Intercultural Perspectives on Research Writing

Edited by
Pilar Mur-Dueñas
and Jolanta Šinkūnienė

John Benjamins Publishing Company

Intercultural Perspectives on Research Writing

AILA Applied Linguistics Series (AALS)

The AILA Applied Linguistics Series (AALS) provides a forum for established scholars in any area of Applied Linguistics. The series aims at representing the field in its diversity. It covers different topics in applied linguistics from a multidisciplinary approach and it aims at including different theoretical and methodological perspectives. As an official publication of AILA the series will include contributors from different geographical and linguistic backgrounds. The volumes in the series should be of high quality; they should break new ground and stimulate further research in Applied Linguistics.

For an overview of all books published in this series, please see
http://benjamins.com/catalog/aals

Editor

Antje Wilton
University of Siegen

Editorial Board

Susan M. Gass
Michigan State University

Folkert Kuiken
University of Amsterdam

Rosa M. Manchón
University of Murcia

Susanne Niemeier
University of Koblenz-Landau

Anne Pitkanen-Huhta
University of Jyväskylä

Volume 18

Intercultural Perspectives on Research Writing
Edited by Pilar Mur-Dueñas and Jolanta Šinkūnienė

Intercultural Perspectives on Research Writing

Edited by

Pilar Mur-Dueñas
Universidad de Zaragoza

Jolanta Šinkūnienė
Vilnius University

John Benjamins Publishing Company

Amsterdam / Philadelphia

Table of contents

Preface

Academic writing and non-Anglophone scholars

Ken Hyland

University of East Anglia, UK

It is estimated that as many as nine million scholars working in 17,000 universities around the world are now seeking to publish in English (Ware & Mabe, 2015), an almost industrial scale enterprise which produces over 1.5 million peer reviewed articles each year (Björk, Roos & Lauri, 2009). The vast majority of these scholars, of course, are writing in a second, third or fourth language and many are attempting to overcome material and social obstacles such as lack of funding, no access to current literature, and the isolation which comes from not being plugged into research networks or a supportive academic culture.

The reasons for this massive explosion of activity are not hard to identify. For one thing there are far more scholars than in the past. Just as every country once needed its own flag-carrier national airline to assert its status in the world, now they strive for a top 200 ranked university and, because universities are largely judged by the quality of the papers they produce, there has been a massive growth in the resources governments provide for them to do this. Scholars have not only been recruited to assist countries establish a foothold in the global "knowledge economy", but they have found themselves in a culture which measures "productivity" in terms of the number of papers they produce and the citations they receive on those papers. The promotion and career opportunities of scholars across the globe are therefore increasingly tied to an ability to gain acceptance for work in high profile journals. These recognised journals are invariably indexed in the *Web of Knowledge* SCI databases and usually published in English.

This helps account for the 4-fold increase in submissions to the 4,200 journals using the *ScholarOne* manuscript processing system between 2005 and 2010 and why this increase is led by academics from countries which have not traditionally been strong in research. Submissions from China and India increased by 484% and 443% respectively during those 5 years, and those from Iran and Malaysia saw more than 800% increases in submissions (Thomson Reuters, 2012). Figures from SCImago (2015) show China is now just behind the US in submissions. Submissions, however, are not accepted articles and the dominance of English in

academic publishing has raised questions of communicative inequality and the additional burden that writing in an L2 may create for non-Anglophone scholars (Hyland, 2015, 2016).

There is, however, little doubt that the greater participation of multilingual researchers in international publication brings massive benefits to global knowledge. Liu (2004, p. 2), for example, observes that EAL (English as an Additional Language) researchers "help reform, expand, and enrich the knowledge base of core disciplinary communities" and Canagarajah (1996) concurs that these scholars are able to bring outside perspectives to offer fresh insights on old problems. Pérez-Llantada (2014, p. 192) also sees discoursal changes as "Anglophone norms merge with culture-specific linguistic features". Thus the participation of this broader base of researchers in academic publication enriches knowledge, raises previously unexplored issues in the mainstream, enhances rhetorical practices, and draws attention to untapped resources (also Flowerdew, 2001).

The increased publication activity has also created considerable interest in the ways EAL scholars write in English compared with the conventions of their own academic languages and encouraged a growing literature on the intercultural analysis of academic research genres. Some L2 authors, such as many of my colleagues in Hong Kong for example, do all their academic writing in English, having had no training or experience in writing in academic Chinese. Others are familiar only with their own native academic register and yet others have no experience of academic writing of any kind. It is, then, dangerous and misleading to lump all EAL writers into the same category and label them as having the same perceptions, abilities and challenges. In fact, one of my Hong Kong informants saw the ability to write in several languages as a distinct advantage:

> I think monolinguals are trapped in their own language and isolated from so much experience and knowledge. The ability to write and read in several languages can be a real advantage.   (Polish speaker – Linguistics)

An understanding of the ways EAL authors rhetorically navigate the demands of unfamiliar disciplinary conventions and the challenges of doing so in a second language not only stimulates a healthy academic curiosity but also generates an urgent research agenda. There are many questions which might fruitfully be explored: Does the author's L1 influence the academic writing produced in English? What differences exist between academic conventions in different languages? Do L2 conventions have an impact on academic English? Is the culture of the discipline a more decisive factor than the culture of the writer in L2 academic texts written in English? Some of these questions are addressed in this timely volume which examines academic texts of various kinds written in a second language through the perspective of contrasting specific features of those texts.

The use of contrast has long been a profitable way of understanding the similarities, differences and characteristics of particular registers, genres, disciplines and individual texts, revealing how writing, and communication more generally, is always a culturally contextualised activity. This is particularly relevant when exploring academic texts as these must be seen as the outcome of human interactions socially situated in the historically-specific assumptions that community members make about reality and about how that reality is most effectively discussed in writing (Hyland, 2004). Analyses of corpora, or large numbers of texts, provides insights into the values and beliefs of disciplinary communities, as the ways they talk about the world and construct meanings is constrained by their sense of readers' expectations. This recipient design of texts reveals something of the epistemic beliefs and social practices disciplinary cultures as writers attempt to craft a text which will be familiar and persuasive to a disciplinary audience.

Comparison can therefore reveal the preferences of writers in different fields and the assumptions these make about what readers are likely to find effective and persuasive. It can also tell us something about how writers' first language, and first culture, perceptions intervene in this endeavour. The strength of an author's stance, the extent to which he or she chooses to intervene in the text with self mention or explicit evaluation, and even how reformulation might be used can all be influenced by prior experience of other ways of doing things. Contrasting texts by writers of different languages can therefore reveal patterns of typical practice and help explain why writers make the choices they do. Contrast, however, is an approach which runs the risk of static and reductive over-generalisations about cultures, disciplines or genres and analysts need to be cautious in the kinds of claims they make about findings.

The chapters in this volume demonstrate the potential of contrastive analysis and the possibilities it provides to offer rich and nuanced findings of academic writing across cultures. Here the connections between culture and discourse practices are unpicked in research articles, conference abstracts, PhD abstracts and research abstracts by writers of Czech, Lithuanian, Spanish, French, Italian, Chinese, and Malaysian, and through a focus on features as varied as citations, first person and anticipatory *it* structures. The diversity of contexts and the array of features studied make this book a strong contribution to the literature on Intercultural Rhetoric, defined as the study of discourse between and among individuals from different cultural backgrounds (Connor, 2011). Focusing on the work of the writers from a variety of linguistic, cultural and disciplinary contexts and contrasting their work in different ways, the contributors of this volume show what insights can be gained from contrastive studies and suggest how the field can move forward to better understandings of EAL writers and their texts.

References

Björk, B-C., Roos, A., & Lauri, M. (2009). Scientific journal publishing: Yearly volume and open access availability. *Information Research*, 14(1). <http://InformationR.net/ir/14-1/paper391.html>

Canagarajah, A. S. (1996). Nondiscursive requirements in academic publishing, material resources of periphery scholars, and the politics of knowledge production. *Written Communication*, 13(4), 435–472. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088396013004001

Connor, U. (2011). *Intercultural rhetoric in the writing classroom*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.3488851

Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors to non-native speaker contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(1), 121–150. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587862

Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2015). *Academic publishing: Issues and challenges in the construction of knowledge*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (2016). Academic publishing and the myth of linguistic disadvantage. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 31, 58–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.01.005

Liu, J. (2004). Co-constructing academic discourse from the periphery: Chinese applied linguists' centripetal participation in scholarly publication. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 14, 1–22.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2014). *Scientific discourse and the rhetoric of globalization*. London: Bloomsbury.

SCImago. (2015). *Journal and country rank*. <http://www.scimagojr.com/countryrank.php>

Thomson-Reuters (2012). *Global publishing: Changes in submission trends and the impact on scholarly publishers*.

Ware, M., & Mabe, M. (2015) *The STM report: An overview of scientific and scholarly journal publishing*. University of Nebraska, Lincoln. <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1008&context=scholcom>

Introduction

Intercultural rhetoric approaches to the analysis of academic genres

Pilar Mur-Dueñas and Jolanta Šinkūnienė
Universidad de Zaragoza / Vilnius University

Most of the chapters included in this volume have their root in the papers presented in a highly successful one-day seminar "Research Publication Practices: Challenges for Scholars in a Globalized World" at the 13th ESSE (European Society for the Study of English) Conference held in Galway (Ireland) in August 2016. This seminar brought together scholars from different European institutions working on the same field and with the same overall research aims: to analyse written academic English from an intercultural perspective, focusing especially on the discursive and rhetorical challenges that writing academic texts may entail for non-native users of English. As such, the volume presents a wide spectrum of intercultural analyses of academic texts written in L2 English. Its novelty and relevance lies in its intercultural focus on non-Anglophone scholars and on the challenges they face while writing and publishing in English for an international readership. Placed in the context of a rapidly increasing role of English as the universal language of scientific and scholarly communication, the contributions included attempt to explore the native language influence on L2 English academic texts or, conversely, the influence of rhetorical or discursive features of English on L2 texts. Some chapters explore the degree of divergence or convergence of academic L2 texts written by scholars from a specific language and cultural context to ENL (English Native Language) comparable texts. In some other chapters the focus is rather on describing the texts produced by non-native English scholars from different linguacultures (Jenkins, 2006) or similects (Mauranen, 2012, 2014) as contributing to shaping English as a Lingua Franca in research settings.

All chapters revolve around the analysis of two key research genres: the research article (RA), and the abstract (the RA abstract, the conference abstract and the PhD thesis abstract), either in specific disciplines (e.g. Applied Linguistics, Business Management, Sociology) or across disciplines from various fields. Given that previous research has shown significant rhetorical differences across academic genres

in the hard and the soft disciplines (e.g. Hyland, 2000, 2005, 2008) as well as across specific disciplinary areas (e.g. Bondi & Lorés-Sanz, 2014; Dahl, 2008; Fløttum, Dahl & Kinn, 2006; Hyland & Sancho Guinda, 2012; Lafuente-Millán, 2008; Lindeberg, 2004), it is especially relevant that the intercultural analyses presented in this volume are discipline-specific. All chapters included undertake intercultural analyses comparing texts produced in different languages and/or by scholars from different linguacultural backgrounds, with the remaining variables (especially genre and discipline) controlled. As a result, the empirical data analyses shown in all chapters are based on comparable, reliable specialised corpora compiled *ad hoc* for the purposes of the research or on (divisions of) larger corpora. The use of corpora has entailed a methodological strength for Intercultural Rhetoric (IR) research in general (Connor, 2004, 2013) and for IR research in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in particular; the chapters included in the book attest to it, as evidence is shown on the basis of comparable texts displaying lexicogrammatical, discursive and rhetorical differences and similarities across L2 and L1 academic English texts and across L2 English and L1 native language academic texts.

The volume includes analyses of texts written in English by scholars from a range of linguacultural backgrounds, frequently matching the origin of the contributing authors (Czech Republic, Italy, France, Spain, Lithuania, China, Malaysia, among others). The intercultural analyses focus on a wealth of lexico-grammatical, discursive and rhetorical elements, such as shell nouns, reformulation markers, the anticipatory *it* pattern, personal pronouns, hedges, boosters, citations, evaluative acts and evaluative language, or move structure. All these features fulfill a relevant interpersonality function contributing to portraying an authorial image and to creating a writer-reader relationship that is appropriate and expected in the social context of production and/or publication of academic texts (Mur-Dueñas, Lorés-Sanz & Lafuente-Millán, 2010).

Different intercultural perspectives are adopted in the chapters, comparing: (i) L1 texts, English L1 texts and English L2 texts, (ii) English L1 and L2 texts, (iii) English L1 and L2 texts understood as examples of ELF (English as a Lingua Franca). Taking these perspectives into account all thirteen chapters contribute to the development of the key theme of the volume: the intercultural driving forces of non-Anglophone scholars' writing practices when shaping up their academic texts. Previous studies on non-Anglophone scholars' academic writing practices of (e.g. Englander, 2006; Flowerdew, 1999, 2000; Li & Flowerdew, 2007; Lillis & Curry, 2010) have pointed at the difficulties encountered when seeking to publish the results of their research internationally in English, which may place these non-Anglophone writers at a disadvantageous position vis-à-vis native English scholars. However, this native vs. non-native divide regarding success and equity in academic publishing has been contested (e.g. Ferguson, 2007; Hyland, 2016;

Römer, 2009; Tribble, 2017). It should not be assumed that native English speakers will effortlessly develop academic literacy, writing and publishing skills and will succeed in getting their research published or, as Römer (2009, p. 99) puts it, "the native academic writer does not seem to exist". Nevertheless, non-native English speakers may find this task more arduous as they need to not only develop those skills and strategies in a language which is not their native one, but also possibly reconcile different discursive and rhetorical conventions and preferences in their native language and in English academic writing. The studies in this book seek to unveil which textual and rhetorical challenges may be more significant for non-Anglophone scholars writing academic texts in English. Research could be further carried out on the extent to which those challenges may coincide with, or may be more or less pronounced, than those faced by novice Anglophone scholars.

The chapters in the volume can be considered to make a contribution to the fields of Intercultural Rhetoric, English for Academic Purposes, and English as a Lingua Franca. Before offering an overview of the book and summarising the purposes and scope of each contribution, the interplay between IR, EAP and ELF will be discussed.

Intercultural rhetoric and EAP

The original scope of contrastive rhetoric (CR) (Connor, 1996) – usually focused on the analysis of the essay and of texts written in the classroom context – was broadened to encompass the study of other professional genres and to emphasise the social nature of writing. Further methodologies were applied, mostly drawing on Corpus Linguistics, which introduced rigor into data collection and analysis (Connor, Nagelhout & Rozycki, 2008). Also, a more complex understanding of "culture" was adopted, moving beyond a reductionist, static view of culture, commonly taken in initial CR studies and criticised (Spack, 1997; Zamel, 1997) also on the grounds of favouring "orientalism" (Kubota, 1999). That is, new directions were taken in CR, moving towards IR (Connor, 2002, 2004). The term "intercultural rhetoric" was, in fact, proposed to refer to "dynamic models of cross-cultural research" (Connor et al., 2008, p. 4) such as the ones presented in this book on the analysis of academic texts by non-Anglophone writers.

A great deal of intercultural research in EAP has focused on textual, discursive and rhetorical similarities and differences of L1 academic texts in a variety of languages vs English. One of the most popular genres for such contrastive analyses has been the research article. There are numerous studies analysing research articles in English and, among other languages, German (Kreutz & Harres, 1997), Bulgarian (Vassileva, 1997, 2001), French and Norwegian (Fløttum et al., 2006;

Vold, 2006), Italian (Giannoni, 2005; Diani, 2008; Molino, 2010), Hungarian (Árvay & Tankó, 2004), Portuguese (Hirano, 2009), Chinese (Loi, 2010; Loi & Evans, 2010), Lithuanian (Šinkūnienė, 2017), French and Spanish (Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Zambrano 2003) and Spanish (Burgess, 2002; Moreno, 2004; Mur-Dueñas, 2007, 2011; Sheldon, 2009; Vázquez-Orta, 2010; Williams, 2011). The analyses of RA abstracts in English and in other languages such as Spanish (Alonso-Almeida, 2014; Bellés-Fortuño & Querol-Julián, 2010; Lorés-Sanz, 2006, 2009; Martín-Martín, 2003, 2005), French (Swales & Van Bonn, 2007), or Italian (Diani, 2014) have also yielded many interesting insights into the process of constructing academic texts. This previous research has underlined differences between L1 academic texts written in various languages and in English, commonly written by Anglophone scholars, mainly in the deployment of varied rhetorical features and conventions, such as the macro- and micro-structure of texts, hedging, the use of personal pronouns, the expression of criticism and intertextual relationships by means of citations, among others.

Less corpus-based research has been undertaken on the writing practices and choices of non-Anglophone scholars when writing RAs and abstracts in English (e.g. Burgess, 2002; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015; Lorés-Sanz, 2011a, 2011b; Martínez, 2005; Mur-Dueñas, 2012, 2014; Murillo, 2012; Shaw, 2003; Sheldon, 2011). These previous studies have generally found non-Anglophone scholars to partially transfer some of the discursive and rhetorical conventions that are characteristic of academic texts in their own native languages when writing similar texts in English. At the same time these academic texts may be somehow adjusted to the discursive and rhetorical conventions characteristic of texts written by Anglophone scholars, showing a mid-position or a compromise in terms of rhetorical choices. Looking at these L2 English texts and comparing them to L1 texts can help us gain deeper insights into the extent to which writers transfer their discursive and rhetorical preferences in an L1 when writing in English, and also into the degree of possible accommodation or adaptation to ENL norms and conventions. The analysis of L2 academic texts is characteristic to all chapters in this book. In this respect the contributions analyse texts "written by and for multilingual and multicultural audiences" (Belcher, 2014, p. 60), which is the direction that Belcher (2014) indicates IR studies should take in general and, we believe, in EAP in particular. These are, nevertheless, approached from different angles. They are compared to L1 English texts and/or to L1 texts in the writers' native languages, or they are analysed as instances of ELF scholarly written communication, the writers being considered legitimate users and potential shapers of ELF academic discourse, on Seidlhofer's (2005, p. 339) premise that "English is being shaped at least as much by its non-native speakers as by its native speakers".

Intercultural rhetoric and ELF

As highlighted above, the focus of intercultural analyses within EAP has generally been on unveiling textual, discursive and rhetorical similarities and differences between academic genres in L1 English and in comparable texts in different L1s and in L2. Especially in the earliest intercultural EAP analyses the assumption was made that areas of divergence between comparable texts in two different languages or in the same, English, by two sets of writers, native and non-native speakers of English, would entail potential difficulties for the latter when writing their texts in English. In so doing a rather exonormative perspective (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder & Pitzl, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011) was taken which considered ENL practices as prevailing and necessary to be adhered to by non-Anglophone writers. However, a more endonormative approach would be necessary, as writers from different linguacultures or similects may bring with them rhetorical conventions when writing in English for an international audience which may also be considered valid and should be welcome as they can bring about some degree of "interdiscursive hybridity" (Mauranen, Pérez-Llantada & Swales, 2010). This would entail moving from a view of English as being owned by native speakers whose norms and conventions need to be preserved, to a view of English as being used and shaped by a global community including academic writers from different L1s. IR analysis can contribute to the description of ELF as used in academic written genres, as will be shown by chapters, especially, in the third section of the book.

Book overview

Overall, the volume brings together different IR approaches to the analysis of academic texts written by non-Anglophone scholars. It starts with L2 English academic texts being compared with ENL texts and texts written in different native languages and finishes with the description of L2 English academic texts that can be taken to be exemplars of ELF academic discourse. The book highlights areas of divergence and likely needs of adjustment by non-Anglophone scholars to Anglophone discursive and rhetorical conventions. It also describes ELF texts comparing them to ENL texts treating the latter not as models to follow but as a mere medium of comparison assuming that non-Anglophone scholars are legitimate users of ELF.

The book opens with a preface by Professor Ken Hyland entitled "Academic writing and non-Anglophone scholars" in which he stresses the predominance of English in academic publications and the reasons for this as well as the role of multilingual or EAL (English as an Additional Language) research in this context

of increasing international English-medium publication. He further establishes key research questions which should be addressed by IR studies in EAP, some of which the chapters in this book at least partially answer. His preface paves the way to the introduction by the editors in which the common aims of the chapters compiled in the book are shown and the contribution they make to the fields of IR, EAP and ELF is discussed.

The first section of the book entitled "Three-fold intercultural analysis: comparing national, L1 English and L2 English academic texts" encompasses three chapters in which RAs written in English by Czech and by Lithuanian scholars are compared to RAs in their respective L1s and to RAs written by L1 English scholars in the Humanities. Chapter 1, by Olga Dontcheva-Navratilova, focuses on the rhetorical functions of integral and non-integral citations across the generic moves of research articles in a specialised corpus of Linguistics research articles comprising Czech-medium and English-medium texts written by Czech authors and English-medium texts by Anglophone scholars. Differences are found in the use of these rhetorical features in the languages and contexts of publication, which may be explained considering different factors, such as the target audiences, the epistemological and cultural traditions of the writers and the use of English as an academic lingua franca by Czech authors. The focus of Jūratė Ruzaitė and Rūta Petrauskaitė's chapter is on the analysis of two datasets of linguistic papers: one is based on a highly ranked international journal on Linguistics published in English, another dataset contains papers published in a Lithuanian journal on Baltic linguistics written by national and international authors in Lithuanian and English respectively. By looking at the description of the goals and their relevance, and at the rhetorical structure of the papers, the authors show how language based academic traditions set the standards and predetermine the dominant features of academic discourse. Jolanta Šinkūnienė's paper closes the first section with the analysis of personal pronoun use in linguistic research articles written in Lithuanian and in English by Lithuanian scholars, and in English by British scholars. The results indicate that Lithuanian writers try to adapt their author stance expression patterns to match those of the Anglophone writers when they construct their texts in English.

Section II "Two-fold intercultural analysis: comparing L2 and L1 English academic texts/Anglophone writing conventions", centres on the study of academic genres (PhD abstracts, RAs and conference abstracts) as written by French, Malaysian, Chinese, and Czech writers in English and of comparable texts written by Anglophone writers. The section opens with Geneviève Bordet's chapter on the use of shell nouns in an interdisciplinary corpus of 400 PhD abstracts written in English by English and French native speaking writers. The chapter explores the extent to which French writers may have problems achieving cohesion and credibility

in their English writing. Maryam Mehrjooseresht and Ummul K. Ahmad explore evaluation and stance markers in the abstracts written in English by Malaysian novice researchers in Science and Engineering fields. The authors also investigate how evaluative markers are mapped according to the rhetorical structure employed in abstracts. They find cross-disciplinary differences in the use of evaluation across the abstracts as well as some rhetorical difficulties by novice scholars to frame such evaluation, leading them to sound too assertive by using an abundance of expressions of certainty. Using a corpus of 90 linguistic research articles representing three time periods, Xinren Chen analyses the rhetorical structure of their introductions in an attempt to reveal Chinese writers' developing trajectories of CARS model when they compose texts in English vis-à-vis the rhetorical pattern typically attributed to Anglophone conventions. The focus of the last chapter in this section by Renata Povolná is on the rhetorical organization of 80 conference abstracts written in English by scholars from countries where Slavonic languages are spoken and in English by Anglophone scholars. She looks into possible divergences between the two sets of authors in the structure of their academic texts and finds remarkable intercultural variation in the types of moves and patterns of move sequences applied by scholars from different groups.

Section III of the book, "Intercultural analysis on the move: exploring ELF academic texts", deals with the analyses of texts produced by non-native English scholars from various linguacultural backgrounds and their impact on shaping English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in research settings. In the first chapter of this section Rosa Lorés-Sanz employs three corpora (abstracts written in English as L1, in ELF, and English abstracts translated from Spanish) to explore the rhetorical patterns which characterise English research article abstracts in Sociology. Her results show rhetorical hybridisation processes in the construction of this genre both as a result of the translation into English process and of using English as a lingua franca. Jingjing Wang and Feng (Kevin) Jiang investigate hedges, boosters and self-mentions as main expressions of epistemic positioning used in research writing by Chinese PhD students as compared to expert writers' texts across four science disciplines: Physics and Life Science from pure sciences, Material Science and Engineering, Computer Science and Technology from applied sciences. Differences in their use have been found both across the two groups of authors and across disciplines. They stress the need to raise novice scholars' awareness on the expression of stance and of constructing an authorial identity in expected, conventional ways within the discipline. In their contribution, Marina Bondi and Carlotta Borelli focus on markers of authorial voice and on other textual voices brought about by reporting verbs in the SciELF corpus, consisting of unrevised journal articles written by academic language users of English for publication purposes. Results are contrasted with those from a corpus of published articles in English for general reference.

The results of the analysis are discussed with reference to the notions of ELF, EIL (English as an International Language) and language brokering. Silvia Murillo's chapter also focuses on the description and analysis of ELF research articles by exploring the specific choices made by authors from different similects of reformulation markers and the processes introduced by them in the SciELF corpus of unrevised manuscripts and in a comparable corpus of ENL texts (SERAC). Some rhetorical heterogeneity or interdiscursive hybridity in relation to the use of these markers is unveiled in the ELF texts, which may point at some gradual "remodeling" of this language as being used for international communication within the academia. Enrique Lafuente-Millán investigates the use of evaluation in research article introductions in the Social Sciences extracted from manuscripts which are part of the SciELF corpus and contrasts it with a corpus of published research article introductions written by ENL researchers (SERAC). The results reveal that EAL writers use evaluation much less often to establish the importance, comprehensiveness and usefulness of their own research, which can be a challenge when trying to get their research results accepted for publication in a competitive, international context. The third section closes with Pilar Mur-Dueñas' chapter on the analysis of a specific rhetorical feature, the anticipatory *it* pattern focusing on the rhetorical interpersonal functions fulfilled (attitudinal, hedging, boosting), and their particular lexico-grammatical realization in the Sci-ELF corpus. The results are compared to the use of this interpersonality feature in a comparable corpus of ENL published research articles from the SERAC corpus. Whereas some similarities are perceived in the overall uses of this pattern and its specific subpatterns, differences were found in the specific realizations, which can be taken to be creative uses of the language to express interpersonal meanings and which, in turn, may point at some degree of dynamism in the English language used internationally for scholarly communication.

The Afterword by Ulla Connor closes the volume emphasising the important links between Intercultural rhetoric, English as a lingua franca and studies on research writing.

References

Alonso-Almeida, F. (2014). Evidential and epistemic devices in English and Spanish medical, computing and legal scientific abstracts: A contrastive study. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 21–42). Bern: Peter Lang.

Árvay, A., & Tankó, G. (2004). A contrastive analysis of English and Hungarian theoretical research article introductions. *IRAL*, 42, 71–100. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2004.003

Belcher, D. (2014). What we need and don't need intercultural rhetoric for: A retrospective and prospective look at an evolving research area. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 25, 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.06.003

Bellés-Fortuño, B., & Querol-Julián, M. (2010). Evaluation in research article abstracts: A cross-cultural study between Spanish and English medical discourse. In R. Lorés-Sanz, P. Mur-Dueñas, & E. Lafuente-Millán (Eds.), *Constructing interpersonality: Multiple perspectives on written academic genres* (pp. 83–98). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars.

Bondi, M., & Lorés-Sanz, R. (Eds.). (2014). *Abstracts in academic discourse. Variation and change*. Bern: Peter Lang. https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-0351-0701-2

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: Audience and rhetorical strategies. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–225). London: Longman.

Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524599

Connor, U. (2002). New directions in contrastive rhetoric. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 493–510. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588238

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(4), 291–304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.003

Connor, U. (2013). Corpus linguistics in intercultural rhetoric. In D. Belcher, & G. Nelson (Eds.), *Critical and corpus-based approaches to intercultural rhetoric* (pp. 8–21). Ann Arbor, MI: Michigan University Press.

Connor, U., Nagelhout, E., & Rozycki, W. V. (2008). Introduction. In U. Connor, E. Nagelhout, & W. V. Rozycki (Eds.), *Contrastive rhetoric: Reaching to intercultural rhetoric* (pp. 1–8). Amsterdam: Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.169.01con

Dahl, T. (2008). Contributing to the academic conversation: A study of new knowledge claims in economics and linguistics. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40(7), 1184–1201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2007.11.006

Diani, G. (2008). Introductory 'it' patterns in English and Italian academic writing: A cross-generic and cross-cultural analysis. *L'analisi Linguistica e Letteraria*, 16, 343–355.

Diani, G. (2014). On English and Italian research article abstracts: Genre variation across cultures. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 65–84). Bern: Peter Lang.

Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2015). Cross-cultural variation in citation practices: A comparative analysis of citations in Czech English-medium and international English-medium linguistics journals. In R. Plo & C. Pérez-Llantada (Eds.), *English as a scientific and research language* (pp. 185–205). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614516378-011

Englander, K. (2006). Revision of scientific manuscripts by nonnative English-speaking scientists in response to journal editors' criticism of the language. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3, 129–161.

