure. In habitualizing the communicative activities, people also establish a series of stages. These stages are called schematic structure. Schematic structure "represents the positive contribution genre makes to a text:  a way of getting from A to B in the way a given

culture accomplishes whatever the genre in question is functioning to do in that culture" (Martin, 1985, p. 251). Therefore, genres consist of various stages and each stage helps to form the overall purpose of the text. Stages, according to Martin (ibid.), are verbal strategies which people use to accomplish their social goals. Genres consist of stages because people usually need more than one stage in order to make their meaning (Martin, ibid). The schematic structure of a text, according to Martin (e.g. 1985, 1992), determines the particular value of the register variables (field, tenor, and mode). In other words, Martin argues that the genre and schematic structure determine the particular values of field, tenor, and mode.

In describing the schematic structure, two concepts are fundamental: constituency and functional labeling (Eggins, 2004). Each genre is made of constituent stages and when the schematic structure of a genre is described the stages that constitute the whole and the way they relate to each other to constitute the whole are discussed (Eggins, 2004). Only those parts of a text are recognized as stages that have a function in relation to the whole text. Therefore, functional labeling is used to label the constituent stages according to their function in the whole genre (Eggins, 2004). Generally, the schematic structure of a genre specifies which stages must or may occur and in which order they should occur and which stages can recur. A genre is defined based on its *obligatory* elements and appearance of *optional* elements which give rise to variations of a genre (Eggins, 2004; Martin, 1985, 1992).

For instance, considering the genre of *narratives*, Macken-Horarik (2002, p. 22) defines the social purpose of a narrative as it "entertains and instructs via reflection on experience". According to her, the generic structure of a narrative is as follows: Orientation ^ (Complication ^ Evaluation) ^ Resolution; where ^ indicates "is followed by" and ( ) indicates "optional" stage. Each stage has a functional label based on the

function it serves in the whole genre. Therefore, Orientation "provides relevant information about the characters' situation"; Complication "introduces one or more problems for characters to solve"; Evaluation "highlights the significance of the events for character" and Resolution "sorts out the problem for better or worse" (ibid. , p. 22).

The last dimension in realizing the schematic structure is realizational patterns. Eggins defines realization as "the way a meaning becomes **encoded** or expressed in a semiotic system" (2004, p. 65). According to Eggins, in order to do an accurate generic analysis, in addition to identifying the stages of a genre, one needs to analyze the lexico-grammatical features of stages. Each genre has its own realizational patterns and each stage gets realized through different configurations of words and structures. In Eggins' words, "every time we recognize an element of structure we have to be able to argue for it, and its boundaries, by finding its reflex in linguistic realizations" (p. 69). She further argues that different genres reveal different lexico-grammatical features and every stage within a genre reveals different words and structures as well.

Another point to be mentioned about genre in the SFL approach is the concept of *macro genre*. Martin (1992, 1994) suggests that in a long text the whole text can be identified as a macro genre which consists of a range of other genres sometimes referred to as *elemental genres*. He considers genres such as report, explanation, exposition, recount, procedure, and anecdote as elemental genres which combine together and create more complex and big texts. In simple words, by macro genre he refers to texts that comprise more than one elemental genre. According to Martin and Rose (2007, p. 209), the elemental genres within the macro genres are "interdependent, extending, elaborating or projecting each other". For instance, as Hyland (2007, p. 153) exemplifies, a macro genre such as "newspaper editorial" might consist of "several elemental genres such as an exposition, a discussion, and a rebuttal" and an elemental

genre such as a "procedure can be found in macro genres such as lab reports, instruction manuals and recipes".

In sum, for the SFL language is a social semiotic system. As it is social, the context of a text is important in interpreting the meaning of the text. The SFL demonstrates a systemic relationship between text and context. In expressing meaning, language offers a set of choices for speaker/writer to choose from among a network according to their intended meaning. These choices are shaped by the context in which the text occurs. Two layers of context are important in the SFL: context of situation (register) and context of culture (genre). The register analysis shows how lexico-grammatical features vary in accord with the context of use. While register is realized through language, genre is realized by shaping the register variables (field, tenor, and mode). Genre which is the impact of the context of culture constrains the possible combinations of register variables in a given culture. The SFL approach to genre suggests that according to the socio-cultural purpose of a speaker/writer, language is shaped and organized in different types of texts. In analyzing a text, the systemic functional analysis breaks down the text into its schematic structure, i.e. the stages that contribute to the overall cultural purpose of the text. It also employs analytical tools from the systemic functional linguistics to identify linguistic features of a text and its stages.

## 2.4 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES APPROACH TO GENRE

The third approach to genre, according to Hyon's (1996) classification, is English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach which is the focus of this study. This approach has its origins in Swales' (1981) seminal work. It is mainly directed at offering a better approach to English for specific purposes especially academic writing (Swales, 1990). Later on Bhatia (1993, 2004) extended Swales' work on professional genre, genre

mixing and especially legal genre. Swales (1990) identifies three key elements in genre analysis: genre, discourse community, and language learning tasks. These concepts are discussed in the following sections.

### 2.4.1 The Concept of Genre

The most influential definitions of genre, in the ESP school, are found in Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). These two pioneers' perspectives of genre are discussed in the next two sections.

### 2.4.1.1 Swales' Definition of Genre

Before putting forward a comprehensive definition of genre, Swales (1990) addresses the following frameworks for characterizing genre:

1) A genre is a class of communicative events.
2) The principle criterial feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes.
3) Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality.
4) The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form.
5) A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight. (pp. 45-57)

According to this framework, in order to be qualified as a genre, an event needs to be communicative which is expressed through verbal language. For instance, according to Swales, the events such as driving or physical exercise where the verbal language is minimal are not qualified as communicative events. Furthermore, Swales argues that communicative events might vary in terms of frequency. While some communicative events such as news reports occur frequently, others (e.g. presidential

press conference) might be relatively rare. The second principle of Swales' framework is that the shared set of communicative purposes of communicative events is a crucial determinant of genre membership.

The third principle emphasizes prototypicality of genres. Swales argues that while communicative purpose is the main determinant in genre membership, features such as form, structure, and audience expectation play an important role in determining the extent to which an exemplar is a prototypical of a particular genre. Categorizing a text as a particular genre, then, is not based on matching the exact characteristics, rather it is based on the notion of 'sufficient similarities' with the other text within a particular genre (Swales 1990). Therefore, some examples of a genre might be considered as 'best examples' of the genre while other instances might not be so. Swales' fourth principle indicates that established members of discourse communities have better recognition of the communicative purposes of their discourse communities than the novice members. Finally, Swales states that it is the expert or active members of a discourse community that give a specific generic name to a particular communicative event. Then, Swales (1990) goes on and defines genres as a:

> … class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constraints choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operated to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation. (p. 58)

Based on this definition, genres are not merely types of texts, rather, they are communicative events which are identifiable based on their communicative purposes (Swales, 1990, 2004). Communicative purpose which is the central concept in the ESP

approach is recognized by the members of a specific community in which the genre is used. These purposes shape and constrain the ways that a genre is structured as well as the choices of content and style which are used in a genre. Swales definition of genre offers the basic idea that certain conventions are connected with a writer's purpose and most genres employ conventions related to a communicative purpose.

Therefore, the communicative purpose is a key element in genre identification. It is the "defining feature" (Dudley-Evans, 1994, p. 219) that differentiates genres and determines the grammatical and lexical features of a genre. Hence, the emphasis of genre analysis, in the ESP approach, is "on the means that a text realizes its communicative purpose rather than on establishing a system for the classification of genres" (Dudley-Evans, ibid.). For instance, Bhatia (1993) identifies sales promotion letters and job applications as belonging to the promotional genres. He argues that as these two types of texts share the same communicative purposes, which is advertising, are classified under the same genre, in spite of the fact that they may not seem the similar text variety.

Swales, in his 2004 book 'Research Genres', discusses a view of genre in which there are both constraint and choice. He points out that when talking about genres he prefers the notion of 'metaphor' instead of definition. He remarks that as definitions are not often "true in all possible worlds and all possible times" and can "prevent us from seeing newly explored or newly emergent genres for what they really are" (2004, p. 61), thus "a metaphorical approach is a viable alternative" (2007, p. 147). Swales (2004, pp. 61-67) uses six metaphors to talk about genres.

First, he states that genres are 'frames', i.e. genres are institutionalized and act as guiding principles which help in achieving a communicative purpose. Second, genres are 'standard', i.e. they are expected conventions of language use. Third, genres are

'biological species', i.e. development of genres is similar to species change. Fourth, genres are 'families', i.e. the texts included in a genre are more or less similar (this refers to prototype notion which was discussed above). Fifth, genres are 'institutions' which refers to interrelated processes and values of an institution. Sixth, genres are 'speech acts' which refers to the conventional function of a genre. He summarizes this metaphor of genre in a figure which is presented below.

| Metaphors | | Variable Outcome | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Frames of Social Action | → | Guiding Principles | |
| Language Standards | → | Conventional Expectations | |
| Biological Species | → | Complex Historicities | G E N R E S |
| Families and Prototypes | → | Variable Links to the Center | |
| Institutions | → | Shaping contexts; Roles | |
| Speech Acts | → | Directed Discourses | |
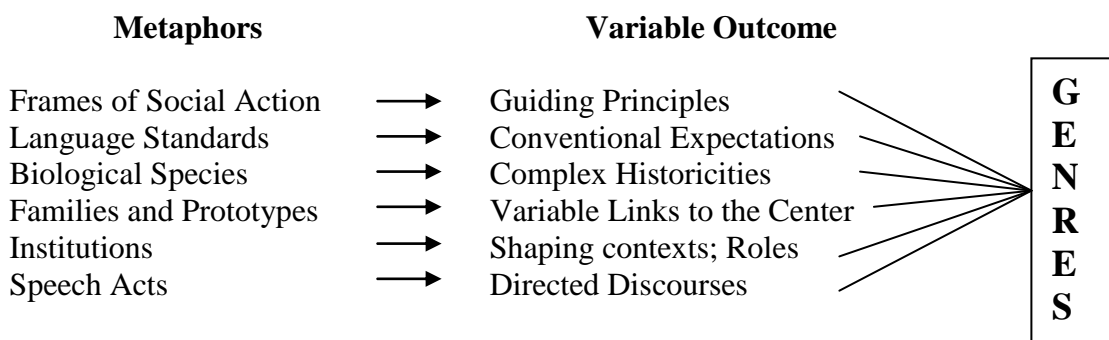
Figure 2.2: Metaphors of Genre
Source: Swales 2004

### 2.4.1.2 Bhatia's Definition of Genre

Bhatia (1993) defines genre as:

> … a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form, and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions  within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s). (p. 13)

Similar to Swales' (1990) definition, Bhatia defines genre as communicative events which share communicative purpose(s) and have conventionalized structure. Bhatia (ibid.) states that any major change in the communicative purpose will result in a different genre. However, he says minor changes in the communicative purpose(s)

might result in sub-genres. He further argues that the members of a specific community are familiar with and understand these communicative purposes. Bhatia emphasizes that while the expert members of a discourse community who have a complete knowledge of the genre can shape and change these conventionalized structures in order to meet their intended meanings, they cannot completely change the genre constraints "without being noticeably odd" (1993, p. 14). The belief in creative use of genres by individual genre users adds another dimension to Bhatia's definition of genre.

While Swales' (1990) definition includes linguistic and sociological factors, Bhatia's definition includes an additional psychological aspect. The linguistic description of a genre is of great importance, when used on their own they "reveal very little about the true nature of genres and about the way social purposes are accomplished" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 18). The sociological aspect adds another dimension to genre analysis and centers on the conventionalized structure of a genre and "answers to the oft-repeated question *why do members of what sociologists call 'secondary culture' write the way they do?*" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 19). The psycholinguistic aspect of genre analysis is concerned with cognitive structuring of genres. The cognitive structuring of genre which reflects the communicative purpose(s) of genre represents the regularities in genre organization. That is, the expert writers of genre seem to organize their overall message in a consistent way. In Bhatia's (1993, p. 32) words, "cognitive structuring is the conventionalized and standardized organization used by almost all the members of the professional community".

The psycholinguistic aspect of genre which emphasizes the dynamic nature of genre is also concerned with "tactical aspects of genre construction" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 19). That is, individual users of genre use their own specific "strategies" in order to convey their intended meaning more effectively. These strategies "are generally non-

discriminative, in the sense that they do not change the essential communicative purpose of the genre" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 20). Bhatia uses the term "strategy" to refer to what Swales (1990) calls "steps". While "strategies are non-discriminate options within the allowable contributions available to an author for creative or innovative genre construction", moves "are discriminative elements of generic structure" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 32) as they change the overall communicative purpose of a genre.

Bhatia (1993; 1997c) emphasizes the dynamic nature of genre. He remarks that while genres are constrained in their structure and even the language, the expert users of genres can use innovation and creativity and exploit these conventions in order to achieve a variety of goals. He (1999, p. 27) exemplifies the area of advertising and states that the same product or service might be advertised by using different strategies "depending upon the target audience characteristics, medium, the immediate concern of the advertisers, the competition the product or service may be facing, or even the time when the advertisement appears".

Bhatia (1997b) states that "genre ownership" is one of the aspects of genre acquisition. That is, professional genre users have the knowledge of how and when and in which situations to use genres and how to exploit them and use them liberally in responding to familiar and unfamiliar situations. He remarks that expert users of genre can exploit genres and create *mixed genres* and *embedded genre*. In these cases, the expert members "mix socially accepted communicative purposes conventionally served by two different genres" (Bhatia, 2004, p. 87).

One of the examples of genre mixing might be found in academic introductions. Bhatia argues that although the main communicative purpose of academic introductions (introduction, preface, forward) is to introduce the book, their authors sometimes mix it with promotional genre (1997a). In this cases, the authors introduce the work and at the

same time try to advertise it. In genre embedding, genre users might place one genre within another. For instance, letters might be used for advertising a job. Bhatia remarks that this phenomenon of genre mixing demonstrates "the versatility of the generic framework" as well as "the human capacity to exploit generic conventions to bend genres" for their intended purposes (2004, p. 111).

However, Bhatia emphasizes that a pre- knowledge of genre and its conventions is a prerequisite for this exploitation. In his words, "an understanding … of conventions is considered essential for its identification, construction, interpretation, use and ultimate exploitation by members of specific professional communities to achieve socially recognized goals with some degree of pragmatic success" (1997c, p. 367). He (2004, p. 24) also emphasizes that these exploitations and innovations "are invariably realized within rather than outside the generic boundaries" and it never is "a free-for-all" kind of activity.

To sum up, the ESP approach to genre analysis is explanatory which goes beyond linguistic description of text "to rationalize conventional aspects of genre construction and interpretation" (Bhatia, 1993, p.1). This approach which is applied in nature is useful and relevant to applied linguists and language teachers. It can provide "insightful and thick description" of texts and is "a powerful and useful tool to arrive at significant form-function correlation" which can benefit teaching of English for specific purposes (ESP) (Bhatia, 1993, p. 11). Bhatia goes on and suggests that "in order to introduce a thick description of language in use, it is necessary to combine socio-cultural (including ethnographic) and psycholinguistic (including cognitive) aspects of text-construction and interpretation with linguistic insights" (1993, p. 11).

This approach defines genre as communicative events. These communicative events are recognized based on their communicative purpose. The function of genre is

"to mediate between social situations and the texts that respond strategically to the exigencies of those situations" (Swales, 2009, p. 14). Although genres are conventionalized, they are dynamic. Expert members of the discourse community can bend these conventions to convey their intended meanings. In other words, genre users might employ "strategies" in order to communicate more effectively with their community.

In Dudley-Evans' (1994, pp. 219-220) words, in this approach " we are interested, often for pedagogical reasons, in exploring established but not necessarily codified conventions in certain key genres about style of presentation of content, the order of presentation of that content and all the myriad rhetorical factors that affect the plausibility for readers of the argument presented". Both Swales and Bhatia argue for a view of genre that follows conventions and constraints and at the same time being dynamic and open to change. According to Swales (2009, p. 14), the work of genre analyst is "to track … textual regularities and irregularities and explain them in terms of the relevant and pertinent social circumstances and the rhetorical demands they engender".

### 2.4.2 Discourse Community

The concept of *discourse community* is an important notion in ESP approach to genre. While communicative purpose is the most determinant feature in identifying a communicative event as a genre, discourse community is an important factor in determining the purpose of a communicative event. Swales (1990) initially defines discourse communities as "sociorhetorical networks that form in order to work towards sets of common goals" (p. 9). He further states that genres belong to discourse communities rather than individuals. To be specific, Swales (1990) defines genre "by connecting genre to one component of rhetorical situation – purpose – and then

connecting purpose to discourse community" (Devitt, 2004, p. 37). According to Hyland (2006a, p. 18), "*genre* and *community* together provide a descriptive and explanatory framework of how meanings are socially constructed by considering the forces outside the individual which help guide purposes and shape writing".

In line with Swales, Dudley-Evans (1994, p. 220) defines discourse community as "that group of people within a discipline or area of special interest that communicate with each other in part through the genres which they 'possess'". In other words, discourse communities are "networks of expert users (for example applied linguists) for whom a genre or set of genres (research articles, conference papers) constitutes their professionally recognized means of intercommunication" (Trappes-Lomax, 2006, p. 148). The concept of discourse community provides "a way of defining relevant groups of language users, and the establishment of community through discourse has proven useful for genre theorists" (Devitt, 2004, p. 37). As Hyland (2006a, p. 20) states, discourse community "provides a principled way of understanding how meaning is produced *in interaction* and proves useful in identifying how writers' rhetorical choices depend on purposes, setting and audience".

Swales (1990, pp. 24-27) describes six defining characteristics for identifying a discourse community. The first characteristic is that a discourse community has a set of common public goals. These goals can be part of formal or informal agreement between the discourse community members. The second characteristic is that the discourse community has established mechanisms of intercommunication; these can be meetings, telecommunications, correspondents, conversation, newsletters, and so forth. The next characteristic, Swales points, is that the discourse community members use information and feedback through a participatory mechanism. That is, the members of a discourse

community actively participate in information exchange within their discourse community.

Swales' next characteristic of discourse community is that it owns one or more genres to realize and implement the community's aims. The discourse communities establish discoursal expectations and "these discoursal expectations are created by the *genres* that articulate the operations of the discourse community" (Swales, 1990, p. 26). The fifth characteristic of the discourse community is that it owns specific lexis which is related to its genre types or its specific community. Swales exemplifies the use of abbreviations by members of a discourse community which may puzzle outsiders. Finally, the last characteristic of the discourse community is that its members include both novices and experts. The members of a discourse community may change; however, there is a need for balance between expert and non-expert members of a discourse community to ensure its survival.

### 2.4.3   Language Learning Task

After discussing the characteristics of genre and discourse community, Swales (1990) turns to the application of genre theory and the ways in which the analysis of genres produced in the discourse community can be related to the process of language learning. Swales supports the explicit teaching of genre and suggests that as genres are communicative events which are used by discourse community members to achieve a particular purpose, explicit teaching of genre knowledge helps learners to take part and interpret these communicative events more successfully. Swales suggests that teaching the conventions of a particular genre can help students to produce texts that match their reader's formal schema. Thus, the third concept according to Swales (1990) that is important in genre theory is *language leaning task*. Swales (1990) defines task as follows:

One of a set of differentiated, sequenceable goal-oriented activities drawing upon a range of cognitive and communicative procedures relatable to the acquisition of pre-genre and genre skills appropriate to a foreseen or emerging sociorhetorical situation. (p. 76)

Swales (ibid, pp. 9-10) discusses that genre-type communicative events consist of a text, encoding and decoding procedures as well as the text-environment. He refers to such processing as *tasks*. He states that acquiring genre skills is dependent on previous world knowledge which gives rise to *content schemata*, knowledge of prior texts which gives rise to *formal schemata*, and experience which can be gained with appropriate tasks.

## 2.5.    A COMPARISON OF THE THREE APPROACHES TO GENRE

Three approaches to genre, New Rhetoric, Systemic Functional, and ESP approach, were discussed in the previous sections. This section takes a look at their similarities and differences.

The New Rhetoricians mostly draw on ethnographic method of analysis rather than linguistic analysis and present a detailed analysis of the social and cultural contexts in which genres occur. They emphasize social purposes or actions that these genres fulfill. The studies on genre within this approach have mostly focused on "the historical evolution of genres …, the social processes involved in constructing important genres for a specific, powerful audience …, the study of genres in workplace…" (Johns, 2002, p. 9) as well as the views and beliefs of the communities of use. As Hyon (1996, p. 698) remarks, the New Rhetoricians are more concerned with helping university students "to understand the social functions or actions of genres" and the contexts they are used rather than teaching patterns of text organization and language.

The Systemic Functional approach to genre focuses on the functional perspective of language study and the relationship between text and its context. By applying theories of functional grammar, it concentrates on the lexico-grammatical features of genres and their stages of organization. The ESP approach to genre focuses extensively not only on the contextual factors but also the formal properties of genres such as rhetorical organization and language features that are of special significance to a particular genre.

Flowerdew (2002) argues that these three schools of genre can broadly be distinguished as linguistic and nonlinguistic. According to him, the New Rhetoric approach falls into the second class as it is more concerned with contextual features rather than lexico-grammatical or rhetorical organization. He categorizes the other two approaches into the linguistic class as they take a linguistic approach and are more concerned with linguistic aspects of texts than contextual aspects. However, he remarks that this does not mean that those in linguistic approach do not use ethnographic methods or the nonlinguistic one, the New Rhetoric, does not use a linguistic approach. Flowerdew (2002, pp. 91-92) suggests that "the linguistic approach looks to the situational context to interpret the linguistic and discourse structures, whereas the New Rhetoric may look to the text to interpret the situational context". Similarly, Wang (2008) remarks that these three schools of genre can be put on a continuum. He suggests that on one side of the continuum are those that focus on the textual analysis and on the other side are those that concentrate on the contextual analysis. Wang (ibid. p. 172) states that this "continuum could be regarded as dialectical, but not dichotomous with each other". He further suggests that a detailed and thorough analysis should consider both textual and contextual aspects at the same time.

The next element which differentiates these three approaches to genre is dynamic or static view of genre. The New Rhetoric scholars emphasize the dynamic quality of genre. They argue that genres and their contexts are complex and explicit teaching of genres and their features cannot be effective in the unauthentic context of classroom. For these theorists, genre knowledge can only be acquired in an authentic environment by engaging in the society. In this approach to genre, according to Freedman and Medway (1994, p. 9), "direct translations into teaching are almost entirely absent, and indeed the very possibility of such translation is questioned,… genres are too complex to be taken original rhetorical situations and taught in the classroom". In response to this argument, Hyland (2007, p. 151) comments that such a view "ignores the fact that L2 writers are often at a considerable disadvantage in such unfamiliar naturalistic settings and that genre-based writing teaching can short-cut the long processes of situated acquisition". Meanwhile, some New Rhetoric practitioners do attempt to teach genres within classrooms (e.g. Adam & Artemeva, 2002; Coe, 2002; Guleff, 2002). When concerned with pedagogical issues, the New Rhetoric school focuses mostly on composition studies for native undergraduate students.

Unlike the New Rhetoric approach, both Systemic Functional approach and ESP approach are pedagogically oriented approaches and place great emphasis on the explicit discussion and teaching of generic exemplars in classroom settings. They believe that by explicit teaching of genre the students can understand the formal features as well as the sociorhetorical patterns underlying these features. The Systemic Functional approach, which is more interested in primary and secondary schools and more recently in adult immigrant English education, argues that in teaching writing, attention needs to be paid to the process of writing as well as the nature of text itself. Within this approach texts are broken into goal oriented stages and the purpose of each stage is realized through particular linguistic features.

The ESP approach to genre emphasizes the form-function correlations and attempts to identify the relation between the communicative purpose and language use. Its main aim is directed at better teaching of academic and professional English to non-native students. Its overall concern is to assist students in recognizing and learning the patterns of language in these contexts. By discussing the texts and offering the prototypical examples of relevant genres, it tries to raise the learners' consciousness about the structure of genres. The two important features in this approach are functionally-defined *moves* and *steps* and the association of genres with particular discourse communities. Consequently, in the ESP genre-based framework, the practitioners and teachers "are concerned with the communicative needs of particular academic and professional groups and so genres are seen as the purposive actions routinely used by community members to achieve a particular purpose" (Hyland, 2007, p. 154).

The ESP and Systemic Functional approaches to genre share some similarities. Corbett (2003, p. 13) states that they are both "concerned with *why* texts exist and they both seek to determine the cultural function of texts. By focusing on the reasons why particular texts exist, they attempt to justify linguistic choices through reference to cultural contexts". The other common point between these two approaches is that they both are pedagogically oriented approaches to genre. Another similarity, according to Lim (2003), is in terms of nomenclature. He (ibid. p.108) states that although the terms "move" and "step" are used in the ESP and the term "stage" is used by the Systemic Functional approach, they "are basically functional components pertaining to the communicative purpose(s) of texts".

In spite of some similarities, some distinguishing characteristics can be found between these two approaches to genre as well. While the Systemic Functional is based

on Systemic Functional Grammar, the ESP does not restrict itself to any linguistic theory on grammar or lexis and draws its "strength from an eclectic set of pedagogies and linguistic theories" (Hyland, 2003, p. 22). It emphasizes the relationship between the rhetorical moves and linguistic features with organizational and sociorhetorical constraints of genres. While the Systemic Functional approach emphasizes mostly the formal linguistic features of texts, the ESP approach "stresses the importance of the situatedness of genre in particular contexts through rhetorical consciousness-raising" (Hyland, 2007, p. 154).

The other differentiating point is that the ESP approach identifies genres differently from the Systemic Functional approach. The SFL approach identifies genres in terms of broad elemental genres of schooling such as *recount*, *narration*, *discussion*, *argument*, and *description*. In the ESP approach genes are connected with specific discourse communities such as academic or professional disciplines that use genres to promote their aims (e.g. research articles, lab reports, advertisements, court order). While the elemental genres in the SFL approach "are rather independent of any grounded and situational context" the genres categorized in the ESP "are firmly grounded in specific … context" (Bhatia, 2002, p. 280).

Bhatia argues that these elemental genres "are highly versatile in the sense that they can realize a number of identifiably different and yet related genres" (2002, p. 281). He exemplifies *narration* and states that it "is often indispensable in the realization of stories, reports, historical events, autobiographies, and newspaper reports" (ibid.). However, he argues that in practice, these elemental genres, which he refers to as "generic values", are combined to construct various types of genres. For instance, he states that *description* and *evaluation* are combined and give shape to *promotional genre*. According to Bhatia (2002), the SFL approach's categorization of genre focuses

on "the generality of genres" while the ESP approach's categorization "has a much narrower focus on the specificity of genre" (p. 283).

Bhatia (2002) adds that these two different realizations of genre can be justified in the light of the intended learners of the two approaches. He comments that the SFL approach is more concerned with the school level and the learners' experiences of the world and awareness of context in which the language might be used are limited and it is difficult to define the learners' actual needs at the stage of their sociocognitive development. Therefore, he concludes that "the most convenient and productive linguistic exposure to them is likely to be broadly generic rather than specific" (2002, p. 283). On the other hand, the ESP approach is concerned with tertiary students and adults who "are more likely to have the discipline-specific and sociocultural knowledge associated with narrowly defined professional and academic contexts" (Bhatia, 2002, p. 283). Based on the above discussion, Table 2.1 presents a comparison between these three approaches. The table has been adopted from Kobayashi (2003) and Yang (2001).

To sum up, each of these three approaches has contributed to the analysis of discourse and has provided different insights into it. They look at the same concept from different angle and discuss it from that specific point of view. Probably the main similarity between them is that all of them emphasize the social function of language and stress that genres are used by users to fulfill their communicative needs in the society. The differences lie in the aspects such as the amount of emphasis they put on language or social functions of language, the educational context, and the research methods they employ. The issue is which approach can be recommended. Flowerdew (2002, p. 92) suggests that as an applied linguist the answer to this question "will depend on the purpose of the analysis".

Table 2.1:   A Comparison of the Three Approaches to Genre

| | ESP Approach | Australian Genre Studies/ SFL Approach | New Rhetoric Approach |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Genre Theory** | Genres are "communicative events" characterized by their "communicative purposes" as well as various patterns of "structure, style, content and intended audience" (Swales, 1990, p. 58) | Genres are staged-goal oriented social processes (Martin, 1985, 2001) | Genres are social actions with social purposes (Miller, 1984 & 1994) |
| **Defining Criteria** | Communicative purpose | Goal-oriented purposeful activity | Recurrent social action |
| **Social Context of Use** | Discourse community | Context of culture | Community ownership |
| **Focus of Attention** | Both text and context | Users and context | Mostly context |
| **Unit of Analysis** | Move and step | Stage | - |
| **Research Methods** | Analysis of text as well as ethnographic methods | Analysis of text | Mostly ethnographic methods |
| **Genre Identities** | Research articles, lab reports, thesis, textbooks, business letters, legal cases, etc. | School genre: narratives, recounts, reports, procedures, etc. | Research articles mostly in science |
| **Intended Audience** | Tertiary level EFL students or those "who need to acquire specialized EAP discourse as part of their Professionalization" (Swales, 2009, p.3) | Mainly primary and secondary school students, especially native speakers of English, also migrant workers | Generally lack of classroom application, when concerned with pedagogical issues it is at undergraduate level taking composition or rhetoric courses |

This thesis aims at studying the discussion section of qualitative and quantitative research articles (RAs). It attempts to explore and present structural patterns that are used in these two groups of corpus. By doing so, it hopes to help the university students, particularly non-native ones, and novice writers to read and write this genre more effectively. To be specific, it hopes to assist these groups in better communicating with their discourse community. Based on the above discussion, the ESP approach to genre can better contribute to this aim, and is preferred in the present thesis.

## 2.6 SWALES' MODEL OF GENRE ANALYSIS

As this research follows the ESP approach to genre, in this section Swales' model of genre analysis is presented. Swales (1981) investigated introduction section of 48 English research articles from various disciplines and found a consistent pattern in the introduction of these articles and introduced this pattern in a four- move structure. He revised this model in 1990 into a three-move model which he called "CARS" (Create A Research Space) model for article Introduction. Swales' (1981, 1990) model of genre analysis is based on describing generic structure. According to Swales (1990), CARS model captures the communicative purpose of RAs' Introduction sections. These communicative purposes are "… to establish the significance of the research, to situate the research in terms of its significance, and to show how this niche will be occupied and defended in the wider ecosystem" (ibid., p. 140). They are realized through *moves* and *steps* which might be accompanied with specific linguistic features. Swales' CARS model consists of three "moves", namely: *establishing a territory*, *establishing a niche*, and *occupying the niche*.

Table 2.2: Swales' (1990) CARS Model for Research Article Introduction

| Move | Step |
|------|------|
| Move 1: Establishing a Territory | Step 1: Claiming Centrality **AND/OR** <br> Step 2: Making Topic Generalization(s) **AND/OR** <br> Step 3: Reviewing Items from Previous Research |
| Move 2: Establishing a Niche | Step 1A: Counter-claiming **OR** <br> Step 1B: Indicating a Gap **OR** <br> Step 1C: Question-raising **OR** <br> Step 1D: Counting a Tradition |
| Move 3: Occupying the Niche | Step 1A: Outlining Purposes **OR** <br> Step 1B: Announcing present research <br> Step 2: Announcing Principle Findings <br> Step 3: Indicating RA Structure |

Each of these *moves* includes *steps*. Some of these *steps* are obligatory and some are optional. In other words, a *move* is a communicative unit which carries a specific communicative purpose and might consist of one or more *steps*. While the *move* carries

the general communicative purpose of a segment, the *step* shows in detail the "rhetorical means of realizing the function of Move" (R. Yang & Allison, 2003, p. 370).

Therefore, an analysis involves stages such as identifying the moves that typically constitute the genre and the communicative purposes of each move, investigating the strategies that different writers use to achieve those communicative purposes, examining the linguistic choices the writers make, and the social factors that influence genre structure.

## 2.7    STUDIES ON DISCUSSION SECTION OF RESEARCH ARTICLES

Swales' CARS model has been adopted by many researchers to analyze the generic structure of various genres in various disciplines and languages. However, as this thesis is focused on the discussion section of research articles, genre studies which have been conducted in other genres such as industrial law reports, book reviews, editorial letters and sales letters (John Flowerdew & Dudley-Evans, 2002; John Flowerdew & Wan, 2006; Norizah, 2008; Zhu, 1997) are excluded. In this section, thus, some of the studies on the Discussion section of research articles in various disciplines are reviewed.

One of the early studies on the Discussion section was conducted by Belanger (1982). By investigating the discussion section of 10 RAs in neuroscience, Belanger found that the structure of discussion section was dependent on the type and number of research questions formed in the Introduction section of the articles. He concluded that this reveals the cyclic structure of the Discussion section. In other words, he suggested that instead of a broad move from specific to general, the Discussion section consists of several (depending on the number of research questions) cyclic moves. These moves might include summarizing results, what research suggests with reference to previous or current work, and further questions. He stated that all these three elements might not be

present for every research question but they would be present in the same order as above.

Two earlier move analysis structures proposed for the Discussion section were Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' (1988) and Peng's (1987) structure which both consisted of eleven moves. These two models were similar to a great extent and showed that the majority of articles did not have a linear structure and that recursions were frequent. Reviewing and summarizing these models and others in the literature, Swales (1990, pp. 172-173) suggests an eight-move model for the Discussion section of RAs. Among these eight moves, Swales states, Statement of Result is the only move which is quasi-obligatory and the other seven moves are optional. However, he notes that Providing Background Information and Reference to Previous Research are among the most frequent moves.

Table 2.3: Swales' (1990) Generic Structure of Discussion Section

| Move | Communicative Purpose |
|---|---|
| 1. Background information | To strengthen the discussion by restating main points, theoretical information or technical information. |
| 2. Statement of results | To present the results of the study. |
| 3. (Un)Expected outcomes | To comment whether the results are expected or not. |
| 4. Reference to previous research | a) To compare present research with previous research b) To provide support for present research |
| 5. Explanation | To suggest reasons for a surprising result |
| 6. Exemplification | To support explanation |
| 7. Deduction and hypothesis | To make a claim about the generalizability of the results and to put forward logical conclusions drawn on results. |
| 8. Recommendation | To make suggestions about lines of future investigation. |

Swales (1990) adds that these eight moves are likely to occur in a cycle in the Discussion section and the complexity of cycles depends on "the degree to which the results are 'compatible' with previous work and/or with the expected outcome to hypotheses or questions" (p. 173). He also remarks that the Discussion section, unlike the Introduction section, moves in a cycle from 'inside-out' direction. That is, first the

results are presented, then they are placed within an established literature and after that their general significance are reviewed. Berkenkotter and Huchin (1995) are of the same opinion and state that the order of moves in the Discussion section is the reversed order of moves in the Introduction section. That is, they suggest that while the Introduction section (according to Swales' 1990 CARS model) starts with Establishing a Territory and moves to Establishing a Niche and then Occupying the Niche, the Discussion section starts with Occupying a Niche and moves to (Re)establishing a Niche and then Establishing Additional Territory.

Swales and Feak (1994) note that the Discussion sections vary considerably depending on some factors such as the kind of research question(s) and their position in the paper. In spite of this variation, they state that the Discussion section normally contains three moves: *Points to consolidate your research space* (obligatory) → *Points to indicate the limitations of your study* (optional but common) → *Points to identify useful areas of further research* (optional and only common in some areas) (p. 196). They also remark that move 1 is usually quite extensive, while, moves 2 and 3 are quite short. In terms of cyclicity, they point out that the Discussion section runs through a cycle of 1-2-3 (or part of it) and depending on the number of research question the number of cycling might vary.

Dudley-Evans (1994) proposes a nine-move framework for the Discussion section (p. 225). These moves are: *Information move* → *Statement of results* → *Finding* → *(Un)expected outcome* → *Reference to previous work* → *Explanation* → *Claim* → *Limitation* → *Recommendation*. This framework is similar to a great extent to Swales' (1990) model. However, it is different in a few moves. Dudley-Evans' framework includes two moves which are not present in Swales': Findings and Limitation. Dudley-Evans suggests two moves for presenting results. One is Statement of Results which

according to him presents either a numerical value or reference to a graph or table. The other is Finding which Dudley-Evans notes that is used to present results but without reference to a graph or table. Another difference with Swales' model is that Dudley-Evans' does not include Exemplification which is present in Swales'. He also uses the label of Claim instead of Deduction and Hypothesis which are used in Swales' model.

Dudley-Evans also suggests that the Discussion section has a three-part framework: "Introduction–Evaluation–Conclusion". *Introduction* "sets the scene for the whole discussion", *evaluation* which is the main body of the discussion section "provides detailed **comment** on the key results and the writer's main claims", and *conclusion* "summarizes the main **results** and **claims** before making recommendations about future work" (1994, pp. 224-225). He adds that this three-part framework involves a combination of the nine moves in different ways and in cyclical patterns. The move cycle series in each part are as follows:

1. **Introduction** (move 1 (information move), or 1+5 (information move + reference to previous work), or 2/3 (statement of results/findings))
2. **Evaluation** (the "key move cycles" are 2/3+5 (statement of results/findings + reference to previous work), 7+5 (claim + reference to previous work), or 5+7 (reference to previous work + claim))
3. **Conclusion** (move 3+7 (finding + claim), or 9 (recommendation).

In an another study, R. Holmes (1997) examined the Discussion section of 30 RAs in three fields of History, Political science, and Sociology. He investigated the differences between move structure of social science RAs and natural science RAs and the ways social science RAs varied among each other. R. Holmes modified Hopkins and Dudley-Evans's (1988) eleven moves by mixing some of the moves and adding the new move of *Outlining Parallel or Subsequent Developments*. R. Holmes' eight-move

model is as follows: *Background information → Statement of results → (Un)expected outcome → Reference to previous research → Explanation of unsatisfactory result → Generalization → Recommendation → Outlining parallel or subsequent developments.*

In comparison to Swales' model listed above, R. Holmes' model is different in three moves. R. Holmes' model did not include any 'exemplification' move. He also extended Explanation to Explanation of Unsatisfactory Results; changed Deduction and Hypothesis to Generalization and added one more move of Outlining Parallel or Subsequent Developments which he only found in history RAs. His analysis revealed that there was no "completely obligatory" move in the Discussion section in the social science discipline. He also found that Statement of Results was the most frequent opening move of the section, while Recommendation was the most frequent closing move of the section. His analysis also showed that moves occurred in a predictable order and in cycles.

Nwogu (1997) examined all the sections of 15 RAs in medical science. He established an eleven-move structure for the whole medical RAs which was a two-level framework consisting of move and the constituents or sub-moves. With regard to the Discussion section, Nwogu identified three moves. The second and third moves included five and two sub-moves respectively. His move structure for the Discussion section includes: *Highlighting overall research outcome → Explaining specific research outcome* (By: *Stating a specific outcome/Interpreting the outcome/Indicating significance of the outcome/Contrasting present and previous outcomes/Indicating limitations of outcomes*) → *Stating research conclusions* (By: *Indicating research implications/Promoting further research*).

It seems that while authors in medical science use less moves in their RAs (compared to Swales' (1990) and Dudley-Evans' (1994) models), they use various

strategies for communicating their intended purposes especially in move 2. Nwogu's study revealed that all the three moves were "normally required" in medical research articles. However, he did not mention how he determined whether the moves were optional or compulsory. Nwogu also did not state which stages were optional or obligatory nor did he report whether there was the phenomenon of cyclicity in his corpus.

Posteguillo (1999) examined all the sections of 40 RAs in the field of computer science. His analysis revealed that the last section of RAs in this field was sub-titled Discussion/conclusion. He adopted Swales' eight-move framework for analyzing the Discussion section and found that the two most occurring moves in the Discussion section of his corpus were Statement of Results and Recommendation for Further Research and the other moves appeared less frequently. His analysis also showed cyclical patterns in this section. The most frequent patterns were moves 2 and 7 (statement of results – hypothesis and/or deduction) and moves 2 and 8 (results – recommendation).

In another study, R. Holmes (2000) analyzed 43 Agricultural Economics RAs which were published in the US, Canada, UK, Australia and India. He investigated the frequency and distribution of moves as well as the complexity in the structure of the articles. His analysis revealed that the commonest moves were *statement of results*, *deduction*, *recommendation*, and *background information*. Similar to his findings in the social science (1997), R. Holmes found *statement of results* as the commonest opening move. His analysis also showed that the commonest closing sequence in his corpus was *deduction* plus *recommendation*. R. Holmes, like his 1997 findings in the social science, found some variation within sub-disciplines. His analysis also revealed that there was less complexity in the texts from Indian journal. R. Holmes related variation in text

structure to the economic, social and cultural factors as well as the competitive publishing situation which leads to elaboration of articles.

Peacock (2002) examined the discussion section of 252 articles from seven disciplines (36 from each discipline) of Physics, Biology, Environmental Science, Business, Language and Linguistics, Public and Social Administration, and Law. He investigated the interdisciplinary and NS/NNS variation within this corpus by adopting Dudley-Evans' (1994) framework for the Discussion section. However, Peacock modified Dudley-Evans' (1994) nine-move framework and combined *Statement of result* and *Finding* and labeled it as *Finding*.

His analysis showed that the three most common moves were Findings, Claim, and Reference to Previous Research. Meanwhile, the least frequent moves were Explanation and Information Move. Peacock's analysis also showed that the least widespread move was Explanation, the most widespread moves were Claim, Findings, Reference to Previous Research, and Recommendation.

Meanwhile, Peacock did not find any move that occurred in all the RAs. So he stated that there was no "must occur" move in the discussion section. However, he maintained that the three moves of Findings, Reference to Previous Research, and Claim which were also the most frequent and widespread moves appeared to be "virtually obligatory". He identified another three moves which occurred in 40-50% of the RAs as optional in these seven disciplines. These three moves were Information Move, (Un)expected Outcome, and Limitation. Peacock also found the move of Explanation the least frequent and the least widespread move in his corpus.

Peacock's study also revealed some interdisciplinary variation in terms of the number of moves and move cycles, especially in the Physics and Environmental

Science. He found less move numbers and cycles in these two disciplines. His findings showed that authors in these two disciplines used three moves of Reference to Previous Research, Limitation, and Recommendation quite rarely. He also found that while Information Move was less frequent in Applied Linguistics, Referring to Previous Research was more important in this discipline. In terms of move cycles in the three part framework (Introduction-Evaluation-Conclusion) of Conclusion proposed by Dudley-Evans (1994), Peacock found other move cycles which were not part of Dudley-Evans' model.

One of the most relevant studies to the present research is R. Yang's (2001). She examined 40 RAs in the field of Applied Linguistics including 20 primary and 20 secondary RAs. Her analysis of macro-structure of RAs revealed that while Method, Results, and Discussion sections were obligatory in primary RAs, Argumentation was the obligatory section in secondary RAs. Based on her analysis, R. Yang proposed a two layer framework for the Discussion section of primary RAs with constituents or sub-moves for each move. Her framework is reproduced in Table 2.4.

R. Yang's findings revealed that Commenting on Results which was the communicative focus of discussion section was obligatory. While Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) in their 11-move framework stated that *statement of results* was obligatory, R. Yang, like Swales', found the equivalent move *reporting results* as quasi-obligatory in her data. She also found the three moves of Summarizing the Study, Evaluating the Study, and Deduction from the Research as the optional moves in her corpus.

Table 2.4: R. Yang's (2001) Generic Structure of Discussion Section of Primary
Research Articles in Applied Linguistics

| Moves | Steps |
|---|---|
| 1. Background information | - |
| 2. Reporting results | - Stating results |
| | - Summarizing results |
| 3. Commenting on results | - Interpreting results |
| | - Comparing results with literature |
| | - Accounting for results |
| | - Evaluating results |
| 4. Summarizing study | - Highlighting overall results |
| 5. Evaluating the study | - Indicating limitations |
| | - Indicating significance/advantage |
| | - Evaluating methodology |
| 6. Deduction from the research | - Making Suggestions |
| | - Recommending further research |
| | - Drawing pedagogic implications |

R. Yang's analysis also showed some cyclicity in Reporting Results and
Commenting on Results. She suggested that knowledge construction in the Results and
Discussion sections has three underlying stages: pre-reporting, reporting, and post-
reporting. This is in line with Dudley-Evans' (1994) suggestion that the Discussion
section can be divided into three parts of Introduction–Evaluation–Conclusion. R.
Yang's modal is discussed more in section 4.2 where the generic structure identified in
the corpus of this study is presented.

In an another study, Kanoksilapatham (2005) investigated 60 RAs from the field
of biochemistry. With regard to the Discussion section, he identified four moves with
steps within them. His suggested four-move scheme was: *Contextualizing the study* (By:
*Describing established knowledge/Presenting generalizations/claims, deductions, or
research gap*) → *Consolidating results* (By: *Restating methodology/Stating selected
findings/Referring to previous literature/Explaining differences in findings/Making
overt claims or generalizations/Exemplifying*) → *Stating limitations of the study* (By:

*Limitations about the study/Limitations about the methodology/Limitations about the claims made*) → *Suggesting further research.*

Kanoksilapatham's analysis revealed that while the first three moves were "conventional", the last move was optional in his corpus. According to Kanoksilapatham, emphasis on Contextualizing the Study and Consolidating Results in biochemistry RAs reveals the "scientists' sensitivity to carefully situating their work in the interest of their discourse community" (p. 288). In his analysis, although there are fewer moves than Swales' (1990) or Dudley-Evans' (1994) framework, it seems that authors in biochemistry use various strategies in each move.

In a recent study, Basturkmen (2009) investigated the move of Commenting on Results in 10 master dissertations in language teaching and 10 RAs from the journal of Language Teaching Research. She identified three steps which were used to realize the move. Basturkmen's study was one of the rare cases that sub-steps were also identified for steps:

Step A: Explaining the Result
      i) Providing Alternative Explanations for the Same Result
      ii) Referring to an Explanation Provided in the Literature
      iii) Evaluating an Explanation
Step B: Comparing with Result in Literature
Step C: Evaluating the Result

Her analysis showed that among the three steps to comment on findings, Explaining the Results was the mostly used step which indicated the importance of providing explanations for findings by writers in the field. The step was mostly realized by the sub-step of Providing Alternative Explanations for the Same Result, especially in RAs. Basturkmen also found Result-Comment sequence in her data which was

consistent with other studies in the literature indicating that the Discussion section is organized in cycle of moves.

In a more recent study, Lim (2010) compared the frequency and linguistic mechanisms of commenting on findings in 15 RAs in Applied Linguistics and 15 RAs in Education. In each sub-corpus, he included six qualitative, six quantitative, and three mixed method RAs. He included four steps of Explaining the Findings, Evaluating the Findings, Comparing Findings with Literature and Making Recommendation for Future Research under the move of commenting on findings. Lim's analyses showed that all the four steps of commenting on findings were utilized more frequently in RAs of Applied Linguistics than Education, and overall 84.50% of all the comments were found in Applied Linguistics RAs. Lim's analysis did not reveal any significant differences between the RAs with different methodologies in terms of frequency of commenting on moves.

To sum up, several studies and schemes on the Discussion section of RAs were reviewed in this section. These frameworks and results sometimes overlapped and showed differences in some other parts. While some of the researchers identified a move as obligatory in their data, others found it quasi-obligatory or optional in their corpus. Some researchers also appear to use different labels for the same or similar moves and steps identified in other studies. Based on the review of the literature, it seems that different disciplines use different number and type of moves and steps in organizing the Discussion section. However, the central communicative purpose of the Discussion section is to present, discuss, and evaluate the results which seem present in almost all the frameworks, even though under different labels. However, it should be noted that all of these studies have analyzed empirical research articles, and the organization of RAs in qualitative and quantitative articles is still open to question. This

thesis will concentrate on the Discussion section of the qualitative and quantitative RAs in the field of Applied Linguistics to identify how the authors organize their discussion in these two types of RAs.

## 2.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENRES

A recent development in the genre theory has been the study of relationships between genres. These relationships have been actualized in concepts such as *genre networks*, *genre chains*, *genre sets*, *genre systems* and *genre colonies* (Bazerman, 1994, 2004; Bhatia, 2004; Devitt, 1991, 2004; Swales, 2004). These concepts are used "to characterize how genres fit into and comprise larger organizations, roles and activities" (Bazerman, 2004, p. 318).

### 2.8.1 Genre Sets

Devitt (1991) first proposed *genre sets* to describe a collection of texts that anyone in a particular professional role might use. She argues that each profession can rarely accomplish its purposes with a single genre and thus uses a set of genres which "help[s] the community to cohere and define itself" (Devitt, 2004, p. 56). In other words, "for each status that exists in the world – teacher, police officer, hod carrier, philosopher – there are only a limited number of genres in which each needs to perform to carry out the full range of that status" (Bazerman, 1994, pp. 82-83).

Devitt (1991) discusses the case of tax accountants who use many different but limited text types in the tax accounting community. She identifies a collection of texts that are used in this community such as "transmittal letters", "engagement letters", "promotional letters to clients", "opinion letters to clients", and "response letters to taxing authorities". Devitt (1991, p. 353) argues that these genres are essential to this particular professional community and each "functions to accomplish some of the firm's

work". She (2004, p. 54) also remarks that although each of these genres is distinct, they are intertextually related and "the interactions among those genres affect the functioning of each genre". The texts within a particular *genre set* share typical patterns with other similar texts which are produced by other professions in the same field (Bhatia, 2004). Familiarity with genre sets, according to Devitt (1991, 2004), is a prerequisite for a membership in a community. Identifying the genre set that an individual or group of individuals use in a particular role helps to identify "a large part of their work" and "what skills are needed" in order to produce those genres which helps to identify a large part of what the individual "has to learn to do that work competently" (Bazerman, 2004, p. 318).

Bazerman (1994, p. 83) remarks that *genre set* instantiates the involvement of only one of the participants in a professional activity and presents "only the work of one side of a multiple person interaction". For instance, in the case of tax accounting, he states the genre set includes various types of letters to clients. However, he comments that other parties also participate in this profession who interact with each other. In the same example, he remarks that other than the accountant's letters to the client, there are the letters' from the client to the accountant or from the government to the accountant which are not included in the *genre set* of accounting community. In other words, *genre set* "seems to include one side of the professional practice" (Bhatia, 2004, p. 53). To respond to this issue, Bazerman (1994) introduces the concept of *genre system*.

## 2.8.2   Genre System

As was discussed in the previous section, Bazerman (1994) extends the concept of *genre set* and introduces the *genre system* which he defines as "the interrelated genres that interact with each other in specific settings" (1994, p. 82). In other words, the genre system is a group of interrelated genres that have "a common purpose" and "can be

described in terms of a particular activity it accomplishes" (Devitt, 2004, pp. 56-57). To be specific, a genre system "is comprised of the several genre sets of people working together in an organized way, plus the patterned relations in the production, flow, and the use of these documents" (Bhatia, 2004, p. 318). In this sense, genre system is more comprehensive than the concept of genre set.

Bazerman (2004) exemplifies the *institutional system of genres*. He discusses that in this system teacher and students are involved in two different sets of written genres. A teacher's set of genre might include syllabus, assignment papers, personal notes on readings, notes for giving lectures, exam questions, replies to individual student queries, grades on student papers, and so on. On the other hand, the students might have a different set of genre including notes taken in the classroom, notes on reading, clarifications on assignment papers, email queries to the teacher and/or classmates, final copies of assignments, exam answers, etc. Bazerman (2004, p. 318) argues that these two sets of genre are interrelated and "flow in predictable sequence and time pattern". For example, he states the teacher prepares the notes for the lecture and gives the lecture and then students take note and after that the students might email queries about the lecture to the teacher which the teacher might reply.

The *Genre system*, unlike the *genre set*, represents the work of all sides of a multi person interaction and "captures the regular sequences of how one genre follows on another in the typical communication flows of a group of people" (Bhatia, 2004, p. 318). In Devitt's (2004, p.56) words, the genre system "does capture the regularity and often rule-governed nature of the interaction of genres within a distinct activity". The sequence of genres is emphasized in the genre system. Devitt (2004, p. 57) states that a genre system can also be called "a genre sequence" and Yates and Orlikowski (2002, p. 15) remark that genres within a genre system "are enacted in some typical sequence (or

limited set of acceptable sequences) in relation to each other". Swales (2004) suggests another concept to capture the sequential relations between genres which is called *genre chains*.

### 2.8.3 Genre Chains

Swales (2004, p. 18) introduces the concept of *genre chains* to refer to the "relationship between genres in terms of their chronological ordering, especially when one is a necessary antecedent for another". An example of a genre chain can be a collection of genres in applying for a job. The chain might include genres of advertisement, resume, application letter, invitation to interview, rejection, or job offer. Each of these genres in the chain interrelates with the genres that precede them.

### 2.8.4 Genre Network

*Genre network* is another concept which Swales (2004) uses to refer to interrelatedness of genres. Swales (ibid, p. 22) defines the genre network as "the totality of genres available for a particular sector (such as research world) as seen from any chosen synchronic moment". Using this concept, which overlaps with the *genre system* to a great extend, Swales emphasizes the intertextuality. He (ibid. p. 23) states that "a network frame allows us, by tracing intertextual links and other kind of recontextualization to place individual genres within a heuristically valuable wider context". The genre network of research world, according to Swales, might include research articles, presentations, dissertations, books, chapters in books, etc.

### 2.8.5 Genre Colonies

Bhatia (2004, p. 57) introduces *genre colonies* or genres across domains to refer to "super genres, incorporating a constellation of individually recognized genres that

display strong similarities across disciplinary and professional boundaries". The individual genres within a colony do not necessarily belong to the same discipline or domain. However, they largely share a communicative purpose and "the rhetorical conventions and contexts" as well as "the lexico-grammatical and discoursal features they serve" (Bhatia, 2002, p. 280). The genres within a colony, thus, are related in terms of shared communicative purposes.

Some examples of genre colony are promotional genres, academic introduction and reporting genres (Bhatia, 2004). In the colony of promotional genres, genres such as book blurbs, advertisements, and job applications are included. These genres shape an overlapping communicative purpose which is promoting a service or product. According to Bhatia, a colony might have a variety of occupants. In the above example, those three genres are the primary members of promotional genre colony. However, this colony might have some secondary members. For instance, Bhatia exemplifies book reviews, film reviews, company reports, and annual reports which have promotional concerns and are referred to as advertorials. Many of them are hybrid genres and might be members of other colonies as well. For example, annual reports belong to the colony of reporting genres but at the same time are secondary member in promotional genre.

To sum up, in this section some concepts which are used to refer to interrelatedness of genres were discussed. Sometimes, there is not a clear-cut boundary between them and they overlap. The key issue here is that genres are related and interact with each other and the knowledge about genres includes not only understanding the whole genres available in "a particular sector" but also "how these genres interact with each other, which genres a person might choose to perform a particular task, and what the typical sequence … of these genres might be" (Paltridge, 2006, p. 90). Research articles are part of genre system that include genres such as editorial policy guidelines

of a journal and peer reviews which have an impact on the final version of an article. In this study, the editorial policy of the journals are considered, however, peer reviews are excluded as the relationship between these two genres is out of the focus of this study and requires another research.

## 2.9    GENRE ANALYSIS AND CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC

Genre analysis has been used by other approaches in analyzing discourse. Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) is one of these approaches. The study of contrastive rhetoric started with Robert Kaplan's 1966 article "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education". In this article, Kaplan reported his study on writings of ESL students with different first languages. He identified five types of paragraph development in five major languages, namely Anglo-European, Semitic, Oriental, Romance, and Russian and concluded that these differences in rhetoric were due to the different patterns of thinking. Later in 1987 and 1988 he called his 1966 article "doodles" article and suggested that these differences in writing may reflect different writing conventions which are culturally bound. Basically, the core assumption of the CR is that culture influences how writers write and writers' native culture might affect various aspects of their writing in a foreign language. In other words, the CR assumes that different cultures have different "rhetorical tendencies" and writers transfer their L1 "rhetorical tendencies" which causes interference in content and "choice of rhetorical strategies" while writing in ESL (Connor, 2002, p. 494).

Since the emergence of CR in 1960s, different studies have been carried out in this field including Clyne (1983) in German; Hinds (1984, 1987) in Japanese; Hinds (1990) and Martín (2003) in Spanish; Mauranen (1993) in Finish; Mohan & Lo (1985) in Chinese; Moreno (1997, 1998, 2004) in Spanish; Ostler (1987) in Arabic; and Ventola and Mauranen (1991) in Finish. These studies have identified differences in

rhetorical strategies between different cultures. The Contrastive rhetoric "identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers, and by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them" (Connor, 1996, p. 5). It is hoped that by providing information about the rhetoric used by other cultures, pedagogical solutions which can facilitate the problems of L2 writers of English can be suggested.

Most of the studies in the early days of CR were concentrated on examining student essays. However, more recently the CR has expanded its domain and investigates other genres such as research articles, grant proposals, business letters, editorials, and resumes (Connor, 1996). By acknowledging that attention to various genres have been useful for the contrastive rhetoric, Connor (1996, p. 149) states that "the consideration of genre has also extended contrastive studies to types of writing that had not been studied before".

Two main approaches have been taken in the CR studies. The first one is examining L1 texts from different cultural backgrounds. The second is establishing "textual criteria" and searching for them "in samples of successful and unsuccessful texts" written by students in their L1 (Leki, 1991, p. 126). Furthermore, the CR is a multidisciplinary approach influenced by a range of theories and methodologies. According to Connor (2004, p. 291), "it draws on theories and research methods from second language acquisition, composition and rhetoric, anthropology, translation studies, linguistic discourse analysis, and genre analysis".

Concerning the methodologies utilized by the contrastive rhetoric, Connor (2004) states that the CR uses different methods of text analysis, genre analysis, corpus linguistics, and ethnographic approaches. Text analysis has been the major methodology of CR since its early days. However, by expanding the domain of CR studies to various

genres, "genre analysis has provided methods of analysis that supplement the discourse analysis methods" (Connor, 2004, p. 297). According to Connor, the genre analysis development has been beneficiary for the CR studies because "it has forced the researchers to compare apples with apples" (2004, p. 297). The genre analysis has introduced another beneficial method to the CR studies which allows them to expand their investigation beyond merely linguistic features and sentence level.

Many studies have examined different genres in different languages by employing the genre analysis. The main assumption of these studies has been that while genre imposes relative uniformity, different cultures may prefer different rhetoric (Moreno, 2004). These studies have investigated generic moves and linguistic features of various genres. For instance, in a recent study, Suárez and Moreno (2008) examined 40 academic journal book reviews of literature in English and Spanish. They compared the rhetorical structure of these reviews in order to find out the influence of culture on them. Their findings revealed that "the Spanish BRs (book reviews) of literature develop more description moves and are less likely to end with criticism-loaded strategies" (ibid., p. 147). Like most of the studies in CR, the authors only describe the differences and similarities between the two corpora and admit that their study does not account for the reasons for such divergence.

In an another study, Martín (2003) used Swales' (1990) model to investigate the generic structures of 160 English and Spanish abstracts in the field of experimental social sciences. His findings suggested that the Spanish abstracts generally followed "the international conventions based on the norms of English academic discourse community" (Martín, 2003, p. 41). However, the study revealed some divergence between the two corpora. According to Martín, the Spanish writers tended to omit the Results section in their abstracts. Also, most of the Spanish writers seemed to tend to

skip the move of Establishing a Niche (move 2 in Swales' model) and regarded "it unconventional to criticize the work of previous authors" (ibid. p. 41). Martín suggested that the small number of members of Spanish social science community made establishing a niche unnecessary for the writers. Martín concluded that the differences in the generic structures of English and Spanish abstracts could be due to two factors: socio-cultural factors and the expectations of members of the international Spanish scientific community.

To sum up, the notion of culture is central in the CR. The CR studies investigate the similarities and differences between writings across languages and cultures. By identifying these similarities and differences, they hope to facilitate the problems of L2 English writers. According to Leki (1991), "contrastive rhetoric studies help us to remember that the idea of "being yourself", or writing elegantly, or communicating clearly and convincingly has no reality outside a particular cultural and rhetorical context and that our discourse community is only one of many" (p. 139). In the case of this thesis, as it is concerned with RAs from high impact journals, it is assumed that the writers are acquainted with and follow the international conventions and constraints, and their cultural background or first language does not influence their writing notably. Hence, the nationality of writers and whether they are native or non-native writers are not considered in this study.

## 2.10 GENRE ANALYSIS AND CORPUS LINGUISTICS

A relatively new approach to discourse analysis is corpus studies which are largely concerned with analyzing and studying corpora in terms of frequency and distribution. The word "corpus" which is derived from Latin means "body" and is generally used to refer to "a large and principled collection of natural texts" (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 2004, p. 12). Corpus linguistics is, therefore, "the study of language based on examples

of real life language use" (Baker, 2006, p. 1). According to Stubbs (2004, p. 106), "corpus data are essential for accurately describing language use, and have shown how lexis, grammar, and semantics interact" which "has applications in language teaching, translation, forensic linguistics, and broader cultural analysis".

Although the use of collection of texts in language study goes back to Middle Ages, computer technology pushed forward the development of corpus studies in the early sixties (Ghadessy, Henry, & Roseberry, 2001). The use of computer in corpus-studies has revolutionized the field to the extent that Leech (1992) suggests that "computer corpus linguistics" to be used instead of corpus linguistics. The use of computers has also influenced the definition of corpus and it is assumed that corpus needs to be machine readable. A corpus, therefore, is defined as "a collection of (1) *machine-readable* (2) *authentic* texts (including transcripts of spoken data) which is (3) *sampled* to be (4) *representative* of a particular language or language variety" (McEnery, Xiao, & Tono, 2006, p. 5).

Computers have enabled the researchers to process a large amount of data with immense speed and minimum effort. This, furthermore, has made the results and findings more reliable and convincing (Bhatia, Flowerdew, & Jones, 2007). The key features of computer corpus linguistics, according to Leech (1992, p. 107), are that it focuses on "linguistic performance rather than competence; linguistic description rather than linguistic universals; quantitative, as well as qualitative model of language; a more empiricist, rather than rational view of scientific inquiry". The corpus linguistics is an empirical methodology that can provide "an evidence-based approach to language" which "moves the study of language away from ideas of what is correct, towards what is typical or frequent" (Hyland, 2006b, p. 58).

The initial corpus-based studies which worked with large general corpora mainly focused on lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical aspects of language use (Bhatia, Flowerdew, & Jones, 2007). The basic corpus linguistic techniques are: concordancing (i.e. finding every occurrence of a particular word or phrase), key word analysis (i.e. identifying the key words in texts), cluster analysis (analyzing how language is systematically clustered into combinations of words) and collocations ( i.e. description of specific lexical items and the frequency with which these items occur with other lexical items) (Hyland, 2006b; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007).

Corpus linguistics, however, is not an end in itself (Kennedy, 1998). The results obtained from it can help the researchers, teachers, and students to explore facts about language patterns and use such as, which words are used more frequently, which words are commonly used together, which grammatical patterns are associated with a particular word as well as which features are over-used or under-used in the writing of L2 students (Ghadessy et al., 2001; Hyland, 2006b). Such studies on language patterning have also been employed in dictionary creation and construction of general grammar books (e.g. *Cobuild Dictionary* and *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*). Swales (2004) comments that it is expected that in future most of the material for reference works to be informed by the corpus linguistics.

With the expansion of corpus linguistics, the application of corpus-based linguistic description has been associated with EAP/ESP in recent years. However, the study of general corpora which results in general patterns and lists about language as a whole are not always beneficial for pedagogical purposes (Upton & Connor, 2001). Several reservations have been expressed regarding corpus based studies (Baker, 2006; Hunston, 2002; Swales, 2004). One main argument against it is that the corpus analysis

does not take into account the textual and situational context which is important in discourse analysis. Another criticism is that the corpus linguistics is based on post-hoc analysis of frequency data and it is not clear when and how these findings can be carried over to effective pedagogical practices (David Lee & Swales, 2006). The other criticism is that by focusing on concordance line, corpus-based approaches limit the analysis to bottom-up type of investigation which is different from top-down approaches that are adopted by most discourse analysis approaches especially genre analysis (Swales, 2004). In other words, while a genre analysis focuses on identifying the moves and steps and the key linguistic features that identify these textual features, the corpus linguistics focuses on the linguistic features and tries to link these features to wider discoursal points (Maggie Charles, 2007).

Generally, one of the shortcomings of general corpora is its limitation in representing particular genres and terms associated with them (Hüttner et al., 2009). Recently, however, some specialized corpora have been created. As was discussed earlier in this section, general corpora are useful to find out information about language patterns and uses as a whole, however, "they are less conductive for analyzing language use in specific academic and professional situations" (Connor & Upton, 2004, p. 2). Specialized corpora are compiled and used when a researcher is interested in the use of language in a specific situation. As a result, more recently corpus-based work has considered working on specialized corpora (e.g. MICASE and T2K-SWAL corpus). In a comprehensive definition, Hunston(2002) defines the specialized corpus as:

> A corpus of texts of a particular type, such as newspaper editorial, geography textbooks, academic articles in a particular subject, lectures, casual conversations, essays written by students etc. It aims to be representative of a given type of text. It is used to investigate a particular type of language. (p. 14)

In other words, a specialized corpus is a "body of relevant and reliable evidence … [where] the evidence is interpreted by the scholar directly" (Sinclair, 2001, p. xi).

The main difference between a general and specialized corpora lies in methodology. While the general corpora "are designed for late or delayed human intervention (DHI) [the special corpora] are designed for early human intervention (EHI)" where the analyst has a clear goal and constructs a corpus and considering the specific purpose and research project in mind decides on the methodology (Sinclair, 2001, p. x). Furthermore, one of the shortcomings of working with general corpora is that they generally lend themselves to quantitative analyses where only broad generalizations on the language can be made. Meanwhile, the specialized corpora lend themselves more to qualitative-based analysis as their size and composition make them more manageable for qualitative studies (L. Flowerdew, 2004). The characteristics of a genre is discoverable if a more specialized corpora is used for analysis (D. Lee, 2001; Sinclair, 2001).

While the general corpus provides information about the discourse as a whole, the specialized corpora "allow for a more thorough understanding of how language is used in particular contexts or in particular genres" (Upton & Connor, 2001, p. 326). Therefore, as Upton (2002, pp. 68-69) argues, there is a need for corpora which are limited to particular genres and "that include the writing requirements and the contexts in which the texts are generated". The specialized corpora, compared with the general corpora, represent target language use more faithfully (O'Keeffe et al., 2007).

To sum up, the corpus linguistics provides useful and objective information on language structure and use. While its important advantage is that it can analyze a corpus of millions of words with less time and effort, some criticism have been leveled at it. The most important criticism is that it does not consider the contextual features and is more bottom-up approach in contrast to other discourse analysis approaches such as genre analysis which is a top-down one. It is also argued that it provides general

information about whole language which is not helpful in studying genres and specific languages. Some of these criticisms have been compensated for by using specialized corpora and conducting interviews with specialist informants in order to gain contextual information. According to Bhatia et al. (2007, p. 94), "more discourse analyses in the future will be corpus-based in one form or another, although the need for a human analyst, ethnographic knowledge of events and close textual readings will in no way be replaced because the nature of language is such that it is resistant to easy interpretations and automatized analyses".

As Biber, Connor and Upton (2007, p. 10) state, discourse studies have been carried out from two major perspectives: one is focused on "the distribution and functions of surface linguistic features" and the other is "on internal organization of texts". While corpus-based studies are related to the first category, discourse analysis, especially genre studies are placed in the second category. The present study is focused on both of these perspectives. While in the first part it deals with "internal organization" of qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics, in the second part it attends to "the distribution" and to some extent to "the function" of *stance* features in a specialized corpora which is compiled for this study.

## 2.11    THE CONCEPT OF STANCE

The concept of stance is not "a monolithic concept" (Englebretson, 2007, p. 1) and has been defined and conceptualized broadly and variously. Generally, stance is defined as linguistic mechanisms which are used by writers/speakers to reveal their feelings, evaluations, and opinions on a given matter. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999, p. 966) define stance as "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgments, or assessments". In their early work, Biber and Finegan  (1989, p. 92) refer to stance as "the lexical and grammatical expression of attitudes, feelings, judgments, or

commitment concerning the propositional content of a message". Hyland (1999b, p. 101) defines stance as "the ways that writers project themselves into their texts to communicate their integrity, credibility, involvement, and a relationship to their subject matter and their reader". According to Hyland (2008, p. 5), stance "refers to the writer's textual 'voice' or community recognized personality" which is used "to stamp their [writers'] personal authority onto their arguments or step back and disguise their involvement" (2005c, p. 176).