Ferguson, G. (2007). The global spread of English, scientific communication and ESP: Questions of equity, access and domain loss. *Ibérica*, 13, 7–38.

Fløttum, K, Dahl, T., & Kinn, T. (2006). *Academic voices: Across languages and disciplines*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.148

Flowerdew, J. (1999). Problems in writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 243–264. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80116-7

Flowerdew, J. (2000). Discourse community, legitimate peripheral participation, and the nonnative-English-speaking scholar. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34, 127–150. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588099

Giannoni, D. S. (2005). Negative evaluation in academic discourse: A comparison of English and Italian research articles. *Linguistica e Filologia*, 20, 71–99.

Hirano, E. (2009). Research article introductions in English for specific purposes: A comparison between Brazilian Portuguese and English. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 240–250. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.02.001

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2008). *Academic discourse*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2016). Academic publishing and the myth of linguistic injustice. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 31, 58–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.01.005

Hyland, K., & Sancho Guinda, C. (Eds.). (2012). *Stance and voice in written academic genres*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137030825

Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 157–181. https://doi.org/10.2307/40264515

Kreutz, H., & Harres, A. (1997). Hedging in German and English academic writing. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 181–201). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.181

Kubota, R. (1999). Japanese culture constructed by discourses: Implications for applied linguistics research and English language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 9–35. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588189

Lafuente-Millán, E. (2008). Epistemic and approximative meaning revisited: The use of hedges, boosters and approximators when writing research in different disciplines. In S. Burgess & P. Martín Martín (Eds.), *English as an additional language in research publication and communication* (pp. 65–82) Berlin: Peter Lang.

Li, Y., & Flowerdew, L. (2007). Shaping Chinese novice scientists' manuscripts for publication. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 100–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.05.001

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context: The politics and practices of publishing in English*. London: Routledge.

Lindeberg, A. C. (2004). *Promotion and politeness: Conflicting scholarly rhetoric in three disciplines*. Åbo: Åbo Akademi University Press.

Loi, C. K. (2010). Research article introductions in Chinese and English: A comparative genre-based study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(4), 267–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.09.004

Loi, C. K., & Evans, M. S. (2010). Cultural differences in the organization of research article introductions from the field of educational psychology: English and Chinese. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42, 2814–2825. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.03.010

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2006). 'I will argue that': First person pronouns as metadiscoursal devices in research article abstracts in English and Spanish. *ESP Across Cultures*, 3, 23–40.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2009). Different worlds, different audiences: A contrastive analysis of research article abstracts. In E. Soumela-Salmi & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 187–197). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.193.12lor

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011a). The construction of the author's voice in academic writing: The interplay of cultural and disciplinary factors. *Text & Talk*, 31, 173–193. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2011.008

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011b). The study of authorial voice: Using a Spanish-English corpus to explore linguistic transference. *Corpora*, 6(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2011.0002

Martín-Martín, P. (2003). A genre analysis of English and Spanish research paper abstracts in experimental social sciences. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22, 25–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(01)00033-3

Martín-Martín, P. (2005). *The rhetoric of the abstract in English and Spanish scientific discourse: A cross-cultural genre-analytic approach*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Martínez, I. (2005). Native and non-native writer's use of first person pronouns in the different sections of biology research articles in English. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(3), 174–190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2005.06.001

Mauranen, A. (2012). *Exploring ELF: Academic English shaped by nonnative speakers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mauranen, A. (2014) Lingua franca discourse in academic contexts: Shaped by complexity. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Discourse in context: Contemporary applied linguistics* (pp. 225–245). London: Bloomsbury.

Mauranen, A., Pérez-Llantada, C., & Swales, J. M. (2010). Academic Englishes: A standardized knowledge? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 634–652). London: Routledge.

Molino, A. (2010). Personal and impersonal authorial references: A contrastive study of English and Italian linguistics research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 86–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.007

Moreno, A. (2004). Retrospective labelling in premise-conclusion metatext: An English-Spanish contrastive study of research articles on Business and Economics. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(4), 321–339. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.005

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2007). 'I/we focus on…': A cross-cultural analysis of self-mentions in business management research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6, 143–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.05.002

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2011). An intercultural analysis of metadiscourse features in research articles written in English and in Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 3068–3079. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.05.002

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2012). Getting research published internationally in English: An ethnographic account of a team of finance Spanish scholars' struggles. *Ibérica*, 24, 9–28.

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2014). 'The main contribution of this study is…': An analysis of statements of contribution in English published research articles and L2 manuscripts. *Journal of Writing Research*, 5, 271–283. https://doi.org/10.17239/jowr-2014.05.03.2

Mur-Dueñas, P., Lorés-Sanz, R., & Lafuente-Millán, E. (2010). Editorial. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* (Special Issue on *Interpersonality in Academic Writing*), 9(2), 83–85. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.006

Murillo, Silvia. (2012). The use of reformulation markers in Business Management research articles: An intercultural analysis. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 17, 62–88. https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.17.1.03mur

Römer, U. (2009). English in academia: Does nativeness matter? *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies*, 20(2), 89–100.

Salager-Meyer, F., Alcaraz Ariza, M. A., & Zambrano, N. (2003). The scimitar, the dagger and the glove: Intercultural differences in the rhetoric of criticism in Spanish, French and English medical discourse (1930–1995). *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(3), 223–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(02)00019-4

Seidlhofer, B. (2005). English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal*, 59(4), 339–341. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci064

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seidlhofer, B., Breiteneder, A., & Pitzl, M. L. (2006). English as a lingua franca in Europe: Challenges for applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26, 3–34. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719050600002X

Shaw, P. (2003). Evaluation and promotion across languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00050-X

Sheldon, E. (2009). From one *I* to another: Discursive construction of self-representation in English and Castilian Spanish research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(4), 251–265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.05.001

Sheldon, E. (2011). Rhetorical differences in RA introductions written by English L1 and L2 and Castilian Spanish L1 writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 238–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.004

Spack, R. (1997). The rhetorical construction of multilingual students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 765–774. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587759

Swales, J., & Van Bonn, S. (2007). Similarities and differences in French and English EAP research article abstracts: The case of ASp. In K. Fløttum (Ed.), *Language and discipline perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 275–294). Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Press.

Šinkūnienė, J. (2017). Citations in research writing: Cultural, disciplinary and genre perspectives. In T. Egan & H. Dirdal (Eds.), *Cross-linguistic correspondences: From lexis to genre* (pp. 253–270). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/slcs.191.10sin

Tribble, C. (2017). ELFA vs. genre: A new paradigm war in EAP writing instruction? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 25, 30–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.10.003

Vassileva, I. (1997). Hedging in English and Bulgarian academic writing. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 203–221). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.203

Vassileva, I. (2001). Commitment and detachment in English and Bulgarian academic writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20(1), 83–102. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00029-0

Vázquez-Orta, I. (2010). A contrastive analysis of the use of modal verbs in the expression of epistemic stance in Business Management research articles in English and Spanish. *Ibérica*, 19, 77–95.

Vold, E. T. (2006). Epistemic modality markers in research articles: A cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), 61–87. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2006.00106.x

Williams, I. A. (2011). Cultural differences in academic discourse: Evidence from first-person verb use in the methods sections of medical research articles. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 15(2), 214–240.

Zamel, V. (1997). Toward a model of transculturation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 341–343. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588050

Three-fold intercultural analysis

Comparing national, L1 English and L2 English academic texts

A contrastive (English, Czech English, Czech) study of rhetorical functions of citations in Linguistics research articles

Olga Dontcheva-Navratilova
Masaryk University

This study explores variation in the use of citations in a specialised corpus of Linguistics research articles comprising Czech-medium and English-medium texts by Czech linguists and English-medium texts by Anglophone authors. Drawing on the typologies suggested by Thompson and Tribble (2001), Petrić (2007) and Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016), the investigation aims at identifying the frequency and rhetorical functions of citations across the generic moves of RAs and exploring how they contribute to academic persuasion. The findings of the contrastive analysis indicate that the existing divergences in citation practices of Czech writers writing in Czech and English and Anglophone authors are related to the intended readership and the linguacultural context in which they strive to convince readers to accept their claims and views.

Keywords: citation, genre, intercultural variation, persuasion, research articles, rhetorical functions

1. Introduction

When engaging in academic interaction, we strive not only to convey information, but also to persuade our peers to accept our claims and views as relevant, valid, and novel while embedding them in prior disciplinary knowledge. As an explicit means of intertextuality (Bazerman et al., 2005) citations help us create intertextual connections and thus acknowledge previous research, indicate alignment with existing scientific traditions and engage in a dialogue with readers. This interpersonal potential of citations, which makes them central to academic persuasion (Hyland, 1999), has recently attracted the attention of discourse analysts and has resulted in a body of research on citer motivation and functions of citations in expert and novice academic discourse (e.g. Petrić, 2007; Petrić & Harwood, 2013; White, 2004),

disciplinary differences in citation patterns, (e.g. Hyland, 1999, 2000), intercultural variation in citation functions and their distribution across the rhetorical moves of RAs (RAs) (Bloch & Chi, 1995; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015, 2016; Hu & Wang, 2014; Mur-Dueñas, 2009) and the geolinguistic dimension of citations (e.g. Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015; Lillis, Hewings, Vladimirou & Curry, 2010; Petersen & Shaw, 2002). This chapter draws on my previous research into intercultural variation in the frequency of occurrence, rhetorical functions and distribution of citations across the sections of English-medium Linguistics RAs by Anglophone and Czech scholars (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015, 2016) and seeks to extend it by adding a third parameter of comparison – Czech-medium Linguistics RAs. This triple contrastive perspective has the potential to reveal possible transference of academic writing habits from L1 to L2 and to indicate to what extent mastering citations practices may be seen as a challenge for Czech linguists endeavouring to publish their work in English in an international context.

The impetus to explore intercultural variation in citation practices has grown from the establishment of English as the global medium of academic knowledge production, evaluation and distribution. As a result of the globalisation of academia, numerous non-Anglophone scholars face the challenge of interacting in English with an international readership while striving to have their RAs published in high-impact international journals which tend to be dominated by the Anglophone rhetorical tradition (cf. Canagarajah, 2002; Flowerdew, 2008; Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2014). Since citation practices reflect the cultural and disciplinary conventions in which academic authors are socialised (cf. Hyland, 1999, 2000; Shaw & Pecorari, 2013), non-Anglophone scholars have to decide whether to strive to accommodate to the dominant Anglophone norms or to attempt to change them by (partially) preserving the research writing conventions established in their original academic communities. As previous intercultural research has shown (e.g. Burgess, 2002; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2014, 2015; Lorés-Sanz, 2011a, 2011b; Shaw, 2003), the English-medium discourse of non-Anglophone scholars generally tends to reflect a kind of a compromise – on the one hand, it seems to be affected to some extent by the discursive and rhetorical tradition of their original academic literacy, while on the other, it bears signs of adjustment to the conventions characteristic of Anglophone academic discourse. Obviously, the rhetorical choices non-Anglophone scholars make may affect the persuasive force of their texts, as persuasion in research writing depends to a large extent on the use of rhetorical conventions that the members of an academic community find convincing (cf. Hyland, 2008).

Taking an intercultural perspective (Connor, 2004) and drawing on the genre analysis framework (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990, 2004), this chapter endeavours to contribute to the study of research publication practices of scholars who use

English as an academic lingua franca and the likely rhetorical difficulties they encounter in these practices by exploring intercultural variation in the use of citations in Czech-medium and English-medium Linguistics RAs by Czech scholars and English-medium RAs by Anglophone linguists. The aim of the study is to compare the frequency of occurrence and rhetorical functions of citations across rhetorical moves of RAs in the three sets of articles in order to explore (1) how differences in citation practices of Czech linguists writing in Czech and Anglophone scholars writing in English affect the use of citations in English-medium RAs by Czech linguists, and (2) how the likely divergences affect the potential of citations to enhance persuasion in the three contexts of publication.

2.   Variation in citation practices

Variation in citation practices has been explored by numerous English for Academic Purpose (EAP) studies published over the last three decades. One of the aspects of citation practices which has received considerable attention from a cross-disciplinary or intercultural perspective is citation density, i.e. the frequency of occurrence of citations in academic texts (e.g. Hyland, 1999; Fløttum, Dahl, & Kinn, 2006; Thompson, 2005; Thompson & Tribble, 2001), which is indicative of the degree of engagement of the text with prior scholarly discourses and the scope of contextualisation of the reported research. Another aspect is the ratio of integral and non-integral citations (e.g. Samraj, 2013; Swales, 1986, 1990; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) which has been found to reflect the degree of prominence given to the cited author or to the reported message; thus in the soft sciences the ratio of integral citations tends to be higher than in the hard sciences reflecting the more disputational style of argument of Humanities and Social Sciences (Hyland, 1999, p. 362). Contrastive studies have also indicated intercultural variation in the use of integral and non-integral citations, such as the preference towards the use of integral forms by Czech linguists writing in English (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015) and the fewer use of reporting structures in Spanish Business Management articles (Mur-Dueñas, 2009).

Investigations into rhetorical functions of citations are typically undertaken from a cross-disciplinary perspective and often reflect pedagogical concerns. The application of the discourse-based interview approach has yielded significant insights into citer motivation and inter- and intra-disciplinary differences in citer behaviour (Harwood, 2009; Petrić & Harwood, 2013). Contrastive corpus-based research has explored the functions of citations across the rhetorical moves of RAs (e.g. Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011) and PhD theses (Thompson, 2005) to show that while citations generally peak in the Introduction and Discussion sections of

both academic genres, novice writers, as well as non-Anglophone writers, tend to use fewer citations and convey a higher rate of rhetorically simple citation functions, such as attribution, and a lower rate of rhetorically complex functions, such as comparison of one's findings with other sources, establishing links between sources and evaluation (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016; Samraj, 2013). This seems to be associated with the scarce occurrence of some rhetorical steps (e.g. Reference to previous research) in the Results and Discussion sections of RAs written by non-Anglophone writers (cf. Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016; Mur-Dueñas, 2009).

Research into citation practices has suggested several taxonomies of citations which apply content, formal and functional criteria for establishing the rhetorical intentions of writers for creating intertextual connections to previous research. Thus citation context analysis (e.g. Lin, Chen & Chang, 2013; Moravcsik & Murugesan, 1975) considers several content-based criteria for classifying citations (e.g. conceptual vs. operational, essential vs. perfunctory). While widely used, this typology has been criticised for its questionable applicability outside the hard sciences (Swales, 1986) and for the necessity of subject-matter-driven adjustments to ensure reliability when applied to different scientific disciplines (Petrić, 2007). A different approach is used in typologies combining formal and functional considerations in defining the writer's intention in the use of integral and non-integral citations (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). For instance, Petrić's (2007) classification has the advantage of trying to relate rhetorical functions to linguistic cues signalling the role assigned to citations in relation to the cited source (directives (e.g. *see*), code glosses (e.g. *for example*) and evaluative language). The application of these typologies to the analysis of non-native expert and novice scientific writers has revealed that the use of sophisticated, complex rhetorical functions of citations is affected by the writer's expertise (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007) and linguacultural background (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016).

3.   Data and method

This contrastive study has been carried out on a small specialised corpus of 30 single-authored RAs published in the period 2001–2015 in three Linguistics journals: the Oxford journal *Applied Linguistics* and two Czech national journals – the Czech-medium journal *Časopis pro modern filologii* (Journal for Modern Philology) published by Charles University (Prague) and the English-medium journal *Discourse and Interaction* published by Masaryk University (Brno). The three journals clearly differ in the readership they address: while *Applied Linguistics* is a highly influential international journal, the two Czech journals target a more

restricted audience reflecting their modest academic reputation and, in the case of *Časopis pro modern filologii*, the language medium. Despite these differences, the RAs by Anglophone and Czech linguists published in these journals are regarded as representative outcomes of social interaction in the respective disciplinary discourse communities.

The corpus was divided into three sub-corpora compiled along the same criteria to ensure their comparability: the first sub-corpus comprises ten RAs by native speakers of English (judging by their names and affiliations) published in *Applied Linguistics*, the second sub-corpus consists of ten Czech-medium RAs by Czech linguists published in *Časopis pro modern filologii*, and the third sub-corpus is composed of ten English-medium RAs written by Czech linguists and published in *Discourse and Interaction*. The decision to include the same number of authors per corpus aimed to minimise the risk of confounding idiosyncratic with culturally-determined behaviour, although this led to divergence in word count as the articles produced by Anglophone scholars tend to be longer than the ones written by Czech linguists. In agreement with Thompson and Ye (1991) and Hyland (1999), in this chapter "writer" is used to refer to the person citing and "author" to the cited person.

Table 1 provides an overview of the size of the corpus and the three sub-corpora.

Table 1. Composition of the corpus

Sub-corpus	Number of RAs	Number of words
Applied Linguistics (AL)	10	77,500
Časopis pro modern filologii (CMF)	10	49,000
Discourse and Interaction (DI)	10	48,000
Total	30	174,500

The RAs included in the corpus use diverse section labels; while practically all of them comprise an *Introduction* section, several (especially in the *CMF* sub-corpus) do not include an explicitly labelled *Methods* section, several include a coalesced *Results* and *Discussion* section and a final *Conclusion* or *Implications* section. Thus, when applying the IMRD framework (Swales 1990, 2004) to the analysis of the distribution of citations across the rhetorical structure of RAs, the *Conclusion* or *Implications* were regarded as a part of the *Discussion*, as their rhetorical moves coincide with some of the rhetorical moves in the Discussion section (Ruyjing & Allison, 2003), and the *Methods*, *Results* and *Discussion* sections were delimited according to the rhetorical moves/steps.

Citations in the corpus were identified following Hyland's (2000) approach, i.e. references to sources were counted irrespective of their surface realisations, while endnotes and footnotes were not taken into consideration. Then each citation was

classified as integral or non-integral and assigned a rhetorical function following the typology described below; the total numbers were calculated to reflect the frequency of occurrence and diversity of references to sources, which, as previous research indicates (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015; Hu & Wang, 2014; Mur-Dueñas, 2009), is often an important indicator of intercultural variation. For the purposes of the contrastive analysis both the percentage of each citation type and the normalised frequency per 1,000 words were calculated.

3.1   Typology of rhetorical functions of citations

The rhetorical functions of citations were coded according to the typology suggested in Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016). While informed by Thompson and Tribble's (2001) and Petrič's (2007) taxonomies, this typology also adopts the essential/peripheral division used in content-based classifications (cf. Lin, et al., 2013; Moravcsik & Marugesan, 1975), which reflects the extent to which a citation is central to the argument in the RA. The typology proposes five categories of essential citations and four categories of peripheral citations.

Essential citations
As constitutive elements of the writer's argumentation, essential citations are associated with key moves (e.g. establishing a territory, describing data analysis procedure, commenting on results) in the rhetorical structure of RAs and may be realised by both integral and non-integral forms. Essential citations may perform the following functions (the examples are taken from the English-medium sub-corpora; the numbers refer to specific texts).

1. Attribution of ideas, activities or concepts to other authors
    Attribution citations perform the basic citation function – to indicate intertextual connections and acknowledge the contribution of previous research to the knowledge-making taking place in the text.

    (1) *Firbas defines a degree of CD as "the extent to which the element contributes towards the development of the communication" (Firbas 1964: 270).*   (DI1)

2. Attribution of methods, approaches or procedures to other authors
    This type of citation provides information on the origins or application of methods, approaches or procedures referred to by the writer.

    (2) *A similar approach to emergence in a lexicon is to be found in the work of Zuidema and Westermann (e.g. 2001, 2003).*   (AL7)

3. Statement of use
    Citations ascribed to this category indicate that concepts, terminology or procedures from the cited work have been applied directly or adapted by the writer for his/her own purposes.

    (3) *By phatic, I follow the terminology of Malinowski (1972) where he describes phatic communion as establishing ties of personal union between people.*

    (DI9)

4. Establishment of links between sources
    A citation is defined as having the function of "establishing links between sources" when it points to similarities or divergences between ideas, concepts, methods or findings reported in different sources.

    (4) *Slightly different from Schiffrin's (1987) definition, which includes vocalisations such as* oh, *Fraser limits DMs to linguistic expressions which signal a relationship that the speaker intends between the utterance a DM introduces and the foregoing utterance.*   (AL8)

5. Comparison of one's findings with other sources
    The last type of essential citations explicitly relates the writer's findings to a cited work in order to indicate whether they support or contradict prior knowledge.

    (5) *In addition, classroom teaching has a large inventory of lexical bundles associated with dependent clause fragments, […]. This pattern is surprising, given previous claims that dependent clauses are more typical of written prose than speech (e.g. O'Donnell 1974; Kroll 1977; Chafe 1982; Akinnaso 1982; Gumperz et al. 1984).*   (AL5)

Peripheral citations

The four categories of peripheral citations, which are typically marked by explicit cues, help the writer to situate the reported research within the framework of shared knowledge of the disciplinary discourse community.

6. Exemplification
    This type of citation (signalled by *for example/instance* or *e.g.*) provides an illustration of a general point in the writer's argument by relating it to the work of a specific author.

    (6) *For example, Kumaravadivelu (1988) takes lexical simplification and divides it into the three psychological processes of overgeneralization, creative transfer, and cultural relativity.*   (AL1)

7. **Further reference**
    Further reference citations typically take a non-integral form and are preceded by *see* or *cf*.; they refer the reader to further sources dealing with the topic, thus relating the writer's research to a larger disciplinary field.

    (7) *Furthermore, linear arrangement of paragraphs is reclassified into a means of hierarchizing them (for the broader interpretation of iconicity, see e.g. Enkvist 1991).*   (DI2)

8. **Explicit evaluation**
    This category is marked by the occurrence of evaluative adverbs and factive and counter-factive reporting verbs expressing the positive or critical attitude of the writer towards the cited source.

    (8) *Fraser (1970) attempted to turn the observed patterns of behaviour into a single 7-point scale. This scale has, unfortunately, not proved accurate enough to use.*
                                                                          (AL6)

9. **Other**
    The last category comprises citations marginal to the author's argument, such as the acknowledgement of examples taken from other sources or software used for data processing.

    (9) *In the following extract from an advertisement (taken from Thompson and Thetela 1995: 114), this distribution of roles is signalled explicitly […]* (AL2)

For the purposes of the quantitative analysis, the coding of citations with multiple functions was carried out by assigning one main function to each citation; the primary criterion used were linguistic cues in the citing sentence indicating the writer's motivation for referring to the source. Similarly to the approach adopted in Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016), in the absence of explicit linguistic signals, essential categories were prioritised over peripheral functions, which are typically signalled by linguistic cues, and attribution over other essential functions of citations, as the attribution of a proposition, activity or a term to an author is inherently present in all instances of citation use. While coding only the most salient function of citations ensures a high degree of transparency of quantitative data and facilitates comparability with previous research, it may lead to some loss of the complexity of citation functions. The rhetorical complexity of multifunctional citations is addressed within the qualitative analysis.

4.   Findings and discussion

The contrastive analysis of the frequency of occurrence and the rhetorical functions of citations in the *AL*, *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora showed that while there are numerous similarities in the distribution and rhetorical functions of citations used in the three sub-corpora, there are also considerable differences in the use of citations by Anglophone and Czech linguists when writing in their mother tongue, which may, in turn, affect the rate and rhetorical functions of citations in English-medium texts by Czech linguists. In what follows, the findings of the quantitative and qualitative analysis are discussed in order to explain the reasons for the existing variation.

4.1   Citation frequency and distribution of citation types across RAs sections

Citation frequency was analysed to compare the total number of citations in the three sub-corpora and the preferred type of formal realisation using Swales' (1990) categorisation of citation forms as integral and non-integral. As Table 2 shows, there is a considerable difference in the frequency of occurrence of citations in the three sub-corpora both in terms of raw numbers and normalised frequency per 1,000 words. Anglophone writers create intertextual connections twice as frequently as Czech linguists writing in Czech, as the citation rate is 8.3 in the *AL* sub-corpus and 4.5 in the *CMF* sub-corpus; this confirms the findings of previous research (Dontcheva-Navratilova 2014; Hu & Wang 2014; Mur-Dueñas 2009) indicating that the context of publication is an important variable in citation practices.

Table 2. Integral vs. non-integral citations in the *AL*, *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora

Corpus	Non-integral			Integral			Total	
	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate
AL	398	5.1	61.9	244	3.2	38.1	642	8.3
DI	156	3.3	50.6	153	3.2	50.4	309	6.8
CMF	143	2.9	65.6	75	1.5	34.4	218	4.5

The difference in the rate of occurrence of citations in the *AL* and the *CMF* sub-corpora seems to stem from the different intended audiences the writers address. When interacting with the global Linguistics discourse community, Anglophone writers create more intertextual connections to contextualise their work and acknowledge the role of previous research in the on-going process of knowledge construction in the field of Linguistics as they have to compete for research space in a territory densely packed with occupied "niches" (Duszak, 1997). This indicates

that the international Linguistics discourse community associates the persuasive force of academic rhetoric with a higher level of interactivity helping writers to negotiate claims and debate views with the implied audience (cf. Hyland, 2012). Czech linguists, when addressing a national audience in their Czech-medium articles, seem to assume that their readership is acquainted with the main conceptual frameworks and approaches to which they refer. This leads them to create fewer intertextual connections and adopt a less interactive style, thus assuming that the authoritative voice of the scholar by itself would convince the reader to accept the writer's views and claims (cf. Čmejrková & Daneš, 1997).

Citations in the *DI* sub-corpus show an average rate of 6.8 which seems to reflect a kind of compromise between the tendencies observed in the *AL* and the *CMF* sub-corpora. Czech linguists publishing in English are familiar with the rhetorical conventions in English-medium academic publications which they adopt to a certain extent even when writing in a different context, as the English-medium RAs by Czech scholars primarily address a national readership, although, due to the Open Access platform of the journal, they can potentially reach a more diverse international audience. As a result, Czech linguists try to ground their work in previous research more carefully, thus aspiring to show allegiance not only to the national but also to the international Linguistics community.

As to the formal realisations of citations, the comparative analysis shows that despite the difference in frequency the use of non-integral and integral citations in the *AL* and the *CMF* sub-corpora follow the same general tendency: as in most disciplines (cf. Hyland, 1999; Mur-Dueñas, 2009; Samraj, 2013 and Thompson & Tribble, 2001, for ratios of non-integral to integral citations in Applied Linguistics, Biology, Electronical Engineering, Marketing, Mechanical Engineering, Physics and Sociology), non-integral forms are clearly preferred to integral ones, as non-integral citations give greater emphasis to the reported content than to the cited author (cf. Hyland, 2000). However, in the *DI* sub-corpus citations are nearly evenly split between the integral and non-integral forms. The greater prominence given to cited authors may indicate a desire to present the work of Czech linguists to a wide readership as well as to an effort to use the voices of established authors as a support for the approaches and methods adopted in reported research. In addition, the higher frequency of direct quotes in the *DI* sub-corpus (1.56 per 1,000 words, as compared to 0.77 in the *AL* sub-corpus and 0.61 in the *CMF* sub-corpus) may reflect the non-native status of the writers resulting in a lack of confidence to paraphrase the original text of cited authors.

The distribution of citations across the sections of RAs differs (Table 3). In agreement with the findings of previous research (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015; Mur-Dueñas, 2009; Petrić, 2007; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) most of the citations occur in the *Introduction* sections. While citations in *Introductions* in the *AL* and

DI sub-corpora show the same rate of occurrence (4.4), their frequency in the *CMF* corpus is considerably lower (2.1). This seems to result from the absence of the "review of previous research" move in several of the Czech-medium articles, as well as to the marked tendency of Czech linguists to cite only a limited number of previous seminal works when addressing the national audience, probably because they assume that the small Czech Linguistics community is well-acquainted with the main theoretical tenets and methodology to which they refer.

However, the significant concentration of citations in the *Introduction* section of the *DI* sub-corpus is in contrast with their low rate in all the other sections of English-medium RAs by Czech linguists.