Hunston and Thompson (2000, p. 25) define stance as a "broad cover term" for expressing the speaker or writer's view points, attitudes, or feelings about the propositions that they express. According to Berman (2005, p. 109), stance reflects "the fact that any state of affairs in the worlds of fact or fantasy can be described in multiple ways … [and] there is no 'one way' of talking or writing about a given topic, or about the same situation in the external world". While some writers (Biber, 2006a; Biber & Finegan, 1989; Biber et al., 1999; Precht, 2000)  have used the term *stance*, other labels such as *evaluation* (Hunston & Thompson, 2000), *affect* (Ochs, 1989), *appraisal* (Martin, 2000), *evidentiality* (Chafe, 1986), and *hedging* (J. Holmes, 1988; Hyland, 1996) have also been used to refer to this concept.

The concept of stance not only has been defined and labeled variously, it has also been expressed and operationalized in different ways. Biber (2006, p. 99) states that stance can be expressed through "grammatical devices, value-laden word choice, and paralinguistic devices". In expressing stance through grammatical devices, grammatical stance markers such as "adverbials and complement clause constructions" (ibid.) are used to express stance. The adverbials are used to express the writer/speaker's attitude or assessment towards a statement such as: *unfortunately we will not be able to attend*

*the party*. The complement clauses are used to express stance towards the proposition in the matrix clause, such as: *I doubt that we can attend the party* (Biber, 2006a).

Value-driven words, affective, or evaluative words, are different from grammatical devices in that they involve only a single proposition and do not involve the expression of stance related to other propositions (Biber, 2006). For instance, in the following example: *I love this dress*, no information is communicated other than the writer/speaker's love towards the dress. The last device that can express stance is paralinguistic devices. In speech, the paralinguistic devices include pitch, intensity, and duration or nonlinguistic devices such as body language, gesture, or facial expression. In writing, paralinguistic devices include italics, bold face, underlining, and so on which can be used to express the writer's stance (ibid).

Berman (2005, p. 107) conceptualizes the concept of stance by using three dimensions: "*orientation* (sender, text, recipient), *attitude* (epistemic, deontic, affective), and *generality* (of reference and quantification)". Focusing on the dimension of attitude, Berman states that *epistemic* expresses the writer/speaker's belief about the truth of a given state of affairs such as ability, inability, possibility, and certainty; *deontic* reveals the speaker/writer's judgmental or evaluative viewpoints; and *affective* is concerned with the speaker/writer's emotions (such as anger, desire, grief, etc.) towards a state of affairs.

Various studies have investigated the concept of stance (e.g. Baratta, 2009; Berman, 2005; Biber, 2006b; Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Hyland, 1999, 2005b, 2005c, 2008; Martin, 2000; Thompson, 2001; P. White, 2002). These studies range from a detailed analysis of a single text to investigating general patterns in computer-based corpora. Most of these studies which have used systemic functional linguistics or corpus linguistics have identified and described the lexis and

grammar that serve as stance markers. For instance, adverbials have been identified as sources of various epistemic, attitudinal and style stances. English modals, adjectives, nouns, and complement clauses have also been identified as being used for stance-taking by speakers/writers.

Studies on the stance have investigated its use in written and spoken discourse. Some have studied stance in the writing of novice and expert writers, and some others have compared the use of stance by authors in different disciplines. Most of these studies which have focused on semantic analysis have categorized stance in terms of the basic meanings associated with it such as lexical verbs (hedging verbs, reporting verbs, affect verbs, relationship verbs), adverbials (certainty, probability, downtoners, affect), adjectives (certainty, hesitancy, affect), nouns (epistemic, qualifying, affect), and modal verbs (epistemic: modality of propositions, deontic: modality of events) (Precht, 2000). These studies have not adopted or presented any taxonomy for stance markers. The stance seems to fall across a continuum, from hedging which shows doubt, low certainty and/or modesty of the speakers/writers regarding their personal claim to revealing a personal opinion towards the claims of others (Baratta, 2009; Berman, 2005; Precht, 2000).

The other trend in stance studies has focused on pragmatic aspect of stance and has focused on interactional nature of it. These studies have emphasized the importance of interaction between writer/speaker with reader/listener. According to Hyland (1999b, 2005c, 2008), stance which concerns "writer-oriented features of interaction" is one of the ways of achieving interaction. He (2008, p. 7) identifies three components for the stance: evidentiality (which refers to the writer's commitment to the expressed proposition), affect (which reveals the writer's attitudes towards the claims), and presence (which refers to the extent to which the writer exposes him/herself into the

text). Hyland (1999b) offers a taxonomy for stance markers and suggests that the stance consists of *hedges*, *boosters*, *attitude markers*, and *self mention*. These four concepts are discussed in the following sections.

### 2.11.1 Hedges

The use of Hedge as a linguistic term goes back to Lakoff (1972) who defined it as words "whose job is to make things fuzzier [e.g. sort of, somewhat] or less fuzzy [e.g. typical, definitely]" (p. 195). According to Lakoff, hedges can be used in creating categories and giving *ad hoc* labels to imprecise and fuzzy sets. For instance, in Lakoff's *birdness hierarchy*, robins are seen as prototypical ideal birds which are followed by eagles, chickens then penguins which are less typical. Thus, in the sentence: *Penguines are sort of birds*, *sort of* is a *fuzzy* expression which is used to modify the penguin's membership in the category of bird and places them among the more peripheral members of the group. Concerned with the semantic aspect of hedges, Lakoff was not interested in "the communicative value of the use of hedges" (Markkanen & Schröder, 1997, p. 4).

Though Lakoff's work and definition has been a starting point in studying and analyzing hedges, the concept of hedge "has moved far from its origins" (Markkanen & Schröder, 1997, p. 4). The use of hedges has been studied in discourse analysis by various researchers using different approaches. Many studies have approached the concept as a pragmatic phenomenon. Consequently, various functions and uses have been identified for the concept. Prince, Frader and Bosk (1982) and Skelton (1988) state that hedges distance a speaker from what is being said. Vande Kopple (1985) categorized hedges as the element which reflects lack of full commitment to a statement. Channell (1994) and Dubois (1987) treat hedges as a means of signaling purposive vagueness. Addressing hedging in the writings of American and Finish

university students, Crismore et al. (1993) treat hedges as a form of metadiscourse. Salager-Meyer (1994) links hedges to purposive vagueness when she examines 15 research papers and case reports in the field of medicine. She also associates hedges with signaling writers' modesty as well as showing "the impossibility or unwillingness of researching absolute accuracy… [or] quantifying all the phenomena under study" (ibid., p. 153).

As pointed before, hedges have received a lot of interest in discourse studies. Various studies have investigated its interactional and interpersonal functions. One of the most important treatments of interactional features of hedging is related to politeness theories. The concept of hedge as politeness strategy in research articles was first put forwards by Myers (1985; 1989). He argues that making claims is an important feature of research articles; however, claim making might challenge the present assumptions of a discourse community towards a proposition and as a result be considered a threat to readers. Myers ( 1989, pp. 12-13) proposes that hedging is "the appropriate attitude for offering a claim to the community" which can "modify the statements that could be FTAs [Face Threatening Acts]". Myers (ibid., p.13) describes hedging as a negative politeness strategy and even suggests that "a sentence that looks like a claim but has no hedging is probably not a statement of new knowledge".

Hyland (1996, p. 434) criticizes Myer's politeness approach to hedges and argues that although Myers' work is "suggestive and central to any discussion of hedging" but it "provides a partial of hedging in scientific discourse" and "neglects the multi-functional character of hedges in gaining acceptance for claims". Hyland (1998b, p. 68) proposes that treating hedges in academic research articles as politeness phenomenon "over-emphasizes the instrumental aspect of language use at the expense of the normative, under-estimating the importance of the scientific peer group in

maintaining standards, judging merit and evaluating reputation". In other words, Hyland argues that hedging is not primarily and merely a strategy used by authors for protecting face in an interaction but its use is determined by the principles of a discourse community. Hyland (1998b, p. 69) suggests that "we therefore have to reject the politeness view as an adequate explanation of the use of hedging in science and conclude that discourse community norms are likely to play a larger part than credited by the Myers/Brown and Levinson model".

Recently, hedging has been treated mostly as realization of interactional strategy. Hyland's (1996; 1998b) work has been one of the outstanding studies in this area. Although "hedging is a concept that evades definition" (Lewin, 2005, p. 165), Hyland's (1998b, p. 1) view of hedges as a means to express "a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition" or "a desire not to express that commitment categorically" presents "the consensus among current analysts in general" (Lewin, 2005, p. 165). Hedges, according to Hyland (1998b, p. 245), "are among the main pragmatic features which shape the research article as the principal vehicle for new knowledge and which distinguish it from other forms of academic discourse".

Hyland (1998b, p. 16) points out that research articles are socially constructed "rhetorical artifacts" in which authors are engaged in negotiation and persuasion. As the readers can refute the arguments at any time, presenting arguments in a persuasive way is one of the most common tasks that the writers face (Abbuhl, 2006; Hyland, 2008). This objection, according to Hyland (2000, p. 13), can be due to two main reasons. First, a claim might be refuted because "it fails to correspond to what the world is thought to be like, i.e. it fails to meet *adequacy condition*". Second, statements might not match participants' expectations and fail to meet *acceptability conditions*. Writers

not only need to represent themselves "to be reasonable, intelligent, co-player in the community's efforts to construct knowledge and well versed in its tribal lore" but also need to display "proper respect for colleagues and give due regard for their views and reputations" (Hyland, 2000, p. 13). In other words, the question of adequacy concerns "the objective negatability of a proposition" and acceptability corresponds to "its subjective negatability" (Hyland, 1996, pp. 436-437). Creating an appropriate balance between "the researcher's authority as an expert-knower" and accommodating "readers' expectations that they will be allowed to participate in a dialogue, and that their own views will somehow be acknowledged in the discourse" (Hyland, 2000, p. 93) is an important principle in successful academic writing.

The possibility of rejection of claims by readers indicates "the active role readers play in the communicative process" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 91) which in turn reveals the need for claims to be ratified by readers as "readers are guarantors of the negatability of claims" (Hyland, ibid.). Hedges play a central role in creating persuasion as they allow the writers to present the information "as an opinion rather than fact" (Hyland, 2005c, p. 179) and indicates that the writers are aware of the possibility of rejection of their claim (Hyland, 1998b, p. 91). In other words, hedges presume that claims need to be justified as the writer needs to gain the reader's agreement on them (Hyland, 1996).

Hyland (1996; 1998b), based on an investigation of hedges in a corpus of biology RAs, has devised a precise model for the hedges in academic RAs. He argues that hedges not only can be presented in different semantic interpretations but also they can express various meanings in particular contexts (1998b). He argues that hedging is a "polypragmatic" strategy that can be used to reach a number of pragmatic aspects. Drawing on the theories of prototypicality (e.g. Taylor, 1989) and fuzzy sets (e.g.

Zadeh, 1972), Hyland has established a polypragmatic model of hedging. The main categories of his model are *content-oriented* and *reader-oriented*. Figure 2.3 shows this model.

```
                              Hedging
                                 |
        Content-oriented -------------------------Reader-oriented
                         |
  Accuracy-oriented ---------------------------- Writer-oriented
                   |
  Attribute -------------------- Reliability
```
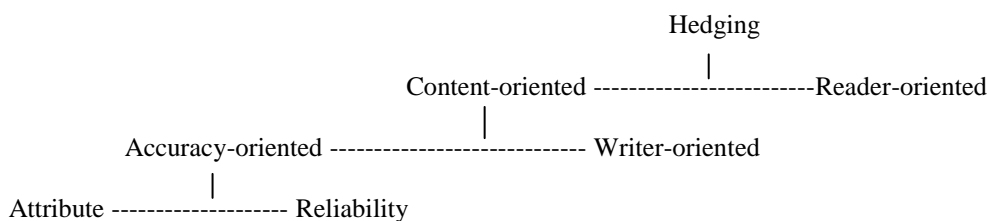
Figure 2.3: Hyland's (1996/1998) Model of Scientific Hedging

Content-oriented hedges concern correspondence between propositions and the real world. They "mitigate the relationship between propositional content and a representation of reality; they hedge the correspondence between what the writer says about the world and what the world is thought to be like" (Hyland, 1996, pp. 439, see also 1998, p.162). The motivation for using content-oriented hedges is of two overlapping types: either the writer is concerned with "stating propositional accord with reality" or is "seeking self protection from the negative consequences of poor judgment" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 162). Based on these two motivations for using content-oriented hedges, Hyland (1996, 1998) introduces two subcategories of *accuracy-oriented* and *writer-oriented* hedges for the content-oriented hedges.

Accuracy-oriented hedges are used by writers to state propositions with greater precision. They attempt to present accurately the propositions that are less than absolute and seek "to meet adequacy conditions by reducing the risk of negation on objective grounds" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 162). The accuracy-oriented hedges are further divided into *attribute hedges* and *reliability hedges* which have different motivations and realizations. The attribute hedges are expressions (e.g. generally, essentially, barely, viewed in this way) that are used to "allow deviations between idealized models of

nature and instances of actual behavior to be accurately expressed" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 164). By using them, writers try to specify more precisely how far their findings "approximate to an idealized state" (p. 164). This category is closely associated with Lakoff's (1972) definition of hedging.

The second subcategory in the accuracy-oriented hedges is reliability hedges. They show "the writers' confidence in the truth of a proposition" (Hyland, 1996, p. 441). The main motivation for using this type of hedging is the writer's "desire to clarify the state of knowledge, a hedge against complete accuracy, rather than a wish to seek protection against overstatement" (Hyland, 1998, p. 167). The common means of manifesting reliability hedges are epistemic forms especially modal verbs, modal adjectives, and nouns (e.g. might, possibility, appears, probably) which are used to "express a conviction about propositional truth as warranted by deductions from variable facts, relying on inference, deduction or repeated experience. They refer to present states and are usually in the active voice without writer agentivity" (Hyland, 1998, p. 169).

The second main type of content-oriented hedges is writer oriented hedges. The writer's main motivation in using writer-oriented hedges is "to shield … [him/herself] from the consequences of opposition by limiting personal commitment" (Hyland, 1996, p. 443). In other words, writers use the writer-oriented hedges to move themselves away from a proposition in order to protect themselves against any probable falsification of the proposition. The most central feature of this type of hedging, according to Hyland (1998, p. 172), is the "absence of writer agentivity" (e.g. it was assumed, the model implies, it seems that) which reduces "the author's responsibility for performing the act". The writer-oriented hedges "help minimize the scientist's personal involvement and thereby reduce the probability of refutation" (ibid.). While the content-oriented

hedges are "proposition-focused" and are used to increase the accuracy of the proposition, the writer-oriented hedges are "writer-focused" and are mostly concerned with decreasing the writer's presence in the text (Hyland, 1996, p. 443). As Hyland himself states, the distinction between these two types of hedges are not always very precise and distinct, and hedges can convey multiple meanings at the same time.

The second category of hedges is reader-oriented hedges which are mainly concerned with interpersonal interaction between writer and reader. Hyland (1998, p. 178) argues that expressing "claims as ex-cathedra assertions displays an unacceptable deviant persona" as it neglects the audience's role in ratification of knowledge. Certainty and definite claims do not leave room for readers' involvement and negotiation in the status of knowledge which is presented. The reader-oriented hedges indicate that there might be alternative explanations to a given phenomena described by the writer and what the writer has said "is a personal opinion" and "the claim is left to the reader's judgment" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 182).

Due to the importance of hedges, they have been the object of analysis in conversation analysis and written discourse especially academic and scientific discourse. However, most of these studies deal generally with science and medical academic writing rather than the humanities (Rizomilioti, 2006). Consequently, the literature involves a large number of studies on hedging in various science disciplines, including biology (Hyland, 1996, 2005c; Myers, 1989) ; economics (Bloor & Bloor, 1993); engineering (Hyland, 2005c) and medicine (Salager-Meyer, 1994). Also, a number of studies have investigated the cross-cultural aspects of hedging, for instance, in Bulgarian (Vassileva, 2001), Chinese (Y. Yang, 2003), Finish (Crismore et al., 1993), German (Clyne, 1991) and Russian (Namsaraev, 1997) languages. Another trend in

studying hedges has investigated its use by expert and novice writers (e.g. Koutsantoni, 2006).

In economics, Bloor and Bloor (1993) analyzed 11 RAs in economics focusing on how economists make knowledge claims and how far they modify their claims. They concluded that the number and amount of hedging used by economists was in close relation with the type of claims that they made. Their analysis also showed that economic texts were less hedged than biology articles.

Salager-Meyer (1994) studied the distribution of hedging in different rhetorical sections of case report (CR) and research paper (RP) in the field of medicine. Salager-Meyer's analysis showed that while Method section was the least-hedged section, the Discussion section in the RPs and Comment section (equivalent of the Discussion section in CR) had the most number of hedges. This confirms Myers's (1989) claim that writers use more hedges in the Discussion section of research articles than other sections because in the Discussion section writers needs to show commitment and at the same time leave room for the possibility of being mistaken.

In a cross-disciplinary study, Varttala (2001) studied hedges in three disciplines of economics, medicine, and technology. She found that among the three disciplines, economics was the most hedged one and overall hedges appeared three times more in economics than in medicine and technology. Varttala concluded that the purpose and method of the study, as well as the nature of disciplines were the main reasons for such differences. His findings, similar to Salager-Meyer's (1994), showed that the Discussion section of RAs followed by Introduction were the most hedged sections of RAs.

In a cross-cultural study, Hinkel (2002) studied the frequency and use of 68 linguistic and rhetorical features in English timed essays written by 1457 undergraduate

students from six languages (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Indonesian, and Arabic) and compared them with native English writers' use of those features. Her results revealed that native speakers used higher instances of hedges than the writers in the other six languages except Koreans. Among the writers from six languages, the Arabic writers used the least instances of hedges.

Addressing hedging in English and Chinese, Y. Yang (2003) studied the distribution of hedges across two languages and the rhetorical sections of RAs. The results showed that in English RAs, the Introduction, Discussion, and Result sections contained more hedges than Method sections. Her findings are in line with Salager-Meyer's (1994) study which revealed that Method section was the least hedged section in RAs. Investigating the use of hedges by novice and expert writers, Koutsantoni (2006) analyzed RAs and thesis and found out that student researchers hedge more than RA authors. She concludes that it is due to the fact that the students are aware of power asymmetries between themselves and their audience (supervisor and examiners).

Based on the review of historical background of hedging and consideration of important studies and trends in hedging, it can be concluded that hedging has been identified as an important strategy in academic discourse especially RAs. Various studies have revealed useful information on their form and function in spoken and written language especially in academic writing. However, there seems little consensus on many issues related to the hedging. This study will use the notion of hedging discussed by Hyland.

## 2.11.2 Boosters

The second feature of stance in Hyland's taxonomy is boosters. Boosters (also known as emphatics, intensifiers, strengtheners and upgraders) are words such as *definitely*, *sure*,

*demonstrate* which signal writers' assurance in what they say (Hyland, 1999b, 2005c, 2008). Along the same line, J. Holmes (1982) refers to boosters as lexical items that a writer can use to express their certainty of a statement. In this sense, they are the opposite of downtoners, the term J. Holmes uses for hedges. In other words, while hedges can reveal the lack of commitment on the part of the writer to a proposition, boosters mark the writer's certainty and commitment to a particular assertion. Bondi (2008, p. 33) points out that boosters "foreground the writer's degree of endorsement of a statement and the degree of universality of the related belief" by highlighting the main points in the writer's argument.

By using boosters, the writers leave little room for the readers' own interpretation and "close down alternatives", "head off conflicting views" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 52) and "confront doubt on the part of a listener" (Donohue, 2006, p. 208). Establishing the writers' own "definition of the situation, strategically presenting information as consensually given" is a way that writers can negotiate the status of their claims (Hyland, 2000, p. 100). The use of boosters signals writers' awareness of a reader and alternative interpretations which play a part in construction of dialogue and conversation in the text (Donohue, 2006; Hyland, 2005a). By limiting possible alternative voices, the use of boosters emphasizes "solidarity with an audience, taking a joint position against other voices" and strengthens "an argument by emphasizing the mutual experiences needed to draw the same conclusions as the writer" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 53). In other words, boosters allow writers to present their work with confidence "while strategically engaging with colleagues" (Hyland, 2000, p. 97).

Hyland (2000, 2005a, 2008) argues that writers do not merely produce texts to present an external reality but they need to gain community acceptance. Therefore, they need to present their work in a way that their readers find it persuasive. Crismore and

Farnswarth (1990, p. 118) point out that "it is a very dangerous myth that sees professional scientific writing as the impersonal statement of facts that all add up to the truth". Hedges and boosters are strategies that balance objective information and subjective evaluation in a text and help to get approval of claims by the audience (Hyland, 2005a, p. 180). These two strategies are the most frequent metadiscourse markers used by expert writers in English (Hyland, 2005a). They are the main tools that enable writers to take a stance "to both their propositions and their audience" which in turn can influence considerably "a reader's assessment of both referential and affective aspects of text" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 133). Hedges and boosters are complementary features which help writers to balance between significance and originality of research and readers' expectations and convictions (Hyland, 2008).

While boosters are an important feature in academic discourse, relatively few studies have addressed them (Bondi, 2008; Silver, 2003). Mostly, the studies have focused either solely on hedges or they have devoted some amount of attention to boosters along with hedges or other metadiscourse features. A number of studies have looked at the use of these features from cross-cultural perspective and have compared native and non-native (both expert and L2 learners) writers' use of these features (Abdollahzadeh, 2003; Hinkel, 2002; Hyland & Milton, 1997; Vassileva, 2001). Another group of studies have compared the distribution of these features in various disciplines (Bondi, 2008; Hyland, 1998c, 1999b, 2000, 2005a, 2005c, 2008; Peacock, 2006).

Hyland and Milton (1997), using a corpus of one million, investigated how L1 and L2 students expressed doubt and certainty in their writing. They found significant differences between these two groups in that L2 students relied "on a more limited range of items", offered "stronger commitments", and exhibited "greater problems in

conveying a precise degree of certainty" (Hyland & Milton, 1997, p. 183). Their findings showed that while two-thirds of the modifiers were used by the native speakers to weaken their claims, non-native speakers used more than half of the devices to strengthen their claims. Abdollahzadeh (2003) investigated the use of metadiscourse in RAs written by Anglo-American and Iranian writers and found out that Iranian writers used more boosters than their Anglo-American counterparts.

Vassileva (2001) concentrated on the expressions of commitment (i.e. boosters) and detachment (i.e. hedges) in Bulgarian and English academic texts and found out that Bulgarians used more boosters and less hedges than native English writers while writing in English. She also investigated the distribution of these features in Introduction, Discussion, and Conclusion sections of RAs. Her findings revealed that English RAs favored hedges and boosters in the Discussion section (with more than 60% of occurrences in this section) but used more hedges than boosters. Meanwhile, Bulgarian writers used twice more boosters than hedges in this section.

In a cross-disciplinary examination of using boosters in RAs, Peacock (2006) compared the extent, form, and function of boosters in 216 RAs across six academic disciplines: Language and Linguistics, Business, Law, Public and Social Administration, Physics, and Environmental Science. He found out the highest proportion of boosters in Language and Linguistics and the lowest in Environmental Science. He argued that boosters played a significant role in persuading readers of the validity of writers' claims and concluded that "competence in research writing includes a developed knowledge of boosting" (p. 61).

Hyland has conducted several cross-disciplinary studies to investigate the use of stance features and metadiscourse in various disciplines. He (2008) analyzed 240 RAs from eight disciplines of Medical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Marketing,

Philosophy, Sociology, Applied Linguistics, Physics, and Microbiology. His findings demonstrated the dominance of hedges (14.5 cases per 1000 words, 46.6%) among the stance and engagement features. Hyland also found that the use of stance and engagement markers in RAs of "soft fields" were higher (75% more cases) than in "hard fields". Comparing the eight disciplines, applied linguistics, after marketing and philosophy, had the highest frequency of hedges and boosters (18 and 6.2 cases per 1000 words, respectively).

Hyland argues that this variation is due to the fact that writers in different disciplines need to "represent themselves, their work and their readers in different ways" (2008, p. 12). He points out that the greater use of stance markers in soft field RAs (for instance, their use of two and half time more hedges) than hard field is that the knowledge in this field is "more interpretative and less abstract" than hard field and to be persuasive writers "rely more on a dialogic engagement and more explicit recognition of alternative voices" (Hyland, 2008, p. 14). Hyland (ibid.) concludes that while arguments in the soft field need "to be expressed more cautiously" they also "have to restrict possible alternative voices by using boosters" as "methods and results are more open to question".

### 2.11.3 Attitude Markers

Attitude markers are the next element in Hyland's taxonomy of stance. They are words such as *surprisingly*, *remarkable*, *agree* which reveal the writers' attitude towards the propositional content and explicitly inform readers of writers' perspective of a particular idea and important information in the text. Attitude markers indicate the writers' "affective attitude" rather than "epistemic attitude" (certainty or doubt) towards a given matter (Hyland, 2008). As Crismore et al. (1993, p. 53) state, "attitude markers express

writers' affective values – their attitudes towards the propositional content and/or readers rather than commitment to the truth – value".

Attitude is mostly expressed through attitude verbs (agree, prefer), sentence adverbs (unfortunately, hopefully) and adjectives (appropriate, remarkable) (Hyland, 2005a, 2008). The attitude expressed can be positive or negative and can be of many different types: surprise, importance, obligation, frustration, agreement, and so on. They can be used to show writers' attitude towards, for instance, "the importance of something, … the interest of something, … its appropriateness, and … the personal emotional concomitants of linguistic material" (Ädel, 2006, p. 174). Writers, by intruding their attitude towards the proposition in the text, try to persuade readers and increase the acceptability of the text. Attitude markers help "writers both (to) express a position and pull readers into a conspiracy of agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute these judgments" (Hyland, 2005c, p. 180). In other words, by expressing their attitudes, the writers try to connect with their readers interpersonally "asking them to see their affectual responses as justified and valid in some way" (Koutsantoni, 2004, p. 169).

Koutsantoni (2004), by examining RAs in electronic and electrical engineering, identified several pragmatic functions of attitude markers in these texts. She found, for instance, that attitude markers were used to stress the importance of research area, justify the researchers work, emphasize the originality of the work, evaluate previous studies positively or negatively, and indicate limitations and gaps in knowledge. Koutsantoni (ibid, p. 179) adds that the use of interactional features in RAs reflects the fact that in academic discourse there is a "need for negotiation of knowledge before claims are accepted and consensus is reached". She (2004, p. 179) concludes that attitude markers are one of the important and powerful means for engineers "to create

research space for themselves, assert their learned authority and expertise, solicit readers' acceptance of claims, and reach consensus".

By analyzing a corpus of RAs from various disciplines, Hyland (1998c, 1999b, 2005a, 2005c, 2008) found that writers in hard field used less attitude markers in their RAs than those in the soft field. He suggests that in hard field "the authority of the individual ... is subordinated to the authority of the text" (Hyland, 1998c, p. 449). While the use of attitude markers, generally interpersonal features, foregrounds the writer as responsible for his/her actions and claims, demonstrable generalizations are more important than individual interpretations in hard science. On the other hand, the soft fields "are less able to rely on proven quantitative methods to establish their claims and this increases the need for more explicit evaluation" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 151). By using attitude markers, these writers signal "an assumption of shared attitudes, values, and reactions to material" and "both express a position and suck readers into a conspiracy of agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute such judgments" (ibid., pp. 150-151). Hyland (ibid., p. 151) concludes that writers in the soft fields, by using attitude markers, "create a convincing discourse and establish personal credibility, critical insight and disciplinary competence".

## 2.11.4 Self-Mention

Self-mention which refers to the use of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives by speakers/writers indicates the presence or absence of an explicit writer/speaker (Hyland, 1999b, 2005a, 2005c, 2008). In the last few decades, the belief that academic writing is impersonal and objective reporting of facts has been challenged. It has been argued that writing is an interaction and writers project themselves into text in order to present a persuasive writing. Ädel (2006, p. 88) points out that "[di]splaying one's persona, persuading, negotiating and interacting with the imagined reader are important

aspects of many written genres". One of the ways in which writers can indicate their personal involvement in a text is through self-mention. According to Hyland (2001, p. 223), first person pronouns "are not just stylistic optional extras but significant ingredients for promoting a competent scholarly identity and gaining accreditation for research claims".

A number of studies have analyzed the functions of self-mention in academic writing (Fløttum, Dahl, & Kinn, 2006; Harwood, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland, 2001, 2002; Kuo, 1999; Luzón, 2009; Martínez, 2005; Mur, 2007). These studies have revealed that self-mention serves a wide range of functions in academic discourse. Among these functions are: stating a goal or purpose, showing findings or results, justifying a proposition, showing commitment or contribution to research, seeking agreement or cooperation, giving a reason or indicating necessity, stating conclusions, guiding the reader through the text, recounting the research methodology, assuming shared experiences, knowledge, goals and beliefs, emphasizing or calling the reader's attention, expressing opinion or attitude, and elaborating an argument. Identifying the functions of self-mention in a text is important as it reveals in which points writers are willing to explicitly intrude into a text and show their commitment to it (Hyland, 2002).

In addition to these discourse functions that self-mention plays, some studies have proposed taxonomies for identities behind personal pronouns. Tang and John (1999, pp. S31-S32), by examining learner and expert writing, propose a typology of six different identities behind the first person pronoun in academic writing: **i)** representative role (e.g. *as we already know…*) mainly realized by *we* and *our* is when writers "merely position themselves alongside other creators of meaning rather than doing any actual creation at all" (Tang and John , 1999, p. S32), **ii)** guide through the essay (e.g. *Let us see two examples*) where the author "locates the reader and the writer together in the

time and place of the essay, draws the reader's attention to points which are plainly visible or obvious within the essay…, and arrives at a conclusion (destination) that he or she presumes is shared by the reader" (ibid, p. S27), **iii)** architect of the essay (e.g. *In this essay I will discuss …*) when authors "create structure for the text" (ibid., p. S31), **iv)** recounter of the research process (e.g. *I administered the questionnaire to two groups*) when the writer retells the steps taken in the research process, **v)** opinion-holder (e.g. *I agree with x*) where authors share their opinion, view, or attitude (such as agreement, disagreement or interest) with regard to a given proposition, and **vi)** originator (e.g. *Part of the problem here, as I see it, is …*) when authors "'claim authority' and exhibit some form of ownership of the content of their writing, showing that they perceive themselves as people who have the right and the ability to originate new ideas" (ibid., p. S29).

According to Tang and John (1999), these identities range from least powerful author presentation to most powerful, i.e. author has the least powerful role as *representative* which is mostly realized through inclusive pronouns which refer to author and reader together, and most powerful role as *originator* which is realized through exclusive pronoun and refer solely to author/s. According to Harwood (2005c, p. 344), inclusive pronouns which are "low-risk examples of intervention" help the author to build an interaction with readers by constructing a dialogue between him/herself and readers and acknowledging the presence of a readership in text. Harwood points out that the exclusive pronoun *I* can hedge a proposition suggesting that the claim is only the writer's interpretation and leaving room for readers to accept its justification. He also argues that using both the inclusive and exclusive pronouns can help writers to demonstrate the novelty of their research and show that their research fills the gap in disciplinary knowledge. Harwood (2005c, p. 365) continues that "[i]nclusive pronouns can help to describe and/or critique common disciplinary

practices" and "persuade the community that the writer's argument is the correct interpretation". He (ibid.) concludes that "the pronouns help create a positively polite tenor of solidarity".

Fløttum et al. (2006) established a taxonomy of author roles (researcher, writer, arguer, and evaluator). These roles were categorized based on the verbs that collocate with the first person pronouns. According to them, the author is *researcher* when *I* is combined with research verbs (e.g. assume, examine, consider, study, analyze) which directly refer to actions related to the research process. The author is *writer* when *I* is used with discourse verbs (describe, illustrate, present, focus on, return to) which refer to processes that involve verbal or graphical presentation or guiding the reader through the text. The author takes on the role of *arguer* when *I* is combined with position verbs (argue, dispute, claim) that denote processes of positioning and stance. The author is *evaluator* when *I* is combined with evaluation and emotion verbs (feel, be skeptical about). They argued that academic authors present themselves in different ways and to different extents and this different degree of author manifestation is a strategy that is used by the writer for rhetorical purposes.

A number of cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary studies have investigated the use of self-mention in expert and novice writers' writing. Martínez (2005) studied the use of personal pronouns in RAs of English and Spanish writers in the field of biology. Comparing the overall use of personal pronouns in the two corpuses, she found that native speakers of English used two times more personal pronouns than their non-native counterparts. Regarding the distribution of pronouns in different sections of RAs, Martínez found the ratio of personal pronouns higher in the Results and Discussion sections particularly in the native speakers' RAs. With regard to the functions of *we* in the Discussion section, Martínez's analysis showed that Stating results/claims was the

dominant function associated with *we* which was higher in the native speakers' RAs. Martínez (2005, p. 186) comments that results which are presented objectively in the Results section "appear personalized in the Discussion to claim responsibility for findings that may carry novelty to the scientific community". Mur's (2007) investigation of personal pronouns in business management RAs, written in English and Spanish, also showed a higher use of *we* in the Results and Discussion sections of both corpuses compared to other sections, with a higher ratio (9.41 cases per 1000 words) in English articles.

In a cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary study, Fløttum et al. (2006) investigated 450 RAs from three disciplines (economics, medicine, and linguistics) written in three languages (English, French, and Norwegian). Their analysis showed that authors in the medical RAs took on the role of *researchers* and were less visible in text and argued implicitly. The economist authors were both *researchers* and *writers* and were more present in text. Linguists, on the other hand, who were *researchers*, *authors*, and *arguers* were more explicit in text than the other two groups. In other words, their findings indicated that authors in linguistics had the strongest author presence and interaction with readers, while the authors of medicine RAs had the weakest author presence and had the least interaction with their readers.

The findings of Fløttum et al. might be comparable to Hyland's (1999b; 2002; 2005c, 2008) findings in investigating the use of self-mention in RAs written in English in different disciplines. Hyland found that expert authors in soft fields used authorial pronouns more frequently (with 75% of all the author pronouns) than their counterparts in hard fields. He argued that this might be due to the fact that authors in hard discipline rely more on statistical and objective results while trying to downplay the role of writer. However, as knowledge is more conceptual driven in the soft field and authors need to

persuade their readers of the validity of their own interpretation of a concept, the authors in the soft disciplines need to interact with their readers and present themselves as contributors to the field.

Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that self-mention is a strategy that allows writers to interact with their readers and persuade them of the validity of their claims and their disciplinary competence. Self-mention "is a powerful means by which writers express an identity by asserting their claim to speak as an authority, and this is a key element of successful academic writing" (Hyland, 2002, p. 1094).

To summarize the discussion on stance, academic discourse is an interactive practice where the writer's main aim is to persuade the readers and gain discourse community's acceptance. Several studies have revealed that persuasion is more than presenting information objectively and impersonally. Writers need to take a stance and present themselves in their writings. It was discussed that stance is a complex concept but it generally refers to linguistic mechanisms that reveal writers' feelings, evaluations, and opinions on a given matter. Hyland (1999b, 2005c, 2008) proposes a taxonomy for stance which includes four features of hedges, booster, attitude markers, and self-mention. Each of these features was discussed in detail. Based on the above discussion, it becomes clear that several studies have studied these features. However, no reported study has investigated writers' stance in qualitative and quantitative RAs. This study will focus on the use of these features in the qualitative and quantitative RAs in the field of applied linguistics.

## 2.12  SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter tried to review the related theory and practice pertinent to the main concepts related to this thesis, namely genre and stance. It was discussed that genre is a complex concept which has been defined and used in various fields. In the field of applied linguistics it has been categorized into three main schools: New Rhetoric approach, Systemic Functional approach, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Each of these schools was discussed in detail. The ESP school which is the focus of this study was discussed in more detail and a range of studies on Discussion section of RAs were reviewed. The review revealed that these studies have concentrated on experimental or empirical research studies and the differences or similarities between qualitative and quantitative RAs are still open to question. Several other topics which are related to genre theory such as relationships between genres, contrastive rhetoric, and corpus linguistics were also covered. The chapter included a section on stance which tried to give a comprehensive review on various descriptions and conceptualizations of the concept. This discussion was followed by elaborate discussions on each of these four features of stance namely, hedging, booster, attitude marker, and self-mention which are the focus of this study.

# CHAPTER 3
# DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is focused on the research methodology used in this study. First, the design of the study is introduced. It is followed by presenting the corpus of the study which describes the procedures of selecting the journals and RAs. Next, the pilot study is presented briefly. Then, the data analysis including the analysis of generic structure and stance features are explained. The chapter also includes a section on explaining how the findings from the analysis of the generic structure are validated. It is followed by a section which covers the interviews conducted with specialist informants. Finally, a summary of the chapter is presented.

## 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research is a mixed-method genre-based study and consists of two main parts. In the first part, the generic structure of 30 RAs' Discussion sections (15 qualitative and 15 quantitative) were analyzed manually employing Swales' (1990, 2004) move-step analysis. This part of the study was conducted qualitatively; nevertheless, frequencies of moves were also counted and percentages were presented in order to compare and contrast the two sub-corpora. In the second part of the study, Hyland's (1999, 2005, 2008) taxonomy of stance features – hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention– was used to investigate the stance features in the Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative RAs. This part of the study was conducted in two sections. In the first part, a corpus-based approach was employed to investigate the stance

features in two specialized machine-readable sub-corpora. The compiled corpus consisted of 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections which was analyzed using WordPilot 2002. The focus of this section, which was conducted mainly quantitatively, was on type, frequency, and form of each of these elements. In the second part of examining the stance features, these features were examined in various moves of 20 RAs (10 qualitative and 10 quantitative) to identify in which moves these stance features were clustered mainly and to find out their main functions based on the move that they appeared in. These two analyses, the generic structure and stance features, were supplemented with interviews with specialist informants in the field.

### 3.3 THE CORPUS OF THE STUDY

Overall three corpora were used in this study, which were selected from five high impact journals published 2002-2009 in the field of Applied Linguistics. The first corpus, consisting of 15 qualitative and 15 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections, was used to investigate the move-step structure. The second corpus, a finite-size machine-readable one, was used to investigate the stance features and comprised 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections. The third corpus included 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections. This corpus was used to examine the stance features in various moves of these RAs. In the following sections the process of selecting the journals and the articles are described.

### 3.3.1 The Procedure of Selecting the Journals

In order to select the journals, first, the list of the high impact journals in the field of Linguistics reported in Journal Citation Reports (Social Sciences Edition) 2008 was printed. The list included a total of 68 journals. As around 200 RAs were needed, it was necessary that the journals to be available through the University of Malaya's library. Thus, all of the journals were checked for their availability (either electronic version or

hard copy) in the university's library and a total of 32 journals were found to be available. The list was narrowed down by excluding journals which were devoted to issues in Linguistics rather than Applied Linguistics.

To elucidate the two terms, linguistics and applied linguistics, and what they mean in this study, they are defined briefly first. Linguistics can be defined as "the academic discipline concerned with the study of language in general" which "is bound to represent an abstract idealization of language rather than the way it is experienced in the real world" (Cook, 2003, p. 10). According to Baskaran (2005, p. 11), linguistics covers "sound", "form and function", and "meaning" systems which include phonetics, phonology, morphology and syntax, and lexis and semantics. On the other hand, Applied Linguistics can be defined "as a practice-driven discipline that addresses language-based problems in real-world contexts" (Grabe, 2005, p. 10). The umbrella term of Applied Linguistics covers areas such as Language Teaching and Learning, Discourse Analysis, Critical discourse Analysis, Genre Analysis, Pragmatics, Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Translation, Corpus Linguistics, Bilingualism and Multilingualism, Language Policy, and Language Assessment (Baskaran, 2005; Cook, 2003; Grabe, 2005; Rampton, 1997) which are concerned with "problems in the world in which language is implicated" (Cook, 2003, p. 21). Therefore, journals such as *Journal of Linguistics*, *Journal of Phonetics*, and *Lingua* were excluded from the list.

In the next stage, upon checking the editorial policy of the remaining journals, another set of journals such as *Linguistics and Philosophy* which are mostly concerned with "the philosophy of language, linguistic semantics, syntax and related disciplines" and *Language Sciences* which is devoted to "conceptual and theoretical issues in the various branches of general linguistics" were excluded as they were mostly dedicated to theoretical issues rather than empirical research. The next step was to ensure that the

selected journals included both qualitative and quantitative research articles. Thus, a few recent issues of remaining journals were checked out one by one to ensure this matter. At this stage, the journals that were concerned mostly with quantitative research such as *Modern Language Journal* and *Language Learning* were excluded.

From the remaining seven journals (out of 68 journals), the five selected journals were: *Applied Linguistics* which according to its editorial policy "publishes research into language with relevance to real world problems"; *English for Specific Purposes* (ESP) which is devoted to "topics relevant to the teaching and learning of discourse for specific communities: academic, occupational, or otherwise specialized"; *Journal of Pragmatics* which "provides a forum for pragmatic studies in sociolinguistics, general linguistics, conversation analysis, discourse analysis, cognitive linguistics, computational linguistics, applied linguistics and other areas of linguistic research"; *Language Teaching Research* which "supports and develops investigation and research within the area of second or foreign language teaching"; and *TESOL Quarterly* which "represents a variety of cross-disciplinary interests, both theoretical and practical". All of these journals were available in electronic format and were selected in consultation with the respected supervisor and was tried to include different sub-disciplines within Applied Linguistics. Figure 3.1 illustrates the procedure of selecting the journals.

| Checking the list of high impact journals in the field of Linguistics reported in Journal Citation Reports (Social Sciences Edition) 2008 |
| Excluding those unavailable in the University of Malaya's library |
| Excluding those related to Linguistics per se rather than Applied Linguistics |
| Excluding those dedicated to theoretical issues rather than empirical research |
| Excluding those devoted mostly to quantitative research |
| Selecting five journals and trying to include different sub-disciplines |

Figure 3.1: The Procedure of Selecting the Journals

### 3.3.2   The Procedure of Selecting the Articles

The selection of the articles was done in three stages. First, the articles published in the selected five journals from 2002-2009 were categorized based on being qualitative or quantitative. Identifying the type of articles, in the second stage, two sets of them were selected. The first set was selected for analyzing the generic structure and the second one for investigating the stance features. These procedures are described in the following two sections.

### 3.3.2.1 Identifying Quantitative and Qualitative RAs

After selecting the five high impact journals, every article in each issue of the journals published from 2002-2009 was checked in order to select the corpus. The focus was on studies that were based on first-hand results, and therefore conceptual and theoretical articles were excluded. The first criterion was to ensure that the articles had a separate Discussion section. The articles that did not match this criterion or those that had combined Discussion section with another section and titled as *Discussion and Conclusion*, *Findings and Discussion*, *Summary and Discussion*, and *Discussion and Implication* were excluded. Those articles that matched this criterion (having a separate discussion section) were checked for being qualitative or quantitative.

For categorizing the articles as qualitative or quantitative, the first priority was given to the writers' own explicit statement about the design they had used. If they had not mentioned explicitly the method, which mostly did not, the abstracts and the methodology sections were examined in detail. According to Perry (2005, p. 75), the characteristic of quantitative research is "the use of numbers to represent its data" and the characteristic of qualitative research is "verbal descriptions as its data". Those articles that were experimental or completely dealt with statistics were identified as quantitative and those articles that used qualitative methods and relied mainly on verbal

description were classified as qualitative. Problematic cases were discussed with another researcher in the field and decisions were made by consensus. In a few cases that an agreement was not achieved, a more cautious approach was adopted and those cases were excluded.

Benson, Chik, Gao, Huang, and Wang (2009) differentiate between the studies that *use a specific type of design* (qualitative and quantitative) and those that *represent a specific type of design* (qualitative and quantitative). It should be noted that the focus of this study was to identify the articles that *used* qualitative or quantitative research methods. It did not consider the *underlying philosophy and purpose* of the articles as the criterion for categorizing them as qualitative or quantitative. In other words, in cases that the writers had not explicitly classified their studies as qualitative or quantitative, categorizing the articles was done based on their methods of data collection and data analysis rather than attempting to identify their underlying philosophy and purpose.

Although some methodological approaches such as text analysis, ethnography, narrative accounts, case studies, discourse analysis, and classroom interaction analysis are often associated with qualitative research, it was observed that "these terms do not, in and of themselves, imply a qualitative approach to research, and using them to describe a study does not mean that study was carried out by qualitative means" (Benson et al., 2009, p. 84). In other words, "what is ostensibly quantitative research may involve qualitative analysis … and vice versa" (Duff, 2005, p. 477). There were instances, for example, where a study had used discourse analysis method but relied mainly on statistics and quantification of data. These cases were classified as quantitative research by examining in detail their data collection and analysis process. Therefore, in classifying the articles whose writers had not mentioned their designs explicitly, the categorization was based ultimately on a detailed examination of the

methodologies of the articles rather than relying merely on the methods they had employed.

Those articles that used both qualitative and quantitative design were classified as mixed method studies and were excluded from the corpus. However, in some instances the studies were conducted qualitatively but their writers had used numbers and frequencies in a few points to clarify the qualitative findings. Following Benson et al. (2009) these types of RAs were categorized as qualitative because the quantitative data did not have any influence on the findings of the study. Since categorizing the RAs as qualitative or quantitative was crucial for the study, all the identified RAs were double-checked to ensure they were in the right category. It should also be noted that no attempt was made to differentiate between English native and non-native writers. This was due to the fact that the articles were published in high impact journals, and it was assumed that the authors were scholars that were acquainted with the norms and conventions of writing research articles in Applied Linguistics.

**3.3.2.2 Selecting the Articles for Analyzing Generic Structure**

After classifying all the articles in the five journals as qualitative or quantitative, 15 qualitative and 15 quantitative RAs were selected for analyzing generic structure based on stratified random sampling. That is, three qualitative and three quantitative RAs were selected randomly from each journal. Each RA in this corpus is referred to by an abbreviation of Quali (for qualitative RAs), Quanti (for quantitative RAs) and the abbreviation of the journals. The abbreviations used for the journals are as follows: APP (Applied Linguistics), ESP (English for Specific Purposes), PRAG (Journal of Pragmatics), LTR (Language Teaching Research), and TESOL (TESOL Quarterly). So, for example, the third RA in the qualitative ESP sub-corpus is denoted by the

abbreviation Quali-ESP3. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show the particulars of these sub-corpora.

Full details of the content of the corpora can be found in the appendices A and B.

Table 3.1: Summary of the Qualitative Corpus Used in Move Analysis

| Journal | No. of Texts | Year | Average Length of Texts (in words) | Total Size of Texts (in words) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Applied Linguistics | 3 | 2007, 2008, 2009 | 1,125 | 3,375 |
| English for Specific Purposes | 3 | 2007 (2), 2009 | 970 | 2,909 |
| Language Teaching Research | 3 | 2005, 2008 (2) | 853 | 2,560 |
| Journal of Pragmatics | 3 | 2005, 2006, 2007 | 706 | 2,118 |
| TESOL Quarterly | 3 | 2003 (2), 2009 | 1,020 | 3,059 |
| Total Number of Texts in Corpus= 15 | | Total Size of Corpus (in words) = 14,423 | | |

Table 3.2: Summary of the Quantitative Corpus Used in Move Analysis

| Journal | No. of Texts | Year | Average Length of Texts (in words) | Total Size of Texts (in words) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Applied Linguistics | 3 | 2005, 2006, 2008 | 1,323 | 3,969 |
| English for Specific Purposes | 3 | 2006, 2007 (2) | 1,029 | 3,088 |
| Language Teaching Research | 3 | 2005, 2006, 2008 | 715 | 2,145 |
| Journal of Pragmatics | 3 | 2003, 2004, 2008 | 1,361 | 4,082 |
| TESOL Quarterly | 3 | 2005, 2007, 2009 | 1,063 | 3,190 |
| Total Number of Texts in Corpus= 15 | | Total Size of Corpus (in words) = 16,474 | | |

**3.3.2.3 Selecting the Articles for Investigating Stance Features**

As was mentioned earlier, two sets of RAs were used in investigating stance features.

The first set was selected randomly from the five journals until 100 qualitative and 100

quantitative RAs were selected. The sub-corpus ran to approximately 132,000 and

139,000 words (qualitative and quantitative respectively). The RAs used in analyzing

generic structure were also included in selection as well. Table 3.3 shows the particulars

of these sub-corpora.

Table 3.3 Summary of the Corpus Used in Examining Stance Features

| Journals | Qualitative | | Quantitative | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | # of texts | Size of texts (in words) | # of texts | Size of texts (in words) |
| Applied Linguistics | 13 | 16,188 | 14 | 21,750 |
| English for Specific Purposes | 19 | 22,148 | 7 | 7,435 |
| Language Teaching Research | 10 | 11,324 | 32 | 39,875 |
| Journal of Pragmatics | 33 | 54,509 | 17 | 30,732 |
| TESOL Quarterly | 25 | 28,102 | 30 | 39,585 |
| **Total** | **100** | **132,271** | **100** | **139,377** |

As was mentioned, in selecting 200 RAs, the 30 RAs which were used for analyzing the generic structures were also included. Thirteen qualitative and 11 quantitative RAs from the selected 200 RAs were those which were also used in analyzing the generic structure, i.e. 30 RAs. The second set of articles for analyzing the stance features, 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative, were selected from among the 13 qualitative and 11 quantitative RAs that were part of both the 30 RAs as well as 200 RAs. The selection of these 20 RAs were purposive. In other words, as these 20 RAs were used to examine the stance features in various moves and steps of them, it was tried to select the articles in a way that all of the identified moves could be found in the overall corpus. Figure 3.2 shows a summary of selecting the articles.
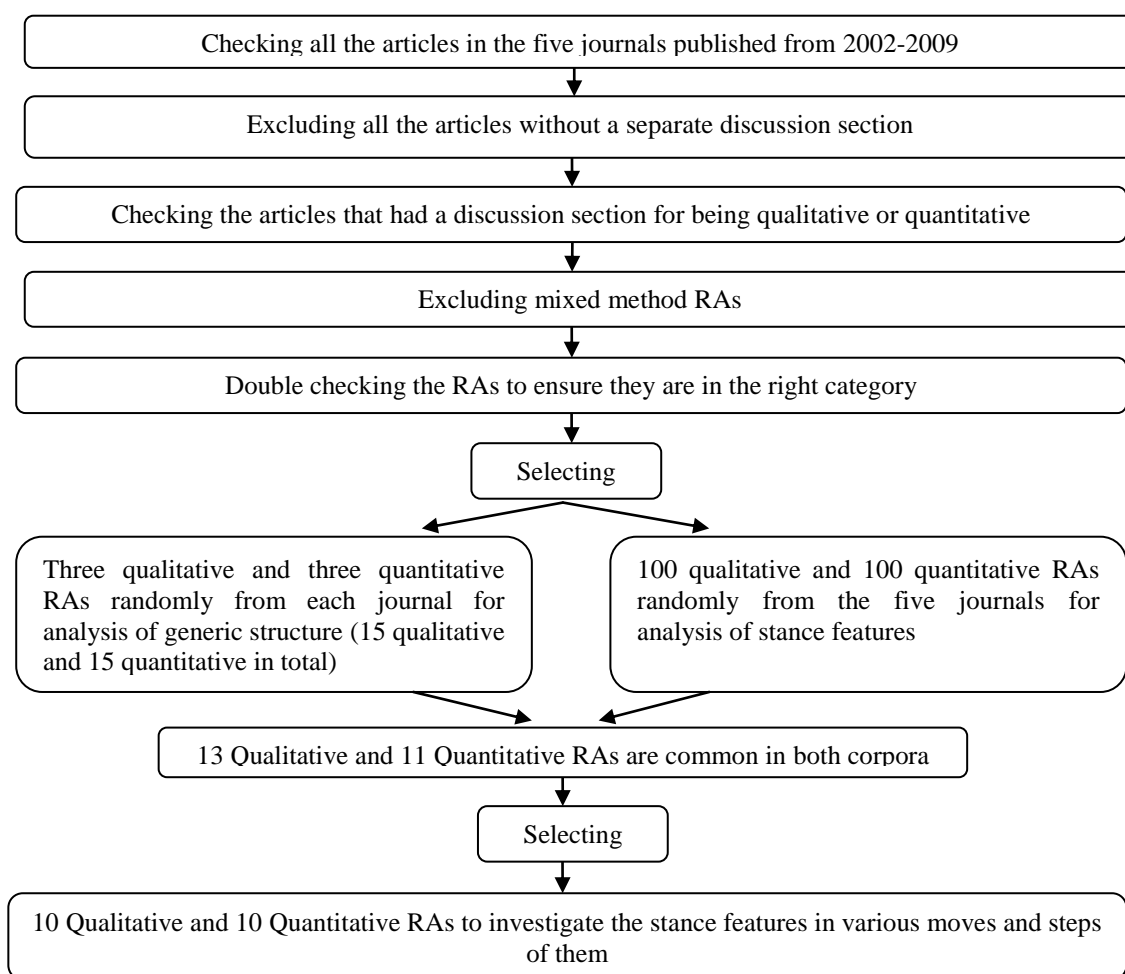


Figure 3.2: The Procedure of Selecting the Articles

**3.4     PILOT STUDY**

In order to ensure that the research was feasible and there were differences between the qualitative and quantitative RAs in terms of the generic structure and stance features, a pilot study was conducted. After selecting 15 qualitative and 15 quantitative RAs for the main analysis, five qualitative and five quantitative RAs were selected for the pilot study from among them. In this primary research, one qualitative and one quantitative RA were selected randomly from each of the five journals. They were analyzed manually in terms of the generic structure and stance features which revealed some differences in both cases. The list of articles used in the pilot study can be found in Appendices A and B.

**3.5     DATA ANALYSIS**

As was discussed in the previous section, three sets of corpora were selected for the study. The first corpus (30 RAs) was analyzed to identify the generic structure, the second corpus (200 RAs) was examined in terms of stance features, and the third corpus (20 RAs) was investigated in terms of the use of stance features in their various moves and steps. This section describes the process of these analyses.

**3.5.1   Identifying the Generic Structure**

One of the purposes of this study was to identify the generic structure of the Discussion sections of qualitative and quantitative RAs using ESP approach to genre, based on Swales' (1990) work. As was discussed previously in Chapter 2, a genre is organized based on a set of communicative purposes which are realized by communicative units. These communicative units are called Move in the ESP approach to genre analysis. A Move might be realized by one or more subsidiary elements called Step. Thus, Moves and Steps constitute the generic structure of a particular genre. The Discussion sections

of the sample articles in this study were examined in terms of type, sequence and frequency of Moves, and Steps in order to describe their generic structure. A detailed analysis of some of the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora is given in Appendices C and D respectively. It should be noted that no specific model for the Discussion section was followed in the analysis of the corpus of this study. In other words, the study analyzed the Discussion sections in terms of moves and steps, but did not follow any model presented in the literature rather generated its own model, based on the analysis.

### 3.5.1.1 Definitions of Move and Step

Brett (1994) defines a Move as a communicative category. According to Nwogu (1997, p. 122), Move is "a text segment made of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meanings, propositional meanings, illocutionary forces, etc.) which give the segment a uniform orientation and signals the content of discourse in it". In other words, Move is a communicative unit which carries the specific communicative purpose of a particular part of a text. Thus, classification of a particular section of a text as a Move depends on whether or not the segment carries a particular communicative purpose. A Move might be realized by one or more subsidiary elements called Steps. While a Move includes the general communicative purpose of a segment, a Step shows in detail the "rhetorical means of realizing the function of Move" (R. Yang & Allison, 2003, p. 370).

### 3.5.1.2 The Procedure of Analysis

First, the two sub-corpora (qualitative and quantitative) were analyzed separately. Before analyzing each article's Discussion section, the whole article was read to obtain a general idea about it. In most cases, particularly the qualitative RAs, it was necessary to read the whole article for several times in details in order to understand the discussion

section. The unit of analyzing the generic structure was Move and the unit of analysis of the Moves and Steps was clause. Thus, any unit below clause such as phrases and words were not considered as realizing Move or Step; otherwise, the number and type of identified Move and Step would have been numerous which would make the explanation of the generic structure of the selected texts implausible. If a sentence realized more than a Move or a Step, it was labeled based on the most dominant one. Thus, the embedded Moves or Steps were not considered in the analysis as it would make the analysis quite complicated.

Upon identifying the moves and steps in each article, the findings from each sub-corpus were summarized in a separate table in order to identify the generic structure of each sub-corpus. Then, the type of moves, steps, and sub-steps as well as their frequency and order were compared to come up with an understanding of their similarities and differences.

### 3.5.1.3 The Identification of Moves and Steps

According to Dudley-Evans (1994, pp. 226-227), identification of Moves can be made based on "linguistic evidence, comprehension of the text, and understanding of the expectations that both the general academic community and the particular discourse community have of the text" and in cases that lexical clues are not obvious enough, analysts need to make use of their own understanding of text itself. Nwogu (1997) makes the same suggestion and states that the identification of communicative units can be made on the basis of inferencing from context as well as the linguistic clues.

In this study, both of these techniques (linguistic evidence and understanding the content of the text) were used in identifying the Moves and Steps. The priority was given to explicit linguistic clues. The linguistic clues included a single word, a phrase, a

clause, or even sometimes a whole sentence. For instance, the linguistic clues such as "the findings revealed that…", "the findings of this study showed that…", and "the analysis showed that…" were an explicit indication of Stating Findings. Or, expressions such as "x can be explained by…", "x is due to…", "x can be attributed to y…", and "one possible explanation is that…" were an explicit indicator of Explaining Findings. In another example, a clause such as "As with all forms of research, limitations are inherent in this present study" explicitly signaled Stating Limitations of the Study.

In several cases the linguistic clues were less obvious and the identification of communicative units was made based on understanding the meaning of the segment. In addition to the linguistic clues and inferencing from text, the neighboring sections such as abstracts, findings and conclusions were also helpful in identifying the communicative moves. For example, in abstracts the writers usually mentioned their main findings and sometimes made a deduction of their studies; the findings/results sections were helpful in identifying the move of Stating Findings; the concluding sections usually included reviewing the main findings and making deductions of the study.

On the whole, the identification of Moves and Steps in the corpus was full of re-reading and re-analyzing. In other words, re-readings of the whole part of the RAs and re-analysis of the Discussion sections were carried out until it was made sure that the identification of the Moves and Steps were done precisely and satisfactorily. After the move structures were established, the data were perused to determine the specific steps for each move and the sub-steps for each step.

### 3.5.1.4 The Labeling of Moves, Steps and Sub-steps

Labeling the Moves and Steps was carried out based on their communicative purpose. The study considered all the labeling used in previous studies but it did not limit itself to

any specific labeling. Besides, as no previous study had investigated the quantitative and qualitative RAs in particular, so there was not an exact similar study to follow for labeling. Therefore, in cases that the identified moves and steps were the same as the other studies, it was tried to use the same labels. In cases of new moves and steps, new labels were used by considering their communicative purpose.

### 3.5.1.5 The Validation of Data Analysis Findings

In order to ensure the reliability of the analysis, two months after the initial analysis was completed, the data were analyzed once more and no notable difference was observed. After the findings were finalized, 20 percent of each sub-corpus (three qualitative and three quantitative RAs) were analyzed by a Professor who was a specialist in genre analysis. The percent agreement was calculated using the formula:

$$\frac{A}{(A + D)} \text{ x } 100$$

A = the number of agreements

D = the number of disagreements

The Cohen kappa inter-rater agreement showed a kappa value of 0.81 and 0.84 for the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively. Furthermore, presenting findings in Chapters 4 and 5, it has been tried to include sufficient extracts from data for each move and step so that the readers can evaluate and validate the findings.

It should be noted that the main disagreement between the researcher and the other rater was related to a specific labeling, Making Claims. If in a segment of a text a writer had made a claim, the researcher did not label it as 'Claim' or 'Making Claim', but it was labeled based on the communicative purpose of making that claim. Writers make claims, among others, when they present their findings, comment on their

findings, or make deductions from their studies. Therefore, if the claim was an interpretation of the findings, it was labeled as Interpreting Findings, and if it was a deduction made on the study, it was labeled as Making Deductions. In a few cases, the professor who analyzed the corpus had labeled commenting on findings or making deductions as Making Claims. While, when a finding is interpreted or a deduction is made the writer is actually making new knowledge claims, it seems that writers have different communicative purposes in these segments. Thus, after discussion with the respected supervisor, it was decided not to consider Making Claims as a separate move, as claims can be present in various moves for different communicative purposes.

### 3.5.2   Investigating Stance Features

Investigating stance features was conducted in two parts. In the first part, the stance features were investigated in the Discussion section of 200 RAs' using WordPilot 2002. In the second part, the stance features were examined in each move and step of the Discussion section of 20 RAs.

In the first part, 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs were analyzed separately using WordPilot 2002, a text analysis and concordance program. First, the Discussion section of the selected articles, which were in electronic format, were converted to Text format and carefully checked. Then, all the headers, footnotes, and direct quotations were deleted. A few articles that were in *read only* format and could not been copied or converted to Text were typed in Microsoft word and then converted to Text format.

After compiling the corpora, a list of 424 potentially productive lexical items was compiled to examine *hedges*, *boosters*, *attitude markers*, and *self-mention* in the two sub-corpora. These 424 items included 202 hedges, 117 boosters, 98 attitude

markers, and 7 self-mention items. The most frequent items and their frequencies in the corpora are given in Appendices E-H. These items were selected based on previous lists and studies in literature, especially Biber (2006), Biber et al. (1999), Hyland (1998b, 2000, 2005a), Precht (2000), and Varttala (2001).

Upon compiling the sub-corpora and the lexical items, each item was searched in each of the sub-corpora (qualitative and quantitative) separately for its frequency. The output included frequency lists, concordance lines, summary, and collocations. A sample of results of analyzing the stance features in WordPilot 2002 can be found in Appendix I. After each item was searched, a careful analysis of the co-text and context of the cases was carried out for several times to ensure that they were representative of the target function. To this end, first, the concordance lines were examined; but in cases that they were not clear enough, the wider texts were checked for clarity. During this stage, several cases were excluded from the initial results. The number of remaining occurrences were written down for each item and aggregated to have the total number of each category of the stance features in each sub-corpus. The frequency counts were normalized at 1,000 words and compared in sub-corpora.

The following extracts are a few examples of instances of results that were deemed irrelevant for the purpose of this study and were excluded:

1) To sustain economic development in the advantaged regions and to address varying demands on education resulting from the widening regional discrepancies in socioeconomic development, the Chinese government has staged a series of educational reforms that promulgate decentralization of educational administration and partial diversification of curricula (Chinese Communist Party Central Committee, 1985; Lewin, Little, Xu, & Zheng, 1994; Tsang, 2000).
   **('Little' is used as a proper name rather than an indication of hedging.)**

2) In the case of the former, the learner typically wonders, 'How can I write (say) this?' while in the latter case, the learner may say, 'I should have written (said) it this way.'
   **(The pronoun 'I' is not used by the writer to refer to him/herself but rather is part of an example.)**

3) More specifically, such tasks may force heritage speakers to (Type I or Type II) had an effect on the task-based interactions. Future studies should target more specifically how different types of heritage speakers shape NNS/HS negotiations.

**('I' refers to number one rather than first person pronoun which might be an indication of self-mention.)**

4) The rest of the texts (3 US and 8 Canadian) all state the opinion or main idea, either explicitly or implicitly, in the body or the concluding paragraph(s). It is interesting to note that all previously published literary model texts in the US textbooks follow this pattern with a delayed introduction of opinion.

**('US' refers to a country rather than being an indication of self-mention.)**

5) Before May 2002, it appeared mainly to accompany and illustrate phrases such as amagama amathathu 'the three letters' a common euphemism for HIV.

**('May' refers to the name of a month rather than indicating a hedging item.)**

6) Instructing learners to learn target words and informing them that a test will follow (intentional learning) positively affected L2 word form learning during reading as compared with instructing learners to read for meaning only (incidental learning).

**('Incidental' learning refers to a technical word rather than indicating an attitude marker.)**

7) Both sounds appear only in students' speech and not their writing because there is no alphabetical symbol in SMG to capture the sound.

**('Appear' means 'emerge' rather than 'seem' which would indicate hedging.)**

8) The programme was also conceptualized as high scaffolding in that, when the students engaged with the texts, they were reminded to try out strategy combinations and they received feedback about their strategy use.

**('About' means 'concerning' rather than 'approximately' which would indicate hedging.)**

9) /-n/ is an especially difficult case because it is also used in SMG on certain occasions.

**('Certain' means 'specific' rather than 'definite' which would be an indication of booster.)**

10) As a former college English language instructor in Taiwan, the researcher observed that the EFL students did memorize language input, such as vocabulary and grammar rules; however, many students used rote memorizing rather than other more useful memory strategies, such as using new English words in a sentence.

**('Rather' along with 'than' is used as a phrase which means choosing the first thing instead of another and is not an indication of hedging.)**

In the second part of analyzing the stance features, first, all the occurrences of a specific move in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora were transferred to a separate file. Then, the 424 stance features which were used in previous part were searched in each move of the 20 RAs using the 'Find' function of Microsoft Word. After identifying the cases, all of them were examined and double checked carefully to

ensure they all represented the intended stance features. In the next stage, the overall frequency of stance features in each move was counted manually and was normalized at 1,000 words. Then, the frequency of each of the four stance features, i.e. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention in each move were transferred to a separate table for the qualitative and quantitative RAs, which revealed in which moves each of the stance features were clustered.

Also, in both 200 RAs and 20 RAs the identified hedges, boosters, and attitude markers used in the sub-corpora were categorized into six groups of modals, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and others. The occurrences of self-mention were categorized into first person singular pronouns and first person plural pronouns to identify the forms of stance features in the corpus. Instances of the stance features were also skimmed through the various moves to find how they were used in the corpus, although no attempt was made to study each and every instance of the stance features in terms of their function.

## 3.6    INTERVIEWS

After the data were analyzed, interviews were carried out with four specialist informants to supplement the text analyses. The aim of conducting these interviews was to obtain the insiders' views on the conventions and norms of the field and try to explain the findings based on these conventions. The interviews were semi-structured and questions were developed based on the findings from the analyses. These informants were well-known researchers and scholars in the field of Applied Linguistics who had published in and reviewed several international journals including high impact journals. They were PhD holders in Applied Linguistics; two were professors and two senior lecturers. All the interviews were conducted in person and took around 45 minutes. They were audio-

taped and analyzed later. Follow up questions were sent to them through email. Some of the interview prompts can be found in Appendix J.

## 3.7    SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided an outline of the research methodology used in the study. Having explained the research design, it was pointed out that this research is a genre study which employs both qualitative and quantitative methods. In a discussion on the procedure of selecting the corpus, the collection and selection of the data were described. It was mentioned that three sets of data were selected for the study. The first set consisting of 30 RAs was used in analyzing the generic structure, the second set comprising 200 RAs was used in investigating the stance features, and the third set including 20 RAs were used in examining the stance features in various moves and steps of these articles. The process of the pilot study was also discussed briefly. In the data analysis section, it was pointed out that the first set of data (30 RAs) was analyzed manually, the second set of data (200 RAs) was investigated by WordPilot 2002, and the third set of data (20 RAs) was analyzed manually and also by using Find function of Microsoft Word. The process of these analyses was explained in detail. There was also a section on interviews describing the process of developing the questions and conducting the interviews. The next chapter, Chapter 4, presents the findings from analyzing the generic structure of qualitative RAs' Discussion sections.

# CHAPTER 4

# THE GENERIC STRUCTURE OF DISCUSSION SECTION OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the generic structure of the Discussion sections identified in 15 qualitative RAs. Its focus is on presenting, describing, and illustrating the moves and steps which were found. Discussion of the findings is presented in Chapter 6 where the findings from the qualitative and quantitative research articles' Discussion sections analysis are compared and synthesized. In this chapter, also, the appearance of moves and steps in the sub-corpus as well as the overall frequency of them in the whole sub-corpus is described. There is also a discussion on the cyclicity of the moves in the sub-corpus. The final section is a summary of the chapter.