Table 3. Distribution of citations across RAs in the *AL*, *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora

Corpus	Introduction			Method			Results			Discussion		
	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate	%
AL	339	4.4	52.8	107	1.4	16.7	135	1.7	21.0	61	0.8	9.5
DI	213	4.4	68.9	24	0.5	7.8	53	1.1	17.2	19	0.4	6.1
CMF	103	2.1	47.3	24	0.5	11.0	74	1.5	33.9	17	0.3	7.8

The use of citations in the *Methods* section is considerably more frequent in the *AL* corpus (1.4) than in the two Czech sub-corpora (0.5 both in the *DI* and the *CMF* sub-corpora). In fact, in the *CMF* sub-corpus only four of the articles comprise a clearly identified *Methods* sections, which is not unusual in Applied Language studies (cf. Swales, 2004, p. 219), and most of the remaining articles apply well-established approaches related to the continuation of a tradition orientation of Czech Linguistics research. The same orientation towards traditional methods and procedures can also be observed in most articles in the *DI* sub-corpus, although the *Methods* section is present in most of them; however, rather than on the "description of the analytical procedure" move, they typically focus on the "description of data" move, which does not require extensive reference to previous research. In the *Results* and *Discussion* sections, the *AL* sub-corpus shows the highest rate of citations, as Anglophone authors create more intertextual links to justify their claims and support their views when discussing their findings. The distribution of citations across the *Results* and *Discussion* section in my corpus diverges from the findings of some previous studies (e.g. Mur-Dueñas, 2009; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) which report a higher rate of citations in the *Discussion* than in the *Results* section. This may be due to the frequent overlap of these sections in all sub-corpora, as well as to the fact that apart from reporting results *Results* sections also comment on them (Ruyjing & Allison, 2003). The highest percentage of citations in the *Results* section

is found in the *CMF* sub-corpus, although their rate is lower than the rate reported for the *AL* corpus. The *DI* sub-corpus has the lowest rate and the smallest percentage of citations in the frequently overlapping *Results* and *Discussion* sections. This is associated with the extremely rare occurrence of the "comparison of results with previous research" move in the *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora. In both the *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora there is a tendency to restrict the conclusion to the "summarising the study" move without indicating its significance in a broader disciplinary context, most probably because the continuation of a tradition function related to adding knowledge to established topics of research is considered as sufficient for aligning the reported research with prior disciplinary knowledge.

4.2   Rhetorical functions of citations

An analysis of the rhetorical functions of citations in the three sub-corpora shows that while all sub-corpora display the same range of functions, their frequency of occurrence (Table 4) and distribution across the different sections of RAs (Table 5) differ considerably. As expected, essential citations exceed by far the occurrence of peripheral citations in all sections of RAs in the three sub-corpora. However, the ratio of essential to peripheral citations shows that the *CMF* sub-corpus contains the largest fraction of essential (94%) and the lowest fraction of peripheral

Table 4. Rhetorical functions of citations in the *AL*, *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora

Rhetorical function	AL corpus			DI corpus			CMF corpus		
	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate	%	Raw No	Norm. rate	%
Essential functions									
Attribution of ideas	299	3.9	46.6	207	4.3	68.0	186	3.8	83.1
Attribution of methods	48	0.6	7.5	16	0.3	5.2	14	0.3	6.4
Statement of use	36	0.5	5.5	21	0.4	6.8	3	0.1	1.4
Links btwn sources	98	1.3	15.3	19	0.4	6.1	4	0.1	1.8
Comparison of findings	20	0.3	3.1	3	0.1	1.0	3	0.1	1.4
Total	501	6.5	78.1	266	5.5	86.1	205	4.2	94.0
Peripheral functions									
Exemplification	40	0.5	6.2	24	0.5	7.8	3	0.1	1.4
Further reference	65	0.8	10.1	14	0.3	4.5	8	0.2	3.7
Evaluation	23	0.3	3.6	2	0.1	0.6	1	0.1	0.5
Other	13	0.2	2.0	3	0.1	0.9	1	0.1	0.5
Total	141	1.8	21.9	43	0.9	13.9	13	0.1	6.0

(6%) citations, while the *AL* sub-corpus comprises the lowest fraction of essential (78.1%) and the largest fraction of peripheral (21%) citations. The values for the *DI* sub-corpus (86.1% essential citations; 13.9% peripheral citations) manifest the ambivalent position of Czech linguists publishing in English who stand in between the Anglophone and Czech citation conventions.

The most prominent rhetorical function of citations in all sub-corpora is attribution of ideas, activities or concepts to other authors, although the proportional representation of this function varies across the sections of RAs in the three sub-corpora. The most striking differences concern the functions of indicating links between sources, comparison of one's findings with other sources, further reference and evaluation, the rate of which is considerably lower in the *CMF* and the *DI* sub-corpora as compared to the *AL* sub-corpus. The low incidence of these rhetorical functions stems from the rare occurrence of some of the optional steps of the "commenting on results" move (e.g. comparing results with literature and evaluating results) in the *Results* section and of the "evaluating the study" and "deductions from the research" moves in the *Discussion* section in articles by Czech linguists (cf. Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016). While the limited use of these rhetorically more complex citations has been related to language proficiency and expertise (cf. Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007), in the case of Czech authors it may also be attributed to a divergence in rhetorical conventions, as in Czech academic discourse persuasiveness is associated with conceptual and terminological clarity (Čmejrková & Daneš, 1997) rather than with negotiation of meaning which presupposes dialogical involvement with the reader via the use of citations and other rhetorical devices. This shows that when addressing a national and international audience in their English-medium texts Czech authors seem to rely to a large extent on the citation conventions typical of the Czech academic discourse.

Besides the variation in the range and rate of occurrence of rhetorical functions, the three sub-corpora also differ in the distribution of citation functions across the sections of RAs (Table 5). While the attribution of ideas, activities or concepts to other authors is the most prominent function in all sections of RAs in all sub-corpora, several of the remaining rhetorical functions do not occur outside the *Introduction* in the *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora.

The *Introduction* sections of the three sub-corpora display nearly all functions of citations. It is significant that as to the range and proportional representation of citation functions occurring in *Introductions*, the use of citations in the *DI* sub-corpus converges with the tendencies observed in the Anglophone rather than in the Czech RAs. In fact, in their English-medium texts Czech authors seem to adopt the Create-a-Research-Space model (Swales, 1990, 2004) associated with positioning new research in a highly competitive environment; it can be assumed then that Czech authors writing in English (un)consciously adopt the Anglophone

Table 5. Rhetorical functions of citations across the sections of RAs in the three sub-corpora (%)

Rhetorical function	Introduction			Method			Results			Discussion		
	AL	DI	CMF	AL	DI	CMF	AL	DI	CMF	AL	DI	CMF
Attribution/ideas	45.7	56.4	93.2	41.1	65.4	36.0	52.7	90.2	91.5	50.0	100	68.4
Attribution/methods	5.3	2.7	0.0	21.1	15.4	27.5	7.1	5.9	1.2	0.0	0.0	15.8
Statement of use	4.5	9.6	2.9	10.5	17.3	12.5	7.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Links btwn sources	20.5	10.1	0.0	4.2	0.0	0.0	8.0	0.0	1.2	13.8	0.0	5.3
Comparison/sources	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.2	2.0	1.2	5.1	0.0	10.5
Exemplification	9.1	12.2	1.0	2.1	0.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	6.9	0.0	0.0
Further reference	6.7	5.3	2.9	15.8	1.9	16.0	9.8	2.0	3.7	24.1	0.0	0.0
Evaluation	4.8	0.8	1.0	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	3.5	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

conventions they are exposed to through their reading and training in academic writing in English. This model is not frequent in the *CMF* sub-corpus as the Czech national discourse community shows a preference towards patterns of interaction marked by symbiosis and avoidance of tension (Čmejrková & Daneš, 1997). Under the influence of globalisation of academia, however, the Czech Linguistics community is undergoing substantial changes in order to accommodate to the new challenges of intercultural communication (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2014).

The high prominence of citations attributing ideas, activities or concepts to cited authors in all sub-corpora is related to their potential to relate the writer's work to the existing literature produced by the disciplinary community and to indicate the orientation of the writer to a particular ethos (cf. Hyland 2000, p. 37). The occurrence of "clusters" of non-integral attribution citations (Fløttum, 2009; Fløttum, et al., 2006) to refer to a group of publications treating the same subject or belonging to the same tradition is prominent especially in reviews of previous research in the *AL* sub-corpus (Example (10)) and less frequent in the *CMF* and the *DI* sub-corpora due to a lower incidence of non-integral forms and a rare occurrence of reviews of previous research in the *CMF* sub-corpus (cf. Šinkūnienė, 2017, for clustering at one reference point in English and Lithuanian Linguistics RAs).

(10)   *There are studies of DMs which deal with individual markers in English (Svartvik 1980; Östman 1981; Schiffrin 1986; Aijmer 1987; Watts 1987; Andersen 1998; Stenström 1998) and small sets of English DMs (Schourup 1985; Erman 1987; Schiffrin 1987; Aijmer 1996, 2002).*   (AL8)

When using integral attribution citations in *Introductions*, both Anglophone and Czech linguists frequently opt for grammatical structures placing the cited author

in thematic position as the subject of the clause. Thus, they convey high author visibility by indicating the cited author as the source of knowledge or opinion expressed (cf. Gosden, 1993) and, probably, abide by politeness considerations by paying homage or giving credit to those they cite (cf. Myers, 1989). Similarly to the *AL* corpus, in the *CMF* sub-corpus integral attribution citations typically take the form of a summary allowing the writers to interpret the imported messages and to ascribe a view to the cited author by the choice of a reporting verb (Example (11)); in the *DI* sub-corpus, however, there is a significant incidence of direct quotes, which gives additional prominence to the voice of the cited author (Example (12)) which, as mentioned above, may be used as a support for stated views and claims and, at the same time, may reflect a lack of confidence to paraphrase the original English quote.

(11) *Faktory AČV navrhl Firbas (1992) v rámci své koncepce funkční větné perspektivy.*
      [Firbas (1992) proposed the factors influencing theme-rheme articulation within
      his functional sentence perspective theory.]   (CMF7)

(12) *Halliday and Hasan treat [lexical cohesion] as "selecting the same lexical item*
      twice, or selecting two that are closely related" (1976: 12).   (DI4)

While Czech linguists typically use attribution citations to display awareness of prior research, Anglophone writers tend to use them more argumentatively, as in Example (13) where reference to previous research is used to indicate a gap in knowledge, thus emphasising the novelty and relevance of the writer's work.

(13) *To our knowledge, only one previous study has investigated the use of multi-word*
      units in university lectures: the study by DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988; see also
      Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992) on 'lexical phrases'.   (AL5)

The occurrence of links between sources (Example (14)) and further reference citations (Example (15)) in literature reviews is higher in the *AL* sub-corpus than in the *DI* sub-corpus indicating that Anglophone writers invest greater rhetorical effort to create a wide discursive framework for substantiating their arguments and convincing their readers of the validity of their claims. These functions are rather scarce in the *CMF* sub-corpus due to the less frequent presence of the reviewing previous research move and the preference towards reliance on specific well-established analytical frameworks which provide credibility to the writer's work.

(14) *Moon (1998a: 181) finds the literal meanings of such phrases are always rarer*
      than the idiomatic interpretation, while Cowie, Mackin, and McCaig (1993: xiii)
      go so far as to claim that the literal senses of expressions such as beat one's breast
      and burn one's boats *'do not survive alongside their figurative ones in normal,*
      everyday use'.   (AL6)

(15)   *As mentioned above, the research into FSP has proved that the theory works at different levels of text units, whether lower or higher (for further details on the hierarchy of units in FSP, see Svoboda 1968 and Firbas 1992: 16ff).*   (DI1)

The function of exemplification is the most prominent in the *Introduction* sections of the *DI* sub-corpus (see Table 5). Example (16) below illustrates a multifunctional citation, as the writer not only relates a general trend to the view of a particular author, but also expresses disagreement with the view of the cited author, i.e. the evaluation function, which serves as a basis for the build-up of the writer's argumentation.

(16)   *Scollon (1998), for example, not only refutes the sender/receiver model but also claims that it is virtually impossible to define the so-called 'implied reader'.*
                                                                            (DI5)

As Table 5 indicates, the distribution of citation functions in the *DI* sub-corpus outside the *Introduction* section shows more similarities with the range and proportional representation of rhetorical functions of citations in the *CMF* sub-corpus than with the *AL* sub-corpus. While Anglophone linguists use various citation functions in the *Methods*, *Results* and *Discussion* sections of their RAs, in the *DI* and *CMF* sub-corpora the spectrum of rhetorical functions diminishes considerably.

Although the rhetorical functions of attribution of methods, approaches or procedures and statement of use occur in *Introductions* in all sub-corpora, these two citation functions logically peak in the *Methods* section where the writers strive to demonstrate the relevance and reliability of the adopted methods and procedures. In the *Methods* section, the most prominent rhetorical functions of citations in the three sub-corpora are attribution of ideas, actions and concepts, attribution of methods and approaches and statement of use. While these are practically the only functions used in the *DI* sub-corpus, in the *AL* and *CMF* sub-corpora there is also a significant proportion of further reference citations. If the *Methods* sections in the three sub-corpora are contrasted along the slow-fast scale suggested by Swales and Freak (1994), i.e. to what extent they provide details and justify and exemplify procedures, it is evident that they often differ. As is typical of soft sciences (cf. Bruce, 2008), the *Methods* sections in the *AL* sub-corpus tend to be slow; apart from describing the data sample, they outline the analytical procedure and use citations not only to attribute methods to other authors, but also to discuss limitations and provide evidence of procedural clarity, reliability and replicability (Example (17)). This motivates the use of the functions of links between sources, exemplification and evaluation available only in the *AL* sub-corpus. The *Methods* sections in the *CMF* and *DI* sub-corpora seem to be fairly fast; they are typically short and tend to draw on broad analytical frameworks (Example (18)), which are

often well-established and do not require extensive description as long as research follows standard procedures, which may explain the lower incidence of citations in this section in general.

(17)   *In order to measure participants' holistic/analytic cognitive styles, a French version of Riding's (1991) computer-based Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) was used. […] Both the content and the trait validity of the holistic/analytic part of the CSA have been well established (Douglas and Riding 1993; Riding and Read 1996).*   (AL1)

(18)   *The theoretical framework of the research is derived from the concept of genre analysis as elaborated in Swales (1990) and discourse analysis as defined in Brown and Yule (1983) and Carter (1997), since annual reports are conceived here as a distinct genre with their own purpose, form, content and conventions.*   (DI7)

The delimitation of the *Results* and *Discussion* sections in the RAs in the three sub-corpora is often problematic, as they are rarely explicitly labelled, very often conflated and most texts close with a final *Conclusion* section summarising and/ or evaluating the study (cf. Swales 1990, p. 173; Bruce, 2009). When reporting results, both Anglophone and Czech linguists provide explanation, evaluation and justification of their findings by creating interconnections with previous and parallel research via attribution of ideas, actions and concepts citations. The main difference between the three sub-corpora lies in the range of rhetorical functions. Anglophone authors use several citation functions, such as comparison of one's findings with other sources, links between sources and further reference, to indicate that previous research supports their findings, to evaluate the contribution of the study, indicate its limitations, suggest applications and to situate their results in the broader context of the field (cf. Samraj, 2013). Thus, in Example (19) the author points out some limitations of the category applied in the analysis and uses a citation as a hedge to indicate that stability of social categories is generally problematic, while in Example (20) citation is used to refer to previous work which is evaluated negatively in terms of the difficulties it causes when applied in the teaching and learning process.

(19)   *Many of the categories routinely used in survey research, policy evaluations and monitoring practices are less stable than they may seem at first sight (Sealey and Carter 2001; Carter and Sealey in press).*   (AL9)

(20)   *While it can be argued that the previous 'blurred boundaries' between idioms and non-idioms have advantages in terms of allowing the inclusion of a wide range of fixed expressions (McCarthy 1998), we believe that the disadvantage is that it results in an overwhelmingly large group of MWUs for the 12 language teachers and learners to deal with.*   (AL6)

In the *DI* sub-corpus, over 90 percent of the citations in the *Results* section and all citations in the *Discussion* section convey the function of attribution of ideas, actions and concepts. This indicates that when writing in English, Czech linguists tend to produce less argumentative texts in which they often confine the *Discussion/ Conclusion* section to a summary of the study and allow the research results "to speak for themselves", which seems to result in a low incidence of some rhetorical moves and of citations. Although this approach may be related to the tendency towards establishing authority and convincing the reader through the presentation of disciplinary knowledge typical of the Czech academic community, it is questionable whether it would prove persuasive enough in an international context, where successfully published researchers tend to "seize opportunities to validate and defend their findings" (Swales, 2004, p. 226). Thus, the difference between the Czech and the Anglophone rhetorical conventions may be seen as one of the major challenges faced by Czech authors when striving to address the international Linguistics community. Other factors motivating the lower level of argumentativeness in the *Results* and *Discussion* sections in the *DI* sub-corpus might be the difference in the expertise of writers in publishing in English in an international context (none of the authors of articles included in the *DI* sub-corpus have published in an international high-impact journal), as well as the use of English as an international language, as writing in a foreign language is likely to influence the mode of expression and the rhetorical strategies used in academic texts (cf. Flowerdew, 2008). The relevance of these factors seems to be supported by the fact that in their Czech-medium articles Czech linguists more frequently use citations for comparing their findings with other sources

Overall, there are clear differences in the frequency of use and distribution of citation functions across the rhetorical moves of RAs in the three contexts of publication. As the findings of this contrastive analysis indicate, in the *Introduction* sections of their English-medium RAs Czech linguists exhibit the same range of citation functions as their Anglophone counterparts; in the remaining sections of the articles, however, the range of functions they use is limited and even narrower than that in the *CMF* sub-corpus. It seems then that when writing in English, Czech scholars invest a considerable rhetorical effort to convince the readers of the relevance and originality of their research, but otherwise they rely on the authority of established methods and detailed description of results.

5.   Conclusion

Citation practices are intrinsically linked to the epistemological and literacy conventions of academic communities in which scholars are formed as "cultures make available certain taken-for-granted ways of organizing our understandings" (Hyland, 2009, p. 126). This investigation endeavoured to reveal how the social interaction patterns of the Czech and Anglophone Linguistics communities shape the citation practices of Czech and Anglophone linguists and to explore to what extent the existing similarities and divergences have influenced citation choices in English-medium texts by Czech linguists which address primarily the national Linguistics community but are also accessible to a potentially multiple audience, although this multiple audience does not coincide with the readership of international high impact journals.

The findings of the contrastive analysis indicate that despite some similarities there is a considerable difference in the way Anglophone and Czech linguists exploit the potential of explicit intertextuality to enhance academic persuasion. The existing divergences may be explained by the various target audiences, the different epistemological and cultural traditions the writers come from and, in the case of the English-medium texts of Czech linguists, by the use of English as an academic lingua franca. Anglophone linguists who address a highly heterogeneous international audience abide by the reader-oriented character of Anglophone academic discourse in which convincing argumentation is associated with negotiation of meaning and extensive contextualisation of current work in prior and parallel research; this motivates the occurrence of numerous citations conveying a wide scope of rhetorical functions across all sections of RAs.

When addressing the national audience in their Czech-medium texts, Czech linguists tend to convey credibility and authority through the presentation of disciplinary knowledge, detailed description of results and reliance on traditional topics and approaches shared by their readers. As a result, Czech linguists create fewer intertextual links and only occasionally convey some of the rhetorically more complex or peripheral functions of citations. In their English-medium RAs Czech linguists address a multiple readership and thus the way they use citations reflects a kind of compromise between the rhetorical conventions of the Czech and the Anglophone Linguistics communities. Firstly, English-medium RAs by Czech linguists generally show a higher rate of citations than Czech-medium articles. Secondly, most likely as a result of their exposure to Anglophone academic discourse, Czech scholars writing in English invest a significant rhetorical effort to promote their work in *Introduction* sections by indicating its relevance and importance in connection to previous disciplinary knowledge. In the remaining sections of RAs, however, the

range of citation functions occurring in English-medium articles by Czech linguists is similar to the tendencies observed in Czech-medium texts. Of course, the results of this investigation cannot be overgeneralised, as they are based on a small sample of texts representing only three journals. Yet, I believe, they have shed some light on the rhetorical choices Czech linguists make when interacting with multiple audiences in two languages.

The use of mixed rhetorical conventions can thus be regarded as emblematic of the English-medium discourse of non-Anglophone scholars (cf. Burgess, 2002; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2015; Lorés-Sanz, 2011a, 2011b). This entails that mastering the rhetorical conventions of the dominant Anglophone academic discourse can be seen as a challenge for non-Anglophone authors who strive to create argumentative texts that the members of the international academic community would find convincing. In the case of citation practices, it is the frequency of use and the range of complex rhetorical functions of citations, especially in the *Results* and *Discussion* sections of RAs that are likely to represent a major difficulty for non-Anglophone authors. The question which remains to be answered is to what extent divergence from Anglophone discourse conventions continues to be regarded as a handicap restricting the access of multilingual scholars to publication opportunities (cf. Bennett, 2014; Flowerdew, 2008). It seems, though, given the growing body of internationally published research by multilingual scholars, that diversity is increasingly seen as enriching rather than corrupting the academic English lingua franca.

Acknowledgement

References

Bazerman, C., Little, J., Bethel, L., Chavkin, T., Fouquette D., & Garufis. J. (2005). *Reference guide to writing across the curriculum*. West Lafayette, IN: Parlor Press.

Bennett, K. (Ed.). (2014). *The semiperiphery of academic writing*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137351197

Bhatia, V. A. (1993). *Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings*. London: Longman.

Bloch, J., & Chi L. (1995). A comparison of the use of citations in Chinese and English academic discourse. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy* (pp. 231–274). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Bruce, I. (2008). Cognitive genre structures in Methods sections of research articles: A corpus study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7(1), 38–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.12.001

Bruce, I. (2009). Results sections in sociology and organic chemistry articles: A genre analysis. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 105–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2008.12.005

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: Audience and rhetorical strategies. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–225). London: Longman.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *A geopolitics of academic writing*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt5hjn6c

Čmejrková, S., & Daneš, F. (1997). Academic writing and cultural identity: The case of Czech academic writing. In A. Duzsak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 40–62). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.41

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(4), 291–304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.003

Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2014). The changing face of Czech academic discourse. In K. Bennett (Ed.), *The semiperiphery of academic writing*. (pp. 39–61). Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137351197_3

Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2015). Cross-cultural variation in citation practices: A comparative analysis of citations in Czech English-medium and international English-medium linguistics journals. In R. Plo Alastrué & C. Pérez-Llantada (Eds.), *English as a scientific and research language: Debates and discourses*. (pp. 185–205). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614516378-011

Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2016). Rhetorical functions of citations in linguistics research articles: A contrastive (Czech-English) study. *Discourse and Interaction*, 9(2), 51–74. https://doi.org/10.5817/DI2016-2-51

Duszak, A. (1997). Cross-cultural academic communication: A discourse community view. In A. Duzsak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse*. (pp. 11–39). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.11

Fløttum, K. (2009). Academic voices in the research article. In E. Suomela-Salmi & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Cross-cultural linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives on academic discourse*. (pp. 109–122). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.193.07flo

Fløttum, K., Dahl, T., & Kinn, T. (2006). *Academic voices: Across languages and disciplines*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.148

Flowerdew, J. (2008). Scholarly writers who use English as an Additional Language: What can Goffman's "Stigma" tell us? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 77–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.03.002

Gosden, H. (1993). Discourse functions of subject in scientific research articles. *Applied Linguistics*, 14, 56–75. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/14.1.56

Harwood, N. (2009). An interview-based study of the functions of citations in academic writing across two disciplines. *Journal of Pragmatics* 41(3), 497–518. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.06.001

Hu, G., & Wang, G. (2014). Disciplinary and ethnolinguistic influences on citation in research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 14, 14–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.11.001

Hyland, K. (1999). Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied Linguistics* 20(3), 341–367. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/20.3.341

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Hyland, K. (2008). Persuasion, interaction and the construction of knowledge: Representing self and others in research writing. *IJES* 8(2), 1–23.

Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic discourse: English in a global context*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2012). *Disciplinary identities: Individuality and community in academic discourse*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kuteeva, S. & A. Mauranen. (2014). Writing for publication in multilingual contexts: An introduction to the special issue. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 13, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.11.002

Lillis, T, Hewings, A., Vladimirou, D., & Curry M. J. (2010). The geolinguistics of English as an academic lingua franca: Citation practices across English medium national and English medium international journals. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), 111–135. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00233.x

Lin, C., Chen, Y., & Chang, C. (2013). Citation functions in social sciences and humanities. *ASIST 2013*, November 1–6, Montreal, Québec, Canada.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011a). The construction of the author's voice in academic writing: The interplay of cultural and disciplinary factors. *Text and Talk*, 31, 173–193. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2011.008

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011b). The study of authorial voice: Using a Spanish–English corpus to explore linguistic transference. *Corpora*, 6(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2011.0002

Mansourizadeh K., & Ahmad, U. K. (2011). Citation practices among nonnative expert and novice scientific writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 152–161. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.03.004

Moravcsik, M. J., & Murugesan, P. (1975). Some results on the function and quality of citations. *Social Studies of Science*, 5(1), 86–92. https://doi.org/10.1177/030631277500500106

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2009). Citation in business management research articles. In E. Suomela-Salmi & F. Dervin. (Eds.), *Cross-cultural linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 49–60). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.193.04mur

Myers, G. (1989). The pragmatics of politeness in scientific articles. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(1), 1–35. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/10.1.1

Petersen, M., & Shaw, P. (2002). Language and disciplinary differences in a biliterate context. *World Englishes*, 21(3), 357–374. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-971X.00255

Petrić, B. (2007). Rhetorical function of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6, 238–253. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.09.002

Petrić, B., & N. Harwood. (2013). Task requirements, task representation, and self-reported citation functions: An exploratory study of a successful L2 student's writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12, 110–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.01.002

Ruyjing, Y., & Allison, D. (2003). Research articles in applied linguistics: Moving from results to conclusions. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22, 365–385. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(02)00026-1

Samraj, B. (2013). Form and function of citations in discussion sections of master's theses and research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12, 299–310. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.09.001

Shaw, P. (2003). Evaluation and promotion across languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00050-X

Shaw, P., & Pecorari, D. (2013). Source use in academic writing: An introduction to the special issue. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12, A1–A3. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.001

Šinkūnienė, J. (2017). Citations in research writing. The interplay of discipline, culture and expertise. In T. Egan & H. Dirdal (Eds.), *Cross-linguistic correspondences. From lexis to genre*. (pp. 253–270). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/slcs.191.10sin

Swales, J. (1986). Citation analysis and discourse analysis. *Applied Linguistics*, 7, 39–56. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/7.1.39

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. (2004). *Research genres*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524827

Swales, J., & Feak, C. (1994). *Avademic writing for graduate students*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Thompson, G., & Ye, Y. (1991). Evaluation in reporting verbs used in academic papers. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(4), 356–382. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/12.4.365

Thompson, P. (2005). Points of focus and position: Intertextual reference in PhD theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4, 307–323. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2005.07.006

Thompson, P. & Tribble, C. (2001). Looking at citations: Using corpora in English for Academic Purposes. *Language Learning & Technology*, 5(3), 91–105.

White, H. (2004). Citation analysis and discourse analysis revisited. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(1), 89–116. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.1.89

How to internationalise and empower academic research?

The role of language and academic conventions in Linguistics

Jūratė Ruzaitė and Rūta Petrauskaitė

Vytautas Magnus University

The current chapter accounts for the trends of internationalisation in research papers in Linguistics with a primary focus on academic conventions in articles published in a national journal in various languages (including Lithuanian and English) as compared to those published in a well-established international journal (solely in English). The trends of internationalisation are assessed with regard to the overall journal structure, publication languages, the degree of transnational cooperation, and the rhetorical structure of the papers. Based on the results, it is argued that in the field of Linguistics it is not so much the language that predetermines differences in the two journals, but the academic conventions that differ across cultures and publishing houses.

Keywords: research articles in Linguistics, internationalisation, publication language, transnational cooperation, rhetorical structure, academic conventions

1. Introduction

Internationalisation of research has been an important issue of EU policies since long; however, the most important milestone was the Bologna Declaration signed in 1999. The Declaration was a strong push not only towards the European Higher Education Area, but also towards internationalisation of research with a goal of a common European research area created for the sake of strengthening research excellence across Europe. Internationalisation of research reached a new phase together with the enlargement of the EU in 2004, which boosted creation of research networks and manifested itself in the indicators of both the process of internationalisation of research and its output (Teichler, 2009). Mobility of researchers, joint projects, shared research infrastructures, and/or data archives enable academicians

to produce more diverse research output, the most common of which is peer reviewed research articles (RAs). National research policies therefore were adjusted regarding the internationalisation of research publications by introducing new quality standards. As a result, academic careers of researchers, their academic rewards, and institutional ratings are now based on publications in international peer reviewed journals very commonly published in English, which has become strongly established as the most common lingua franca of scholarly exchange in recent years. The often-cited slogan "Publish in English or perish" reflects well the main line of current research policies.

Promotion of English as the main language of publication was not the only trend of national research policies. The composition of editorial boards of nationally published scientific journals was changed to include more than half of researchers affiliated in foreign research institutions. The newly adopted academic practices now encourage international co-authorships (understood here as authorship with colleagues from other countries) and inclusion of national scientific journals into internationally approved research databases (e.g. MLA and EBSCO). To enhance internationalisation of research, it has become a common practice in many countries, including Lithuania, to invite scientists from abroad to submit their manuscripts in any language they choose. However, English as a lingua franca (ELF) has been used perhaps most extensively.