## 4.2 THE GENERIC STRUCTURE OF DISCUSSION SECTION OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

In terms of moves, the analysis revealed 11 moves in the sub-corpus, some of which included one to three steps. In a few cases, sub-steps were also identified. Table 4.1 illustrates the generic structure of Discussion sections of the qualitative research articles. In the following eleven sections the identified moves, steps, and sub-steps are described and excerpts from the data are presented for each of them.

Table 4.1: The Generic Structure of Discussion Section of Qualitative Research Articles

| Moves | Steps |
|---|---|
| 1- Providing Background Information | - |
| 2- Stating Findings | 1- Reporting Findings |
| 3- Providing Evidence for Findings | 1- Referring to Data |
| 4- Commenting on Findings | 1- Explaining<br>    1A- Providing an Explanation<br>    1B- Providing Alternative Explanations<br>2- Interpreting<br>    2A- Providing an Interpretation<br>    2B- Providing an Interpretation by Referring to Literature<br>3- Evaluating<br>    3A- Providing an Evaluation<br>    3B- Providing an Evaluation by Referring to Literature |
| 5- Supporting Comments on Findings | 1- Referring to Data<br>2- Referring to Literature |
| 6- Comparing Findings with Literature | 1- Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature<br>2- Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature |
| 7- Making Recommendations | 1- Making Suggestions for Practice<br>2- Recommending Further Research |
| 8- Making Deductions | - |
| 9- Supporting Deductions/Suggestions | 1- Referring to Data<br>2- Referring to Literature |
| 10- Evaluating the Study | 1- Stating Significance of the Study<br>2- Stating Limitations of the Study |
| 11- Summarizing the Study | - |

Before describing the identified generic structure, a few points need to be discussed about both qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora's generic structures. The first point is about the order of the moves. All the moves did not necessarily occur in the same order as are presented in the generic structures. However, these orders were the most common orders which were identified. For example, Move10-Step2 (Stating Limitations) was not always found towards the end of the section and sometimes appeared before it. It was placed as one of the final moves in the generic structures because it mostly appeared in that position. Nonetheless, a move such as Summarizing Findings was always the final move in the section or Stating Findings always appeared towards the beginning of the section or a cycle. Also, in organizing the moves, the cycle of moves were considered as well. That is, Moves 2-6 and sometimes Move7-Step1

appeared mostly in cycles but the other moves such as Moves 7-11 were not normally part of cycles. Thus, the moves that appeared in a cycle were kept together in the generic structure and were followed by other moves that did not usually appear in cycle.

Also, although Providing Background Information is placed as Move1 in both of the generic structures, the Discussion sections did not necessarily begin with this move. To be specific, in the qualitative sub-corpus only one of the Discussion sections started with this move; 13 Discussion sections started with Move2 (Stating Findings); in the quantitative sub-corpus, while eight Discussion sections started with this move, the other seven sections started with Move2 (Stating Findings). As Swales (1990, p.172) states, this move is a "free-standing" move and can appear in any part of the section. Despite this, it was placed as Move 1 because it mostly appeared in the beginning of the Discussion sections especially in the quantitative sub-corpus.

The other point is related to the labeling of the moves and steps. As was already stated in Chapter 3, the labeling of moves and steps was based on the communicative purpose they conveyed. In cases that the identified moves and steps were similar to those identified in literature, it was tried to use the same labels. In the case of new moves and steps, the labeling was based on their communicative purpose. However, the generic structures identified in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora of this study differ in some ways from the moves identified by Dudley-Evans (1994), R. Yang (2001), and Swales (1990). Unlike Swales' and Dudley-Evans', *Reference to Literature* was not identified as one move. It was found that references to previous research were used by writers for various communicative purposes. For instance, they were used to compare findings with literature, to support the comments on findings, and to support the deductions/suggestions. Therefore, instead of labeling any reference to literature as Reference to Previous Research, it was tried to identify the communicative purpose of

referring to literature and to find out whether it was used to compare findings or provide support for findings or comments.

Furthermore, R. Yang (2001) included Comparing of Results with Literature as a step under Commenting on Findings. However, these two seem to carry two different communicative purposes. While in Commenting on Findings authors present their own comments on findings and try to make new knowledge claims, in Comparing Findings with Literature they compare and/or contrast findings with those in literature in order to connect their own study to current research in the field. Therefore, in this study Comparing Findings with Literature is considered as a separate move rather than a step of Commenting on Findings. Also, in R. Yang's structure, Reporting Results includes two steps of Stating Results and Summarizing Results. However, in the qualitative sub-corpus of this study, it was difficult to identify Summarizing Results because there was no obvious linguistic feature to signal it. Therefore, all the reporting of findings was identified as Stating Findings in this sub-corpus.

Another difference of the generic structures identified in this study with R. Yang's (2001) is in her Deduction from the Study move. She identified three steps under this move including: Making Suggestion, Recommending Further Research, and Drawing Pedagogic Implications. The last step (Drawing Pedagogic Implications) was not identified in this study. Moreover, Making Suggestions for Practice and Recommending Further Research were classified as two steps under Making Recommendations. It might seem that there are overlaps between Making Suggestions for Practice and Making Deductions, as suggestions are based on the findings of the study. However, the communicative purpose of Making Suggestions for Practice seems more to make a recommendation rather than to deduce from study. Moreover, Making Deductions was found as a separate move where the writers tried to make logical

conclusions based on the arguments they had presented previously in the Discussion section. Therefore, it was decided to include Making Suggestions for Practice as a step under Making Recommendation rather than Making Deductions. The excerpts in the related sections illustrate the issue in more detail.

The other difference of the generic structures identified in this study with those found in previous studies is that unlike other studies, the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora in this study revealed a few sub-steps. These sub-steps were identified under three steps of Explaining, Interpreting, and Evaluating Findings which were employed to realize the move of Commenting on Findings. Although some of these sub-steps were not frequent in the sub-corpus, they were present and were clear enough to be categorized as a separate sub-step.

One point is also needed to be made about the excerpts provided for each move and step. The segments of texts that have helped to identify the moves and steps are underlined in the excerpts. However, in some cases, especially in the qualitative sub-corpus, the identification was based on semantic content and relationship between sentences and neighboring sections.

### 4.2.1   Move 1: Providing Background Information

This move is utilized to present background information about the aim of the research, the methodology used and the theoretical or technical information which help for understanding the discussion (Dudley-Evans, 1994; Swales, 1990). It appeared in different parts of the Discussion section and the analysis showed that this was not a frequent move in the corpus as it was found only in four RAs. Also, in one case, the authors provided preview information on what would be followed in the section. Excerpt 1 illustrates a case that the writers state the aim of their study. Excerpt 2 is one

of the cases where the writers provided some technical information on NOM sessions to help the readers to follow the discussion and Excerpt 3 is the only case in the sub-corpus that the writers provided some preview information on what would be discussed in the following sections.

1) <u>This study aims at</u> illustrating topic development and topic transition in interactive discourse in group oral assessment situations. (Quali-APP1)

2) <u>By higher quality NOM sessions, we mean</u> sessions in which the teacher, as primary audience member, and the storyteller actively engaged in a conversation that elicited information related to the topic of the story in such a way that the storyteller could profit from the interaction. In contrast, lower quality NOM sessions were those in which the conversation between storyteller and audience did not lead to a useful exchange of information from the teller's point of view. (Quali-TESOL3)

3) <u>In what follows we will</u> interpret our students' (novice scientists') practices and beliefs by first acknowledging the novice's perspective, which then leads to a discussion of the formualicity of scientific writing and originality in science. (Quali-APP2)

## 4.2.2   Move 2: Stating Findings

The move was used to restate the findings of the study. In most cases, it was either the opening move of the section and/or a cycle and was the only move that occurred in all the 15 RAs in the sub-corpus. While in some cases the move was signaled explicitly by linguistic features such as *our findings have shown that*, *our analysis reveals that*, *the analysis illustrates that* (excerpts 1-2), in some other cases there was no obvious signal available (excerpts 3-4). In these cases the move was identified by inferencing from the texts and referring to the neighboring sections (Findings, Abstracts, and Conclusion). Also, while in most cases the findings were stated without hedging devices, in a few other cases (such as excerpt 5) the writers used the hedging devices such as *seemed* and *appeared* in reporting their findings.

1) <u>The findings reveal</u> some important differences in the nature of the oral interaction experienced by Soon Yi and Ivan in the classroom and real-world contexts. (Quali-LTR1)

2) <u>The findings have indicated that</u> there are two main contending categories of education officers who have a stake in what is taught and assessed in BGCSE ESL classes ... <u>The findings also</u>

revealed that while ERTD officers are concerned about the possible consequences of implementing the BGCSE English syllabus provision to assess speaking, the CD & E officers and SEOs are concerned about what they consider to be the negative impact of the non-assessment of speaking in the BGCSE English examination on teaching. ERTD officers fear that the inclusion of the assessment of speaking in the BGCSE English examination may threaten the reliability of the exam the main purpose of which they see to be the selection of the candidates for further education, training or employment. (Quali-LTR3)

3) A further rhetorical strategy that students used to contextualize design ideas involved particular types of images. (Quali-ESP1)

4) Many of the distance learners in this sample found the time and created the opportunities to engage in functional practice beyond their course work. During this activity, their main focus was on meaning, with some Incidental Focus on Form. They also highlighted the role of meaning in learning vocabulary and grammar. They used functional practice to consolidate and enhance their productive and receptive skills, but at the same time used it for monitoring and self-assessment, encouragement and renewal of motivation. (Quali-LTR2)

5) In our data, a narrative rhetorical style seemed to be one of the more important components of a successful design presentation. (Quali-ESP1)

### 4.2.3 Move 3: Providing Evidence for Findings

After presenting their findings, in some cases, the writers referred to their data to provide instances that supported, illustrated, or provided evidence for their findings. Occurring in two thirds of the corpus (10 RAs), this move appeared immediately after Move 2 (Stating Findings). Reference to data was sometimes signaled by expressions such as *for example* (excerpts 3-4); and sometimes it was identified by frequent reference to subjects or contexts and usually by using past tense (excerpts 1-2). In each excerpt below, the first sentence presents the findings and the following sentences provide evidence from data to support them. Also, in a few cases the reference to data was not a separate move and was embedded in Move 2 (Stating Findings). As example 5 illustrates, the writers refer to excerpts presented in analysis section while stating their findings.

1) Our analysis of NOM sessions also showed clearly that the teacher, although not the sole factor in improving stories, was a critical player **[Stating Findings]**. As described above, the teachers in this study used several interactional moves during the NOM sessions that seemed to be effective in improving the stories told. First, they had an ear for the storyteller to provide it. At the same time, they were sensitive to interpretations and presuppositions on the part of the

tellers that came from their cultural knowledge and that might have confused the audience. Third, they directed the audience by encouraging members to ask questions, checking what the audience members had understood of the story, and making sure that the conversation did not stay too far from the point of the story. Finally, they supplied words, phrases, and idiomatic expressions when storytellers needed them and helped with pronunciation difficulties that interfered with the storyteller's meaning. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) The present study has revealed a difference between the JNSG and the LJG in the interpretation of the key meaning feature 'shinmi/sympathetic'. In the conversation clip, after the younger male has said ''rirekisho o motte'' (carrying (my) curriculum vitae), the older one says ''uun'' emphatically, with a distinct head nod, while looking at the younger male. (Quali-PRAG2)

3) The findings of this study demonstrate how the many complex beliefs held by teachers can sometimes be in conflict with each other and how these beliefs exert different degrees of power and influence on the teachers' final classroom practices **[Stating Findings]**. For example, the conflict that Jake exhibited concerning teaching Standard English, and both his own use and his students' use of Singlish in class highlights a complexity that many educators experience when teaching students who speak a non-standardized variety (and who speak that variety themselves as well), and has implications for language policy makers not only in Singapore but also in other postcolonial settings. (Quali-APP3)

4) I noticed that many other learners in this course were also able to transfer many of the generic features they had previously analyzed into their writing, and they found the process of doing so helped their learning of academic writing **[Stating Findings]**. For example, the move pattern in the writing of a student in Business Studies was almost the exact replica of the move pattern in one of the articles she analyzed. She felt that she had learned a lot through imitating closely the rhetorical organization of the article she analyzed. Otherwise, she felt that, as an MA student who did not know much about writing RAs, she would not have known how to begin the task (see also the case of Paul in Tardy, 2005). (Quali-ESP2)

5) The data above reveal the various types of the masu form and how the children appropriately use them. The 3-year-olds distinguish between the public and private self in given contexts (excerpts 2 and 3) including 'on/off-stage' frames, by smoothly alternating between the masu form and plain form (excerpt 3 and 6). (Quali-PRAG3)

### 4.2.4   Move 4: Commenting on Findings

In this move, the writers went beyond the "objective" presentation of findings and offered their own understanding of them. The analysis of the data showed that it was the second most common move in the corpus with an occurrence in 12 RAs. It appeared either after Move 2 (Stating Findings) or Move 3 (Providing Evidence for Findings by Referring to Data). The analysis showed that the writers used three strategies to realize this move: Explaining, Interpreting, and Evaluating. While in some cases the writers used one of these steps to comment on a specific finding, in other cases they used two or

three of these strategies to express their comments on them. The analysis revealed that Interpreting was the most frequent and Evaluating the least frequent step in the qualitative sub-corpus.

### 4.2.4.1 Step1: Explaining

By employing this step, the writers tried to explain why the findings were obtained. It was realized by two sub-steps of Providing an Explanation and/or Providing Alternative Explanations where the writers attempted to provide a reason or alternative reasons for a finding. As can be noticed from the examples presented below, rather than being completely sure, the writers were mostly tentative about the explanations they provided. Excerpts 1-2 illustrate how the writers provided a reason for their findings and excerpts 3-4 are instances of providing alternative reasons for findings. In one case (excerpt 3), the writers provided several alternative reasons to explain the findings and after stating the explanations, they summarized the explanations in the last sentence by stating that there seem to be various explanations for the findings.

1) This uncertainty among outer-circle speakers may be the result of their experience with multiple and conflicting norms for English. (Quali-TESOL1)

2) This result may be explained by the differences between Japanese speakers and English speakers as to strategies to express sympathy. (Quali-PRAG2)

3) How do we explain this difference between idealistic desire and critical evaluation of speech and silence? ... First, the difference between the two sample groups may appear to be a product of differing English proficiency level… Another factor impacting on the different evaluations of speech and silence may be the educational goals of each cohort … Different perceptions of speech and silence may also result from increased opportunities to analyze and reflect on the academic performances of themselves and others… It may also be claimed that the difference between the groups derives from the different backgrounds of the interviewers…There thus appears to be a number of possible explanations for the different perceptions of classroom talk and silence between the two groups.(Quali-TESOL2)

4) One contributing factor to reduced overt attention to language in the real world may be the limited success NNSs have at getting NSs to help them with language features they are struggling with that do not impede communication, as we saw with Ivan's attempts to solicit language assistance… Nor does familiarity with the workshop content seem to be a reasonable explanation for the reduced attention to language in the real world context. While Soon Yi and Ivan were able to plan their workshops ahead of time (which may have reduced this aspect of the linguistic challenge in the task), there were a number of unplanned events during each

workshop and tutoring session which increased the pragmatic and language demands of the workshops (interruptions from outside visitors, arguments between the high school students, and questions/difficulties related to workshops and homework)…

A more plausible explanation for the limited overt attention to language in the tutoring context is that Soon Yi and Ivan realized that despite the non-native aspects of their language, they could be understood well enough to achieve their objectives in the workshops and help the high school students … (Quali-LTR1)

In excerpt 4 above, the writers tried to explain the findings by providing alternative explanations. Each of these explanations is presented in the first sentences of the two paragraphs. In the second sentence of the first paragraph, the writers refute the possibility that familiarity with the workshop content was the reason that the subjects were less concerned with form in real context situation. They provide evidence for the rejected reason by referring to their data in the following sentences. This was the only case in the whole corpus that the writers refuted a possible reason for a finding.

### 4.2.4.2 Step2: Interpreting

While Explaining was utilized to provide some explanations on why the findings were obtained in such a way, Interpreting was used to provide a speculation about what the findings meant. The writers used their own perspectives and understandings to make sense of the findings. This step which was identified in the 12 RAs of the corpus was more prevalent than the other two steps. Similar to Explaining, the writers' interpretations were in the form of tentative statements. This step included two sub-steps: Providing an Interpretation, where the writers offered their own interpretation of findings (excerpts 1-2); and Providing an Interpretation by Referring to Literature, where the writers referred to literature to provide an interpretation (excerpt 3-4).

1) In our data, it can be seen that formulation of the task demand was well integrated into the discussion. Such formulation or reformulation can be considered signs of participants constantly monitoring the content of talk for appropriacy and relevance to the assessment task agenda. (Quali-APP1)

2) <u>It appears that</u> Fengchen saw the essence of genres as repeated social actions, as evidenced in his recognition of the item-by- item and the review-evaluation patterns as recurring generic features that other researchers use to organize their literature reviews, and thus patterns that he could use to organize his own literature reviews. (Quali-ESP2)

3) The use of specific grammatical constructions to counter the static quality of visual representations in academic presentations <u>has been noted by several researchers</u>. <u>Ochs, Gonzales and Jacoby (1994, pp. 162–163)</u> report how the use of dynamic grammar and gesturing in the presentations of physicists served as devices to help an audience accept the credibility of a scientific experiment through a sort of ''virtual witnessing" of the procedure. In the field of architecture, <u>Medway (1996)</u> reports that architects in professional practice discuss features of their designs using a dynamic grammar (e.g. ''pressing against one another" ''pulling back from a square"), and concludes that such language that ''graphically expresses the dramas and dynamics occurring between shapes and masses" is typical of architectural discourse (p. 497). <u>In this sense</u>, Ben's use of verbs of motion (e.g. where the building or elements of the building are described as stretching, folding, moving through, and popping up) <u>can be seen</u> as helping to convey the dynamic quality of his design... (Quali-ESP1)

4) <u>Such a view of</u> the separation of work/content on the one hand and language/form on the other, <u>might indeed be justified</u> to a greater extent in scientific writing than writing in the humanities, say (where constructionism holds sway), <u>by the fact that scientific writing is given to formulaicity</u>. This formulaicity applies all the way up from the word to the phrase and from the individual communicative moves or functions to the overall rhetorical structure. <u>'Prototypical syndromes of features' (Halliday 1993: 54)</u> and <u>'IMRD' (Swales 1990)</u> <u>are descriptions that capture such formulaicity</u>. (Quali-APP2)

### 4.2.4.3  Step3: Evaluating

The comments that the writers provided on findings by this step was an evaluation of them. This step was the least frequent among the three steps of the move and appeared in only three RAs. It was realized by two sub-steps; Providing an Evaluation where the writers presented their own evaluations (excerpts 1-2) and Providing an Evaluation by Referring to Literature where the writers referred to literature to offer an evaluation of the findings (excerpts 3).

For instance, in the first example below, the writers state their findings in the first two sentences. Their findings indicate that Japanese students who are studying in Australia have problems participating in the classroom activities and the students attribute this to the cultural differences between Japanese and Australian contexts. In the third sentence (starting with *however*), the writers present their evaluation of this

finding and question it by stating that the issue of Japanese students being silent is complicated and other factors than cultural differences are involved.

1) The studies revealed that Japanese students do desire, and do attempt, to speak, although they also struggled with their silence. Although Japanese students in the mainstream university classes in Australia showed signs of crossing the gap between desire and performance, and expressed critical views of speech, both groups presented a similar awareness of the negative values attached to silence in the classroom, and explained their silence by referring to the difficulties of breaking away from the Japanese mode of classroom communication **[Stating Findings]**. However, any direct link between culture and behavior must be questioned. Just as cultural explanations may be used erroneously by teachers to explain student silences, cultural explanation can also be used by students to justify their silences or even to identify as silent students. The situation is highly complex, and numerous other factors— including, but not limited to, participant relationships, gender, sexuality, and discussion theme—appear to play a role **[Evaluating]**. (Quali-TESOL2)

In excerpt 2, the writer presents the findings in the first paragraph and states that two groups of education officers in Botswana have different opinions and concerns on what should be taught and assessed in BGCSE (Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education) ESL. In the second paragraph, the writer presents his evaluation of the finding and states that the officers' concerns and opinions ignore some other issues in the BGCSE ESL syllabus.

2) The findings also revealed that while ERTD officers are concerned about the possible consequences of implementing the BGCSE English syllabus provision to assess speaking, the CD & E officers and SEOs are concerned about what they consider to be the negative impact of the non-assessment of speaking in the BGCSE English examination on teaching. ERTD officers fear that the inclusion of the assessment of speaking in the BGCSE English examination may threaten the reliability of the exam the main purpose of which they see to be the selection of the candidates for further education, training or employment **[Stating Findings]**.
However valid this concern may be, it ignores the fact that the avoidance of the assessment of speaking and listening is also a problem as it threatens the validity of the inferences that can be made from its scores by under representing the construct of communicative proficiency in English as defined in the BGCSE ESL syllabus **[Evaluating]**. (Quali-LTR3)

In excerpt 3 below, the writers refer to literature to evaluate their findings. The first sentence presents the finding which describes two groups of teachers' approaches

in classroom and the next two sentences are comments that evaluate these approaches by referring to Kubota, and Atkinson and Ramanathan.

> 3) To some extent, although the teachers in Study 1 were more assimilationist, those in Study 2 can be said to take a laissez-faire liberal multiculturalist approach **[Stating Findings]**. <u>These approaches have been critiqued by Kubota</u> (2004), who proposes "critical multiculturalism" (p. 37), an approach which <u>not only recognizes cultural differences but also problematizes the power struggles of minority groups</u>. Furthermore, the different approaches to student nomination <u>may not be in the best interest of students</u> who, as they leave the EAP classroom and start to participate in the L1 communicative context, need skills to participate voluntarily rather than by nomination (see Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995). (Quali-TESOL2)

### 4.2.5   Move 5: Supporting the Comments on Findings

This move usually appeared after Move 4 (Commenting on Findings) to support the writers' comments on the findings and occurred in six RAs in the sub-corpus. It was realized by two steps of Referring to Data and Referring to Literature. This move is similar to Exemplification in Swales' (1990) model which is used to support explanation. Although sometimes supporting the comments on the findings was in the form of examples, it was not always the case in this study. Therefore, instead of Exemplification, this communicative unit was labeled as Supporting the Comments on Findings which covers Exemplification too.

### 4.2.5.1 Step1: Referring to Data

In this step, which was found in five RAs, the writers referred to data to provide evidence for their comments on findings. In excerpt 1 after evaluating the findings (that the silence of Japanese students is due to several other factors than only cultural issues) the writers refer to their data to provide evidence for this comment.

> 1) <u>However, any direct link between culture and behavior must be questioned</u>. Just as cultural explanations may be used erroneously by teachers to explain student silences, cultural explanation can also be used by students to justify their silences or even to identify as silent students. The situation is highly complex, and numerous other factors— including, but not limited to, participant relationships, gender, sexuality, and discussion theme—appear to play a role **[Evaluating]**.  <u>An example of this trend can be seen in the case of Katsuyuki</u>, Study 1. As

quoted earlier, <u>Katsuyuki described himself</u> as "really shy, really, really shy." He attributed his perceived silence in part to his gay sexuality (discussed in Ellwood, 2006). However, in contrast to Katsuyuki's self-perception, <u>two of the teachers</u> viewed Katsuyuki as "not reticent […] one of the key players" and "the least shy person in the class […] verging on noisy." … **[Referring to Data]**.(Quali-TESOL2)

Excerpt 2 illustrates the instance that an explanation is supported by both referring to literature and data. The explanation is stated in the first two sentences which are followed by referring to literature for support (*For example, Hayashi (1990), in her study of …*). There is also reference to data (*Learners of Japanese frequently made comments such as …*) which is used to support the presented explanation.

2) This result may be explained by the difference between Japanese speakers and English speakers as to strategies to express sympathy. That is, English speakers may express sympathy more by verbal means than do Japanese speakers **[Explaining]**. For <u>example, Hayashi (1990),</u> in her study of Japanese and American face-to-face conversations, <u>reports that</u> American English speakers tended to make comments to show their attentiveness to the speaker's floor, whereas Japanese speakers had a tendency to use BC cues. As for the types of BC cues, she further reports that BC expressions used by Japanese speakers were often brief utterances such as un (yeah/yes) and soo (yes yes), whereas those used by American English speakers tended to consist of more specific verbal comments such as interesting and exactly **[Referring to Literature]**. <u>This view was reflected in the comments of learners of Japanese in the present study</u>. <u>Learners of Japanese</u> frequently made comments such as ''he just said uun or just nodded,'' ''he didn't say 'oh that's not good' or . . . he was just nodding,'' and ''he like sort of nodding and stuff. But he didn't seem to be saying a lot.'' Although the same type of comment was found in the reports of the JNSG, it was more evident in the LJG **[Referring to Data]**. (Quali-PRAG2)

### 4.2.5.2  Step2: Referring to Literature

The analysis showed that this step was not a frequent step and was identified in three RAs. The references to literature were either in the form of direct or indirect quotations. In excerpt 1 below, first, the findings are presented which are followed by interpreting findings which is supported by referring to literature. In excerpt 2, the first sentence is the writers' interpretation of the findings and is followed by a direct quotation from literature to support it.

1) Many of the distance learners in this sample found the time and created the opportunities to engage in functional practice beyond their course work. During this activity, their main focus was on meaning, with some Incidental Focus on Form. They also highlighted the role of meaning in learning vocabulary and grammar. They used functional practice activity to consolidate and enhance their productive and receptive skills, but at the same time used it for monitoring and self-assessment, encouragement and renewal of motivation **[Stating Findings]**. For intermediate and advanced distance learners, this activity appears to be crucial in providing exposure to the language and opportunities for feedback and Incidental Focus on Form, which they might otherwise gain via classroom interaction. It enables learners to home in on areas of personal interest within the context of a course designed for general appeal. The role in enhancing and renewing motivation is very significant **[Interpreting].** White (2003: 114) points out the frequent references in writings on distance language learning to maintaining motivation as a significant factor in learners' involvement and persistence in their distance-learning experiences. It was ranked as the most significant factor for success by distance language learners in a study that she carried out (White, 1999) **[Referring to Literature to Support the Interpretation]**. (Quali-LTR2)

2) This implies that it is difficult for learners to apply the Japanese rule, even if they have the necessary knowledge **[Interpreting]**.  The following quotation supports this view:

> In fact, I was warned before I came to Japan to be cautious of hai, that it didn't necessarily mean ''yes, I will do that.'' It meant ''yes, I understand that.'' And even with knowing that, I still found difficulties at first in understanding between the people in my company that speak very good English. (JETRO, 1980 cited from Miller, 1991:125) **[Referring to Literature to Support the Interpretation]** (Quali-PRAG2)

### 4.2.6   Move 6: Comparing Findings with Literature

The communicative purpose of this move was to compare and contrast the findings with relevant studies in literature and connect the findings to the field. It appeared in almost two thirds of the corpus (9 RAs). The move was realized by two steps: Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature and Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. However, the writers appeared to employ this move to mostly show the consistency of their findings with literature rather than inconsistency. The move was used to show consistency/inconsistency of findings with an assumption, claim, or contention in literature and/or with findings of studies in literature. The comparisons were made either with a specific or general claim/finding. However, the comparisons with a particular finding were rare and the reference to literature was more in general form and mostly to assumptions and claims rather than to specific findings.

The move appeared in various parts of the section after Move 2 (Stating Findings), Move 3 (Evidence for Findings by referring to data), Move 4 (Commenting on Findings), and Move 5 (Supporting the Comments on the Findings). Also, in a few cases it was found before Move 2 (Stating Findings) where the writers cited previous research before stating findings of their own study.

Although the move was sometimes signaled by explicit linguistic features, in some other cases linguistic features were not obvious enough to characterize the move. In these cases, the identification of the move was based on a more thorough analysis of the semantic content and relationships between sentences.

### 4.2.6.1   Step1: Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature

As was already mentioned, this step was used to show the ways the findings were similar to a claim or assumption in literature (excerpts 3-4) and/or to findings in literature (excerpts 1-2). As can be seen in excerpts 2 and 4, the writers position reference to literature before stating their own findings. In some cases (excerpts 5-6), findings and indicating consistency of findings with literature were embedded. The step was found in nine RAs. To be specific, in every RA that Comparing Findings with Literature was present, this step was identified too.

> 1) There was evidence that repeating a task with well-defined parameters and similar content (i.e. switching roles during a role play) increased the likelihood of its completion, <u>a finding that is consistent with studies that</u> attest to improved proficiency (based on holistic measures) on repeated tasks when learners were familiar with the content (e.g. Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres & Fernandez-Garcia, 1999). (Quali-LTR1)

> 2) Some researchers have previously argued that the judgment on ''whether a genre has been mastered rests with the discoursal and linguistic realization in [a learner's] text of a target genre'' (Pang, 2002, p. 154). Consequently, previous studies that examined writing performance in ESP genre-based writing instruction have underscored the importance of observing how some obligatory moves and other generic features have been replicated in learners' writings (e.g., Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Pang, 2002). <u>Similar to the students in these previous studies</u>, Fengchen was able to transfer some previously noticed generic features into his writing. (Quali-ESP2)

3) <u>Our data thus supports Metge and Kinloch's (1978) contention that</u> for at least some Maori people in large Pakeha organizations the tendency to 'dispense with formalities' at the beginning of a meeting is not regarded positively as a way of saving time, but rather interpreted as an impolite disregard for important protocols of welcome (see also Metge, 2001). (Quali-PRAG1)

4) <u>Heyman (1986:40) further claims that</u> what is 'essential for the topical organization of the talk and orientation to this topic by members is clarification of the task demands, i.e., describing the gist of the task at the beginning of the talk'. <u>Kasper (2004) has also shown</u> how the definition of characteristics of task is procedurally consequential in topic initiation of talk. <u>In our data, it can be seen that</u> formulation of the task demand was well integrated into the discussion. (Quali-APP1)

5) The present finding that opinion or thesis-driven essays are not a monolithic genre <u>confirms Freedman and Medway's (1994, p. 11) observation that</u> genre writing ''involves innumerable local decisions for which the decontextualized formal rules… provide no guidance.'' (Quali-ESP3)

6) These more successful students, <u>like only the most acculturated students in Webster's (2005) study</u>, appeared to understand that designs need to be contextualized through a rhetorical narrative. (Quali-ESP1)

## 4.2.6.2   Step2: Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature

This step was infrequent in the sub-corpus and compared to Indicating Consistency, instances of Indicating Inconsistency was less frequent. The analysis showed two occurrences of it in the sub-corpus. In both cases, the writers indicated inconsistency of their findings with a statement or claim in the literature. In the first example, the writers refer to a claim in literature which indicates that topic shifts are problematic for students during oral assessment. Then, the writers go on and state that the participants in their study did not have problems with topic shifting.

1) In their analysis of topic shift in OPI, <u>Kasper and Ross (2007: 2061) suggest that</u> topic shifts are a fragile environment where test candidates may have difficulties providing relevant answers. <u>The peer participants in the group oral discussion task in our study</u> had no identifiable trouble handling topic shifts from the ongoing sequence. (Quali-APP1)

In excerpt 2, the writers refer to a criticism in the literature which is leveled at task-based pedagogy which indicates that in this pedagogy, task completion may cause the learners to pay less attention to form. In the following sentence, the writers state that

their findings show that "attention to language … may in fact compromise task completion" which is in contrast with the claims in literature. Also, the writers go on and provide some evidence from their data (*Although Soon Yi and Ivan were given interactional opportunities …*) for this inconsistency. It was the only case in the corpus that the writers supported the inconsistency of their findings with literature by referring to their data.

> 2) <u>One of the criticisms of task-based communicative language pedagogy has been that</u> students' preoccupation with <u>finishing a task may result in minimal use of language</u>, and little attention to language form (Seedhouse, 1999; see also Swan, 2005). <u>The findings of this study suggest that </u>for adult learners, particularly those with some proficiency in the language, <u>attention to language during oral interaction may in fact compromise task completion</u>. <u>Although Soon Yi and Ivan</u> were given interactional opportunities that had the real-world feature of a defined ending point, this point was often not reached. <u>They</u> appeared to regard all activities, however interesting, as pretexts for practicing language rather than as tasks that had to be completed. <u>Soon Yi and Ivan</u> actively reflected on language, even when otherwise engaged with the intended communicative purpose of the task ... In addition, because <u>the teacher</u> usually reviewed key content of the small group interaction later with the whole class<u>, students</u> did not necessarily need to make task completion a primary goal. (Quali-LTR1)

### 4.2.7   Move 7: Making Recommendations

In this move, the writers made recommendation by Making Suggestions for Practice and/or Recommending Further Research. The move which was found in six RAs in the sub-corpus usually occurred towards the end of the Discussion section or after a specific finding was presented and discussed.

### 4.2.7.1   Step1: Making Suggestions for Practice

Making Suggestions for Practice which occurred in three RAs was one of the strategies that the writers employed to make recommendations. After presenting and discussing the finding(s), the writers made some suggestions for practice. The suggestions were mostly made to the problems that were identified by the study.

In excerpt 1, in the first two sentences the writers present the finding which indicates that students are recommended to follow deductive patterns in their writing. However, some published textbooks follow deductive patterns and some do not which creates a gap between what the students are recommended to follow in their writing and what they actually see in their textbooks. The third sentence is the writers' recommendation for this problem suggesting that if the students are asked to follow a specific pattern in their writing, "we need to" be aware of this gap.

> 1) One notable issue that emerged from this study is a gap between the pattern recommended for school writing and the actual structures that appear in published writing. As the study illustrates, while some of the published texts do follow a deductive pattern, others do not. Such texts create a gap between what students read and what they are expected to write **[Stating Findings]**. If we are asking students to follow a deductive structure so that instructors can easily find the points they are looking for or because it may be a relatively easy heuristic for students to follow when first starting to compose essays, we need to be sure of our assumptions and also be aware of other variations observed in published texts **[Making Suggestions for Practice]**. (Quali-ESP3)

In excerpt 2, the first sentence presents a finding which indicates that students in the program believe that the time was not sufficient for them to work on different types of functional practice. In the previous sentences (not included in the excerpt) the writers refer to literature stating that functional practice is a crucial activity for the students. Therefore, it seems that not having sufficient time might be problematic for the students. In the second paragraph of the excerpt, the writers go on and make a suggestion to this problem which is introducing and using "online oral interaction".

> 2) Despite the volume and variety of functional practice engaged in by this sample of UKOU [the UK Open University] students, there were many comments about how much more they would have liked to have done had time allowed… **[Stating Findings]**
>
> The increasing possibilities for online oral interaction between learners and the online availability of a vast array of text-based and audio materials in different languages offer scope for overcoming problems of distance and local accessibility, providing students are given time to use them, advice and support to do so. Students need to know that this activity is a recognized and valued aspect of study. This could mean formalizing it by suggesting students keep records of what they do and reflecting on what they have learned from it. One way of ensuring recognition could be to incorporate the outcomes of these different forms of

interaction in the language into assignment activities as considered below **[Making Suggestions for Practice]**. (Quali-LTR2)


In excerpt 3, first the writers state their finding which confirms previous studies indicating that "*teachers' reactions to language policy implementation can be a messy process*". In the following sentences, the writers make some suggestions (consulting teachers, providing clear guidelines, etc.) to solve this problem.


3) The results of this small case study also seem to confirm previous case study research on this topic (e.g. Jennings 1996; Stritikus 2003) in that teachers' reactions to language policy implementation can be 'a messy process' (Stritikus 2003: 50) at best …**[Comparing Findings with Literature + Stating Findings]** As such, one obvious but vitally important recommendation that stems from the study reported here is that language policy makers in Singapore (and elsewhere) should consult the very teachers who are entrusted to carry out language policy changes in their classes ... This consultation (possibly in the form of workshops) should, at the very least, provide clear guidelines to teachers in Singapore on exactly what Standard English is ... Teacher training institutes in Singapore (which are controlled by the MOE for the most part) could also do more in the initial preparation of its future teachers … by providing clear guidelines to trainee teachers on exactly how the SGEM can be realistically implemented in all Singapore classrooms **[Making Suggestions for Practice]**. (Quali-APP3)


### 4.2.7.2 Step2: Recommending Further Research

This step which appeared in five RAs in the sub-corpus was used by the writers to identify new lines of future research and to suggest that further research was needed. In one case (one out of five) this step occurred after stating the limitations of the study where the writers suggested new lines of inquiry which could cover those limitations. The other instances appeared after Commenting on Findings (1 RA), Making Suggestions for Practice (2 RAs), and Making Deductions (1 RA). In these cases, the writers provided their comments, suggestions, and deductions and yet recommended further research that needed to provide more insights into these issues. For instance, in excerpt 1, the writers present their recommendation for practice indicating that "teachers need to use appropriate and authentic texts and to provide an opportunity for students to

examine styles other than the 'preferred' structure". The writers go on and state that further research is still needed to find out how teachers can accomplish this matter.

1) The implication is that teachers need to use appropriate and authentic texts and to provide an opportunity for students to examine styles other than the ''preferred'' structure **[Making Suggestions for Practice]**… As a preliminary effort<u>, the present study suggests further research to</u> explore whether and how teachers can guide students in learning to express their thoughts by conscious, purpose-driven manipulation rather than a strict compliance with a generic structure **[Recommending Further Research]**.

2) <u>Further research is needed to</u> explore task types that encourage a focus on fluency and meaning, such as interactive tasks and information transfer, as suggested by Robinson (2001). (Quali-LTR2)

3) To what extent children are aware of sociocultural knowledge is <u>a separate issue, to be addressed in further research</u>. (Quali-PRAG3)

4) <u>Further longitudinal studies that examine</u> the same cohort of students, following them through their transition from an EAP to a mainstream program, <u>would offer</u> <u>the opportunity to further scrutinize</u> the relationship between the duration of education and shifting perceptions of classroom talk. (Quali-TESOL2)

### 4.2.8   Move 8: Making Deductions

This move which was identified in more than two thirds of the RAs (11 RAs) was utilized to present the main points of the studies and to make inferences and logical conclusions based on the findings and arguments that the writers had presented previously in the Discussion section. This move has also been referred to as Claim, Hypothesis, and Generalization in several other studies (Swales, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1994; R. Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002; Kanoksilapatham, 2005). Dudley-Evans uses the term Claim to generalize findings and show contribution of the study to the field. However, as previously was discussed in section 3.5.1.4, it seems that Claim is not a communicative purpose by itself. The findings that the writers present or comments that they make on them can also be considered as a claim. However, the important point is to understand the communicative purpose of making such claims; whether they are used, for instance, to present new knowledge claims or they are used to make generalizations.

Swale uses the label Deduction/Hypothesis and states that the communicative purpose of it is to make generalizations beyond the findings. Analyzing the corpus in this study, it was noticed that the purpose of deductions was not always to make generalizations but to make conclusions by stating the main points of the study, especially in the qualitative sub-corpus. The analysis showed that while in some cases the writers made a general claim, in other cases they did not over-generalize their findings and the deductions made were limited to the context of the study. Deductions were made both after a specific finding was presented and discussed and also towards the end of the section after all of the findings of the study were reported and discussed. In the first case, the deduction was limited to a particular finding while in the second case the deductions were based on the whole study and were more general. The label used in this study for this communicative purpose was Making Deductions whose communicative purpose is slightly different from Generalization. In other words, the segment of texts which were used to either make generalizations or only state the main points of the study and make a conclusion was labeled as Making Deductions.

The move appeared once and in some cases a few times in one Discussion section. In a few cases (e.g. excerpt 2), referring to literature was embedded into the move in order to support the deduction or to help the writer to make a deduction. In most cases, the writers were usually tentative in Making Deductions and used hedging words; although this was not the case always (such as excerpt 4).

1) <u>We may thus venture to suggest that</u> the primary concern of the scientific community in evaluating an article is the 'originality' of its 'science', rather than its language. Cases of 'plagiarism' in science, which have been sensationally reported (cf. Wang 1999), involved the stealing of other's 'work' (science); while texts containing 'plagiarized' passages (e.g. a paper that contains a passage on background information borrowed from another text, with some editing) which do not affect the 'originality' of the 'work' reported are not the focus of attention—although the post-doctoral fellow of Chemistry referred to above further suggested that the scenario tends to be found in average-level journals (often the target journals of the students) but is rarely identified in prestigious journals.

This view of the separation of work/content on the one hand and language/form on the other may be different to the relation of language and fact in the humanities, and where the two go hand in hand, and where language constructs reality (e.g. Bazerman 1994). (Quali-APP2)

2) <u>Thus,</u> although our studies, to some extent, demonstrate that culture— in terms of educational practices—may be one of the factors influencing the silences of Japanese students, it is also important to recognize that the students did want to talk, they sought to counter habituated sociocultural norms which impacted on their possibility of talk, and they appeared to develop over time a more critical understanding of what it meant to talk. <u>Our study also suggests that the teachers need to become more conscious of the "hidden curriculum"</u> (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 3) which privileges classroom participation in contemporary Western universities and which may lead to misunderstandings about the purpose and goals in both EAP and mainstream education contexts. <u>In other words, reconsideration, in teaching and learning, of "what makes it good to talk"</u> (Cameron, 2000, p. 183) <u>may be necessary</u>. (Quali-TESOL2)

3) The meaningful connections between noticing genre and performing genre, or writerly reading of genre and readerly writing of genre, on his part <u>thus</u> highlight the benefits of not only observing the generic features integrated into the final written products (knowing genres), but, more important, how learners become aware of a certain feature and how they recontextualize it in their writing (knowing genre). <u>After all, the latter</u>, as noted earlier, <u>may better pinpoint the true impact of genre on learners' reading and writing performance</u>. (Quali-ESP2)

4) The potential for causing (usually unwitting) offence is clear. <u>Judgments about (im)politeness are very obviously governed by socio-cultural norms in the workplace as elsewhere</u>. (Quali-PRAG1)

5) Despite these limitations, <u>this study suggests </u>that IVE speakers who have not traditionally been considered on par with NSs of inner-circle varieties of English, or who might not overtly claim ownership in other contexts, <u>may in fact orient toward English in very similar ways to speakers from the inner circle</u>. (Quali-TESOL1)

### 4.2.9    Move 9: Supporting Deductions/Suggestions

After stating suggestions and deductions, in some cases, the writers supported them by either referring to their data or literature. It usually appeared after move7-Step1 and Move 8. The analysis showed that the move was an infrequent move and appeared only in four RAs.

### 4.2.9.1   Step1: Referring to Data

This step occurred only in two RAs in the sub-corpus. In one case (excerpt 1), the writers referred to data in order to support the suggestion that was made in the first

sentence. In the other case (excerpt 2), the writers made a deduction and then referred to their data to back up the deduction.

1) In addition there may also be a need for the teachers themselves to communicate more clearly about their expectations of their students to speak in Standard English **[Making Suggestions for Practice]**. As illustrated in the case study, although the teachers expressed the idea that the use of Singlish be discouraged in class, they seldom provided feedback in response to their students' usage of Singlish in the observed lessons perhaps, as was pointed out above, because they themselves are confused with what Standard English is and why Singlish has been deselected **[Referring to Data to Support the Suggestion]**. (Quali-APP3)

2) … Nevertheless, it is possible to at least speculate that as they [sample of students] write more papers and become more 'fluent' in expressing themselves, they are likely to rely less on others' texts for language re-use **[Making Deduction]**. S8 said, for example, in her second paper, that she already felt she had more 'fluency', relying less on the wording of source texts and expressing herself more confidently in her own words **[Referring to Data to Support the Deduction]**. (Quali-APP2)

### 4.2.9.2 Step2: Referring to Literature

By employing this step, the writers referred to literature to support the deductions or suggestions they had made. The reference to literature was either in the form of direct or indirect quotation. The step was identified in three RAs in the sub-corpus. As can be seen in excerpt 1, in the first sentence the writers make a suggestion which is followed by a quotation by Kramer-Dahl to support the suggestion. In excerpt 2, the writers make a deduction in the last sentence while positioning a reference to literature in the first sentence to support the deduction. In excerpt 3, the writers make a deduction based on their findings and discussions which is followed by several references to literature to support that.

1) Clearly, a closer connection between top-down implemented language policies and the realities of the classroom in which such policies must be implemented needs to be made and a research priority undertaken concerning the reality of the Singapore classroom **[Making Suggestions for Practice]**. As Kramer-Dahl (2003: 164) has observed:

What has remained grossly under researched and poorly understood, as a result, is the nature of the challenge that Singapore teachers, especially those in neighborhood schools, face when they have to provide English-medium instruction for students, most of whom live in a social world where English, especially in its standard form, is rarely

used in the family and community **[Referring to Literature to Support the Deduction]**. (Quali-APP3)

2) Goodwin and Goodwin (1992) claim that an important aspect of collaboration and negotiation in constructing and developing an emergent topic involves reaction to the content of the preceding utterances **[Referring to Literature to Support the Deduction]**. Such instances of either 'marked' topic shift or 'stepwise' topic movement described in our analyses thus display characteristics of emergent topical development in conversation **[Making Deductions]**. (Quali-APP1)

3) Our study also suggests reconsideration of the role of oral participation versus the role of silence in both EAP and mainstream education **[Making Deductions]**. For example, Jaworski and Sachdev (1998) report that Western secondary school students associated silence with productive learning, and Rowe (1974, 1987) and Tobin (1987) demonstrate that increased teacher wait-time may improve the quality of oral participation by students. In addition, as Valdés (1998) demonstrates in a study of an ESL class in the United States, silence may also be used as an important tool for classroom management. Finally, as Zhou et al. (2005, p. 303) point out in their discussion of "a unidirectional perspective of cultural difference," the assumption that Asian students have the responsibility to develop their capacity to participate orally rests on a refusal by the mainstream to develop their own capacity for silence. As Kubota (2004, p. 47) mentions, "social transformation involves a two-way process; that is, not only should the people on the periphery generate insurgent voices, but the centre should also attend to such voices **[Referring to Literature to Support the Deduction]**.

## 4.2.10  Move 10: Evaluating the Study

This move, occurring in five RAs, was used to evaluate the overall study by Stating the Significance of the Findings and/or Stating the Limitations of the study.

### 4.2.10.1    Step1: Stating Significance of the Study

This step which was not a frequent step in the corpus (appeared in four RAs) was used to highlight the significance of the study and indicate its contribution(s) to the field. It appeared either after a specific finding or towards the end of the section. In the latter case, the significance was usually related to the overall findings of the study rather than to a particular one.

1) With a better understanding of how speakers orient toward English, researchers will have a clearer starting point from which to understand language development among language learners. Furthermore, from a more practical point of view, English language professionals will benefit from knowing how their students orient toward English. If teachers are aware of which variety of English their students consider the TL to be and the degree of ownership the students

display to that variety, <u>they will better recognize</u> students' language abilities and more fairly measure their linguistic achievements. (Quali-TESOL1)

2) <u>Our analysis therefore provide evidence for</u> the claim by some recent educational discourse researchers that the topic organization is constituted in the participants' turns at talk, which in turn display their orientations to and understanding of what is relevant to the set task agenda. (Quali-APP1)

3) Nevertheless, <u>the varying behaviors of</u> the two groups of <u>Japanese students in our studies</u> complexify interpretations of their behavior as a product of Japanese cultural practices and <u>challenge a simple dichotomy of silent East and articulate West</u>. (Quanti-TESOL2)

### 4.2.10.2 Step2: Stating Limitations of the Study

This step was utilized to state the limitations of the study in terms of its methodology including scope, sample size, and analysis and occurred only in two RAs in the sub-corpus. In one case (excerpt 1), after stating several limitations of the study, the writers emphasized that in spite of the limitations they have tried *to minimize the effects of the limitations* and *increase the validity, reliability, authenticity, as well as the ethics of the study*. Also, in this excerpt, after stating each limitation, recommendations for future research were offered which might help to cover the limitations. In the second case (excerpt 2), limitations were stated after Commenting on Findings (Interpreting) and before Making Deductions.

1) As with all forms of research, <u>limitations are inherent in this present study</u>… Due to the nature of the study and time constraints, <u>the study is limited</u> in its scope as it investigates the beliefs and feedback practices of a small sample size of only three teachers of English language, in three Singapore neighborhood schools. In addition, <u>the teachers were only asked to</u> comment on their students' use of Singlish during oral activities and not about their beliefs or feedback practices on student writing, where their views may have been very different… <u>One final word related to limitations regarding the research methodology reported on in this paper is that</u> when teachers attempt to articulate their beliefs and classroom practices, they may not be able to verbalize why they have made a particular decision partly because these beliefs are forever changing (Senior 2006), and even when these beliefs have been articulated, they may be an unreliable guide to the reality of their classroom actions (Pajares 1992). (Quali-APP3)

2) <u>This study is limited in its analysis of</u> ownership because it only examines the situated linguistic identities expressed during an experimental task… (Quali-TESOL1)

**4. 2.11 Move 11: Summarizing the Study**

This move which was used to provide a summary of the whole study occurred only in two RAs. In both cases, it appeared as the final part of the Discussion section. As can be seen in excerpt 1, the writers summarize the study by stating its aim and the main findings and relating the findings to the literature and providing a conclusion for the study. In this case the Discussion section was the final section of the RA. In the other case (excerpt 2), the writer provides a summary by highlighting the main findings of it.

1) In this study, we were interested in how students contextualized their designs – expressed in terms of the stance they conveyed towards their design artifacts, the design process, themselves as architects-in-training and their audience. Claudia presented an architectural self seemingly more closely aligned to an objective orientation; similar in presentation style to that identified by Darling (2005) in engineering design discourse, in which speaking competently was associated with attention on the object and away from the self. Both the successful students, Adam (first year) and Ben (fourth year), conveyed an architectural self that fits well with what Coyne, Snodgrass, and Martin (1994) refer to as a romantic orientation, involving ''subjectivity, importance of the individual, imagination and emotion. . .[where] the artifact is commonly seen as a work of art. . .[and] the design task is seen as an exercise in self-expression and self-discovery. . .[and where] reports on design experience involve reflections on one's state of mind and how one felt about the design" (p. 116). This is the generic style that echoes Webster's (2005, p. 279) description of the acculturated students in her study, who demonstrated ''confidence, assuredness, competence and artistic exuberance". It is also the generic style that was rewarded in the architecture presentation data in this study. (Quali-ESP1)

2) Thus, the findings indicate two things: (1) Japanese learners transferred their first language rules into the Japanese conversational contexts because they were not aware of the double-track meaning in Japanese BC cues (utterances and head nods); (2) they transferred these rules even though they had some knowledge of Japanese BC cues. (Quali-PRAG2)

**4.3 OCCURRENCES OF THE MOVES AND STEPS IN DISCUSSION SECTION OF THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES**

In the previous sections, the moves and steps identified in the Discussion sections of qualitative RAs were presented. However, not all of these moves and steps were present in every research article, nor were they identified with the same frequency in the whole sub-corpus. Also, it was noticed that some moves appeared in cycles while some others did not. This section reports on these frequencies and cycles in the qualitative sub-corpus.

**4. 3.1 Frequency of Appearance of the Moves and Steps in the Sub-Corpus**

The moves and steps described in the previous sections of this chapter did not appear in all the 15 RAs of the sub-corpus. While some of these moves and steps were prevalent in the sub-corpus, some others appeared less frequently (see Table 4.2). These findings are summarized in Table 4.3 which shows in how many RAs and with which percentage each of these moves are identified. As the table illustrates, five moves were the most frequent ones in the sub-corpus and each appeared in more than 50% of the RAs. The first most frequent move and the only move that was found in all the 15 RAs was Move 2 (Stating Findings). It was also the opening move of the Discussion section in 13 RAs.

Table 4.2:  Presence of the Moves, Steps, and Sub-steps in Discussion Section of Each RA in the Qualitative Sub-corpus

| Moves | Steps | Sub-steps | Articles | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | APP 1 | APP 2 | APP 3 | ESP 1 | ESP 2 | ESP 3 | PRAG 1 | PRAG 2 | PRAG 3 | LTR 1 | LTR 2 | LTR 3 | TESOL 1 | TESOL 2 | TESOL 3 |
| 1 | - | - | √ | √ | | | √ | | | | | | | | | | √ |
| 2 | 1 | - | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 3 | 1 | - | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | | √ | | √ | √ | | | √ | √ |
| 4 | 1 | 1A | | | | √ | | | | √ | | | √ | | √ | | |
| | | 1B | | | | | | | | √ | | √ | | | | √ | |
| | 2 | 2A | √ | √ | | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | |
| | | 2B | | √ | | √ | | | √ | | | √ | | | | | |
| | 3 | 3A | | √ | | | | | | | | | | | √ | √ | |
| | | 3B | | | | | | | | | | | | | | √ | |
| 5 | 1 | - | | | | | | | | √ | | √ | | | √ | √ | √ |
| | 2 | - | | | | | | | | √ | | | √ | √ | | | |
| 6 | 1 | - | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | | | | |
| | 2 | - | √ | | | | | | | | | | √ | | | | |
| 7 | 1 | - | | | | √ | | √ | √ | | | | √ | | | | |
| | 2 | - | | | | √ | | √ | | | √ | | √ | | | √ | |
| 8 | - | - | √ | √ | | | √ | √ | √ | | √ | | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| 9 | 1 | - | | √ | √ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 | - | √ | | √ | | | | | | | | | | | √ | |
| 10 | 1 | - | √ | | | | √ | | | | | | | | √ | √ | |
| | 2 | - | | | √ | | | | | | | | | | √ | | |
| 11 | - | - | | | | √ | | | √ | | | | | | | | |
| **Total Types of Moves Identified** | | | 8 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 8 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 4 |

The second most frequent move was Move 4 (Commenting on Findings) which appeared in 12 RAs (80%). As was already described, this move was realized by three

steps; however, these three steps were not used equally to realize the move. The analysis showed that the writers mostly commented on their findings by Interpreting (Step2). This step which appeared in all the 12 RAs that the writers presented a comment on their findings involved two sub-steps. Providing an Interpretation (Step1A) appeared in 12 RAs and Providing an Interpretation by Referring to Literature (Step1B) was used only in four RAs. The least frequent step used to comment on findings was Step 3 (Evaluating) which was found in four RAs. Meanwhile, Step 1 of Move 4 (Explaining) was identified in six RAs.

Table 4.3: Frequency and Percentage of Appearance of the Moves in the Qualitative Sub-corpus

| Moves | Present in | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 1- Providing Background Information | 4 RAs | 27 |
| 2- Stating Findings | 15 RAs | 100 |
| 3- Providing Evidence for Findings | 10 RAs | 67 |
| 4- Commenting on Findings | 12 RAs | 80 |
| 5- Supporting Comments on Findings | 6 RAs | 40 |
| 6- Comparing Findings with Literature | 9 RAs | 60 |
| 7- Making Recommendations | 6 RAs | 40 |
| 8- Making Deductions | 10 RAs | 67 |
| 9- Supporting Deductions/Suggestions | 4 RAs | 27 |
| 10- Evaluating the Study | 5 RAs | 33 |
| 11- Summarizing the Study | 2 RAs | 13 |

The next two most frequent moves, each of which were present in 10 RAs (73%), were Move 3 (Providing Evidence for Findings) and Move 8 (Making Deductions). The other most widespread move was Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature) which was identified in nine RAs (60%). As was already mentioned, it was realized by two steps. Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature (Step 1) which was identified in nine RAs was more frequent than Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature (Step 2) which was identified in only two RAs. In other words, while in all the RAs that the writers compared their findings with literature they had indicated

the consistency of their findings with literature; only in two RAs, out of nine, inconsistency of findings with literature was indicated.

The other six moves out of 11 in the generic structure appeared in less than 50% of the RAs. However, among them three moves were more frequent than the other three and appeared at least in one third of the RAs. These moves were Move 5 (Supporting Comments on Findings), Move 7 (Making Recommendations), and Move 10 (Evaluating the Study). The Moves 5 and 7 were both identified in six RAs (40%). Although Move 7 was realized by two steps of Making Suggestions for Practice and Recommending Further Research, the second step which appeared in six RAs was more frequent than the first step which was found in three RAs. Also, the first step of Move 10 (Stating Significance) which appeared in four RAs was more frequent than the second step (Stating Limitations) which was identified in two RAs.

The three least frequent moves were Moves 1, 9, and 11. Move 11 (Summarizing the Study) only appeared in two RAs (13%) in the sub-corpus. The next two least frequent moves were Move 1 (Providing Background Information) and Move 9 (Supporting the Suggestions/Deductions) which were found almost in a quarter of the sub-corpus (4 RAs).

The moves identified in the whole sub-corpus appeared with different frequencies in each RA (as shown in Table 4.2). Consequently, the number of types of moves present in each RA's generic structure was different. As can be seen in Table 4.2, the types of moves present in the RAs varied from three (in LTR3) to 8 (in APP1, ESP2 and TESOL2) moves. On the whole, the average types of moves identified in the sub-corpus was 5.53. In other words, among the 11 moves identified in the sub-corpus, the writers employed different numbers of them to organize their Discussion section.

Nevertheless, some moves seemed more favored and common than the others and Stating Findings was the only move that was present in all the 15 RAs.

### 4.3.2 Overall Frequency of the Moves and Steps in the Whole Sub-Corpus

This section presents overall frequency of moves and steps in the sub-corpus. On the whole, 184 moves were identified in the whole 15 RAs' Discussion sections. Table 4.4 shows the frequency and percentage of each move and step that realized them.

Table 4.4: Overall Occurrences of the Moves and Steps in Discussion Section of the Qualitative Research Articles

| MOVES | STEPS | Sub-STEPS | Articles | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | TOTAL (Step) | TOTAL (Moves) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | APP1 | APP2 | APP3 | ESP1 | ESP2 | ESP3 | PRAG1 | PRAG2 | PRAG3 | LTR1 | LTR2 | LTR3 | TESOL1 | TESOL2 | TESOL3 | | |
| 1 | − | − | 2 | 1 | - | - | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 6 (3.26%) |
| 2 | 1 | − | 5 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 9 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 54 (100%) | 54 (29.35%) |
| 3 | 1 | − | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | - | - | 2 | - | 1 | 2 | - | - | 2 | 1 | 17 (100%) | 17 (9.24%) |
| 4 | 1 | 1A | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 8 (24.24%) | 33 (17.93%) |
| | | 1B | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 2 | - | - | - | 1 | - | | |
| | 2 | 2A | 2 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | - | 21 (63.64%) | |
| | | 2B | - | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | | |
| | 3 | 3A | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 1 | - | 4 (12.12%) | |
| | | 3B | - | - | | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | | |
| 5 | 1 | − | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 2 | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 6 (54.55%) | 11 (5.98%) |
| | 2 | − | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 3 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | 5 (45.45%) | |
| 6 | 1 | − | 2 | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | 12 (85.71%) | 14 (7.61%) |
| | 2 | − | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | 2 (14.29%) | |
| 7 | 1 | − | - | - | 4 | - | 1 | 3 | - | - | - | - | 6 | - | - | - | - | 14 (70%) | 20 (10.87%) |
| | 2 | − | - | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | 2 | - | - | 1 | - | 6 (30%) | |
| 8 | - | − | 1 | 3 | - | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | 1 | - | 1 | 5 | 1 | - | 16 (8.69%) |
| 9 | 1 | − | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 (40%) | 5 (2.72%) |
| | 2 | − | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 3 (60%) | |
| 10 | 1 | − | 1 | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | 4 (66.67%) | 6 (3.26%) |
| | 2 | − | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | 2 (33.33%) | |
| 11 | − | − | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 (1.09%) |
| **Total Occurrences:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 160 | 184 |

Overall, the two most frequent moves were Move 2, Stating Findings (54 occurrences, 29.35% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) and Move 4, Commenting on Findings (33 occurrences, 17.93% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). As was already discussed, Commenting on Findings was realized by three steps. As shown in Table 4.4, in more than 60% of the cases, the move was realized by Step2: Interpreting. Meanwhile, in around 24% of instances the writers employed Explaining and only in about 12% of the cases they used Evaluating to comment on their findings.

The third most frequent move was Move7: Making Recommendations (20 occurrences, 10.8% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). Although the move was realized by two steps, in 70% of the cases it was realized by Making Suggestions for Practice and only in 30% of instances it was realized by Recommending Further Research. Also, Move 7, Comparing Findings with Literature, which comprised 7.61% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus, was realized in most cases (85.71%) by Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature and only in 14.29% of cases it was realized by Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature.

Overall, four moves were least frequent in the whole sub-corpus. They were Move 11, Summarizing the Study (2 occurrences, 1.09% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus), Move 9, Supporting Deductions/Suggestions (five occurrences, 2.72% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus), Move 1, Providing Background Information (six occurrences, 3.26% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus), and Move 10, Evaluating the Study (7 occurrences, 3.8% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). It should be noticed that Move 7 was realized mostly by Stating Significance (5 occurrences), and Stating Limitations occurred only two times in the whole sub-corpus.

### 4.3.3 Cycle of the Moves

The analysis revealed some cycle of moves in the data; however, the whole sections were not organized based on particular cycles. The cycles consisted of the following two or more moves: Move 2 (Stating Findings), Move 3 (Providing Evidence for Findings by Referring to Data), Move 4 (Commenting on Findings), Move 5 (Supporting the Comments on Findings), Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature), and Move 7- Step 1 (Making Suggestions). These moves were combined in various ways to form a cycle; however, Move 2 (Stating Findings) was the core move in all the cycles (as shown in Table 4.5). It should be mentioned that in a few cases this move was not present in a cycle and after stating a finding, the writers moved to reporting another finding. Table 4.5 presents some of the arrangement of the cycles that were identified in the qualitative sub-corpus.

Table 4.5: Some of the Arrangement of the Cycles Identified in the Qualitative Sub-Corpus

| Cycles Started with Move 2 (Stating Findings) | Cycles Started with Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature) |
|---|---|
| Moves (2+3) | Moves (6+2+3) |
| Moves (2+3+4) | Moves (6+2+3+4) |
| Moves (2+3+4+5) | Moves (6+2+4) |
| Moves (2+3+7(1)) | Moves (6+2+4) |
| Moves (2+3+6+7(1)) | Moves (6+2+4+5) |
| Moves (2+4) | |
| Moves (2+4+5) | |
| Moves (2+4+5+4+5) | |
| Moves (2+4+6) | |
| Moves (2+6) | |
| Moves (2+7-1+6) | |

On the whole, two moves were the beginning moves in all of the cycles. Move 2 (Stating findings) was the beginning move of a cycle in most cases and was also the starting move of13 sections (out of 15) in the sub-corpus. In some cases, Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature) was the beginning move of the cycles which was

followed immediately by Move 2 (Stating Findings). The cycles ranged from two to five moves which comprised Move 2 plus Moves 3-6 and Move7-Step1.

Table 4.6: Examples of the Common Cycles Identified in the Qualitative Sub-Corpus

| Move 2 | … More often, though, the speakers from the outer circle displayed less certainty, or lesser degree of ownership, than did the speakers from inner circle. |
|---|---|
| Move 4 | This uncertainty among outer-circle speakers may be the result of their experience with multiple and conflicting norms for English. |
| Move 5 | For example, it is surprising that the Singaporeans all rejected the use of "researches" or "equipments" as countable nouns … (Quali-TESOL1) |
| Move 2 | A further rhetorical strategy that students used to contextualize design ideas involved types of images. |
| Move 3 | In the first year presentations, the images were mostly topographical and technical in nature, and to the observer, they seemed to have lost all trace of the creative design process… The fourth year students' presentations, and in particular those of Ben's near-expert presentation, as described in the previous section, do not however, fit the category of "stark and technical"… (Quali-ESP1) |
| Move 6 | Heyman (1986:40) further claims that what is 'essential for the topical organization of the talk and orientation to this topic by members is clarification of the task demands, i.e., describing the gist of the task at the beginning of the talk'. Kasper (2004) had also shown how the definition of characteristics of task is procedurally consequential in topic initiation of talk. |
| Move 2 | In our data, it can be seen that formulation of the task demand was well integrated into the discussion. |
| Move 4 | Such formulations or reformulations of task demands can be considered signs of participants constantly monitoring the content of talk for appropriacy and relevance to the assessment task agenda… (Quali-APP1) |
| Move 2 | The findings reveal some important differences in the nature of the oral interaction experienced by Soon Yi and Ivan in the classroom and real-world contexts. While overall time on tasks was comparable, what the L2 speakers did with the time was not. |
| Move 4 | The marked difference in the number of reformulations and instances of solicited/unsolicited language assistance suggests that regardless of the parameters and communicative goals of a task, in the language classroom, Soon Yi and Ivan focused on Language. (Quali-LTR1) |

The moves combined in various ways in a cycle; however, some orders of moves were more common than the others. In most of the cases that Move 2 was the beginning move of a cycle, it was followed by either Move 3 (Providing Evidence for Findings) or Move 4 (Commenting on Findings). In a few cases, it was also followed by Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature) or Move7-Step1 (Making Suggestions). The most common combination of cycles consisted of Stating Findings + Commenting on Findings. A combination of Stating Findings + Providing Evidence for Findings, and Stating Findings + Commenting on Findings + Supporting Comments on Findings were

also usual. In some cycles, the move of Commenting on Findings was followed by Move 5 (Supporting Comments on Findings). Whenever Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature) was the beginning of a cycle, it was immediately followed by Move 2 (Stating Findings) which, in most cases, was followed by Move 3 (Providing Evidence for Findings). The analysis showed that when Move 6 (Comparing Findings with Literature) was part of a cycle, in most cases, it appeared before Stating Findings and was the beginning move of the cycle. Table 4.6 illustrates some of the common arrangements along with examples from data.

## 4.4. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented the generic structure of the Discussion section of qualitative sub-corpus. The identified moves, steps, and sub-steps were described and excerpts from the data were provided for illustration. Also, the occurrences of moves and steps including their appearance in each RA and in the whole sub-corpus as well as the cycle of moves were presented. The analysis revealed that the only move present in all the 15 RAs' Discussion sections was Stating Findings. The analysis of the overall frequency of moves showed that this move was the most widespread move in the whole sub-corpus. There were also a few other moves such as Commenting on Findings, Providing Evidence for Findings, and Making Deductions which were frequent in the sub-corpus and appeared in at least two thirds of the RAs. The study of the overall frequency of moves revealed that Commenting on Findings was the second most frequent move in the sub-corpus after Stating Findings. Meanwhile, three moves of Providing Background Information, Supporting the Suggestions/ Deductions, and Summarizing the Study were the least frequent moves. Each of these moves was identified in less than one third of the RAs. The study of overall frequencies of moves showed that these three moves along with Evaluating the Study were the least frequent in the whole sub-corpus and each comprised less than 4% of the whole moves in the sub-corpus. The analysis

also showed the cycles of moves in the sub-corpus. These cycles started with two specific moves. The beginning move of these cycles was either Stating Findings or in a few cases Comparing Findings with Literature and the core move in each and every cycle was Stating Findings.

# CHAPTER 5

## THE GENERIC STRUCTURE OF DISCUSSION SECTION OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the generic structure of Discussion section of qualitative RAs. This chapter describes the generic structure of Discussion section identified in 15 quantitative RAs. Similar to Chapter 4, the focus of this chapter is on presenting, describing, and illustrating the identified moves and steps. A discussion of the findings from the two sub-corpora and comparing and synthesizing them will be presented in Chapter 6. After presenting and illustrating the generic structure, the chapter includes a section on the occurrences of moves and steps in the sub-corpora. It covers a description of presence of moves and steps in each RA, the overall frequency of moves and steps in the whole sub-corpus as well as the cycle of moves identified in the sub-corpus. The final section includes a summary of the chapter.

### 5.2 THE GENERIC STRUCTURE OF DISCUSSION SECTION OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

The analysis of the quantitative sub-corpus revealed the presence of 10 moves. In most cases, the writers used more than one strategy to capture the communicative purpose of a specific move. In a few cases sub-steps were also identified. Table 5.1 shows the generic structure of the quantitative sub-corpus. In the previous chapter, several points were stated about the generic structure of Discussion sections identified in this study and its differences with those identified in previous studies. The same discussion applies to the generic structure of Discussion section of quantitative RAs presented in this chapter.