Despite some possible challenges posed by ELF use, Social Sciences and Humanities (SSH) journals published in Lithuania actively promote any multilingual publications, but English as a language of publication is promoted most strongly. As Dagienė, Petrauskaitė, and Sandström's (2017) research on language policies of Lithuanian SSH journals in 2016 shows, only 10% of journals stick to the Lithuanian language; journals published exclusively in a foreign language, usually English, make up more than 30%. The remaining journals are either bilingual (with Lithuanian and English as their publication languages) or multilingual (including English, German, French, Russian, Italian, and Latvian). Potential authors are invited by editors to publish in any European language provided they write abstracts in Lithuanian and English. Nevertheless, the multilingual approach welcomed by editorial boards in most cases boils down to the predominance of English that opens national journals for wider international audiences and allows them to get into international databases. In general, the Lithuanian academic reward system and publication practices favour international publication similarly to other European countries such as Spain, as reported by Pérez-Llantada (2012).

The impact of research is yet another factor that involves language issues. Academic impact, usually understood in the bibliometric sense as an impact factor or citation index, is measured by the publications in English registered in the dominant bibliometric databases. The so-called societal impact in the wider sense

of knowledge transfer and public engagement, including the impact on policy, economics, and culture, is more difficult to measure. However, it is obvious that the societal impact of SSH increases together with a greater variation of publication formats and publication languages facilitating dissemination of scientific knowledge among both academic peer-colleagues and lay people.

Authors that conduct intercultural rhetoric analysis and compare how scholars with Anglophone and non-Anglophone backgrounds adopt internationally accepted rhetorical conventions refer to two major tendencies, i.e. nativisation and hybridisation of research output published in English (Bennet, 2014; Mauranen, 2004, p. 126; cf. Pérez-Llantada, 2012). The basic assumption underlying intercultural rhetoric related to ELF is interdependence between a language and its academic conventions, which predetermines the adoption of discourse conventions together with the language. In other words, non-Anglophone writers are expected to nativise their texts, i.e. follow Anglophone patterns of academic genres. Any deviation from the standard is considered to produce a hybrid research output. However, more and more voices are claiming for acceptability of "interdiscursive hybridity" (Mauranen, Pérez-Llantada, & Swales, 2010) and promote "transrhetorical tolerance" (cf. Ferguson, 2005, p. 81).

A litmus paper and a major criterion for telling a standard Anglophone discourse from non-standard is the native language of its authors. Therefore, most research focusing on English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is based on the comparison between academic texts produced by native and non-native speakers. It usually results in the detection of differences in lexicogrammatical, rhetorical and textual patterns, or differences mainly on the micro-level. Researchers in such studies often note that non-English speakers tend to import their native discourse patterns into their English texts. They also emphasise the importance to master linguistic skills that would enable scholars to "go native" and to adhere to the principles and specific textual and rhetoric practices of native speakers. Thus, so far, ESP and EAP research has concentrated primarily on the micro-level, and research on the macro-level structures and forms of information organisation has been less extensive.

A comprehensive overview of rhetorical macro-level models is provided by Pérez-Llantada (2012). By referring to Gross (1990), she distinguishes the main types of RAs, which include "theoretical (or deductive) articles that provide a series of deductions [and where] the conclusions imply verification of previous observations" and "experimental (or inductive) articles … leading to a general statement about natural kinds" (Gross, 1990, as cited in Pérez-Llantada, 2012, p. 55). These two broad categories are further elaborated into three typical present-day macro-level rhetorical models and their structural components. Pérez-Llantada (2012, pp. 55–57) presents and briefly describes the following text structuring models:

a. the argumentative essay consisting of an introduction, body and conclusions, which is characteristic of interdisciplinary fields dealing with theoretical and abstract knowledge (Humanities fields, Theoretical Linguistics, Art, or History);
b. the IMRaD structure (Introduction, Materials/Methods, Results and Discussion), which is the prototypical organisational structure in experimental sciences;
c. the problem-solution pattern, which prevails in applied fields and includes an introductory background, the statement of purpose, and the solution provided and evaluated by the authors.

All these rhetorical patterns are widely accepted and thus predetermine readers' expectations by creating international and interdisciplinary norms of academic discourse, which in turn "provide the audience with a better-organised flow of ideas which can be more quickly assimilated" (ibid., p. 57).

Non-native English speakers are clearly faced with discursive challenges when preparing research publications. To empower non-native authors in the publication process, it is necessary to consider different aspects of academic literacies (rather than linguistic literacies only). The hybridisation of Anglophone discourse at the micro-level is assumed to reflect reality and has become acceptable to a certain extent, which indicates a relatively high translingual tolerance (Ferguson, 2005, p. 81).

In this paper, we take the stance that to ensure successful dissemination of ideas, it is important to adopt the conventions of the rhetorical organisation of RAs, as they form an important part of the broader concept of "academic literacies" (Lillis & Tuck, 2016), or "the discursive task" (Kwan, 2010; Lea & Stierer, 2011; cf. Lillis & Rai, 2011). Publications in English that do not adhere to the conventional norms of international academic discourse can be expected to have less academic impact. Nevertheless, the prevailing linguistically oriented EAP and ESP research as well as popular views on the exclusive importance of ELF for the internationalisation of research leave some unanswered research questions pertaining to the domineering rhetorical structure of academic writings.

The aim of this study is thus to assess the trends of internationalisation in Linguistics journals with a primary focus on academic conventions in articles published in Lithuania as compared to those published in a well-established international journal. The main questions raised in the current chapter are as follows:

a. What are the sections in the journals, and what do they show about the prevailing macro-level rhetorical models in the academic community?
b. What are the publication languages, or the language-scape, in the Lithuanian Linguistics journal, *Baltistica*? What does it show about the penetration of English as a lingua franca into Lithuanian journals?

c. What do co-authored RAs in the two journals show about the degree of transnational cooperation?

d. What is the conventional rhetorical structure of nationally published RAs in English and Lithuanian in the area of Linguistics?

This study goes beyond linguistic analysis (or the micro-level) and focuses on the overall structure of the journals and the overall structure of RAs (or the macro-level). The analysis of journal structure and publication languages relies primarily on the quantitative approach, and the macro-structure of RAs is approached from the qualitative perspective. Transnational cooperation is evaluated by considering the extent of co-authorship. In this chapter, it is not so important whether the authors are native or non-native English speakers, since our focus is not on the contrast native/non-native but on the texts as instances of international English (ELF), following the definition of ELF as English used as a language of communication by those who do not share an L1, thus integrating both native and non-native users.

2. Data

The data for the present study has been obtained from two journals. *Journal of English Linguistics* (*JEngL*; <http://journals.sagepub.com/home/eng>) is a highly ranked international journal published by SAGE in English only. The Lithuanian journal *Baltistica* (*Balt*; <http://www.baltistica.lt/>) is published by Vilnius University; it publishes papers in Baltic Linguistics written by national and international authors in Lithuanian and other languages. The datasets from the two journals include all the papers published in a five-year period from 2012 to 2016. The Lithuanian database contains 120 texts (10 issues), and the database of *JEngL* includes 104 texts (20 issues).

Balt is issued twice per year; it is multilingual in the sense that it publishes articles in several languages: Lithuanian, English, German, Latvian, and Russian. It represents the traditional trend of Lithuanian/Baltic research and primarily focuses on historical and traditional research methods. The journal gives preference to historical, comparative, and typological research on Baltic languages and their dialects, questions related to the connections between Baltic languages and other languages, and historiography of Baltic linguistics. *Balt* publishes scientific discussions of Baltic linguists, reviews of the newest books on Baltic linguistics, and information on Baltic linguistic research all over the world. Since 2006, the journal has focused more attention on synchronic research of modern Baltic languages, including experimental, comparative and applied works.

JEngL is issued 4 times per year and publishes original linguistic research based on data drawn from the English language, encompassing a broad theoretical and methodological scope. With the aim to highlight theoretically and technologically innovative scholarship, this journal publishes in-depth research in a variety of areas, such as history of English, English grammar, Corpus Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, and Dialectology. *JEngL* publishes both synchronic and diachronic studies on subjects from Old and Middle English to modern English. *JEngL* also includes articles dealing with such topics as language contact, pidgins and creoles, and stylistics if the primary focus in the article is the English language.

Hence, both journals publish papers on the modern and historical periods of the targeted languages and aim at foundational research on these languages. Both journals are available on-line, and both are peer-to-peer journals. They differ regarding language: *Balt* is a multilingual national journal, whereas *JEngL* is published in English only. They are also different in terms of the impact factor and thus formally have a different scholarly status (in Clarivate Analytics of 2017, the impact factor of *JEngL* in 2016 was 0.840, and *Balt* is not rated). *JEngl* is used in our research as a backdrop against which the Lithuanian data are interpreted.

3. Results

The trends of internationalisation and the use of Anglophone academic discourse are assessed here regarding (1) the macro-structure of the journals (Section 3.1.), and (2) the rhetorical structure of the RAs published in them (Section 3.2.).

3.1   Main features of the journals

In this section, we focus on the dominant features of *Balt* and *JEngL*. We consider here the following aspects: the sections that the two journals include, publication languages, or the language-scape, in the Lithuanian journal, and the extent of co-authorship in both journals as an indication of the degree of transnational cooperation.

3.1.1   *Journal sections*
In both journals, the dominating section is unsurprisingly the one which comprises RAs, and the second most numerous one is that of reviews (see Table 1; here and elsewhere, the quantitative analysis is based on all the issues over the five years). However, the proportions of these two categories differ rather dramatically in *Balt* and *JEngL*. In *JEngL*, approximately half of the texts are RAs (53.8%), and reviews

make up almost a third of the texts (27.0%). The remaining texts are editorials, interviews, and notes with professional advice. In *Balt*, in contrast, articles constitute almost 70% of all the texts, and reviews are a mere 13%. The section with information columns on important events is of a similar size (almost 12%). The remaining texts (*In Memoriam* and an editorial) make up only a small portion, as Table 1 shows.

As the proportions of different sections in *Balt* suggest, it prioritises facts and informational content, and gives limited attention to reflectivity and critical evaluation of the newest developments in the field. This journal adopts a relatively narrow approach to academic research not only within RAs per se (as will be argued later in this chapter), but also in terms of journal sections it represents best. The considerably lower number of such texts in *Balt* can be treated as an indication of less evaluative content in this journal. Academic writing is always evaluative, but, as Hyland (2004, 2009) stresses, book reviews are characterised by their exceptionally and explicitly evaluative nature; they always balance critique and praise of the book. Thus, reviews require authors to make judgements and critically engage with other researchers' ideas, to rhetorically negotiate agreement and disagreement, and thus are "a crucial site of disciplinary engagement" (Hyland, 2004, p. 41; cf. Tse & Hyland, 2006. A review therefore can be viewed as a sign of interdiscursivity and the existence of an active academic community.

The lower number of reviews in *Balt* could also be a sign of some dominant trends in the national research and science policy in Lithuania, which does not foster a greater variety of genres. For instance, reviews receive lower evaluation points by academic institutions than RAs. However, reviews of recently published works are of high academic value since they explore, describe, and evaluate the relevance of the newest research to the field, thus helping to update and map out the area. As a result, reviews help to develop research networks and an integrative approach to a research field.

Table 1. Sections in *Balt* and *JEngL*

Balt		*JEngL*	
Articles	82 (68.3%)	Articles	56 (53.8%)
Reviews	16 (13.3%)	Reviews	27 (26.0%)
Information on an event	14 (11.7%)	Editor's Note	12 (11.5%)
In Memoriam	7 (5.8%)	Interviews	5 (4.8%)
Editor's foreword	1 (0.8%)	In the Profession	4 (3.8%)
Total:	**120 (100%)**		**104 (100%)**

Editors' introductory notes are present in both journals, but in *JEngL* they occur systematically in every first issue of the year. In *Balt*, however, the editor's foreword was found in only one issue.

The genres that are published in *JEngL* but not in *Balt*, are interviews and the column "In the Profession", as can be seen in Table 1. Interviews in *JEngL* systematically appear in each December issue, which creates a commitment to sustain such a discursive nature of the journal. Interviews are structured as in-depth conversations with a leading scholar in the field of English Linguistics and focus both on the scholar's perspective on his/her own research and the field in general.

"In the Profession" column is yet another regular section in *JEngL*. It is devoted to professional issues in the field, which can be of interest to newer scholars in the field as well as to established experts. The column deals with some aspects related to typical academic practices, e.g. advice related to conference organisation.

The latter two genres contribute not only to the interactivity of the community, but also to the very maintenance of the community. They help to disseminate best practices and professional know-how, or academic literacies in the broad sense. They are oriented to the continuity and consolidation of professional practices, as well as inheritance of shared knowledge. In general, interviews, reviews, and professional information are part of the participatory mechanism, to use Swales' (1990) term, used for information exchange, which further helps to establish and maintain a community and increase coherence within it. By adopting such genres, scholarly journals contribute to the strengthening of the community not only via ELF, but also through the discursive nature of these genres.

3.1.2   *Language-scape in* Baltistica

The research question related to the use of language in RAs focuses on the penetration of English as a lingua franca into Lithuanian journals. It is also questioned here whether English arrives in national journals together with academic discourse traditions typical of English-speaking countries or whether it is used as a tool of communication that is not fused with text structuring and rhetorical patterns of English. Since in *JEngL* RAs are invariably published in English, only *Balt* is considered in this section.

In *Balt*, the total number of texts written in English is slightly lower than those in Lithuanian (40% and 48.3% respectively), as Table 2 shows. However, the number of RAs in the two languages is almost identical (30.8% and 30% respectively). Such an equal distribution could be anticipated in view of the globalising academic market. An important finding that emerged in this study is that almost all papers in English were written by non-Lithuanian authors. Only one article was published in English by a Lithuanian author. The remaining 36 papers were authored by researchers who affiliate themselves with non-Lithuanian institutions.

Table 2. Distribution of languages in *Baltistica*

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	Total
Lithuanian						
Articles	9 (28.1%)	10 (35.7%)	7 (26.9%)	7 (38.8%)	3 (18.8%)	**36 (30%)**
Reviews	2 (6.3%)	0	1 (3.9%)	3 (16.7%)	1 (6.3%)	**7 (5.8%)**
In Memoriam	3 (9.3%)	0	0	1 (5.6%)	2 (12.5%)	**6 (5%)**
Info on an event	2 (6.3%)	5 (17.9%)	2 (7.8%)	0	0	**9 (7.5%)**
Total:	**16 (50%)***	**15 (53.6%)**	**10 (38.6%)**	**11 (61.1%)**	**6 (40%)**	**58 (48.3%)**
English						
Articles	9 (28.1%)	9 (32.1%)	8 (30.8%)	4 (22.2%)	7 (43.8%)	**37 (30.8%)**
Reviews	2 (6.3%)	1 (3.6%)	0	1 (5.6%)	1 (6.3%)	**5 (4.2%)**
In Memoriam	0	0	0	0	1 (6.3%)	**1 (0.8%)**
Info on an event	0	0	4 (15.4%)	1 (5.6%)	0	**5 (4.2%)**
Total:	**11 (34.4%)**	**10 (36%)**	**12 (46.2%)**	**6 (33.4%)**	**9 (56.3%)**	**48 (40%)**
German						
Articles	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Reviews	1 (3.1%)	1 (3.6%)	1 (3.9%)	0	0	**3 (2.5%)**
In Memoriam	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Info on an event	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Total:	**1 (3.1%)**	**1 (3.6%)**	**1 (3.9%)**	**0**	**0**	**3 (2.5%)**
Latvian						
Articles	2 (6.3%)	2 (7.2%)	3 (12%)	1 (5.6%)	0	**8 (6.7%)**
Reviews	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
In Memoriam	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Info on an event	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Total:	**2 (6.3%)**	**2 (7.2%)**	**3 (11.5%)**	**1 (5.6%)**	**0**	**8 (6.7%)**
Russian						
Articles	1 (3.1%)	0	0	0	0	**1 (0.8%)**
Reviews	1 (3.1%)	0	0	0	0	**1 (0.8%)**
In Memoriam	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Info on an event	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Total:	**2 (6.3%)**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**2 (1.6%)**
Lithuanian and English						
Editor's foreword	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	1 (6.3%)	**1(0.8%)**
Grand total:	**32 (100%)**	**28 (100%)**	**26 (100%)**	**18 (100%)**	**16 (100%)**	**120 (100%)**

The third most frequent language used in *Balt* is Latvian (8 articles, or 6.7%), which is significantly lower than the use of Lithuanian or English. German and Russian are employed even less extensively (2.5% and 1.6% respectively).

As for language use in different genres, English is primarily used for RAs; "In Memoriam" columns, meanwhile, are almost exclusively written in Lithuanian, which localises the news in a rather narrow context. This might be because the scholars commemorated in these columns are of Lithuanian origin and thus are treated as scholarly authorities at the national level only.

Information on important events is published in Lithuanian and English, but Lithuanian texts are almost twice as frequent as those in English. This tendency might indicate that the academic market of Baltic research is still more local than global and that academic knowledge in this area is produced and disseminated mainly nationally.

3.1.3   *Transnational cooperation and co-authorship*

It is often argued that the global academic community has become and is still developing as a transnational and plurilingual research community. Therefore, in this research it was important to consider not only the level of plurilingualism (discussed above in relation to the language-scape in *Balt*), but also the extent of transnationalism manifested in the two journals. As was mentioned in the introduction, these practices are promoted by research and evaluation bodies and policies.

In the current study, transnational cooperation as a sign of internationalisation was mainly assessed by considering the criterion of co-authorship. In *Balt*, there is only one paper written by co-authors with affiliations in different countries; it is a column on an important anniversary and how it was marked (Year 2013, Issue 48/1). This is the only instance where a Lithuanian scholar co-authors a text with a non-Lithuanian researcher with affiliation in a country other than Lithuania. Non-Lithuanian authors, in contrast, tend to co-author their texts considerably more frequently. In total, in *Balt* there are 38 texts with co-authors from different countries.

The picture that emerges from the results is that the adoption of ELF does not correlate with transnational cooperation of Lithuanian researchers. Even if Lithuanian authors write their RAs in English, they do not co-author their papers with colleagues from other countries. The articles in English and those in Lithuanian remind of two distinct communities belonging to different geographical areas and using a different language. They are so clearly delineated by the language that it is difficult to believe that in practice they actively collaborate.

In our research, the institutional affiliations of authors in the two journals were used as a tentative indication of how global the research community is. The non-Lithuanian authors in *Balt*, most of whom have contributed more than one text, have affiliation in Latvia (4 authors), the Netherlands (2 authors), Italy (2 authors), Poland (2 authors), Austria, Slovakia, the US, France, the Czech Republic, and Germany. Thus, most authors belong to European institutions.

In *JEngL*, transnational cooperation is more extensive though the number of articles co-authored by researchers affiliating in different countries is not very large. Interestingly, in each issue of *JEngL* there is one paper of this type (10 articles in total). 6 of these articles are co-authored by two researchers (UK + USA; UK + Switzerland; Germany + Netherlands; USA + China; USA + Finland; Germany + Belgium); 2 papers are co-authored by 3 researchers (Australia (2 authors) + Philippines; China + South Africa + Belgium); and 1 paper is co-authored by 8 scholars (UK (7 authors) + USA (1 author)).

In general, *JEngL* is more international in terms of the countries that the authors affiliate in; see Table 3, where authors' affiliations are represented by continent, except the UK, which was represented separately from Europe to indicate the extent of Anglophone publications. Table 3 represents the affiliation of all the texts except the editor's foreword and the RAs co-authored by scholars affiliating in different countries. The latter have been discussed separately as they represent transnational research teams.

Table 3. Countries of affiliation in *JEngL*

	Articles	Reviews	Interviews	In the Profession	Total
North America	17 (37%)	17 (63%)	3 (%)	2 (50%)	**39 (47.6%)**
Europe (non-UK)	19 (41.3%)	3 (8.1%)	1 (%)	1 (25%)	**24 (29.3%)**
UK	6 (13%)	4 (14.8%)	1 (%)	1 (25%)	**12 (14.6%)**
Asia	1 (2.2%)	2 (7.4%)	0	0	**3 (3.7%)**
Africa	2 (4.4%)	0	0	0	**2 (2.4%)**
Australia	1 (2.2%)	0	0	0	**1 (1.2%)**
South America	0	1 (3.7%)	0	0	**1 (1.2%)**
Total:	**46 (100%)**	**27 (100%)**	**5 (100%)**	**4 (100%)**	**82 (100%)**

Most of the texts were published by the North American authors (35 of which were published by US researchers, and 4 by Canadian linguists), which is in line with the recent research showing that the US is currently in the leading position in science development (Pérez-Llantada, 2012, p. 28). European authors from other countries than the UK are in the second position; unexpectedly, in terms of the number of RAs, they even outweigh the US and UK authors. Authors from the US clearly dominate in the review category (17 reviews, or 63%); they nearly have a monopoly in this genre. The results thus suggest that Anglophone countries might be at the forefront of publications in English Linguistics, but evidence from more journals is necessary to support this.

Having discussed potentially empowering academic literacies and internationalisation in terms of the journal structure, languages, and the extent of co-authorship, we now turn to the macro-structure of RAs.

3.2   The macro-structure of research articles

In this section, we focus on the overall structure of RAs by paying special attention to the Introduction, Conclusion, and Description of data and Methods, which are the sections that outline, ground, promote the research, and make it relevant. As has already been mentioned, most typically, RAs are developed by following the format called IMRaD, where each section has its own conventional role and expectations for its form and content: the Introduction; the Materials/Methods section; the Results section; and the Discussion (e.g. Swales & Feak, 1994). Swales (1990, 2004) further highlights the importance of the introductory sections and offers the create-a-research-space (CARS) framework, which incorporates three functional moves of establishing a territory, establishing a niche, and introducing the present work.

The present section discusses how RAs are structured in the two Linguistics journals by focusing on how much the IMRaD and CARS models are followed in them. These models are typical of empirical RAs, but not other types of RAs (argumentative essays and problem-solution patterns), as indicated in the introduction. Therefore, we focus on the IMRaD (Anglophone) structure in empirical RAs. We pay special attention to the Introduction, Methods section, and Concluding part in RAs as these three elements are of key importance when framing the prominence and status of the research.

3.2.1   *The overall structure of RAs*

In *Balt*, the overall structure of RAs is highly varied and is based on several structural schemes, not all of which conform to IMRaD or CARS. In this journal, articles contain (a) essay-type texts without any (sub)sections, (b) numbered sections (sometimes also subsections) without titles, but with a three-part structure (Introduction, Development, and Conclusion), (c) sections with titles and numbered subsections without titles, and (d) sections with titles following the IMRaD model. This contrasts greatly with *JEngL*, where conventional subdivisions with (sub)titles are a regularity. The absence of explicit headings for different sections often results in the absence of the moves that the headings would normally indicate.

In contrast to *JEngL*, not all articles in *Balt* start with an Introduction where relevance of the research would be explained. Even more, in the majority of articles, only a very short Conclusion is provided. As Hyland observes, "[s]electing a topic and arguing for its novelty and relevance is … critical in securing colleagues' interest and in displaying membership credentials" (2009, p. 70). The focus on novelty and relevance is closely intertwined with marketisation, a promotion of oneself and one's research (ibid.; cf. Fairclough, 1995).

In addition, in many RAs in *Balt*, the literature review is missing, whereas in *JEngL* it is a well-established part of RAs. In terms of CARS model, the creation of research space in some articles in *Balt* thus remains incomplete. An RA without a review of previous research does not promote the value of the research that is being reported and does not highlight its originality (cf. Kwan, 2006), which consequently reduces the marketability of such an RA. In the Anglophone tradition, a literature review establishes the continuity of the author's research and previous investigations, provides an intricate network of research activities, and adds to the coherence of the research area. Though marketisation may not be as important in a national context where "local audiences" (Burgess, 2002) are targeted, a complete absence of contextualisation may reduce the audience to "the selected few".

The length of RAs is yet another general difference between the two journals. In *Balt*, some papers are very short two-page articles, which are more like notes on some important issues rather than a detailed report on an extensive research study. In *JEngL*, articles normally range from ten to twenty-five pages, but the longer ones clearly prevail. However, when classified in the same niche, short articles appear too abrupt and void of context. On the other hand, a small-scale paper provides a possibility for researchers to react promptly to the most recent developments in the disciplinary field. The close-knit community of researchers in Baltic research may be able to contextualise the short reports without the author's explicit presentation, but then such a paper has a strictly disciplinary audience.

It was initially expected that in *Balt* the RAs in English would conform more strictly to the Anglophone conventions in terms of macro-structure. However, only 14 RAs (or 17.2%) are structured in the typical IMRaD way.

3.2.2   *Introductions in RAs*

RA Introductions have generally received considerable attention from researchers (e.g. Ahmad, 1997; Cortes, 2013; Fredrickson & Swales, 1994; Loi, 2010; Martín & León Pérez, 2014; Samraj, 2002, to mention but a few), most of whom have considered the move of establishing niches. Some studies have shown that an explicit indication of a gap is absent in some languages such as Malay (Ahmad, 1997) and Swedish (Fredrickson & Swales, 1994). Researchers observe that the absence of such a move may appear as a hindrance if these scholars pursuing to publish their research in high-impact Anglophone journals, where explicit gap indication is a convention. Introductions have also been analysed by focusing on the promotional strategies, which include announcing principal outcomes and stating the value of current research.

In the current study, we examined how research aims are presented in the Introductory parts of RAs by evaluating their formulation regarding their (a) national

and international importance, and (b) theoretical and practical relevance. In a conventional high-quality article, the description of research aims can involve or lead to an impact statement; therefore, we expected that in this part authors of research papers might be most explicit about their expected impact within and beyond academia.

In *Balt*, the aims are predominantly of national importance, primarily of theoretical nature, and relevant mainly to the limited community of researchers working in the area of Baltic Linguistics. In some papers, methodological aspects are dealt with, but these are rarer instances. A typical example of how aims are presented in *Balt* is provided below:

(1) *This paper aims to point to two new instances of the postponed neuter pronoun -t(i) 'this' – instances overlooked earlier by Ostrowski (forthcoming). On the basis of new data I hope to strengthen the thesis that in Lithuanian there existed the enclitic pronoun -ti, which comes from the monophthongisation of the neuter pronoun -tai, i.e. *-tai > -tie > -ti > -t.* (Balt 49/2, 2014)

Structurally, this example does follow Anglophone conventions: it explicitly targets at filling in a gap in an on-going academic discussion, minimally contextualises the problem in the background of previous research, and hints at the disputable nature of the topic. However, the formulation of the aim is purely academic, rather narrow in scope, and does not sketch out the territory in greater detail. The author refers to his own work (a forthcoming study) without mentioning if there has been any other research on the issue.

The practical research relevance is mentioned in only a paucity of RAs; these are the few RAs that deal with language acquisition and language perception, as in Example (2).

(2) *Žmonių socialiniai ryšiai ir tarpusavio santykiai paremti emocijomis, todėl emocijos, jų raiška ir atpažinimas domina daugelio sričių mokslininkus, įdomūs jie ir plačiajai visuomenei. Deja, dėl požymių kompleksiškumo emocijas tirti nėra lengva. Sunku nustatyti, kiek tiksliai ir kokias emocijas gali reikšti ir atpažinti žmogus. Vis dėlto psichologai praktikai ir mokslininkai emocijas bando apibūdinti ir klasifikuoti, diskutuoja, kokiu kriterijumi remdamiesi, tai turėtų daryti.*

(Balt 51/1, 2016)

[People's social ties and interpersonal relationships are based on emotions; therefore, emotions, their expression and recognition interest not also scientists in many areas, but also the general public. Unfortunately, due to their complexity, emotions are not easy to investigate. It is difficult to determine how exactly and what emotions can be expressed and identified. Nevertheless, both practitioners and researchers are trying to describe and classify emotions, and are discussing what criteria could be applied.]

The aim is problematised here from laypeople's and researchers' perspective; both theoretical and methodological complexity of the research are referred to.

In *JEngL*, a specific RA aim usually follows a rather extensive discussion of previous research with a special focus on more controversial issues. The author of the aim presented in Example (3) first extrapolates on some problematic issues in the research area and only then presents his/her aim, which is later followed by an exhaustive theoretical overview.

(3) *This article seeks to bridge this gap by presenting the findings of a corpus-based study of the evolution of the Hong Kong English (HKE) lexicon. The study was inspired by the belief that phases in the development of a PCE [postcolonial Englishes] should emerge from the analysis of coherent sets of diachronic data. The challenge is therefore to identify, collect, and examine sets of comparable primary data that (as far as possible) span the entire period during which English has been acquired and used in a particular society.* (JEngl, 43/3, 2015)

This is a traditional example of the CARS model, where all the three functional moves (establishing a territory, establishing a niche, and introducing the present work) are performed thus promoting the research study to both the gatekeepers of the journal and peer-colleagues.