Table 5.1: The Generic Structure of Discussion Section of Quantitative Research Articles

| Moves | Steps |
|---|---|
| 1- Providing Background Information | - |
| 2- Stating Findings | 1- Reporting Findings<br>2- Summarizing Findings |
| 3- Commenting on Findings | 1- Explaining<br>    1A- Providing an Explanation<br>    1B- Providing Alternative Explanations<br>    1C- Providing an Explanation by Referring to<br>        Literature<br>2- Interpreting<br>    2A- Providing an Interpretation<br>3- Evaluating<br>    3A- Indicating Consistency of Findings with<br>        Expected  Findings/Hypotheses<br>    3B- Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with<br>        Expected  Findings/Hypotheses |
| 4- Comparing Findings with Literature | 1- Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature<br>2- Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature |
| 5- Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | 1- Referring to Methodology |
| 6- Making Deductions | - |
| 7- Supporting Deductions | 1- Referring to Findings<br>2- Referring to Methodology<br>3- Referring to Literature |
| 8- Evaluating the Study | 1- Stating Significance of the Study<br>2- Stating Limitations of the Study |
| 9- Making Recommendations | 1- Making Suggestions for Practice<br>2- Recommending Further Research |
| 10- Summarizing the Study | - |

### 5.2.1   Move1: Providing Background Information

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the communicative purpose of this move is to convey information on methodology of the study, theory, and technical points to help audience to follow the discussion. The analysis of the quantitative sub-corpus revealed that this move was a frequent move in the data as it appeared in more than two thirds of the sections (11 RAs). They appeared at the beginning of the sections and/or other parts. The information presented included research questions, aim of the study, hypotheses, and restatement of method. Whenever restating research questions, it usually was the beginning of a new cycle of moves. In these cases, the move appeared at least as many times as the number of research questions in the study. Also, in instances that it

provided information other than the research questions, it appeared once or more in the section. The following excerpts from the data illustrate instances of presenting research questions, aim of the study, and hypotheses and restatement of method respectively.

1) <u>The first research question asked</u> whether written CF focusing on article errors produced a significant positive effect on acquisition. (Quanti-TESOL1)

2) <u>The main purpose of this study was</u> to explore the commonly asserted and widely accepted notion that formulaic sequences are more easily processed than nonformulaic language. (Quanti-APP1)

3) <u>A further hypothesis was that</u> simple pragmatic phenomena are easier to recognize than complex phenomena are. (Quanti-PRAG1)

4) <u>During the three-week study, both groups followed the same course book</u> which provided the learners with a number of exposures to the target vocabulary in several contexts, mainly through listening and speaking activities… (Quanti-ESP1)

### 5.2.2 Move2: Stating Findings

This move stated briefly the findings that were presented in previous section of RAs (usually under the title of Findings or Results). The analysis showed that it appeared in all the 15 RAs in the sub-corpus. The move was realized by two steps. The writers either reported their findings and/or provided a summary of them. However, the second move was not frequent in the sub-corpus and appeared only in two sections.

### 5.2.2.1 Step1: Reporting Findings

This step was used to realize the move in every 15 RAs' Discussion sections. It was either the beginning of a cycle or followed Move 2 (Providing Background Information) in a cycle. The findings in each section were presented, most of the time, in order of the research questions that were posed in previous sections or in order of their strengths. That is, either the research questions were restated one by one and findings for each research question were presented, or the strongest and most important findings were presented first and were followed by weaker and less significant findings.

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1) <u>The results of this study indicate that</u> the structured input task was effective, and that the development of L2 pragmatic proficiency can be influenced by manipulating input. (Quanti-LTR1)

2) <u>A key finding was that</u> generally the implicit and explicit measures of the same structure were not both related to proficiency. Rather it was the implicit measure of one set of structures and explicit knowledge of a different set that correlated with the IELTS measures. (Quanti-APP2)

3) <u>The results of this study also show</u> better overall academic performance by content-linked students as evidenced by their higher GPA… (Quanti-ESP2)

### 5.2.2.2   Step2: Summarizing Findings

This step occurred only in two RAs in the whole sub-corpus. In one case (excerpt 1), it was the opening move of the section and in the other case (excerpt 2) the step appeared after Providing Background Information which was the beginning move of the section. Though a summary of the main findings was presented in the beginning, each finding was repeated in the section and was commented on and/or was compared with literature.

1) With references to the research questions that guided this study, <u>the main findings can be summarized as follows</u>:
1. Instructing learners to learn target words and informing them that a test will follow (intentional learning) positively affected L2 word form learning during reading as compared with instructing learners to read for meaning only (incidental learning).
2. Requiring learners to perform a semantically oriented task (synonym generation) negatively affected L2 word-form learning during reading.
a. This negative effect did not depend on whether vocabulary learning was intentional or incidental.
b. This negative effect did not depend on the proficiency level of the learners (low intermediate versus high intermediate).
3. Additionally, text comprehension was lower when learners were in the intentional vocabulary learning condition and were required to perform the semantically oriented task. (Quanti-TESOL2)

2) In the main, it was found that context played a role in idiom comprehension for all three groups of subjects (age 6, 9, and adults) whereas linguistic convention had an impact only in adults. Familiarity first sowed influence on responses at age 9 and was also apparent in adults. Metapragmatic knowledge first showed at the age of 6. (Quanti-PRAG2)

### 5.2.3   Move3: Commenting on Findings

This move, which was utilized to present the comments of the writers on the findings, and Stating Findings move were the only two moves that occurred in all of the 15 RAs.

Commenting on Findings usually appeared after move 2 (Stating Findings). Similar to the qualitative RA writers, the writers of the quantitative articles employed three steps of Explaining, Interpreting and Evaluating to present their comments and standpoints about the findings. The analysis of the data showed that Explaining was the most frequent strategy (used in 14 RAs) and Evaluating was the least frequent strategy (used in five RAs) used by the quantitative RA writers to comment on their findings.

### 5.2.3.1 Step1: Explaining

The function of this step was to provide reason/s in order to explain why a specific finding was achieved. The analysis showed that the writers used various strategies to explain their findings. They used three sub-steps of Providing an Explanation, Providing Alternative Explanations, and/or Providing an Explanation by Referring to Literature to fulfill this purpose. The analysis indicated that the first sub-step was the most frequent one (occurred in 12 RAs) and the third sub-step was the least frequent one (identified in 2 RAs) in the sub-corpus. It should be stated that in some cases that the writers provided alternative explanations for the findings, these explanations were the writers' own explanations and/or explanations that were provided in literature. For example, if three possible explanations were discussed for a specific finding, two would be the writer's own explanation and the other one an explanation that was provided in literature. Excerpts 1-2 illustrate how the writers discussed their findings by providing an explanation, excerpts 3-4 are instances of providing alternative explanations, and excerpts 5-6 show how the writers referred to literature to provide an explanation. As the examples illustrate, the writers were tentative about the explanations they provided and used hedging words to express that.

1) One possible explanation for obtaining these results may lie in the nature of the targeted linguistic feature and the difficulty that this feature causes to learners form a different L1 (particularly the Chinese participants) … (Quanti-LTR3)

2) <u>The larger decrease in means</u> for the semantic condition based on the L1-to-L2 measure (99%) as compared with the decrease in means based on the L2-to-L1 measure (76%) <u>may have resulted from</u> the L2-to-L1 measure's lesser sensitivity to the level of word-form knowledge because it does not depend on production of each word form. (Qunati-TESOL2)

3) <u>Two reasons might explain the poorer performance of the migrant students</u> in the delayed post-test. <u>First</u>, they may have given less attention to accuracy in the third piece of writing… <u>Second</u>, age may have been an intervening factor… (Quanti-LTR2)

4) Overall, <u>we believe that our participants interpreted simple deceits as mistakes and performed better in recognizing complex deceits for the following reasons</u>: our child participants found it most difficult to answer to the Listener's question …, thus, they most probably relied on the first bit of information the listener had heard … and did not further up-date their information… <u>Another possible explanation</u>, which is not necessarily incompatible with the one described above, could be that the complexity of the situation led the children to question the sincerity of the speaker's intentions… (Quanti-PRAG3)

5) <u>As noted in Takahashi (2001), a possible explanation is that</u> this form is not recognized as a 'request' because of its elliptical form and the primary meaning of subjective if-clause… (Quanti-APP3)

6) <u>This result can be explained by Schmidt's account of</u> the role of awareness in L2 acquisition. Schmidt (1995, 2001) distinguished awareness at the level of noticing and the level of understanding, which is a higher level of awareness… (Quanti-TESOL1)

### 5.2.3.2   Step2: Interpreting

The other strategy that the quantitative RA writers used to comment on their findings was Interpreting. While by Explaining the writers tried to provide reason/s why the findings were achieved, by Interpreting they attempted to explain the meaning of the findings which were not clear in the first sight. The step included one sub-step of Providing an Interpretation where the writers offered their own understanding of the findings. Similar to Explaining, the writers were tentative about their comments and used hedging words to show it. As was already mentioned, this step was less frequent than Explaining and was identified in nine Discussion sections. The following excerpts illustrate how the writers used this strategy to comment on their findings.

1) <u>The evidence obtained in this study</u> on the production <u>task suggests that</u> the effects of PI not only have an impact on the way that learners interpret sentences but also on the way learners produce sentences… (Quanti-LTR3)

2) At the same time, <u>the finding clearly indicates that</u> different motivational profiles are concerned with the awareness of different aspects of pragmalinguistic features (Kasper and Rose 2002), and this implies a complex interplay between learners' motivational dispositions and their attentional targets at the pragmatic level. (Quanti-APP3)

3) <u>This may indicate that</u>, although the Koreans' referential choices in their English narratives diverged from the Korean narratives in the direction of narrative produced by the native English speakers, they still failed to achieve discourse cohesion in English discourse in the way the native English speakers did. (Quanti-PRAG1)

4) Nevertheless, <u>the substantial negative effect of the semantically oriented task on L2-to-L1 recall suggests that</u> increased semantic elaboration can decrease one's ability to make early form-meaning mappings as well. (Quanti-TESOL2)

### 5.2.3.3  Step3: Evaluating

The last strategy used to comment on findings was Evaluating. This step was used to state whether the findings were expected or unexpected and surprising. The writers referred to general expectations in the field or their own expectations in terms of hypothesis. Compared to the other two strategies (Explaining and Interpreting), this step was the least frequent in the corpus and was identified in five RAs. This step included two sub-steps, Indicating Consistency of Findings with Expected Findings/Hypotheses and/or Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Expected Findings/Hypotheses. However, the second sub-step was less frequent in the sub-corpus and appeared in one RA. Excerpts 1-4 illustrate instances of the first sub-step and excerpt 5 is the only instance of the second sub-step identified in the sub-corpus. While excerpts 1, 2, and 4 are instances of indicating consistency of findings with general expectations, excerpts 3 and 5 indicate consistency and inconsistency of findings with the researchers' own hypothesis.

In these excerpts, except no. 3, the writers not only state whether their findings were expected but also try to provide some explanations for their comments. For example, in excerpt 1 the first part of the sentence indicates that the findings were expected and in the second part (*as new and given information …*) the writers attempt to

explain why the finding was expected. Similarly, in excerpt 2, the first sentence states the writers' comment that the finding was *not surprising* which is followed by another sentence which tries to explain why the finding was not surprising.

1) <u>This was an anticipated result</u>, as new and given information is not distinguished primarily by the choice of referential form in Korean oral discourse; neither are third-person pronouns commonly used. (Quanti-PRAG1)

2) <u>The greater beneficial effect of analytic ability evident for the metalinguistic CF group is not surprising</u>. If language analysis is seen as a measure of learners' capacity to acquire explicit knowledge (in particular), it follows that such analytic skills will be more strongly related to gains in the group that receive metalinguistic CF, especially in a test such as an error correction test, which invites the use of metalinguistic knowledge. (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) A further hypothesis was that simple pragmatic phenomena are easier to recognize than complex phenomena are **[Providing Background Information]**. <u>The prediction was fundamentally confirmed</u> for mistakes, and our assumptions concerning the inferential load involved in the recognition of simple and complex mistakes were thereby substantiated. (Quanti-PRAG3)

In excerpt 4 below, the first sentence states the findings of the study. In the next sentences, the writers remark that *the findings are not particularly surprising* and try to explain and justify their findings by referring to other studies in literature and show that those studies had findings similar to theirs.

4) Although there were small differences in the means of the three treatment groups, the study found that none of the feedback options was any more effective than another **[Stating Findings]**. For several reasons, these findings are not particularly surprising given the growing evidence that has been reported in several recent written and oral CF studies (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2006). While one of these studies (Bitchener, 2007) found no difference between one of the direct treatment options (direct corrective feedback with written meta-linguistic explanation) and the control group, the other three studies found that learners who were exposed to all of the direct feedback options outperformed those who did not receive such feedback. (Quanti-LTR2)

5) Yet, contrarily to our prediction, complex deceits were easier to recognize than simple deceits were. (Quanti-PRAG3)

### 5.2.4   Move4: Comparing Findings with Literature

The main purpose of this move was to put the findings of the study in the context of previous research and compare and contrast them with existing findings, claims,

assumptions, or theories in literature. By doing so, the writers connected their findings with the field and showed the contribution of their studies to the literature. The analysis revealed that after Stating Findings and Commenting on Findings this move was the most occurred move in the sub-corpus and appeared in 12 RAs. It was mostly found after Move 2 (Stating Findings) or Move 3 (Commenting on Findings). Only in one instance it appeared before Move 2 (Stating Findings). Also, in a few cases, it was embedded in Move 2 (Stating Findings). The writers employed two strategies to compare their findings with literature: Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature and/or Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. Both strategies were identified almost equally in the sub-corpus.

### 5.2.4.1 Step 1: Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature

This step was used to show the agreement of the findings with literature. It was found in eight RAs. The comparison was made between the findings and a claim, theory, and assumption in literature (excerpts 1) and/or with findings of a specific study (excerpts 2-3). Though compared to the second case, the first case (making comparison with a claim or theory) was less frequent. In most cases, the writers referred directly to the study in the literature that they made the comparison and in a few cases they compared their findings with literature generally and without specifying a particular study. As was already mentioned, this step mostly appeared either after the writers stated their findings or after they stated their findings and commented on them. Only in one case in the whole sub-corpus (excerpt 4) it appeared before stating findings. Also, in a few cases (excerpts 5-6), this move was embedded in Move 2 (Stating Findings).

1) <u>From a theoretical standpoint, these findings are consistent with the resource-depletion hypothesis,</u> which posits that increased semantic processing can exhaust processing resources that otherwise could be used to encode the formal component of the target words during incidental vocabulary learning. As predicted by this hypothesis, synonym generation decreased L2 word-form learning in the incidental condition. (Quanti-TESOL2)

2) <u>These results confirm the earlier findings</u> of a relationship between grammar scores and general proficiency scores (see introduction). (Quanti-APP2)

3) <u>Our results are consonant with</u> others in adolescents (Nippold and Rudzinski, 1993; Nippold and Taylor, 1995; Nippold et al., 1996). (Quanti-PRAG2)

4) Schmidt further contends that such conscious rule awareness arising from understanding strongly facilitates later learning. <u>This is borne by the current study</u>, which found that longer-term gains favored the direct metalinguistic group. (Quanti-TESOL1)

5) <u>Similar to the work by Gibbs and colleagues, we found that</u> both renderings were read more quickly than the control phrases. This shows that the formulaic sequences were processed more quickly than equivalent nonformulaic language, but it did not seem to matter much whether the sequences carried an idiomatic or a literal meaning. (Quanti-APP1)

6) <u>Both Underwood et al. and this study show that</u> nonnatives read formulaic sequences more quickly than equivalent non-formulaic language. (Quanti-APP1)

### 5.2.4.2 Step2: Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature

The writers used this strategy to show differences of their findings with those in literature. It was identified in eight RAs and similar to the first step, the writers showed the inconsistency of their findings with a specific study's findings and/or with a claim or theory in literature. However, the instances of latter case were rare in comparison with the first one. In the below excerpts, excerpts 1-2 illustrate instances that the writers showed the inconsistency of their findings with findings of other studies in literature. In excerpt 3, the writers refer to a model in literature and indicate the conflict between their findings and the model. Excerpt 4 is an instance of the inconsistency of findings with a theory in literature. Although most of the times the move of Comparing Findings with Literature appeared as an independent move, in a few cases, as already illustrated in step 1, it was embedded in Move 2 (Stating Findings). Excerpt 5 is an instance of these cases.

1) It is interesting that, <u>in contrast to the study reported in this article, Bitchener et al. did not find</u> any statistically significant effect for direct corrective feedback alone (i.e., without metalinguistic comments). (Quanti-TESOL1)

2) This is an interesting finding because <u>earlier suggestions (Ferris, 1999; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Reid, 1998, 2005; Roberts, 1999) have tended to</u> identify international visa students as

being potentially more attuned to focusing on grammatical accuracy than migrant students… However, as the results of this study reveal, this was not the case. (Quanti-LTR2)

3) According to Bialystok's (1993) model, more proficient learners are able to executive attention to target pragmatic features more accurately than less proficient learners because of the former's automatized basic linguistic skills, which enable them to allocate more attentional resources for pragmatic targets. However, this was not the case in the context of the present study, suggesting that differences in linguistic proficiency (as measured by a standardized proficiency test) do not predict learners' levels of attention and awareness in L2 pragmatic input. (Quanti-APP3)

4) Though there is a theoretical basis for arguing that uptake can contribute positively to SLA, the data in the present study suggest that uptake had no effect on whether target items were acquired or not. These arguments are largely based on Swain's output hypothesis (1985, 1995) because uptake is a type of pushed output. Specifically, some researchers have suggested that uptake helps learners practice using linguistic items, arguably helping them to automatize retrieval of these items (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Uptake may also help learners test and subsequently revise faulty hypotheses about the target language (Ellis et al., 2001a). (Quanti-TESOL3)

5) Our within-subject analyses have shown significant differences between the two languages as regards the Korean EFL learners' use of referential expressions … That is, the Korean EFL learners in this study did differentiate their choices of referential expressions for the three main characters (the boy, the dog, and the frog) in the two languages, and direct language transfer (as documented in previous studies of L2 referential strategies; Gundel and Tarone, 1983; Jin, 1994; White, 1985) did not occur. (Quanti-PRAG1)

### 5.2.5 Move5: Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature

This move was used by the quantitative RA writers to explain the reasons that their findings were different from literature. It was realized by the step of Referring to Methodology. That is, the writers tried to link the inconsistency of their findings with literature to the different methodologies that they used. This move appeared after Move 4 (Comparing Findings with Literature). However, the analysis showed that it was not a frequent move and appeared only in two research articles in the sub-corpus. In both cases the comparison was made with findings of studies in literature rather than with a claim or theory. As can be seen in both of the below excerpts, first the writers indicate the inconsistency of their findings with those found in literature and then try to explain the inconsistency in relation to the different methodologies that they have used.

1) However, this study disagrees with earlier ones on the following points: here, context continued to play a role longer (in adults) than in previous studies (Cacciari and Levorato, 1989); the role

of linguistic convention was only found in adults in this study, while in other studies, it was clearly present by age 9 or 10 (Ackerman, 1982; Cacciari and Levorato, 1989; Levorato and Cacciari, 1992); and familiarity played an important role for 9-year-olds and adults, but in Levorato and Cacciari (1992), it already played a role for 7-year-olds…. **[Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature]** <u>The above mentioned age discrepancies may be linked to a specific characteristic of our method:</u> testing idiom comprehension in a literal context, i.e., a context that strongly induces a literal interpretation of the utterance. Other authors such as Cacciari and Levorato (1989) and Levorato and Cacciari (1992) have tested idiom understanding in an idiomatic context, a literal context, or without any context... (Quanti-PRAG2)

2) This finding is in contrast with the results of a previous study conducted by Bosco and Bucciarelli (2008). These authors confirmed the prediction derived from Cognitive Pragmatics theory assumptions, i.e., that simple deceits are easier to detect than complex deceits are **[Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature]**. <u>We believe that one can account for this inconsistency by considering that Bosco and Bucciarelli investigated</u> the ability to detect acts of deceit by using pragmatic tasks that were quite different from our own…<u>Our pragmatic tasks differed from Bosco and Bucciarelli's in that</u> they required children to revise their beliefs and because correct performance for each phenomenon required that the children respond correctly to all three questions. (Quanti-PRAG3)

### 5.2.6 Move6: Making Deductions

The communicative purpose of this move was to make inferences and logical conclusions based on the findings and discussions that were presented previously in the Discussion section. It usually presented the main points of the findings and appeared either towards the end of the Discussion section or after a specific finding was presented and commented on and/or compared with literature. In the latter case, the deductions that were made were more localized and related to that specific finding rather than to the whole study. The analysis showed that it appeared in nine RAs and was mostly expressed using tentative language and hedging words.

1) <u>Therefore, we cannot totally deny the beneficial effects of</u> explicit feedback in the structured input tasks. (Quanti-LTR1)

2) <u>Thus, it can be argued that</u> whereas both direct CF with and without metalinguistic comments are likely to promote awareness as noticing, only direct CF with metalinguistic comments promotes awareness with understanding. (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) <u>Thus, the instruction seemed to help them to</u> self-diagnose their learning difficulties, experiment with both familiar and unfamiliar strategies, and self-evaluate their performance. (Quanti-ESP1)

4) <u>In sum, the principle difference between children and adults in this situation is that</u> adults have a choice between two interpretations whereas children are constrained by the context. (Quanti-PRAG2)

### 5.2.7    Move7: Supporting Deductions

After stating deductions, in some cases, the writers supported them by referring to their findings and/or methodology. The analysis revealed that it was an infrequent move and appeared only in four RAs. It appeared either before or after Move 6 (Making Deductions). It was realized by three steps of Referring to Findings, Referring to Methodology, and Referring to Literature.

### 5.2.7.1    Step1: Referring to Findings

This step was identified only in one case in the whole sub-corpus (excerpt 1). As can be seen in the following excerpt, the writer makes a deduction in the first sentence and in the second sentence he refers to the findings of the study which has been presented previously to support the deduction.

1) Overall, the correlational analyses demonstrate that both implicit and explicit knowledge are implicated in language proficiency **[Making Deductions]**. <u>This conclusion is supported by the results of the regression analyses</u>. Just two implicit structures (comparative and conditional) were able to predict 34 per cent of the variance in the IELTS total scores while a different two explicit structures (indefinite article and relative clause) predicted 39 per cent of the variance in the IELTS total scores… **[Referring to Findings to Support the Deduction]** (Quanti-APP2)

### 5.2.7.2    Step2: Referring to Methodology

This step was found only in two cases in the whole corpus. In both cases, it appeared before Making Deductions. In these cases, the writers referred to their methodology trying to ensure the validity of findings and to emphasize that the results were due to the procedure they used. In other words, since the deductions that the writers made were based on their findings, the writers first emphasize that the findings they obtained were due to the procedure they had in their research and were valid.

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In the first excerpt below, the writers refer to the methodology they used and try to ensure the audience that the findings were valid. Then, in the last sentence, they go on and make a deduction. In the second excerpt, first the writers provide some background information on the treatment of their study, then, try to emphasize the validity of their findings and refer to literature to justify the method they used. In the last sentence, they go on and make a deduction based on what they had discussed previously.

1) The current study is different from previous written CF studies in that only one linguistic feature was targeted for the provision of CF and the tests developed measured students' written accuracy alone. During the 2-month period of this study, the teacher did not explicitly teach or correct articles outside the treatment. The students in all groups were of the same level of proficiency and received the same amount and type of instruction involving identical writing and reading materials. Thus, CF alone could be seen as responsible for the acquisition of English articles **[Referring to Methodology to Support the Deduction]**. Therefore, the findings of this study provide evidence that the focused written CF resulted in improved accuracy **[Making Deductions]** (Quanti-TESOL1)

2) During the three-week study, both groups followed the same course book which provided the learners with a number of exposures to the target vocabulary in several contexts, mainly through listening and speaking activities. While the control group learned/recalled vocabulary only through context, experimental group students had memory strategy instruction incorporated into the daily six-hour English instruction, in addition to the contextual learning. During the memory strategy instruction the teacher provided the students with the relevant theoretical knowledge about memory strategies and encouraged them to use these in their own vocabulary learning **[Providing Background Information]**. According to Macaro (2001) 'just making learners aware of the existence of strategies and exploring the range of available strategies' (p. 187) would not bring about effective strategy use. Learners in the present study were shown explicitly the strategies which they could try to achieve better learning and each strategy was modeled to the students. The learners discussed the strategies they found most effective with each other, and received help and feedback from the teacher. When they failed to memorize a new word, they tried another strategy, as they were aware of the existence of another strategy which they could fall back on **[Referring to Methodology to Support the Deduction]**. Thus, the instruction seemed to help them to self-diagnose their learning difficulties, experiment with both familiar and unfamiliar strategies, and self-evaluate their performance **[Making Deductions]**. (Quanti-ESP1)

### 5.2.7.3 Step3: Referring to Literature

The analysis of data revealed that this step appeared only in one RA. After the writers made a deduction, they referred to literature to support their deduction. Though within the deduction, they referred to literature as well. The following excerpt illustrates it.

1) The current study suggests that the negotiation routines, including those that did not lead to successful uptake, may have resulted in a higher involvement load <u>(Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001)</u>… <u>Ellis et al. (2001a) also support the notion that</u> learners attend much more closely to form when they are addressing problems that they themselves have identified. (Quali-TESOL3)

## 5.2.8 Move8: Evaluating the Study

This move was used either to highlight the importance of findings or state the limitation/s of the study. The analysis found this move in almost two thirds of the RAs (nine). It was realized by two steps of Stating Significance of the Study and/or Stating Limitations.

### 5.2.8.1 Step1: Stating Significance of the Study

This step which was used in five RAs to realize move 8 was used to evaluate the findings positively and highlight their importance and the contributions they made to literature. It appeared either after a specific finding or towards the end of the section. In the latter case, the significance was usually related to the overall findings of the study rather than to a particular one.

1) This study, combined with the research of Gibbs and colleagues (1997), and the eye-movement results from Underwood et al. (2004), <u>provide converging evidence</u> to support the processing advantage of formulaic sequences, at least when reading. (Quanti-APP1)

2) <u>The findings of this study are additionally important</u> because they have been tested with a large population than most earlier studies (see Table 1) and because they are the product of a study that sought to eliminate the limitations of earlier research. (Quanti-LTR2)

3) In addition, <u>they add to the evidence provided by previous studies</u> (Kasper, 1997; Murie & Thomson, 2001) that content-based ESL instruction provides long-term benefits that promote academic success. (Quanti-ESP2)

### 5.2.8.2 Step2: Stating Limitations of the Study

This step occurred towards the end of the Discussion section. It was less frequent in comparison with the first step and was used in four articles to realize the move and appeared only once in each section. In three cases, the step was followed by Move9-

Step2 where the writers recommended further research in order to fill up the limitations.

In the fourth case (excerpt 3), the writers mentioned the actions that could be taken to

eliminate the limitation. The stated limitations referred to the limitations of the method

including the sample size, the research procedure, and variables, which could affect

generalizability of the findings. The writers mentioned one or more limitations of their

studies and in one case (excerpt 2) after stating several limitations, they mentioned the

advantage of such a limitation.

1) In conclusion, as the current study investigation into the effects of strategy instruction was conducted with participants from one ESP program in Istanbul, the ability to generalize the data is limited … Moreover, the present study only assessed the short-term effects of memory strategy instruction on learners' vocabulary recall. (Quanti-ESP1)

2) The current study is limited in several in several ways. First, the study was not carried out in the context of L2 writing classes… Second, the writing task treatment was very short… Third, the study examined the effects of CF on just two relatively simple functions of English articles and clearly the results cannot be generalized to other areas of grammatical accuracy, or even to other aspects of articles. Fourth, the students in the treatment groups were not required to revise their writing. This might be considered a limitation. However, one advantage of excluding revision is that it allows for the effects of the CF treatment by itself to be investigated. (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) But for our findings to serve as a possible aid to decision-making in more general contexts linking language learning in higher education to the wider professional world, methodological limitations of the study must be noted. These primarily concern the questionnaire itself… Despite extensive piloting, a key informational point was in fact overlooked, that of respondents' actual jobs... Other possible questions could also have explored to what extent study or work placement abroad reflected graduates' intercultural needs and whether job interviews were conducted in a foreign language. More specific questions could also have addressed the particular tasks in the workplace... Finally, more consequential support would have enabled us to follow up non-respondents and to back up selected questionnaires with interviews for further qualitative insight. (Quanti-ESP3)

4) Because this study reports on the findings of only one delayed post-test **[Stating Limitations]**, further research is now required to determine whether learners are able to maintain this level of accuracy over a more extensive period **[Recommending Further Research]**. (Quanti-LTR2)

### 5.2.9   Move 9: Making Recommendations

This move which was identified in seven RAs was used to make suggestions for either

practice or research. The writers used two types of strategies to realize this move:

Making Suggestions for Practice and Recommending Further Research.

### 5.2.9.1 Step1: Making Suggestions for Practice

This step appeared only in two RAs. In one case (excerpt 1 below), after the writers stated and discussed their findings (that content-based instruction helps students to perform better in their English classes), they went on and made suggestions for practice by stating that content-based instruction should be more supported in institutions. In the next case (excerpt 2 below), after presenting and discussing the findings, the writers went on and made some suggestions for practice. Although the writers refer to these suggestions as the implications of their study, it seems that these suggestions are more for practice rather than the direct implications of the study. Since these statements were only suggestions of the writers, so they used hedging words to show tentativeness.

> 1) As more evidence becomes available that content-based instruction promotes long-term academic success, institutional support should continue for the existing content-linked ESL programs to grow and thrive, and new initiatives to replicate such programs will be endorsed. (Quanti-ESP2)

> 2) The present study has a number of implications for vocabulary learning. First, <u>memory strategy instruction should be integrated into</u> contextual vocabulary learning. After discovering the meaning of a word through different contexts, students should be guided to recall it via different memory strategies. Secondly, <u>rather than providing the learners with one or two strategies, the instruction should focus on</u> the whole array of strategies, and students should be asked to choose the most effective one(s) for themselves. In to provide the learners with the relevant instruction, <u>teachers themselves should have a good command of strategies</u>; thus, they should be instructed about strategy use and teaching. <u>The strategy instruction can be incorporated into the methodology courses</u> given at the teacher education programs. (Quanti-ESP1)

### 5.2.9.2 Step2: Recommending Further Research

This step which suggested new lines of inquiry was found in seven RAs. In some RAs it was identified once, while in some other cases it appeared more than one time in the section. It appeared either towards the end of the section after Stating Limitations or after Making Deductions or Commenting on the Findings. In excerpt 1, the recommendations were normally made to fill up the shortcomings of the study and in excerpts 2-4 the recommendation of a further research was made in order to verify the

comments or deductions the writers made. In other words, after the writers made deductions or commented on the findings, they stated that further research was needed in order to confirm the deduction and/or comment. Also, in one case (excerpt 5), after recommending further research, the writer made speculations about the findings of such a research and referred to his own findings to explain his prediction.

1) … Moreover, the present study only assessed the short-term effects of memory strategy instruction on learners' vocabulary recall **[Stating Limitations]**. Further research should be conducted to establish the long-term effects as well. Further research is also needed to complement the self-report data by means of data collected by interviews, think-aloud protocols and diaries, and evaluate the relationship between the use of learning strategies and different factors over time… **[Recommending Further Research]** (Quanti-ESP1)

2) It would seem therefore that teachers may be able to achieve the same results with their students if they simply offer error correction without written and/or oral meta-linguistic explanation when responding to linguistic categories that have been partially acquired **[Making Deductions]**. Further research is needed to discover whether this is sufficient for categories that are new to students or are more complex. Future research would also do well to separate and measure the effectiveness of direct WCF, written meta-linguistic explanation and oral meta-linguistic explanation as separate variables **[Recommending Further Research]**. (Quanti-LTR2)

3) The analysis shown in Table 12 suggests that two of the criteria (functional value, and processability) may be especially important in determining grammatical complexity as implicit knowledge **[Interpreting Findings]**. However, clearly, these (and other) factors need to be more thoroughly tested **[Recommending Further Research]**. (Quanti-APP2)

4) This result, combined with the analysis of referential choices for the boy, suggest that, when the main protagonist was involved in their speech, the Korean EFL learners tended to make choices that were similar to the native English speakers'… **[Interpreting Findings]** However, further analysis with a large sample size is necessary to study this phenomenon in second language discourse in more depth **[Recommending Further Research]**. (Quanti-PRAG1)

5) A more insightful line of enquiry might be to look for differences in the patterns of correlations involving oral and written language. It is not unreasonable to suppose that oral IELTS will favor implicit knowledge and written IELTS explicit knowledge. Oral language use draws more on automatic processing (a key feature of implicit knowledge), whereas written language allows for more controlled processing (a feature of explicit knowledge). This is borne out by the general pattern of correlations. Implicit knowledge of the grammatical features was more strongly related to oral IELTS than to written IELTS while the reverse was the case for explicit knowledge. (Quanti-APP2)

### 5.2.10 Move10: Summarizing the Study

This move appeared only twice in the whole sub-corpus. In one case (excerpt 1 below), it was employed to highlight the main findings of the study as a conclusion. In this

article, the Discussion section was the ending section of the RA. In the second case (excerpt 2 below), the move was used to summarize the whole findings of the study. In both cases, the move appeared as the last move of the Discussion section.

> 1) In conclusion, two results in our study should be highlighted. On the one hand, the role played by context in idiom comprehension remains important in adults… On the other hand, the overall late emergence of the role of familiarity… is crucial for the development of certain pragmatic aspects of language. (Quanti-PRAG2)

> 2) Thus, globally considered, the results of the correlations confirmed our expectations. Specifically, very young children's performance on the Reality question correlated with their attention capacity scores. As stated previously, this prediction was motivated by the fact that, to answer the question correctly, children had to recall what the declarant had said in the episode. Moreover, the very young children's performance on the Reality question also correlated with their performance on the verbal span test, as predicted based on the fact that participants had to rely on what the declarant had said to correctly answer the questions. The results of the correlation analyses for 7- to 11-year olds children also confirmed our predictions. In particular, their performance on the Listener's and Speaker's questions correlated with their performance on the mind reading test. The relative prediction had been based on the fact that, to correctly answer the questions, participants had to realize, respectively, where the listener in the episode thought the declarant was and to realize what the speaker in the episode believed. (Quali-PRAG3)

## 5.3 OCCURRENCES OF THE MOVES AND STEPS IN DISCUSSION SECTION OF THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

In the previous sections of this chapter, the ten moves along with the steps and sub-steps were described and examples from the data were provided to illustrate them. However, all of these moves, steps, and sub-steps did not appear in all the 15 RAs. Also, they did not occur with the same frequency in the whole sub-corpus. While some of them appeared in circles, some others did not. Focusing on these issues, this section describes the frequency of moves, steps, and their sub-steps in each RA, and their overall distribution in the sub-corpus, as well as the cycle of the moves identified in the data.

### 5.3.1 Frequency of Appearance of the Moves and Steps in the Sub-corpus

As already mentioned, the moves, steps, and sub-steps identified in the quantitative sub-corpus did not appear in all the 15 RAs. While some of them were frequent, some others

appeared only in a few articles. Table 5.2 illustrates the moves, steps, and sub-steps in each RA. These findings are summarized in Table 5.3 which shows the frequency and percentage of presence of moves in the 15 RAs.

Table 5.2:  Presence of the Moves, Steps and Sub-steps in Discussion Section of Each RA in the Quantitative Sub-Corpus

| Moves | Steps | Sub-steps | Articles | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | APP1 | APP2 | APP3 | ESP1 | ESP2 | ESP3 | PRAG1 | PRAG2 | PRAG3 | LTR1 | LTR2 | LTR3 | TESOL1 | TESOL2 | TESOL3 |
| 1 | - | - | √ | √ | | | | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 2 | 1 | - | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | 2 | - | | | | | | | | √ | | | | | | √ | |
| 3 | 1 | 1A | | √ | √ | √ | | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ |
| | | 1B | √ | | | | √ | | √ | | √ | √ | √ | | | | |
| | | 1C | | | √ | | | | | | | | | | √ | | |
| | 2 | 2A | | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ | | √ | | | | √ | √ | √ |
| | 3 | 3A | | | | | | | √ | | √ | | √ | | √ | √ | |
| | | 3B | | | | | | | | | √ | | | | | | |
| 4 | 1 | - | √ | √ | √ | | | | | √ | | | √ | √ | √ | √ | |
| | 2 | - | | | | √ | | | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ |
| 5 | 1 | - | | | | | | | √ | √ | | | | | | | |
| 6 | 1 | - | | √ | √ | √ | | | | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 7 | 1 | - | | √ | | | | | | | | | | | | | √ |
| | 2 | - | | | | √ | | | | | | | | | √ | | |
| | 3 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | √ |
| 8 | 1 | - | √ | | | | √ | | | | √ | | | √ | √ | | |
| | 2 | - | | | | √ | | √ | | | | | √ | | √ | | |
| 9 | 1 | - | | | | √ | √ | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 | - | | √ | √ | | | | | | √ | | | | √ | √ | |
| 10 | - | - | | | | | | | √ | √ | | | | | | | |
| **Total Types of Moves Identified** | | | 5 | 7 | 5 | 7 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 6 |

Table 5.3: Frequency and Percentage of Appearance of the Moves in the Quantitative Sub-Corpus

| Moves | Present in | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 1- Providing Background Information | 11 RAs | 73 |
| 2- Stating Findings | 15 RAs | 100 |
| 3- Commenting on Findings | 15 RAs | 100 |
| 4- Comparing Findings with Literature | 12 RAs | 80 |
| 5- Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | 2 RAs | 13 |
| 6- Making Deductions | 10 RAs | 67 |
| 7- Supporting Deductions | 4 RAs | 27 |
| 8- Evaluating the Study | 8 RAs | 53 |
| 9- Making Recommendations | 7 RAs | 47 |
| 10- Summarizing the Study | 2 RAs | 13 |

As the tables show, six moves out of ten appeared in more than 50% of the RAs. Meanwhile, two moves of Stating Findings (Move 2) and Commenting on Findings (Move 3) are the most frequent moves and appeared in all the 15 articles. Also, seven sections out of 15 started with move 2 (Stating Findings). Although Commenting on Findings was realized by three moves, the first step (Explaining) appeared in 14 RAs, the second step (Interpreting) appeared in nine RAs, while the third step (Evaluating) was found in five RAs. Meanwhile, the first sub-step of Explaining (Providing an Explanation) was more widely used (in 11 RAs) than the other two sub-steps, and the first sub-step of Evaluating (Indicating Consistency of Findings with Expected Findings/Hypotheses) was more commonly used (used in five RAs) than the second step (Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Expected Findings/Hypotheses) which was used in one RA.

The next most common move in the sub-corpus was Move 4 (Comparing Findings with Literature) which occurred in 12 RAs (80%). As already discussed, this move was realized by two steps of Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature and/or Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. Both of these strategies were used almost equally, the first step appeared in nine RAs and the second step in seven. The next two most frequent moves were Move 1 (Providing Background Information) which was found in 11 RAs (73%) and Move 6 (Making Deductions) which appeared in 10 RAs (67%). Move 1 was also the opening move of section in eight articles. In other words, the Discussion sections of the quantitative RAs either started with Move 1 (eight cases) or Move 2 (seven cases). The next move that appeared in more than 50% of the RAs was Move 8 (Evaluating the Study) which appeared in eight articles. As mentioned in previous sections, it was realized by two steps of Stating the Significance of Findings and/or Stating Limitations of the Study. Both steps

occurred almost equally. The first strategy was used in five RAs and the second in four RAs.

The remaining four moves were identified in less than 50% of the RAs. However, one of these moves (Move 9) was more frequent than the other three. Move 9 which appeared in seven RAs (almost half of the data) was realized by two steps of Making Suggestions for Practice and/or Recommending Further Research. While the second step seemed more favored and was incorporated in all the seven RAs that the writers made a recommendation, the first strategy was not frequent and was employed only in two RAs. The next least frequent move was Move 7 (Supporting Deductions) which was identified only in four RAs. The other two least frequent moves were Move 5 (Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature) and Move 10 (Summarizing the Study), each occurring only in two RAs (13%).

As the moves appeared with various frequencies in the RAs, the number of types of moves identified in each RA was different as well. The types of moves utilized varied from four moves in ESP2, ESP3, and PRAG1 to eight moves in TESOL1 (see Table 5.2). The average number of types of moves employed was 5.8. That is, the writers selected variously from the ten moves identified in the study in order to organize their Discussion sections. Nevertheless, as already explained, some moves were more frequent than the others and the two moves of Stating Findings and Commenting on Findings were employed by all the 15 RAs' writers.

### 5.3.2 Overall Frequency of the Moves and Steps in the Whole Sub-Corpus

As discussed in the previous section, the ten moves identified in the quantitative sub-corpus did not appear in all the 15 RAs. The analysis also showed that the moves, steps, and sub-steps did not occur with an overall similar frequency in the whole sub-corpus.

Table 4.5 shows the overall frequency of moves, steps, and sub-steps in the whole sub-corpus.

Table 5.4: Overall Occurrences of the Moves and Steps in Discussion Sections of the Quantitative RAs

| MOVES | STEPS | Sub-STEPS | APP1 | APP2 | APP3 | ESP1 | ESP2 | ESP3 | PRAG1 | PRAG2 | PRAG3 | LTR1 | LTR2 | LTR3 | TESOL1 | TESOL2 | TESOL3 | TOTAL (Step) | TOTAL (Moves) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | − | − | 3 | 3 | - | 2 | - | 2 | - | 1 | 1 | 3 | - | 2 | 4 | 2 | 2 | - | 25 (11.57%) |
| 2 | 1 | − | 3 | 4 | 8 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 52 (96.30%) | 54 (25%) |
|  | 2 | − | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 2 (3.70%) |  |
| 3 | 1 | 1A | - | 4 | 2 | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 2 | 2 | 29 (51.8%) | 56 (25.93%) |
|  |  | 1B | 1 | - | - | 2 | 1 | - | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - |  |  |
|  |  | 1C | - | - | 2 |  | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | - | - |  |  |
|  | 2 | 2A | - | 2 | 5 |  | 2 | 1 | 4 | - | 1 | - | - | - | 1 | 2 | 2 | 20 (35.70%) |  |
|  | 3 | 3A | - | - | - |  | - | - | 1 | - | 2 | - | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | - | 7 (12.50%) |  |
|  |  | 3B | - | - | - |  | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - |  |  |
| 4 | 1 | − | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | - | - | 3 | 3 | - | - | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | - | 16 (59.26%) | 27 (12.50%) |
|  | 2 | − | - | - | 2 |  | - |  | - | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 2 | 11 (40.74%) |  |
| 5 | − | − | - | - | - |  | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 (0.93%) |
| 6 | − | − | - | 2 | 3 | 1 | - | - | - | 1 | - | 2 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 3 | - | 21 (9.72%) |
| 7 | 1 | − | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2 (40%) | 5 (2.31%) |
|  | 2 | − | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | - | - | 2 (40%) |  |
|  | 3 | − | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 1 (10%) |  |
| 8 | 1 | − | 2 | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | 2 | - | 7 (63.6%) | 11 (5.09%) |
|  | 2 | − | - | - | - | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 4 (36.4%) |  |
| 9 | 1 | − | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 (15.4%) | 13 (6.02%) |
|  | 2 | − | - | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | - | 1 | - | - | - | 3 | - | 1 | - | - | 11 (84.6%) |  |
| 10 | − | − | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 (0.93%) |
| **Total Occurrences:** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 166 | 216 |

On the whole, 216 moves were identified in the 15 quantitative RAs. Move 3 with 56 occurrences (25.93% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) and Move 2 with 54 occurrences (25% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) were the two most widespread moves in the sub-corpus. Although Move 2 was realized by the two

steps of Reporting Findings and Summarizing Findings, as Table 5.4 illustrates, in over 96% of the cases it was realized by the first step and the second step appeared only two times in the whole data. The analysis also shows that while Move 3 was realized by three steps, in more than 50% of the cases it was realized by Step 2 (Explaining). The most frequent sub-step of this step was step1A with a frequency of 16 occurrences and its least widespread sub-step was 1C with a frequency of four occurrences. Meanwhile, the third step of Commenting on Findings (Evaluating) was the least frequent strategy used in the whole sub-corpus (7 occurrences, 12.5% of the move).

The next most occurred move in the sub-corpus was Move 4, Comparing Findings with Literature (27 occurrences, 12.50% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). The analysis showed that the first strategy, Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature, with 16 occurrences (59.26% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus), appeared around 50% more than the second step, Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature, with 11 occurrences (40.74% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). The other two moves each of which comprised around 10% of the whole moves were Move 1, Providing Background Information (25 occurrences, 11.57% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) and Move 6, Making Deductions (21 occurrences, 9.72% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus).

Three moves were the least frequent in the whole sub-corpus. They were Move 5, Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature, and Move 10, Summarizing the Study (each with 2 occurrences, 0.93% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) as well as Move 7, Supporting Deductions (5 occurrences, 2.31% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). The other two remaining moves (Move 8 and Move 9) appeared with a frequency of between 5.09% and 6.02% respectively. Whenever Move 8, Evaluating the Study, was identified, it was mostly (63.6% of cases) realized by Step

1 (Stating Significance) rather than Step 2 (Stating Limitations of the Study). Also, whenever Move 9, Making Recommendations, was present, it was mostly (84.6% of the cases) realized by Step 2 (Recommending Further Research) rather than Step 1 (Making Suggestions for Practice).

### 5.3.3  Cycle of the Moves

The analyses showed that some of the ten moves appeared in cycles. These moves were Move 1 (Providing Background Information, restating research question), Move 2 (Stating Findings), Move 3 (Commenting on Findings), Move 4 (Comparing Findings with Literature), Move 6 (Making Deductions), and Move8-Step1 (Stating Significance of Study). The cycles consisted of two to five moves; however, the obligatory move in each cycle was Move 2 (Stating Findings). The cycles started only with two specific moves, Move 2 (Stating Findings) and Move 1 (Providing Background Information). On the whole, the moves involved in the cycles were combined in various ways to form a cycle. Table 5.5 shows some of the arrangements of moves.

Table 5.5: Some Arrangement of the Cycles identified in the Quantitative Sub-corpus

| Cycles Starting with Move 1 (Providing Background Information, restating research question) | Cycles Starting with Move 2 (Stating Findings) |
|---|---|
| Moves (1+2+3) | Moves (2+3) |
| Moves (1+2+3+6+4) | Moves (2+4) |
| Moves (1+2+4+3) | Moves (2+3+4) |
| Moves (1+2+6) | Moves (2+3+8(1)) |
| Moves (1+2+3+6) | Moves (2+3+6) |
| Moves (1+2+6+3+4) | Moves (2+4+8(1)) |

It should be stated that by Move 1 it is meant the cases that was used to restate the research questions. Whenever the research questions were restated in the sections, they were the beginning move of cycles and were immediately followed by Move 2 (Stating Findings). In these cases, the cycles were at least as many as the number of

research questions that were restated. Though in some cases the number of cycles was more than the number of restated research questions, the writers stated more than one finding for a research question which became the opening move in a new cycle. In the cases that research questions were not restated, Move 2 was the opening move of the cycles.

Table 5.6: Examples of the Common Cycles Identified in the Quantitative Sub-corpus

| Move1 | The first question of this study was formulated to investigate the effects of PI, a type of TI that included a mixture of mechanical instruction and meaning-oriented instruction and MOI on the interpretation of sentences containing the targeted feature. The results of the statistical analysis |
|---|---|
| Move2 | clearly showed that the PI made significant improvement (from pre-test to post-test) on the interpretation task. The PI treatment was superior to the TI and MOI treatment in terms of helping learners to interpret utterances containing the English past tense. |
| Move4 | The findings on the sentence level task involving the interpretation of the English past simple tense support previous findings on PI research that indicated that PI is successful in altering learners' processing default strategy (in this case the 'Lexical Preference Principle'). |
| Move1 | The second question of this study sought to investigate the effects of the three treatments in the production of sentences containing the English past simple tense. |
|  | The results of the statistical analysis indicated that PI, TI and MOI made an equal improvement (from pre-test to post-test) on the production task (sentence-level task). Even in this case, the |
| Move2 | findings from the present experiment support the main results of previous research on PI, which showed that the PI group made significant similar gains from the pre-test to the post-test |
| Move4 | compared with the TI and MOI groups in production tasks. |
|  | The evidence obtained in this study on the production task suggests that the effects of PI not only have an impact on the way that learners interpret sentences but also on the way that learners produce sentences. PI has clearly altered the way learners processed input and this had |
| Move3 | an effect on their developing system and subsequently on what the subjects could access for production. (Quanti-LTR3) |
| Move2 | The comparison of the two groups' English narratives indicated significant differences between the two groups as to their use of referential expressions for the protagonist (the boy) and one of the main characters (the dog), but not for the joint references for the two main characters (the boy and the dog) or another main character (the frog)… This may indicate that, although the |
| Move3 | Koreans' referential choices in their English narratives diverged from the Korean narratives in the direction of narrative produced by the native English speakers, they still failed to achieve discourse cohesion in English discourse in the way the native English speakers did. |
| Move2 | Interestingly, there was no group difference or univariate difference for the use of joint reference (the boy and the dog) between the native English speakers' and the Koreans' English narratives. |
| Move3 | This result, combined with the analysis of referential choices for the boy, suggests that, when the main protagonist was involved in their speech, the Korean EFL learners tended to make choices that were similar to the native English speakers'. |
| Move4 | The Koreans' different treatment of the main protagonist in their English narratives also conforms with the referent effects that Hickmann and Hendricks (1999) found across languages. (Quanti-PRAG1) |

As already stated and can be seen in Table 5.5, the cycles consist of move 2 (Stating Findings) plus Moves 1, 3-6, and Move8-Step1. Although the moves were combined in various ways to make cycles, some were more common than the others. The most common cycle in the data was Move2+Move3 (Stating Findings + Commenting on Findings). In the cases that more than one comment was provided for a finding, the cycle consisted of stating a finding plus several comments on findings. The next most common cycle consisted of move2+Move3+Move4 where the writers stated their findings and commented on them and compared them with literature. The other common combination of moves in a cycle was Move1+Move2+Move4+Move3. Table 5.6 illustrates some of the common arrangements of moves with examples from the data.

## 5.4    SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented the generic structure of Discussion section of quantitative RAs identified by analyzing 15 RAs' Discussion sections. On the whole, 10 moves were identified. Most of them were realized by one to three steps. The sub-steps were also identified in one move (Commenting on Findings). All of the moves along with their communicative purposes, the strategies which were used to realize them, and sub-steps, whenever identified, were described along with excerpts from the data to illustrate them. The analyses revealed that there were two moves which appeared in all the 15 RAs' Discussion sections. They were Stating Findings and Commenting on Findings. The analysis of overall frequency of moves showed that these two moves are also the most widespread moves in the whole sub-corpus. Three other moves were identified which appeared in at least two thirds (10 RAs) of the sub-corpus. They included Providing Background Information, Comparing Findings with Literature, and Making Deductions. The study of the overall frequency of moves showed that these three moves were the

most widespread moves after Stating Findings and Commenting on Findings. Meanwhile, the analysis demonstrated that three moves of Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature, Supporting Deductions, and Summarizing the Study not only were the least frequent in the 15 RAs but also the least occurred moves in the whole sub-corpus. The analysis also identified some cycle of moves in the data. Two specific moves were the beginning of all cycles: Providing Background Information and Stating Findings. Meanwhile, Stating Findings was the core move in each and every cycle.

# CHAPTER 6

## A COMPARISON OF THE GENERIC STRUCTURES OF DISCUSSION SECTION OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

### 6.1    INTRODUCTION

Chapters 4 and 5 presented the generic structures of qualitative and quantitative RAs' Discussion sections identified by analyzing 15 qualitative and 15 quantitative RAs. This chapter focuses on comparing and contrasting these two generic structures, trying to account for the differences. After introduction, the next section presents and discusses the moves that appeared in both sets of sub-corpora. Then, the moves that appeared only in the qualitative sub-corpus are presented which is followed by a discussion on moves that appeared only in the quantitative sub-corpus. The next two sections are concerned with steps that appeared only in one of the sub-corpora. An overview of findings is presented in the following section which highlights the main findings and compares them with generic structure of Discussion sections identified in other studies. The last section is a summary of the chapter.

### 6.2    MOVES THAT APPEARED IN BOTH SUB-CORPORA

On the whole, the analysis showed nine moves that appeared in both sub-corpora. However, the frequency of some of these moves and in some cases the steps that were employed to realize them were different in the qualitative and quantitative RAs. In the following sub-sections these nine moves are presented and similarities and differences between the two sub-corpora (qualitative and quantitative) regarding each move are described and discussed.

### 6.2.1 Providing Background Information

One of the moves that was identified in both sub-corpora was Providing Background Information. However, some differences were noticed in terms of its presence as well as its overall frequency in the two sub-corpora. While it appeared only in four qualitative RAs, the move was identified in 11 quantitative RAs. Also, in terms of overall frequency, it appeared six times in the whole qualitative sub-corpus (comprising 3.7% of the whole moves) and 25 times in the whole quantitative sub-corpus (comprising 11.6% of the whole moves).

In the qualitative sub-corpus, in one case Providing Background Information was used to refer to the aim of the study, in another case to provide preview information, and in four cases to provide some technical information. In the quantitative data, it was used to restate the research questions, present the aim of the study, restate method, and provide technical and theoretical information. While only one section in the qualitative sub-corpus did start with this move, it was the initial move in eight sections in the quantitative sub-corpus. Whenever it stated the research question, in the quantitative articles, it was followed by reporting findings and possibly commenting on findings and/or other specific moves (it is discussed in detail in chapter 5, section 5.3.3).

One of the reasons for the difference of the presence and overall frequency of this move in the two sub-corpora can be related to the nature of the study and the arguments made in the Discussion section. As was stated in Chapters 4 and 5, one of the functions of Providing Background Information is to provide technical and theoretical information in order to help audience to follow writers' arguments more easily. As only in four cases the writers of the qualitative research articles employed this move to fulfill this purpose, it is possible that the writers assumed a certain amount of background information by readers and did not feel necessity for providing more technical or

theoretical information for their audience. Another function of this move is to restate the research questions. While the quantitative research writers used the move to fulfill this purpose, reiteration of research questions did not appear in the qualitative RAs' Discussion sections. Checking the whole articles in both sub-corpora, it was noticed that while only nine qualitative articles had formed research questions in previous parts of the RAs, all the 15 RAs in the quantitative sub-corpus had stated explicitly their research questions or hypotheses in the earlier parts of the RAs. This might be another reason for fewer occurrence of Providing Background Information in the qualitative sub-corpus compared to the quantitative sub-corpus.

The fact that more than one third of the qualitative RAs did not have any explicit research question might be "because in some investigations the research question would be, to a great extent, a restatement of the purpose of the study, some scholars actually omit it from the final research report" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 73). Although nine out of the 15 qualitative RAs had explicitly stated research questions in previous sections of RAs, none of them restated the research questions in their Discussion sections. This might be due to the different nature of research questions in qualitative and quantitative RAs.

Quantitative research is pre-structured and requires precision. In fact, "it is generally true that the more specific the research purpose/question, the better [it is]" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 75). Therefore, research questions are "prespecified" (Punch, 2005, p. 22) and research design and methodology are decided based on the research questions and the ultimate aim is to answer those research questions. However, research questions in qualitative research are "sufficiently open-ended to allow full exploration and the emergence of factors and issues during the process of the subsequent investigation, which the researcher might not have previously thought about" (Holliday, 2007, p. 31).

In other words, while research questions in quantitative research are mostly "prespecified and specific", research questions in qualitative research are more "general guiding questions" (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Punch, 2005, p. 22). According to Punch, "general" research questions "guide our thinking, and are of great value in organizing the project, but they are not themselves specific enough to be answered" (Punch, 2005, p. 35). Meanwhile, "specific" research questions "direct the empirical procedures, and are the questions which are actually answered in the research" (ibid.). As one of the specialist informants noted:

> It is more difficult to compress qualitative research into a research question. The kind of question that you have in qualitative research tends to be a different kind of question [than quantitative research]. You can reduce things to more narrow questions but I think that is not appropriate. So, I think this idea that you have a hypothesis and a negative hypothesis and you either prove that something is the case or isn't the case it tends not to work so well in qualitative… so the idea of research question is a little bit different [in qualitative research]. It's more of a guideline. But again it depends on what you are doing. (SpeInfo2)

Meanwhile, two of the specialist informants were of the opinion that restating research questions in Discussion section is a matter of the writers' style and preference. They stated:

> You know, I think there are ways that people are doing it differently. (SpeInfo1)

> I don't usually express the purpose of my research as a grammatical question, but rather as an aim… It usually seems 'neater' to express my research purpose as an aim rather than a question. I can't say any more than it is a personal preference. (SpeInfo3)

Similar to several other studies (R. Holmes, 1997; Lim, 2003; Swales, 1990; R. Yang, 2001), Providing Background Information was not found an obligatory move in this study. It appeared in both the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora, however, with different frequency. This difference can be attributed to the type and nature of the

topic of the study, the characteristics of qualitative and quantitative research, as well as the style and preference of writers.

### 6.2.2 Stating Findings

Another move which was identified in both sub-corpora was Stating Findings. It was identified in all of the RAs in the data. Using this move, the writers restated their findings objectively without making any comments on them. The move was the initial move in 13 qualitative and seven quantitative RAs. It was the core move in all the cycles in both sub-corpora (see sections 4.3.3 and 5.3.3). In terms of overall frequency, this move was the most occurred move in the qualitative sub-corpus (with 54 occurrences, 29% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) and the second most occurred move in the quantitative sub-corpus (with 54 occurrences, 25% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus). In other words, Stating Findings comprised at least a quarter of all the moves in each cub-corpus. This shows the importance of bringing back the selected findings before writers comment on them and make an argument.

While the move was realized by one step (Reporting Findings) in the qualitative sub-corpus, the quantitative RA writers used two strategies (Reporting Findings and Summarizing Findings) to realize it. However, the second step (Summarizing Findings) was not a frequent step and appeared only two times in the whole sub-corpus. In both cases, it was the opening step of the sections where the writers provided a summary of the main findings. This step was not identified in the qualitative sub-corpus probably because of the nature of qualitative data which "unlike quantitative data, …are much more detailed and, as a result, important context and depth may be lost when summarizing the findings to a more generic level" (C. White, Woodfield, & Ritchie, 2003, p. 301).

The analysis showed that Stating Findings appeared in all the RAs in both sub-corpora. Several studies analyzing RAs from different disciplines, including: Swales (1990), R. Holmes (1997, social science RAs), Posteguillo (1999, computer science RAs), R. Holmes (2000, Agricultural Economics RAs), Peacock (2000, seven various disciplines), and R. Yang (2001, Applied Linguistics), found Stating Findings (or its equivalent moves such as Statement of Results and Findings) though not obligatory, at least quasi-obligatory and the most common move in the Discussion section. It seems that restating findings in Discussion section is a common move in various disciplines.

### 6.2.3   Commenting on Findings

The next common move in both sub-corpora was Commenting on Findings which appeared in all the 15 quantitative and 12 (out of 15) qualitative RAs. In terms of overall frequency, the move was the second most occurred move (with 34 occurrences, 18.4% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) in the qualitative sub-corpus and the first most occurred move (56 occurrences, 26% of all the moves identified in the sub-corpus) in the quantitative sub-corpus. In other words, around one fifth of the whole moves in the qualitative sub-corpus and a quarter of the whole moves in the quantitative sub-corpus were Commenting on Findings.

As was already mentioned, while this move was present in all the 15 quantitative RAs, it was identified in 12 qualitative articles. The three qualitative RAs which lacked Commenting on Findings were Quali-APP3, Quali-ESP3, and Quali-TESOL3. Quali-APP3, according to its authors, is a qualitative, *descriptive* case-study which has used interviews and classroom observation in order to "investigate the relation between the three teachers' beliefs about the use of Singlish in their classrooms and their actual classroom feedback practices" (Farrell & Kun, 2007, p. 358). According to Punch (2005, p. 15), "to describe is to draw a picture of what happened, or how things are

proceeding, or of what situation or a person or an event is like". The purpose of a descriptive study, thus, is initially to provide an accurate and detailed description of a particular context, phenomenon, individual or a group. In this sense, the writers of Quali-APP3 were not concerned with commenting on their findings but rather providing an accurate account of the teachers' beliefs and actions in their classrooms about the use of "standard" English.

The second RA without Commenting on Findings was Quali-ESP3. This research according to its authors is an "exploratory and preliminary" study which tries to explore "the level of consistency between the linear, deductive discourse pattern recommended for school writing and the actual structure of reading materials" (Shi & Kubota, 2007, p. 180) in school textbooks as they believe that little knowledge exists on this matter. As Punch (2005, p. 15) states, in exploratory studies, "it is very sensible to focus on systematic description as the objective of the research". Therefore, the focus of the Quali-ESP3 writers have not been on explaining or interpreting the findings but rather on describing the phenomena and using the findings to make suggestions for teaching writing at schools.

The third RA without Commenting on Findings was Quali-TESOL3. The aim of the study was "to investigate what differentiated higher quality from lower quality negotiation-of-meaning interactions as well as the consequences of these interactions in a storytelling task" (Ko, Schallert, & Walters, 2003, p. 303). To achieve this aim, the writers posed three "what" questions whose focus was "description". As the stated aim and research questions show, the purpose of writers was more description rather than interpretation or explanation of the phenomena. Therefore, while Commenting on Findings seems an important move in Discussion section of RAs in Applied Linguistics, it can be concluded that the aim of the study (e.g. describing, interpreting, explaining)

and the type of research questions (e.g. what, why, how) affect the presence or absence of the move in the section.

As was already discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, the move of Commenting on Findings was realized by three steps of Explaining, Interpreting and Evaluating. Among these three steps, Evaluating was the least frequent in both sub-corpora (five moves out of 34 Commenting on Findings move in the qualitative and seven out of 56 Commenting on Findings move in the quantitative RAs). The step was realized by different sub-steps in the two sub-corpora. In the qualitative RAs when the writers used this step, they either provided an evaluation or referred to literature to provide an evaluation about what they had observed and found, e.g. teachers' methods of teaching or students' perceptions about a specific issue. However, in the quantitative research, the writers used this step to show consistency/inconsistency of their findings with their own/field's expectation/hypothesis.

In terms of the other two steps, Explaining and Interpreting, although they were identified in both sub-corpora, their frequency and sub-steps were varied in these two sets of RAs. As was mentioned in Chapters 4 and 5, Explaining was used by the writers to identify the cause of a phenomenon and explain why the findings were achieved, and Interpreting was used to make meaning of the findings. Among these two steps, Explaining was more frequent in the quantitative sub-corpus and Interpreting in the qualitative sub-corpus. In the quantitative RAs, 14 out of 15 RAs employed this step, while Interpreting was identified only in nine RAs. Also, in terms of overall frequency, more than 50% of the whole Commenting on Findings move was Explaining. With regard to the qualitative RAs, in all the 12 RAs that included Commenting on Findings, Interpreting was identified. Meanwhile, Explaining was only identified in six qualitative RAs. In terms of overall frequency, 61% of the whole Commenting on Findings move

was realized by Interpreting in the qualitative sub-corpus. These differences can be attributed to the differences of qualitative and quantitative research and the type of understanding they try to generate.

As was discussed in chapter 1 section 1.2, quantitative research is based on the assumption that world is governed by a set of fixed rules of cause and effect and the researcher needs to test these rules in order to confirm or reject them. Therefore, the researcher needs to break down the "pre-existing objective reality" into small variables, and to test and identify relationships between or among these variables. In general, the focus of quantitative research is "to describe variables, examine relationships among variables, and determine causality among variable" (Burns & Grove, 2005, p. 24). The ultimate aim, thus, is to identify general patterns among selected variables in order to make predictions, and generalize to other contexts and situations. Therefore, the main emphasis of quantitative research is to determine whether there is a relationship between or among variables and identify evidence to show a "law-like" cause and affect (causality) relationship. In this sense, it is not surprising that the quantitative RA writers focus on explaining how and why the findings are obtained and as a result employ different strategies in their writings to achieve that.

The analysis of the data showed that in some cases the qualitative RA writers also used Explaining to comment on their findings. The idea that explanations can be provided in qualitative research has been controversial in the literature. Some researchers (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) argue that qualitative research is concerned with meanings, thus, law-like and predictable causal relationships cannot be attributed to social world. On the other hand, another group of researchers (Maxwell, 2005; Maxwell & Loomis, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Spencer, Ritchie, & O'Connor, 2003) argue in favor of explanations in qualitative research. These researchers argue

that explanations can be used in both qualitative and quantitative research but the kind of explanations they provide are different. While in quantitative research explanations are at the level of cause, in qualitative research explanations are more concerned with showing how "different meanings and understandings within a situation come together to influence the outcome" (Spencer, Ritchie et al., 2003, p. 215). Spencer et al. remark that (2003):

> It is our view that qualitative explanations attempt to say why patterns and outcomes in the data have occurred. These explanations may use a causal logic in a loose, non-universal, non-deterministic sense, but the logic is not based on linear variables analysis. They rarely cite a single cause or reason, but set out to clarify the nature and interrelationship of different contributory factors or influences – such as personal intentions, patterns of understanding, norms and situational influences. (p. 216)

These discussions can be applied to the explanations that this study is trying to provide in this chapter for the findings. For example, in section 6.2.1 it was tried to offer some reasons for why Providing Background Information was found more frequently in the quantitative RAs than in the qualitative ones. However, the purpose was not to provide *deterministic* reasons for this finding; rather, by providing explanations it was hoped to better understand the process of writing in these two types of RAs. It should be noted that no attempt was made to study the types of explanations that were used in the qualitative RAs. Further research might provide insightful explanation in this regard by shedding light on the debates on this issue in literature.

While the quantitative RA writers favored Explaining their findings, the qualitative RA writers mostly focused on Interpreting in commenting on their findings. Unlike quantitative research which is focused on deterministic causal relationships, prediction and generalization, qualitative research is concerned with understanding. According to Little (1991, p. 68), understanding or interpreting "involves discovering the meaning of an event or practice in a particular social context". As Creswell (2003, p.

9) remarks, the aim of qualitative researcher is to "interpret" the multiple meanings that "others have about the world". Interpretation is an important element in most qualitative researches, to the extent that the concepts of "qualitative research" and "interpretive research" are used interchangeably by some researchers. Interpretation "essentially involves reading through or beyond the findings" which "moves the whole analytic process to a higher level" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 132) and "provides the reader with reasonable insights that were not obvious at first glance" (Struwing & Stead, 2007, p. 172). In this sense, it is not surprising that the qualitative research writers mostly focused on interpreting their findings whenever they provided a comment. They went beyond the 'objective' description and tried to offer reasonable insights into the issue and provide interpretation which "gives meaning to the raw data" (ibid.).

It was discussed in Chapters 4 and 5 that Explaining findings was realized by various sub-steps. Both in the qualitative and the quantitative RAs, the writers employed two sub-steps of Providing an Explanation and Providing Alternative Explanations. However, the second sub-step, particularly in the quantitative RAs, was less common than the first one. One of the reasons that the writers provided more than one explanation might be the fact that no particular and exact explanation can be identified for a finding. Also, it is possible that the writers looked from different perspectives to their findings trying to show that they were aware of and had fully considered all the possibilities in their discussion in order to prevent counterclaims.

The qualitative research writers used the sub-step of Providing an Interpretation by Referring to Literature which was not identified in the quantitative RAs. Nevertheless, it was not a common sub-step and appeared only in four cases in the whole sub-corpus. On the other hand, the quantitative RA writers used another extra sub-step of Providing an Explanation by Referring to Literature in order to explain their

findings. This sub-step which was an infrequent sub-step in the quantitative articles and was found only four times in the whole sub-corpus was not encountered in the qualitative RAs.

Ritchie, Spencer and O'Connor (2003) and C. White et al. (2003) state that one of the common ways for writers to comment on their findings is to draw on other studies and 'borrow' ideas, concepts, and explanations from literature. Therefore, apart from providing their own interpretations and explanations of their finding, writers use interpretations, explanations, and concepts in literature to make comments on their findings.

Given that the quantitative research writers focused strongly on Explaining their findings than their qualitative counterparts, and meanwhile, the qualitative writers favored Interpreting their findings more than their quantitative counterparts, it is not surprising that the quantitative research writers use more options in Explaining and quantitative research writers employ more options in Interpreting their findings.

To conclude, the analysis of data showed that Commenting on Findings is an important move in both qualitative and quantitative RAs' Discussion sections in Applied Linguistics. As was already discussed, this move was identified in all the 15 quantitative RAs and 12 qualitative RAs. Examining the three qualitative RAs which lacked this move, it was noticed that the writers had mentioned their aim as description, and therefore, they had not gone beyond description to explain, interpret, or evaluate their findings. Therefore, the aim of the study (e.g. description, explanation, evaluation) seems a factor for the presence of Commenting on Findings in Discussion section of RAs. Also, the analysis shows that the type of the research (qualitative and quantitative) has an impact on the strategies that the writers use to comment on their findings.