3.2.3   *Description of data and methods*

The way aims are formulated is inevitably interrelated with the theoretical and methodological framework applied in the study. If the aims are not formulated in a maximally explicit way, this often entails absence of the explication of data and methods used for the study. Such a description is an obligatory element in the IMRaD model and a convention in *JEngL*, where it appears usually in a separate section, but can also be explained in the Introductory parts of the RA or at the beginning of the Results section. In any case, in *JEngL* methods receive due attention since in the Anglophone tradition this is the criterion by which a study's validity is judged.

In most RAs in *Balt*, the research aims are approached from the perspective of Historical Linguistics, and in some studies, they are analysed from the viewpoint of Ethnolinguistics. Introspective methods dominate, and some studies resort to an experimental research design. However, the methodological framework is presented explicitly in only 14 RAs (or 17.2%, i.e. only in those RAs that comply with the IMRaD model). In RAs written from the perspective of Historical Linguistics, it is especially typical to leave the methods or data unexplained, which can indicate that these are understood as common knowledge shared by members of the discipline.

RAs in *Balt* often resemble more of a glossary than a critical analysis. They list words, their etymologies, meanings, grammatical features, and other information without any further theoretical or methodological considerations. Quite often, an RA presents an analysis of one (archaic) word or linguistic category and reports on its etymology without going into any further extrapolation. Typically, in such a truncated structure, the description of methods is absent. In such RAs, the readers' role changes dramatically, since the task of result interpretation and contextualisation is transferred from the author to the reader.

3.2.4   *Concluding section(s) in RAs*

Another structural part where it is common to highlight the possible impact and applications of scholarly research is the Conclusion. At least this should be the case if we consider academic research to be an impact-generating activity. Some of the expected and typical impacts include changes to the state of knowledge within a field, some theoretical, methodological, and/or practical problems solved. The Conclusion is the part where authors can be expected to emphasise who and how will benefit from the research outcomes. This of course requires good knowledge of national and transnational priorities and activities in the relevant areas, which should be outlined in the Introduction. The Conclusion is also expected to outline the potential research impact for a wide range of extra-academic stakeholders, especially those related to Language Management and Pedagogy.

In *Balt*, the Conclusion is usually a summary which restates the most important findings. Commonly, it provides no contextualisation with previous studies when discussing the outcomes. Sometimes the conclusion is just one paragraph, which offers no interpretation or discussion of the results. The conclusion tends to be too succinct to have a stronger impact and to offer some broader implications. This strongly contrasts with the concluding sections in *JEngL*, where the outcomes are never simply restated, but are usually evaluated within a broader context; sometimes research questions are reconsidered, and the research value is promoted.

It is not surprising, however, that list-type RAs in *Balt* tend to end in overly simplistic conclusions, which present some technicalities accessible to only a limited community of experts in the field and are often presented as a summary in the form of a numbered list. Some authors in *Balt* do not even treat the conclusion as a challenging endeavour and explicitly refer to the simplicity of formulating it:

(4)   *The conclusions of this article are easily summarized.*   (Balt 51/1, 2016)

Such an oversimplification of the conclusion downplays the importance of the final structural part of the RA, which envelops the whole text structurally and offers marketisation possibilities to the authors of RAs.

4. Conclusions and implications

The present study aimed to foreground the intricate relationships between discourse, language, and cultural context in the area of Linguistics. In the globalising world, scientific discourse has become an international encounter and a web of global (rather than local) scholarship. Therefore, a lingua franca is inevitable, and English has gained this position. ELF is a hybrid itself, but the rhetorical styles that it is used for are even more hybrid and intricate. Anglophone normative rules not necessarily arrive in non-Anglophone cultures together with the adoption of the language as an instrument.

The findings of this study show, first, that although the two journals exhibit some similarities in their overall structure and contain some identical sections, there are some results that potentially point to differences in academic practices in the field of Linguistics. One main difference lies in the less extensive size of the review section and the lower regularity of editorials in *Balt*, which may point to the lower interactivity of the academic community.

Second, regarding the publication languages, nearly half of papers in *Balt* are still published in Lithuanian (48.3%), whereas English publications constitute 40%. The number of RAs in the two languages, though, is almost equal, which is in line with our expectations. In view of the strong institutional focus on internationalisation, it was presumed that English papers would be just as numerous or even outweigh Lithuanian ones.

Third, the analysis of co-authorship has shown that in *Balt* transnational co-operation exists only among non-Lithuanian authors. In *JEngL*, some RAs are co-authored by researchers affiliating not only in different countries, but also continents; however, the numbers are still not high.

Finally, the conventional rhetorical structure of nationally published RAs in English and Lithuanian in the area of Linguistics does not differ in any major ways, but importantly in *Balt* there is much less interdiscursivity and less focus on the contextualisation of research, its marketisation, and promotion (especially in the Conclusions).

The results of the present research have to be interpreted in view of the fact that researchers nowadays act within knowledge-intensive economies (cf. Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott, & Trow, 1994). If in the contemporary research arena linguists want to seek excellence in a highly competitive global landscape, they need to adopt global styles to have their say in the global (not only local) community of researchers. The ambition of contemporary research is no longer just to accumulate and expand truth-based knowledge, but also to contribute to problem-solving. Traditional academic knowledge based on standards

of truth has been replaced by knowledge evaluated by standards of applied use-fulness (Hyland, 2009, p. 175). Scientific research nowadays is a "socially-oriented networked activity" (Belcher, Serrano, & Yang, 2016, p. 508), and the same applies to Linguistics.

Diffusion and applicability of knowledge have become of paramount impor-tance even in soft sciences, which requires different literacies from researchers to stay in the market. Participation in internationally competitive research requires an intricate network of multiple academic literacies, including not only linguistic skills, but also an excellent awareness of text production, discourse rhetorical strategies, research processes, and enculturation in different communities (see Canagarajah, 2002; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Lillis & Rai, 2011).

To have an impact on a more global level, linguists from non-Anglophone countries need to develop not only English language proficiency per se, but they also need to be equipped with a full inventory of strategies necessary to overcome publication hurdles, which includes awareness of discourse practices and transna-tional cooperation. To be visible on the global academic market, they need to be part of the fellow scientific community (cf. Carlino, 2012). At the same time, to have a direct impact on the local community, non-Anglophone researchers need to maintain awareness of their in-house scientific traditions.

Finally, in the scientific community, due attention should be given not only to scientific writers, but also to the readership. As Belcher et al. argue, it is necessary to "cultivate a cosmopolitan readership who are able to appreciate the value of alternative forms of argumentation" (2016, p. 508).

References

Ahmad, U. (1997). Research article introductions in Malay: Rhetoric in an emerging research community. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 273–304). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.273

Belcher, D. D., Serrano, F. J. B., & Yang, H. S. (2016). English for professional academic purposes. In K. Hyland & P. Shaw (Eds.), *English as the academic lingua franca: The Routledge handbook of English for Academic Purposes* (pp. 502–514). London: Routledge.

Bennett, K. (Ed.). (2014). *The semiperiphery of academic writing: Discourses, communities and practices*. London: Palgrave MacMillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137351197

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: Audience and rhetorical strategies. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–225). London: Longman.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *A geopolitics of academic writing*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt5hjn6c

Carlino, P. (2012). Helping doctoral students of education to face writing and emotional chal-lenges in identity transition. In C. Donahue & M. Castello (Eds.), *University writing: Selves and texts in academic societies* (pp. 217–234). Bingley: Emerald.

Cortes, V. (2013). The purpose of this study is to: Connecting lexical bundles and moves in research article introductions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12, 33–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.002

Dagienė, E., Petrauskaitė, R., & Sandström, U. (2017). Lithuanian research journals: Are they ready for almetrics ranking? Paper presented at the STI Conference, Paris.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis*. Harlow: Longman.

Ferguson, G. (2005). Is English really a *Tyrannosaurus rex*? Scientific communication and the global spread of English. In P. Durán, G. Aguado De Cea, & A. M. Roldán Riejos (Eds.), *Reflections on language use in the academic context* (pp. 73–93). Madrid: Universidad Politécnica de Madrid.

Fredrickson, K., & Swales, J. M. (1994). Competition and discourse community: Introductions from Nysvenska studier. In B. Gunnarsson, P. Linell, & B. Nordberg (Eds.), *Text and talk in professional contexts* (pp. 9–21). Uppsala: ASLA.

Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P., & Trow, M. (1994). *The new production of knowledge*. London: Sage.

Gross, A. (1990). *The rhetoric of science: The rhetorical analysis of scientific texts*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic discourse: English in a global context*. London: Continuum.

Kwan, B. S. C. (2006). The schematic structure of literature reviews in doctoral theses of applied linguistics. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25, 30–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2005.06.001

Kwan, B. S. C. (2010). An investigation of instruction in research publishing in doctoral programs: The Hong Kong case. *Higher Education*, 59, 55–68. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9233-x

Lea, M., & Stierer, B. (2011). Changing academic identities in changing academic workplaces: Learning from academics' everyday professional writing practices. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 16, 605–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2011.560380

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context: The politics and practices of publishing in English*. London: Routledge.

Lillis, T., & Rai, L. (2011). A case-study of research-based collaboration around writing in social work. *Across the Disciplines: A Journal of Language, Learning and Academic Writing*, 8. Retrieved from <https://wac.colostate.edu/atd/> (14 March, 2017).

Lillis, T., & Tuck, J. (2016). Academic literacies: A critical lens on writing and reading in the academy. In K. Hyland & P. Shaw (Eds.), *English as the academic lingua franca: The Routledge handbook of English for Academic Purposes* (pp. 30–43). London: Routledge.

Loi, C. K. (2010). Research article introductions in Chinese and English: A comparative genre-based study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 267–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.09.004

Martín, P., & León Pérez, I. K. (2014). Convincing peers of the value of one's research: A genre analysis of rhetorical promotion in academic texts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 34, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2013.09.002

Mauranen, A. (2004). Contrastive ESP rhetoric: Metatext in English-Finnish economics texts. In G. M. Saracino (Ed.), *Writing for scholarly publication in English: Issues for nonnative speakers* (pp. 126–156). Cesario di Lecce: Manni.

Mauranen, A., Pérez-Llantada, C., & Swales, J. M. (2010). Academic Englishes: A standardized knowledge? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of World Englishes* (pp. 634–652). London: Routledge.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2012). *Scientific discourse and the rhetoric of globalization: The impact of culture and language*. London: Continuum.

Samraj, B. (2002). Introductions in research articles: Variations across disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(00)00023-5

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Boston: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research genre: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524827

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (1994). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills*. Ann Arbor MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Teichler, U. (2009). Internationalisation of higher education: European experiences. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 10, 93–106. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-009-9002-7

Tse, P., & Hyland, K. (2006). 'So what is the problem this book addresses?' Interactions in book reviews. *Text and Talk*, 27, 767–790. https://doi.org/10.1515/TEXT.2006.031

The power of English

I and *we* in Lithuanian, Lithuanian English and British English research writing

Jolanta Šinkūnienė
Vilnius University

The use of *I* and *we* in research writing has been acknowledged as one of the most powerful means to mark author stance, however there are substantial differences in personal pronoun preferences depending on the disciplinary and cultural background of the writer. This chapter investigates the use of personal pronouns in linguistic research articles written by Lithuanian scholars in English and in Lithuanian, and by British English speakers in English. The results suggest that most Lithuanian scholars choose a more explicit author stance expression when they write in English, even though the frequencies and some functions of *I* and *we* in the English speakers' texts tend to be different from those in the Lithuanian scholars' articles.

Keywords: personal pronouns, research articles, cross-linguistic study, inclusive *we*, exclusive *we*, Lithuanian, English, intercultural rhetoric

1. Introduction

Research on academic discourse remains in vogue despite a considerable body of studies that has grown significantly over the past several decades (see Fløttum, Dahl, & Kinn, 2006; Gotti, 2009; Hyland & Bondi, 2006; Hyland & Diani, 2009; Lorés-Sanz, Mur-Dueñas & Lafuente Millán 2010, inter alia). As a result of these studies, it is customary now to talk not only about individual identities of scholars, reflected in their academic texts, but also about identities that characterise entire disciplines and research cultures. One of the primary foci of academic discourse research is *author stance* or *author voice* studies (Hyland & Sancho Guinda, 2012), which offer a number of interesting cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic insights into the ways scientific knowledge is shaped and reported. Ranging from analyses of creative scientific text titles to structural moves and steps within a research text

to the whole array of textual micro elements, such as hedges, boosters, attitudinal lexis, citations, etc., those studies show how similar yet different we all are when we compose texts within our own disciplinary, cultural and personal epistemologies.

The growing role of English as the lingua franca of the academia has triggered global debates concerning the impact of English on the multilingual research environment. On the one hand, there is little doubt that English facilitates a world-wide exchange of scientific knowledge and offers researchers of minority linguacultural backgrounds "a way out of isolation and into the world of international scholarship" (Duszak, 1997, p. 3). However, it also tends to be regarded as a killer language or *Tyrannosaurus Rex* (Swales, 1997), which makes other knowledges invisible or "swallowed up in a process of 'epistemicide'" (Bennett, 2007, p. 151).

These debates have contributed to an increased interest in comparative studies that seek to establish different cultural academic identities and their similarity or difference to the rhetorical stance positioning in Anglo-American research writing. A related issue raised with regard to the dominance of English in academia is what type of English has to be used in scientific writing by non-native speakers of English: the one that closely follows Anglo-American research writing traditions, or the one that keeps the traces of individual rhetorical features stemming from various other linguacultural backgrounds. The comparison of the employment of various rhetorical elements in academic texts has therefore emerged as one of the key themes in much of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) research of the past decades. Those studies focus on the use of the rhetorical, structural and pragmatic elements in academic texts written by English native speakers and non-native speakers in their respective native languages as well as in English, with the ultimate aim to identify the features of different cultural academic identities or to provide guidelines for EAP/ESP training.

Focusing on the most explicit means of author stance expression, personal pronouns, the aim of this paper is to investigate the ways British and Lithuanian linguists employ *I* and *we* when they write in their native languages, as well as to see what pronoun usage patterns emerge when Lithuanian authors compose their research texts in English.

2.   Personal pronouns in research writing

One of the powerful means of stance expression in research writing is personal pronouns, especially *I* and *we*. Depending on the verb they combine with, *I* and *we* have varying rhetorical power and enable the author of a scientific text to perform a number of rhetorical roles. In their pioneering study of identity construction in student writing, Tang and John (1999) speak about *I as representative*, *guide*,

architect, *recounter of a research process*, *opinion holder* and *originator*. Relying on the pronoun preferences in research writing, Fløttum et al. (2006) assign to scholars *writer*, *researcher*, *arguer* and *evaluator* roles. Vladimirou (2007) shows how the author of the text can dissolve in the *indefinite we* or stand out in the exclusive *we* or *I* use. All these categories reflect the complexity of the construction of scientific texts as well as the variety of rhetorical choices authors have to make in order to build a credible identity.

Corpus-based studies on personal pronoun preferences complemented by interviews with scholars from various science fields highlight the fact that the pronoun choice is not accidental, but frequently governed by the desire to persuade the reader to be more receptive to the author's ideas (Harwood, 2005; Hyland, 2005). Shifts between personal pronouns *I* and *we* can also be employed by authors to add rhetorical power to their texts (for a more extensive description see Harwood, 2005; Vladimirou, 2007).

The persuasive power of *we* is also strengthened by its semantic ambiguity. In many languages, including English and Lithuanian, there is no formal distinction between the so called inclusive and exclusive *we*, therefore, typically "it is left to the addressee to infer the exact meaning of *we*" (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999, p. 329). This rhetorical ambiguity can be effectively used by the authors of scientific texts to involve the reader into the argument and to seek approval of the claims they are making (Harwood, 2005; Vladimirou, 2007).

One of the factors that plays a very important role in pronominal choices is the cultural background of the author. A number of empirical studies show substantial differences in the ways personal pronouns are employed by Anglo-American academic writers, and by writers from different cultural backgrounds when they write in their native languages (Molino, 2010; Mur-Dueñas, 2007; Sanderson, 2008; Vassileva, 1998). Most of the studies confirm that researchers in many cultures other than English do not seem to be willing to foreground their presence in academic texts in their native languages, especially by using the pronoun *I* (see Mur-Dueñas & Šinkūnienė, 2016 for an overview). The tendency to avoid first-person singular pronoun is reflected in such cultural maxims as "le moi haïssable" ('the I to be hated') in French academic tradition (see Fløttum et al., 2006, p. 81, p. 113, p. 264) or "culturally specific *I taboo*" (Sanderson, 2008, p. 71) in German academic writing.

Interesting results have been obtained by comparing personal pronoun use in research articles written in English as L1 and as L2, as well as in national languages of the authors. Lorés-Sanz (2011a, 2011b) suggests that Spanish researchers in Business Management tend to transfer some of the personal pronoun use patterns typical to Anglo-American discourse when they publish their texts in English. Similarly, Shaw's (2003) analysis of Applied Economics texts composed by English scholars in

English, and Danish authors in Danish and in English shows that Danish scholars writing in Danish barely use personal pronouns while English scholars employ them to a large extent. Personal pronoun use in Danish English articles occupies an intermediate position. These studies suggest that when writing in English as L2, scholars employ some of the rhetorical patterns typical of the Anglo-American writing tradition, but different from the ones that are usual in their native languages. More studies of this kind are necessary in order to see to what extent rhetorical patterns of one discourse tradition find their way into another.

This paper will, therefore, investigate personal pronoun preference trends of Lithuanian linguists in their research articles in Lithuanian and in English, and compare them to those of British linguists writing in their native language. One part of the analysis presents the quantitative distribution of personal pronouns *I* and *we* and their Lithuanian counterparts *aš* 'I' and *mes* 'we'. The other part of the analysis focuses on the qualitative study of the functions these personal pronouns perform in the research articles written in British English, Lithuanian English and Lithuanian.

2.   Data and methods

The data for the study was obtained from a self-compiled corpus consisting of linguistic research articles in Lithuanian, Lithuanian English and British English. All of the articles selected for the study were single-authored, so that the use of both *I* and *we* pronouns could have been possible at least in theory. 10 research articles (RA) were chosen for each sub-corpus, making 30 in total. For the British English sub-corpus, two internationally renowned journals, *English for Specific Purposes* and *Journal of Pragmatics*, published between 2007 to 2012, were used. Each article selected for the analysis had to be written by a different scholar. Research articles written by Lithuanian scholars came from a variety of sources[1] as two articles, one in Lithuanian and one in English, written by the same scholar had to be found. An attempt was made to select the two articles authored by the same researcher as close as possible in their publication date. The whole data set in both languages comes from the period of 2005 to 2016.

---

1.   The research articles in Lithuanian came from the research journals *Acta Linguistica Lithuanica, Archivum Lithuanicum, Darbai ir Dienos, Kalbotyra, Respectus Philologicus*. The research articles written in English by Lithuanian authors were taken from the research journals *Acta Linguistica Hafniensia, Baltic Linguistics, Baltistica, Kalbotyra, Lituanus, Respectus Philologicus, Taikomoji Kalbotyra* and two edited volumes *Multiple perspectives in linguistic research on Baltic languages* and *Swearing in the Nordic countries*.

Only articles reporting original research were included. The length of an article had to be no less than 2,000 words and they had to be written by native speakers (of British English in the case of the English RA sub-corpus, and of Lithuanian for the Lithuanian scholars' data set). Following Sala (2008), the authors' biographical information was searched for on the web, and if the author was educated in Britain (BA, MA, PhD degrees), his/her article was deemed suitable for the study. The first article that met the criteria above was included into the corpus. The total number of words of the corpus is nearly 145,000 words (see Table 1).

Table 1. The size and composition of the corpus

Language of the articles	Number of articles	Number of words
Lithuanian	10	33,437
Lithuanian English	10	48,091
British English	10	62,219
Total	30	143,747

No attempt was made to find out if the Lithuanian researchers sought any help from translators or native speakers of English while composing their texts in English. Since the article could not have been published without the author's consent, it is assumed that even if the authors had any advice on their use of English, the text of the article seemed acceptable to them.

Once the articles were selected for the corpus, they were prepared for the analysis removing abstracts, bibliography lists, tables and figures, as well as linguistic examples which came as support for the authors' claims. The English language sub-corpora were then computer searched for first-person pronouns and their forms *I*, *my*, *me*, *we* (both exclusive and inclusive uses), *our* and *us*. For the Lithuanian language sub-corpus, an automatic search was not always useful as in Lithuanian the first-person subject pronoun function is more typically realised by a verbal flexion rather than by a pronoun, as in Example (1).

(1) *Šiandien <u>tur-ime</u>* 'have-PRS.1PL' *rašytinės lietuvių kalbos didelės apimties tekstyną <…>.*   (LT 2)[2]
    'Today we have a large corpus of written Lithuanian.'

The Lithuanian sub-corpus was computer searched for the personal pronoun forms *aš* 'I', *mano* 'my', *man/mane/manęs/manimi* '(to/for) me', *mes* 'we', *mūsų* 'our', *mus/mums* '(to/for) us', but then it was also carefully read several times for

---

2.   The quoted examples are coded with the first two letters of the language of the text and the number of the article, thus articles in British English are coded as BR EN 1, 2, 3, etc., articles in Lithuanian as LT 1, 2, 3, etc. and articles in Lithuanian English as LT EN 1, 2, 3, etc.

the first-person inflected verbs as an alternative expression of *aš* 'I' and *mes* 'we'. In rare cases when both the pronoun and the verbal flexion were used together, these were counted as one instance of personal pronoun use, as in Example (2).

(2) <u>Mes</u> 'we.NOM' *visi <u>žin-ome</u>* 'know-PRS.1PL', *kad jis pralaimėjo prezidento rinkimus.*
     'We all know that he lost the presidential elections.'   (LT 6)

Alongside quantitative and qualitative analyses, the study employs contrastive corpus-based methodology, which has proved to be especially effective in academic discourse investigations over the past few decades. As the sub-corpora are different in size, frequency numbers of personal pronoun use have been normalised to 10,000 words. WordSmith Tools software (Scott, 2008) was used to generate concordances of personal pronouns in order to determine the most frequent collocations. The statistical significance of the frequency data was evaluated using the log-likelihood test (LL) with the critical value of 3.84 or higher at the level of $p < 0.05$.

For the qualitative analysis of the use of the pronoun *I/aš*, the study employs the classificational framework proposed by Fløttum et al. (2006). The cases of the pronoun *we/mes* use are classified following the semantic types of *we* distinguished by Vladimirou (2007).

3.   Results and discussion

The first part of the analysis compares the frequency patterns of the use of personal pronouns in all three sub-corpora. In the second part of the study, the qualitative analysis is performed in an attempt to evaluate the rhetorical roles personal pronouns perform in the articles analysed.

3.1   General frequencies of personal pronouns *I/aš* and *we/mes* and their forms

The analysis yielded a total of 528 instances of personal pronouns *I/aš* and *we/mes* and their forms in the 30 articles under analysis.

Table 2. Frequency distribution of personal pronouns in different sub-corpora

Sub-corpus	Raw frq	n/10,000
LT	41	12.3
LT EN	145	30.2
BR EN	342	55.0

We can see from Table 2 that there is a clear difference in the frequency with which personal pronouns are employed in the three sub-corpora. When Lithuanian scholars write in Lithuanian, they tend to use significantly fewer personal pronouns than when the same scholars write in English (LL value is −29.95). Although personal pronouns are employed to a higher extent in Lithuanian researchers' articles in English, there is still a statistically significant difference if we compare their use in native English speakers' articles (LL value is −39.33).

Personal pronoun preferences could, of course, be very individual, and this individual variation can influence the overall frequency results. It is, therefore, important to look at how the use of personal pronouns is distributed in each of the articles written by Lithuanian scholars in Lithuanian and in English:

Table 3. Personal pronoun distribution in individual articles written by Lithuanian scholars in Lithuanian and in English

	LT		LT EN		LL value
	Raw frq.	n/10,000	Raw frq.	n/10,000	
Author 1	15	45.8	25	63.9	−1.07
Author 2	6	23.0	22	57.4	−4.58
Author 3	0	0	4	9.4	−4.72
Author 4	3	6.7	10	24.7	−4.74
Author 5	6	15.0	23	51.3	−8.82
Author 6	1	3.8	19	29.8	−7.57
Author 7	2	6.4	16	40.5	−9.34
Author 8	1	4.3	2	2.7	+0.12
Author 9	4	10.3	18	53.0	−11.65
Author 10	3	8.2	6	9.2	−0.03
Total	41	12.3	145	30.2	−29.95

Table 3 shows that personal pronouns were more frequent in nearly all articles written in English if we compare them to the articles written in Lithuanian by the same scholar. The LL value shows that only in the case of three articles the difference in pronoun use is statistically non-significant. What is also evident from the data in Table 3 is that even when Lithuanian scholars write in their native language, they do not rely on impersonal or passive constructions only. There is only one article in Lithuanian which does not contain a single pronoun used. All the other authors employ personal pronouns, however to quite a small extent.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of the personal pronouns *I/aš* and *we/mes* and their forms in the three sub-corpora under study.
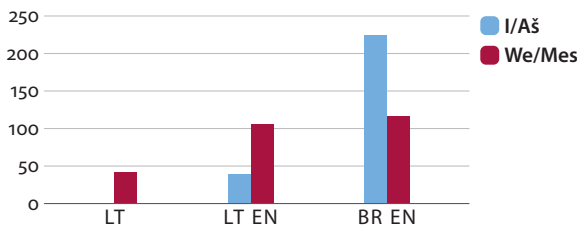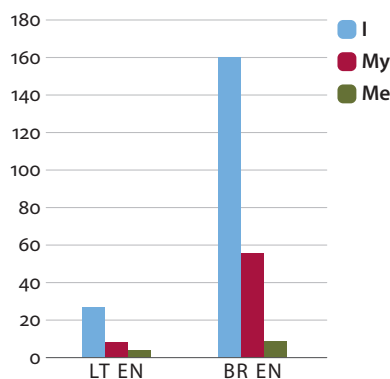
Figure 1. The frequency distribution of the personal pronouns *I/aš* and *we/mes* and their forms in the three sub-corpora

Figure 1 presents raw frequencies as no attempt is made to compare the data across the three sub-corpora; instead the focus is on the distribution of *I/aš* and *we/mes* forms within each of the sub-corpora. We can see that in the articles in Lithuanian *mes* 'we' and its forms are the only pronoun used, with not a single case of *aš* 'I' and its forms. This result is hardly surprising. As has been mentioned in the introduction, researchers of many cultural backgrounds downplay their explicit presence in the text by avoiding the use of *I*. In her study of authorial presence in English, German, French, Russian and Bulgarian linguistic RAs, Vassileva (1998) found that even though all articles were single authored, it is the *we* perspective which was totally predominant in Russian and Bulgarian. Similar patterns of avoiding *I* were found in Russian and Ukrainian academic discourse by Yakhontova (2002) in her research on conference abstracts in Applied Linguistics. The Lithuanian rhetorical tradition seems to be pointing in the same direction.

When Lithuanian authors write in English, a different trend appears: they start using *I* and its forms alongside *we*, with the frequency ratio of 27% vs 73% respectively. A nearly reverse situation is in the British researchers' articles, where the pronoun *I* and its forms are dominating over the pronoun *we* (66% vs 34%). While not a single Lithuanian researcher used *aš* 'I' or its forms in their Lithuanian texts, 8 out of 10 of the same authors used the pronoun *aš* 'I' or its forms at least once in their articles in English. It is to the pronoun *I/aš* and the features of its use that we turn now to in the following section.

3.2   *I/aš* and its semantic and pragmatic profile

Figure 2 shows the frequency distribution of the forms of the pronoun *I* in the English language RAs written by Lithuanian and British researchers:

Figure 2. Frequency distribution of the personal pronoun *I* and its forms
in the two sub-corpora[3]

The most frequent first-person single pronoun form in both Lithuanian English
and British English RAs is *I*, which takes up 69% and 71% of the whole use of all *I*
forms in the two sub-corpora respectively. This is an interesting result, especially
if we recall that no occurrences of *I* in any form were found in the RAs written in
Lithuanian. However, the normalised frequency with which *I* occurs in the English
texts composed by Lithuanian researchers (f/10,000 = 5.6) is nearly five times lower
if compared to its usage by British linguists (f/10,000 = 25.7).

The next step of the analysis was to see which author roles *I* is associated with
in both sets of data. The study follows the framework proposed by Fløttum et al.
(2006, p. 83–84), in which all occurrences of first-person singular pronoun subjects
are classified into four main roles depending on the verb which was used with *I*:

Table 4. Rhetorical author roles based on the verb which the pronoun *I* combines with

Type of verbs	Author role	Typical verbs*
Discourse verbs	Writer	*discuss, describe, focus on*
Research verbs	Researcher	*use, code, examine*
Position verbs	Arguer	*argue, suggest, contend*
Evaluation and emotion verbs and verb constructions	Evaluator	*to be interested, to be keen*

* Verb examples come from my data.

---

3. Only two sub-corpora were used as there were no cases of *aš* 'I' in the Lithuanian language sub-corpus.

In their cross-linguistic study of RAs[4] in Linguistics in English, French and Norwegian, Fløttum et al. (2006) found that the researcher role was the most important for the scholars of all three linguacultural backgrounds. Their other results show that "Norwegians are more writers than arguers and that English authors argue more explicitly than Norwegian ones", whereas the evaluator role was the least frequently employed in their all three analysed sub-corpora (Fløttum et al., 2006, p. 92).

The results of my study are similar to those of Fløttum et al. so far as the British researchers' use of *I* is concerned (Table 5).

Table 5. Rhetorical author roles with the pronoun *I* in the British English and Lithuanian English RAs

Author role	BR EN		LT EN	
	%	Raw frq.	%	Raw frq.
Writer	26%	42	44.5%	12
Researcher	37%	59	44.5%	12
Arguer	34%	54	11%	3
Evaluator	3%	5	–	–
Total	100%	160	100%	27

We can see from Table 5 that the evaluator role is the least frequent in British English texts and is not used at all in Lithuanian English RAs. As could be expected, the researcher role is the most frequent role British linguists play in their RAs, while in Lithuanian scholars' texts the frequency of this role is the same as that of the writer. Most frequently *I* in a researcher role occurs in the data and methods section or in sections discussing the procedures of the study, and can be signalled by a variety of verbs, such as *code*, *examine*, *use*, *compare*, *study*, *label*, and similar. There seems to be no difference in the ways authors of the texts in both sub-corpora perform the researcher role:

(3)   *Furthermore, in order to check whether the similarities and differences are statistically significant, <u>I have</u> also <u>performed</u> the log-likelihood (LL) test <…>.*
(LT EN 6)

(4)   *In terms of the text patterns used to organise the reports, <u>I categorised</u> one as Problem-Solution, seven as Opportunity-Taking and nine as Goal-Means of achievement.*
(BR EN 10)

---

4.   Their study also looked at RAs in Economics and Medicine, however, it is the results of linguistic articles' analysis that are of most relevance to my study.

In their discussion of the frequency of the researcher role, Fløttum et al. (2006, p. 91) conclude that when researchers choose to use *I* in their texts, they do this essentially "to make explicit their presence as researchers". In Tang and John's (1999) continuum of identities shaped by the use of personal pronouns, *I as a recounter of the research process* takes up a middle position, situated between the least powerful and the most powerful authorial presence. The relatively neutral combination of *I* with a research verb might explain the frequency of this role in RAs, as it allows the authors of the texts to foreground themselves as scientists and to emphasise their contribution, without getting exposed to a very high risk.

More interesting results appear if we look at the second most frequent role Lithuanian and British researchers play in their articles. As has been mentioned, Lithuanian linguists use the writer role with the same frequency as they do for the researcher role. The essence of this role is a conscious effort of the authors to facilitate the understanding of the text and act as guides, thus engaging with the readers and building interactional links, as in Examples (5) and (6).

(5)   *Before presenting the research data and results, <u>I shall give</u> a brief account of a relevant theme in the hitherto scanty research on swearing in Lithuania.*

(LT EN 7)

(6)   *As <u>I will discuss</u> below, the choice particularly affects the articulation of the researcher's relationships with other participants.*   (BR EN 10)

In most of the cases, the writer role is manifested alongside previewing or reviewing markers, such as *Section 1*, *next section*, *in what follows* and the like. The usage of *I* in such contexts emphasises the image of the writer as a facilitator of the reader's journey through the literature on the topic as well as sections or arguments of the paper:

(7)   <u>*To help the reader situate my work,*</u> *<u>I begin this paper</u> with a more detailed discussion of Goffman's approach to facework generally as well as face threat more specifically (<u>Section 2</u>), <u>before moving on</u> to discuss how these levels have been drawn upon by others to define face-damaging as opposed to face-enhancing activities (<u>Sections 2.1–2.2</u>).*   (BR EN 1)

Example (7) is an excellent illustration of a skillfully constructed text in which the author shows his concern for the reader, foregrounds himself as a writer and outlines what to expect in the article sections to come.

Again, this role is performed very similarly by the British and Lithuanian scholars; however, the difference lies in the frequency of use of *I as a writer* in the two sub-corpora (Table 5 above). The normalised frequency of the occurrences of *I* in the writer role shows significant differences between the two sub-corpora: 6.8 cases

in every 10,000 words in the British researchers' texts and 2.5 cases in every 10,000 words in the Lithuanian scholars' RA sub-corpus.

As has been mentioned, in my data the writer's role is the third most frequent role in the British linguists' articles, as they seem to favour the arguer role more than the writer role (34% vs 26%) (see Table 5). The British linguists also use *I* to argue their position explicitly far more frequently than Lithuanian researchers writing in English (34% vs 11%, or 8.7 vs 0.6 cases if we normalise frequency to 10,000 words). The arguer role in Fløttum et al.'s classification has a close affinity to Tang and John's *I as an originator* and *I as an opinion holder* identities, as by using such position verbs as *argue*, *believe*, *contend* or *suggest* in combination with *I*, the author explicitly presents his/her views and position on the subject matter. The most frequent verbs in combination with *I* in the arguer role in the British English sub-corpus were *argue* (14 occurrences), *suggest* (13 occurrences), *contend* (5 occurrences), thus creating the cline of stance expressions ranging from a strong position (*argue*) to merely an opinion / proposal (*suggest*):

(8)   *I contend that pragmatics research into interpersonal relations should be able to identify and illuminate the collaboration issues that members of workplace project partnerships experience, and I argue that an exclusive focus on discourse data is too limited for this.*   (BR EN 8)

(9)   *While this may be a disappointment to some, I have argued that grammatical collocations are legitimate learning targets, and so the prominence of such items should not put teachers off using an academic collocation list.*   (BR EN 5)

Placed at the end of the introductory section of the article, Example (8) leaves the reader in no doubt as to what the position of the author is. In the combination with strong position verbs, *I* creates the impression of a very authoritative writer, the one who is capable of and has a right to make a claim. A similar effect is suggested by Tang and John (1999, p. S29) when they discuss the *I as originator* category in their classification: "they [writers] perceive themselves as people who have the *right* and the *ability* to originate new ideas". This effect is even more obvious in (9), which appears in the concluding part of the article. The overall tone of the statement shows that the author is very confident in his position and his stance is very strong.

The verb *argue* is especially capable of conveying the rhetorical strength of the position; perhaps that is why 9 out of 14 cases of *I* + *argue* are hedged with *would*, as in Example (10).

(10)   *I would argue that the identification of such patterning not only contributes to the understanding and description of disciplinary language use, but has important pedagogical implications as well.*   (BR EN 3)

The hedged position of the author is introduced with *I* in combination with *suggest*. The verb *suggest* is generally a very frequent verb in Anglo-American academic discourse. Studies on hedging show that it is one of the most frequent lexical hedges employed in many disciplines (Hyland, 1998; Varttala, 2001). It is not surprising then that it also appears in my data combined with *I*. A typical case would be Example (11):

(11) *In terms of workplace contexts, <u>I</u> provisionally <u>suggest</u> distinguishing between three different, albeit interconnected, perspectives on relations.*   (BR EN 8)

As has been mentioned, Lithuanian linguists do not tend to argue their position in their papers using an explicit identity marker. There were only 3 instances of the arguer role, where *I* combined with the verbs *argue*, *claim* and *keep to the point of view*. In all of these cases, the position of the author is strong and unhedged:

(12) *On the contrary, <u>I argue</u> that this is a universal conceptual metaphor which has been found across different cultures since the ancient times <…>.*   (LT EN 1)

The reluctance of Lithuanian linguists to argue for their position in their research writing has been noted by one of the informants in my previous study (Šinkūnienė, 2014, p. 104), in which I conducted interviews with scholars from Social Sciences and Humanities about their research writing practices and preferences:

> *In Lithuanian linguistics people do not tend to take an explicit position on what they did, which is very well reflected in the verb* argue, *like* In this paper I argue this. *Lithuanians are clearly missing on that. And then the impersonalisation or the lack of a clear position makes the article weaker.*   (Informant 1, Linguistics)

Another informant reflected on her usage of personal pronouns in the context of Lithuanian writing tradition:

> *I started out by kind of hiding behind the* we *pronoun, because in Lithuanian tradition if a pronoun is used, it is usually* we *<…>. Sometimes I use* I *and* we *in the same sentence, but it is like an invitation for the second pair of eyes to join me.*
> (Informant 2, Literature)

It seems clear from the informants' comments that it is more usual for Lithuanian scholars to adopt far less threatening roles when they choose to use the first-person single pronoun, if at all. As we also see from the comments and as is shown in Figure 1 above, the pronoun *we* is a more preferred choice of the Lithuanian authors in the analysed articles in both languages. The next section, therefore, will look at the use of *we/mes* in research writing.

3.3   *We/mes* and its semantic and pragmatic profile

Out of the forms of the first-person plural pronoun (*we/mes, our/mūsų, us/mus, mums*) analysed, the most frequent form in both sub-corpora is *we/mes* (Figure 3):
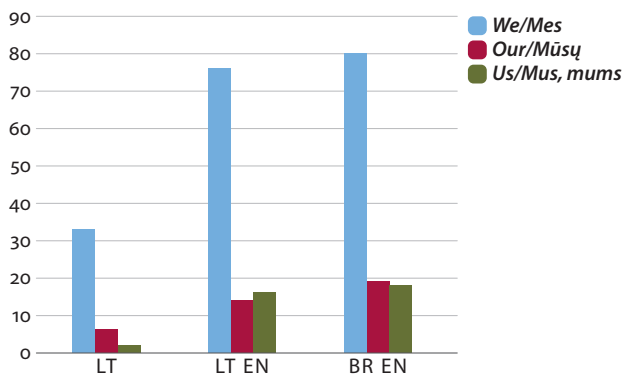
Figure 3. Frequency distribution (raw frequencies) of the personal pronoun *we/mes* and its forms in the three sub-corpora

The next step of the analysis was to see what types of semantic referents *we/mes* had, when used in the three sub-corpora. For this part of the analysis only those cases when *we/mes* was used as the subject were taken into account as they were the most frequent. In the first stage of the analysis *we/mes* used in the articles were classified into exclusive and inclusive. By using the exclusive *we/mes*, the author refers only to himself/herself (13), whereas the inclusive *we/mes* could encompass the author and the reader, the author and academic community or, more generally, would refer to humankind in general (Example (14)):

(13)   <…> *we divide early morphological development into 3 successive phases.*
(LT EN 2)

(14)   *Often, we use metaphor to understand something new or abstract in terms of something familiar or concrete.*   (BR EN 2)

Then following Vladimirou (2007), these uses of *we/mes* were classified into smaller categories: *We for I* (exclusive *we*), *Writer + other people* (exclusive *we*), *Writer + audience* (inclusive *we*), *Writer + academic community* (inclusive *we*), *We indefinite* (inclusive *we*). Table 6 shows the distribution of these types of *we/mes* in the three sub-corpora.

The results show several similarities between the three sets of data. First of all, we can see that the category *Writer + other people* denoted by *we* is very rare in both Lithuanian English and British English RAs, and does not appear in the

Table 6. The distribution of the semantic referents of *we/mes* in Lithuanian, Lithuanian English and British English RAs

Type of *we/mes*	LT	LT EN	BR EN
We for *I* (exclusive *we/mes*)	6%	20%	–
Writer + other people (exclusive *we/mes*)	–	5%	6%
Writer + audience (inclusive *we/mes*)	42%	61%	61%
Writer + academic community (inclusive *we/mes*)	27%	8%	23%
We indefinite (inclusive *we/mes*)	25%	6%	10%
Total	100%	100%	100%

articles written in Lithuanian. Vladimirou (2007, p. 147) defines this type of *we* as inclusive of the writer and some other people who could be part of the academic community, but do not refer to "the readers and the academic community as a whole". It is natural that this category is quite rare in the articles under analysis because it only appears in special cases, when, for example, the author conducted the study with other colleagues and is reporting on its procedure, results or other related matters as in Example (15).

(15) *After the experiment, they were asked what they thought all this was about, and they guessed that <u>we were studying</u> opinions about teachers.*   (LT EN 9)

We in Example (15) refers to the group of scholars including the author of the article, who together conducted the survey, but not to the academic community as a whole.

The second and more important similarity is that the inclusive *we* referring to *Writer + audience* is the most frequent semantic referent in all three sets of data, even though it takes a smaller part of the *we/mes* types in the articles written in Lithuanian (42% as compared to 61% in both Lithuanian English and British English articles). Normalised frequency numbers also indicate that the Lithuanian scholars use this type of *we/mes* less frequently (f/10,000 = 4.2) as compared to when they write in English (f/10,000 = 10.0) or to the use of this type of *we* by the British scholars (f/10,000 = 7.9).

The preference for this type of *we/mes* shows a conscious effort of the author to establish a link with the reader. This could be done in various stages of argumentation – the introduction (Example (16)), the discussion (Example (17)) and the concluding (Examples (18) and (19)) sections of an RA:

(16) *<u>We can start</u> with the style-contrast tuned to traditional British social class stratification.*   (BR EN 6)

(17) *By contrast, although figures are much lower in the materials corpus, <u>we can note</u> that the most frequent group is EVIDENCE (15.0).*   (BR EN 3)

(18)   *We have seen that there is no synchronic justification for setting apart definite and indefinite adjectives as determination is merely an extra feature of the same paradigm.*   (LT EN 5)

(19)   *We have seen that such a shared vocabulary can be identified. However, we have also seen that a number of caveats need to be made about the list.*   (BR EN 5)

It is obvious from the examples above that there is little difference in how Lithuanian and British linguists use the inclusive *Author + audience we/mes* in their argumentation. In all of these cases the author binds with the reader for a journey through the scientific argument with particular rhetorical goals in mind. As one of Harwood's (2007, p. 33) interviewees noted commenting on the use of the inclusive *we* in her text:

I: So you're asking the readership
POL5:   Yes! To journey with me… , I've said, 'Ah! This is interesting!' I'm showing you to look at it and to conclude the same as I, basically! [laughs]

This type of *we/mes* can also be ambiguous and therefore strategically exploited by the authors to seek for the reader's approval of ideas. A clear illustration of such cases is Example (20):

(20)   *Now that we have successfully identified the Gothic adjective inflection, it seems reasonable to term this intervening element provisionally a stem suffix.*
                                                                              (LT EN 5)

Even though it is the author who is doing the work, he seems to readily share the joy of success with the readers thus making them feel part of the research. Of course, there is always a possibility that the author meant *we* to be exclusive here. However, coming from single-authored articles, such uses of *we* are ambiguous and do not easily fall into either exclusive or inclusive type of *we*. Similar cases are discussed by Harwood (2005, p. 346), who explains the rhetorical effect of such uses as a wish of the author "to make the reader more receptive to the writer's claims for rhetorical effect".

   Another type of the inclusive *we*, *Writer + academic community*, is employed to a varying degree in the three data sets. It is the second most frequent semantic category in both the Lithuanian language RAs and the British English RAs, but a less preferred type of *we* in the Lithuanian English texts. In my data, *Writer+academic community we/mes* is used as a powerful means to create a niche for the author's research by indicating what is lacking in the disciplinary field:

(21) *We do not yet have sufficient indication of the variation between disciplines to decide this issue either way. Most of the existing work on collocations in EAP has concerned itself only with the 'technical' collocations found in specific academic disciplines <…>.*   (BR EN 5)

(22) *Šie visuotinai pastebimi procesai akivaizdžiai vyksta ir Lietuvoje, tačiau sistemingų sociolingvistinių viešosios vartosenos kitimo tyrimų iki šiol neturime, netirtos ir žurnalistų nuostatos.*   (LT 9)

'These generally observable processes obviously take place in Lithuania too, however, we still do not have sociolinguistic studies of the changes in standard public Lithuanian, the attitudes of journalists have not been investigated as well.'

Phrased in this way, the research niche sounds more urgent and global, as if reflecting the concern of the whole disciplinary community. This consequently places more importance on the aims of the study intended to fill in the niche.

Another use of the *Writer+academic community* type of *we/mes* is to refer to mutual knowledge, values, needs, etc. shared by the whole discourse community thus creating the feeling of scholarly solidarity and joint membership:

(23) *As authors, we need to give an account that presents us, including to ourselves, in a positive light.*   (BR EN 10)

(24) *We know that the input frequency in child-directed speech predicts the order of emergence of a particular item in the child's speech <…>.*

    (LT EN 2)

The final type of the inclusive *we, Indefinite we*, referring to people in general, takes up 25% of the whole concordance of *we/mes* in the Lithuanian language articles, whereas in Lithuanian English and British English it is 6% and 10% of the whole use of *we/mes* respectively (Table 6 above). While 25% might seem a high percentage, we have to keep in mind that generally the overall number of *we/mes* cases in the Lithuanian language articles was low, so the 25% actually correspond to only 8 occurrences of this type of *we/mes* and has no statistical frequency difference if compared to its use in the Lithuanian English and the British English RAs. When used in academic texts, the indefinite *we/mes* creates the bond between the writer and the reader by appealing to common experience of all human beings:

(25) *We conceptualize our different experiences as life, love, politics, etc. in terms of a journey.*   (LT EN 1)

One of the biggest differences between the use of *we/mes* in the three sub-corpora was the *Exclusive We for I* category. This type of *we/mes* was not found in the British English texts at all, but was quite a favoured choice of the Lithuanian scholars while writing in English:

(26)   *What <u>we</u> relatively <u>call</u> the C in <u>our</u> research is a speech variety that contains some phonetic and prosodic features of the codified SL.*   (LT EN 9)

(27)   *As <u>we have argued</u> before, the early use of compounds demonstrates their rote-learned character.*   (LT EN 2)

Although there is a tendency of the Lithuanian linguists to use personal pronoun *I* when they write in English, apparently the *Exclusive we for I* also remains an acceptable option. Probably it is a less face threatening and safer technique especially in combination with strong verbs like *argue* as in Example (27) above. As discussed in Section 3.1, British scholars seem to be comfortable with *I* in their texts, which explains why there were no uses of the *Exclusive we for I* category in their RAs.

The final and perhaps the most conspicuous difference between the use of personal pronouns in the three sets of data is the shifts between *I* and *we*, absent in the RAs of Lituanian scholars in both languages, but obvious in the British scholars' articles. Consider Examples (28) and (29):

(28)   *Hence <u>we are left</u> with a facework-intentionality <u>dilemma</u>: if this isn't intentional impoliteness or incidental face threat, what is it? <u>This paper proposes a solution</u> to this potential <u>impasse</u>: a new face threat zone – strategic ambivalence – which sits (so as to allow for movement) between Goffman's (1967) intentional and incidental levels. As <u>I will demonstrate</u>, such a zone allows for the fact that lawyers will undertake planned actions <…>.*   (BR EN 1)

(29)   *What then <u>can we draw</u> from this study in terms of pragmatics research in this area? Firstly, <u>I suggest</u> that more studies of the emotional aspects of interpersonal interaction using different methodologies could yield valuable insights. Secondly, more conceptualisation is needed on the meaning of 'relational', drawing on theorising and empirical findings from a range of sources. <u>We need</u> to take a wide range of data into account and to avoid pre-conceived ideological stances that may narrow down our conceptualisations too soon. Thirdly, <u>I would argue</u> that since relational issues are of such importance in the management field, a key aim of <u>our work</u> should be to develop conceptual frameworks that are meaningful and relevant to practicing managers. <u>I hope</u> this <u>exploratory</u> study offers a <u>small step</u> in that direction.*   (BR EN 8)

In the short passage towards the end of the introductory section in Example (28), the author resorts to the whole array of effective rhetorical devices. The inclusive *Author+audience we* used in a rhetorical question invites the reader to look together for the solutions to the obvious research gap. The dramatic effect is strengthened with such words as *dilemma* and *impasse*; against such background it does seem that the only solution is provided in *this paper*, just as the author claims. His authority is reconfirmed in the unambiguously powerful *I will demonstrate* promise to the reader.

Conversely, Example (29) is the last passage in the concluding section of the article. We can observe here a similar shift between the inclusive *we* (*Author+ audience*) which is again used in a rhetorical question, inviting the reader to participate in a mutual conclusion, and the authorial *I*, who is actually concluding. The interplay of *I* with *we* and *our*, which refer to the whole disciplinary community, creates the image of the author as a messenger who calls the community to take a meaningful and relevant action. The paper is concluded with a modest and hedged evaluation of the author's contribution to the field.

Examples of such skillful and strong rhetoric in the RAs of the native English speakers confirm the insights about the promotional and argumentative Anglo-American research writing tradition, emphasised in many previous studies on academic discourse cited in this chapter (cf., for example, Harwood, 2005 or Vladimirou, 2007).

4.   Concluding remarks

This chapter looked at the personal pronoun preferences in linguistic RAs written by Lithuanian scholars in Lithuanian and in English, and by British scholars in their native language. The results reveal that Lithuanian linguists tend to employ personal pronouns more frequently when they write in English than when they write in Lithuanian, even though the British linguists use personal pronouns to a bigger extent. In their Lithuanian language texts, scholars resort exclusively to *we* and its forms, whereas when they write in English, they also tend to use the personal pronoun *I*. This could be the result of the influence of the Anglo-American academic writing tradition, and reflect an attempt of the scholars to adapt their writing style to the conventions of the language in which they compose the text. It could be that since the articles were written in English, they were potentially addressing a much wider audience, and this could have prompted the authors to make their presence more explicit. These results are in line with those reported in previous studies (e.g. Shaw, 2003; Lorés-Sanz, 2011a, 2011b).

The most frequent role that the Lithuanian and the British linguists adopt is the *I* as the researcher role. Another role frequently employed by the British scholars is that of the arguer. The Lithuanian linguists do not tend to argue for their position in the texts, but rather assume a much safer role of the writer, who guides the reader through the text and the argument. The different types of the inclusive *we* are employed very similarly in all three sets of data. The major difference lies in the *Exclusive We for I* category which is favoured by Lithuanian linguists when they write in English. The British scholars seem to prefer *I* to the *Exclusive We for I* expression when they use personal pronouns. Finally, there are interesting examples

of persuasive rhetorical choices created by strategic shifts between *I* and *we*, which are only present in the British English texts.

Based on the results of the study, we could say that the effective use of personal pronouns in English academic writing may entail a challenge for Lithuanian linguists. This could be considered while designing course materials for the students in EAP or ESP fields.

We have to keep in mind though that this study is based on a limited set of data and therefore the results could be influenced by idiosyncratic preferences of the authors. In any case the study shows interesting trends of Lithuanian scholars trying to adopt some of the conventions of the Anglo-American research writing. More studies are needed to confirm these trends and to evaluate whether they pose a threat or provide an opportunity for non-native speakers in the Anglo-American world and in international English-medium publications.

References

Bennett, K. (2007). Epistemicide! The tale of a predatory discourse. *The Translator*, 13(2), 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1080/13556509.2007.10799236

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *The Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow: Longman.

Duszak, A. (1997). Introduction. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 1–8). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.1

Fløttum, K., Dahl, T., & Kinn, T. (2006). *Academic voices: Across languages and disciplines*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.148

Gotti, M. (Ed.). (2009). *Commonality and individuality in academic discourse*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Harwood, N. (2005). 'We do not seem to have a theory … The theory I present here attempts to fill this gap': Inclusive and exclusive pronouns in academic writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 26(3), 343–375. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami012

Harwood, N. (2007). Political scientists on the functions of personal pronouns in their writing: An interview-based study of 'I' and 'we'. *Text & Talk*, 27(1), 27–54. https://doi.org/10.1515/TEXT.2007.002

Hyland, K. (1998). *Hedging in scientific research articles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.54

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K., & Bondi, M. (Eds.). (2006). *Academic discourse across disciplines*. Bern: Peter Lang. https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-0351-0446-2

Hyland, K., & Diani, G. (Eds.). (2009) *Academic evaluation: Review genres in university settings*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230244290

Hyland, K., & Sancho Guinda, C. (Eds). (2012). *Stance and voice in written academic genres*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137030825

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011a). The construction of the author's voice in academic writing: The interplay of cultural and disciplinary factors. *Text & Talk*, 31(2) 173–193. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2011.008

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011b). The study of authorial voice: Using a Spanish–English corpus to explore linguistic transference. *Corpora*, 6(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2011.0002

Lorés-Sanz, R., Mur-Dueñas, P., & Lafuente Millán, E. (Eds.). (2010). *Constructing interpersonality: Multiple perspectives on written academic genres*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars.

Molino, A. (2010). Personal and impersonal authorial references: A contrastive study of English and Italian linguistics research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(2), 86–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.007

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2007). 'I/we focus on…': A cross-cultural analysis of self-mentions in business management research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(2), 143–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.05.002

Mur-Dueñas, P., & Šinkūnienė, J. (2016). Self-reference in research articles across Europe and Asia: A review of studies. *Brno Studies in English*, 42(1), 71–92. https://doi.org/10.5817/BSE2016-1-4

Sala, M. (2008). Argumentative styles as cultural identity traits in legal studies. *Linguistica e Filologia* 27, 93–113.

Sanderson, T. (2008). Interaction, identity and culture in academic writing: The case of German, British and American academics in the humanities. In A. Ädel & R. Reppen (Eds.), *Corpora and discourse: The challenges of different settings* (pp. 57–92). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.31.05san

Scott, M. (2008). *WordSmith Tools (version 5)*. Liverpool: Lexical Analysis Software.

Shaw, P. (2003). Evaluation and promotion across languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00050-X

Swales, J. M. (1997). English as *Tyrannosaurus rex*. *World Englishes*, 16(3), 373–382. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-971X.00071

Šinkūnienė, J. (2014). *Lietuviškojo humanitarinių ir socialinių mokslų diskurso ypatybės: Mokslo studija* [Insights into Lithuanian scientific discourse of the Humanities and Social Sciences]. Vilnius: VU leidykla.

Tang, R., & John, S. (1999). The 'I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18, S23–S39. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00009-5

Varttala, T. (2001). *Hedging in scientifically oriented discourse: Exploring variation according to discipline and intended audience (ms)*. [Electronic dissertation]. University of Tampere, Finland.

Vassileva, I. (1998). Who am I/who are we in academic writing? A contrastive analysis of authorial presence in English, German, French, Russian and Bulgarian. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 163–190. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.1998.tb00128.x

Vladimirou, D. (2007). 'I suggest that we need more research'. Personal reference in linguistics journal articles. In C. Gabrielatos, R. Slessor, & J. W. Unger (Eds.), *Papers from the Lancaster University postgraduate conference in Linguistics & Language Teaching. Volume 1. Papers from LAEL PG 2006* (pp. 139–157). Lancaster: Department of Linguistics and English Language Lancaster University.

Yakhontova, T. (2002). 'Selling' or 'telling'? The issue of cultural variation in research genres. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 216–232). Harlow: Longman.

Two-fold intercultural analysis

Comparing L2 and L1 English academic texts /
Anglophone writing conventions

"This dissonance"

Bolstering credibility in academic abstracts

Geneviève Bordet

Paris Diderot University 7

Writing a convincing abstract requires the ability to demonstrate credibility through an adequate selection of keywords. A case in point is the selection of shell nouns determined by *this*. Based on a comparable interdisciplinary corpus of 400 PhD abstracts written in English by writers in an Anglophone and a Francophone context, the role of shell nouns determined by *this* is studied to (1) assess their impact on textual cohesion (2) evaluate the connection between the selected terms and the discipline's epistemological values as perceived by newcomers (3) consider the influence of the writer's linguistic origin on the handling of this device. This study aims to contribute to the assessment of the parameters which might undermine writers' credibility in their scientific community.

Keywords: academic writing, EAP, labeling nouns determined by *this*, anaphors, abstracts, intercultural analysis, French, English

1. Introduction

There is now a wide consensus on the assumption that "science is a language of power" (Aronowitz, 1988, p. 351) and that this power is based on language. This vision of science confers a central role to the mastering of academic language in the competition for scientific innovation. In a globalised world, English has become the "universal language of science" (Testa, 2012). Indeed, far from being "simply a conventional means of conveying the results of laboratory experiments or armchair cogitation" (Hyland & Salager-Meyer, 2008, p. 297), scientific writing has come to be considered as a way of construing knowledge through negotiation and persuasion. Science has to be staged to become credible thereby ensuring the dissemination of innovation. Telling the truth and providing proofs is not enough; the audience has to be convinced through argumentation, which is based on linguistic choices. Following Bhatia's (2002) model, scientific persuasion takes place at the intersection of social practice, genre knowledge and textual knowledge. Academic

writers must show that they share the community's theoretical background, knowledge and methodology. They should also demonstrate knowledge of the disciplinary norms of the genre, since this skill is based on specific textual, discursive and rhetorical features (Hyland, 2004). As a result, academic learners such as PhD writers in a Francophone context are confronted with a double challenge: they have to demonstrate their mastering of the scientific community's shared language while writing in a foreign language. Among the skills required, writing a cohesive and persuasive abstract has become decisive since the quantitative explosion of scientific production has turned this previously neglected type of writing into an essential gatekeeping step in the publishing process (Swales & Feak, 2009). As the flow of publications steadily increases, abstracts appear as a screening-device in the selection of publications. According to Hyland (2004, p. 63), "abstracts are also worthy of study because they are significant carriers of a discipline's epistemological and social assumptions". PhD abstracts have not attracted as much attention and certainly do not ensure the same gatekeeping role. However, precisely because they are written by "would-be" insiders of the scientific community, they offer a revealing reflection of the candidates' vision of what is both expected from and acceptable for the target community. They also provide insight into the difficulties faced by the novice researcher engaged in the disciplinary enculturation process.