While this study identified Commenting on Findings as an important move in both sub-corpora, Swales (1990) did not include this move in his model. A partial equivalent move to this move was Explaining which Swales sates is optional and can be used to explain *unexpected* outcomes. Similarly, Dudley-Evans (1994) used Explanation in his model which deals with unexpected results and R. Holmes (1997) identified Explanation of Unsatisfactory Result. Meanwhile, Nwogu (1997), analyzing medical RAs, identified Explaining Specific Research Outcome. However, the move is not an equivalent to the move of Commenting on Findings identified in this study; as Nwogu proposes completely different steps (such as, Indicating Significance of the Outcome, Contrasting Present and Previous Outcomes, Indicating Limitations of Outcomes) for the move. Meanwhile, Posteguillo (1999) analyzing computer science RAs, using Swales' (1990) model, and R. Holmes (2000) studying Agricultural Economics RAs and Peacock (2002) analyzing 252 articles from seven different disciplines, both using Dudley-Evans'(1994) model, did not find Explaining and Explanation of Unsatisfactory Result a common move. In the most relevant research to the present study, R. Yang (2001) identified Commenting on Findings as an obligatory move in the Discussion sections of RAs in Applied Linguistics.

The findings of this study and R. Yang's indicate that Commenting on Findings is an essential move in Discussion section of RAs in Applied Linguistics and as R. Yang suggests, the communicative focus of the Discussion section of RAs in this field, reasonably, seems to be Commenting on Findings. It appears that only presenting the findings and leaving the readers to find explanations for them or interpret them is not accepted in this field. Furthermore, as more than one explanation, interpretation, and evaluation can be made out of a finding, it seems necessary for writers to make clear their personal comments on the finding. Therefore, it is the writers' responsibility that not only to present their findings but also to make comments on them and explore their

significance. Thus, in this section writers go beyond their findings and present their own understanding of them. Although restating findings was identified as an obligatory move in the data, "it is not sufficient to reiterate the findings of … study, although this is a good place to begin" (Rudestam & Newton, 2001, p. 168). A key point that a good Discussion section needs to address, according to Paltridge and Starfield (2007, p. 154), is "saying not just what the study has done, but also 'what does it mean'". As Swales and Feak (1994, p. 195) state, effective Discussion sections, unlike results, are based on "points" which are interpretive rather than "facts" which are descriptive. Furthermore, as Basturkmen (2009) remarks, Commenting on Findings is important as by doing so writers make new knowledge claims and try to persuade their audience to accept them. Thus, researchers in Applied Linguistics seems to take the responsibility to make necessary comments on their findings by stating possible explanation(s), showing what the findings mean and evaluating them. When asked about the importance of commenting on finding, one of the specialist informants noted that it is important because:

> The facts alone do not speak. The facts need to be seen in some perspective. I see that's what qualitative and quantitative do (SpeInfo4).

### 6.2.4   Comparing Findings with Literature

Comparing Findings with Literature was another move which appeared in both sub-corpora. Although not identified in all RAs, it was a widespread move. It appeared in nine qualitative and 12 quantitative RAs. Its overall frequency in the qualitative sub-corpus was 14 (7.6% of all the moves) and in the quantitative sub-corpus 26 (12.1% of all the moves). It has been emphasized widely in the literature that a well-written Discussion section needs to relate the findings of the study to the relevant literature (e.g. Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Paltridge &

Starfield, 2007; Perry 2005). Therefore, in addition to stating findings and commenting on them, it is also an important stage that writers make connections between existing knowledge and their own study and demonstrate a clear connection between present study and previous theory and research and show how their work "is important in the "bigger picture"" (Cargill & O'Connor, 2009, p. 10). By critically engaging with literature, the writers contextualize their study and help their audience to understand how the findings are connected to previous work and how they support or challenge earlier studies (Mackey & Gass, 2005). As Petric (2007, p. 246) states, by citing other researchers' work and indicating similarities and differences of one's own work and the cited ones, writers foreground their own research and position it in relation to the other works and show their contribution to the field. In Hyland's (2005a) words:

> Explicit reference to prior literature is a substantial indication of a text's dependence on context and thus is a vital piece in collaborative construction of new knowledge between writers and readers… New work has to be embedded in the literature of the community to demonstrate its relevance, importance and the credentials of the writer. (p. 159)

Therefore, by employing this move, writers position new findings within the body of existing knowledge and connect it to the wider field:

> I don't see that this section is an attempt at a dispassionate comparison of my findings in relation to the existing literature, but rather I see the Discussion section as presenting an argument that relates to the wider research question. (SpeInfo3)

Although this move was not identified in all the RAs of the corpus, it was noticed that the writers tried to contextualize their study using other strategies as well. For example, the writers used *referring to literature* to realize different moves such as Commenting on Findings, Supporting Comments on Findings, Supporting Suggestions/Deduction. In some cases the writers tried to show the contribution of their study by Stating Significance and Making Suggestions as well as Making Deductions.

Therefore, in some RAs' Discussion sections the writers did not compare their findings with literature but used other moves and steps to fit their study in the field and relate it to theory and practice. By skimming the Conclusion sections of the RAs, it was noticed that the move was also used in the Conclusion sections in some cases:

1) Some studies in the literature have found similar cue sensitivity for detecting deceit in children and adults. For example, Rotenberg and Sullivan (2003) observed that both adults and children (as young as 5 years of age) associate indirect gaze and active limb movement with lying. (Quanti-PRAG3, Comparing Findings with Literature in Conclusion Section)

2) Similar to the findings of Gibbs et al. (1997), our study showed a significant processing advantage for formulaic sequences over nonformulaic language. (Quanti-APP1, Comparing Findings with Literature in Conclusion Section)

3) The situation that has been described in this study seems to support Steffy and English's (1997) layered curriculum hypothesis. (Quali-LTR3, Comparing Findings with Literature in Conclusion Section)

4) Relative to previous uptake research, the findings in this study are similar in some ways and different in others. (Quanti-TESOL3, Comparing Findings with Literature in Conclusion Section)

The move (Comparing Findings with Literature) was realized by two steps of Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature and Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature in both the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. However, in both types of articles, the use of latter was less common compared to the first step, and it was even much less frequent in the qualitative sub-corpus. To be specific, Indicating Inconsistency appeared only two times in the whole qualitative sub-corpus and 10 times in the whole quantitative sub-corpus. Investigating the intentions of writers in citing specific resources, Case and Higgins (2000, pp. 640-641) found "negative citation", such as reference that "illustrates a perspective or finding that contradicts a perspective or finding" quite rarely in writers' own study. They suggested that writers apparently prefer citing documents that are "supportive of what they write" (p. 636).

However, during the interviews with specialist informants, they stated that showing consistency or inconsistency of findings is not intentional but is decided based on the findings. They remarked that finding something different from literature and challenging literature can be an interesting finding:

> I think it [stating consistency or inconsistency of findings with literature] depends on where the data leads you. I think it's a valuable insight if you can see your findings show something different that has been found before. So it's interesting that you are contradicting with what somebody else said and in that sense you're creating an argument with somebody, challenging their findings and that's how science should work. That's how we should search for truth. At the same time, the findings could lead you to that your findings are consistent with other people's work … So it's hard to know in beginning what we're going to find. I also think there is the rhetoric of writing of the discussion section. So if you can show your findings go along with what other people have found to support the current paradigm but I also think it is interesting to try to challenge the current view point and to see the problems that your data is inconsistent with that. So I can see both techniques to be used rhetorically in a discussion section. (SpeInfo4)

### 6.2.5  Making Deduction

The next common move in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora was Making Deductions which was identified in 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs. Occurring in two thirds of RAs, it seems a common move in both types of articles. As was discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, the move was used to make conclusions about findings. These conclusions either went beyond the findings of the study and were in the form of generalization or were related and localized to the study itself and were not intended to make generalizations. Considering the communicative purpose of the move, it seems reasonable that deductions and making conclusions appear in Conclusion sections as well. Skimming the Conclusion sections of RAs, some instances of the move was identified in this section as well:

1) In sum, this study shows that Korean EFL learners need more training in using their English linguistic and pragmatic knowledge and oral language skills effectively to achieve discourse cohesion in extended discourse. (Quanti-PRAG1, Making Deductions in Conclusion Section)

As was discussed in Chapter 2, this move has been identified in several studies under the label of Generalization, Deduction and Hypothesis, and Claim. However, as was discussed in that chapter, Making Deductions which has been identified in this study is slightly different from those studies. The move in this study does not necessarily refer to those segments of texts that show generalization, though it might. In spite of this difference, it is worth to review the findings of other studies regarding this move. According to Swales (1990), the move of Deduction or Hypothesis is an optional move in Discussion section. Meanwhile, Posteguillo (1999) studying computer science RAs, R. Holmes (2000) investigating Agricultural Economics RAs, and Peacock (2000) analyzing RAs from seven various disciplines found this move as one of the most frequent moves in their data. The analysis of the data of this study also shows that the move, though used slightly differently from those studies, is a frequent move in both sub-corpora. This might indicate the writers' tendency for making conclusions after presenting and discussing their findings. Though, because of the communicative purpose of the move it might also appear in Conclusion section too.

### 6.2.6 Supporting Deductions/Suggestions

Another common move in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora was Supporting Deductions. In the qualitative sub-corpus the move included supports for deductions and suggestions but in the quantitative sub-corpus only the deductions were supported. However, it was an uncommon move in the corpus and only did appear in four qualitative and four quantitative RAs. The move was used to provide evidence for the deductions/suggestions that the writers made. In other words, after making logical conclusions from the study or making suggestions for practice, the writers tried to back them up and provide evidence that justified their statements. The support came from different sources and the writers used different strategies to provide such evidence.

The qualitative research writers referred to their data and/or literature to support their deductions and suggestions in order to convince the audience that the conclusions and suggestions they are making are based on and supported by their data/literature. The quantitative research writers used three strategies of referring to their findings, method, and literature to support their deductions. When they referred to their method to support their deductions, the writers tried to ensure the reliability of their study and convince the audience that the findings that were achieved were because of the research design they used. As the deduction they made was directly related to the reliability of the method they used, they put referring to method and ensuring its reliability before making their deductions.

Swales (1990) uses the move of Reference to Previous Research to compare the findings with previous research and/or support the present study. Dudley-Evans' (1994) model also includes the same move which can be used to compare the findings with literature and/or support the claims and explanations they make. The move of Supporting Deductions/Suggestions in this study covers the second step of Swales' and Dudley-Evans' Reference to Previous Research move. Several other studies (e.g. R. Holmes, 1997, 2000; Posteguillo, 1999; Peacock, 2000) which have adopted Swales' or Dudley-Evans' model have identified Reference to Previous Research as one of the common moves in their data. However, as was stated earlier, in these models, the move was used to compare and/or support the study and is not equivalent to Supporting Deductions/Suggestions. So, no comparison can be made in this regard.

### 6.2.7 Evaluating the Study

Evaluating the Study is another move which appeared in both the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. It was not a frequent move and appeared in five qualitative and eight quantitative RAs. As was discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, the move was

realized by two steps. The writers either stated the significance of their studies and/or their limitations. While the first step (Stating Significance) was identified in four qualitative and five quantitative RAs, the second step (Stating Limitations) was even less common and appeared in two qualitative and four quantitative RAs. In terms of overall frequency, the first step (with five occurrences in the qualitative and seven occurrences in the quantitative RAs) was more frequent than the second step (with two occurrences in the qualitative and four occurrences in the quantitative RAs).

Checking the macro structure of RAs, it was noticed that one of the RAs (Quali-ESP2) had a separate section, after the Discussion section, titled Limitations and Directions for Further Research where the writer had extensively discussed the limitations of the study and the future lines of inquiry. In her analysis of primary and secondary RAs in Applied Linguistics, R. Yang (2001) found several moves that were common in Discussion and Conclusion sections. One of these moves was Evaluating the Study. Upon skimming the Conclusion section of RAs in the data of this study, it was noticed that the move was present in some RAs' Conclusion section as well. Among them were Quanti-APP1, Quanti-APP2, Quanti-PRAG1, Quanti-ESP2, Quanti-LTR3, Quanti-TESOL3, Quali-ESP1, and Quali-PRAG2:

1) In considering these findings, it is important to take into account the limitations of the study. (Quanti-APP2, Stating Limitations of the Study in Conclusion Section)

2) Because of its modest sample size, and also because it was conducted at a single school, where most students had the same or similar proficiency in English, the present study allows for limited generalizations only. (Quanti-PRAG1, Stating Limitations of the Study in Conclusion Section)

3) This study provides further evidence that in addition to short-term merits, content-based language instruction has long-term benefits that impact students' future academic performance. (Quanti-ESP2, Stating Limitations of the Study in Conclusion Section)

4) The results from the study presented in this paper have made a number of contributions to the ongoing debate on the effects of PI when compared to TI and MOI. (Quanti-LTR3, Stating Significance in Conclusion Section)

5) Whilst these provide a reasonably rich description of contextualization practices used by students in presenting their architectural designs, this forms only a partial account of the generic complexity of this assessment task, as discussed earlier in this article. (Quali-ESP1, Stating Limitations of the Study in Conclusion Section)

6) This study has employed a small number of subjects for the fine-grained analysis of learners' knowledge of CCs. Thus, generalization of the findings of the study would require a larger sample of data. (Quali-PRAG2, Stating Limitations of the Study in Conclusion Section)

Evaluating the study by stating the strengths and limitations of it has been suggested as one of the necessary elements of Discussion or Conclusion sections by several writers (e.g. Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Perry 2005). According to Mackey and Gass (2005), the main purpose of stating the limitations of the study is not to show the weaknesses of it, rather to prevent overgeneralization of findings and show "what cannot be concluded from the study in question" (Swales & Feak, 1994, p.201).

Some of the models and studies in literature have not included or identified any equivalent move to Evaluating the Study (e.g. Swales, 1990; R. Holmes, 1997). Dudley-Evans' (1994) model has a separate move labeled as Limitations. Nwogu (1997) also identified Indicating Significance of the Outcome and Indicating Limitations of Outcomes as two steps of Explaining Specific Research Outcome. As was mentioned previously, R. Yang (2001) identified Evaluating the Study as a common move in Discussion and Conclusion sections. The present study showed that while the move of Evaluating the Study was an infrequent move in Discussion section, instances of it were observed in Conclusion sections and even in one case a separate section was used to discuss the limitations. However, as R. Yang (2001, p. 297) remarks, "it would be misleading to assume that these moves [the moves which are common in Discussion and Conclusion sections] would always appear in the sections following the Discussion if they are not in Discussion section". As this study is focused only on Discussion section, no detailed analysis was done to verify this issue but it can be said that

Evaluating the Study is not a "must occur" move in Discussion section of either qualitative or quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics.

### 6.2.8 Making Recommendations

The next common move in both sub-corpora was Making Recommendations. It was identified in six and seven RAs in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively. The move was realized by two steps of Making Suggestions for Practice and Recommending Further Research. The first step occurred in four qualitative and two quantitative RAs, while the second step was found in five qualitative and seven quantitative RAs. On the whole, the move did not seem to be a common move in the corpus.

R. Yang's (2001) analysis showed that Recommending Further Research and Drawing Pedagogic Implications, which she placed under the move of Making Deductions from the Research, was a common move in Discussion and Conclusion sections. In the same line, other writers (e.g. Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Perry 2005) also state that these strategies can be included in Discussion or Conclusion sections or can appear as a separate section in RAs. Though this study is focused on Discussion sections, the macro structure of the RAs and Conclusion sections were skimmed to obtain a general idea about this issue. It was noticed that after Discussion, five RAs had a separate section entitled Conclusion and Implications (Quali-APP1, Quali-TESOL3, Quali-PRAG3, Quanti-TESOL3, and Quanti-ESP3), one RA had included a section entitled Limitations and Directions for Further Research (Quali-ESP2), one RA had a section entitled Implications for SLW (second language writing) (Quali-ESP3), and one RA had a separate section entitled Pedagogical Implications (Quanti-TESOL2).

Skimming the Conclusion sections, it was also noticed that in several cases the writers had made suggestions for practice or research in these sections (e.g. Quanti-LTR1, Quanti-LTR2, Quanti-LTR3, Quanti-TESOL3, Quanti-ESP2, Quanti-APP1, Quanti-PRAG1, Quanti-ESP3, Quali-PRAG2, Quali-APP2, Quali-ESP1, and Quali-LTR1).

1) The effects of different types of input-based tasks should be examined. It would be also more insightful to investigate the effects of different types of feedback (e.g. implicit feedback) by comparing an input-based task with and without the feedback. Such studies would produce clearer guidelines as to the choice of methodological options for teaching pragmatics in an EFL context. (Quanti-LTR1, Recommending Further Research in Conclusion Section)

2) Given that the present study has yielded findings quite different from those that have made comparisons between PI and MOI, there is need for further research in order to ascertain what factors are involved in the outcomes. (Quanti-LTR3, Recommending Further Research in Conclusion Section)

3) This study also suggests that teachers should not assume a positive correlation between learner uptake of new vocabulary and acquisition of these words. Accordingly, rather than focusing on visible learner uptake, CALL classroom teachers may be better served by turning their attention away from what learners uptake and examine the context in which this uptake occurs ... (Quanti-TESOL3, Making Suggestions for Practice in Conclusion Section)

4) It would be interesting to collect data of initial SD responses from a larger sample by making use of SD stimulated recall task to validate the findings with regard to differences in response patterns. (Quali-PRAG2, Recommending Further Research in Conclusion Section)

5) With the above insights, several practical recommendations can be made regarding language training for future graduates, as well as suggestions to open further avenues of research. (Quanti-ESP3, Making Suggestions for Practice in Conclusion Section)

6) From here, for future research we think it would be worthwhile to proceed along at least two lines. First, … Second … (Quali-APP2, Recommending Further Research in Conclusion Section)

The analysis of the corpus of this study indicated that Making Recommendations appeared in both qualitative and quantitative RAs' Discussion sections. However, it was not identified as a widespread move in this section. Skimming the sections following the Discussion section revealed two points. First, in several RAs either a separate section or a joint section with Conclusion was dedicated to implications of the study. Second, in several research articles this move, especially Recommending Further research, was

positioned in Conclusion sections. Therefore, while the move of Making Recommendations was not a frequent move in Discussion section, it seems to be a common move in the RAs in general. In other words, it might appear in Discussion, Conclusion or under a separate sub-section. These findings are in line with R. Yang's findings that these steps, though labeled under a different move, are common in Discussion and Conclusion sections of RAs in Applied Linguistics.

Some studies and models have identified Recommendation in their studies (Swales, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1994; R. Holmes, 1997; Posteguillo, 1999; Peacock, 2002; and Kanoksilapatham, 2005). However, by Recommendation they have referred to only Recommending Further Research and have excluded Making Suggestions for Practice or Drawing Implications. Recommending Further Research seems quite frequent in the corpus of this study (including Discussion and Conclusion sections) which is in contrast with Swales' (1990) suggestion in that the writers include this move much less in their studies because of the competitive nature of publication. Posteguillo (1990) analyzing computer science RAs, R. Holmes (2000) studying Agricultural Economics RAs, and Peacock (2002) investigating RAs from seven various fields found Recommendation (Recommending Further Research) as one of the common moves in their corpus. Recommending Further Research not only suggests new lines of inquiry in the field but also "demonstrates to the reader that the author has concluded one phase of the research and has carefully thought about the next phase" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 302). It was also noticed that in several cases Recommending Further Research appeared after stating limitations of the studies where the writers intended to show that though their studies did not cover a specific area, they are aware of how the limitations can be compensated for.

While Making Suggestions for Practice seems a frequent step in this study, it has not been identified in most of the studies in various disciplines. One of the studies that has identified an equivalent step is Nwogu (1997) who identified Indicating Research Implications as a step under Stating Research Conclusions. One point needs to be stated at this point. In this study, instead of Implication or Pedagogical Implications of the study the label of Making Suggestions for Practice is used which covers implications, pedagogical implications, and suggestions that writers made for practice.

The finding that Making Suggestions for Practice (including implications) is a common communicative unit, in both qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics, is not surprising given the nature of the field. As the name implies, this field is an "applied" field and the focus of research is to use "the knowledge required through research to contribute directly to the understanding of a contemporary issue" (Ritchie, 2003, p. 45) and solve problems. In other words, in most empirical research in Applied Linguistics the findings are connected to situations or issues in the real world and the use made of them "takes the form of an action or an implication for action in the real world" (Bachman, 2006, p. 176). In this sense, the writers promote their works by showing the valuable contribution that they make to the language issues in the real world. They, thus, make a connection to practice in the real world by making suggestions and stating the implications of their studies:

> Because Applied Linguistics is an 'applied' subject, it is, therefore, important to discuss the applications of the findings and how they fit in with current knowledge and theory in the field. (SpeInfo3)

> Because Applied Linguistics is an 'applied' field, the 'application' of the findings of the research needs to be made evident. (SpeInfo4)

### 6.2.9   Summarizing the Study

The last common move in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora was Summarizing the Study which was an infrequent move in both sub-corpora. It was identified only in two qualitative and two quantitative RAs. This move is another move that has been identified as a common move in Discussion and Conclusion sections (e.g. Dörnyei, 2007; Perry, 2005; Mackey & Gass, 2005, R. Yang, 2001). According to R. Yang (2001), the occurrence of this move in Discussion section depends on the position of Discussion section in RA. In other words, she states that the move might occur in Discussion section if Discussion is the last section in the RA. In the present study, however, it was noticed that of the four RAs that Summarizing the Study was identified only in one RA (Quanti-PRAG2) the Discussion section was the final section and in the other three RAs the Discussion was followed by Conclusion. Reviewing other studies on Discussion section, no equivalent move or step to Summarizing the Study was found. Given the rare occurrence of the move in the present study, it can be concluded that this move is not a "must occur" or even a common move in Discussion section of qualitative or quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics.

### 6.3 MOVES THAT APPEARED ONLY IN THE QUALITATIVE SUB-CORPUS

In the previous sub-sections of this chapter, nine moves that were common in both the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora were presented and discussed. Meanwhile, two specific moves were identified only in the qualitative sub-corpus. They are discussed in the following two sub-sections.

### 6.3.1   Providing Evidence for Findings

The first move that appeared only in the qualitative sub-corpus was Providing Evidence for Findings. It was almost a widespread move and was identified in 10 RAs. It

appeared immediately after Stating Findings whenever it was present. The move was realized by one step: Referring to Data. That is, the writers presented their findings and referred to their data to support and back up those findings. The finding is not unexpected considering the nature of qualitative research and its outcome. While quantitative research relies on 'standard' and accepted methods to make objective inferences about a natural phenomenon, qualitative research is a thick description of the phenomenon under study where the researcher is the primary source of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The analytical outcome of quantitative research is a series of statistics and graphs which shows whether and to what extent there is a connection between two or more variables. These outcomes, are assumed that, have been obtained objectively and independent of who has conducted the study. Meanwhile, qualitative research's outcome is a thick description of a phenomenon where the researcher has been involved subjectively. Qualitative research, thus, adopts an interpretative approach and produces subjective knowledge (Burns & Grove, 2005). Potter (1996) puts it this way:

> No writer can ever seriously believe that the facts speak for themselves. Facts are not objective, enduring truths that are discovered by writers and recognized uniformly by readers. Instead, all writers have an interpretive stance from which they select and weight observations to construct their own narratives. Interpretation places the focus of qualitative research on illustrating a series of subjective decisions made about the phenomenon of inquiry from the particular scholar's point of view… their findings are not objective facts but rather products of his or her subjective decisions… (p. 162)

Consequently, the arguments that qualitative and quantitative research writers make to persuade their audience to accept the new knowledge they have made is different. In quantitative research, the results are accepted mostly based on the use of standardized methods when the writers demonstrate the reliability of their methods and validity of their findings. The concepts of reliability, validity, and generalizability are important concepts in this method and writers can gain the acceptance for their findings

by showing that these issues have been taken care of. In qualitative research, on the contrary, the outcomes are dependent on the researcher and more than one interpretation can be made of a piece of data. As a result, the outcomes are more open to question, and there is always a high possibility that the findings get refuted by the audience. In order to justify findings and persuade readers of 'truthfulness' of them, a researcher needs to provide evidence for them and demonstrate that the findings are grounded in the data. In other words, the writers' purpose is to persuade readers that the findings they have presented are connected and based on their observation and data, and they have made a valid analysis of what the data mean. To achieve that, they refer to their empirical data to provide evidence for their findings and support their arguments:

> That's the way to do it. They [qualitative research writers] frequently go back to their data. Yes, that's right. This is the research based evidence. That's all you do in research. You are not actually making the judgment on the bases of your impression, you are always constantly referring back to data bringing in back data at various point. That's how you write a good argument (SpeInfo1).

### 6.3.2 Supporting the Comments on Findings

The second move that was identified only in the qualitative sub-corpus was Supporting the Comments on Findings. After commenting on findings, in some cases, the writers supported those comments by two steps of Referring to Data and/or Referring to Literature. It appeared in six RAs and the first step with five occurrences was more common than the second step which occurred in three RAs. Qualitative research is mostly descriptive and seeks to understand and provide insight into a given issue from the vantage of other people. While description provides factual and accurate information on the phenomena, in Discussion section, the researcher goes beyond the 'objective' description and tries to provide reasonable insights into the issue. Thus, the researcher interprets the findings and "gives meaning to the raw data" (Struwing & Stead, 2007) and/or explains them, and/or evaluates them. However, the analyst needs to strike a

balance between the description and interpretation and demonstrate that the comments, explanations, and conclusions are generated from the data (C. White et al., 2003). In order to achieve that, the qualitative research writers used two strategies of referring to data as well as referring to literature to support the comments they made on their findings.

Swales' (1990) model includes the move of Exemplification which can be used to support the explanations. He, however, does not specify the kind of examples and their resources (e.g. data, literature). The other move identified in both Swales' and Dudley-Evans' (1994) model is Referring to Literature. According to them, referring to literature can be used to either compare or support the study. Again they have not been specific about this move and have not elaborated on how reference to literature can be used to support the study. The move of Supporting Comments on Findings covers both moves of Exemplification and Reference to Literature (to support the study) which are suggested in Swales' (1990) and Dudley-Evans' (1994) models.

## 6.4    MOVES THAT APPEARED ONLY IN THE QUANTITATIVE SUB-CORPUS

One move that was identified only in the quantitative sub-corpus was Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. It appeared in two RAs and was realized by one step: Referring to Methodology. Explaining any conflicts between findings and literature is important and researchers need to show how and why their findings are different from those identified before. As the move was identified only in the quantitative RAs and even in this sub-corpus it was an infrequent move, all the identified moves that showed inconsistency of findings with literature in this study were examined carefully and in detail.

On the whole, the move of comparing findings with literature was used to show inconsistency between the findings and literature in seven quantitative RAs. Only in two RAs the inconsistencies were explained. By examining the other five RAs, it was noticed that in two RAs the inconsistencies were shown between the findings and a theory and suggestion in literature (Quanti-LTR1 and Quanti-APP3):

1) Sanz (2004) has suggested that, instead of devoting some of the energy to the design of the best possible feedback in the structured input task, we should focus on designing optimal structured input tasks which lead learners to process both meaning and form at greater possible depth… As a matter of fact, in the present study, the SF [structured input instruction with feedback] participants scored slightly higher in all four tests than the SI [structured input instruction] participants and this might be possibly due to the overt negative feedback. (Quanti-LTR1)

As was shown in Chapters 4 and 5, the move of comparing findings with literature was used to compare and contrast the findings with a theory, suggestion, an idea, and with findings from other studies. When writers challenge a theory or idea in literature, obviously they would not attempt to account for it by referring to their methodology. In the other three RAs that had shown inconsistency of findings with findings of other studies, it was noticed that though they had not explained the inconsistency in a separate move, in two RAs they had attempted to explain the conflict by explaining the findings. That is, in these two RAs (Quanti-LTR2, Quanti-TESOL3), the writers presented the findings followed by referring to literature to show inconsistency which was then followed by explaining findings:

2) In terms of the NFFE's complexity, simple and complex episodes occurred in about equal numbers. Further, there was no indication that complexity had an effect on learner uptake **[Findings]**. This finding contrasts with Ellis et al. (2001a), who found that complex FFEs occurred very infrequently but were more likely to elicit successful uptake than simple FFEs **[Inconsistency of Findings with Literature]**. Although the present finding seems counterintuitive on the surface, it may be explained in a variety of ways. The SCMC medium itself may diminish the positive role of complexity in this regard… **[Explaining Findings]**. (Quanti-TESOL3)

In the above excerpt, the writer states the findings in the first two sentences. In the following sentence he states the contrast of findings with literature which is followed by explaining findings. Though the writer does not attempt to explain why the findings are inconsistent with literature, by explaining the findings and stating why the findings were achieved the way they did, he actually tries to account for the inconsistency as well.

As was stated earlier, the move of Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature was not identified in the qualitative RAs. By examining the only two qualitative RAs that included Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature, it was noticed that the writers had challenged a suggestion and belief in literature rather than findings from a specific finding. In one of these cases, after challenging the literature, the writers go back to their data and provide evidence from the data to support their challenge of literature:

3) One of the criticisms of task-based communicative language pedagogy has been that students' preoccupation with finishing a task may result in minimal use of language, and little attention to language form (Seedhouse, 1999; see also Swan, 2005). The findings of this study suggest that for adult learners, particularly those with some proficiency in the language, attention to language during oral interaction may in fact compromise task completion **[inconsistency of Findings with Literature]**. Although Soon Yi and Ivan were given interactional opportunities that had the real-world feature of a defined ending point, this point was often not reached. They appeared to regard all activities, however interesting, as pretexts for practicing language rather than as tasks that had to be completed. Soon Yi and Ivan actively reflected on language, even when otherwise engaged with the intended communicative purpose of the task… **[Referring to Data]**. (Quali-LTR1)

Therefore, while the move of Explaining Inconsistency of Findings was identified only in the quantitative sub-corpus, upon examining Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature in both sub-corpora, some interesting points were found. The comparison and contrast of findings can be made with a theory, assumption, belief and/or with findings from a specific study. When the comparisons were made with findings from other studies, in two cases (in the quantitative RAs) the writers attempted

to explain it by referring to their methodology. Particularly, as rigorous methodology is extra important in quantitative research, the writers tried to show that the differences are due to different samples or procedures they have used rather than an error in conducting the research or research analysis or interpretation of findings. In the other two quantitative RAs that the conflict of findings with findings of other studies were stated, though the writers had not explained the inconsistency in a separate move, by explaining the findings and why they were obtained they had attempted to account for inconsistency as well. In the qualitative data only two cases of stating inconsistency of findings with literature was identified and in both cases the contrast was made with an assumption, theory, or belief in literature rather than a specific finding. In one of the cases, after challenging the literature, the writers had attempted to support that by referring to their data and providing evidence for their contrast.

It seems that justifying inconsistency of findings with literature can be found in both qualitative and quantitative RAs. The explanation can be made by referring to methodology. It can be expected that it will occur when the comparison is between the findings of the study and findings from other studies particularly when the study replicates another study and uses the same method or instrument. Explanation can also be made by explaining the findings. By accounting for why the findings are achieved, the conflict of findings with literature can also be accounted for indirectly. Challenging literature can also be justified by referring to data trying to support it. When asked about that, one of the specialist informants stated:

> Yes, I would have sort of try and deemphasize it [inconsistency of findings with literature]. Of course, that would be important. Even if I thought the reason for difference was because of a mistake in the methodology or something. (SpeInfo2)

The move was not identified in other models and studies in other disciplines. In Swales' (1990) and Dudley-Evans' (1994) models the move of Explaining findings is

supposed to account for unexpected (by researcher or field) findings which can hardly be considered as a close move to Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. Several empirical studies in literature which have analyzed RAs in hard filed have not identified this move either (e.g. Nwogu, 1997, medical RAs; Posteguillo, 1999, Computer Science RAs). This might be due to the nature of hard disciplines where the knowledge is cumulative (Becher, 1989) and research is based on a theory and starts with a gap in literature and by using objective methods tries to fill that gap. Therefore, unlike soft disciplines, it is unlikely that the researchers repeat the same study and experiment to find different results from literature to explain the conflict.

In soft disciplines such as Applied Linguistics previous researches are replicated in different contexts with different subjects. The nature and reasons of different findings, thus, are accounted for to understand the phenomena better. Besides, unlike natural sciences, there are not general accepted laws and rules and knowledge is more open to question and "new knowledge follows more reiterative and recursive routes... Old ground is re-crossed and reinterpreted rather than assumed" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 159). In other words, the same study in different contexts might be replicated and previous theories and assumptions might be challenged by new studies. In these cases, demonstrating that a study conflicts with those in literature seems is not enough and researchers need to examine and consider the reasons for such a conflict and to justify that. Meanwhile, surprisingly, R. Yang (2001) did not identify such a move in her analysis of RAs in Applied Linguistics.

## 6.5    STEP USED ONLY IN THE QUALITATIVE SUB-CORPUS

Completing the analysis of both sub-corpora, it was noticed that one step occurred only in the qualitative sub-corpus. The step was Referring to Data which was used to realize three moves of Providing Evidence for Findings, Supporting Comments on Findings,

and Supporting Deductions/Suggestions. In the move of Providing Evidence for Findings (it appeared only in the qualitative sub-corpus), the writers referred to their data as a warrant to back up their findings and demonstrate that their findings are based on and grounded in their data (see section 6.3.1). The step was also used to support the comments on findings. The writers presented their comments and one of the steps they used to support them was to refer to their data to show that their explanations, interpretations, and evaluations are in line with their findings (see section 6.3.2). Finally, the writers used the step to back up the deductions and suggestions they made and to show that their conclusions and suggestions are supported by their findings and to illustrate based on which findings they have come to the conclusions and suggestions. As can be noticed, in all of these three moves, the writers had used the step of Referring to Data to provide evidence that supports their arguments. The importance of referring to data as evidence in qualitative research was discussed to some extent in section 6.3.

As previously was discussed in section 6.3., quantitative research gains its credibility mostly by using standard and agreed upon methods and by illustrating that concepts such as validity and reliability have been taken care of (Brown, 2004). The explanations provided "derive from precise measurement and systematic scrutiny of relationships between a limited number of controlled variables" (Hyland, 1999c, pp. 80-81) and the deductions and generalizations made are generally accepted by maximizing the reliability and validity. Qualitative research, on the contrary, lacks such standard and commonly accepted methods, and the whole process of research including data collection, analysis, and interpretation hinges upon the researcher (Hyland, 2000). Unlike quantitative research, in qualitative study data cannot be quantified by using statistical means and findings cannot be summarized in a series of neat statistics and graphs. Qualitative research involves large amounts of data and the researcher needs to interpret and summarize them and show the importance of his/her research rather than

analyzing the data statistically. In other words, qualitative research is "fundamentally interpretive, which means that the research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of the data" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 33). Subjectivity, thus, is one of the issues that the qualitative researchers need to deal with. While the validity and reliability of the research cannot be illustrated by the means that are used in quantitative research, qualitative researchers employ other strategies to persuade their audience of the legitimacy of their study.

One of these strategies is referring to their data and bringing back first-hand evidence to support their arguments. That is, the writers of qualitative research try to justify and validate their findings, comments on findings, conclusions, and suggestions by frequent reference to their data. In qualitative analysis, illustrative data and thick descriptions are usually provided in Data Analysis or Findings sections. However, in Discussion section, writers restate the major findings that they intend to emphasize and make more explicit comments on them. Therefore, in this section they refer back to their data as an evidence to show that they have made a valid analysis and interpretation of their data and that their findings and conclusions are generated from and grounded in their data (Mackey & Gass, 2005; C. White et al., 2003). Writers gain credibility for their research by showing sound evidence for each claim in their arguments. They, thus, need to back up arguments by using the strongest evidence that they have and by using first-hand evidence which is stronger than evidences that are second-hand (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). According to Edge and Richards (1998, p. 354), credibility in qualitative research is achieved by showing that it is "a credible version of what happened, both in terms of description and interpretation". By including sufficient raw data and demonstrating the bases of interpretations and conclusions, the writer shows the available evidence to support them and this enables readers to evaluate the findings, interpretations, and conclusions (Mackey & Gass, 2005; C. White et al., 2003) and "see

the basis for the subjective decisions the researcher made in moving through the research process" (Potter, 1996, p. 162). This allows the audience to have some understanding of the process of thinking that have led to the conclusions and enables them to examine the data and procedure to confirm the findings and interpretations.

## 6.6 STEP USED ONLY IN THE QUANTITATIVE SUB-CORPUS

A step that was identified only in the quantitative sub-corpus was Referring to Methodology. It was utilized in two moves of Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature and Supporting Deductions. In the first move which appeared only in the quantitative sub-corpus, the writers referred to their methodology to explain why their findings were different from those found in other studies (for more discussion, see section 6.4). The second move that the writers referred to their methodology was Supporting Deductions (see section 5.2.7.2). The writers referred to their method to ensure the audience of the validity of their method before making any deductions from their study. As was discussed in several places in this chapter, the concepts of validity and reliability are essential for a rigorous quantitative study. Therefore, as the main purpose of quantitative research is to produce knowledge that can be generalized to other contexts and situations, greater burden is placed on the validity of the methodology which is employed. The writers try to show that there is a relationship between the selected variables, or specific variable(s), which affect other variable(s), and that the researcher has controlled other variables that could influence the findings. Meanwhile, in qualitative research, variables are more varied and "often more heterogeneous and causal connections more tenuous" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 149) and the aim of the study is not to produce law-like connections between controlled variables. Therefore, qualitative research writers do not try to ensure the validity of their studies in

the way that quantitative research writers do and instead use other strategies to show the legitimacy of their findings.

## 6.7    OVERVIEW OF THE FINDINGS

The overall analysis of the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora revealed 11 moves in the qualitative and 10 moves in the quantitative RAs' Discussion sections. The findings showed that many moves were common in both types of articles. To be specific, while nine common moves were found in both sub-corpora, two moves were identified particularly in the qualitative and one move was identified particularly in the quantitative sub-corpora. Although it is believed that qualitative research enjoys more freedom in various stages of conducting the research; when writing-up the research, "we find that the freedom of expression is not unlimited because there are certain aspects of the research project that must be covered in a report, regardless of the specific structure" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 294). It can be said that, at least in Discussion section, communicative purpose is almost the same and "it is fair to say that a qualitative report, in effect, covers the same ground as its quantitative counterpart" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 294). This point was also confirmed by the specialist informants:

> In principle there is no difference. You can make all aspects in both of these studies. It doesn't mean that if you are doing quantitative study there are no limitations or there are more applications. Or in qualitative studies there are more applications. No it's not true. (SpeInfo1)

In spite of these similarities, detailed examination of the findings revealed some differences in terms of occurrences of the moves and the preference of using particular steps to realize them. For instance, although commenting on findings was used in both sets of articles, it was realized more by interpreting in the qualitative RAs and explaining in the quantitative RAs. Another common move in both sub-corpora was Providing Background Information which was more common in the quantitative RAs

than qualitative ones. These differences and similarities were discussed in previous sub-sections in the light of the nature of the discipline and the characteristics of research designs (qualitative and quantitative).

Examining the identified generic structure of qualitative and quantitative RAs' Discussion sections indicates that in both types of RAs the writers used quite a lot of justifications in their discussion. In other words, there were several moves for which the writers used evidence from different sources to provide evidence for their findings and arguments. Meanwhile, the qualitative RA writers seemed to employ more evidence in their arguments than their quantitative counterparts. The quantitative RA writers referred to literature, their methodology, and their findings to support their deductions. The two main sources that the qualitative RA writers used to back up their arguments were referring to data and referring to literature. One or both of these two sources were used to provide evidence for findings, support the comments on the findings, and support suggestions and deductions. While the qualitative articles referred to their data to support their findings and arguments, it was not identified in the quantitative sub-corpus.

As the outcomes of qualitative and quantitative research and the procedures used to achieve them are different, it seems that writers use different strategies to gain legitimacy of their work and persuade audience to accept their claims and arguments. As was discussed in several places in this chapter, quantitative research starts with a research question/hypothesis, uses standard methods to collect data, employs statistical analysis to analyze them, and reports the findings as a series of statistics, graphs, and tables. The research is assumed to be detached from the researcher and regardless of who conducts the research it is believed that the findings will be the same. The write-up of research is viewed here as the 'objective' presentation of the procedures and results

and "as a means of simply dressing the thoughts one sends into the world" (Hyland, 1999c, p. 74). There are standard criteria for evaluating the research (including validity and reliability) and readers have specific expectation from this type of research and "it is assumed that adherence to the established standards of methodological rigor that promote accuracy, universality, and researcher independence will yield results of facts that are true and able to speak for themselves" (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 1993, p. 597). Furthermore, in quantitative research, "the appeal to numbers gives studies their rhetorical power… Statistics authorize studies as scientific and contribute to the fixation of belief whereby readers accept findings as facts and not artifacts" (Sandelowski & Barroso, 2002, p. 77). As a result, quantitative research writers do not oblige themselves too much to provide evidence for their findings and arguments in Discussion section. They take care of issues that threat their credibility in the Methodology section and present their findings in the form of statistics in the Finding section.

Qualitative research, on the contrary, relies far less on such proven and accepted methods used in quantitative research, variables are not well-defined, observations and findings are not based on random sampling of subjects, and it does not produce 'hard evidence' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). While quantitative researchers claim that their inquiry is "value-free", a qualitative research is based on "value-driven" inquiry (ibid. p. 10). In this situation, qualitative research writers try to present sufficient data to convince the readers that the findings and comments as well as conclusions and suggestions follow from the data and that there is a connection between the data and their findings and conclusions. Spencer, Richie, Lewis, and Dillon (2003) propose several questions and indicators for evaluating the quality of qualitative research. They argue that one of the possible features that needs to be considered with regard to the credibility of findings is to check whether "Findings/conclusions are supported by data/study evidence *(i.e. the reader can see how the researcher arrived at his/her*

*conclusions; the 'building blocks' of analysis and interpretation are evident)*" (2003, p. 22). The other question that they propose in evaluating the quality of qualitative research, which is related to the presentation of research, is "[h]ow clear are the links between data, interpretation and conclusions - i.e. how well can route to any conclusions can be seen?" (p. 26). To answer this appraisal question, Spencer, et al. (2003) suggest checking the following points:

-Clear conceptual links between analytic commentary and presentations of original data *(i.e. commentary and cited data relate; there is an analytic context to cited data, not simply repeated description).*
-Discussion of how/why particular interpretation/significance is assigned to specific aspects of data – with illustrative extracts of original data.
-Discussion of how explanations/theories/conclusions were derived – and how they relate to interpretations and content of original data *(i.e. how warranted)*; whether alternative explanations explored. (p. 27)

Therefore, by referring to their data, even in their discussion section, qualitative research writers attempt to convince their audience that there is a connection between their findings and conclusions with their observation. Smith (1996) suggests that an important criterion for evaluating the internal validity and reliability of qualitative research is *presentation of evidence*. The presentation of evidence refers to whether the argument presented within a study is consistent and supported by the data. According to Bachman (2004, p. 727), "validity as meaningfulness of interpretations" involves showing "warrants about the link between the observation results and an interpretation".

Apart from referring to their data to support their arguments on the part of the qualitative research writers, both qualitative and quantitative research writers referred to literature to support their arguments as well. Qualitative researchers cited literature to support their comments on their findings, deductions, and suggestions, and quantitative researchers referred to literature to support the deductions that they made. Gilbert (1977) is one of the scholars who argue that one of the main functions of citation is

persuasion. According to Gilbert, while part of persuasion can be achieved through logical argument, "much support for the results and the argument necessarily arises from work already performed and presented to the scientific community" (ibid., p. 116). In his interview-based study of the functions of citation, Harwood (2009) found justifying of claims as one of the purposes that computer scientists and socialists used citation. Hyland (1999a), as well, argues that referring to literature is an strategy that writers use to support their claims. By "synthesizing past research and presenting evidence to back up claims or points of view" (Coffin et al., 2003) academic writers try to persuade their readers of their claims. Referring to earlier work not only incorporates the previous research into the new paper but also "it … provide[s] a measure of persuasive support for the newly announced findings" as referenced work "has already been accepted as "valid science" " (Gilbert, 1977, p. 116).

One of the differences of generic structures identified in Discussion section of Applied Linguistics' RAs with the models identified and suggested in previous researches is related to Referring to Literature. Previous models and studies identified Reference to Previous Research as one move which is used to support and/or compare the study with literature. The analysis of the corpus of this study showed that the writers used referring to literature to fulfill different communicative purposes. Referring to literature was used to compare and contrast the findings with literature in order to contextualize and relate them to the field, to support the arguments when making a deduction and/or suggestion, to back up the comments made on findings, and also to provide comments on findings. While "citation plays a key role in academic writing" (M. Charles, 2006, p. 311), it seems that it is used far more in Applied Linguistics than disciplines such as Computer Science (Posteguillo, 1999) and Medicine (Nwogu, 1999). This is in line with Hyland's (1999a) finding that writers in soft disciplines, overall, use more citation than their counterparts in hard disciplines. Hyland argues that "the

imperatives that motivate citation are contextually variable and are related to community norms of effective argument" (1999, p. 362).

Academic writers use various types of evidence to back up their claims and arguments and "what counts as suitable evidence to support an argument is governed by the *epistemic conventions* of a discipline. Epistemic conventions refer to the means of establishing 'truth' as based on accepted forms of evidence" (Coffin et al., 2003, p. 27). Referring to literature seems one of the accepted sources that writers in Applied Linguistics can use as an evidence and support in their arguments. In qualitative RAs other than literature, referring to data seems an appropriate warrant for arguments as well. According to one of the specialist informants:

> Evidence comes from data, evidence comes from your analysis, evidence comes from all sorts of places… The writers use a number of sources like published work, informal and formal discussions with other experts, their own findings, supervisor's guidance, and other consultations. (SpeInfo1)

After analyzing the corpus and identifying the generic structures of both sets of data, the moves identified in RAs from the same journal were compared to find out whether RAs from a specific journal followed any specific structure, or any specific move was present or absent in articles from the same journal. It was noticed that no particular pattern was followed in RAs from a particular journal. Upon checking the guidelines for writers in the five journals, it was noticed that APP, LTR, and TESOL do not provide any specific guidelines in terms of inclusion of any particular points in Discussion section of submitted manuscripts. Two journals of PRAG and ESP suggest a general guideline for Discussion section:

> This [Discussion Section] should explore the significance of the results of the work, not repeat them. A combined Results and Discussion section is often appropriate. Avoid extensive citations and discussion of published literature.

It can, thus, be concluded that the moves and generic structures identified in the study are not bound to the editorial policy of the journals. When specialist informants were asked about this, one of them stated:

> I don't think I would do it differently [when writing for different journals]. Content would be different. I would be aware that I was addressing different audience but in my case I don't think it would affect the way I wrote it… But in terms of moves and genre I tend to agree with what you have found. (SpeInfo2)

Apart from similarities and differences in terms of moves between two sub-corpora, cyclicity of moves was identified in both sub-corpora. The finding is in line with previous studies which also found move cycles in Discussion sections. That is regardless of type of the research and the discipline; writers organized their Discussion section in a series of cycles which are centered on a particular finding. That is, a finding is stated, which might be followed by comments on findings, comparison of findings with literature, deductions, and suggestion and, then, writers move to other findings which might also be followed by one or more other moves.

## 6.8    SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter focused on comparing the generic structures of Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics identified in this study and a discussion on the similarities and differences of these generic structures. Many of the identified moves in both sub-corpora were similar, indicating that regardless of the type of research writers need to include specific points in their Discussion sections. In spite of these similarities, the frequency of some of the similar moves and the strategies that were used to realize them were different. As was discussed, these differences can be related to the nature of the research design and the purpose and focus of these two sets of articles. Two obvious differences were identifiable between the qualitative and

quantitative RAs. One was the qualitative writers' frequent reference to their data to support their findings, comments on their findings and the deductions and suggestions. It was discussed that the reason for using such a strategy can be attributed to the nature of qualitative research and the way the research is conducted and findings are achieved. These were discussed in detail in several places in this chapter. The other difference was related to the strategies that the writers of these two sets of articles used to comment on their findings. The analysis showed that while the qualitative RA writers preferred Interpreting, the quantitative RA writers favored Explaining. It was discussed that this can be related to the epistemology of these two types of research and the type of knowledge that they generate. As was mentioned earlier in this section, the qualitative research writers referred to their data as evidence in several moves. The other strategy that both qualitative and quantitative research writers used in their arguments was referring to literature. The step was used by both group of writers to fulfill various communicative purposes such as contextualizing their study and proving evidence for their claims and arguments. Academic writing in Applied Linguistics seems to try continuously to provide support and justification for its arguments. Meanwhile, qualitative research appears to look for and use more justification than quantitative research and referring to data and literature are acceptable evidences that they can use to back up their claims. The analysis also revealed the cycle of moves in both sets of RAs as have been found in other studies investigating various disciplines. It was also discussed that the journals which were used to collect the corpus of this study could not have an impact on identified generic structures. This conclusion was achieved, as no specific pattern of moves were identified among the RAs from the same journal nor have the journals recommended any specific patterns for writing Discussion sections of research articles.

# CHAPTER 7

## STANCE FEATURES IN DISCUSSION SECTION OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

### 7.1    INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the findings of analyzing stance features in both qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora are presented and discussed. As previously was discussed in Chapter 3, the analysis of stance features was conducted in two stages. First, 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections were analyzed using WordPilot2000. At this stage, the main focus was on type, frequency, and form of these features. Then, 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs, out of 200 RAs, were selected to be studied in terms of occurrences of the stance features in various moves of these RAs. It showed in which moves each stance feature was clustered which gave better understanding of the main functions of these features. It also helped to account for the differences found in the use of the stance features in these two sets of articles. After introduction, in the next four sections, the findings of investigating four elements of stance, i.e. hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention are presented and discussed. Next, an overview of the findings is presented which summarizes and discusses the occurrences of all the four stance features in both sub-corpora. The closing section is a general summary of the chapter.

### 7.2    HEDGES

This section which is concerned with presenting and discussing the findings of analyzing hedges in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora consists of two parts. In the first part, the distribution of hedges in 200 RAs and in various moves of the 20 RAs

are presented and discussed. The second part is concerned with the lexical markers that are used to express the hedges in the 200 RAs.

**7.2.1    Distribution of Hedges**

The analysis of 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections using WordPilot2002 shows that hedging is an important element in both types of the RAs. The overall distribution of hedges in both sub-corpora is shown in Table 7.1. As can be seen in the table, the frequency of hedges per 1,000 words is higher in the quantitative RAs (30.5 words) compared to the qualitative RAs (25.5 words). One might have expected to find the qualitative RAs to be more cautious and tentative than the quantitative RAs, as quantitative research is supposed to be based on rigorous, objective, and straightforward procedures and statistics; and qualitative research is assumed to be more subjective and interpretative. However, the findings do not confirm this expectation.

Table7.1: Overall Distribution of Hedges in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Sub-corpus | Total No. of Hedges | Hedges Items Per 1,000 Words |
|---|---|---|
| Qualitative (132,271 words) | 3,375 | 25.5 |
| Quantitative (139,377 words) | 4,254 | 30.5 |

When asked about the use of hedges in qualitative and quantitative RAs, the specialist informants stated:

I think in qualitative there should be more. I don't know. When I'm doing a quantitative study then you don't have to hedge much unless your data is very limited. (SpeInfo1)

I personally use a lot of hedging. I probably would hedge a little bit more in qualitative because my finding would be less clear cut. (SpeInfo3)

The investigation of the hedges in the 20 RAs' moves indicated that the differences in the frequency of hedges in the two sub-corpora can be related to the generic structure of these two sets of articles and the preferences of specific moves in these articles. Table 7.2 illustrates the overall frequency of hedges and their occurrences in per 1,000 words in each move of the 20 RAs' Discussion sections. The findings of analyzing these 20 RAs confirm the results gained from analyzing 200 RAs using WordPilot2002, indicating that the hedges are more frequent in the quantitative than in the qualitative RAs.

Table 7.2: Frequency and Percentage of Hedges in Each Move of the 10 Qualitative and 10 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Moves | Qualitative: 9,290 words | | | | Quantitative: 11,184 words | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Text Size | | Hedges | | Text Size | | Hedges | |
| | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1000 Words | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1000 Words |
| Providing Background Information | 418 | 4.50 | 7 (3.41%) | 16.74 | 589 | 5.27 | 13 (4.36%) | 22 |
| Stating Findings | 1979 | 21.30 | 30 (14.63%) | 15.15 | 2139 | 19.12 | 25 (8.39%) | 11.6 |
| Providing Evidence for Findings | 1180 | 12.70 | 18 (8.78%) | 15.25 | *** | | | |
| Commenting on Findings | 1895 | 20.39 | 54 (26.35%) | 28.49 | 5077 | 45.40 | 181 (60.73%) | 35.6 |
| Supporting Comments on Findings | 712 | 7.66 | 16 (7.80%) | 22.47 | *** | | | |
| Comparing Findings with Literature | 809 | 8.71 | 20 (9.75%) | 24.72 | 1115 | 9.97 | 25 (8.39%) | 22.4 |
| Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | *** | | | | 152 | 1.36 | 3 (1%) | 19.8 |
| Making Recommendations | 607 | 6.53 | 15 (7.33%) | 24.71 | 581 | 5.19 | 7 (2.35%) | 13.8 |
| Making Deductions | 642 | 6.92 | 22 (10.74%) | 34.27 | 555 | 4.96 | 23 (7.73%) | 39.7 |
| Supporting Deductions/ Suggestions | 63 | 0.68 | 1 (0.48%) | 15.87 | 229 | 2.05 | 5 (1.69%) | 21.8 |
| Evaluating the Study | 725 | 7.80 | 19 (9.27%) | 26.20 | 576 | 5.15 | 13 (4.36%) | 22.6 |
| Summarizing the Study | 260 | 2.80 | 3 (1.46%) | 11.54 | 171 | 1.53 | 3 (1%) | 17.6 |
| **Total** | **9,290** | **100** | **205 (100%)** | **22.07** | **11,184** | **100** | **298 (100%)** | **26.6** |

Note: *** indicates that the move is not available in the sub-corpus

Although the hedges appeared with different frequencies in various moves and in the two sets of articles, they are found throughout all the moves in both sub-corpora and are not constrained to particular moves (as shown in Table 7.2). For instance, the

writers used the hedges in providing background information, especially when they provided theoretical and technical information:

1) This kind of topic shift **might** be described as 'marked' topic shift (Sacks 1992b) or 'disjunctive' topic change (Jefferson 1984), which involves the introduction of a new matter to the one discussed in the previous turn, thus being an obvious topic change. (Quali-APP1)

2) **According to** TOPRA, increased semantic processing associated with the synonym-generation task *should* have decreased the learners' ability to process for the word-form and mapping components of learning a new word (see Figure 1b). (Quanti-TESOL2)

in stating their findings:

1) This **frequently** occurred within activities that did not have a specific language focus, and **most often** concerned vocabulary (Quali-LTR1)

2) Interestingly, the processing advantage for formulaic sequences **seems** to extend to proficient L2 speakers as well. (Quanti-APP1)

in comparing their findings with the literature:

1) Previous research on spoken academic genres has illustrated that narrative **typically** functions to create rapport with an audience and to draw them into the speaker's world (Thompson, 2002).In our data, a narrative rhetorical style **seemed** to be one of the more important components of a successful design presentation. (Quali-ESP1)

2) **According to** Bialystok's (1993) model, more proficient learners are able to execute selective attention to target pragmatic features more accurately than less proficient learners because of the former's automatized basic linguistic skills, which enable them to allocate more attentional resources for pragmatic targets. However, this was not the case in the context of the present study, **suggesting** that differences in linguistic proficiency (as measured by a standardized proficiency test) do not predict learners' level of attention and awareness in L2 pragmatic input. (Quanti-APP3)

in making recommendations for practice and future research:

1) Use of telephone and other forms of electronic conferencing, both synchronous and asynchronous offer scope for such developments. Students **could** be encouraged to draw on information or the outcomes of interaction engaged in beyond the immediate course materials. Such tasks **would** need to allow students to really engage with the ideas and to make their own contribution, rather than concentrating on including specific, predetermined points. (Quali-LTR2)

2) Future research **may** be able to categorize its subjects more strictly and determine whether those exclusively from one background are more able than those from another to improve upon the accuracy of their writing once they have received WCF. (Quanti-LTR2)

and in stating the limitations of their study to indicate what actions would possibly have been taken or how these limitations would have affected the findings:

1) This study is limited in its analysis of ownership because it only examines the situated linguistic identities expressed during an experimental task. The participants *may* orient to English very differently in other contexts, such as in an ESL class or in a conversation with a speaker from the inner circle. (Quali-TESOL1)

2) The current study is limited in several ways. First, the study was not carried out in the context of L2 writing classes. Investigating the effect of written CF in that context **would** have afforded stronger ecological validity. Second, the writing task treatment was very short. A more substantial CF treatment **might** have produced even stronger and more robust effects… (Quanti-TESOL1)

Meanwhile, two moves were most heavily hedged in both qualitative and quantitative RAs: Making Deductions and Commenting on Findings. The finding is expected, as in these two moves writers make speculation and conclusions about their findings and present new knowledge claims. As Hyland (1996, p. 443) states, "greater generalization and interpretation requires a greater degree of hedging". Making Deductions, as was discussed in chapters 4 and 5, was employed by the writers to make inferences and logical conclusions based on the findings and arguments they had presented previously in the Discussion section. The specialist informants also confirmed this finding:

I use hedges mostly for making claims and commenting on findings. (SpeInfo3)

The lexical means that were used to hedge deductions were mostly modals and verbs. The verbs used in both sub-corpora were mostly of two types. The first group were *epistemic speculative judgmental verbs* (Hyland, 1998b) or *nonfactive reporting verbs* (Varttala, 2001) such as *suggest*, *point to*, and *propose* which show that the stated proposition is the subjective opinion of writer and is based on some conjecture (Hyland, ibid.). The second group of verbs were *epistemic sensory evidential verbs* (ibid.) or

*tentative linking verbs* (Varttala, ibid.) such as *appear* and *seem* which "refer to perception and apprehending" (Hyland, 1998a, p. 124). However, the use of hedging words was not limited to only verbs and modals and a few cases of the use of adverbs such as *likely*, *rarely*, and *partially* were also observed. The only adjective that was used in this move was *possible*. The following examples illustrate the use of hedges in Making Deductions:

1) The findings **point to** the need for assessment tasks to be designed to reduce communicative stress and ensure that students do not feel forced to prioritize form and accuracy over fluency and meaning. (Quali-LTR2)

2) Thus, it can be **argued** that whereas both direct CF with and without metalinguistic comments are **likely** to promote awareness as noticing, only direct CF with metalinguistic comments promote awareness with understanding. (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) In short, all three structures **appear** difficult in terms of both conceptual complexity and the metalanguage required. (Quanti-APP2)

4) In summary, this study **suggests** that motivation and proficiency operate on pragmalinguistic awareness independently rather than jointly, and that motivation plays a more crucial role than proficiency in learners' allocation of attention to pragmatic input. (Quanti-APP3)

Most of the hedges used in making deductions can be categorized as *writer-oriented hedges* (Hyland, 199, 1998b). According to Hyland (1996, p. 442), these types of hedges help writers "to refer to speculative possibilities while at the same time guard against possible criticism". Using this type of hedges, writers distance themselves from the propositions and claims that they make and try to protect themselves from possible refutations. Hyland states that writers use writer-oriented hedges to avoid explicit responsibility for the proposition and the main characteristic of this type of hedges is the absence of writer agency and foregrounded procedures and methods. This was the case in the quantitative sub-corpus of this study which can be seen in the above examples.

While it was true in the qualitative sub-corpus as well, in two cases (examples 1 and 2 below) the writers took personal responsibility for their claims by using

personally attributed hedges, i.e. hedging through the use of first person pronouns. Based on Hyland's (1996, 1998a) category, this type of hedges can be classified as a form of *reader-oriented* hedges. By explicit reference to writer, impersonal hedges "mark a position as an *individual* interpretation… [which] softens the claim … [and] leaves the claim open to the reader's judgment" (Hyland, 1996, pp. 447-8). In both cases, besides using impersonal hedges and inviting the reader to take part in the negotiation, the writers expressed more tentativeness.

1) We **may** thus venture to **suggest** that the primary concern of the scientific community in evaluating an article is the 'originality' of its 'science', rather than its language… Nevertheless, it is **possible** to at least **speculate** that as they write more papers and become more 'fluent' in expressing themselves, they are **likely** to rely less on others' texts for language re-use. (Quali-APP2)

2) Given these renewed understandings of genre knowledge and genre teaching, I **propose** that learners' abilities to recontextualize their genre awareness, as seen in the case of Fengchen, **may** represent a more sophisticated level of achievement and **may** thus be more revealing of the significance of genre-based learning **in general** and of their writing performance in particular. (Quali-ESP2)

In the first sentence of the first example above, the writers take direct responsibility for their statement by foregrounding "we", but at the same time they show great tentativeness by using the modal verb "may", and the verbs "venture" and "suggest" to even tone-down the statement and protect themselves from possible criticisms. In excerpt 2, the writers start the sentence by "Given these renewed understandings of genre knowledge and genre teaching" and then state their proposal emphasizing that what they are about to suggest is based on and subject to conditions that were discussed previously in the study. However, as was mentioned earlier, this type of hedges appeared only in two cases in the qualitative sub-corpus. Koutsantoni's (2006) analysis of engineering RAs also showed that this types of hedges were infrequent in her corpus.

The second most hedged move in both sub-corpora was Commenting on Findings. In this move, the writers went beyond the "objective" presentation of findings and offered their own understanding of them. As was discussed in detail in chapters 4 and 5, the writers used three strategies of Explaining, Interpreting, and Evaluating to realize this move. The investigation of hedges in the 20 RAs showed that, regardless of the type of strategy that the writers chose to comment on their findings, they used hedges to avoid possible refutation for their explanation of their findings and protect themselves from possible errors in their interpretation of findings. However, it was also noticed that different categories of hedges were preferred in Explaining and Interpreting. Overall, the most common category of hedges used in both sets of RAs in this move was modals, especially *may*. In both sub-corpora, modals were more frequent when the comment the writers made was an explanation:

1) This result **may** be explained by the differences between Japanese speakers and English speakers… (Quali-PRAG2)

2) One contributing factor to reduced overt attention to language in the real world **may** be the limited success NNSs have at getting NSs to help them with language features they are struggling with that do not impede communication, as we saw with Ivan's attempts to solicit language assistance. (Quali-LTR1)

3) This result **can** be explained by Schmidt's account of the role of awareness in L2 acquisition. (Quanti-TESOL1)

4) Two reasons **might** explain the poorer performance of the migrant students in the delayed post-test. First, they **may** have given less attention to accuracy in the third piece of writing because their background had not attuned them to such a focus and because the absence of a focus on accuracy for seven weeks **may** have led them to focus more on message meaning. Second, age **may** have been an intervening factor. (Quanti-LTR2)

Apart from modal verbs, *probability adverbs* such as *likely*, *probably*, *perhaps*; *adverbs of indefinite degree* such as *frequently*, *normally* and *relatively*; *probability adjectives* such as *probable*, *possible* and *plausible*; and *adjectives of indefinite degree* such as *most* and *few* were used to hedge the explanations, especially in the quantitative sub-corpus. As previously was explained in Chapter 2, Hyland (1996, 1998a) classifies

*accuracy-oriented* hedges as a type of *content-oriented* hedges which include two types of *attribute hedges* and *reliability hedges*. *Accuracy-oriented* hedges "imply that the proposition is based on plausible reasoning in the absence of certain knowledge" (Hyland, 1996, p. 440). *Attribute hedges* which are mostly expressed through *precision adverbs* (e.g. generally, relatively, and almost) allow increasing the accuracy of the proposition. *Reliability hedges* (Hyland, 1998b) are used to state the degree of certainty that the writers wish to acknowledge and "indicate the writers' confidence in the truth of a proposition" (Hyland, 1996, p. 441). The main motivation for using these types of hedges is the writer's "desire to clarify the state of knowledge, a hedge against complete accuracy, rather than a wish to seek protection against overstatement" (Hyland, 1998, p. 167). The common means of manifesting reliability hedges are epistemic forms especially modal verbs, modal adjectives, and nouns (e.g. might, possibility, probable) and active voice without writer "agentivity" (Hyland, 1998, p. 169).

Most of the hedges used in Explaining the findings in the corpus of this study seemed to be *accuracy-oriented* hedges which were used to express doubts about the reasons for the findings. For instance, in example 4 below, "most", "few", and "relative" are *attribute hedges* which are used to express the observation with accuracy. Also, "probable" and "possible" which are used in the four examples can be considered as *reliability hedges* which are used to show the writers' uncertainty about the possible reasons for their findings.

1) One **possible** explanation for this result is that the learners of Japanese transferred their first language rules into the Japanese conversational contexts. (Quali-PRAG2)

2) A more **plausible** explanation for the limited overt attention to language in the tutoring context is that Soon Yi and Ivan realized that… (Quali-LTR1)

3) It is probable that other salient features of the content-linked ESL program, such as learning communities, counseling, and tutoring, also played an influential role. (Quanti-ESP2)

4) Any **possible** explanation for this involves several factors... The BNC was checked to compare idiomatic versus literal usages, and in **most** cases there were very **few**, if any, literal

usages of the formulaic sequences in the study… Given the **relative** infrequency of literal renderings, formulaic sequences such as this **may** well be processed as wholes as a default. This **would** account for equally quick reading times for idiomatic and literal meanings in the study. (Quanti-APP1)

It should be stated that no attempt was made in this study to classify all the occurrences of hedges in Explaining or Interpreting steps of Commenting on Findings as *accuracy-oriented* hedges or *writer-oriented* hedges. However, based on the general observation, it can be stated that the hedges used in *Explaining* were mostly *accuracy-oriented* hedges, though instances of *writer-oriented* hedges can also be identified. As can be seen in example 4, the use of *may* can be considered as a *writer-oriented* hedge which is used to protect the writer from possible errors.

The analysis of hedging lexical markers in each move of the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpus also revealed that when the comments writers made on their findings were Interpreting, *epistemic judgment verbs* such as *suggest*, *indicate*, *imply*, and *assume* and epistemic *evidential verbs* such as *seem* and *appear* were the most commonly used category. The other categories such as modals, adverbs including *likely*, *probably*, *relatively*, and *perhaps*, and nouns such as *interpretation* and *assumption* were also identified but were underused. In some cases, the modal *may* was used with an *epistemic judgment verb* such as *suggest*, *imply*, and *indicate*. The following examples illustrate how the writers used hedges when interpreting their findings:

1) The marked difference in the number of reformulations and instances of solicited/unsolicited language assistance **suggests** that regardless of the parameters and communicative goals of a task, in the language classroom, Soon Yi and Ivan focused on language. (Quali-LTR1)

2) … a finding that **indicates** a great deal of self-confidence and a firm sense of legitimacy among the U.S. speakers that they are in an authoritative position from which to judge English. (Quali-TESOL1)

3) Similarly, the high awareness ratings for IDE also **indicate** that the learners felt a necessity to master such expressions (e.g. 'That sounds great', 'How ya doin'?') (Quanti-APP3)

4) This **may indicate** that, although the Koreans' referential choices in their English narratives diverged from the Korean narratives in the direction of narrative produced by the native English speakers, they still failed to achieve discourse cohesion in English discourse in the way the native English speakers did… This result, combined with the analysis of referential choices for the boy, **suggests** that, when the main protagonist was involved in their speech, the Korean EFL learners tended to make choices that were similar to the native English speakers'… (Quanti-PRAG1)

As previously was discussed in this section, the hedges used in Explaining findings mostly seemed *accuracy-oriented* hedges. The overall analysis of hedges in Interpreting step suggests that the hedges in this step were mostly *writer-oriented hedges* (Hyland, 1996, 1998b). As was explained previously in this section and in 2.11.1, writer-oriented hedges are used to distance writer from proposition. The writer's main motivation in using writer-oriented hedges is "to shield … [him/herself] from the consequences of opposition by limiting personal commitment" (Hyland, 1996, p. 443). In other words, writers employ this type of hedges to move themselves away from a proposition in order to protect themselves against any probable falsification of the proposition. Writer-oriented hedges "help minimize the scientist's personal involvement and thereby reduce the probability of refutation" (Hyland, 1998, p. 172). They are "writer-focused" and are mostly concerned with decreasing the writer's presence in the text rather than increasing precision of statements (Hyland, 1996, p. 443). As can be seen in the above examples, the writers foregrounded the findings and hedged their interpretations implying that the proposition is what the findings suggest in order to protect themselves against the danger of falsification.