Lexicogrammatical cohesion being one of the main features of scientific discourse, textual cohesion is a decisive factor for the successful realisation of the abstract in a discipline. A case in point is the use of cohesive devices such as reference anaphoric determiners (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). This paper focuses on the specific "encapsulating" use of "labeling" (Francis, 1994) or "general" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) nouns determined by *this* to make the research process described in the abstract look like the promise of "a world that is solid, lasting and clearly bounded" (Halliday, 2004, p. 121). The point of the present study, based on a comparable interdisciplinary corpus of PhD abstracts written in English by speakers of both French and English, is to (1) assess the impact of this encapsulating device on textual cohesion, (2) evaluate the connection between the noun determined by *this* and the discipline's epistemological values as perceived by newcomers, (3) consider the influence of the writer's linguistic origin on the handling of this device. In other words, the main objective of this research is to explore the functional and rhetorical impact of the cohesive role of "labeling" nouns determined by *this* in a specific academic genre. It is hoped that the findings will contribute to a better understanding of the linguistic parameters which might undermine writers' credibility and persuasion in their scientific community.

The present paper is structured as follows. The first section discusses background issues about "labeling" or "general" nouns and *this* used as an anaphoric determiner. The second section provides a description of the corpus collected and

the methodology used for this contrastive analysis. The third section gives an overview of the results obtained at corpus level as to the functional distribution of the determiner *this*. The fourth section, based on case studies, attempts to assess the gains and losses in terms of textual cohesion and disciplinary legitimacy as a result of the use of a "labeling" noun determined by *this*. Section 5 closes with a discussion of the main findings and their implications for the study of disciplinary characteristics and the assessment of discrepancies between writers' achievement of cohesion and persuasion in this specific genre, considering their linguistic background. This assessment should contribute to a better understanding of the difficulties non-Anglophone writers may be faced with.

2. Background issues on labeling nouns and the uses of *this* as an anaphoric determiner in academic discourse

The research described in the present paper focuses on the semantic and rhetorical role of labeling nouns determined by *this* in scientific discourse. This section first provides a brief overview of the current research on the nature and function of these nouns. It then goes on to present the current discussion on the cohesive role of the determiner *this* with specific interest in research about *this* followed by a labeling noun.

2.1 Labeling nouns also known as general, signalling, shell, or metadiscursive nouns

These nouns have attracted a great deal of attention, particularly in the lexico-grammatical approach to text and discourse. Evidence of this interest is given by the profusion of terms used to designate these items (Benitez-Castro & Thompson, 2015). While these variants highlight different functions of this type of nouns, they all refer to their capacity to be used as a half empty semantic shell (Schmid, 2000). The void thus created provides the semantic space required for a reference to a previously given piece of information, as in the following example, taken from an abstract written by an anthropologist in an Anglophone context.

(1) *As an adult, the oldest daughter returns to her family's home in the harbor town of Vela Luka on Korcula. She discovers <u>a gap in her cultural experiences</u>[1] – music and dances never heard or seen in the Anacortes Croatian community. **This cultural disjuncture** motivates her to learn more.*   [Anthropo_EN]

---

1. Elements of information referred to have been underlined in all examples while *this* followed by a referring term is in bold characters.

In this specific case, "cultural disjuncture" clearly refers to the previous segment "a gap in cultural experiences". As will be shown in this chapter, the reference is not always so easy to identify.

In a critical review of research on "shell noun-hood", Benitez-Castro and Thompson (2015) show that there is a wide consensus on the idea that "semantically unspecific abstract nouns" (as in *the fact that, this idea, this claim*) have a "basic constant denotation" and an additional variable meaning depending on the context. Schmid provides ample evidence that these conceptual packages are used for "temporary concept formation" (2000, p. 41). Similarly, for Ivanič (1991), they are "carrier nouns" "in search of a context", while for Francis (1994, p. 83) the interpretation of these "labeling nouns"' requires "lexicalization in its co-text". Another point of consensus is their contribution to text cohesion as their flexible meaning enables this type of noun to "encapsulate and package a stretch of discourse" (Francis, 1994, p. 85). As part of metadiscourse, they play "relevant roles in the organization, and therefore, understanding, of texts" (Lorés Sanz, 2006, p. 316) and contribute to the interactive and interactional functions of discourse (Jiang & Hyland, 2017). In a study based on a Systemic Functional Approach, Henshall (2015) shows that "shell nouns" contribute to the scaffolding of the text as they "enable a text to unfold by compacting information", just like grammatical metaphors. For Flowerdew (2003), these "signalling nouns" act as "signposts" to guide the reader along the textual structure.

According to Benitez-Castro and Thompson (2015, p. 380), two specific structural patterns around these nouns have attracted interest: noun complement clauses (as in *the problem that*) and noun phrases preceded by the proximal demonstrative *this* (as in *this problem*). In the latter case, studies mainly focus on anaphoric deictic noun phrases in academic discourse to understand how they help "process complex pieces of information through discourse" (Benitez-Castro & Thompson, 2015, p. 380).

2.2   *This* as a determiner

Unspecific abstract nouns are very often determined by *this* in scientific discourse (Gray, 2010). Most studies highlight the contribution of these noun phrases to the textualising process. In her seminal research, Francis (1994) first points at the "encapsulating" role of *this* followed by a "labeling noun", either in a cataphoric or an anaphoric use. Drawing on Sinclair (1993), Moreno (2003, p. 125) also describes the mechanism of "encapsulating deictic acts". In her study of "The rhetoric of globalization", Pérez-Llantada considers "attended" (e.g. *this problem*) and "unattended" *this* (e.g. *this shows*) as a decisive factor of grammatical cohesion,

pointing at the functional role of the combination of an anaphoric determiner and an abstract noun: "Anaphoric abstract nouns' main discourse function is to knit the argumentative flow minutely by encapsulating part of the informational load stated in previous propositions or by thematizing the new information given" (Pérez-Llantada, 2012, p. 61).

Setting the focus on the construction of stance in a contrastive study of theses taken from two disciplines, Charles (2003) describes the "encapsulating" role of "retrospective labels" preceded by sentence-initial deictic *this*. Bordet (2015) compares the use of "labeling nouns" determined by *this* in PhD abstracts written in English by writers in an Anglophone and a Francophone context to show that this device, under certain conditions, can be very efficient in guiding the reader's attention through the rhetorical moves.

To avoid any terminological ambiguity, the choice has been made for the present study to use Francis's term "labeling noun" (or LN). This term clearly refers to the encapsulating function which is a main focus here. It is argued that the pattern "*this* + labeling noun" is a potentially powerful device in terms of cohesion and persuasion since it can be used to repackage and "encapsulate" a proposal thus changing a process into a given fact. In this regard, it contributes to building scientific credibility. Based on a comparable corpus of abstracts written in English in an Anglophone and a Francophone context, a contrastive and functional approach is expected to shed light on the linguistic factors and the complex semantic and lexical skills which ensure adequate encoding and interpretation of information. It should also contribute to the assessment of the influence of the author's linguistic and disciplinary background on the handling of these skills.

3.   Corpus and methodology

Section 3 first describes the criteria and the method used for the collection of an ad hoc comparable corpus. It then goes on to explain the approach and the methodology selected for its investigation.

3.1   A comparable corpus of PhD abstracts written in English by writers in a French and an English context

The corpus comprises 400 PhD dissertation abstracts, with 200 abstracts in Annthropology and 200 abstracts in Astrophysics. One of the main difficulties was to match the disciplines, the Anglophone and the Francophone academic worlds using different disciplinary typologies. Anthropology (Anthro) and Astrophysics

(Astro) were selected because they have a similar scope in both worlds. Besides, this choice allowed for a comparison between humanities and hard sciences.

While all the abstracts were written in English, half of them were written in a Francophone institutional context, the other half in an English-speaking context. Since it was impossible to identify the native language of each author, the criterion used was the author's institutional affiliation. Authors whose PhD had been defended in French universities were considered as Francophone writers (FW) while authors from Anglo-Saxon universities were considered as Anglophone writers (AW), disregarding their specific national origin in both cases. The extent of the current dominance of English in the scientific world is such that it seems now more relevant to compare the use of English in various institutional contexts than between so-called native and non-native speakers (see Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 75–76).

Abstracts written in English by French authors were collected from the Open Archive repository Hal,[2] and abstracts written by authors from English-speaking universities come from the ProQuest dissertation database. It should be mentioned here that all French PhD candidates have the obligation to provide an English version of their French abstract. Therefore, each abstract is available in both languages. While the focus in the present paper is restricted to a comparison between texts written in English in a Francophone and an Anglophone context, the availability of the French version provides interesting material for the interpretation of cohesive problems in texts written in English by French authors.

Table 1 below gives the quantitative description of the corpus.

Table 1. Quantitative description of the corpus

Discipline	Anthropology		Astrophysics	
Linguistic origin	AW (Anthro_EN)	FW (Anthro_FR)	AW (Astro_EN)	FW (Astro_FR)
Word tokens	36,964	22,921	30,825	23,960
Total number of words		114,670		

While the corpus comprises 400 texts, which allows for the study of a wide variety of authorial strategies, the brevity required by the genre considered explains its limited size, the mean length of abstracts in this corpus being 287 words. This size was also required for the type of fine-grain analysis which is the purpose of this research.

The main information given in Table 1 is that AW's texts are much longer than FW's texts. It is particularly the case for anthropologists. This difference is

---

2.   <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/?lang=en>

not due to the existence of a specific French norm or a required length for the database. One hypothesis might be that so far, writers in a French context are not really aware of the importance of abstracts for dissemination even more so in the case of human sciences.

3.2   Approach and method for corpus study

The procedure selected to study the corpus consists of three steps. In Step 1, a hundred abstracts were collected for each of the four subcorpora. The corpus was part-of-speech tagged with Treetagger (Schmid, 1995). Occurrences of *this* used as a determiner were then identified, using the query: (*this* followed by a noun or an optional adjective followed by a noun).

In Step 2, all the concordances of the occurrences identified for the determiner *this* were listed using the "Concordance" tool of the concordancer AntConc.[3] Then the "Viewfile" function allowed for an analysis of each occurrence's rhetorical function at text level. The result of this step is an initial corpus-based typology comprising three categories: exophoric, anaphoric, and encapsulating uses of *this*. These three functions are described in Section 4 below. The distribution of these three functions was contrasted according to linguistic and disciplinary context.

Finally, in Step 3, the focus was restricted to labeling nouns determined by an encapsulating *this*. The "Viewfile" tool of AntConc was used to determine their semantic role in context. The result of this last step is a second corpus-based typology, comprising four categories: metatextual, epistemological, interpretive, and hypernymic uses of encapsulating *this*. Each of these categories is described in more detail in Section 4. As in Step 2, the distribution of the four encapsulating functions was then contrasted according to linguistic and disciplinary origin.

While the objective of these comparisons is to assess the extent to which these two variables impact the distribution of the various semantic functions of *this*+ LN, it is important to mention here that the main point of this paper was not to reach definitive conclusions as to specific linguistic and disciplinary profiles, for both pragmatic and scientific reasons. The identification of encapsulating *this* can only be operated as a result of a close reading of the context, and may not be done automatically since it is not based on an identifiable reiteration of a previous lexical segment. This constraint precludes studying the large corpus which would be required for irrefutable statistical evidence. However, it is hoped that the variety of texts and authors (400 all in all) gives a representative image of dominant

---

3.   Anthony, L. (2014). AntConc (Version 3.4.3) [Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. Available from <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/>.

strategies for each discipline and linguistic context. The quantitative study therefore is expected to identify language and discipline-based tendencies so as to provide a contextualisation for the qualitative study described in Section 5.

3.3   Approach and method for case studies

Far from being a mere illustration of the functional and semantic typologies determined in the previous steps at corpus level, the case studies contribute to an assessment at text level of the impact of encapsulating uses of the determiner *this* on textual coherence and the persuasive effect of the abstract. Four abstracts taken from different linguistic and disciplinary contexts are studied and compared in terms of gains and losses of scientific credibility due to the way the four functions of encapsulating *this*+LN are used.

4.   Results and discussion of the corpus-based study

Results obtained at Step 2 (i.e. rhetorical functions of *this* used as a determiner) and Step 3 (i.e. rhetorical functions of encapsulating *this* followed by a labeling noun) are described in this section. For each step, a typology, based on examples taken from the corpus, is offered. Then a table presenting the overall distribution of each function according to linguistic and disciplinary origin is provided.

4.1   Definition and distribution of a functional typology of *this* as a determiner

As described above, in Step 2, the concordancing function of AntConc was used to extract and quantify occurrences of *this* used as a determiner. Its "Viewfile" function then allowed for an analysis of the rhetorical role of each occurrence in context. The resulting typology comprises three categories.

a. "Exophoric" refers to cases where expressions such as "this thesis", "this research" or "this study" refer to the PhD dissertation written by the author. It is worth noting here that this type of deictic function is specific to the genre since an abstract may either be included in the text it presents or be a "stand-alone" text. Therefore, "this research" can be considered either as an endophoric or an exophoric reference. The latter case has become much more frequent with the development of huge databases of abstracts, such as Elsevier's Scopus, with the consequence that in many cases the abstract might be freely available contrary to the text it refers to. The screening role of abstracts is all the more decisive for scientific dissemination.

b.   "Anaphoric" refers to the case where the term determined by *this* is a simple reiteration of a word or a phrase, e.g., "A cohesive model is designed…. This model…."

c.   In its third function, *this* followed by a labeling noun "encapsulates" a previously given segment of information without any reiteration of previously given terms, as is the case in Example (2).

(2)   *After decades of studies of the informal sector that mostly presented a negative portrait of these activities, I suggested examining producers' practices and organizations in terms of gains. **This concept** enabled me to identify* …. [Anthropo_EN]

"This concept" here may either refer to "gains" or to the whole left segment. In both cases, "this concept" introduces a new and positive way to look at facts previously described as negative.

Table 2 below shows the functional distribution of *this* used as a determiner across the 3 categories described above: exophoric (exo), anaphoric (ana), encapsulating (encap) *this*. The table first offers the total number of words for each sub-corpus, and the number of occurrences of *this* (raw numbers and normalised frequencies per 10,000 words).

Raw numbers of occurrences for each functional category, normalised frequencies and percentages are then given for each sub-corpus.

Table 2. Functional distribution of *this* used as a determiner

Discipline and linguistic context	Anthropo_EN			Anthropo_FR			Astro_EN			Astro_FR		
Number of words	36,964			22,921			30,825			23,960		
Occurrence of *this*	396			228			227			305		
Frequency per 10,000 words	107			99			73			127		
Type	Exo	Ana	Encap	Exo	Ana	Encap	Exo	Ana	Encap	Exo	Ana	Encap
Occurrence of *this*	154	144	98	84	85	59	52	131	44	108	123	74
Frequency per 10,000 words	41	38	26	36	37	26	17	42	14	45	51	31
Percentage/type	39%	36%	25%	37%	38%	25%	23%	57%	20%	36%	40%	24%

Since the aim of this study is to identify specific strategies in the use of the various functions of *this* followed by a determiner, according to linguistic and disciplinary origin, the focus is set on the distribution across each sub-corpus. Raw numbers and frequency per 10,000 words are only provided for a quantitative contextualisation. The percentages obtained for the three functions appear as relatively similar for the two disciplines and the two linguistic origins. For three of the four sub-corpora,

anaphoric *this* is dominant though only very slightly so for Anthropo_FR (38% anaphors versus 37% exophors). The dominance of anaphors (57%) is even stronger for Anglophone astrophysicists (ASTRO_EN) while their use of exophoric *this* is less frequent (23%) than in the other three sub-corpora. Exophoric *this* represents more than a third of total occurrences for three of the sub-corpora (39% for Anthropo_EN, 37% for Anthropo_FR and 36% for Astro_FR), slightly less for Astro_EN with only 23%. Encapsulating *this* is evenly distributed between 20 and 25% of occurrences.

4.2   Definition and distribution of a semantic typology of encapsulating *this* + LN

In Step 3, the focus was set on occurrences of encapsulating *this* followed by a labeling noun. The "Viewfile" tool of AntConc was used to display the occurrences of *this* in context, which allowed for an analysis and a classification of their various rhetorico-semantic functions along four categories: "hypernymic" (or superordinate), "metatextual", "epistemological", and "interpretive", illustrated by the following examples.

a.   In Example (3), given below, the term determined by *this* (in bold characters) is the hypernym (or superordinate) of the concept it refers to (underlined)

   (3)   <u>for XTE J1550-564</u> *we show that they are aligned to within 12 degrees by modeling the kinematics of the large-scale jets of* **this microquasar**.   [Astro_FR]

b.   In Example (4) below, the term is used as a "metatextual" marker to signal a change of rhetorical move. *This* followed by the LN "basis" encapsulates the previous move, which claims the need for "further research", as typical of the CARS model (Swales, 1990).

   (4)   *The concept of type was investigated by previous research mostly in terms of its function in the analysis and the interpretation of architectural products.* <u>*In terms of its function in the generation of architectural products however, there seems to be a need for further research.*</u> **On this basis,** *this research focuses on the generative role of type in architectural design and examines its position in creativity from a cognitive perspective.*   [Anthropo_EN]

c.   In Example (5), the LN determined by *this* is an "epistemological" marker which refers to emblematic and heuristic concepts of scientific and/or disciplinary discourse. It points at the discipline's epistemological values. Here, *this* recategorises "Chicano art" as a type of "visual vocabulary":

(5) *This allows us to reconstruct the artist archive and, thus, challenge how we see, know, and comprehend <u>"Chicano art"</u> as an aesthetic and cultural category. As such, I evidence the critical role of sexual difference within **this visual vocabulary** and illuminate networks of homosexual Chicano artists taking place in gay bars.* [Anthropo_EN]

d. Finally, *this* + LN may ensure an "interpretive" function, stating the author's point of view or interpretation of the situation, thus contributing to stance building. While it may be argued that the interpretive function is in fact inherent to all sub-functions of encapsulating *this*, only cases where labeling nouns were devoid of specific denotative value and could only be interpreted in context (e.g. "gap", "difference", "difficulty") were selected as "interpretive" markers. In the example below, "this difficulty" refers to the whole left context and labels the situation described as an obstacle which must be overcome.

(6) <u>*However, because of the redshift dependence of GRBs, the two energy bands can correspond to multiple energy bands in the source-frame, thus introducing a variable energy dependant factor into the lag-luminosity relation.*</u> *We avoid **this difficulty** by defining two energy bands in the GRB source-frame.* [Astro_EN]

Because the interpretation of the previous segment as presenting a "difficulty" requires specialised knowledge, it contributes to reinforcing the writer's legitimacy as part of a specific academic community.

Table 3 below describes the functional distribution of encapsulating *this* followed by a labeling noun: hypernymic (Example (3)), metatextual (Example (4)), epistemological (Example (5)), interpretive (Example (6)). Raw numbers of occurrences (Occ.), frequency per 100,000 words (Fw) and percentages (Per) for each function are given for each sub-corpus.

Table 3. Functional distribution of encapsulating *this* followed by a labeling noun

Function	Anthropo_EN			Anthropo_FR			Astro_EN			Astro_FR		
	Occ.	Fw	Per	Occ.	Fw	Per	Occ.	Fw	Per	Occ.	Fw	Per
Epistemological	37	100	37%	23	100	39%	21	68	46%	40	166	54%
Metatextual	19	51	20%	13	56	22%	13	42	30%	13	54	18%
Hypernymic	29	78	30%	21	91	36%	7	22	17%	17	70	23%
Interpretive	13	35	13%	2	8	3%	3	9	7%	4	16	5%

The objective here is to compare the rhetorical strategies used in each sub-corpus, based on a contrastive study of the functional distribution of encapsulating *this* + LN. Raw numbers and frequency per 100,000 words are only provided for a quantitative contextualisation.

While hard sciences, based on stabilised knowledge, might have been expected to favor the use of fixed taxonomies, the hypernymic function is actually more frequent in Anthropology than in Astrophysics, with a percentage of 30% for AW and 36% for FW in Anthropology versus 17% for Anglophones and 23% for Francophones in Astrophysics. Disregarding their linguistic origin, anthropologists favour the hypernymic function of *this* rather than the interpretive *this*, as might have been expected considering that Anthropology belongs to Human Sciences, where interpretation is decisive. However, occurrences studied at text level give evidence that the two disciplines use the hypernymic function differently. While astrophysicists use simple terms taken from a taxonomy e.g. *microquasar, region* to classify complex terms e.g. *XTE J1550–564, asteroid belt*, anthropologists tend to forge ad hoc compound terms to include a concept in a wider category (e.g. *rap movement* for *hip-hop* in Example (7) below).

The interpretive function is less frequently used in the four cases. However, Anglophone anthropologists choose the interpretive function more frequently than astrophysicists, with respectively 13% and 7%, and a frequency per 100,000 words of 35 versus 9. It is not the case with Francophone anthropologists who only choose the interpretive function of labeling *this*+LN in 3% of the total cases, in fact in only 2 occurrences (8 per 100,000 words). The interpretive function is equally rare (respectively 7% and 5%) in astrophysics' PhD abstracts written by Anglophone and Francophone writers. The astrophysicists' infrequent use of the interpretive function does not come as a surprise since this hard science may be expected to favour cohesive demonstration over interpretive argumentation. The low use of the interpretive function by Francophone anthropologists was less predictable since it differs from Anglophones' choices in the same discipline. A study of the labeling terms used for this function shows that where AW use three different words to express the same concept (*difference, disjuncture, dissonance*), FW only use the term *difference*. While there are too few instances to draw definite conclusions, one hypothesis is that this contrast might be pointing at an uneven command of the available lexical range in English.

Finally, while Francophone and Anglophone anthropologists use a similar percentage of metatextual and epistemological *this*, Anglophone astrophysicists choose the metatextual function of encapsulating *this* more frequently (30%) than the Francophones do (18%). In contrast, Francophone astrophysicists use slightly more epistemological *this* (54% versus 46%). They also use more hypernymic *this* (23% versus 17%). As a result, Anglophone astrophysicists favor the cohesive impact of metatextual *this*, which ensures the shift from one move to the next, when Francophones set the focus on shared values with the epistemological *this* or shared knowledge with hypernymic *this*.

5.   Back to the text: Gains and losses

Quantitative data and typologies extracted and built from the corpora can only be interpreted in context. While the objective of the quantitative study above was to provide an overview of tendencies related to linguistic and disciplinary contexts, the following case studies aim at understanding the impact of these strategic choices on textual cohesion and the demonstration of disciplinary legitimacy. Three cases are studied with a view to assessing the benefits and losses, in terms of textual cohesion and disciplinary legitimacy, with respect to the use of encapsulating *this* as a rhetorical device. The first two cases are taken from abstracts written in English by FWs. In the first case, the study of an extensive excerpt of the text shows how successive uses of encapsulating *this* positively contributes to the building of the argumentative flow, therefore reinforcing both the writer's stance and scientific legitimacy. The second case focuses on an unsuccessful use of encapsulating *this* by a FW and, based on the information provided by the French version, attempts to identify the reasons for this failure. The last case study describes two examples of uses of an interpretive *this* by a FW and an AW in the same discipline, and compares their impact in terms of coherence and credibility.

5.1   Case study 1: Building an effective argumentative flow

The excerpt given below was taken from the abstract of a French PhD dissertation in Anthropology. The title of the French version is: "Senegal yewuleen!" Analyse anthropologique du rap à Dakar: liminarité, contestation et culture populaire".[4]

(7)   *Since the late 1980s, there has been the emergence and spread of a new cultural and social movement in the Senegalese capital of Dakar: hip-hop. <u>Rap (the vocal form of hip-hop)</u> was spread throughout Dakar by middle-class teenagers (….). In the beginning of the 1990s, **this music** was broadcast on the radio which led to an expansion of the listening audience. In a context of presidential elections and social protest, many young people ventured into **this new kind of artistic expression** which consisted of a progressive africanization of <u>this western form</u>. I wondered whether **this "rap movement"** matched the description of a social movement or rather was an African popular culture in an urban context. Subsequently, the main issue was first to understand how a form of African creative expression like Rap in Dakar could be involved simultaneously in cultural, social, religious and political spheres.* (Moulard, 2008)   [Anthropo_FR]

---

4.   My translation: *Anthropological analysis of rap music in Dakar: liminality, protest, and popular culture. Social anthropology and Ethnology.*

A semantic "cascade" of encapsulating *this* leading from "this music" to "this new kind of artistic expression" to "this western form" ensures the contextualisation of this research on "hip-hop". Then "this rap movement" introduced by "I wondered whether" marks the beginning of the author's presentation of the proposal. Encapsulating *this* is used to relate the core concept "rap" to one narrow concept "hip hop", defined as the vocal form of rap and four broader concepts, "music", "artistic expression", "western form", "rap movement", each of which inscribes the core concept within three domains, Art, Anthropology, Musicology. The use of the hypernymic function of *this* (i.e. hip-hop as part of the "rap movement") followed by the interpretive function (i.e. "this new kind of artistic movement" and "this western form" as a recategorization of "rap") thus strengthens the newcomer's stance in the field of ethnomusicology while ensuring the shift from one move to the next.

**5.2   Case study 2: Failing to inscribe the research project
in the disciplinary field**

The excerpt given below was taken from another French PhD abstract in Anthropology. The title of the French dissertation is "La vie quotidienne à Mayotte (Comores) : essai d'anthropologie compréhensive" (Blanchy, 1988).

(8)   a.   *This study is about contemporary everyday life on the island of Mayotte, Comorose, Mozambique Channel. I considered aspects of **this culturally constructed frame**. I tried to take into account the meaning the culture users give to their everyday experience and to the symbols used to express it.*
[Anthropo_FR]

Considering that this excerpt is the beginning of the abstract, "frame" can only refer to either "contemporary everyday life" or to "the island of Mayotte". The concept "frame" does fit into the definition of the shell-noun as a half-empty semantic shell since it refers to an enclosing structure. However, neither "contemporary life" nor "island" can be described as a structure. Therefore, the English version of the abstract does not allow for the identification of the segment "this frame" refers to. The corresponding French version was studied to understand the author's initial communicative intention:

(8)   b.   *L'étude porte sur <u>les cadres</u> de la vie quotidienne contemporaine dans l'île de Mayotte, Comores, canal du Mozambique, en envisageant les aspects cognitifs de **ces cadres culturellement construits**.*
[The study focuses <u>on the frames</u> of contemporary daily life on the Island…. . It considers the cognitive aspects of **these culturally constructed frames….**]

In the French version, *this*, in the plural form *these*, is used for a simple anaphor, based on the reiteration and expansion of "frames" ("cadres"). In the English version, there is no occurrence of "frame" in the first segment. In French, the initial sentence is ambiguous as it might refer to "les cadres culturels" ("cultural frames") as well as to "le cadre de la vie quotidienne" ("daily life environment"). The ambiguity is dispelled in the second sentence with the use of the adjective "culturellement construits" ("culturally constructed") to qualify "frames". The elimination of "frame" ("cadre") in the first sentence of the English version negatively impacts the cohesive effect of the anaphor, by interrupting the flow of information.

The loss in this case is two-fold. First, the writer's legitimacy in the discipline is weakened since the concept of "framing" is a central sociological concept, which refers to a schema of interpretation (Hertog & McLeod, 2001). Secondly, the reader loses track of the research proposal, which probably implies that he/she will lose interest in the project. Due to an inadequate command of the anaphoric reference, the French writer has missed the opportunity to catch the English-speaking reader's interest by stating the conceptual context of the research project, as was the case in the French version.

5.3   Case study 3: Assessing the rhetorical impact
of interpretive encapsulating *this*

Both excerpts discussed in this section were taken from the Anthropology sub-corpus. The first one was written by a FW (Amory, 2007), the second one by an AW (Szelag, 2011).