As was already discussed, Commenting on Findings is one of the heavily hedged moves in both sets of articles. Considering the main communicative purpose of the move, which is to state writers' own understanding of the findings, the finding is not surprising. Furthermore, this move occupied larger part of the Discussion sections in the quantitative than qualitative RAs. To be specific, while generally almost half of the

Discussion sections in the quantitative RAs (45.40%) consisted of Commenting on Findings, the move made up only less than one fifth (19.41%) of the Discussion sections in the qualitative RAs. As was discussed in Chapter 6 and at the beginning of this section, the analysis of 30 RAs' generic structure also showed that while Commenting on Findings was most occurred move in the quantitative sub-corpus, the most occurred move in the qualitative sub-corpus was Stating Findings. Also, as was discussed in Chapters 4 and 6, three out of 15 qualitative RAs which were analyzed in terms of moves and steps did not include Commenting on Findings. By studying the type and purpose of these RAs, it was found that they were "descriptive" studies and were concerned with "what" questions rather than "how" and "why" questions which try to explain or interpret the phenomenon under study. Two of these RAs (Quali-TESOl3 and Quali-ESP3) were part of the 10 RAs that were analyzed in terms of stance features. There is a high possibility that among 100 qualitative RAs which were analyzed by using WordPilot2002 a number of RAs, similar to the above ones, did not include any Commenting on Findings move. This can explain why Commenting on Findings constituted a larger part of the quantitative sub-corpus than the qualitative one.

In other words, investigating the occurrences of hedges in various moves of the 20 RAs showed that while both groups of writers used hedges in various moves in the Discussion section, two moves of Making Deductions and Commenting on Findings were heavily hedged in both types of articles. Further analysis showed that while Commenting on Findings consisted of around 45% of the whole Discussion sections of the 10 quantitative RAs, only 20% of the qualitative articles' Discussion sections comprised this move. The findings of analyzing generic structure of the corpus in Chapters 4 and 5 also showed that the move appeared with more frequency in the quantitative sub-corpus than the qualitative. The possible reason for this was discussed in 6.2.3. Furthermore, the frequency count of hedges in various moves in the 20 RAs

showed that while 60% of the whole identified hedges in the quantitative sub-corpus occurred in Commenting on Findings, only about 26% of hedges appeared in this move in the qualitative sub-corpus. Besides, the move is hedged more in the quantitative sub-corpus (35.6 per 1,000 words) than the qualitative one (27.1 per 1,000 words). Therefore, it can be concluded that the fact that Commenting on Findings is one of the heavily hedged moves in the corpus which is more common and more hedged in the quantitative sub-corpus and comprises higher portion of the discussion section in this sub-corpus (45% compared to 20% in qualitative sub-corpus) can be the main reason that hedges occurred more frequently in the quantitative sub-corpus than in the qualitative one.

Meanwhile, almost one third of the whole qualitative RAs consisted of Stating Findings and Providing Evidence for Findings which were among the least hedged moves in the sub-corpus. Most of the other moves in both sub-corpora were hedged with more or less the same frequency. There were some differences in the occurrences of hedges in a few moves such as Making Recommendations and Summarizing the Study and also some moves were only present in one of the sub-corpora such as Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature and Providing Evidence for Findings. However, since these moves generally comprised a very small part of the corpus, and as was shown in Chapters 4 and 5, they were not the widespread moves and were not identified in all the RAs, they would not cause any noticeable differences in the overall frequency of the hedges.

It should be noted that this study has only focused on hedges that were expressed through lexical items, and has not considered hedging strategies. Strategic hedges such as "reference to limiting conditions, reference to a modal, theory and method, and admission to a lack of knowledge" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 104) are used to "acknowledge

limitations of various types, which authors are the first to point out before they are pointed out by others" (Koutsantoni, 2006, p. 25). However, as Hyland (1998, p. 104) states, it seems that "scientific hedging is principally a lexical phenomenon". Various studies investigating strategic hedges confirm this view. Hyland's (1998) study showed that this type of hedges was infrequent in Biology RAs and comprised only 15% of the whole hedges. Koutsantoni (2006) studying RAs in Electronic and Electrical Engineering and Chemical Engineering found that this type of hedges consisted of only 14% of the whole hedges in the corpus. Thus, it still can be concluded from the findings of the present study that the quantitative RAs are more hedged than the qualitative RAs.

Considering the overall distribution of hedges, the findings of this study are close to Vassileva's (2001) findings who found 28.5 hedges per 1,000 words in Discussion section of Linguistics RAs. The findings of this study, however, are different from those identified in Hyland's (2005c). Hyland's study showed 18 hedges per 1,000 words in research articles of Applied Linguistics which is quite lower than the number that was identified in this study. One possible reason might be related to the number of hedging words investigated in the two studies. However, Hyland has not specified the exact number of hedging items he investigated in his corpus. The difference might also be related to the different sample sizes. While this study investigated 200 RAs, Hyland's corpus consisted of 30 RAs. A more plausible explanation for this difference might be the fact that Hyland investigated the use of hedges in the whole RAs, while this study has focused only on the Discussion section. Several studies investigating the use of hedges in various rhetorical parts of RAs have shown that Discussion sections are more heavily hedged than the other parts of the RAs (e.g. Hyland, 1998b; Salager-Meyer, 1994; Varttala, 2001). This might be due to the nature of the Discussion section and the kind of information that it presents. As Hyland (1998b) points out:

It is in Discussion section that authors make their claims, consider the relevance of results and speculate about what they might mean, going beyond their data to offer the more general interpretations by which they gain their academic credibility. The level of generality, and therefore, the density of hedges, is much higher here, as writers explore the ratifications of their results. (p. 198)

### 7.2.2   Lexical Markers for Expressing Hedges

Table 7.3 presents the overall frequency and percentage of various categories of hedges in 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections as well as their occurrences per 1,000 words. As can be seen in the table, the preference of all categories is quite similar in both the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. The occurrence of hedges in various categories in the 20 RAs were also similar to those identified in the 200 RAs.

Table 7.3: Frequency of Categories of Hedges in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Category | Qualitative 132,271 | | Quantitative 139,377 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 words | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 words |
| Modals | 1,254 (37.15%) | 9.48 | 1654 (38.88%) | 11.87 |
| Verbs | 860 (25.48%) | 6.50 | 1099 (25.84%) | 7.88 |
| Adverbs | 667 (19.76%) | 5.04 | 784 (18.43%) | 5.62 |
| Adjectives | 272 (8.06%) | 2.07 | 397 (9.33%) | 2.85 |
| Others | 187 (5.55%) | 1.41 | 156 (3.67%) | 1.12 |
| Nouns | 135 (4%) | 1.02 | 164 (3.85%) | 1.18 |
| Total | 3375 (100%) | 25.51 | 4254 (100%) | 30.52 |

### 7.2.2.1 Modals

The most prevalent hedging category in both sub-corpora is modals which make up about 37% and 38% of the whole hedging lexicons in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively. The finding is consistent with Vassileva's (2001) study which found that modals were favored in English RAs written by Linguists. Modals, according to Hyland (1998a, p. 371), "are less specific in attributing a source to a viewpoint" and "downplay the person making the evaluation".

The finding, however, is different from Varttala's (2001) who investigated hedges in three disciplines of Economics, Medicine and Technology and Hyland's (1998b) who studied Biology RAs. Hyland found modals among the least frequent category of hedges used in his corpus and Varttala observed variation in the use of modals among the three disciplines. Her results show that modals were third, second, and fifth common categories in Economics, Medicine, and Technology respectively. The differences between the findings of this study and those two studies might be due to disciplinary differences. In this line, Varttala also found that different categories of hedges were favored by different disciplines. The other possible reason might be related to the study of Discussion section in this study and the analysis of the whole RAs in those two studies. There is a possibility that writers might prefer the use of various hedging categories in different rhetorical sections of RAs. This view is in line with Varttala's observation which showed that while modals were the second mostly occurred category (consisting of 15.5% of the whole hedges) in Medicine RAs in general, they were the most common category (consisting of 21.7% of the whole hedges) in Discussion section of these RAs.

The predominant modal used in both sub-corpora was *may* (n=430 in Quali and n=668 in Quanti). The finding is consistent with Varttala's (2001) in Economics, Medicine, and Technology RAs, with Vassileva's (2001) in Linguistics, and with Vihla's (2000) in Medical RAs. The modal was followed by linking verb "be" or other verbs. It also appeared in *double hedging* along with an epistemic verb such as *suggest*, *indicate*, and *imply*:

1) This uncertainty among outer-circle speakers **may** be the result of their experience with multiple and conflicting norms for English. (Quali-TESOL1)

2) The same reason **may** be applied to the head nodding… (Quali-PRAG2)

3) It would seem therefore that teachers **may** be able to achieve the same results with their students… (Quanti-LTR2)

4) The larger decrease in means for the semantic condition based on the L1-to-L2 measure (99%) … **may** have resulted from the L2-to-L1 measure's lesser sensitivity to the level of word-form knowledge… (Quanti-TESOL2)

5) Rather, it **may imply** that the NES used different strategies in their narratives to refer to… (Quanti-PRAG1)

## 7.2.2.2 Verbs

The next most occurred categories of hedges were verbs with a total occurrence of 860 and 1099 in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively which comprised about 25% of the whole hedges in both sub-corpora. All verb forms that had the same stem (indicate, indicates, indicated, indicating) were combined when counting the frequency of a specific verb. In both sub-corpora, the most common verb was *suggest* (n=169 in Quali and n=222 in Quanti). The finding is consistent with Varttala's (2001) who found *suggest* as the most frequent hedging verb used in Economics, Medicine, and Technology RAs. Hyland's (1998) study also showed this verb as the second most common tentative verb used in Biology RAs.

The analysis of the verbs in the 20 RAs showed that they were mostly used to indicate tentativeness in reporting the authors' own work or works of other researchers. When used to show tentativeness about the authors' own works, in most cases, they appeared in a sentence with an inanimate noun such as *study*, *findings*, or *analysis*. The following examples show the use of verbs in the 20 RAs:

1) The marked difference in the number of reformulations and instances of solicited/unsolicited language assistance **suggests** that regardless of the parameters and communicative goals of a task, in the language classroom, Soon Yi and Ivan focused on language. (Quali-LTR1)

2) Howarth (1998b: 26) **suggests** that much of formulaic language is gradable in terms of idiomaticity, and gives the example of to let off steam (='to display anger'). He **suggests** that such sequences … (Quanti-APP2)

3) The correlation analysis **suggested** that the major obstacles for children of these ages are limited attention capacity and verbal span… (Quanti-PRAG3)

The other most common verbs in the corpus were *seem* (130 in Quali, 183 in Qunati)*, appear* (n=79 in Quali, n=70 in Quanti), and *indicate* (n=68 in Quali, n=141in Quanti). The two verbs of *seem* and *appear* which belong to the category of *sensory evidential* verbs (Hyland, 1998b) or in Varttala's (2001) category to *tentative linking* verbs "refer to the process of reasoning or conclusions from reasoning" (Hinkel, 2002, p. 105). Both were used to speculate about the writers' own works or the behaviors of the subjects. Although both verbs can be considered as synonyms, they differ stylistically, where *appear* is more formal than *seem*. In the corpus of this study, *seem* was more frequent than *appear*. The study of the collocations of both verbs in the 200 RAs showed that they were mainly followed with an indefinite verb. The following examples illustrate the use of these verbs in the 20 RAs:

1) As described above, the teachers in this study used several interactional moves during the NOM sessions that **seemed** to be effective in improving the stories told. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) It **seems** that the participants in this study are subject to this 'tension'. (Quali-APP2)

3) It **appears** that Fengchen saw the essence of genres as repeated social actions… (Quali-ESP2)

4) At times, the decision to focus on language came at the expense of task completion, a choice that did not **appear** to exist outside the protective 'bubble' of the language classroom… (Quali-LTR1)

The verb "indicate", like "suggest", belongs to the category of *speculative judgmental* verbs (Hyland, 1998b) or *nonfactive reporting* verbs (Varttala, 2001). The analysis of the 20 RAs revealed that both verbs were mostly used in a sentence with an inanimate noun such as *study*, *findings,* or *analysis* to express tentativeness in the writers' own works. In some cases, the verbs were used with an epistemic modal such as *may* and *would*. Both verbs were mainly collocated and followed with *that clause* in the 200 RAs. The following examples illustrate the use of these verbs in the 20 RAs:

1) The results of the error correction test in Posttest 1 and all three tests in Posttest 2 **indicate** that the written CF had a positive effect on the learning of English articles. (Quanti-TESOL1)

2) At the same time, the finding clearly **indicates** that different motivational profiles are concerned with the awareness of different aspects of pragmalinguistic features… (Quanti-APP3)

3) This may **indicate** that, although the Koreans' referential choices in their English narratives diverged from… (Quanti-PRAG1)

4) … it **would seem** that international and migrant student errors may be able to be responded to with the same WCF options. (Quanti-LTR2)


## 7.2.2.3 Adverbs

The third most frequent category of hedges in both sub-corpora was *adverbs*. In Hyland's (1998b) corpus of Biology RAs and Varttala's (2001) Economics, Medicine, and Technology RAs, adverbs were found as one of the common categories to express tentativeness too. In this study, overall, 667 and 784 instances of adverbs were identified in the 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs respectively which comprised almost one fifth of the hedges in each sub-corpus. The three most widespread adverbs in both sets were *often* (n=126 in Quali, n=76 in Quanti), *perhaps* (n=38 in Quali, n=35 in Quanti), and *relatively* (n=26 in Quali, n=60 in Quanti). These three adverbs belong to the three different categories of adverbs that Varttala (2001) identified in her study. Based on Varttala's category, the adverb of *often*, which was also the most frequent adverb used in her corpus, belongs to the group of *adverbs of indefinite frequency*. These kinds of adverbs are used when a speaker or writer, for any reason, "does not wish to indicate the precise extent to which the information presented applies" (Varttala, 2001, p. 129). The other commonly used *adverbs of indefinite frequency* in the corpus were *frequently* and *generally*. They were used, for example, to state that what is said is *often* the case or applies *frequently*. The following examples illustrate the use of these adverbs in the 20 ARs:

1) In the classroom, even though they did not **often** know what the teacher had planned for them, the types of instructional activities were familiar, **frequently** adapted from a textbook they

used the entire course, and **often** focused on language content that had already been heard or read. (Quali-LTR1)

2) In other words, these mature scientists (NESs or NNESs themselves) **generally** hold far more strict criteria over acceptable/unacceptable language re-use in scientific writing. (Quali-APP2)

3) A key finding was that **generally** the implicit and explicit measures of the same structure were not both related to proficiency. (Quanti-APP2)

4) Third, if one analyses formulaic sequences such as those used in this study, one discovers that the idiomatic renderings are **often** extensions of the literal meaning. (Quanti-APP1)

The second most frequent adverb in the corpus was *perhaps* which, according to Varttala's category, belongs to the category of *adverbs of probability*. These adverbs can "express degree of probability between the absolutes of 'true' and 'false'" (Varttala, ibid., p. 128). In Quirk et al. (1985, p. 620), these types of adverbs are categorized as part of *content disjuncts* which show some extent of doubt in the degree of truth value of an utterance. The adverb was used in the sub-corpus to express that what is stated is *perhaps* the case than an absolute conclusion. The other widespread *probability adverbs* identified in the corpus were *possibly* and *probably*. The two adverbs of *probably* and *possibly* were also among the most common adverbs in this group in Varttala's corpus. She also identified *likely* as the most frequent adverb in her data. However, *likely* was mostly used as an adjective in the corpus of this study rather than an adverb. The following examples show the use of these types of adverbs in the 20 RAs:

1) In this case, the course team intended that form/accuracy and meaning/fluency should have equal weighting, yet students prioritized form and accuracy, **probably** encouraged in their approach by the task type. (Quali-LTR2)

2) Nevertheless, **perhaps** 'getting wet' (i.e. committing textual plagiarism) and 'originality' in 'science' itself can indeed be separately viewed, even though this does not mean that textual plagiarism is justified/legitimate, 'as long as the work is our own'. (Quali-APP2)

3) It is not unreasonable to speculate that **perhaps** significant gains in the English language and skills for handling discipline materials acquired from content-based instruction in the first semester did give these students an advantage in taking the ACT English proficiency tests and in dealing with the range of academic tasks they encountered in the rest of their college years. (Quanti-ESP2)

4) Such features are difficult to render as rules-of-thumb and **probably** were not taught explicitly. (Quanti-APP2)

The third most frequent adverb in the corpus was *relatively* which belongs to the category of *adverbs of indefinite degree* in Varttala's categorization. These adverbs are used "to render one's statement less than absolute" (2001, p. 131). Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985, p. 445) categorize *relatively* under *downtoners* which "premodify an adjective" and "have a generally lowering effect usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm". The adverb was mostly used to describe a phenomenon or result as *relatively* higher, lower, or different from x. The other most common adverbs in the corpus, belonging to this category, were *largely* and *mainly*. The following examples illustrate the use of this type of adverbs in the 20 RAs:

1) The same reason may be applied to the head nodding. Head nods may be **mainly** used to signal agreement in English conversational contexts, whereas the meaning of head nodding may be more varied in Japanese conversational contexts (see, e.g., Maynard, 1989 for the functions of the head nod). (Quali-PRAG2)

2) If we are asking students to follow a deductive structure so that instructors can easily find the points they are looking for or because it may be a **relatively** easy heuristic for students to follow … (Quali-ESP3)

3) Hence, the learners were strongly interested in the native-speaker use of these idiomatic expressions in the role-play transcripts, resulting in a **relatively** high degree of awareness of such features. (Quanti-APP3)

4) Thus, it can be argued that whereas both direct CF with and without metalinguistic comments are **likely** to promote awareness as noticing… (Quanti-TESOL1)

## 7.2.2.4 Adjectives

The next category of hedges were *adjectives* which were infrequent in both sub-corpora and comprised about 8% and 9% of whole hedging words in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively. This category was also found as an infrequent one in Varttala's (2001) data. In both sub-corpora, the two most widely used adjectives were *possible* (n=86 in Quali and n=150 in Quanti) and *likely* (n=57 in Quali and n=104 in

Quanti). These adjectives, according to Varttala's category, which are *probability adjectives* were also the most common adjectives in her corpus. The following examples illustrate the use of these adjectives in the 20 RAs:

1) Nevertheless, it is **possible** to at least speculate that as they write more papers and become more 'fluent' in expressing themselves, they are likely to rely less on others' texts for language re-use. (Quali-APP2)

2) A **possible** explanation for this finding is that the particular measures of implicit and explicit knowledge (comparative and relative clause respectively) are differentially important for input and output processing. (Quanti-APP2)

3) One **possible** explanation for obtaining these results **may** lie in the nature of the targeted linguistic feature and the difficulty that this feature causes to learners from a different L1 (particularly the Chinese participants). (Quanti-LTR3)

4) Thus, it can be argued that whereas both direct CF with and without metalinguistic comments are **likely** to promote awareness as noticing… (Quanti-TESOL1)

### 7.2.2.5 Others

One of the least frequent categories in both sub-corpora was *others* (n=187 in Quali and n=156 in Quanti). The instances such as *idioms, pronouns, conjunctives,* and *prepositions* that did not fall under the other categories were included in *others* category. The three most common lexicons identified in this group were *some* (pronoun) (n=34 in Quali and n=33 in Quanti), *in general* (idiom) (n=25 in Quali and n=28 in Quanti), and *most* (pronoun) (n=25 in Quali and n=24 in Quanti). The category also included other lexicons such as: *in our view*, *more or less*, and *on the whole*. The following examples show the use of this category in the 20 RAs:

1) Here, we suggest a sort of enabling effect: If information relevant to the topic of the story is exchanged, particularly information about parts of the story that storytellers missed or left unclear in the initial telling, the teller has the chance to incorporate **some** of the information shared in the NOM when retelling the story, resulting in a story that is better than in the first telling. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) Given these renewed understandings of genre knowledge and genre teaching, I propose that learners' abilities to recontextualize their genre awareness, as seen in the case of Fengchen, may represent a more sophisticated level of achievement and may thus be more revealing of

the significance of genre-based learning **in general** and of their writing performance in particular. (Quali-ESP2)

3) To our student participants (and to Pan et al.) these actions were **more or less** non-problematic, because the 'work' was their own. (Quali-APP2)

4) In this instance, the contrast was not a real one, **given that** r would imply not-p, which would not be in contrast with the Actor's private belief. (Quali-PRAG3)

## 7.2.2.6 Nouns

The last and least frequent category of hedges was *nouns* (n=135 in Quali and n=164 in Quanti). The three most frequent *nouns* identified in both sub-corpora were *interpretation(s)* (n=42 in Quali and n=47 in Quanti), *possibility(ies)* (n=24 in Quali and n=37 in Quanti), and *assumption(s)* (n=22 in Quali and n=30 in Quanti). The other nouns identified in the corpus included *argument*, *belief*, *indication*, and *tendency*. The below examples show the use of this category in the 20 RAs:

1) **Evidence** in support of this **interpretation** comes from the tutors' journal entries which, as the volunteer program progressed, focused more on descriptions of task execution than on concerns over their level of language. (Quali-LTR1)

2) In addition, copying is not a serious problem in this section, according to another **argument**, because this is not an important section and it will receive little attention. (Quali-APP2)

3) These findings therefore enforced our **assumptions** concerning the complexity of the mental representations that… (Quanti-PRAG3)

4) Another **possibility** is simply that learners used their explicit knowledge to a greater extent in the writing test. (Quanti-TESOL1)

## 7.2.3   Summary

To summarize the discussion on hedges, the analysis revealed that hedging is a common feature which is distributed in all of the moves in both sub-corpora. The findings showed that, unexpectedly, the quantitative article writers used more hedges than their qualitative counterparts. Investigating the occurrences of hedges in various moves of the 20 RAs showed that the differences of the frequency of hedges can be related to the

generic structures of these two types of articles, particularly the move of Commenting on Findings which was a highly hedged move and comprised a high portion of the quantitative articles. Although no attempt was made in this study to identify the functions of hedges in each particular move, skimming the hedges in the moves, particularly the two most hedged moves, suggested that it is used strategically by the writers to interact with their audience and persuade them. It was noticed that the writers used hedges for different purposes including protecting themselves from possible criticisms, showing their tentativeness towards a proposition either to avoid full commitment or to show their uncertainty about a proposition. Investigating the lexical markers, which were used to express hedges, showed that two categories of modal verbs and verbs were the two most commonly used devices as hedges in both sub-corpora. The specialist informants also gave similar reasons for using hedges in their Discussion sections:

> It is a way of indicating the appropriate value you attach to your work. No research is without any constraints and universally true...they all have some limitations, of data, methodological procedures, or interpretation of findings, applications etc. Hedges are one of the resources good writers use to make their findings more reliable. (SpeInfo1)

> Because all research findings and the claims made about them are provisional – nothing is the final word; therefore, it is important to acknowledge that anything I write may be challenged by someone else who does further work in the field. (SpeInfo3)

Overall, the five most frequent lexicons used as hedges were *may*, *suggest*, *seem*, *indicate*, and *often*. All the identified categories and the most frequent lexicons in these categories were used with close frequency in both sub-corpora, indicating that, regardless of the type of their research method, these two types of  articles have similar choices of hedging words in at least their Discussion section.

## 7.3    BOOSTERS

Similar to the section 7.2 on Hedges, this section consists of two parts, presenting and discussing the overall distribution of boosters in the 200 RAs and in various moves of the 20 RAs, and presenting the lexical markers that are used to express boosters in the 200 RAs.

### 7.3.1    Distribution of Boosters

The analysis of the 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections using WordPilot 2002 shows that boosters, similar to hedges, are an important element that are used by writers' of both types of RAs to interact with their audience. On the one hand, writers use hedges to downtone their arguments and claims and on the other, they use boosters to show their commitment to their achievements and gain credibility for them. However, boosters appeared less frequently than hedges in the corpus. This finding is similar to Hyland's (1999b, 2005c) study of RAs from eight various disciplines, including Applied Linguistics and Vassileva's (2001) study on Linguistics RAs. The overall distribution of boosters in both sub-corpora is shown in Table 7.4. The frequency and percentage of boosters in each move of the 20 RAs are illustrated in Table 7.5. As can be seen in table 7.4, the frequency of boosters is quite similar in both types of RAs.

Table7.4: Overall Distribution of Boosters in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Sub-corpus | Total No of Boosters | Boosters Per 1,000 Words |
|---|---|---|
| Qualitative  (132,271 words) | 1,232 | 9.31 |
| Quantitative  (139,377 words) | 1,330 | 9.54 |

Table 7.5: Frequency and Percentage of Boosters in Each Move of the 10 Qualitative and 10 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Moves | Qualitative: 9,290 words | | | | Quantitative: 11,184 words | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Text Size | | Boosters | | Text Size | | Boosters | |
| | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words |
| Providing Background Information | 418 | 4.50 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 589 | 5.27 | 2 (2.35%) | 3.39 |
| Stating Findings | 2071 | 22.29 | 22 (40.76%) | 10.62 | 2139 | 19.12 | 24 (28.24%) | 11.22 |
| Providing Evidence for Findings | 1180 | 12.70 | 3 (5.56%) | 2.54 | *** | | | |
| Commenting on Findings | 1803 | 19.41 | 10 (18.51%) | 5.55 | 5077 | 45.40 | 33 (38.83%) | 6.50 |
| Supporting Comments on Findings | 712 | 7.66 | 2 (3.70%) | 2.80 | *** | | | |
| Comparing Findings with Literature | 809 | 8.71 | 6 (11.11%) | 7.41 | 1115 | 9.97 | 13 (15.29%) | 11.66 |
| Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | *** | | | | 152 | 1.36 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Making Recommendations | 607 | 6.53 | 0 (0.00%) | 0.0 | 581 | 5.19 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Making Deductions | 642 | 6.92 | 4 (7.40%) | 6.23 | 555 | 4.96 | 5 (5.88%) | 9.0 |
| Supporting Deductions/ Suggestions | 63 | 0.68 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 229 | 2.05 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Evaluating the Study | 725 | 7.80 | 6 (11.11%) | 8.27 | 576 | 5.15 | 7 (8.23%) | 12.15 |
| Summarizing the Study | 260 | 2.80 | 1 (1.85%) | 3.85 | 171 | 1.53 | 1 (1.18%) | 7.85 |
| **Total** | **9,290** | **100** | **54 (100%)** | **5.81** | **11,184** | **100** | **85 (100%)** | **7.69** |

Note: *** indicates that the move was not identified in the sub-corpus

As can be seen in table 7.5, boosters are distributed almost equally in each move in the qualitative and quantitative RAs. Although boosters were present in most of the moves, they appeared infrequently in some of them. The writers used boosters in several moves such as in providing background information:

1) SLA research involving oral CF has **shown** that CF facilitates learning when it focuses on a single linguistic feature and makes the error salient (Han, 2002; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001). (Quanti-TESOL1)

2) To address these questions, tests were designed to provide relatively separate measures of the two types of knowledge. The design characteristics of these tests were explained in the methodology section where it was also **shown** that… (Quanti-APP2)

in providing evidence for findings:

1) The fourth year students, however, were typically more adept at storytelling. In particular, the shift in style and stance in Ben's embedded narratives **demonstrates** his ability to adopt a range of narrative voices… In the first year presentations, the images were mostly topographical and technical in nature, and to the observer, they seemed to have lost all trace of the creative design process... Ben's images of performance art and sculptural non-functional architecture are instead arguably metaphorical, and **certainly** contribute to the complex network of historical and artistic associations surrounding his design concept. (Quanti-ESP1)

in commenting on their findings:

1) Nevertheless, perhaps 'getting wet' (i.e. committing textual plagiarism) and 'originality' in 'science' itself can **indeed** be separately viewed, even though this does not mean that textual plagiarism is justified/legitimate, 'as long as the work is our own'. From **the fact that** some of our 'textual plagiarism' examples were taken from the students' published texts, and indeed one post-doctoral fellow of Chemistry we talked to suggested that it was not rare for him to come across two highly-similar passages in reading journal articles authored by scientists of various L1-background. (Quali-APP2)

2) A possible explanation is that, during the task, the learners might assume that the use of appropriate 'discourse level' interactional markers, rather than 'sentence-level' request forms, is more likely to express the relatively high level of linguistic politeness required for effective communication in the scenarios... **In fact**, Japanese college students rarely have opportunities to encounter and use these markers in interactions conducted in English in their college English classes, which can explain why … (Quanti-APP3)

3) What factors might explain the difficulty the learners experienced with performing these structures in the tests of implicit knowledge? In the introduction to this article five factors that potentially contributed to the ease/difficulty of structural features for implicit knowledge were considered. Table 12 attempts an assessment of the difficulty of the four structures with low implicit scores in terms of these factors. It must be acknowledged, however, that this analysis is post hoc and that the application of these factors as criteria of learning difficulty is not always straightforward…Also, it can be considered to meet the regularity criterion in that the rule determining which auxiliary to choose is **highly** reliable. However, it has low functional value in that the choice of auxiliary form is determined **entirely** formally (i.e. with reference to the verb form in the main clause)… (Quanti-APP2)

in supporting the comments on the findings:

1) **Evidence** in support of this interpretation comes from the tutors' journal entries which, as the volunteer program progressed, focused more on descriptions of task execution than on concerns over their level of language. (Quali-LTR1)

2) One possible explanation for this result is that the learners of Japanese transferred their first language rules into the Japanese conversational contexts. In other words, they may have translated the BC cue uun as ''yes'' or ''yeah'', as it is frequently used to indicate agreement in English conversational contexts. [Commenting on Findings]… **In fact**, this was reflected in a report of a Japanese learner in the present study… (Quali-PRAG2)

and in making deductions:

1) Thus, one often overlooked aspect of the construct of scaffolding is the **essential** role played by the learner in guiding the scaffolding process. Without the ability or willingness to engage with the more knowledgeable other or a readiness to incorporate and appropriate what has been revealed in interaction with the more knowledgeable other, the learner cannot make progress—at least not immediately. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) The **evidence** obtained in this study on the production task suggests that the effects of PI not only have an impact on the way that learners interpret sentences but also on the way that learners produce sentences. PI has **clearly** altered the way learners processed input and this had an effect on their developing system and subsequently on what the subjects could access for production. (Quantii-LTR3)

Meanwhile, boosters were more frequent in the three moves of Stating the Findings, Comparing Findings with Literature, and Evaluating the Study. The most widely used booster lexicon in both sub-corpora in Stating the Findings was the verb *show*. The verb was used mostly with reference to the findings to demonstrate that the proposition is drawn from the evidence and the writer is certain about the outcomes of the study. As Hyland (1998a, p. 370) also found in his corpus, in this context, the writers used boosters "to stress the strength of warrants, suggesting the efficacy of the relationship between the data and claims". The other lexicons used as boosters in this move included *demonstrate*, *evidence*, *clearly,* and *particularly*. The following examples demonstrate the use of boosters in this move in the data:

1) Our analysis of NOM sessions also **showed clearly** that the teacher, although not the sole factor in improving stories, was a critical player. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) There was **evidence** that repeating a task with well-defined parameters and similar content (i.e. switching roles during a role play) increased the likelihood of its completion… (Quali-LTR1)

3) Means obtained for text comprehension **demonstrated** that participants **clearly** attempted to read the passage for meaning ($M = 13.24$ out of 15, with 7 as the lowest score). (Quali-TESOL2)

4) The results of the statistical analysis **clearly showed** that the PI made significant improvement (from pre-test to post-test) on the interpretation task. (Quali-LTR3)

As was discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, the move of Evaluating the Study consists of two steps of Stating the Significance of the Study and Stating the Limitations of the

Study. As can be expected, the boosters appeared in the first step when the writers evaluated their studies positively and highlighted their importance and contribution to the field. The most common lexicon used in stating the significance was *evidence* which the writers used mostly to state that their studies have provided evidence for a knowledge claim. The following examples demonstrate the use of boosters in this move:

1) Our analysis therefore provides **evidence** for the claim by some recent educational discourse researchers that the topic organization is constituted in the participants' turns at talk, which in turn display their orientations to and understanding of what is relevant to the set task agenda. (Quali-APP1)

2) This study, combined with the research of Gibbs and colleagues (1997), and the eye-movement results from Underwood et al. (2004), provide converging **evidence** to support the processing advantage of formulaic sequences, at least when reading. (Quanti-APP1)

3) In addition, they add to the **evidence** provided by previous studies (Kasper, 1997; Murie & Thomson, 2001) that content-based ESL instruction provides long-term benefits that promote academic success. (Quali-ESP2)

4) The results obtained in the present study **confirm** the consistency and effectiveness of PI in improving learners' performance in both interpretation and production task (sentence level). (Quanti-LTR3)

The boosters were also common in Comparing Findings with Literature. They were mostly identified when the writers stated the consistency of their findings with literature. In this context, they mostly used boosters such as *show* and *found* to indicate their confidence in the studies in literature. The writers also used boosters in stating inconsistency of findings with literature to show their confidence in their own findings. The following examples illustrate the use of boosters in this move:

1) Kasper (2004) has also **shown** how the definition of characteristics of task is procedurally consequential in topic initiation of talk. In our data, it can be seen that formulation of the task demand was well integrated into the discussion. (Quali-APP1)

2) This view is supported by studies of oral CF. Carroll and Swain (1993) **found** that a group who received more explicit and informative CF (i.e., direct metalinguistic CF) outperformed groups who received other types of CF in a study investigating the acquisition of English dative verbs. (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) Both Underwood et al. and this study **show** that nonnatives read formulaic sequences more quickly than equivalent non-formulaic language. Of course the reading speeds are slower than for natives, as one would expect, but even at this slower speed formulaic sequences **show** an advantage. (Quanti-APP3)

4) **In fact**, the over-explicitness during both early and later stages of second language acquisition is a common phenomenon, observed in many other L2 acquisition studies (Hendricks, 2003; Klein and Perdue, 1992; Williams, 1998). (Quanti-PRAG1)

5) According to Tomlin and Villa (1994), attention involves three subsystems- alertness, orientation, and direction- with detection as the most important function in attentional allocation' whereas alertness and orientation are not required for detection. As opposed to Tomlin and Villa, however, I would argue that both alertness and orientation are required for the detection of pragmalinguistic features. The current study **demonstrates** that motivation is related to learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic features. (Quanti-APP3)

The overall frequency of boosters identified in the corpus of this study is different from Hyland's (1999b, 2005c) who found 6.2 boosters per 1,000 words in Applied Linguistics RAs compared to 9.29 and 10.69 boosters per 1,000 words in this study in the qualitative and quantitative RAs respectively. The identified frequency of boosters in this study's corpus is close to Peacock's (2006) findings who identified 10.98 boosters per 1,000 in Languages and Linguistics' RAs. The difference might be due to the number of boosters investigated in Hyland's compared to Peacock's and this study. Hyland did not specify the number and type of boosters he used in his analysis; Peacock used 118 lexical items; and 117 items were investigated in this study. The difference with Hyland's findings can also be attributed to various rhetorical sections of RAs investigated, as Hyland has studied the whole RA while this study only focused on Discussion section. This view is supported by Vassileva's (2001) finding which showed that boosters were more frequent in Discussion section of English Linguistics RAs compared to Introduction and Conclusion sections. However, it should also be noted that Peacock, whose findings are close to findings of this study, also analyzed the whole RAs.

The other point that should be noted in this part is that after analyzing both sub-corpora, it was noticed that the words *significant* and *significantly* are overused in the quantitative sub-corpus. Checking the items in their co-context, it was noticed that the majority of the cases were used to show statistical differences between control and experimental groups or between pre-test and post-test results. In most cases, *significant* was collocated with words such as *difference(s)*, *correlation(s)*, *amount*, *degree*, and *gains*. The word *significantly* was also collocated with words such as *more*, *higher*, *better*, and *fewer*. These two words have specific meanings in statistics and were not used by writers to show their commitment to their conventions. The following examples illustrate the use of these words in such contexts in the quantitative sub-corpus:

1) There is a **significant** positive correlation (r = 0.47), between overall scores on the elicited imitation task and the oral narrative task.

2) Analysis confirmed that in both oral and written (language and geography essays) tests, there was no **significan***t* difference between the groups prior to the programme.

3) Additional analysis was conducted to check whether there was a **significant** relationship between learners' appropriateness scores and their planning time.

4) The G only condition also produced **significantly** higher scores than the control condition, though not as high as those in the combined G + R condition.

5) Curiously, over time, CD occurrences in written performance increased **significantly** in the control group (which continued on its course of traditional language learning).

Therefore, all the cases that these two words were used in such contexts were not counted as boosters. To be specific, a total of 170 cases of *significant* and 122 instances of *significantly* which were identified in the quantitative sub-corpus were not identified as booster and were excluded from the results.

### 7.3.2 Lexical Markers for Expressing Boosters

The analysis showed that the writers used various categories of boosters in their Discussion sections. The frequency of these categories in the 200 RAs are shown in

Table 7.6. As the table illustrates, the preference of various categories of boosters is similar in both sets of articles, except for *modals* which are slightly more frequent in the qualitative sub-corpus and *nouns* whose use is slightly higher in the quantitative articles. The two predominant categories in both sub-corpora are verbs and adverbs which comprise around 70% of the whole boosters in each sub-corpus. Three categories of *others*, *modals*, and *nouns* are the least frequent categories in both sets of articles. Vassileva's (2001) study also showed a more frequent use of adjectives/adverbs as boosters compared to modals in Linguistics RAs.

Table 7.6: Frequency of Categories of Boosters in 10 Qualitative and 10 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Category | Qualitative: 132,271 | | Quantitative: 139,377 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 words | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 words |
| Verbs | 481 (39.04%) | 3.64 | 509 (38.27%) | 3.65 |
| Adverbs | 367 (29.79%) | 2.77 | 400 (30.07%) | 2.87 |
| Adjectives | 197 (15.99%) | 1.49 | 197 (14.81%) | 1.41 |
| Others | 70 (5.68%) | 0.53 | 93 (6.99%) | 0.66 |
| Modals | 65 (5.28%) | 0.49 | 58 (4.37%) | 0.41 |
| Nouns | 52 (4.22%) | 0.39 | 73 (5.49%) | 0.52 |
| Total | 1,232 (100%) | 9.31 | 1,330 (100%) | 9.54 |

### 7.3.2.1 Verbs

The most prevalent category in both sets of articles was verbs. Similar to hedges, all the verbs that had the same stem were combined in order to have a more precise idea about the occurrence of a specific verb. The predominant verb used in both sub-corpora was *show* (n=179 in Quali and n=206 in Quanti). The next two most occurred verbs were *found* (n=116 in Quali and n=150 in Quanti) and *demonstrate* (n=91 in Quali and n=55 in Quanti). The finding is consistent with Peacock's (2005) who found *show* as the most common booster in four various disciplines including Languages and Linguistics. He also found *find* and *demonstrate* among the most dominant boosters in his corpus. The following are some examples of the use of this category in the 20 RAs:

1) Our analysis **shows** that topical organization embedded in this institutional speech event displays features that are both similar to and different from those typical of either ordinary conversation or other institutional discourse. (Quali-APP1)

2) The findings **showed** that learners with a high level of language analytic ability benefited more from both types of CF. (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) Although the same type of comment was **found** in the reports of the JNSG, it was more evident in the LJG. (Quali-PRAG2)

4) The study **found** that students who received WCF significantly improved their accuracy in using the targeted functions of the English article system… (Quanti-LTR2)

5) In particular, the shift in style and stance in Ben's embedded narratives **demonstrates** his ability to adopt a range of narrative voices. (Quali-ESP1)

6) The current study **demonstrates** that motivation is related to learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic features. (Quanti-APP3)

## 7.3.2.2 Adverbs

The second most common category of boosters in both sub-corpora was *adverbs*. Among the adverbs, several were more common than others including *clearly* (n=57 in Quali and n=55 in Quanti), *particularly* (n=54 in Quali and n=49 in Quanti), *indeed* (n=37 in Quali and n=50 in Quanti), *in fact* (n=32 in Quali and n=41 in Quanti), and *highly* (n=26 in Quali and n=26 in Quanti). The findings are similar to Peacock's (2005) findings who found all these adverbs among the most frequent adverbial boosters in Applied Linguistics. Vassileva (2001) also found *clearly* as the most widespread adverbial booster in Linguistics RAs. Bondi (2008) analyzing adverbial emphatics, found *clearly* and *particularly* among highly used adverbs in History and Economics RAs. The other more frequently used adverbs in the corpus were *actually*, *always*, and *highly*. The following examples show the use of adverbial boosters in the 20 RAs:

1) Our analysis of NOM sessions also showed **clearly** that the teacher, although not the sole factor in improving stories, was a critical player. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) This may be **particularly** important for adult learners with a great deal of experience of the world to draw on and a great interest in the social and cultural issues affecting themselves and the people who speak their target language. (Quali-LTR2)

3) The results provide **evidence** that this is **indeed** the case. (Quanti-APP1)

4) Also, it can be considered to meet the regularity criterion in that the rule determining which auxiliary to choose is **highly** reliable. (Quanti-APP2)

### 7.3.2.3 Adjectives

The third most dominant category of boosters in both sub-corpora was *adjectives* (n=197 in Quali and n=203 in Quanti). The most frequent lexicons in this category were *clear* (n=30 in Quali and n=35 in Quanti), *evident* (n=28 in Quali and n=17 in Quanti), *apparent* (n=17 in Quali and n=20 in Quanti), and *true* (n=16 in Quali and n=17 in Quanti). In Peacock's analysis of 30 Languages and Linguistics RAs, two adjectives of *clear* and *apparent* were found among the most frequent adjectives in the corpus. The following examples illustrate the use of adjectives as boosters in the 20 RAs:

1) At one level, such a claim is **obvious**; however, current models of teaching and learning rarely acknowledge this important fact. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) All this suggests that learners' motivation as affected by factors 'personal relevance with respect to their learning goals' and 'expectancy of success in L2 learning' is a **crucial** determinant of attentional allocation to pragmalinguistic features in L2 input (see Crookes & Schmidt 1991). (Quali-APP3)

3) They show that a single WCF treatment is effective in helping learners improve the accuracy of their writing and that the benefits accrued from this input are not only retained over time but also **evident** in new pieces of writing. (Quanti-LTR2)

4) It is **clear**, then, that being an easy to 'grasp' feature does not guarantee its accurate use as implicit knowledge. (Quanti-APP2)

### 7.3.2.4 Others

The category of *others* which comprised around 6% of the boosters in each sub-corpus included the instances such as *idioms*, *pronouns*, *conjunctives*, and *prepositions* that did not fall under the other categories. Only three lexicons were identified in this category: *the fact that* (n=49 in Quali and n=75 in Quanti), *of course* (n=18 in Quali and n=18 in

Quanti), and *no doubt* (n=4 in Quali and n=0 in Quanti). The following examples from the 200 RAs illustrate the use of this category in the corpus:

1) This is supported by **the fact that** when referring to some other referent entitled to be called my lord, writers almost always use an additional ''reference-specifier'', as in my Lord Coke, my Lord Treasurer, my Lord of Oxford and my Lord his Grace of Canterbury. (Quali.)

2) The findings presented above are **of course** not conclusive, given the limited coverage and number of texts considered. (Quali.)

3) We now turn to a number of theoretical and methodological matters which the reader will **no doubt** have been considering already. (Quali.)

4) There is the possibility, **of course**, that some non-CLT elements may be at odds with, opposed to, or inimical to CLT approaches. (Quanti.)

5) They also illustrate **the fact that**, as we argue elsewhere (Salager-Meyer and Alcaraz Ariza, 2004), book reviewers in the 19th century used to exploit the BR space to expose at length their own views on the subject related to the book content, often in a quite virulent and passionate tone as in example 12. (Quanti.)

### 7.3.2.5 Modals

The category of *modals* was another infrequent group in both sets of articles; however, it was slightly more frequent in the qualitative articles. Three modal verbs were identified as boosters in the corpus: *must* (n=47 in Quali and n=29 in Quanti), *do* (when was followed by an infinitive verb) (n=9 in Quali and n=17 in Quanti), and *does* (when was followed by an infinitive verb) (n=9 in Quali and n=12 in Quanti). The modals were identified 48 and 29 times in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively. Peacock (2005) identified *must* among the top five most frequent boosters in 30 Languages and Linguistics RAs. Although the category of *modals* was infrequent in the corpus of this study, *must*, being among the 10 most frequent boosters, was a frequent lexicon in the corpus. Peacock's results showed a frequency of 0.30 occurrences per 1,000 for this lexicon which is close to 0.36 and 0.30 per 1,000 words in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora of this study respectively. The following examples from the 20 RAs illustrate the use of these modals:

1) Not only **must** the story itself provide enough plot to elicit interest and wonderment from the teacher and other audience members, but the storyteller **must** also actively respond to the negotiation that transpires following the telling. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) Yet, if it is true that children have difficulty inferring that r implies not-p, they will answer correctly for the wrong reason, i.e., they detect a contrast which supports their conclusion that there **must** be an act of deceit in progress. (Quanti-PRAG3)

3) As the study illustrates, while some of the published texts **do** follow a deductive pattern, others do not. Such texts create a gap between what students read and what they are expected to write. (Quali-ESP3)

4) Dative alternation **does** permit a reasonably transparent rule (e.g. verbs that derive from Latin or Greek do not permit dative alternation while Anglo-Saxon verbs do)… (Quanti-APP1)


### 7.3.2.6 Nouns

The last category of boosters was *nouns* which was infrequent in both sub-corpora and comprised less than 5% and 6% of the boosters in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpus respectively. The only *noun* that was found in the corpus as a booster was *evidence* which appeared 52 and 73 times in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpus respectively. The word was not included in Peacock's list, however, other studies (e.g. Hyland, 2005a) have included it in their analysis. Although *nouns* were among the least frequent categories in the corpus, *evidence* was one of the most frequent boosters used in the corpus. The below examples show the use of *evidence* in the 20 RAs:

1) Instances of preliminary or warm up talk like these thus provide **evidence** that the participants themselves categorized their previous talk as 'transitional first' or as 'false first' topic talk. (Quali-APP1)

2) There was **evidence** that repeating a task with well-defined parameters and similar content (i.e. switching roles during a role play) increased the likelihood of its completion, a finding that is consistent with studies that attest to improved proficiency (based on holistic measures) on repeated tasks when learners were familiar with the content (e.g. Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres & Fernandez-Garcia, 1999). (Quali-LTR1)

3) This study, combined with the research of Gibbs and colleagues (1997), and the eye-movement results from Underwood et al. (2004), provide converging **evidence** to support the processing advantage of formulaic sequences, at least when reading. (Quanti-APP1)

4) These findings corroborate those of several earlier studies (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001, Sheen, 2006) and

therefore provide further **evidence** for a rebuttal of Truscott's (1996) claim that error correction is ineffective. (Quanti-LTR1)

### 7.3.3 Summary

To summarize the discussion on boosters, the findings indicate that boosters are a common feature that the writers of both sets of articles use to interact with their audience. The findings, however, showed a less frequent use of the boosters compared to hedges, a finding which is consistent with other studies in the field. The specialist informants also stated that they would use boosters more cautiously:

> Yes I use boosters too, but more sparingly and judiciously. (SpeInfo1)

> As I said on the whole I tend to be more of a hedger. That's just my particular style. I would tend not to use. Again this is my perception of myself if I look at my writing I don't know. (SpeInfo2)

> I checked a number of Discussion sections that I have written and I don't use boosters often. I tend to use more hedges. (SpeInfo3)

In terms of frequency, the analysis did not show much difference in both sub-corpora. The two moves that were identified with higher number of boosters were Stating Findings and Evaluating the Study (step1: Stating the Significance of their Study). The finding is expected because in these two moves the writers present new knowledge claims and the importance and contribution of their study to the field and consequently tend to show their confidence in what they state and emphasize the points that they want to be highlighted in order to gain readers' acceptance of them. Categorization of boosters showed that the two categories of verbs and adverbs were the most common devices used as boosters in both sub-corpora. Both groups of writers favored the categories similarly, except for modals which were identified slightly higher in the qualitative articles and nouns which were slightly higher in the quantitative articles. Both sets of articles were also similar in their choices of lexicons from each category, and the most frequent lexicons in each category were the same in both sets of

articles. Overall, the five most frequent lexicons used as boosters were *show*, *find*, *demonstrate*, *evidence*, and *clearly*. The findings were mostly compared with Peacock's (2005) study who studied boosters in 30 Languages and Linguistics RAs and in the majority of the cases the findings, regarding the preference of lexicons as boosters, were similar.

## 7.4 ATTITUDE MARKERS

Similar to the previous two sections, the findings from analyzing attitude markers are presented in two sections. The first part presents and discusses the overall distribution of attitude markers in the 200 RAs and in various moves of the 20 RAs. The second part is concerned with lexical markers that are used to express attitude markers in the 200 RAs.

### 7.4.1 Distribution of Attitude Markers

The analysis of 200 RAs' Discussion sections using WordPilot2002 showed that attitude markers, compared to the hedges and boosters, were much less frequent in both types of the articles and appeared less than 5 times in every 1,000 words. Table 7.7 shows the total frequency of attitude markers and their occurrences per 1,000 words.

Table7.7: Overall Distribution of Attitude Markers in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Sub-corpus | Total No of Attitude Markers | Attitude Markers Per 1,000 Words |
|---|---|---|
| Qualitative (132,271 words) | 597 | 4.51 |
| Quantitative (139,377 words) | 628 | 4.50 |

The findings are both similar to and different from Hyland's (1999b, 2005c) results. Similar to this study, Hyland's analysis showed that attitude markers were less frequent than hedges in Applied Linguistics RAs. However, he identified 8.6 attitude markers per 1,000 which is higher than this study's findings. Furthermore, unlike the

present study, Hyland's analysis showed higher use of attitude markers (8.6 per 1,000 words) compared to boosters (6.2 per 1,000 words). In the present study's corpus, the boosters appeared almost two times more than the attitude markers in both sub-corpora (see Tables 7.4 and 7.7). This difference, as discussed previously in the hedges and boosters sections, might be related to the size and type of the corpus and the attitude markers that were investigated. In other words, while Hyland has not specified the number of attitude markers that he used in his study, a total of 97 attitude markers were searched in the corpus of this study. Furthermore, Hyland analyzed 30 RAs but did not specify the number of words; however, the corpus of this study consisted of 200 RAs' discussion sections (271,628 words). The other difference between the two studies is concerned with the rhetorical sections that these two studies analyzed. Hyland investigated the stance features in the whole RAs, while this study focused only on the Discussion section.

Table 7.8: Frequency and Percentage of Attitude Markers in Each Move of the 10 Qualitative and 10 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Section

| Moves | Qualitative: 9,290 words | | | | Quantitative: 11,184 words | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Text Size | | Attitude Markers | | Text Size | | Attitude Markers | |
| | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1000 Words | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1000 Words |
| Providing Background Information | 418 | 4.50 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 589 | 5.27 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Stating Findings | 2071 | 22.29 | 5 (26.31%) | 2.41 | 2139 | 19.12 | 6 (15.79%) | 2.80 |
| Providing Evidence for Findings | 1180 | 12.70 | 2 (10.53%) | 0.85 | *** | | | |
| Commenting on Findings | 1803 | 19.41 | 5 (26.31%) | 2.77 | 5077 | 45.40 | 17 (44.74%) | 3.35 |
| Supporting Comments on Findings | 712 | 7.66 | 2 (10.53%) | 2.81 | *** | | | |
| Comparing Findings with Literature | 809 | 8.71 | 1 (5.26%) | 1.24 | 1115 | 9.97 | 5 (13.16%) | 4.48 |
| Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | *** | | | | 152 | 1.36 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Making Recommendations | 607 | 6.53 | 0 (%) | 0.0 | 581 | 5.19 | 4 (10.52%) | 6.88 |
| Making Deductions | 642 | 6.92 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 555 | 4.96 | 2 (5.26%) | 3.60 |
| Supporting Deductions/ Suggestions | 63 | 0.68 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 229 | 2.05 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Evaluating the Study | 725 | 7.80 | 4 (21.06%) | 5.52 | 576 | 5.15 | 4 (10.53%) | 6.94 |
| Summarizing the Study | 260 | 2.80 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 171 | 1.53 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Total | 9,290 | 100 | 19 (100%) | 2.05 | 11,184 | 100 | 38 (100%) | 3.39 |

Note: *** indicates that the move was not identified in the sub-corpus

Similar to the hedges and boosters, the attitude markers were also investigated in 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs' various moves. The findings confirmed the results from the 200 RAs' analysis in that attitude markers were less frequent than the hedges and boosters in both sub-corpora. Table 7.8 shows the distribution of attitude markers in different moves of the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora.

The analysis of the attitude makers in the 20 RAs showed that they are used in several moves with different frequency. For instance, the writers used the attitude markers in stating their findings where they emphasized the importance of their findings:

1) The findings reveal some **important** differences in the nature of the oral interaction experienced by Soon Yi and Ivan in the classroom and real-world contexts. (Quali-LTR1)

2) On the other hand, it is **interesting** that, in the case of the direct metalinguistic group, the writing test gains were more strongly correlated with the language analysis scores than the error correction test gains. (Quanti-TESOL1)

in providing evidence for their findings and supporting comments on findings in the qualitative sub-corpus:

1) Adam was able to convey his **dramatic** reaction to the site as a generator for his design concept, and establish his control and authority over his design by narrating the process of its development… Ben also managed his visual presentation to convey temporal sequencing as an **important** part of one of his rhetorical narratives. (Quali-ESP1)

2) This implies that it is difficult for learners to apply the Japanese rule, even if they have the necessary knowledge **[Commenting on Findings]**. The following quotation supports this view: … Maynard (1982:222) makes a further **useful** comment on the difficulty of adopting the target language's rule: … (Quali-PRAG2)

in commenting on their findings:

1) It is **not unreasonable** to speculate that perhaps significant gains in the English language and skills for handling discipline materials acquired from content-based instruction in the first semester did give these students an advantage in taking the ACT English proficiency tests and in dealing with the range of academic tasks they encountered in the rest of their college years…. **Most importantly**, the students from the linked program would know where to turn

to for help when they needed it again because of their own previous experiences, be it through institutional academic support services, or their own social support networks. (Quali-ESP2)

2) The analysis shown in Table 12 suggests that two of the criteria (functional value, and processability) may be especially **important** in determining grammatical complexity as implicit knowledge. (Quanti-App2)

and in making deductions from their studies:

1) Thus, one often overlooked aspect of the construct of scaffolding is the **essential** role played by the learner in guiding the scaffolding process. Without the ability or willingness to engage with the more knowledgeable other or a readiness to incorporate and **appropriate** what has been revealed in interaction with the more knowledgeable other, the learner cannot make progress—at least not immediately. (Quali-TESOL3)

2) In summary, this study suggests that motivation and proficiency operate on pragmalinguistic awareness independently rather than jointly, and that motivation plays a more **crucial** role than proficiency in learners' allocation of attention to pragmatic input. (Quanti-APP3)

Attitude markers were found more frequently in the move of Evaluating the Study in both sub-corpora. They were used, for instance, to highlight the importance of the study or to state which issues and points are important to be considered when they talked about the limitations of their study:

1) This study is limited in its analysis of ownership because it only examines the situated linguistic identities expressed during an experimental task. The participants may orient to English very differently in other contexts, such as in an ESL class or in a conversation with a speaker from the inner circle. Furthermore, it is **important** to stress that the potential for ownership… Conversely, it is **important** to acknowledge that the concept of ownership extends to speakers of nonstandard varieties in the inner circle… (Quali-TESOL1)

2) The findings of this study are additionally **important** because they have been tested with a larger population than most earlier studies (see Table 1) and because they are the product of a study that sought to eliminate the limitations of earlier research. (Quanti-LTR2)

While the attitude markers are distributed almost with similar frequency in most of the common moves of the qualitative and quantitative RAs, they appeared with more frequency in Making Recommendations and Commenting on Findings moves in the quantitative RAs (as shown in Table 7.8). Upon more detailed examination of the

attitude markers in the move of Making Recommendations, it was noticed that all of them appeared in Recommending Further Research step. While the step was present in 7 RAs (out of 10) in the quantitative sub-corpus, it was identified only in two qualitative RAs and in very short length. That might be a reason for why the attitude markers were found more frequently in this move in the quantitative sub-corpus. The following examples show the use of attitude makers in this move:

1) The implication is that teachers need to use **appropriate** and authentic texts and to provide an opportunity for students to examine styles other than the ''preferred'' structure. (Quali-ESP3)

2) However, further analysis with a larger sample size is **necessary** to study this phenomenon in second language discourse in more depth. (Quanti-PRAG1)

3) While this movement was not statistically significant, it would be **interesting** to observe in more extensive investigations (where additional post-tests are included) whether any decline is significant. (Quanti-LTR2)

4) A more **insightful** line of enquiry might be to look for differences in the patterns of correlations involving oral and written language. (Quanti-APP2)

The other move in which attitude markers appeared more frequently in the quantitative than the qualitative RAs was Comparing Findings with Literature. Examination of the instances of attitude markers in this move showed that three out of five attitude markers in the quantitative RAs was used in the second step of the move (indicating the inconsistency of findings with literature) where the writers expressed that the inconsistency was *interesting*. The following examples demonstrate the use of attitude markers in this move:

1) Previous research on spoken academic genres has illustrated that narrative typically functions to create rapport with an audience and to draw them into the speaker's world (Thompson, 2002).In our data, a narrative rhetorical style seemed to be one of the more **important** components of a successful design presentation. (Quali-ESP1)

2) It is **interesting** that, in contrast to the study reported in this article, Bitchener et al. did not find any statistically significant effect for direct corrective feedback alone (i.e., without metalinguistic comments). (Quanti-TESOL1)

3) It is **interesting** to note that the results from the present study differ from Farley's research (Farley, 2001a; 2001b) and Benati's (Benati, 2001). (Quanti-LTR3)


## 7.4.2 Lexical Markers for Expressing Attitude Markers

Categorizing the attitude markers of the 200 RAs revealed that unlike the hedges and boosters, both groups of writers used limited categories of words to reveal their attitudes. Generally, the two main categories used were *adverbs* and *adjectives*.

Table 7.9: Frequency of Categories of Attitude Markers in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Category | Qualitative: 132,271 words | | Quantitative: 139,377 words | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words |
| Adjectives | 435 (72.86%) | 3.29 | 437 (69.59) | 3.13 |
| Adverbs | 160 (26.80%) | 1.21 | 190 (30.25) | 1.36 |
| Verbs | 2 (0.34) | 0.01 | 1 (0.16) | 0.007 |
| **Total** | **597 (100%)** | **4.50** | **628 (100%)** | **4.51** |


## 7.4.2.1 Adjectives

The most frequent category in both sub-corpora was *adjectives* which comprised around 70% of the whole attitude markers in each sub-corpus. Among this category, *important* (n=101 in Quali and n=110 in Quanti) was the most dominant one. The next two most frequent adjectives were *appropriate* (n=58 in Quali and n=43 in Quanti) and *interesting* (n=26 in Quali and n=37 in Quanti). While some other adjectives such as *crucial*, *expected*, *necessary*, and *useful* were frequent in the corpus, some other adjectives such as *thoroughly*, *remarkable*, *curious*, *pleased*, and *ironic* were underused and appeared less than five times in the whole corpus. The following examples show how the adjectives were used to express attitude in the 20 RAs:

1) The findings reveal some **important** differences in the nature of the oral interaction experienced by Soon Yi and Ivan in the classroom and real-world contexts. (Quali-LTR1)

2) In contrast, lower quality NOM sessions were those in which the conversation between storyteller and audience did not lead to a **useful** exchange of information from the teller's point of view. (Quali-TESOL3)

3) For example, it is **surprising** that the Singaporeans all rejected the use of "researches" or "equipments" as countable nouns when these particular forms have been attested multiple times in Singapore as well as in the United Kingdom (Lowenberg, 1986; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1984). (Quali-TESOL1)

4) Since students gave high praise to the support services of tutoring and counseling which they benefited from in the first semester, it would not make sense for them to abandon these **useful** services in the subsequent semesters. (Quanti-ESP2)

5) However, further analysis with a larger sample size is **necessary** to study this phenomenon in second language discourse in more depth. (Quanti-PRAG1)

6) This is an **interesting** finding because earlier suggestions (Ferris, 1999; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Reid, 1998, 2005; Roberts, 1999) have tended to identify international visa students as being potentially more attuned to focusing on grammatical accuracy than migrant students. (Quanti-LTR2)

## 7.4.2.2 Adverbs

The other category of words that was used as attitude markers in both sub-corpora was *adverbs* which compared to *adjectives* were less frequent. The only *adverb* that was frequent in both sets of articles was *even* (n=90 in Quali and n=84 in Quanti). Some other adverbs were also found in the corpus which normally were not frequent and some even appeared once or twice in the corpus: *reasonably*, *sufficiently*, *dramatically*, and *curiously*. The following examples illustrate the use of adverbs as attitude markers in the 200 RAs:

1) **Interestingly**, all 12 of the fourth year students were deemed successful by the instructor, suggesting that despite little direct training, students gradually develop an understanding of what a successful presentation within the discipline entails. (Quali-ESP1)

2) Indeed, **ironically**, the interaction between Oakland and Miles during the pre-task planning appears to exhibit a more discussion-like mutual exchange of ideas. (Quali.)

3) Of course the reading speeds are slower than for natives, as one would expect, but **even** at this slower speed formulaic sequences show an advantage. (Quanti-APP1)

4) Clearly, then, knowledge of grammar serves as a powerful predictor of general proficiency and, **importantly** for the theoretical model this study was based on, both implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar predict proficiency. (Quanti-APP2)

**7.4.2.3 Verbs**

In the whole corpus, two *verbs* were used to express attitude. One was *hope* which appeared once in each set of the articles and the other was *prefer* which was used only once in one of the qualitative articles:

1) Yet the evangelical impulse is surely of a different hue. As atheists, we feel no urge whatsoever to convert others to our views nor even to share our beliefs. In fact, we **prefer** to keep them quiet unless specifically asked about them. (Quali.)

2) In closing, I **hope** that the practices observed in this study have broadened our conceptualization of advising in education settings, illuminated certain problems of communication in peer tutoring, provided some baseline data for future comparative studies in this area, and initiated an endeavor to formulate an empirically grounded repertoire for developing effective practices in this setting. (Quali.)

3) But in fact, there are many other things we take for granted in this manner that have a lot to do with being human; we **hope** that looking at pragmatics has revealed some of those. (Quanti.)

**7.4.3 Summary**

To summarize the discussion on attitude markers, the analysis shows that, compared to hedges and boosters, attitude markers were less frequent in the corpus and appeared with similar frequency in both sub-corpora. The specialist informants also stated that they would use attitude markers infrequently. Interestingly, while research articles, particularly the quantitative ones, are assumed to be objective and impersonal, the analysis showed that the writers interacted with their audience by expressing their attitudes towards the propositions. The attitude markers occurred with low frequency in various moves but were more frequent in Evaluating the Study. Studying the lexical markers of expressing attitude, only two main categories of adjectives and adverbs were identified; however, the majority of the attitude markers were adjectives. Meanwhile, only two verbs were identified as attitude markers which indicate that this category is not a preferred one when expressing attitudes in RAs. No difference was identified in preference of categories in the two sub-corpora. Overall, the three most common lexicons used as attitude markers were *important*, *even*, and *appropriate*.

## 7.5 SELF-MENTION

Similar to the previous three sections, findings of analyzing the element of self-mention of stance features are presented in two parts: presenting and discussing the distribution of self-mention in the 200 RAs and in various moves of the 20 RAs and presenting the lexical markers that are used by the writers to mention themselves in the 200 RAs.

### 7.5.1 Distribution of Self-Mention

The analysis of the 200 RAs using WordPilot 2002 revealed that both sets of article writers used this device to interact with their audience in the Discussion section. However, the qualitative RA writers used more self-mention than the quantitative RA writers (see Table 7.10). While the qualitative RA writers expressed themselves and their role and involvement in their research more explicitly, the quantitative RA writers distanced themselves from their research and suppressed their own voice. Considering the epistemological perspectives that the quantitative research is based on, the findings are not surprising. The quantitative research follows positivism which is based on the assumption that research is objective and it should be presented as if human agent was not part of the process. It gains its credibility, in general, by taking care of validity and reliability and by employing precise methodologies. It tries to persuade the reader by demonstrating impersonality and showing that researcher did not affect the research process and results would be the same regardless of who conducted the research.

It should be noted that in spite of the assumption of positivism which considers research as objective and emphasizes impersonality, the findings of this study still demonstrate the use of first person pronouns and explicit writer presence in the quantitative research.

Table 7.10: Overall Distribution of Self-Mention in 100 Qualitative and 100
Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Sub-corpus | Total No. of Self-Mentions | Self-Mentions Per 1,000 Words |
|---|---|---|
| Qualitative (132,271 words) | 592 | 4.47 |
| Quantitative (139,377 words) | 465 | 3.33 |

Overall occurrence of self-mention in this study was slightly lower than Hyland's (1999b, 2005c) findings who found self-mention with a frequency of 4.8 per 1,000 words in 30 Applied Linguistics RAs. Once again, the difference might be related to the study of different rhetorical sections in Hyland's and this study. While Hyland has analyzed the whole RAs, this study is focused only on the Discussion section. There is a possibility that writers express themselves more explicitly in the other sections of RAs. For instance, Martínez (2005) found that biologists used more *we* in their Results sections than other sections. Her study also showed a frequency of 59.6 per 10,000 words of first person pronouns in the Discussion section of biology RAs which is higher than what was found in the corpus of this study. The difference might be related to disciplinary differences. Several studies such as Fløttum et al. (2006) and Hyland (2001) have shown that the presence of authors in text is disciplinary-specific and some disciplines have more explicit author presence than others.

The analysis of self-mention in the 20 RAs showed that the qualitative RA writers used self reference more than the quantitative RA writers. However, as Table 7.11 illustrates, the frequency of self-mention per 1,000 words in the 10 qualitative RAs is much higher than what was found in 100 qualitative RAs. Examining the cases thoroughly, it was found that this difference was related to one of the qualitative RAs (Quali-APP2) that had used self reference pronouns extensively (32 occurrences, i.e. almost half of the self references in the whole 10 qualitative RAs). Some assumptions can be made about the reasons of using frequent self reference in this particular article.

By checking the authorship of this particular RA, it was found that the RA is written by two authors one of whom is an internationally well-known professor in Applied Linguistics. As one of the specialist informants stated, the status of writers might be a factor in exposing themselves in their writing:

> Some writers do use the first person, but I choose not to. Perhaps, more senior, more famous researchers may feel confident about becoming an 'I' in their writing. I have not reached that stage yet. (SpeInfo3)

The other specialist informant referred to personal characteristics in using self-mention in RAs:

> I tend not to refer to myself so much, even though I see nothing wrong with it. But personally I have been brought up not to say "I" so much and refer to myself so much. However, I sometimes do it. (SpeInfo2)

Table 7.11: Frequency and Percentage of Self-Mentions in Each Move of the 10 Qualitative and 10 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Section

| Moves | Qualitative: 9,290 words | | | | Quantitative: 11,184 words | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Text Size | | Self-Mentions | | Text Size | | Self-Mentions | |
| | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1000 Words | # of Words | % in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1000 Words |
| Providing Background Information | 418 | 4.50 | 7 (10.76%) | 16.75 | 589 | 5.27 | 1 (3.23%) | 1.69 |
| Stating Findings | 2071 | 22.29 | 29 (43.08%) | 13.52 | 2139 | 19.12 | 4 (12.90%) | 1.87 |
| Providing Evidence for Findings | 1180 | 12.70 | 4 (6.16%) | 3.39 | ***** | | | |
| Commenting on Findings | 1803 | 19.41 | 5 (7.69%) | 2.77 | 5077 | 45.40 | 18 (58.06%) | 3.55 |
| Supporting Comments on Findings | 712 | 7.66 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | ***** | | | |
| Comparing Findings with Literature | 809 | 8.71 | 5 (7.69%) | 6.18 | 1115 | 9.97 | 1 (3.23%) | 0.90 |
| Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | ***** | | | | 152 | 1.36 | 3 (9.67%) | 19.78 |
| Making Recommendations | 607 | 6.53 | 3 (4.62%) | 4.94 | 581 | 5.19 | 1 (3.23%) | 1.72 |
| Making Deductions | 642 | 6.92 | 6 (9.23%) | 9.34 | 555 | 4.96 | 1 (3.23%) | 1.80 |
| Supporting Deductions/Suggestions | 63 | 0.68 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 | 229 | 2.05 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Evaluating the Study | 725 | 7.80 | 6 (9.23%) | 8.27 | 576 | 5.15 | 0 (0.0%) | 0.0 |
| Summarizing the Study | 260 | 2.80 | 1 (1.54%) | 3.84 | 171 | 1.53 | 2 (6.45%) | 11.70 |
| Total | 9,290 | 100 | 66 (100%) | 6.99 | 11,184 | 100 | 31 (100%) | 2.77 |

The analysis of the first person pronouns in different moves of the 20 RAs showed that they appeared in most of the moves in both sub-corpora; however, with different frequency. For instance, they were found in Providing Background Information:

1) In what follows **we** will interpret **our** students' (novice scientists') practices and beliefs by first acknowledging the novice's perspective, which then leads to a discussion of the formualicity of scientific writing and originality in science. (Quali-APP2)

2) By higher quality NOM sessions, **we** mean sessions in which the teacher, as primary audience member, and the storyteller actively engaged in a conversation that elicited information related to the topic of the story in such a way that the storyteller could profit from the interaction. (Quali-TESOL3)

in stating findings:

1) **Our** analysis shows that topical organization embedded in this institutional speech event displays features that are both similar to and different from those typical of either ordinary conversation or other institutional discourse. (Quali-APP1)

2) **We** identified a three-part pattern in all sample texts, following either a typical, semitypical, or atypical English pattern in presenting the central opinion or main idea. (Quali-ESP3)

3) The results of **our** performance error analysis showed that 4- and 5-year olds children had more difficulty in answering the Reality and Listener's questions than they did for the Speaker's question. (Quali-PRAG3)

4) Similar to the work by Gibbs and colleagues, **we** found that both renderings were read more quickly than the control phrases. (Quanti-APP1)

in commenting on findings:

1) However, **my** analysis of Fengchen's writing suggests that apart from examining learners' transfer of generic features into their writing, one also needs to observe learners' recontextualization of their genre awareness in their writing. (Quali-ESP2)

2) From the fact that some of **our** 'textual plagiarism' examples were taken from the students' published texts, and indeed one post-doctoral fellow of Chemistry **we** talked to suggested that it was not rare for him to come across two highly-similar passages in reading journal articles authored by scientists of various L1-background. (Quali-APP2)

3) These findings suggest that **our** content-linked ESL curriculum not only enhances students' short-term gains in reading and writing, but also promotes better future performance in ESL and developmental English courses and on standardized English proficiency tests. (Quanti-ESP2)

4) Yet, as **we** speculated based on the global results, this very same deficiency in ability to revise beliefs may result in an increased ability to detect complex acts of deceit (although for the wrong reason). (Quanti-PRAG3)

in comparing findings with literature:

1) In their analysis of topic shift in OPI, Kasper and Ross (2007: 2061) suggest that topic shifts are a fragile environment where test candidates may have difficulties providing relevant answers. The peer participants in the group oral discussion task in **our** study had no identifiable trouble handling topic shifts from the ongoing sequence. (Quali-APP1)

2) Previous research on spoken academic genres has illustrated that narrative typically functions to create rapport with an audience and to draw them into the speaker's world (Thompson, 2002).In **our** data, a narrative rhetorical style seemed to be one of the more important components of a successful design presentation. (Quanli-ESP2)

3) Heyman (1986:40) further claims that what is 'essential for the topical organization of the talk and orientation to this topic by members is clarification of the task demands, i.e., describing the gist of the task at the beginning of the talk'. Kasper (2004) has also shown how the definition of characteristics of task is procedurally consequential in topic initiation of talk. In **our** data, it can be seen that formulation of the task demand was well integrated into the discussion.(Quali-App1)

4) As opposed to Tomlin and Villa, however, **I** would argue that both alertness and orientation are required for the detection of pragmalinguistic features. The current study demonstrates that motivation is related to learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic features. (Quanti-APP3)

in making recommendations:

1) If **we** are asking students to follow a deductive structure so that instructors can easily find the points they are looking for or because it may be a relatively easy heuristic for students to follow when first starting to compose essays, **we** need to be sure of **our** assumptions and also be aware of other variations observed in published texts. (Quali-ESP3)

2) In addition, longitudinal studies of different designs, e.g., in the form of follow-up surveys, are also necessary to investigate how students use the many linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical merits of content-based language instruction to further themselves both linguistically and academically after they exit from the content-based ESL program. Such studies will help **us** to better understand the long-term impact of content-based language instruction upon academic literacy development which promotes academic success. (Quanti-ESP2)

and in making deductions:

1) Such instances of either 'marked' topic shift or 'stepwise' topic movement described in **our** analyses thus display characteristics of emergent topical development in conversation. (Quali-APP1)

2) Given these renewed understandings of genre knowledge and genre teaching, **I** propose that learners' abilities to recontextualize their genre awareness, as seen in the case of Fengchen, may represent a more sophisticated level of achievement and may thus be more revealing of the significance of genre-based learning in general and of their writing performance in particular. (Quali-ESP2)

3) **We** may thus venture to suggest that the primary concern of the scientific community in evaluating an article is the 'originality' of its 'science', rather than its language. (Quali-APP2)

4) Hence, **we** can definitely claim that motivation is a manifold cognitive construct, which is closely related to attention and awareness in processing L2 input, as contended by Crooke sans Schmidt (1991). (Quanti-APP3)

As Table 7.11 shows, not only self reference was used with different frequency in the two sub-corpora, but also it appeared with different frequency in some of the common moves in the two sub-corpora. The two moves that first person pronouns appeared more frequently in the qualitative sub-corpus were Providing Background Information and Stating Findings. First person pronouns were used to present preview information (example 1), to provide theoretical and technical information (examples 2-3), and to explain the procedures taken in previous sections (example 4). The pronoun *we* was more frequent than the other personal pronouns in this move and was used as inclusive (including the writer and the reader, as in example 2) and as exclusive (including only the writer(s), as in examples 1 and 3).

1) In what follows **we** will interpret **our** students' (novice scientists') practices and beliefs by first acknowledging the novice's perspective, which then leads to a discussion of the formualicity of scientific writing and originality in science. (Quali-APP2)

2) Some genre-based researchers have long pondered over how **we** can assist students to understand genre as ''repeated social action'' (Miller, 1984, p. 151) and, at the same time, ''encourage them to see every context and task as somehow new'' (Johns, 1995, p. 186). Others have considered how **we** *can* adopt a ''socioliterate approach'' (Johns, 1997) to teach **our** students to view genre knowledge as ''a resource to exploit generic conventions to respond appropriately to the requirements'' of disciplinary and professional practices, rather than ''as a blueprint for replication'' (Bhatia, 2004, p. 208). (Quali-ESP2)

3) By higher quality NOM sessions, **we** mean sessions in which the teacher, as primary audience member, and the storyteller actively engaged in a conversation that elicited information related to the topic of the story in such a way that the storyteller could profit from the interaction. (Quali-TESOL3)

4) The first two research questions addressed whether there are some grammatical structures that are easy in terms of one type of knowledge (implicit or explicit) but difficult in terms of the other type. To address these questions, tests were designed to provide relatively separate measures of the two types of knowledge... **I** have argued that the constructs that these tests measure are 'implicit' and 'explicit knowledge'. (Quali-APP2)

The second move in the qualitative research that had the highest number of first person pronouns per 1,000 was Stating Findings. The two most common pronouns used in this move were "our" and "we", both of which were used as exclusive. The pronoun "our" was more frequent than "we" and was mostly collocated with "student(s)", "participant(s)", "data", and "analysis". Meanwhile, personal pronouns were not frequent in stating findings in the quantitative sub-corpus.

The finding is expected considering the nature of these two types of methods. The quantitative research is interested in studying two or more specific variables in order to find a relationship between them which can be generalized. Therefore, the writers try to present their findings in an "objective" way, downplay their own role in the research to emphasize the findings, and assert that the findings would be the same irrespective of who was the researcher. Furthermore, in order to be able to generalize their findings, they attempt to select their subjects in a way that they are representative. In other words, the focus of quantitative research is mostly on the findings rather than on the specific participants or subjects. On the other hand, the qualitative research is interested in studying individual cases to better understand them. Therefore, while in the quantitative RAs results, in the form of numbers and statistics, were emphasized, in the qualitative sub-corpus, the participants and their behaviors and beliefs were highlighted and there was frequent reference to the individuals under study. In other words, while the quantitative RA writers emphasized the results of their experiments regardless of who were the participants and who conducted the research, the qualitative RA writers foregrounded the participants of their research presenting their aspect of "reality".

The use of the pronoun "our" with research procedures such as "analysis" and "data" in presenting findings of the qualitative research can also be a strategy that the writers use to protect themselves from possible refutations. As findings of the qualitative research are more interpretative and the researcher is the main source of analyzing and interpreting the data, by using "our analysis shows that…" the writers leave room for other interpretations from their audience. Also, as the data of qualitative research comes from limited sources which unlike quantitative research are not representative of the populations, the use of, for example, "our data/participants" by the qualitative research writers might indicate this point. In the quantitative sub-corpus, first person pronouns were used only two times in stating the findings move. In one case, comparing findings with literature was embedded in stating findings and the writers used "we" to compare what they had found with those in literature (example 4 below) and in one case they referred to their analysis (example 6 below). The following examples illustrate the use of first person pronouns in stating findings:

1) **Our** analysis shows that topical organization embedded in this institutional speech event displays features that are both similar to and different from those typical of either ordinary conversation or other institutional discourse. (Quali-APP1)

2) **Our** findings have shown that student re-use language taken from other sources in all of the sections of the prototypical IMRD paper. This usage varies from short phrases to stretches of sentences in a row. **Our** participants defend their practices of language re-use with various arguments. (Quanti-APP2)

3) **We** identified characteristics of NOM sessions that made them higher quality or lower quality based on the amount and quality of relevant information exchanged in the interaction… However, **our** data also indicated that regardless of the skill with which teachers interacted with the storyteller and the other student members of the audience, storytellers themselves played an even more important role in improving their stories for their second telling. (Quali-TESOL3)

4) **I** noticed that many other learners in this course were also able to transfer many of the generic features they had previously analyzed into their writing, and they found the process of doing so helped their learning of academic writing... **My** analysis of the discipline-specific writing sample by Fengchen points to his effort and his ability to recontextualize his genre awareness. (Quali-ESP2)

5) Similar to the work by Gibbs and colleagues, **we** found that both renderings were read more quickly than the control phrases. (Quanti-APP1)

6) The results of **our** performance error analysis showed that 4- and 5-year olds children had more difficulty in answering the Reality and Listener's questions than they did for the Speaker's question. (Quanti-PRAG3)

On the other hand, in the quantitative sub-corpus, first person pronouns appeared more frequently, per 1,000 in Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature when the writers attempted to account for the differences of their findings and those found in literature. The pronoun "our" was used to refer to the choices that the writers had made and the procedures that they had followed in their methodology. Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, and Icke (1998, p. 119) also found that one of the functions of *we* in Astrophysics RAs was to indicate that the writers "have made a unique procedural choice rather than simply following established or standard procedure". The following example shows the use of personal pronouns in this move:

> **We** believe that one can account for this inconsistency by considering that Bosco and Bucciarelli investigated the ability to detect acts of deceit by using pragmatic tasks that were quite different from **our** own... **Our** pragmatic tasks differed from Bosco and Bucciarelli's in that they required children to revise their beliefs and because correct performance for each phenomenon required that the children respond correctly to all three questions. (Quanti-PRAG3)

### 7.5.2   Forms of Self-Mention

Table 7.12 shows the forms of self-mention that are used in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. The use of first person plural pronouns, including the subjective, objective, and possessive cases (i.e. we, us, our, ours) was predominant in the corpus compared to first person singular pronouns (i.e. I, my, me). In the following two sections, the occurrences of first person singular pronouns and first person plural pronouns are discussed separately.

Table 7.12: Frequency of First Person singular and Plural Pronouns in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Pronoun | Qualitative | | Quantitative | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words |
| First Person Singular | 204 (34.46%) | 1.54 | 22 (4.73%) | 0.15 |
| First Person Plural | 388 (65.54%) | 2.93 | 443 (95.26%) | 3.18 |
| **Total** | 592 (100%) | 4.47 | 465 (100%) | 3.33 |

## 7.5.2.1 First Person Plural Pronouns

Table 7.13 illustrates the frequency of first person plural pronouns and their occurrences per 1,000 words in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. As the table shows, *we* is the most common pronoun among the plural pronouns. This is in line with the findings of other studies investigating self-mention in RAs of other disciplines (e.g. Hyland, 2001; Kuo, 1999).

Table 7.13: Frequency of First Person Plural Pronouns in 200 Qualitative and 200 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Item | Qualitative | | Quantitative | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words |
| **We** | 260 (43.91%) | 1.96 | 265 (56.99%) | 1.90 |
| **Our** | 99 (16.71%) | 0.75 | 152 (32.69%) | 1.09 |
| **Ours** | 1 (0.16%) | 0.007 | 2 (0.43%) | 0.01 |
| **Us** | 28 (4.72%) | 0.21 | 24 (5.16%) | 0.17 |
| **Total** | 388 (65.54%) | 2.93 | 443 (95.26%) | 3.18 |

Although the first person plural pronouns appeared more frequently than the first person singular pronouns in both sub-corpora, they comprised higher portion of self-mention pronouns in the quantitative than the qualitative sub-corpus. In the 200 RAs corpus, the first person plural pronouns comprised around 95% of the whole pronouns

in the quantitative sub-corpus, compared to around 65% in the qualitative sub-corpus. In order to find out whether the number of writers had an effect on this matter, all the 200 RAs were checked in terms of authorship. It was found that 70% of the qualitative RAs and 57% of the quantitative RAs were single authored. In other words, only 30% of the qualitative RAs and 43% of the quantitative RAs were of multiple authorship. This might explain why plural pronouns occurred more frequently in the quantitative than the qualitative RAs. However, while in both sub-corpora the number of single-authored RAs comprised higher percent of the articles compared to the multi-authored RAs, the predominant use of first person plural pronouns compared to the singular pronouns cannot be related to the patterns of authorship.

Other studies (e.g. Hyland, 2001; Kuo, 1999) have identified the uses of first person plural pronouns in single authored RAs. In order to investigate whether such instances occurred in the corpus of the present study as well, all instances of the first person plural pronouns identified in both sub-corpora were checked in detail. The examination of occurrences of the first person plural pronouns revealed that quite a high number of these pronouns appeared in the single-authored RAs. The frequencies of these pronouns are summarized in Table 7.14.

Table 7.14: The Frequency of First Person Plural Pronouns in the Single-Authored Research Articles

| Pronoun | Qualitative | | Quantitative | |
|---------|-----------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage Compared to the Occurrences of the Pronouns in the Whole Sub-corpus | Frequency | Percentage Compared to the Occurrences of the Pronouns in the Whole Sub-corpus |
| **We** | 83 | 31.92% | 50 | 18.88% |
| **Our** | 18 | 18.18% | 24 | 15.79% |
| **Us** | 17 | 60.71% | 12 | 50% |
| **Total** | 118 | 30.41% | 86 | 19.41% |

Around one third and one fifth of the first person plural pronouns in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora respectively appeared in the single-authored RAs. While the single-authored qualitative RAs comprised higher percent of these pronouns compared to the quantitative RAs, it should be noted that the single-authored RAs comprised higher percentage of RAs in the qualitative than quantitative sub-corpus.

Examination of the first person plural pronouns identified in the single-authored RAs showed that the majority of these cases, especially in the qualitative sub-corpus, were used as *inclusive* pronouns which refer either to writer and reader or writer and the community (examples 1-4). However, in some cases, especially in the quantitative RAs, the writers used *we* and *our* as *exclusive* to refer to themselves as well (examples 5-6 below). Interestingly, all the cases of *us* in the quantitative and qualitative single-authored RAs were used in inclusive form (examples 7-8). It has been suggested that the use of first person plural pronouns by single-writers to refer to themselves might indicate the writers' "intention to reduce personal attribution" (Kuo, 1999, p. 125). As was mentioned before, the use of first person plural pronouns to refer to the single writer was more common in the quantitative than the qualitative RAs. As there is an assumption that the quantitative research writing should be "objective" and impersonal, this might be a strategy which is employed by the single-writers to express themselves explicitly in their texts and at the same time reduce it by using the plural pronouns instead of *I* or *my*.

1) In other words, and at the risk of sounding trite, not all NNESTs—or NESTS—are alike, and **we** as TESOL professionals do ourselves, our preservice teachers, and our learners a disservice to use the construct as if it were unitary and unproblematic (and as if it were the only facet of identity that mattered). (Quali)

2) Some genre-based researchers have long pondered over how **we** can assist students to understand genre as ''repeated social action'' (Miller, 1984, p. 151) and, at the same time, ''encourage them to see every context and task as somehow new'' (Johns, 1995, p. 186). (Quali)

3) Furthermore, if participants assigned to Task 1 redirected their attention to studying the target words instead of reading the text, **we** would expect them to perform poorly (i.e. at or below chance) on the reading comprehension questions, which could not be answered correctly without reading the text. (Quanti)

4) However, **we** must remain tentative to some extent about the effect of this feature of the test on test taker performance and whether failure to correct sentences can indeed, as the literature suggests, be seen as evidence that structures have not been internalized. (Quanti)

5) In **our** data, a narrative rhetorical style seemed to be one of the more important components of a successful design presentation. (Quali)

6) It was found in **our** study that the speaker's desire to obscure his words and conceal their problematic details triggers many changes that take place in his narratives with invented scripts, in comparison with his narratives with factual scripts… (Quanti)

7) It enables **us** to see that while those more advanced learners, too, have requesting difficulties caused by poor discourse management, we may probably reject the notion that increased linguistic proficiency has failed to bring about a significant improvement in this aspect of their requesting. (Quanti)

8) This line of investigation could help **us** to understand the nature of planning time, which has been shown to bear no relationship with L2 proficiency, oral fluency, and the appropriateness of speech acts. (Quanti)

Hyland (2001), based on his interviews with his specialist informants, suggests that sometimes the reason that single-writers use the plural pronouns to refer to themselves is that the research has been done by a team of researchers, though it has been reported by a single-writer. In the data of this study it was noted that most occurrences of *our*, in single-authored quantitative RAs, were used to refer to the researchers' own work. It was collocated mostly with the study, research question, results, and data. Checking the methodology section of these instances, it was found that some of these studies were part of a project or the data had been collected by the writers and some other people. Therefore, by using *we* and *our,* the writers referred to themselves and the other party who assisted them or who were part of the research process. Such instances, of course, were identifiable only by referring to the wider context. Fløttum et al. (2006) also identified such cases in their data. The following examples are instances of these cases identified in the corpus of this study:

1) In May 2002, **we** observed this gesture being used as an accompaniment to metaphorical spoken phrases referring to HIV. (Quali-PRAG)

2) Because **we** asked the students in the study to do recall protocols after they had finished reading, they used what **we** had given them (i.e., low-level or high-level text, and with or without the comic strip) to process the information and perform the task (recall protocols). (Quanti-TESOL)

3) Because of a higher flow in the Swedish families, there was no need to explicitly elicit talk in Swedish conversation, for example, by posing clear questions, such as was the case in the Finnish families (see **our** previous study, Tryggvason and De Geer, 2002). (Quanti-PRAG)

4) In answer to **our** research questions, the present study completed the picture of perceptions of professional language needs for French university graduates in economics, bringing to light graduates' representations and comparing them with those of present students, economics teachers and language teachers. (Quanti-ESP)

5) The above mentioned age discrepancies may be linked to a specific characteristic of **our** method: testing idiom comprehension in a literal context, i.e., a context that strongly induces a literal interpretation of the utterance. (Quanti- PRAG)

As previously was mentioned, the first person plural pronouns were mostly used as inclusive pronouns in the single author RAs. In order to find whether it was the case in the multiple author RAs, the occurrences of first person plural pronouns were examined in these types of articles in both sub-corpora. In many cases, the immediate co-text was not adequate to determine whether the pronoun was used as inclusive or exclusive. Therefore, they were examined in the wider context. The analysis revealed that the first person plural pronouns were used as inclusive pronouns in the multiple-authored articles as well.

The findings indicate that both single and multiple-author RAs use the first person plural pronouns as inclusive. It seems that it is a strategy that the writers use, as Harwood (2005c) states, to interact and negotiate with their audience and build a relationship with them. According to Hyland (2005a), the use of inclusive *we* is common in persuasive writing as it binds the writer to the reader. By including their audience in their RAs, the writers try to establish a solidarity and togetherness with their readers and involve them in the process of the research and interpretation. In this way,

the writers tend to persuade the audience to accept their argument and avoid ratification of their claims as "what he or she [audience] has done, obtained or observed together with the author will more likely be accepted as true, relevant and reasonable" (Fløttum et al., 2006, p. 97).

A number of studies in literature have focused on the functions of inclusive pronouns (e.g. Harwood, 2005c; Kuo, 1999; Tang & John, 1999). Although it is not the focus of this study to identify the functions of these pronouns, while examining the first person plurals to identify them as inclusive or exclusive, some functions identified in the literature for *we* and *our* were also observed in the corpus of this study along with other functions as well. For instance, it was noticed that the inclusive pronouns were used to organize the text (example 1), to suggest further research (Harwood, 2005c) (example 2), to make recommendation for discipline (example 3), and also to state how their findings and study can benefit *us* as the whole discourse community (example 4). The instances of pronoun *us* which was used as inclusive in all the single-author RAs and in most of the multiple-author RAs were mostly used either to promote the research by stating its contribution to the field (example 5) or was used in "let us" context to seek agreement or cooperation from the reader (Kuo, 1999) (example 6). The following examples from the 200 RAs illustrate these instances:

1) As **we** have seen, for many features of learner speech, Level 5 and Level 4 learners demonstrated clearly better performances, but the performances of Level 1 learners were not always the worst. (Quanti, Multiple-Authored)

2) **We** need more detailed study of how raters go about this demanding task in relation to the assessment of speaking, and in particular the process through which they balance the multiple features they are attending to. (Quanti, Multiple-Authored)

3) In order to didacticize such spaces **we** need to design lessons, activities, and tasks that afford the creative, unstructured, multivoiced and often chaotic mode of learners' lifeworlds. (Quali, Single-Authored)

4) My analysis of Ling's data sheds new light on such an observation and thus helps enhance **our** understanding of learning in the genre based literacy framework. (Quali, Single-Authored)

5) In all, the findings of this study help **us** to specify the ways in which mutual help differs from professional counseling and various types of therapies. (Quali, Multiple-Authored)

6) For sake of illustration, let **us** take a look at our example sentence The door is not open. (Quanti, Multiple-Authored)


As was mentioned earlier, while some instances of the first person plural pronouns were identified in the multiple-authored RAs as inclusive, most of these pronouns were used as exclusive in these sets of articles. Once again, although no attempt was made to categorize all the instances of these pronouns based on their functions, during the analysis several functions including some of those identified in the literature (e.g. Hyland, 2002; Kuo, 1999) were observed. For instance, the pronoun *we* was used, among other functions, to state findings (examples 1-2), to elaborate an argument (examples 3-4), to state the limitations of the study (examples 5-6), and to guide the readers through the text by summarizing the arguments (examples 7-8). These functions, though under different labels, have also been identified in the computer science, electronic engineering, and physics RAs (Harwood, 2005c).

1) As in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, **we** found higher rates of uptake for repetition of error, clarification requests, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback. In the case of explicit correction, although it was rarely used (n = 9), it is noteworthy that this type of feedback resulted in uptake on only three occasions, none of which involved repair. (Quali)

2) In addition, however, **we** have found some semantically compositional phrases whose translational equivalents are present in both languages, but which are far more common in one language than the other (in the corpora searched), like the change from major to minor or fo¨rdelarna o¨verva¨ger nackdelarna 'the advantages outweigh the disadvantages'. (Quanti)

3) This version of culture, **we** suggest, cannot adequately serve a profession whose work is so intimately involved in the cultural intersections of the global contact zone. (Quali)

4) Although the teachers we spoke with declared their respect for other values, **we** would argue that part of respecting someone else's culture involves letting them continue to hold their own spiritual values, and that to have as one's aim (whether overt or covert) the conversion of others to one's own beliefs is in fact inimical to the kind of multiculturalism embraced by TESOL and by its nonevangelical members. (Quanti)

5) In this case study, **we** have compared two small sample texts from a single teacher and from a specific textbook, and it would be unwise to generalize the detailed findings of this study to other instances in which science teachers construct meaning in class or authors present science in textbooks. (Quali)

6) Our discussion points at several limitations that need to be acknowledged… Finally, as with so many other task-based investigations, in our study **we** only focused on the immediate effects of planning on subsequent performance and thus we are only 'extrapolating from performance to acquisition' (R. Ellis, 2005a, p. 17). (Quanti)

7) Until this point, **we** have discussed the meta-critical interactions presented here largely in terms of the analysis of discourse. (Quali)

8) **We** have argued in Section 5.1 that in practical applications of human-computer communication, computers are likely to be required to follow the CP and the conversational maxims and that the extent to which they should do this depends on what aims are to be attributed to the computers in question. (Quanti)

While the pronoun *we* and *us* were used as exclusive and inclusive, though mostly exclusive, in the multiple-authored RAs, almost all the occurrences of *our* was used as exclusive in both sub-corpora. The use of possessive pronouns can help the writer to "stress the ownership of their work" (Harwood, 2005b, p. 1212). In the qualitative sub-corpus, it was mostly collocated with words such as *student(s)*, *participant(s)*, *study(ies)*, *sample*, and *data* (examples 1-3). In the quantitative sub-corpus, *our* was mostly collocated with the words such as *finding(s)*, *result(s)*, and *study(ies)* (examples 4-6). A possible reason for such difference in the collocations of *our* in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora was discussed in section 7.5.1.

1) From a hermeneutic perspective, **our** students have used their writing to question their own social identity, and therefore they have attempted to develop new conceptual ways of thinking about themselves, their world and the 'others' in it (Barro et al., 1998, p. 83). (Quali)

2) Given **our** sample, it is hard to make any general/clear-cut statements correlating the participants' year of study and publication experience with their practices/beliefs in language re-use. (Quali)

3) **Our** study also suggests that the teachers need to become more conscious of the "hidden curriculum" (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 3) which privileges classroom participation in contemporary Western universities and which may lead to misunderstandings about the purpose and goals in both EAP and mainstream education contexts. (Quali)

4) **Our** results reveal that features drawn from a wide range of categories were making independent contributions to the overall impression of the candidate. (Quanti)

5) **Our** findings also lend support to the conclusions of previous studies (e.g. Bialystok, 1982) that linguistic knowledge manifests itself differently according to task requirements. (Quanti)

6) In **our** study, because rank was given as optional information, we were unable to assess its influence on writing time indifferent areas. (Quanti)

## 7.5.2.2 First Person Singular Pronouns

As discussed in the previous section, the first person plural pronouns were found frequently in the single-authored RAs. These pronouns were used to refer to the writers themselves, the writer and reader, or to the writers and those who had assisted the researchers during the research process. While the first person plural pronouns appeared in both the qualitative and quantitative single-authored RAs, the use of first person singular pronouns was underused in the quantitative single-authored articles. Table 7.15 illustrates the frequency of first person singular pronouns and their occurrences per 1,000 words in the qualitative and quantitative sub-corpus.

Table 7.15: Frequency of First Person Singular Pronouns in 100 Qualitative and 100 Quantitative RAs' Discussion Sections

| Item | Qualitative | | Quantitative | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words | Frequency & Percentage | Per 1,000 Words |
| I | 126 (21.28%) | 0.95 | 22 (4.73%) | 0.15 |
| My | 66 (11.19%) | 0.50 | 0 (0.0%) | 0 |
| Me | 12 (2.03%) | 0.09 | 0 (0.0%) | 0 |
| **Total** | **204 (34.46%)** | **1.54** | **22 (4.73%)** | **0.15** |

Among the three pronouns of *I*, *my*, and *me*, only *I* occurred in the quantitative sub-corpus. While almost half of the quantitative RAs were single-authored, the pronoun *I* appeared only with 21 frequency in the sub-corpus. In other words, on average, the pronoun *I* did not occur even once in each single-authored RAs. This might be due to the assumption that the quantitative research must be "objective" and impersonal. Unlike the quantitative sub-corpus, the first person singular pronouns were quite frequent in the qualitative single-authored RAs.

The pronouns *I*, *my*, and *me* had the highest frequency respectively. Similar to the plural pronouns, it was noticed that the writers used the first person singular pronouns, especially *I* in various functions. Once again, although no attempt was made in this study to categorize all the instances of these pronouns based on their functions, skimming the instances revealed that several functions identified in the literature (e.g. Harwood, 2005a; Hyland, 2002; Tang & John, 1999) were also identifiable in the corpus of this study as well. For instance, the writers used *I* to state their findings and claims (examples 1-3), to state their methodology (examples 4-5), to guide the reader through the text by stating what the writer is going to cover and summarizing what has been covered (examples 6-8), and to elaborate an argument (examples 9-10):

1) **I** found that the students constantly blended expectations from the two distinct discourse practices and frequently switched between viewing discussions as heuristic tools or evaluative processes. (Quali)

2) To respond to question three in which I asked why speakers produce UNO instead of YO, **I** note here that most models of linguistic communication emphasize the role of speaker intention and control over automatic processes that occur ''without intention and conscious awareness'' (Levelt, 1993:20). (Quanti)

3) **I** have shown how advice resisting is accomplished during the interaction of one tutor–tutee pair, where the tutor's expertise in academic writing is juxtaposed with his lack of knowledge in the discipline in which the tutee is being formally trained. (Quali)

4) And (as noted in Section 2.3) **I** edited Chen's email responses to the referees' reports and to the PRL editors (including his appeal letter), to clarify his meaning and make his responses pragmatically appropriate. (Quali)

5) In this particular study, however, the focus was on instances where the use of UNO did not have an arbitrary referent but rather a specific one, YO. To that effect, **I** examined contexts where the use of UNO was specific and the referent could only vary with the first person pronominal. (Quanti)

6) In this section, **I** will discuss communicative insincerity in more detail, and examine whether these characterizations of the communicative insincerity theory can be applied to the examples of hiniku. (Quali)

7) By way of illustration, **I** will discuss their application to two of the features. (Quanti)

8) As **I** have suggested, these behavioral patterns may be due to a combination of Chinese conceptions of learning, traditional schooling and literacy practice in China, the prevailing methods for teaching and learning English in China, the demands of the English learning task, and individual learning style. (Quali)

9) Although **I** would argue that a high level of proficiency in the language is desirable, **I** believe the authors go too far in asserting that elementary education will only be effective if teachers are native or native-like speakers. (Quali)

10) As opposed to Tomlin and Villa, however, **I** would argue that both alertness and orientation are required for the detection of pragmalinguistic features. (Quanti)

As previously was mentioned, among the first person singular pronouns only *I* was used in the quantitative articles. Although in the qualitative sub-corpus, *my* and *me* were also used, the pronoun *me* was underused with a frequency of 12. It was mostly used by the writers to talk about their research process (Examples 1-2). The pronoun *my* was more frequent than *me* (66 occurrences) and was collocated with a wide number of words (on the whole 47 words) such as *analysis*, *study*, *data*, *class*, *participant(s)*, *view*, *viewpoint*, *opinion*, and *observation* (examples 3-6). It was noticed that the writers used the pronouns, among others, to state the findings and state their comments on findings as well as their claims.

1) However, in the context of the specific situation in which they were acting—leaving **me** a message to which they wished **me** to respond—each of the eleven speakers stood in the same relationship to **me**, that is, as one requesting me to take some action.

2) In both cases, however, the participants clearly remembered the items, although their understanding remained incomplete. In example 6, at the beginning of Jake's 'hillbilly' vocabulary lesson, Pum was completely unfamiliar with the word. After the lesson, Pum knew the oral (but not necessarily written) form of the term, could properly inflect it as well as use it in a sentence, and had some understanding of its basic referential meaning, as she was able to explain to **me**.

3) Interestingly, **my** analysis of the data in this paper suggests that the writerly reading gestures described above have subsequently been transformed into his readerly writing performance, as evidenced by his keen awareness of the purposes of his texts and the readers' possible responses to his rhetorical (re)organization.

4) It is, therefore, in **my** view, perfectly possible that the modern please is no longer processed literally as referring to the hearer's 'pleasure' but as a courtesy formula which acknowledges debt with greater or lesser sense of obligation.

5) All of **my** participants identified sociocultural differences as playing a key role in their lack of participation.

6) In **my** data, nine of the speakers would be considered to be my status equals within the relevant setting (the attorneys, the expert witness, and the adjuster), while two were employed in subordinate positions (as secretaries).

### 7.5.3 Individual Writers' Variation

As was discussed in section 7.5.1, a variation in the use of first person singular pronouns was observed in the 10 qualitative RAs. Therefore, the degree of variation in the use of these pronouns was investigated in the 200 RAs. A great variation was noticed among the writers in the use of these pronouns in both qualitative and quantitative sub-corpora. In the qualitative sub-corpus, while 70 RAs were single-authored, the first person singular pronouns were used in 38 RAs. It was also noticed that the frequency of the use of these pronouns in these types of articles varied quite greatly, with a minimum of one and maximum of 11 occurrences in RAs. In the quantitative sub-corpus, while 57 articles were single-authored, only 10 writers used the first person singular pronouns. The frequency of occurrence varied from one to six cases in the sub-corpus.

In the qualitative sub-corpus with multiple authors, the investigation showed that 28 RAs out of 30 used at least one form of the first person pronouns (including the inclusive and exclusive). Only two qualitative multiple-authored articles did not use the first person plural pronouns in their Discussion section. The search of these pronouns in the whole articles showed that although these pronouns were not identified in the Discussion section, they were used in other sections of these RAs. In the multiple-authored quantitative articles, it was noticed that 33 RAs, out of 43, used at least one form of the first person plural pronouns. It should be mentioned that these pronouns occurred with large degree of variation in the articles of both sub-corpora, i.e. between 1- 42 in the qualitative and 1-19 in the quantitative RAs. Therefore, as was mentioned by the specialist informants of this study (see section 7.5.1), while the degree of authorial presence is related to the conventions of the discipline, it seems that "[i]ssues of seniority, experience, relationship to the community, and general sense of self are also likely to influence these decisions" (Hyland, 2001, p. 224).

In order to find out whether there was a difference in the use of these pronouns between the RAs from the five journals that the corpus of this study came from, the occurrence of the first person pronouns (both singular and plural) were investigated in articles from each of these journals. The investigation did not reveal any difference in the use of these pronouns in the RAs from these journals compared to each other. Furthermore, referring to the editorial policy of these journals, no explicit instructions were found in terms of encouraging or discouraging the use of these pronouns.

### 7.5.4   Summary

To summarize the discussion on self-mention, the analysis showed that both the qualitative and quantitative RA writers used first person pronouns in their Discussion sections strategically to interact with their audience. Overall, first person plural pronouns were used more frequently than singular pronouns, although single-authored RAs comprised more than half of the RAs in both sub-corpora. Investigating plural pronouns revealed that in the single-authored RAs they were mostly used as *inclusive* pronouns and referred to the writer and the reader or the writer and the discourse community. A small number of these pronouns were also used as *exclusive* to refer to the writers themselves. Further analysis of these cases showed that in some cases other people, apart from the writer, had contributed to the research process and by using the first person plural pronouns the writers referred to themselves and those parties involved. Similar to single-authored RAs, first person plural pronouns were used in the multiple-authored RAs both inclusively and exclusively. First person singular pronouns were less frequent than plural ones, especially in the quantitative RAs. However, they were used frequently in the qualitative sub-corpus. While only 11 out of 57 single-authored quantitative RAs used at least one form of the first person singular pronouns,

44 out of 70 single-authored qualitative RAs used at least one form of the first person singular pronouns in their Discussion sections.

The investigation of variation in the use of these pronouns shows that there is a difference between the authors in both groups in terms of the frequency of the use of these pronouns. While some writers did not express themselves explicitly in their texts, some writers used only one and some others used up to 42 first person pronouns. While other studies in the literature have shown that author presence in the text depends on the conventions of the discipline, it seems that the type of the research (qualitative, quantitative) and the writers' personal preferences and position in the discourse community, as was mentioned by the specialist informants, affect the extent to which the writers present themselves explicitly in their texts. Although writer presence was more explicit in the qualitative RAs than the quantitative RAs, and the qualitative research writers used more first person pronouns than their quantitative counterparts, the use of these pronouns was quite frequent in the multiple-authored articles. In other words, the quantitative article writers seemed to feel freer to intrude themselves in their texts when the article was multiple-authored.

Overall, the findings indicate that self reference is an important strategy that writers use to show their presence in their texts in order to emphasize their contribution to the field, gain credibility, and promote themselves (Harwood, 2005b; Hyland, 2001). Apart from the difference in terms of the frequency of use, the analysis shows that both qualitative and quantitative article writers use first person pronouns in their Discussion sections to emphasize their presence in the text explicitly. The writers use the pronouns as inclusive and exclusive to strategically create a sense of togetherness and emphasize solidarity with their reader and community, to emphasize the importance and uniqueness of their own work, and to earn credibility for their work and their own. By

using the first person pronouns to state their findings or claims, to generate an argument, and to indicate the contribution of the study to the field, the writers show that they are responsible for the findings, claims, and contributions that can benefit the whole community. This can help to persuade the reader that the writer is "an intelligent, credible, and engaging colleague" (Hyland, 2001, p. 216) whose claims as well as themselves are "worth taking notice of" (Harwood, 2005b, p. 1211). To use Fløttum et al.'s (2006) category (see 2.11.4), by employing personal pronouns, the writers manifested different roles of *writer*, *researcher*, and *arguer*. It can be concluded that self-mention, at least in the Discussion section of RAs in Applied Linguistics, is a strategy that is used by both the qualitative and quantitative researchers to show their authority in their text, to gain acceptability for their findings and claims, and to promote their work as well as themselves.

## 7.5    OVERVIEW OF THE FINDINGS

Overall, with reference to the data, the conclusion to be drawn from the findings is that all of the four stance features (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention) are important elements in both qualitative and quantitative RAs and do appear in both types of articles. Interestingly, while there is an assumption that quantitative research articles are "objective" and impersonal and gain their credibility by employing rigorous methods, the use of stance features is also evident in these types of articles. The findings of this study reinforce other studies that research articles are not an objective report of a research process, and that writers take stance in their writing and use various strategies to negotiate and interact with their audience to persuade them and gain acceptability for their findings. The writers use hedges to show their tentativeness towards a proposition, to protect themselves against possible refutation, to leave room for other perspectives, and to show their respect to their audience as intelligent individuals, and at the same

time they use boosters to show their confidence in and commitment to their findings and claims. They show their solidarity to the community and simultaneously emphasize the importance of their findings and contributions to the field by explicitly presenting themselves in their texts and associating themselves with their findings and claims. The writers even express their attitudes in their articles which is an indication of the fact that research articles are not entirely "neutral" and impersonal.

In reporting every piece of research, there is always a possibility that the reader refutes the writers' claims as he/she does not find them convincing. Thus, the main aim of a research article is to persuade the reader to accept the findings and claims of the writer so that "the article becomes an integrated part of a particular field's literature and thus of the field's deliberation" (Fløttum, 2007, p. 5). Interacting and negotiating with their audience and taking stance towards their own work and those in literature is one of the ways writers can persuade their audience that they are "competent disciplinary insider" and their work is worthy of attention (Hyland, 2005c, p. 175). It was illustrated in this chapter how the writers use the four stance features (i.e. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention) to interact with their readers, persuade them,  and "stamp their personal authority" in their texts (Hyland, 2005c, p. 176).

Meanwhile, creating a balance between writers' authority and individuality and their solidarity with their community seems of crucial importance. Several studies in the literature have shown that the use of these features and how and to what extent the writers use them and make a balance in using them are partly set by the conventions of the discourse community. For instance, Hyland (1999b) examining these stance features found variations in their use in eight different disciplines particularly between "soft" and "hard" disciplines. The awareness of these conventions can help the writers,

especially the novice ones and students to communicate more successfully with their discourse community.

## 7.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter focused on stance features in Discussion sections of qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics. Following Hyland's (1999b, 2005c) taxonomy of stance, the four features of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention were investigated. The analysis of 200 RAs (100 qualitative and 100 quantitative) using WordPilot 2002 showed that the writers in both groups used all these four stance features in their Discussion sections. Meanwhile, hedges were the most frequent feature followed by boosters, attitude markers, and self- mention. The investigation of these stance features in each move of 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs revealed in which moves each of these features were clustered in. It helped to account for the differences found between these two sets of articles and showed for what communicative purposes the writers preferred these features. Categorization of each of these stance features in various word groups also provided some insightful information about the form and particularly in the case of self-mention about the function of these features.

# CHAPTER 8
# CONCLUSION

## 8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this concluding chapter, first a summary of the study is presented, which is followed by a summary of the main findings. Next, the significance of the study and its implications are discussed. The next section states the limitations of the study and suggests some future line of research. The final section is a summary of the chapter.

## 8.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study is a genre-based study which has focused on studying generic structure and stance features of Discussion section of RAs in Applied Linguistics. The aim was to identify the generic structure and stance features of qualitative and quantitative RAs and the similarities and differences of these two sets of articles in terms of these rhetorical conventions. Regarding the stance features, apart from identifying these features in each group of the RAs and their similarities and differences in each set of the articles, it was also sought to identify the moves in which the stance features were clustered in. Therefore, five research questions were formed:

1- What are the generic structures of discussion sections of the qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of Applied Linguistics?

2- What are the similarities and differences between the generic structures of these two sets of articles?

3- What are the stance features that are used in the qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of Applied Linguistics?

4- What are the similarities and differences of stance features used in these two sets of articles?

5- In which moves has each of these stance features been clustered?

In order to answer the first two research questions, 15 qualitative and 15 quantitative RAs' Discussion sections were analyzed employing Swales' (1990, 2004) move structure model. The articles were selected from five high impact journals published 2002-2009 based on stratified random sampling. First, each set of the articles were analyzed manually and separately in terms of moves and steps. The findings from each sub-corpus were transferred to a separate table which presented the generic structure of each set of articles. Although the analysis was mainly conducted qualitatively, the frequencies and percentages were also presented to identify the moves and steps that were more widespread. After the analysis of both sub-corpora was completed, the generic structures of both types of articles were compared and contrasted in order to identify the similarities and differences between them.

In order to answer the third and fourth research questions, 100 qualitative and 100 quantitative RAs were examined using WordPilot 2002 and Hyland's (1999, 2005c, 2008) taxonomy of stance features were followed, i.e. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention. After compiling the corpus, each sub-corpus was searched for 424 stance features separately and the overall frequency and percentage of each of these four stance features were calculated in each sub-corpus. Then, the three elements of hedges, boosters, and attitude markers were categorized in several groups of modals, verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and others. The self-mentions were categorized in two groups of first person singular pronouns and first person plural pronouns; the latter was in turn studied in terms of inclusive and exclusive pronouns.

In order to answer the fifth research question, the four stance features were investigated in 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs' various moves. These 20 RAs

were among the 30 RAs that were analyzed in terms of the generic structure and also among the 200 RAs that were used to investigate the stance features. The frequency and percentage of each stance feature were studied in each move of the Discussion section.

## 8.3    SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

In the following five sections, the main findings from the analysis of generic structures and stance features are presented.

### 8.3.1    The Generic Structure of Discussion Section of Qualitative Research Articles

The analysis of the generic structure of Discussion section of the qualitative RAs revealed 11 moves. Most of these moves were realized by one to three steps. In a few cases, sub-steps were also identified. The identified moves, steps and sub-steps are:

Move 1- Providing Background Information
Move 2- Stating Findings
        Step 1- Reporting Findings
Move 3- Providing Evidence for Findings
        Step 1- Referring to Data
Move 4- Commenting on Findings
        Step 1- Explaining
                Step 1A- Providing an Explanation
                Step 1B- Providing Alternative Explanations
        Step 2- Interpreting
                Step 2A- Providing an Interpretation
                Step 2B- Providing an Interpretation by Referring to Literature
        Step 3- Evaluating
                Step 3A- Providing an Evaluation
                Step 3B- Providing an Evaluation by Referring to    Literature
Move5- Supporting Comments on Findings
        Step 1- Referring to Data
        Step 2- Referring to Literature
Move6- Comparing Findings with Literature
        Step 1- Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature
        Step 2- Indicating Inconsistency of   Findings with Literature
Move 7- Making Recommendations
        Step 1- Making Suggestions for Practice

Step 2- Recommending Further Research
Move 8- Making Deductions
Move 9- Supporting Deductions/Suggestions
        Step 1- Referring to Data
        Step 2- Referring to Literature
Move 10- Evaluating the Study
        Step 1- Stating Significance of the Study
        Step 2- Stating Limitations of the Study
Move 11- Summarizing the Study


### 8.3.2 The Generic Structure of Discussion Section of Quantitative Research Articles

The analysis of the generic structure of Discussion section of the quantitative RAs revealed 10 moves. Most of these moves were realized by one to three steps. In a few cases, sub-steps were also identified. The identified moves, steps and sub-steps are:


Move 1- Providing Background Information
Move 2- Stating Findings
        Step 1- Reporting Findings
        Step 2- Summarizing Findings
Move 3- Commenting on Findings
        Step 1- Explaining
            Step 1A- Providing an Explanation
            Step 1B- Providing Alternative Explanations
            Step 1C- Referring to an Explanation in Literature
        Step 2- Interpreting
            Step 2A- Providing an Interpretation
        Step 3- Evaluating
            Step 3A- Indicating Consistency of Findings with Expected Findings/
                    Hypotheses
            Step 3B- Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Expected Findings/
                    Hypotheses
Move 4- Comparing Findings with Literature
        Step 1- Indicating Consistency of Findings with Literature
        Step 2- Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature
Move 5- Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature
        Step 1- Referring to Methodology
Move 6- Making Deductions
Move 7- Supporting Deductions
        Step 1- Referring to Findings
        Step 2- Referring to Methodology

Step 3- Referring to Literature
Move 8- Evaluating the Study
    Step 1- Stating Significance of the Study
    Step 2- Stating Limitations of the Study
 Move 9- Making Recommendations
    Step 1- Making Suggestions for Practice
    Step 2- Recommending Further Research
Move 10- Summarizing the Study


### 8.3.3 The Similarities and Differences between the Generic Structure of Discussion Sections of Qualitative and Quantitative Research Articles

Overall, from the 11 moves identified in the qualitative RAs and the 10 moves identified in the quantitative RAs, nine moves were found common in both sets of articles. Table 8.1 presents the moves identified in both sets of articles with their presence and overall occurrences in each sub-corpus.

Table 8.1: The Generic Structure of Qualitative and Quantitative Research Articles and the Presence of Each Move in the Corpus and Their Overall Occurrences

| Moves | Qualitative | | Quantitative | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Presence in 15 RAs | Overall Occurrence | Presence in 15 RAs | Overall Occurrence |
| Providing Background Information | 4 RAs (27%) | 6 (3.26%) | 11 RAs 73% | 25 (11.57%) |
| **Stating Findings** | **15 RAs (100%)** | **54 (29.35%)** | **15 RAs 100%** | **54 (25%)** |
| Providing Evidence for Findings | 10 RAs (67%) | 17 (9.24%) | *** | |
| **Commenting on Findings** | **12 RAs (80%)** | **33 (17.93%)** | **15 RAs 100%** | **56 (25.93%)** |
| Supporting Comments on Findings | 6 RAs (40%) | 11 (5.98%) | *** | |
| Comparing Findings with Literature | 9 RAs (60%) | 14 (7.61%) | 12 RAs 80% | 27 (12.50%) |
| Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | *** | | 2 RAs 13% | 2 (0.93%) |
| Making Recommendations | 6 RAs (40%) | 20 (10.87%) | 7 RAs 47% | 13 (6.02%) |
| Making Deductions | 10 RAs (67%) | 16 (8.69%) | 10 RAs 67% | 21 (9.72%) |
| Supporting Deductions/Suggestions | 4 RAs (27%) | 5 (2.72%) | 4 RAs 27% | 5 (2.31%) |
| Evaluating the Study | 5 RAs (33%) | 6 (3.26%) | 8 RAs 53% | 11 (5.09%) |
| Summarizing the Study | 2 RAs (13%) | 2 (1.09%) | 2 RAs 13% | 2 (0.93%) |

Note: *** indicates that the move was not identified in the sub-corpus

Among these nine common moves, Stating Findings was present in all the RAs in both sub-corpora. In terms of overall occurrences, it was the most occurred move in the qualitative sub-corpus and comprised around 30% of the whole moves in this sub-corpus. The other common move in both sub-corpora was Commenting on Findings which was identified in all the quantitative RAs. It was the most occurred move in the sub-corpus and comprised around 26% of the whole moves. Meanwhile, the move of Stating Findings was the second most occurred move in the quantitative sub-corpus and comprised 25% of the whole moves. Commenting on Findings was identified in 12 qualitative RAs and was the second most frequent move in the sub-corpus. As discussed in 6.2.3, examining the three RAs that lacked the move of Commenting on Findings suggested that they were descriptive studies and were focused on *what* questions and as a result the writers did not feel the necessity for commenting on their findings and presented only description.

Although the move of Commenting on Findings was a common move in both sub-corpora, the writers seemed to favor different steps when realizing them. As discussed in 4.3.2, in all the 12 qualitative RAs that the writers commented on their findings, Interpreting was identified as the step to realize the move. In terms of the overall frequency, the move was realized by Interpreting in over 60% of the cases. On the other hand, as previously was discussed in 5.3.2, the quantitative article writers favored Explaining as a strategy to comment on their findings which comprised around 52% of the comments in the whole sub-corpus.

As was discussed in Chapter 6, this preference can be attributed to the nature of the research and the methodology employed. In quantitative research, limited variables are selected to be examined in terms of their relationship and the aim is mainly to prove or disprove that there is a causal relationship between these variables. Thus, writers

mainly focus on explaining the causal relationships that their study has proved or disproved. Meanwhile, qualitative research is more interested in understanding and therefore the researchers try to interpret their findings and provide meaning and insights for the findings. However, as the findings of the study indicate, it does not mean that quantitative article writers do not interpret their findings or qualitative article writers do not explain their findings (for more discussion see 6.2.3). Another step which was used to comment on the findings was Evaluating which was infrequent in both sub-corpus.

Among the nine common moves, some moves such as Making Recommendations, Evaluating the Study, and Summarizing the Study were infrequent in both sub-corpora. Other studies (e.g. R. Yang, 2001) have shown that these moves can be common in Discussion section and Conclusion section. Skimming the sections following the Discussion section indicated that this was the case in the corpus of the present study as well. While no attempt was made to identify these moves in other sections, it was noticed that in several cases they appeared in the sections following the Discussion section.

The two moves of Providing Evidence for Findings and Supporting Comments on Findings were identified only in the qualitative sub-corpus. Providing Evidence for Findings was realized by one step of Referring to Data and whenever it was present it appeared immediately after the move of Stating Findings. Supporting Comments on Findings was realized by two steps of Referring to Data and/or Referring to Literature. In fact, the step of Referring to Data was the step that was identified only in the qualitative sub-corpus. As previously was discussed in 6.5.1 and 6.5.2, this might be related to the nature of qualitative research and the type of knowledge that it produces. In this type of research, study is not based on rigorous methodology and the findings are not in the form of statistics and numbers which supposedly "speak for themselves".

Meanwhile, the researcher of qualitative research is the main source of collecting and analyzing the data. Frequent reference to the data helps the writers to present acceptable evidence to the audience and persuade them that their findings and interpretations are based on their data.

Meanwhile, the move of Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature was found only in the quantitative sub-corpus; however, it was an infrequent move. Examining the cases in which inconsistency of findings with literature was identified showed that the move was used when the inconsistency was with findings from other studies rather than with a theory, an assumption, or belief in the literature. The close analysis of the cases that indicated inconsistency of findings with findings in literature suggested that the writers accounted for the inconsistency in one way or another (for more discussion see 6.4). Indicating inconsistency of findings with literature was found only in two cases in the qualitative sub-corpus and examining these instances showed that in both cases the inconsistency was between the findings of the studies and theories or believes in the literature rather than findings from other studies. It was concluded that this might be the reason why the move was not found in the qualitative sub-corpus.

The move of Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature was realized by one step of Referring to methodology which, in fact, was the step that was identified only in the quantitative sub-corpus. The step was also used to realize the move of Supporting Deductions. As was discussed earlier in 6.6, this might be due to the nature of quantitative research. In this type of research, validity and reliability are two main concepts and in order to gain credibility for their studies the writers attempt to show that these issues have been taken care of. Therefore, when the writers contrasted their findings with the literature, they referred to their methodologies trying to justify that the differences are related to the different sample sizes or methods that they have used.

Also, in some cases, the writers referred to their methodologies before making deductions from their studies. The other important concept in the quantitative research is generalization. Therefore, before making deductions, the writers ensured the audience of the reliability and validity of their methods and that the findings have not been affected by other variables.

Overall, the analysis of the two sub-corpora revealed a lot of similarities and interesting differences between the generic structures of these two sets of articles. A large number of common moves and steps are found in both sets of data. Meanwhile, some differences are also identified in terms of the frequency and occurrences of the moves and the preferences of particular steps in realizing a common move. A few moves and steps are also found only in one set of the articles. The differences can be attributed to the different nature of the methods used and the knowledge that these methods generate. While several studies in the literature have shown differences in the generic structure of the RAs in various disciplines, this study provides evidence that differences can also be found within one discipline when different methodologies are employed.

### 8.3.4 The Stance Features Used in Discussion Section of Qualitative and Quantitative Research Articles and the Similarities and Differences between Them

The analysis of the stance features were presented and discussed in Chapter 7. The findings showed that all these four elements, i.e. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, are important in the RAs and the writers use them strategically to interact with their audience and convince them. Among the four elements, hedges were the most frequent one in both sub-corpora. Boosters were the second most frequent features followed by attitude markers and self-mention. Table 8.2 summarizes the frequency and percentage of these features in both sub-corpora.

Table 8.2: Summary of the Frequency and Percentage of the Stance Features in the Corpus

| Stance Features | Qualitative: 132,271 words | | Quantitative: 139,377 words | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Total Frequency | Per 1,000 Words | Total Frequency | Per 1,000 Words |
| Hedges | 3,375 | 25.5 | 4,254 | 30.5 |
| Boosters | 1,232 | 9.15 | 1,330 | 9.54 |
| Attitude Markers | 597 | 4.51 | 628 | 4.50 |
| Self-Mention | 592 | 4.47 | 465 | 3.33 |

One of the interesting findings of examining the stance features is related to the frequency of hedges in the two sets of articles. One might expect to find hedges more frequently in the qualitative RAs than in the quantitative ones; however, the analysis revealed that the hedges occurred considerably higher in the quantitative sub-corpus than the qualitative one. Examining the frequency of hedges in various moves of the 20 RAs helped to account for this difference. As was discussed in detail in 7.2.1, the analysis showed that the two moves of Commenting on Findings and Making Deductions were the highly hedged moves in both sub-corpora.

The analysis also revealed that while the move of Commenting on Findings was present in all the RAs in the quantitative sub-corpus, it was not identified in some of the RAs in the qualitative sub-corpus. It was discussed in detail in Chapters 6 that depending on the purpose of the study (descriptive, exploratory, and explanatory) and the type of the research questions asked, some qualitative RAs might not include Commenting on Findings in their Discussion sections. Meanwhile, the analysis also showed that around 60% of the whole hedges appeared in Commenting on Findings move in the quantitative sub-corpus compared to 26% in the qualitative sub-corpus. Furthermore, the move comprised over 45% of the whole moves in the quantitative sub-corpus compared to around 20% in the qualitative sub-corpus. It was concluded that this

might be the main reason for prevalent occurrences of the hedges in the quantitative sub-corpus compared to the qualitative one.

The categorization of the hedges as *modals*, *nouns*, *verbs*, *adjectives*, *adverbs,* and *others* revealed that modals and verbs were the highly used devices to state tentativeness in both sub-corpora. In the modals category *may* and in the verbs category *suggest* were the most dominant ones. Overall the five most dominant hedges in both sub-corpora were *may*, *suggest*, *seem*, *indicate,* and *often*. Both sub-corpora were similar in terms of the preferences of the categories and the lexicons in expressing the hedges. A close analysis of the hedges in the two highly hedged moves suggested that the writers used hedges for various purposes such as being precise in what was stated, protecting themselves from possible objections, and showing their lack of commitment toward a proposition.

The second most frequent stance feature was boosters. Compared to the hedges, they were less frequent and appeared third times less than the hedges. The frequency was close in both sub-corpora. The categorization of boosters as *modals*, *nouns*, *verbs*, *adjectives*, *adverbs,* and *others* showed that *verbs* especially *show* and *found* were the most dominant category. Overall, the five most frequent lexicons were *show*, *find*, *demonstrate*, *evidence,* and *clearly*.

The next stance feature was attitude markers that occurred almost with the same frequency in both sub-corpora. They appeared almost 50% less than the boosters in both sets of articles. The identified attitude markers were in the form of *verbs*, *adjectives,* and *adverbs*. Among them, the *adjectives* were the most predominant and comprised around 70% of the attitude markers in each sub-corpus. Overall, the three most common lexicons used as the attitude markers were *important*, *even,* and *appropriate*.

The last element of the stance features examined in this study was self-mention. As can be expected, the overall occurrence of self-mention was, to some extent, higher in the qualitative articles than the quantitative ones. There is the assumption that the quantitative research is "objective" and "impersonal" and the person who conducts the research does not influence the study and results would be the same regardless of who conducts the study. This might be a reason that self-mention was lower in the quantitative articles than the qualitative ones. However, it should be noted that the difference between the two sub-corpora was not very extensive. In contrast to the assumption that research articles, particularly quantitative articles, are "objective" reports of a research process, the findings of the study reveal that in both types of articles writers express themselves explicitly in their writing, although with different frequency.

The categorization of self-mention pronouns in two groups of first person singular pronouns and first person plural pronouns showed that although most of the RAs in both sub-corpora were single-authored, the first person plural pronouns were more frequent in both sets of articles. Among the first person plural pronouns, *we* was the predominant one. Examining the first person plural pronouns in both single-authored and multiple-authored RAs revealed that they were used as *exclusive* and *inclusive*. In single-authored research articles, *we* was mostly used as *exclusive*.

Most of the first person pronouns used in the quantitative RAs were plural pronouns. In fact, only around 5% of the first person pronouns were singular pronouns in the quantitative RAs, compared to 34% in the qualitative sub-corpus. Among these pronouns, *I* was the most frequent. While the quantitative article writers seemed to express themselves explicitly in the multiple-authored RAs and by using plural pronouns, they do not seem to be comfortable in using singular pronouns.

### 8.3.5 The Moves in Which Stance Features Were Clustered in

Table 8.3 presents a summary of the frequency and occurrences of the four stance features in each move of the 10 qualitative and 10 quantitative RAs. The examination of hedges in the various moves of the 20 RAs indicated that they are not constrained to a specific move and are distributed in all of the moves. Meanwhile, two moves of Commenting on Findings and Making Deduction were the two heavily hedged moves in both sub-corpora. The finding is expected as in Commenting on Findings writers go beyond their findings and present their own understanding and viewpoints about them. In making deduction, the writers make conclusions based on their previous discussions. Both of these moves are claims made by writers and there is always a possibility of being refuted by their audience. As was discussed earlier in 7.2.1, writers use hedges strategically to avoid objection and gain acceptability for their claims.

Table 8.3: Summary of the Occurrences of Stance Features in Various Moves of the 10 Qualitative and 10 Quantitative Research Articles per 1,000 Words

| Moves | Hedges Per 1,000 words | | Boosters Per 1,000 words | | Attitude Markers Per 1,000 words | | Self-Mention Per 1,000 words | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Quali. | Quanti. | Quali. | Quanti. | Quali. | Quanti. | Quali. | Quanti. |
| Providing Background Information | 16.74 | 22 | 0.0 | 3.39 | 0.0 | 0.0 | **16.75** | 1.69 |
| Stating Findings | 15.15 | 11.6 | **10.62** | **11.22** | 2.41 | 2.80 | **13.52** | 1.87 |
| Providing Evidence for Findings | 15.25 | *** | 2.54 | *** | 0.85 | *** | 3.39 | *** |
| Commenting on Findings | **28.49** | **35.6** | 5.55 | 6.50 | 2.77 | 3.35 | 2.77 | 3.55 |
| Supporting Comments on Findings | 22.47 | *** | 2.80 | *** | 2.81 | *** | 0.0 | *** |
| Comparing Findings with Literature | 24.72 | 22.4 | **7.41** | **11.66** | 1.24 | **4.48** | 6.18 | 0.90 |
| Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature | *** | 19.8 | *** | 0.0 | *** | 0.0 | *** | **19.78** |
| Making Recommendations | 24.71 | 13.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.65 | **6.88** | 4.94 | 1.72 |
| Making Deductions | **34.27** | **39.7** | 6.23 | 9.0 | 0.0 | 3.60 | 9.34 | 1.80 |
| Supporting Deductions/ Suggestions | 15.87 | 21.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Evaluating the Study | 26.20 | 22.6 | **8.27** | **12.15** | 5.52 | 6.94 | 8.27 | 0.0 |
| Summarizing the Study | 11.54 | 17.6 | 3.85 | 7.85 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.84 | 11.70 |
| **Total** | **22.07** | **26.6** | **5.81** | **7.69** | **3.23** | **3.39** | **6.99** | **2.77** |

Note: *** indicates that the move is not identified in the sub-corpus

The boosters were identified in most of the moves but were less frequent compared to the hedges. Overall, they were more frequent in the three moves of Stating the Findings, Comparing Findings with Literature, and Evaluating the Study. When stating their findings, the writers mostly used the booster of *show* to express their commitment to their findings and back them up. As previously was discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, the move of Comparing Findings with Literature consists of two steps of Indicating Consistency of the Findings with Literature and Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. The boosters were used mostly in the first step where the writers expressed their confidence in the studies that were in line with their own. In terms of the move of Evaluating the Study, which consists of two steps of Stating the Significance of the Study and Stating the Limitations of the Study, the boosters were used in the first steps when the writers emphasized the significance of their studies.

Regarding attitude markers, the only move in which they appeared in frequently in the qualitative sub-corpus was the second step of Evaluating the Study, i.e. Stating the Significance of the Study. The attitude markers were also frequent in this step of the quantitative sub-corpus. The writers used *important* to stress the significance of their studies. The attitude markers were also identified in two other steps in the quantitative sub-corpus. One was the second step of Comparing Findings with Literature, i.e. Indicating Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. The writers used mostly the adjective of *interesting* to describe the inconsistency of the findings from the literature with their own findings. The other was the second step of Making Recommendations, i.e. Recommending Further Research. The writers used the attitude markers to state that further research was *necessary*, that future research can provide *insightful* information about the topic, or it will be *interesting* if future research investigates the x issue. As was mentioned earlier, the attitude markers were found frequently in these two steps only in the quantitative sub-corpus. This might be due to the fact that these two steps

were quite infrequent in the qualitative sub-corpus and each of them was only identified in two RAs in this sub-corpus.

The overall frequency of self-mention items was higher in the qualitative than the quantitative RAs. The distribution of self-mention items was not consistent in various moves of the two sets of articles. The overall frequency of these items was much higher in the 10 qualitative articles compared to the 100 qualitative ones. As was discussed in 7.5.1, a close examination of the instances of self-mention in the 10 qualitative articles revealed that the considerable higher frequency of these items in the 10 RAs was related to one particular article where these items were overused. This particular article affected the overall frequency of self-mention items in the various moves of the 10 qualitative research articles. Overall, these items were found more frequently in two moves of Providing Background Information and Stating Findings in the qualitative corpus.

The analysis showed that first person pronouns were used in Providing Background Information when the writers explained, for example, what they meant by a specific term, what they are going to do in the rest of the text, or when they restated what they have done in previous parts of the article. While Stating the Findings was one of the moves that the qualitative article writers expressed themselves most explicitly, this move was one of the moves that the quantitative research articles used the least self-mention items. This can be related to the assumption that quantitative research is impersonal and human agent does not affect the outcomes. Meanwhile, in the quantitative articles, the self-mention items were mostly used in Explaining Inconsistency of Findings with Literature. Particularly, the writers used the pronoun *our* when they tried to account for the differences between their findings and those in the literature by referring to their methodology.

## 8.4    A GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE FINDINGS

In spite of the growing interest in qualitative research, the organizational patterns and linguistic features of this type of research is little discussed. Most of the information on the writing of qualitative research is based on assumptions rather than evidence gained through systematic research. For instance, there is an assumption that qualitative research is "free of all" and the researchers who use this type of design are free in their writings. There is also an assumption that qualitative research is more "personal" and "interpretive" while in contrast quantitative research is "objective" and "impersonal". This study was the first attempt to analyze the Discussion section of qualitative and quantitative RAs in Applied Linguistics and it is hoped to fill the gap in the literature. By integrating genre analysis and corpus analysis, this study provided evidences that are in some cases in contrast to these general assumptions. This research is focused on the Discussion section of articles which arguably is the most important section in every research paper. Besides, it is the section that students find the most problematic to write and supervisor find difficult to provide constructive feedback on them (Basturkmen, 2009; Dudley-Evans, 1994). The findings are significant in that they provide a better understanding of the typical ways that the writers organize their texts and the ways that they present themselves in their writing which has potential contribution to ESP and EAP.

The analysis of the generic structure provided interesting findings showing that despite "the myth about qualitative research" (Charles Bazerman, personal communication, July 15, 2010) which implies that qualitative writers are free in their writing and do not follow specific organization in their writings; they do follow particular conventions in their writing. The findings revealed quite large similarity between the generic structures of these two types of RAs' Discussion sections. In spite of these similarities, the findings also highlight important differences between these two

types of articles' Discussion sections which can be attributed to the characteristics of these two designs.

One of the main differences is related to the presence of "Commenting on Findings" move. The analysis showed that methodological choice can affect the presence or absence of this move. While the move is found as an obligatory move in the quantitative articles' Discussion, it can be absent in qualitative articles depending on the type of research and research questions. In other words, when qualitative research is "descriptive" or "exploratory" and is focused on providing only thick description of a context or phenomenon, the writers might skip commenting on their findings. Meanwhile, the findings indicate that due to the nature of these research designs and the type of the knowledge that they produce, each of these articles favor different types of strategies in commenting on their findings. While qualitative research, which is more focused on interpreting and understanding, favors "Interpreting" the findings, quantitative research, which is more focused on explaining the relationship between two or more variables, mostly prefers "Explaining" the findings.

Another significant finding is related to the type of evidence that these two types of article writers use in their arguments. The analysis revealed that both types of articles use a lot of justification in their Discussion sections. One of the sources which is used by both qualitative and quantitative article writers to support the arguments is "referring to literature". However, qualitative research writers use another source which is "referring to data". These article writers frequently refer to their data in order to back up their findings, comments, suggestions, and deductions. It was discussed (see 6.3.1and 6.7) that it can be due to the nature of qualitative research where the whole research process including, data collection, data analysis, and data interpretation hinges upon the researcher. Reference to data seems as a strategy that the qualitative writers use to

demonstrate the legitimacy of their study by showing that the findings and interpretations are based on and generated from their data in order to persuade and convince their audience of the validity of their findings.

The analysis of stance features also provided insightful information about how these two sets of writers position themselves in their texts. Contrary to the assumption that qualitative research is more subjective and quantitative research is more objective and impersonal because of the use of numbers and statistics, the findings revealed that both types of article writers take a stance in their texts. Both groups use all four stance features−hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention− strategically to achieve particular purposes in their arguments. The findings reinforced previous studies that academic writing is not merely presenting facts objectively, but the writers take specific stance towards their own propositions and those in literature. One of the interesting findings in this part was that hedges were used more frequently in the Discussion section of quantitative articles than qualitative ones. The finding might be in contrast to general assumption that due to the nature of these two types of researches, hedges should be used more frequently in the qualitative research articles. Combining genre analysis and corpus analysis in studying the stance features showed that this difference in the use of hedges can be attributed to the generic structure of these two types of researches and preference of specific moves, particularly Commenting on Findings, in the quantitative articles. Integration of genre and corpus analysis also provided useful information on what parts of the Discussion sections and for what purposes each of these features are used. Among these four stance features hedges were the most frequent one and were distributed throughout the Discussion section and the three other features, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, were more clustered in particular moves.

## 8.5 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is a genre study which similar to other genre studies is motivated by pedagogical concerns. The findings of the study have the potential implication for the teaching of EAP (English for Academic Purposes). Genre analysis has become one of the most influential approaches to the teaching and learning of language for specific purposes (Bhatia, 1997b). According to Dudley-Evans (1994, p. 228), "the strongest argument for genre research is that it provides input for important and popular courses on academic writing". The aim of this study was to identify the conventions of RAs in Applied Linguistics both in terms of generic structure and stance features. The ultimate aim of article writers is to persuade their audience to accept their knowledge claims. To achieve that the writers need to present their findings in a way that to be in line with their audience's expectations (Hyland, 2005a; Koutsantoni, 2006). In other words, the writers need to be aware of the norms and conventions of their discourse community and employ this knowledge in their writings. Rhetorical organization and stance features are two importance conventions of RAs that writers need to be aware of.

For instance, Flowerdew (1999, p. 128), conducting a survey concerning issues of non-native English writers publishing in international refereed journals, found that one of the strategies used by the successful writers was "using implicit knowledge of the move structure (discourse organization) of the key parts of the academic article". However, while senior members of the community have this "implicit knowledge" which they have gained by probably over years of interacting with their community, newcomers to the community lack such knowledge and experience. A large number of books are available in the market that provide some general guidelines on how to write a research article or thesis. These books usually give some general tips on the organization of the whole research article in IMRD (Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion) and points that need to be covered in each section without considering the

conventions of each discourse community. For instance, most of these books recommend that writers need to comment on their findings in Discussion section. Meanwhile, several genre studies have shown that while commenting on findings is important in some disciplines; it is not a "must" in some other disciplines. For instance, Peacock (2002) studying RAs from seven various disciplines found the move of Explaining as the least frequent and the least widespread move in his corpus. Furthermore, while these guidelines suggest that writers need to comment on their findings, they do not provide further information for their readers on how they need to comment on their findings, what strategies are available to them, whether they should state these comments with tentativeness and why, whether they need to express their confidence in the comments they state and why, and many other points.

This study examined in detail how qualitative and quantitative research article writers deal with their Discussion sections. By providing detailed insights and making explicit the norms and conventions of the community, which are normally implicit, it can help the novice members of the discourse community. It reveals how Discussion sections of these two types of articles can be organized and which options are available to the writers. It also introduces the novice writers to how in qualitative and quantitative articles they can take stance in their Discussion section and how they can use each of these stance features strategically to persuade their audience. However, it should be noted that the findings of this study and similar genre studies are not prescriptive but introduce the available patterns and options which can facilitate the novice writers' participation in their discourse community. This in turn can lead to successful academic writing. As Hyland (2007, p. 152) states, "by ensuring these options are available to students, we give them the opportunity to make such choices, and for many L2 learners this awareness of regularity and structure is not only facilitating, but also reassuring".

This knowledge not only can be translated into the development of teaching sources which can help teachers in teaching academic writing to students, but can also help students in critical reading and interpreting the findings of other researchers and evaluating them. On the whole, this explicit knowledge on how these sub-genres are structured and written and why they are written the way they are, can facilitate the entry of newcomers to Applied Linguistics.

## 8.6     LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study has examined in detail the discussion section of qualitative and quantitative research articles in Applied Linguistics both in terms of generic structure and stance features. It has found great similarities and interesting differences in these two types of research articles. Future research can investigate the other main sections of qualitative and quantitative research articles in Applied Linguistics and even the whole RA sections. This study has been limited to examining qualitative and quantitative research articles and excluded mixed method designs. With increasing number of mixed method research, it might be interesting to investigate the structure and stance features in this type of research. Further study can also be conducted in other disciplines which employ both qualitative and quantitative methodology to find out whether they use the same or different rhetorical strategies in various sections of their articles.

In terms of studying stance features, this study's main focus was on the frequency, type, and form. Although there are some discussions on the functions of these features in the study, no attempt was made to categories each and every occurrence of these features in terms of their functions. Future research can extend the present study by focusing mainly on the functions of each of these stance features in Discussion section of these two types of research articles to find out whether these features have the same or different functions in these two types of research. As

mentioned in 7.2.1, this study focused on hedges that were expressed through lexical items. Although some studies in literature have shown that hedges are mainly expressed through lexical items, further study can examine "strategic hedges" in various sections of these two types of articles.

This study combined genre analysis and corpus analysis in studying the stance features in 20 RAs in terms of the use of these features in various moves of these 20 qualitative and quantitative research articles. This provided insightful information and helped to explain the higher occurrences of hedges in the quantitative research article's Discussion sections. More comprehensive research using larger corpus can provide more detailed information on the functions of these features.

## 8.7    SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This concluding chapter started with providing a general overview of the study and restated the research questions that the study was based on. The research questions were answered in Chapters 4-7 where the findings were discussed in detail. A summary of the main findings for each research question was stated in this chapter. A general overview of the findings, its implications and limitations and future line of research were also discussed briefly.

**List of the Qualitative Research Articles Analyzed in Terms of Generic Structure**

**Applied Linguistics (APP):**

1) (Quali-APP1)* °

Gan, Z., Davison, C., Hamp-Lyons, L. (2009). Topic negotiation in peer group oral assessment situations: A conversation analytic approach. *Applied linguistics, 30*(3), 315-334.

2) (Quali-APP2)*

Flowerdew, J., Li, Y. (2007). Language Re-use among Chinese Apprentice Scientists Writing for Publication. *Applied linguistics, 28*(3), 440-465.

3) (Quali-APP3)

Farrell, T. S. C., Tan Kiat Kun, S. (2007). Language Policy, Language Teachers' Beliefs, and Classroom Practices. *Applied linguistics, 29*(3), 381-403.

**English for Specific purposes (ESP):**

4) (Quali-ESP1)* ^ °

Morton, J. (2009). Genre and disciplinary competence: A case study of contextualisation in an academic speech genre. *English for Specific Purposes, 28,* 217-229.

5) (Quali-ESP2)*

Cheng, A. (2007). Transferring generic features and recontextualizing genre awareness: Understanding writing performance in the ESP genre-based literacy framework. *English for Specific Purposes, 26,* 287-307.

6) (Quali-ESP3)*

Shi, L., Kubota, R. (2007). Patterns of rhetorical organization in Canadian and American language arts textbooks: An exploratory study. *English for Specific Purposes, 26,* 180-202.

**Journal of Pragmatics (PRAG):**

7) (Quali-PRAG1) ^ °

Schnurr, S., Marra, M., Holmes, J. (2007). Being (im)polite in New Zealand workplaces: Ma¯ori and Pa¯keha¯ leaders. *Journal of Pragmatics, 39*, 712-729.

8) (Quali-PRAG2)*

Ishida, I. (2006). Learners' perception and interpretation of contextualization cues in spontaneous Japanese conversation: Back-channel cue Uun. *Journal of Pragmatics, 38*, 1943-1981.

9) (Quali-PRAG3)

Fukuda. C. (2005). Children's use of the masu form in play scenes. *Journal of Pragmatics, 37*, 1037-1058.

**Language Teaching Research (LTR):**

10) (Quali-LTR1)* ^ °

Springer, S., Collins, L. (2008). Interacting inside and outside of the language classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 12*(1), 39-60.

11) (Quali-LTR2)*

Murphy, L. (2005). Attending to form and meaning: The experience of adult distance learners of French, German and Spanish. *Language Teaching Research, 9*(3), 295-317.

12) (Quali-LTR3)

Nkosana, L. (2008).  Attitudinal obstacles to curriculum and assessment reform. *Language Teaching Research, 12*(2), 287-312.

**TESOL Quarterly (TESOL):**

13) (Quali-TESOL1)* °

Higgins, C. (2003). "Ownership" of English in the outer circle:      An alternative to the NS-NNS dichotomy. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(4), 615-644.

14) (Quali-TESOL2)

Ellwood, C., Nakane, I. (2009). Privileging of speech in EAP and mainstream university classrooms: A critical evaluation of participation. *TESOL Quarterly, 43*(2), 203-230.

15)(Quali-TESOL3)*

Ko, J., Schallert, D. L., Walters, K. (2003). Rethinking Scaffolding: Examining Negotiation of Meaning in an ESL Storytelling Task. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(2), 303-324.

Note: * indicates that the article was used in analyzing the stance features manually
      **^** indicates that the articles was analyzed by the second analyzer
      ° indicates that the articles was analyzed during the pilot study

**APPENDIX B**

**List of the Quantitative Research Articles Analyzed in Terms of Generic Structure**

**Applied Linguistics (APP):**

1) (Quanti-APP1)* °
   Conklin, K. & Schmitt, N. (2008). Formulaic sequences: Are they processed more quickly than nonformulaic language by native and nonnative speakers? *Applied linguistics, 29*(1), 72-89.

2) (Quanti-APP2)*
   Ellis, R. (2006). Modelling learning difficulty and second language proficiency: The differential contributions of implicit and explicit knowledge. *Applied linguistics, 27*(3), 431-463.

3) (Quanti-APP3)*
   Takahashi, S. (2005). Pragmalinguistic awareness: Is it related to motivation and proficiency? *Applied linguistics, 26*(1), 90-120.

**English for Specific purposes (ESP):**

4) (Quanti-ESP1) °
   Atay, D. & Ozbulgan, C. (2007). Memory strategy instruction, contextual learning and ESP vocabulary recall. *English for Specific Purposes, 26,* 39-51.

5) (Quanti-ESP2)* ^
   Song, B. (2006). Content-based ESL instruction: Long-term effects and outcomes. *English for Specific Purposes, 25,* 406-437.

6) (Quanti-ESP3)
   Taillefer, G. F. (2007). The professional language needs of Economics graduates: Assessment and perspectives in the French context. *English for Specific Purposes, 26,* 135-155.

**Journal of Pragmatics (PRAG):**

7) (Quanti-PRAG1)* °
   Kang, J. Y. (2004). Telling a coherent story in a foreign language: Analysis of Korean EFL learners' referential strategies in oral narrative discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics, 36*, 1975-1990.

8) (Quanti-PRAG2)
   Laval, V. (2003). Idiom comprehension and metapragmatic knowledge in French children. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*, 723-739.

9) (Quanti-PRAG3)* ^
   Adenzato, M. & Bucciarelli, M. (2008). Recognition of mistakes and deceits in communicative interactions. *Journal of Pragmatics, 40*, 608-629.

**Language Teaching Research (LTR):**

10) (Quanti-LTR1) °
   Takimoto, M. (2006). The effects of explicit feedback on the development of pragmatic proficiency. *Language Teaching Research, 10*(4), 393-417.

11) (Quanti-LTR2)*

Bitchener, J. & Knoch, U. (2008). The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language Teaching Research, 12*(3), 409-431.

12) (Quanti-LTR3)*

Benati, A. (2005). The effects of processing instruction, traditional instruction and meaning-output instruction on the acquisition of the English past simple tense. *Language Teaching Research, 9*(1), 67-93.


**TESOL Quarterly (TESOL):**

13) (Quanti-TESOL1)* ^ °

Sheen, Y. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(2), 255-283.

14) (Quanti-TESOL2)*

Barcroft, J. (2009). Effects of synonym generation on incidental and intentional l2 vocabulary learning during reading. *TESOL Quarterly, 43*(1), 79-103.

15) (Quanti-TESOL3)

Smith, B. (2005). The relationship between negotiated interaction, learner uptake, and lexical acquisition in task-based computer-mediated communication. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(1), 33-58.

Note: * indicates that the article was used in analyzing the stance features manually

^ indicates that the article was analyzed by the second analyzer

° indicates that the article was analyzed during the pilot study

**Sample Analyses of Discussion Section of Qualitative Research Articles**

| Quali-TESOL1 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [This study of speakers' orientations toward English norms questions the division between inner and outer circles because, in terms of ownership, members of both groups displayed similar indicators of authority over English. The ways in which speakers from both circles shifted roles from receptor to interpreter to judge followed noticeably similar paths as the speakers invoked their own usage or used the syntactic frame you + can + say to assume the role of judge in evaluating the sentences. Not all speakers invoked the same means to judge the sentences, however, and the various means by which they judged the sentences point to varying degrees of authority over English, even among inner-circle speakers. More often, though, the speakers from the outer circle displayed less certainty, or lesser degrees of ownership, than did the speakers from the inner circle.] | 2 |
| [This uncertainty among outer-circle speakers may be the result of their experience with multiple and conflicting norms for English.] [For example, it is surprising that the Singaporeans all rejected the use of "researches" or "equipments" as countable nouns when these particular forms have been attested multiple times in Singapore as well as in the United Kingdom (Lowenberg, 1986; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1984). Their rejection of the forms may come from their exposure to American English norms, or else they may have acquired a heightened awareness of the features of Singaporean English, which are stigmatized in other regions of the world.] [In contrast to the outer-circle dyads, though, the discourse among the inner-circle pairs rarely showed doubt,] [ a finding that indicates a great deal of self-confidence and a firm sense of legitimacy among the U.S. speakers that they are in an authoritative position from which to judge English.] [For both sets of dyads, the data show that speakers from the same countries may assume the role of judge with equal confidence, yet may still disagree with their partner,] [a finding that reflects the existence of different linguistic norms for all speakers.] | 4-1A 5-1 <br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br> 2 <br> 4-2A <br><br><br> 2 <br><br> 4-2A |
| [This study is limited in its analysis of ownership because it only examines the situated linguistic identities expressed during an experimental task. The participants may orient to English very differently in other contexts, such as in an ESL class or in a conversation with a speaker from the inner circle. Furthermore, it is important to stress that the potential for ownership should not simply be applied to all IVE speakers because equal access to English is not present in outer-circle countries. Moreover, ownership is not meant to be a binary measure similar to the NS-NNS dichotomy or the inner-outer–circle division; speakers may have varying degrees of ownership because social factors, such as class, race, and access to education, act as gate keeping devices. Even expanding circle speakers from nations such as Korea or Brazil may have high degrees of ownership, particularly those who are educated in private, English-medium schools or those whose socioeconomic status affords them ownership of English. Conversely, it is important to acknowledge that the concept of ownership extends to speakers of nonstandard varieties in the inner circle, as they are often marginalized and perceived as speaking deficient, illegitimate varieties of English, a fact that often yields few opportunities for such speakers to feel as | 10-2 |

| | |
|---|---|
| though they own English in any real sense.] | |
| [Despite these limitations, this study suggests that IVE speakers who have not traditionally been considered on par with NSs of inner-circle varieties of English, or who might not overtly claim ownership in other contexts, may in fact orient toward English in very similar ways to speakers from the inner circle.] | 8 |
| [With a better understanding of how speakers orient toward English, researchers will have a clearer starting point from which to understand language development among language learners. Furthermore, from a more practical point of view, English language professionals will benefit from knowing how their students orient toward English. If teachers are aware of which variety of English their students consider the TL to be and the degree of ownership the students display to that variety, they will better recognize students' language abilities and more fairly measure their linguistic achievements.] | 10-1 |

| Quali-LTR1 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [The findings reveal some important differences in the nature of the oral interaction experienced by Soon Yi and Ivan in the classroom and real-world contexts. While overall time on tasks was comparable, what the L2 speakers did with the time was not.] | 2 |
| [The marked difference in the number of reformulations and instances of solicited/unsolicited language assistance suggests that regardless of the parameters and communicative goals of a task, in the language classroom, Soon Yi and Ivan focused on language.] | 4-2A |
| [This frequently occurred within activities that did not have a specific language focus, and most often concerned vocabulary,] | 2 |
| [which is consistent with Williams' (1999) observations of learner-generated attention to form among advanced learners.] | 6-1 |
| [Appeals to the teacher were reserved for the infrequent occasions when the learners could not resolve a query on their own,] | 2 |
| [illustrating that Soon Yi, Ivan, and their classmates were able to take control of some of the learning that went on in the pair and small-group interaction (Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos & Linnell, 1996).] | 4-2A |
| [At times, the decision to focus on language came at the expense of task completion, a choice that did not appear to exist outside the protective 'bubble' of the language classroom (Wray, 2000, p. 481): in the volunteer context, the same speakers shifted focus from the language itself to the content and completion of tasks.] | 2 |
| [One contributing factor to reduced overt attention to language in the real world may be the limited success NNSs have at getting NSs to help them with language features they are struggling with that do not impede communication, as we saw with Ivan's attempts to solicit language assistance. This cannot necessarily be attributed to the age difference between the high school students and the tutors; the adult researcher (who was also an experienced language teacher) was also a limited source of feedback in this context. Nor does familiarity with the workshop content seem to be a reasonable explanation for the reduced attention to language in the real world context.] | 4-1B |
| [While Soon Yi and Ivan were able to plan their workshops ahead of time (which may have reduced this aspect of the linguistic challenge in the task), there were a number of unplanned events during each workshop and tutoring session which increased the pragmatic and language demands of the workshops (interruptions from outside visitors, arguments between the high school students, and questions/difficulties related to | 5-1 |

workshops and homework). Thus, Soon Yi and Ivan were only able to plan the general language they would need to use to get their workshops started; the majority of the time was spent reacting to less predictable elements. In the classroom, even though they did not often know what the teacher had planned for them, the types of instructional activities were familiar, frequently adapted from a textbook they used the entire course, and often focused on language content that had already been heard or read.]

[A more plausible explanation for the limited overt attention to language in the tutoring context is that Soon Yi and Ivan realized that despite the non-native aspects of their language, they could be understood well enough to achieve their objectives in the workshops and help the high school students with their homework.] [The high school students tolerated a range of non-native aspects of the tutors' language, including grammatical errors and accented speech, only reacting when pronunciation impeded comprehension, or word-search interfered with the pace of the conversation. Evidence in support of this interpretation comes from the tutors' journal entries which, as the volunteer program progressed, focused more on descriptions of task execution than on concerns over their level of language. At the beginning of the volunteer program, Soon Yi remarks:

> It was a disappointing day for me. My lesson was about origami, but I could not explain it well. I think that I was too nervous to speak in English … Anyway, when we had a homework time after the lesson (workshop), they asked more questions than yesterday …Today, I had a good time too, even though I made many mistakes.
> At homework time, I worked with a student to do mathematics. When I explained to the student, she understood very well. I also thought that it was too easy for her. Anyways, it was a pleasure to teach her.]

[It appears that in just a few hours of contact time with the high school students, Soon Yi had become less concerned with how she spoke than with how the workshops and tutoring sessions unfolded. The language became much more of a vehicle for communication than an object of reflection.]

[One of the criticisms of task-based communicative language pedagogy has been that students' preoccupation with finishing a task may result in minimal use of language, and little attention to language form (Seedhouse, 1999; see also Swan, 2005).] [The findings of this study suggest that for adult learners, particularly those with some proficiency in the language, attention to language during oral interaction may in fact compromise task completion.] [Although Soon Yi and Ivan were given interactional opportunities that had the real-world feature of a defined ending point, this point was often not reached. They appeared to regard all activities, however interesting, as pretexts for practicing language rather than as tasks that had to be completed. Soon Yi and Ivan actively reflected on language, even when otherwise engaged with the intended communicative purpose of the task. Classroom tasks are often implemented to give students practice in rehearsing for an exchange they might have in the real-world, and the pair and group management of the tasks suggested that they too understood they were rehearsing. In addition, because the teacher usually reviewed key content of the small group interaction later with the whole class, students did not necessarily need to make task completion a primary goal.]

[There was evidence that repeating a task with well-defined parameters and similar content (i.e. switching roles during a role play) increased the likelihood of its completion,] [a finding that is consistent with studies that attest to improved proficiency (based on holistic measures) on repeated tasks when learners were familiar with the content (e.g. Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres & Fernandez-Garcia, 1999).] [Tasks in the real world, however, must usually be

| completed the first time round. Soon Yi and Ivan were able to do so in the volunteer context, both for the workshops, in which they had control over the content, as well as in the more reactive homework tutoring situations.] | |
|---|---|
| [An additional benefit which real-world interaction appeared to offer was the opportunity to practice listening to and interacting with several NSs at the same time.] [Two-way listening, in which learners take responsibility for interacting with interlocutors in ways that allow them to make sense of what is being said, is, as Lynch (1997) notes, challenging for NNSs: 'One might think of limited L2 users as moving in the "slow lane" of listening, aware that other traffic is passing them by at confusing speed but unable to do much about it' (p. 387).] [Although we have no measures of listening fluency in this study, we can report on learner perceptions. Half-way through his tutoring experience, Ivan noted that he found it much easier to participate in conversations with multiple participants who often interrupted each other, including him. Previously he had found it difficult to attend to more than one English speaker at a time, and when he had the opportunity to interact with other NSs or simply listen to NSs conversing, he would often disengage if his participation was not required. In the volunteer program, where he was responsible for managing a task, disengaging was not an option.] | 2<br><br>1<br><br><br><br><br>3-1 |

| Quali-APP1 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [This study aims at illustrating topic development and topic transition in interactive discourse in group oral assessment situations.][Our analysis shows that topical organization embedded in this institutional speech event displays features that are both similar to and different from those typical of either ordinary conversation or other institutional discourse.] | 1<br>2 |
| [For example, Sacks (1992a) claims that speakers often start their talk with a prefacing 'false first' or 'transitional first' topic, which is either exhausted quickly before moving on to other matters or is used to introduce other mentionables.] [Similar patterns of 'false first' or 'transitional first' topic occurred in our data.] [The negotiation of topicality started with K formulating the task demand, that is, a discussion of gift proposals, but the talk did not immediately move along from it. Instead, two 'non-gift' sequences (i.e. the 'film' sequence and the 'character' sequence) were occasioned in an apparently task-relevant and interactionally sensible place. Such 'film' and 'character' talk in fact functioned as a preliminary or 'warm-up' (Kasper and Ross 2007) to starting talk on the task proper, as is explicitly marked by the participants themselves.] [Instances of preliminary or warm up talk like these thus provide evidence that the participants themselves categorized their previous talk as 'transitional first' or as 'false first' topic talk.] | 6-1<br><br><br><br>2<br>3-1<br><br><br><br><br><br>4-2A |
| [Heyman (1986:40) further claims that what is 'essential for the topical organization of the talk and orientation to this topic by members is clarification of the task demands, i.e., describing the gist of the task at the beginning of the talk'. Kasper (2004) has also shown how the definition of characteristics of task is procedurally consequential in topic initiation of talk.] [In our data, it can be seen that formulation of the task demand was well integrated into the discussion.] | 6-1<br><br><br><br>2 |
| [Such formulations or reformulations of task demands can be considered signs of participants constantly monitoring the content of talk for appropriacy and relevance to the assessment task agenda. By means of this constant monitoring, | 4-2A |

| | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| participants occasioned topics in the course of turn-by-turn interaction as they were related, expanded, exemplified, or aborted. Once a topic-initial utterance was occasioned, the following turn might topicalize the content of the preceding speaker's utterance, or display disinterest and close down that particular topic.][Our analysis therefore provides evidence for the claim by some recent educational discourse researchers that the topic organization is constituted in the participants' turns at talk, which in turn display their orientations to and understanding of what is relevant to the set task agenda.] | 10-1 |
| [In their analysis of topic shift in OPI, Kasper and Ross (2007: 2061) suggest that topic shifts are a fragile environment where test candidates may have difficulties providing relevant answers.] [The peer participants in the group oral discussion task in our study had no identifiable trouble handling topic shifts from the ongoing sequence. These participants tended to signal that they were about to move on to a new topic through the use of a turn initial, or they marked a forthcoming topic shift in the design of the prefatory components/features of the turn in which they would introduce the new topic.] [This kind of topic shift might be described as 'marked' topic shift (Sacks 1992b) or 'disjunctive' topic change (Jefferson 1984), which involves the introduction of a new matter to the one discussed in the previous turn, thus being an obvious topic change.] [There was also evidence in our data that the participants signaled that what they were about to say would be connected with what they had previously said. The speaker thus tied in to the content of the previous utterance while introducing some new element as in some way related, which is a typical example of 'stepwise' (Sacks 1992b) topic movement.] [Goodwin and Goodwin (1992) claim that an important aspect of collaboration and negotiation in constructing and developing an emergent topic involves reaction to the content of the preceding utterances.] [Such instances of either 'marked' topic shift or 'stepwise' topic movement described in our analyses thus display characteristics of emergent topical development in conversation.] | 6-2<br><br>2<br><br><br><br><br>1<br><br><br><br>2<br><br><br><br><br>9-2<br><br>8 |

| Quali-ESP2 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [Some researchers have previously argued that the judgment on ''whether a genre has been mastered rests with the discoursal and linguistic realization in [a learner's] text of a target genre'' (Pang, 2002, p. 154). Consequently, previous studies that examined writing performance in ESP genre-based writing instruction have underscored the importance of observing how some obligatory moves and other generic features have been replicated in learners' writings (e.g., Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Pang, 2002).] [Similar to the students in these previous studies, Fengchen was able to transfer some previously noticed generic features into his writing.] [For example, as he explained in his annotations of Version 2, he noticed the item-by-item pattern of reviewing literature in one of the articles he had previously analyzed. Subsequently, he adopted this pattern in both Versions 1 and 3 of his reviews of the protocols. Similarly, the review-evaluation pattern, in which a study cited is followed by an evaluation (positive or negative), has often been identified in the ESP genre-based literature (Swales, 1990; Swales & Feak, 2000, 2004) and had been discussed extensively in class. This pattern was adopted in all three versions of his reviews.] [I noticed that many other learners in this course were also able to transfer many of the generic features they had previously analyzed into their writing, and they found the process of doing so helped their | 6-1<br><br><br><br><br><br>2<br><br>3-1<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>2 |

| | |
|---|---|
| learning of academic writing.] [For example, the move pattern in the writing of a student in Business Studies was almost the exact replica of the move pattern in one of the articles she analyzed. She felt that she had learned a lot through imitating closely the rhetorical organization of the article she analyzed. Otherwise, she felt that, as an MA student who did not know much about writing RAs, she would not have known how to begin the task (see also the case of Paul in Tardy, 2005).] | 3-1 |
| [However, my analysis of Fengchen's writing suggests that apart from examining learners' transfer of generic features into their writing, one also needs to observe learners'recontextualization of their genre awareness in their writing.] | 2 |
| [Recontextualization is defined here as learners' abilities not only to use a certain generic feature in a new writing task, but to use it with a keen awareness of the rhetorical context that facilitates its appropriate use.] | 1 |
| [Learners need to realize that every writing task represents a new rhetorical context – a new set of rhetorical purposes and a new configuration of writer/reader relationships, among others, that may be different from the one in which a generic feature is previously noticed. Consequently, they need to realize that every time a previously noticed generic feature is used, it is used in a new or a recreated context; it needs to be recontextualized so as to achieve the rhetorical purpose and reach the audience in the new rhetorical contexts.] | 7-1 |
| [My analysis of the discipline-specific writing sample by Fengchen points to his effort and his ability to recontextualize his genre awareness.] | 2 |
| [It appears that Fengchen saw the essence of genres as repeated social actions, as evidenced in his recognition of the itemby- item and the review-evaluation patterns as recurring generic features that other researchers use to organize their literature reviews, and thus patterns that he could use to organize his own literature reviews. Meanwhile, he seemed to view the tasks of writing his own literature reviews as new rhetorical contexts saturated with rhetorical possibilities that were enabled by his understanding of the rhetorical purposes of his texts, his perceptions of the needs of the readers, and the impact of his disciplinary knowledge. It seemed to him that the generic features had become resources that he owned and used to meet the needs of his created rhetorical contexts. They have become, as Hyland (2000) observes in some seasoned writers, a tool for rhetorical persuasion.] | 4-2A |
| [I also noticed various instances of recontextualizing generic awareness in other learners' writing, although the specific features they recontextualized were sometimes different from those of Fengchen.] | 2 |
| [For example, one learner recontextualized in a very meaningful way many previously noticed lexico-grammatical features, as opposed to features of rhetorical organization, in the three versions of her writing, mainly due to the strong influence of the disciplinary culture in her field.] | 3-1 |
| [Some genre-based researchers have long pondered over how we can assist students to understand genre as ''repeated social action'' (Miller, 1984, p. 151) and, at the same time, ''encourage them to see every context and task as somehow new'' (Johns, 1995, p. 186). Others have considered how we can adopt a ''socioliterate approach'' (Johns, 1997) to teach our students to view genre knowledge as ''a resource to exploit generic conventions to respond appropriately to the requirements'' of disciplinary and professional practices, rather than ''as a blueprint for replication'' (Bhatia, 2004, p. 208). Some researchers have also emphasized the importance of developing learners' rhetorical knowledge, defined as the ability to consider ''the specific audience for and purpose of a particular text, and how best to communicate rhetorically in that instance'' (Beaufort, 2004, | 1 |

| | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| p. 140), especially in the context of genre-based learning (e.g., Tardy, 2005).] | |
| [Given these renewed understandings of genre knowledge and genre teaching, I propose that learners' abilities to recontextualize their genre awareness, as seen in the case of Fengchen, may represent a more sophisticated level of achievement and may thus be more revealing of the significance of genre-based learning in general and of their writing performance in particular. Consequently, the goal of genre-based teaching and learning may be more productively conceptualized as that of fostering learners' development of an increasingly sophisticated awareness of the rhetorical considerations motivating generic features and, ultimately, of their abilities to recontextualize such generic awareness in their writing.] | 8 |
| [Some researchers have previously listed the impossibility of covering a wide range of genre types, generic variations, and generic complexities as one of the drawbacks of the explicit teaching of genre (e.g., Freedman, 1993; Hyon, 2001). Viewing the goal of genre-based teaching as that of helping students to recontextualize genre awareness can help us put these criticisms into perspective. The acquisition of a multitude of genre types and the specific generic features related to each type, though undoubtedly important, may signify only the knowing of genres. Knowing genres needs to serve as the means toward the goal – understanding genre, or the awareness of how rhetorical considerations lead to the appropriate use of the multitude of genres and their respective generic features.

Focusing on genre awareness, rather than merely the awareness of genres, can help us extend the process of observing students' writing performance from just the final written products to their genre-analysis tasks. We can observe how a learner notices and analyzes the generic features of discipline-specific texts and trace how these features become integrated into the learner's writing. For example, I found in a related study that Fengchen often engaged in a kind of writerly reading of the discipline-specific generic exemplars (Cheng, Submitted). When analyzing these genre exemplars, he frequently placed himself in the specific position of the writer. He reconstructed the interaction between the readers' possible expectations and the writer's purposes, contemplated the options available to the writer, and predicted how the writer would organize texts across various moves. Interestingly, my analysis of the data in this paper suggests that the writerly reading gestures described above have subsequently been transformed into his readerly writing performance, as evidenced by his keen awareness of the purposes of his texts and the readers' possible responses to his rhetorical (re)organization. The meaningful connections between noticing genre and performing genre, or writerly reading of genre and readerly writing of genre, on his part thus highlight the benefits of not only observing the generic features integrated into the final written products (knowing genres), but, more important, how learners become aware of a certain feature and how they recontextualize it in their writing (knowing genre). After all, the latter, as noted earlier, may better pinpoint the true impact of genre on learners' reading and writing performance.] | 10-1 |

| Quali-TESOL3 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [Given the amount of improvement from the first to the second telling for the majority of our student storytellers, it would be easy, as noted, to attribute the improvement primarily to the quality of the NOM that occurred between the two tellings. We identified characteristics of NOM sessions that made them higher quality or lower quality based on the amount and quality of relevant information | 2 |

exchanged in the interaction.] [By higher quality NOM sessions, we mean sessions in which the teacher, as primary audience member, and the storyteller actively engaged in a conversation that elicited information related to the topic of the story in such a way that the storyteller could profit from the interaction. In contrast, lower quality NOM sessions were those in which the conversation between storyteller and audience did not lead to a useful exchange of information from the teller's point of view. Here, we suggest a sort of enabling effect: If information relevant to the topic of the story is exchanged, particularly information about parts of the story that storytellers missed or left unclear in the initial telling, the teller has the chance to incorporate some of the information shared in the NOM when retelling the story, resulting in a story that is better than in the first telling.]

[Our analysis of NOM sessions also showed clearly that the teacher, although not the sole factor in improving stories, was a critical player.] [As described above, the teachers in this study used several interactional moves during the NOM sessions that seemed to be effective in improving the stories told. First, they had an ear for the places where stories lacked essential information, and they were good at leading the storyteller to provide it. At the same time, they were sensitive to interpretations and presuppositions on the part of the tellers that came from their cultural knowledge and that might have confused the audience. Third, they directed the audience by encouraging members to ask questions, checking what the audience members had understood of the story, and making sure that the conversation did not stray too far from the point of the story. Finally, they supplied words, phrases, and idiomatic expressions when storytellers needed them and helped with pronunciation difficulties that interfered with the storyteller's meaning. If one wanted to list specific teacher behaviors in line with current conceptions of effective ESL teaching, these interactional moves would very likely find a place on the list.]

[However, our data also indicated that regardless of the skill with which teachers interacted with the storyteller and the other student members of the audience, storytellers themselves played an even more important role in improving their stories for their second telling. At one level, such a claim is obvious; however, current models of teaching and learning rarely acknowledge this important fact. Not only must the story itself provide enough plot to elicit interest and wonderment from the teacher and other audience members, but the storyteller must also actively respond to the negotiation that transpires following the telling. Finally, the storyteller must allow what has been revealed through NOM to affect his or her current version of the story.] [Thus, one often overlooked aspect of the construct of scaffolding is the essential role played by the learner in guiding the scaffolding process. Without the ability or willingness to engage with the more knowledgeable other or a readiness to incorporate and appropriate what has been revealed in interaction with the more knowledgeable other, the learner cannot make progress—at least not immediately.]

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| | 3-1 |
| | 2 |
| | 8 |

**Sample Analyses of Discussion Section of Quantitative Research Articles**

| Quanti-TESOL2 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [With references to the research questions that guided this study, the main findings can be summarized as follows:<br>1. Instructing learners to learn target words and informing them that a test will follow (intentional learning) positively affected L2 word form learning during reading as compared with instructing learners to read for meaning only (incidental learning).<br>2. Requiring learners to perform a semantically oriented task (synonym generation) negatively affected L2 word-form learning during reading.<br>a. This negative effect did not depend on whether vocabulary learning was intentional or incidental.<br>b. This negative effect did not depend on the proficiency level of the learners (low intermediate versus high intermediate).<br>3. Additionally, text comprehension was lower when learners were in the intentional vocabulary learning condition and were required to perform the semantically oriented task.] | 2-2 |
| [From a theoretical standpoint, these findings are consistent with the resource-depletion hypothesis, which posits that increased semantic processing can exhaust processing resources that otherwise could be used to encode the formal component of the target words during incidental vocabulary learning. As predicted by this hypothesis, synonym generation decreased L2 word-form learning in the incidental condition. Although this finding may seem counterintuitive at first glance, it may be viewed as intuitive if one reflects on how semantic tasks can draw learners' attention to semantic components of words without encouraging them to pay as much attention to target word forms and form–meaning mappings, even within incidental-learning contexts.] [This finding extends previous findings observed for other semantically oriented tasks such as sentence writing (Barcroft, 2004), making pleasantness ratings (Barcroft, 2002), and attending to questions about word meaning (Barcroft, 2003),] [and suggests that negative effects of semantic elaboration and increased semantic processing can be obtained in contexts of both intentionally and incidentally oriented L2 vocabulary learning.] | 4-1<br><br>8-1<br><br>6 |
| [Additionally, the negative effects of the semantically oriented task emerged based on both L1-to-L2 and L2-to-L1 measures.] [The larger decrease in means for the semantic condition based on the L1-to-L2 measure (99%) as compared with the decrease in means based on the L2-to-L1 measure (76%) may have resulted from the L2-to-L1 measure's lesser sensitivity to the level of word-form knowledge because it does not depend on production of each word form.] [Nevertheless, the substantial negative effect of the semantically oriented task on L2-to-L1 recall suggests that increased semantic elaboration can decrease one's ability to make early form-meaning mappings as well. For the L2-to-L1 recall task, participants were provided with the target L1 word forms and were asked only to generate L1 counterparts, rendering performance on this task less dependent on L2 word form than the L1-to-L2 recall task for which no L2 word forms were provided. Therefore, the negative effect observed for L2-to-L1 recall suggests that the semantically oriented task decreased the | 2-1<br>3-1A<br><br><br><br>3-2A |

participants' ability to map L2 word forms onto their appropriate meanings, in addition to decreasing the participants' ability to encode L2 word forms themselves. This interpretation is fully consistent with the TOPRA model, which predicts that increased semantic processing can decrease not only word-form learning but also the mapping component of vocabulary learning (Figure 1b).]

[Whereas the previous findings support predictions of the TOPRA model within discrete-item, intentional contexts only, the current study instantiates predictions of the TOPRA model at the level of written discourse with regard to both intentional and incidental orientations toward vocabulary learning.] [According to TOPRA, increased semantic processing associated with the synonym-generation task should have decreased the learners' ability to process for the word-form and mapping components of learning a new word (see Figure 1b).] [Because performance on the two cued recall tasks in the study depended on developing these components, the synonym-generation condition resulted in decreased performance for these tasks. Considering transfer appropriateness (Morris, Bransford, & Franks, 1977), if the dependent measure in this study had been recall of target words in L1 (Spanish) instead of L2 (English), the effect of the synonym-generation task could have been very different because the task at testing in this case would not have involved knowledge of recently learned new word forms. The deeper semantically oriented processing associated with synonym generation in this case might have been of greater benefit. Using measures oriented toward new-word form learning, however, the deeper semantically oriented processing was detrimental.]

[With regard to proficiency level, vocabulary learning was marginally higher among high-intermediate learners as compared with low-intermediate learners, but this effect was not statistically significant. No differences in text comprehension performance were observed between these two levels of proficiency.] [The marginally higher vocabulary learning scores among learners in the higher proficiency level are in the direction that one might expect because these learners should have been able to comprehend the text more easily and allot more available processing resources to learning the target words in the text.]

[Means obtained for text comprehension demonstrated that participants clearly attempted to read the passage for meaning (M = 13.24 out of 15, with 7 as the lowest score). The additional statistical analysis on comprehension scores also revealed a negative effect for the synonym-generation task in the intentional condition.] [Previous research suggests that attending to grammatical surface forms can reduce learners' ability to attend to passage content in both the spoken mode (VanPatten, 1990) and the written mode (Greenslade, Bouden, & Sanz, 1999).] [The present finding that text comprehension scores were lower in the intentional and +semantic condition suggests the combination of intentionally trying to learn the new words and performing the synonym-generation task was sufficient to decrease learners' ability to attend to the text for meaning. Participants in the intentional/+synonym condition apparently could no longer attend to the meaning of the text as well while performing these two other tasks.]

Column annotations (right margin):
- 8-1
- 1
- 3-1A
- 2-1
- 3-3A
- 2-1
- 1
- 3-2A

| Quanti-LTR2 | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| [The study found that students who received WCF significantly improved their accuracy in using the targeted functions of the English article system and that they retained this level of accuracy when writing a new text seven weeks after the treatment session and the immediate post-test.] [These findings corroborate those of several earlier studies (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001, Sheen, 2006) and therefore provide further evidence for a rebuttal of Truscott's (1996) claim that error correction is ineffective.] [They show that a single WCF treatment is effective in helping learners improve the accuracy of their writing and that the benefits accrued from this input are not only retained over time but also evident in new pieces of writing.] [Because this study reports on the findings of only one delayed post-test,] [further research is now required to determine whether learners are able to maintain this level of accuracy over a more extensive period. It can be seen from Figure 1 that there was a minor regression in level of accuracy by two of the treatment groups in the delayed post-test. While this movement was not statistically significant, it would be interesting to observe in more extensive investigations (where additional post-tests are included) whether any decline is significant. Further research is also needed to measure the extent to which WCF is effective in bringing about similar gains in accuracy when other linguistic categories are targeted.] [The findings of this study are additionally important because they have been tested with a larger population than most earlier studies (see Table 1) and because they are the product of a study that sought to eliminate the limitations of earlier research.] | 2-1<br><br><br>4-1<br><br><br><br><br><br>6<br><br><br><br>8-2<br>9-2<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>8-1 |
| [Although there were small differences in the means of the three treatment groups, the study found that none of the feedback options was any more effective than another.] [For several reasons, these findings are not particularly surprising given the growing evidence that has been reported in several recent written and oral CF studies (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2006). While one of these studies (Bitchener, 2007) found no difference between one of the direct treatment options (direct corrective feedback with written meta-linguistic explanation) and the control group, the other three studies found that learners who were exposed to all of the direct feedback options outperformed those who did not receive such feedback.] [It would seem therefore that teachers may be able to achieve the same results with their students if they simply offer error correction without written and/or oral meta-linguistic explanation when responding to linguistic categories that have been partially acquired.] [Further research is needed to discover whether this is sufficient for categories that are new to students or are more complex. Future research would also do well to separate and measure the effectiveness of direct WCF, written meta-linguistic explanation and oral meta-linguistic explanation as separate variables.] | 2-1<br><br>3-3A<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>6<br><br><br><br>9-2 |
| [The study revealed that the international students were no more able than the migrant students (and vice versa) to improve the accuracy of their writing as a result of the WCF they received.] [This is an interesting finding because earlier suggestions (Ferris, 1999; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Reid, 1998, 2005; Roberts, 1999) have tended to identify international visa students as being potentially more attuned to focusing on grammatical accuracy than | 2-1<br><br><br>4-2 |

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| migrant students. It is a popularly held view that migrant students may have a stronger desire to focus on general communicative competence so that they can become active members of their new English-speaking environment and that they may have had less formal instruction in the target language and therefore be less able or inclined to focus their attention on explicit grammatical knowledge. However, as the results of this study reveal, this was not the case.] [One reason | 3-1A |
| for this might be that neither of the two groups comprised students exclusively from one of these backgrounds. In other words, there may have been an overlap in the membership of the two groups. Migrant students may or may not have had formal instruction in the target language. International visa students may or may not have had opportunities to study the target language in an English-speaking environment (for example, during term holidays).] [Future research may be able | 9-2 |
| to categorize its subjects more strictly and determine whether those exclusively from one background are more able than those from another to improve upon the accuracy of their writing once they have received WCF. Even if a difference is found, it may not be able to be applied if typical classroom groupings contain students from a wide range of backgrounds.] | |
| [Two reasons might explain the poorer performance of the migrant students in the delayed post-test. First, they may have given less attention to accuracy in the third piece of writing because their background had not attuned them to such a focus and because the absence of a focus on accuracy for seven weeks may have led them to focus more on message meaning. Second, age may have been an intervening factor. The average age of the migrant students was 34.1 years whereas that of the international students was 22.7 years. It may not have been as easy for the migrant students to remember what they had initially learned from the WCF.] [Because the overall findings did not reveal a difference | 3-1B |
| in the effect of WCF on the two groups of students, it would seem that international and migrant student errors may be able to be responded to with the same WCF options. For classroom teachers with students from diverse backgrounds, this would be welcome news.] | 6 |

| Quanti-LTR3 | Move-Step |
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| [The first question of this study was formulated to investigate the effects of PI, a type of TI that included a mixture of mechanical instruction and meaning-oriented instruction and MOI on the interpretation of sentences containing the targeted feature.] [The results of the statistical analysis clearly | 1 |
| showed that the PI made significant improvement (from pre-test to post-test) on the interpretation task. The PI treatment was superior to the TI and MOI treatment in terms of helping learners to interpret utterances containing the English past tense.] [The findings on the sentence level task involving the | 2-1 |
| interpretation of the English past simple tense support previous findings on PI research that indicated that PI is successful in altering learners' processing default strategy (in this case the 'Lexical Preference Principle').] | 4-1 |
| [The second question of this study sought to investigate the effects of the three treatments in the production of sentences containing the English past simple tense.] [The results of the statistical analysis indicated that PI, TI and | 1 |
| MOI made an equal improvement (from pre-test to post-test) on the production | 2-1 |

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| task (sentence-level task).] [Even in this case, the findings from the present experiment support the main results of previous research on PI, which showed that the PI group made significant similar gains from the pre-test to the post-test compared with the TI and MOI groups in production tasks.] [The evidence obtained in this study on the production task suggests that the effects of PI not only have an impact on the way that learners interpret sentences but also on the way that learners produce sentences. PI has clearly altered the way learners processed input and this had an effect on their developing system and subsequently on what the subjects could access for production.] | 4-1 <br><br> 6 |
| [The overall findings from the present study support the results obtained by the majority of studies investigating the effects of PI, which show that PI is superior to TI.] [It is interesting to note that the results from the present study differ from Farley's research (Farley, 2001a; 2001b) and Benati's (Benati, 2001) ]as [it provides new evidence indicating that PI is better than output-oriented instruction _ no matter whether output instruction is mechanical practice or meaning-based practice. This is true for a different linguistic feature (English past simple tense) in different language (English) and on a different population (Greek and Chinese school-age learners) for which the L1 is not English.] | 4-1 <br><br> 4-2 |
| [The results obtained in the present study confirm the consistency and effectiveness of PI in improving learners' performance in both interpretation and production task (sentence level).] [The same cannot be said of the MOI treatment, as in the present study learners from this group did not make any improvement in the interpretation task.] | 8-1 <br><br> 2-1 |
| [One possible explanation for obtaining these results may lie in the nature of the targeted linguistic feature and the difficulty that this feature causes to learners from a different L1 (particularly the Chinese participants). The MOI treatment and the TI treatment, which contained a higher proportion of meaning-based activities than the type of TI used in previous studies, were not successful at producing positive effects (altering the processing problem) on students' performance. As argued by Lee and VanPatten, while output practice 'may help with fluency and accuracy in production, it is not ''responsible'' for getting the grammar into the learners' head' (1995: 95).] | 3-1A |

| **Quanti-APP3** | **Move-Step** |
|---|---|
| [The results revealed that the bi-clausal request head acts were less likely to be noted than the other pragmalinguistic features such as DMA and IDE (for Research Question 1).] [As discussed in Takahashi (2001), Japanese EFL learners tend to believe that they have already mastered L2 request realization with mono-clausal request forms as the most appropriate forms for making English requests in particular request situations. Such a feeling of mastery might further be strengthen by the fact that the native-speaker interlocutor in the NS-NNS role-plays did not give any negative feedback to the non-native-speaker's mono-clausal request forms (Takahashi 2001). All these might lead the learners not to notice the bi-clausal request forms.] | 2-1 <br><br> 3-1C |
| [The learners, in fact, gave attentional priority to interactional features ('you know', 'well', 'maybe') rather than to the request head acts.] [A possible explanation is that, during the task, the learners might assume that the use of appropriate 'discourse level' interactional markers, rather than 'sentence-level' request forms, is more likely to express the relatively high level of linguistic | 2-1 <br><br> 3-1A |

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| politeness required for effective communication in the scenarios. Thus, they may have been more interested in finding out how native English speakers actually realize such an interactional strategy, resulting in greater attention to such pragmatic markers. In fact, Japanese college students rarely have opportunities to encounter and use these markers in interactions conducted in English in their college English classes, which can explain why they find the frequent use of such discourse markers by native English speakers particularly interesting. It is noteworthy that, in the role play data collected from Japanese EFL learners in Takahashi (2002), the learners rarely used such discourse markers, suggesting that they had few chances of receiving instruction in colloquial English, especially in the effective use of discourse markers. In summary, the novelty of the interactional features may have lent them special salience in the learners' perception and engaged their attention to them.] | |
| [Similarly, the high awareness ratings for IDE also indicate that the learners felt a necessity to master such expressions (e.g. 'That sounds great', 'How ya doin'?') (see appendix D available on the journal website: www.applij.oupjournals.org). The learners seemed to believe that these idiomatic expressions enable them to communicate more naturally in English, something that is not possible with their existing L2 communicative competence. Hence, the learners were strongly interested in the native-speaker use of these idiomatic expressions in the role-play transcripts, resulting in a relatively high degree of awareness of such features.] | 3-2 |
| [In light of these explanations for why it might be that the learners were more aware of DMA and IDE, the crucial factor determining learners' differential attentional allocation appears to be the 'relevance' of the targets in achieving more effective L2 communication (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). From the learners' perspective, both DMA and IDE are perceived to be relevant to their learning goal, yielding a significant positive correlation between them.] | 3-2 |
| [In contrast, the learners were barely aware of REQ-3 ('If you could VP').] [As pointed out in Takahashi (2001), a possible explanation is that this form is not recognized as a 'request' because of its elliptical form and the primary meaning of subjective if-clause. Both of these features may render the form too opaque to convey the pragmatic meaning of requesting.] | 2-1<br>3-1C |
| [Finally, there were significant correlations between REQ-1 ('I wonder') and N-IDE and between REQ-3 and N-IDE.] [As indicated earlier, we can assume that the learners' language analytic abilities for detecting and analyzing the features of non-idiomatic sentences may be equally available for the detection and analysis of the bi-clausal request forms and vice versa. If our assumption is correct, learners' language 'apptitude' may be deeply involved in pragmalinguistic awareness,] [and this ought to be explored in future research.] | 2-1<br>3-2<br><br><br><br>9-2 |
| [The correlation analysis revealed that, among the nine motivation subscales, three factors were related to the awareness of four of the six pragmalinguistic features in L2.] [Hence, we can definitely claim that motivation is a manifold cognitive construct, which is closely related to attention and awareness in processing L2 input, as contended by Crooke sans Schmidt (1991).] [At the same time, the finding clearly indicates that different motivational profiles are concerned with the awareness of different aspects of pragmalinguistic features (Kasper and Rose 2002),] [and this implies a complex interplay between learners' motivational dispositions and their attentional targets at the pragmatic level.] | 2-1<br><br>6<br><br><br><br>2-1<br><br>3-2 |

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| [Among the three motivation factors, 'intrinsic motivation' (Factor 2) was found to be greatly involved in the noticing of REQ-2 ('Is it possible'), IDE, and , to a lesser degree, REQ-3 ('If you could VP').] [The 'Is it possible?' and 'If you could VP' forms are among the bi-clausal request head acts that enable to attain sufficiently appropriate linguistic politeness at the sentence level. Likewise, the mastery of L2-specific idiomatic expressions assures learners of more natural patterns of communication, as deployed by target-language speakers. Intrinsically-motivated English learners are greatly interested in the English language and enjoy learning activities for gaining skills for more successful l2 communication. In view of this, one can assume that learners with this motivational orientation perceive these pragmalinguistic forms as ones that allow them to achieve their language learning goals successfully, resulting in greater attention to these features.] | 2-1  3-1A |
| [The relationships found between 'Attitudes to TL community' (Factor 5) and DMA and between 'Affiliative motive' (Factor 9) and IDE are also noteworthy here, although the associations are not so strong. The attitudinal (and thus emotional/affective) factor (Factor 5) is, to some degree, associated with an awareness of the discourse markers as the strategy relevant to the student's learning goals. Furthermore, a good teacher-student relationship (Factor 9) is assumed to be an important variable affecting students' attentional allocation in their efforts to obtain positive evaluations from their teachers.] | 3-2 |
| [All this suggests that learners' motivation as affected by factors 'personal relevance with respect to their learning goals' and 'expectancy of success in L2 learning' is a crucial determinant of attentional allocation to pragmalinguistic features in L2 input (see Crookes & Schmidt 1991). As learners' perceptional personal relevance and expentancy of success are the outcomes of their appraisal of stimuli under their volitional control, motivation as such should also be conscious motivation. However, the relationship between motivation and consciousness is admittedly a controversial issue (Dornyei 2001).] | 6 |
| [According to Tomlin and Villa (1994), attention involves three subsystems- alertness, orientation, and direction- with detection as the most important function in attentional allocation' whereas alertness and orientation are not required for detection. As opposed to Tomlin and Villa, however, I would argue that both alertness and orientation are required for the detection of pragmalinguistic features. The current study demonstrates that motivation is related to learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic features. According to Tomlin and Villa, alertness is associated with motivation. Therefore, alertness appears to be essentially involved in detecting pragmalinguistic features. This simultaneously suggests that orientation, which mediates between alertness and detection' is also an essential mechanism for the detection of pragmalinguistic feature. In processing pragmatic input, the three attentional subsystems may not really be separable but simultaneously activated (see Simard & Wong 2001 for a similar view).] | 4-2 |
| [As regards the relationship with L2 proficiency, no significant correlation coefficients were obtained between the learners' pragmalinguistic awareness and their proficiency. Less proficient learners may or may not notice the target pragmalinguistic features to the same extent as more proficient learners.] [According to Bialystok's (1993) model, more proficient learners are able to execute selective attention to target pragmatic features more accurately | 2-1  4-2 |

| | Move-Step |
|---|---|
| than less proficient learners because of the former's automatized basic linguistic skills, which enable them to allocate more attentional resources for pragmatic targets. However, this was not the case in the context of the present study, suggesting that differences in linguistic proficiency (as measured by a standardized proficiency test) do not predict learners' level of attention and awareness in L2 pragmatic input.] [Furthermore, Matsumura (2003) reports an indirect effect of proficiency on pragmatic competence via exposure. This also suggests that proficiency may not be a primary factor in determining learners' attention and awareness of L2 pragmalinguistic features.] | 4-1 |
| [In summary, this study suggests that motivation and proficiency operate on pragmalinguistic awareness independently rather than jointly, and that motivation plays a more crucial role than proficiency in learners' allocation of attention to pragmatic input.] | 6 |

| Quanti-PRAG3 | Move-Step |
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| [Our results showed that 4- and 5-year olds children were unable to recognize either mistakes or deceits above the level of chance. An examination of these results in relation to children's performance on the corollary tests suggested that the major obstacles they encountered were represented by limited attention- and verbal span capacities (both involved in correctly answering the Reality question) and poor mindreading abilities (mainly involved in answering correctly the Listener's question).] | 2-1 |
| [The results concerning the 7- to 11-year olds children confirmed our first prediction (i.e., that simple mistakes would be easier to recognize than simple deceits would) both overall and for each age group considered separately. These findings therefore enforced our assumptions concerning the complexity of the mental representations that are involved in the recognition of deceits and mistakes.] | 3-3A |
| [A further hypothesis was that simple pragmatic phenomena are easier to recognize than complex phenomena are.] [The prediction was fundamentally confirmed for mistakes, and our assumptions concerning the inferential load involved in the recognition of simple and complex mistakes were thereby substantiated.] [Yet, contrarily to our prediction, complex deceits were easier to recognize than simple deceits were.] [This finding is in contrast with the results of a previous study conducted by Bosco and Bucciarelli (2008). These authors confirmed the prediction derived from Cognitive Pragmatics theory assumptions, i.e., that simple deceits are easier to detect than complex deceits are.] [We believe that one can account for this inconsistency by considering that Bosco and Bucciarelli investigated the ability to detect acts of deceit by using pragmatic tasks that were quite different from our own. The children in their study (aged 6–10 years) were presented with brief audio-recorded stories; and the experimenter then asked them a question to verify their comprehension of the speaker's communicative intention. For instance, consider the following interaction: <br><br> Andrea breaks a window of his house. His mother arrives and asks him: 'Who broke the window?' Andrea replies. . . <br> a) Simple: 'I don't know' <br> b) Complex: 'I saw the boy from next door playing with a ball' <br><br> At the end of the interaction, the experimenter asked the child: 'What do | 1 <br> 3-3A <br><br><br> 3-3B <br> 4-2 <br><br><br><br> 5-1 |

you think the mother meant?' If the child simply repeated the mother's literal expression, the experimenter then asked: 'If she were to say it in another way, what would she say?'

Our pragmatic tasks differed from Bosco and Bucciarelli's in that they required children to revise their beliefs and because correct performance for each phenomenon required that the children respond correctly to all three questions.] [Overall, we believe that our participants interpreted simple deceits as mistakes and performed better in recognizing complex deceits for the following reasons: our child participants found it most difficult to answer the Listener's question (i.e., by correctly stating where the listener in the episode believed the declarant to be), thus, they most probably relied on the first bit of information the listener had heard (what the declarant had said first) and did not further up-date their information (based on what the declarant said later). Fig. 2 shows how a lack in belief revision led children to err in answering the Listener's question. In particular, in the instance of simple deceit, when children believed that the Actor's private belief was not-p, there was no contrast in their mental representation of the mental states involved in the communicative interaction, to detect between the Actor's private belief and what he/she gave as shared with the Partner (not-p); in other words, there was no deceit to detect. In the complex deceit condition, when children believed that the Actor's private belief was not-p, there was sufficient contrast in their mental representation of the mental states involved in the communicative interaction to distinguish between the Actor's private belief and what he/she gave as shared with the Partner (r). In this instance, the contrast was not a real one, given that r would imply not-p, which would not be in contrast with the Actor's private belief. Yet, if it is true that children have difficulty inferring that r implies not-p, they will answer correctly for the wrong reason, i.e., they detect a contrast which supports their conclusion that there must be an act of deceit in progress.

The difficulty of our pragmatic tasks was augmented by the need for belief revision, and we know from the literature that young children do not fully understand all aspects of a situation that disconfirm their initial beliefs (Schauble, 1990). Our participants' performance showed that, when a pragmatic task is very difficult, i.e., when it involves recognizing a complex act of deceit and also requires a belief revision process, older children recognize complex acts of deceit more easily than simple ones.

Another possible explanation, which is not necessarily incompatible with the one described above, could be that the complexity of the situation led the children to question the sincerity of the speaker's intentions. Some findings in the literature are in line with this account. In particular, a review by Vrij and Mann (2004) suggests that the presence of content complexity may be indicative of deception. Indeed, liars can be nervous and anxious (White and Burgoon, 2001) because they have to think quickly, concentrate on the information they want to convey, and try not to let their nervousness show, all at the same time. When lies are complicated, they must work even harder and are therefore more likely to manifest cognitive load cues. A complicated lie in our terminology corresponds to a complex deceit. An assumption paralleling Vrij and Mann's (2004) is that the greater cognitive effort children experience when attempting a complex form of deceit, versus the lesser cognitive effort experienced in a situation of simple deceit, could serve to help them detect deception in others. This explanation would account for the recognition of deceits in children aged 7

3-1B

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| upwards.] | |
| [The results of our performance error analysis showed that 4- and 5-year olds children had more difficulty in answering the Reality and Listener's questions than they did for the Speaker's question. The correlation analysis suggested that the major obstacles for children of these ages are limited attention capacity and verbal span (mostly involved in answering the Reality question) and mindreading abilities (mostly involved in answering the Listener's question). The Speaker's question was the easiest to answer also for children aged 7 years and up.Hence, from the age of 4 years onward, children realized that the speaker's believes that the person is where the declarant says. It is interesting to note that the Listener's question was generally the hardest to answer and was, as described above, the question mainly involving a process of belief revision to be answered correctly.] [Yet, as we speculated based on the global results, this very same deficiency in ability to revise beliefs may result in an increased ability to detect complex acts of deceit (although for the wrong reason).] | 2-1 |
| | 3-2 |
| [The 7- to 11-year olds children's performance on the corollary tests and on the pragmatic tasks showed that mindreading, attention, and verbal span capacities did not vary by age group. The only exception observed was an increase in attention capacity from age 7 to 9 years.][We do not believe that the attention and verbal span capacities achieved by these children account for their ability to answer any of the three questions involved in the pragmatic tasks because their attention capacity and verbal span scores did not correlate with their question response accuracy. Conversely, mindreading abilities accounted for a certain degree of this age group's performance variability on the Speaker's and the Listener's questions.] | 2-1 |
| | 3-1A |
| [Thus, globally considered, the results of the correlations confirmed our expectations. Specifically, very young children's performance on the Reality question correlated with their attention capacity scores. As stated previously, this prediction was motivated by the fact that, to answer the question correctly, children had to recall what the declarant had said in the episode. Moreover, the very young children's performance on the Reality question also correlated with their performance on the verbal span test, as predicted based on the fact that participants had to rely on what the declarant had said to correctly answer the questions. The results of the correlation analyses for 7- to 11-year olds children also confirmed our predictions. In particular, their performance on the Listener's and Speaker's questions correlated with their performance on the mindreading test. The relative prediction had been based on the fact that, to correctly answer the questions, participants had to realize, respectively, where the listener in the episode thought the declarant was and to realize what the speaker in the episode believed.] | 10 |

# APPENDIX E

## Some of the Hedges Identified in the Corpus and Their Frequencies

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| About | ( 22, -) | Often | (76, 126) |
| A certain x | (15, 12) | Partly | (8, 11) |
| According to | (23, 18) | Partially | (5, 10) |
| Almost | (25, 15) | Perceive | (31, 29) |
| Apparent | (20, -) | Perhaps | (35, 38) |
| Apparently | (18, 11) | Plausible | (15, 7) |
| Appear | (70, 79) | Point to | (6, 10) |
| Argue | (61, 60) | Posit | (2, 2) |
| Argument | (11, 25) | Possible | (150, 86) |
| Assume | (37, 29) | Possibly(ies) | (37, 24) |
| Assumption(s) | (30, 22) | Possibility | (28, 16) |
| Belief | (16, 9) | Potentially | (13, 1) |
| Believe | (29, 22) | Prediction | (12, 1) |
| Can | (132, 89) | Probably | (28, 24) |
| Claim | (29, 46) | Quite | (14, 13) |
| Closely | (14, 16) | Rare | (6, 8) |
| Commonly | (17, 11) | Rarely | (13, 9) |
| Could | (211, 141) | Rather x | (13, 11) |
| Few | (26, 36) | Relatively | (60, 26) |
| Frequently | (43, 33) | Seen as | (16, 28) |
| Generally | (35, 28) | Seem | (183, 130) |
| Indicate | (141, 68) | Several (pronoun) | (63, 29) |
| Indication | (16, 9) | Should | (175, 133) |
| In general | (28, 25) | Should not | (18, 15) |
| Interpret | (15, 14) | Slightly | (21, 4) |
| Interpretation(s) | (47, 42) | Some | (33, 34) |
| Largely | (15, 18) | Somewhat | (22, 17) |
| Likely (adj.) | (104, 57) | Sometimes | (13, 32) |
| Little | (30, 33) | Speculate | (12, 5) |
| Mainly | (22, 19) | Suggest | (222, 169) |
| May | (668, 430) | Tend to | (39, 59) |
| Maybe | (4, 4) | Tendency | (15, 12) |
| Might | (154, 116) | Typical | (14, 17) |
| Most (pronoun) | (24, 25) | Typically | (9, 20) |
| Most (adj.) | (14, 27) | Unlikely | (14, 8) |
| Mostly | (18, 8) | Usually | (21, 19) |
| Normally | (13, 6) | Would | (277, 237) |
| Not always | (9, 15) | Would not | (19, 11) |
| Not necessarily | (23, 12) | | |

*The first number in front of each item represents its occurrence in the quantitative corpus and the second one the qualitative corpus.

**The frequency of the verb forms with the same stem (tend, tends, tended) are combined.

# APPENDIX F

## Some of the Boosters Identified in the Corpus and Their Frequencies

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Actually | (19, 18) | Really | (13, 1) |
| Always | (27, 26) | Reliable | (11, 2) |
| Apparent | (20, 17) | Show | (206, 179) |
| Certainly | (13, 17) | Striking | (6, 7) |
| Clear | (35, 30) | Strongly | (23, 14) |
| Clearly | (55, 57) | The fact that | (75, 49) |
| Completely | (9, 8) | Think | (25, 27) |
| Confirm | (15, 6) | True | (17, 16) |
| Considerable | (12, 8) | Truly | (6, 6) |
| Definite | (7, -) | | |
| Demonstrate | (55, 91) | | |
| Do + infinitive | (17, 9) | | |
| Does + infinitive | (12, 9) | | |
| Entirely | (6, 4) | | |
| Establish | (3, 12) | | |
| Evidence | (73, 52) | | |
| Evident | (17, 28) | | |
| Exactly | (6, 7) | | |
| Extremely | (9, 12) | | |
| Find | (150, 116) | | |
| Highly | (26, 26) | | |
| Increasingly | (5, 13) | | |
| Indeed | (50, 37) | | |
| In fact | (41, 32) | | |
| It is clear | (8, 3) | | |
| Known | (16, 1) | | |
| More than | (37, 28) | | |
| Must | (29, 47) | | |
| Naturally | (10, 14) | | |
| Never | (13, 12) | | |
| Obvious | (6, 16) | | |
| Obviously | (6, 7) | | |
| Of Course | (18, 18) | | |
| Particularly | (49, 54) | | |
| Proved | (9, 1) | | |
| Realized | (5, 11) | | |

*The first number in front of each item represents its occurrence in the quantitative corpus and the second one the qualitative corpus.

**The frequency of the verb forms with the same stem (tend, tends, tended) are combined.

# APPENDIX G

## Some of the Attitude Marker Identified in the Corpus and Their Frequencies

Acceptable          (2, 17)
Appropriate         (43, 58)
Appropriately       (7, 11)
Correctly           (25, -)
Critical            (6, 14)
Crucial             (13, 17)
Desirable           (4, 6)
Essential           (15, 9)
Even x              (2, 84)
Expect              (23, 25)
Expected            (41, 42)
Have to             (22, 24)
Hope                (1, 6)
Important           (110, 101)
Importantly         (6, 7)
Inappropriate       (7, 14)
Interesting         (37, 26)
Interestingly       (14, 9)
Like (prefer)       (6,-)
Logical             (5, 4)
Must                (29, 48)
Necessary           (38, 21)
Necessarily         (30, 21)
Necessity           (4, 4)
Noteworthy          (6, 2)
Noticeable          (8, 9)
Noteworthy          (6, 2)
Prefer              (3, 8)
Preferred           (14, 15)
Should              (176, 130)
Striking            (6, 7)
Sufficient          (21, 1)
Surprising          (20, 11)
Surprisingly        (3, -)
Unexpected          (8, -)
Useful              (36, 23)

*The first number in front of each item represents its occurrence in the quantitative corpus and the second one the qualitative corpus.
**The frequency of the verb forms with the same stem (tend, tends, tended) are combined.

# APPENDIX H

## Self-Mention Items Identified in the Corpus and Their Frequencies

I             (22, 126)
Me         (-, 12)
Mine      (-, -)
My         (-, 66)
We         (266, 260)
Our        (152, 99)
Ours      (2, 1)
Us          (23, 28)

*The first number in front of each item represents its occurrence in the quantitative corpus and the second one the qualitative corpus.

# A Sample of Results of Analyzing Stance Features in WordPilot 2002

**Some of the Interview Questions for the Specialist Informants**

In writing Qualitative/Quantitative research articles in Applied Linguistics ….

1. What is the main function of <u>Discussion section</u>?

2. Does the aim of your study or the method you use have any effect on what you emphasize and highlight the most in your <u>Discussion section</u>?

3. Do you normally comment on your findings in <u>Discussion section</u>? How important is that? What kind of comments (e.g. explanation, interpretation, evaluation) do you normally provide for your findings?

4. Do you normally compare your findings with literature in <u>Discussion section</u>? If so, do you usually try to show consistency or inconsistency of your findings with literature? Can you explain why? In cases of inconsistency, do you usually try to explain the reasons for the inconsistency?

5. For what other purposes do you usually refer to literature in your <u>Discussion section</u>?

6. Do you normally use hedging words (e.g. might, possibly) in <u>Discussion section</u>? If so, can you explain why? In which parts of the discussion section (e.g. reporting findings, commenting on findings, making deductions, making claims) do you normally use them?

7.  Do you normally use boosters (e.g. definitely, undoubtedly, of course) in <u>Discussion section</u>? If so, can you explain why? In which parts of the discussion section (e.g. reporting findings, commenting on findings, making deductions, making claims) do you normally use them?

8.  Do you normally show your attitude (e.g. by using words such as surprisingly, ironically) in what you are writing about in <u>Discussion section</u> or do you prefer to be neutral? Can you explain why? If you show your attitude, in which parts of the discussion section (e.g. reporting findings, commenting on findings, making deductions, making claims) do you normally use them?

9.  Do you normally use first person pronouns (e.g. I, we, our) in <u>Discussion section</u>? Can you explain why? If you use them, in which parts of the discussion section (e.g. reporting findings, commenting on findings, making deductions, making claims) do you normally use them?

10. Are there any more comments that you would like to add?

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