(9)   *Among peoples from Oriental Siberia, the origins of the Yakut population represent an enigma that remains unsolved by classical studies. Indeed, <u>the Yakuts are the only horse and cattle breeders surrounded by hunters and reindeer herders</u>. **This difference with neighbouring populations** is reinforced by their language, composed by Turkic and Mongolic words, as well as their cultural specificities.*   [Anthropo_FR]

(10)   *They were able to adhere to their medication regimens, despite busy schedules, non-disclosure to friends, and treatment fatigue, and also had a somewhat better understanding of the medical aspects of HIV and HAART. Yet all of the adolescents had <u>gaps in their understanding of clinical indicators and viral resistance, and the relationship between adherence and HIV transmission</u>. **This deficit in a medical conceptualization and understanding of HIV and its ramifications** is another important finding of this study.*   [Anthropo_EN]

In both examples, the identification of the segment referred to is clear. "Difference with neighbouring populations" refers to "horse and cattle breeders" as opposed to "hunters and reindeer herders". "Deficit in (…) ramifications" refers to "gaps in their understanding". However, the expansion which complements both labeling nouns does not have the same impact. In the first example, "with neighboring populations" creates a strong cohesive link with the referred segment. It also efficiently contributes to establishing a research niche by setting the focus on the studied population's specificities. In the same way, in the second example, the segment "in a medical conceptualization and understanding of HIV and its ramifications" creates a cohesive link with the segment referred to. It efficiently establishes the connection between the results of the study and their significance. In both cases, the encapsulating *this* ensures the progression of the argumentation along rhetorical moves.

However, in the second example, the impact of encapsulating *this* reaches further. It does not only summarise the results but also offers an interpretation, based on the encapsulation of a range of medical concepts as part of a field of knowledge. Not only does "deficit" change the situation previously described into a given fact, but this fact is finally described as "an important finding". The benefit is two-fold: while guiding the reader's attention from the results to their interpretation, the writer demonstrates her ability to offer an interpretation which is relevant to the discipline's objectives, here understanding the reasons behind resistance to treatment. Therefore, it operates as a stance-building factor, while demonstrating adequacy to the objectives of the discipline.

While the choice of the term determined by encapsulating *this* ("difference" in the first case, "deficit" in the second case) is adequate in both cases, the difference here between AWs and FWs is the ability to expand on this term. The expansion in the second case is more efficient as the choice of the syntagm "HIV and its ramifications" does not only allow the reader to refer to several concepts previously listed ("clinical indicators", "viral resistance", "adherence", "HIV transmission") but it also conveys the idea of a lack of in-depth understanding of the causes and consequences of the disease, thus changing a description into an interpretation. The expression "difference in neighbouring populations", though adequate, does not impact the writer's credibility to the same extent.

5.4   Gains and losses

The point of these case studies was to assess the gains and losses in terms of textual cohesion and disciplinary legitimacy. To what extent does the use of *this*+labeling noun strengthen or undermine the author's stance based on cohesion and scientific credibility?

In Case 1 (Example (7)), the author's stance benefits doubly from this device since the progression in the choice of labeling terms ensures an efficient move from a cultural reality (hip-hop) to an "artistic expression" and a "western form", thus labeling "hip-hop" as a cultural movement.

Case 2 (Example (8)) provides an example of loss in coherence and credibility. The omission of a term in the segment referred to blocks the flow of information and undermines the credibility which could have resulted from the choice of the labeling noun ("socially constructed frame"). Comparison with the French version shows that this omission is due to the transfer of the abstract to English.

Case 3 compares excerpts of abstracts written by a FW and an AW (Examples (9) and (10)). Both authors chose adequate labeling nouns and made a clear connection with the segment referred to. However, beyond achieving cohesion, the AW also succeeds in imposing a vision and enhancing her results and their relevance to the disciplinary objectives.

6. Final discussion and conclusion

This last section discusses the main findings at corpus and text level, taking into consideration the implications for the identification of language-based and disciplinary specificities and their influence on cohesion and persuasion in English PhD abstract writing.

6.1 Final discussion

The results of the study at corpus level of *this* used as a determiner (Table 2) show that the anaphoric function of *this* followed by the reiteration of a noun is more frequent than its exophoric use (e.g. "this research"), referring to the dissertation or the research process, and also more frequent than its encapsulating use. This characteristic may be interpreted as a sign of the importance of cohesion in scientific discourse, disregarding disciplinary and linguistic origin.

Results obtained as to the distribution of encapsulating *this*+ LN show that, from a disciplinary perspective, the apparently counterintuitive distribution of hypernymic markers, used more often by anthropologists than by astrophysicists (Table 3) might be due to specific uses of the hypernymic function. Highly innovative astrophysics bases its legitimacy on its capacity to classify concepts along a limited typology. Anthropologists feel free to create ad hoc compound terms based on the combination and resulting recategorisation of already existing concepts, in keeping with Schmid's proposal of considering "shell nouns" as allowing

"temporary concept formation" (Schmid, 2000, p. 41). This finding sheds new light on the use of anaphors to express disciplinary epistemological values.

From a linguistic perspective, Anglophone anthropologists do not only use the interpretive function of *this*+LN more often than their Francophone counterparts, they also call on a wider lexical range of interpretive terms. This type of terms usually refers to a whole segment of text which makes an adequate lexical choice more complex. To this extent, writers in a Francophone context might be at a disadvantage when choosing a term from a presumably more limited repertoire. However, the low numbers of interpretive encapsulating *this* in the four sub-corpora do not allow for any definite conclusion. This hypothesis could be tested on a larger corpus of scientific papers written in an Anglophone and a Francophone context.

Findings also show that Anglophone astrophysicists tend to favor the use of the metatextual function of encapsulating *this* while the French researchers in the same discipline choose the epistemological and the hypernymic functions of *this* more often. As a consequence, Anglophones stress the cohesive effect while Francophones seem to emphasise disciplinary legitimacy. Again, one might wonder if this is the result of a deliberate choice or if it might be due to the available lexical range. Writers in a Francophone context may be more familiar with the type of discipline-specific terms which are required for the hypernymic and epistemological functions. In the metatextual function, adequate abstract terms have to be carefully selected from the general language to create an efficient connection with a large textual segment, sometimes an entire rhetorical move (e.g. "on this basis" referring to the whole previous move). This hypothesis opens interesting perspectives for English for Specific Purposes and English for Academic Purposes since it implies that, in a context of globalised science, writers in a non-Anglophone context might need more support to handle general language, and syntax, rather than specialised terminology.

The case studies provide the qualitative analysis required for an assessment of the impact of these functional strategies on the writers' ability to create a coherent and persuasive representation of their research. In the first case, the French writer uses a cascade of various functions of encapsulating *this* to simultaneously contextualise the project, create a research niche and show how hip-hop comes from the Western world to create a new form of artistic expression in Africa. In so doing, he succeeds in creating both cohesion at text level and credibility within the projected disciplinary community. In the second case, the FW fails to establish the connection between the referring segment and the segment referred to, due to her choice of labeling terms. While emblematic of the discipline, the term "frame", in Anthropology, does not have the required semantic characteristics to refer to and recategorise the segment referred to. It was shown that this failure strongly impacts the writer's ability to convince the reader of the existence of a research

niche. Finally, the last case study gave two examples of the use of interpretive encapsulating *this* by an Anglophone and a Francophone anthropologist. While the choice of the term was adequate in both cases, the impact of the use of interpretive *this* by the AW was much stronger due to her ability to expand on the referring term so as to offer an interpretation based on an elaborate type of connection between this term and a series of factors previously listed.

These examples may not provide any certainty as to the reason why AWs and FWs sometimes make different choices, although it was shown in one case that the FW did not encounter the same difficulty in French. However, they do offer material to better understand the reasons why and how these different choices impact the writers' ability to create cohesion and persuasion, thus reinforcing or undermining their credibility in the targeted community.

6.2   Conclusion

The findings of this study can obviously not give a final answer to the specificities of the use of the encapsulating *this* and labeling nouns by writers of English in various disciplines and linguistic context, in the specific genre of the PhD. Neither can they give any definitive assessment of the extent to which writers of English in a non-Anglophone context are at a disadvantage in achieving cohesion thus compromising their credibility inside their disciplinary community. The results given at corpus level only describe tendencies. Similarly case studies only shed light on specific types of uses and the resulting cohesive and persuasive impact. They certainly raise more questions than they give answers.

However, this study has uncovered useful evidence. Findings at corpus level have highlighted the specificities of each discipline's tendencies in the use of encapsulation. They have also shown that the discipline expresses its identity not only through the choice of specific encapsulating functions but also the adequacy of the selected labeling term considering this function. From a contrastive linguistic perspective, differences in the use of encapsulation show that, while these differences may be due to deliberate rhetorical choices, they seem to be frequently related to a narrower available lexical range for writers of English in a Francophone context. More specifically, writers in a Francophone context seem to find it more difficult to handle abstract terms than specialised terms they have learned in the globalised disciplinary context, which opens interesting perspectives for teaching ESP. Studies at text level confirm that the lexical choice of an adequate labeling term considering the type of encapsulating function is decisive since it may either undermine the writer's stance and credibility, or, conversely, efficiently demonstrate enculturation in the discipline.

Further studies could compare the use of encapsulating *this* in research articles written in the same discipline by writers of English in an Anglophone and a Francophone context. This broader corpus would allow for a comparative study of the lexical range of terms selected for the various functional uses of *this* with a view to assessing the impact of the writers' linguistic origin. Contrastive studies in other disciplines would also contribute to understanding the specificities of each disciplinary profile and their intercultural implications. A comparable corpus in Geography and Optics has already been collected and should help to reveal whether PhD candidates writing their abstracts in English in a Francophone context have similar or different difficulties across disciplines.

Rather than assessing the extent to which writers of English in a non-Anglophone context are at a disadvantage as compared with their counterparts, these studies should aim at better identifying the difficulties they are faced with when using complex lexicogrammatical devices such as encapsulating *this* followed by a labeling noun. This assessment would help to build adequate teaching resources for the empowerment of writers of English in a non-Anglophone context and a consciously chosen expression of cultural identity.

Acknowledgement

References

Aronowitz, S. (1988). *Science as power: Discourse and ideology in modern society*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-19636-4

Benitez-Castro, M. A., & Thompson, P. (2015). Shell-nounhood in academic discourse: A critical state-of-the-art review. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 20(3), 378–404. https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.20.3.05ben

Bhatia, V. K. (2002) Applied genre analysis; A multi-perspective model. *Ibérica*, 4, 3–19.

Bordet, G. (2015). Labeling discourse to build academic persona. *Journal of Academic Writing*, 5(1), 106–118. https://doi.org/10.18552/joaw.v5i1.165

Charles, M. (2003). 'This mystery…': A corpus-based study of the use of nouns to construct stance in theses from two contrasting disciplines. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(4), 313–326. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00048-1

Flowerdew, J. (2003). Signalling nouns in discourse. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(4), 329–346. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(02)00017-0

Flowerdew, J., & Peacock, M. (2001). *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524766

Francis, G. (1994) Labelling discourse: an aspect of nominal-group lexical cohesion. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in written text analysis* (pp. 83–101). London: Routledge.

Gray, B. (2010). On the use of demonstrative pronouns and determiners as cohesive devices: A focus on sentence-initial *this/these* in academic prose. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(3), 167–183. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2009.11.003

Halliday, M. A. K. (2004). *The language of science* (Collected works of M.A.K. Halliday, Vol. 5). London: Continuum.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Routledge.

Henshall, A. C. (2015). *Shell nouns: In a systemic functional linguistics perspective*. Repositorio de Universidade de Lisboa. Available at: <http://repositorio.ul.pt/handle/10451/20198>

Hertog, J. K. & D. M. McLeod (2001). A multiperspectival approach to framing analysis: A field guide. In S. D. Reese, O. H. Gandy & A. E. Grant. *Framing public life: Perspectives on media and our understanding of the social world*. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: 139–161.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press/ELT.

Hyland, K., & Salager-Meyer, F. (2008). Scientific writing. *Annual Review of Information Science and Technology*, 42(1), 297–338. https://doi.org/10.1002/aris.2008.1440420114

Ivanič, R. (1991). Nouns in search of a context: A study of nouns with both open-and closed-system characteristics. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 29(2), 93–114. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1991.29.2.93

Jiang, F. K., & Hyland, K. (2017). Metadiscursive nouns: Interaction and cohesion in abstract moves. *English for Specific Purposes*, 46, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2016.11.001

Lorés Sanz, R. (2006). The referential function of metadiscourse: Thing(s) and idea(s) in academic lectures. In A. Hornero Corisco, M. J. Luzón Marco, & S. Murillo Ornat (Eds.), *Corpus linguistics: Applications for the study of English* (pp. 315–333). Bern: Peter Lang.

Moreno, A. I. (2003). The role of cohesive devices as textual constraints on relevance: A discourse-as-process view. *IJES, International Journal of English Studies*, 3(1), 111–166.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2012). *Scientific discourse and the rhetoric of globalization: The impact of culture and language*. London: A&C Black.

Schmid, H. (1995). *Treetagger| a language independent part-of-speech tagger*. Stuttgart: Institut für Maschinelle Sprachverarbeitung, Universität Stuttgart.

Schmid, H. J. (2000). *English abstract nouns as conceptual shells: From corpus to cognition*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110808704

Sinclair, J. (1993). Written discourse structure. In J. Sinclair, M. Hoey, & G. Fox (Eds.), *Techniques of description: Spoken and written discourse* (pp. 6–31). London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203168097

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2009). *Abstracts and the writing of abstracts*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.309332

Testa, J. (2012). The Thomson Reuters journal selection process. *Transnational Corporations Review*, 1(4), 59–66. https://doi.org/10.1080/19186444.2009.11658213

Asserting research status, values and relevance in thesis abstracts of Science and Engineering

Maryam Mehrjooseresht and Ummul K. Ahmad

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia / Johor Bahru, Malaysia

This study examines the use of evaluation in thesis abstracts written by Malaysian novice research writers from Science and Engineering fields. Different linguistic features performing three different functions of evaluation were identified and categorised into status, value and relevance. Lexico-grammatical analysis has shown variations in terms of the overall preferences for status over value and relevance in the two fields. Science writers were more inclined to include status markers expressing certainty while summarising their research findings in the Product section of abstracts whereas Engineering writers appeared less assertive. Results from this study offer L2 research writers insights into specific linguistic choices to be made for writing efficient and persuasive research abstracts.

Keywords: abstracts, novice research writers, second language writers, Science and Engineering discourse

1.   Abstracts and promotional features

Abstracts are the main means employed by readers in dealing with mass information streaming in from today's competitive research publications. Abstracts usually communicate significance of the accompanying report; they aim to prepare the readers and to persuade them to accept the novelty and credibility of the information presented in the report proper. The American National Standards Institute (ANSI) defines it as "an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document, preferably prepared by its author(s) for publication" (ANSI, 1979).

Abstracts as integrated part of theses/dissertations in particular have an important role of transferring condensed technical information. As students proceed to the completion of their academic studies, they are expected to construct arguments that characterise expert professional academic practices that require them to add a further dimension that is beyond the level of discourse, in the way which they

present and situate their own research. For novice writers, this requirement places a heavy demand on their writing skills as they need to strike a balance between showing commitment to their ideas and making new knowledge claims that would be evaluated by others. Thesis/dissertation writers need to present a summary at the onset of their work objectively while at the same time make research claims without appearing too assertive.

In thesis/dissertation abstracts, writers are expected to introduce their research, summarise the methodology used, and highlight novel findings in a tightly-confined space with word limits. In research communications, the abstract is "critical to disciplinary knowledge-making" (Hyland, 2006, p. 63) crucially important in representing work of researchers, thus making it a genre worth studying. It serves not only as a summary but also acts as promotional highlights to garner readership. The promotional nature of abstracts contributes to the evaluative choices made by writers; in positioning their own work, research writers inevitably convey their evaluation towards prior knowledge claims made by others and display attitudes towards their own findings, all within the restricted space prescribed to them. Evaluative language is thus an important means by which writers intervene into their discourse to promote the value and importance of their knowledge claims.

In order to understand the underlying structure of the genre, linguists have approached abstracts from different perspectives, including generic structuring (e.g. Dahl 2000; Graetz, 1985; Hyland, 2000; Lorés, 2004; Melander, Swales, & Fredrickson, 1997; Salager-Meyer, 1990; Samraj, 2005), cross-disciplinary differences (e.g. Hyland, 2000; Samraj, 2002b), linguistic patterns in different languages (e.g. Van Bonn & Swales, 2007; Ventola, 1994) and linguistic markers of interpersonality (e.g. Hyland, 2000; Hyland & Tse, 2005; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Stotesbury, 2003). From a functional point of view, two basic types of abstracts are distinguished: indicative and informative abstracts (Graetz, 1985; Jordan, 1991; Ullmann, 1990; Ventola, 1994). Other studies have examined abstracts from disciplinary perspectives to reveal different rhetorical emphases: for example, Melander et al. (1997) studied abstracts from Linguistics, Medicine, and Biology; Huckin (2001) examined Biomedicine; Samraj (2002b) focused on sub-fields in Biology, while Hartley (2003) on Psychology.

These studies have acknowledged cross-disciplinary variations in the structuring of abstracts. In a study of 800 article abstracts both from hard disciplines and soft disciplines, Hyland (2000) has shown that the schematic structure of abstracts varies noticeably according to discipline. Huckin (2001) found that abstracts from Biomedical articles often exclude the Purpose move. Pho's (2008) examination of the abstracts drawn from Applied Linguistics and Educational technology

suggests that there are some variations in terms of rhetorical structure and use of linguistic features representative for different moves across disciplines. Samraj (2002b) also studied disciplinary distinctions in abstracts from Wildlife Behavior and Conservation Biology, and found that despite being closely-related fields, the abstracts studied reveal different rhetorical prominence. Bordet (2009) compared the occurrences of lexical items in thesis abstracts written by native and non-native writers and the results revealed dominant patterns which play a significant role in the texture of the abstracts.

Stotesbury (2003) studied attitudinal language in abstracts from three main domains of Humanities, Social Sciences, and Natural Sciences. The findings indicate that evaluative features were used more commonly in the abstracts of soft sciences (Humanities and Social Sciences) than those in the Natural Sciences. A further difference in the three disciplinary domains is manifested in the techniques of writing abstract in the soft sciences and hard sciences. Meanwhile, Shaw (2000) notes that dissertation writers tend to strongly use evaluative language, such as the adjectives "necessary" or "important", to communicate the significance of their research and engage with readers, and they were more likely to double-hedge their claim (overuse evaluative expressions in their claims), as in "suggesting that X may be Y" (p. 52). In Shaw's view, such employment of markers of evaluation might be ascribable to the genre, or to the fact that novice research writers may be relatively lacking in writing skills or in self-confidence.

Analyses of attitudinal expressions in abstracts have also provided new insights into the differing ways in which writers use evaluative language to convey their personal feelings and assessments in relation to the content (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010; Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2002; Hyland & Tse, 2005). Gillaerts and Van de Velde (2010) explored the distribution of interpersonal metadiscourse using Hyland's (2005) categorisation. Based on their research findings, the abstracts appear to be not simply the summary of the accompanying research, but also contain certain characteristic linguistic resources to express writers' personal evaluations with respect to the content.

Indeed, academic writers use evaluative devices to express their attitude and to situate their research in their own field. Second language (L2) abstract writers, however, often find representing points of view while making knowledge claims a challenging rhetorical maneuver to accomplish (cf. Hyland & Milton, 1997; Shaw 2000). Evaluative markers enable writers to construct their text while anticipating the intended readers' knowledge and expectations, and to promote their work through interaction with the readers and capture their attention. Evaluation as such is the manifestation of dominant cultural norms, values and belief systems in discourse communities which form the social bases of texts. As evaluative markers

are used by writers to become socially involved and to mark their commitments, beliefs and attitudes which are often socio-culturally situated, we have compelling reason to expect variations in their use across different cultural and language communities with their own communicative norms, discursive practices and rhetorical conventions (cf. Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2005).

Explanations for cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary variations amongst academic writers from different culture and language groups can be found in many studies focusing mainly on their preferred ways of organising ideas, and the influence of cultural preconceptions on communication and cross-cultural/linguistic differences have been found to influence the use of evaluative markers in negotiating knowledge claims and construct scientific knowledge (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hinkel, 2002; Yakhontova, 2002). Friginal and Mustafa (2017), for instance, described structural and cultural differences in the use of informational discourse markers in English research article abstracts as US-based and L2 writers situate themselves and their research in their respective disciplines.

The study of linguistic features in abstracts as mentioned above has shed light on our understanding of different ways in which writers negotiate the significant information in research abstracts and the importance of imparting this knowledge to emerging research writers. These studies have shown that the writers' linguistic choices can have a variety of realisations, from evaluative *that*-clauses (Hyland & Tse, 2005), to modals such as *will* and *can*, as well as choices of verb tenses (Salager-Meyer, 1992). These lexical and structural varieties probably account for the considerable attention interpersonal meanings have received, especially within the discourse of research abstracts where the focus has been on how authorial commitment, intent, and involvement are realised and negotiated within academic communications (Hunston, 1994, 2011; Hyland, 2000).

The study of expressions of doubt and certainty by Hyland and Milton (1997) is particularly relevant to the present analysis. They examined and compared academic essays written by L2 writers in English with those of native speaker writers. To investigate such expressions, Hyland and Milton set up a 1,000,000 word corpus examining text samples chosen from L2 and native language writers. Their analysis showed that the number of occurrences of lexical forms of doubt and certainty were not equal across sub-corpora. Their findings showed that the L2 writers differed significantly from the L1 writers in that L2 writers relied on a more limited range of items, offered stronger commitments, and exhibited greater problems in conveying a precise degree of certainty.

Most studies on abstracts (with the exception of Stotesbury, 2003) have limited their examination to only one or two linguistic features. Salager-Meyer (1992), for example, studied the distribution of modality and verb tenses throughout the

different sections of the abstract while Hyland and Tse (2005) investigated the use of evaluative *that*-clauses in research article abstracts. Although in-depth analyses of certain features of interest have been carried out, a more comprehensive description of the linguistic features in the generic structure of abstracts would give novice writers a more global view of the genre. Besides, the majority of earlier studies have focused on scholarly writing and evaluative language found in published and professional abstracts produced by expert English-speaking writers (see Hyland, 2000; Hyland & Tse, 2005; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Stotesbury, 2003). However, less is known or documented about the employment of evaluative language and its functions in abstracts written by novice research writers, particularly in different disciplinary research communities within an L2 context.

2. Theoretical orientation

As abstracts have clearly been established as an independent genre that is highly promotional, it inevitably involves the readers. Writer-reader involvement features overlap with other discoursal constructs that refer to the linguistic marking of evaluation (Hunston, 1993, 2011). In this study, we define evaluation as expressions of personal feelings, attitudes, value judgments, or assessments (cf. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999). Since the most obvious function of evaluative language is expressing the writer's judgments, these features undoubtedly play an important role for persuading and gaining readership. Not only that abstract writers need to show that their research contains new information, but they also need to carefully situate their claims against some prior texts or knowledge. This persuasive act cannot be simply achieved by objective presentation of outcomes of the study using technical terminology, but by employing lexis, often marked subtly, that carries expressions of the writer's attitudes towards the content of their texts (Hyland, 2000).

The study thus subscribes to the theoretical understanding that views language as social interactions in communities. Knowledge is constructed within a framework of social communities, and academic writers as members of disciplinary communities need to consider the expectations of their community. Another concept which has been crucial in this study is Hunston's concept of evaluation in academic discourse. Evaluation marks an orientation toward understanding the social and pragmatic nature of language within the sociocultural and interactional contexts in which it occurs. In exploring the means by which evaluation is expressed in abstracts, an initial distinction is made from evaluation functions drawn from Hunston (1993) including "status" that points to the writer's degree of certainty in

the truth of a proposition, "value" that ascribes a value to an entity on the good-bad scale, and "relevance" that assigns a significance status to the information.

This study examines the links between specific disciplinary writing conventions and the practices of the discourse communities. Through analyses of linguistic features pertaining to evaluation markers and interaction with readers in thesis abstracts in the fields of Science and Engineering, this study contributes to the present body of L2 research in disciplinary writing practices. Following the approaches taken by Hyland (2000) and Hunston (2011), we aim to reveal some key aspects of rhetorical distinctions of Science and Engineering discourse communities and to provide examples of evaluation markers as used in the disciplinary contexts. Three questions were formulated to guide the analysis of thesis abstracts written by novice L2 research writers:

1. How do novice academic writers in Science and Engineering disciplines structure their thesis abstracts in an English L2 context?
2. How do the social and disciplinary practices of the novice academic writers shape the rhetorical choices made in these thesis abstracts?
3. What are the evident similarities and differences across disciplines?

3.   Corpus description

To explore the differences in rhetorical and linguistic conventions of thesis abstracts within the contexts of Science and Engineering disciplinary fields, a corpus of thesis abstracts was compiled from two broad disciplines representing the Sciences and Engineering. Abstracts included in this study were selected based on research reports prepared by novice research writers, all of whom are L2 English speakers, to fulfill the requirements for Masters and Doctoral degrees. The abstracts, produced between the years 2000 to 2010, were collected from the university library collections of four leading research universities in Malaysia. The entire corpus comprised 455 masters and 411 doctoral theses abstracts, which contribute to the total word counts of 291,104. Assuming that disciplinary culture may be an important factor and that abstracts written by Science and Engineering writers may exhibit differences in their rhetorical structure and use of evaluative languages, the corpus was divided accordingly into two sub-corpora. The Science sub-corpora consists of 433 abstracts (approximately 10, 000 sentences and about 141, 242 words) while the Engineering sub-corpora is composed of 433 abstracts (approximately 10, 000 sentences and 149, 862 words). Details of the corpus are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Description of the corpus

	No. of abstracts		No. of words	No. of sentences	Mean length (words)
Science	PhD	Master			
Physics	52	15	19430	1447	290
Zoology	61	12	27010	1533	370
Chemistry	34	106	51100	3220	365
Botany	17	12	7975	667	275
Biology	40	60	36159	2700	270
Physiology	0	24	8400	480	350
Total/Average	**204**	**229**	**141242**	**10047**	**326.21**
Engineering					
Civil	67	103	57508	4420	370
Mechanical	1	53	19440	1188	280
Electrical	54	11	23032	1260	360
Chemical	79	44	39280	2962	290
Environmental	6	15	9280	483	350
Total/Average	**207**	**226**	**149862**	**10313**	**346.11**
Total		866	291104	20360	336.14

4. Methodology

The first step in the analysis was to code the data in order to develop consistency in the way of describing the genre according to the function performed in the whole data. The coding of data followed Hyland's (2000) explanation of move structure for abstracts. Hyland's (2000) classification of rhetorical moves in article abstracts differentiates between the five moves including Introduction ("Establishes a topic and prepares for the present study"); Purpose ("Describes aims and purposes"); Method ("Describes experimental procedures, approach, data, etc."); Product ("Announces results or main findings"), and Conclusion ("Comments on the results, generalizes findings, defends its importance").

A set of lexical resources consisting of 111 evaluative items was examined using concordance software AntConc 3.2.4.w (Anthony, 2011) to determine whether they functioned to mark evaluative language in the texts. The search terms were selected partly by consulting the literature on evaluation (see Biber, Connor & Upton, 2007; Hunston, 2011; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Hyland & Milton, 1997), and partly by manual reading of the thesis abstracts, which helped us to assess the forms and their functions. The interesting point is to see whether attitudinal or epistemic markers are used more frequently in general and throughout the abstract. They

were then analysed to determine their evaluative status. A further purpose of examining evaluative markers was to make clearer distinctions regarding what to consider evaluation and what to exclude.

Identifying evaluation is a question of identifying comparative, subjective, and value-laden signals. The importance of co-texts for the present type of analysis must be considered as meaning of the same lexical item may have a different connotation in different texts. Take the word *significant* for an instance, as the following two examples from the corpus:

(1) *This study addressed the <u>significance</u> of MRSA among cats and dogs, animal species that are in close proximity to humans.*   (PS-Z-UPM-6)

(2) *The results from microscopic appearance showed changes in microstructural, textural and molecular weight of protein profile which were <u>significantly</u> affected (P≤0.05) by heating temperature and 1% alkali, thus indicating involvement of molecular changes affecting the physical characteristics.*   (PS-BIO-USM-6)

The latter use of "significantly" in Example (2) was not regarded as evaluative in the present analysis since "significantly" refers to statistical importance of the data. A number of the retrieved instances were found not to be evaluative, thus considered irrelevant and subsequently discarded. The frequencies given in this study represent only the acceptable evaluative uses of the terms, which include the set of words which express evaluative meaning.

For coding of evaluative categories in this study, the following principles were applied: when the evaluative resources represent the degree of certainty (e.g. *show*, *obvious*), then the lexical forms are interpreted as STATUS markers. Where evaluative markers are encoded as negative or positive (e.g. *good*, *great*), the lexical forms are interpreted as VALUE. When the evaluative resources represent the importance of the propositions, the lexical forms are interpreted as RELEVANCE (e.g. *significant, important*).

5.   Findings

The analysis has shown that there are only minor differences in the generic structuring in the two sets of abstracts. The vast majority of the abstracts contained the five structural elements: Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product and Conclusion. At a general level, the pattern that emerged is that the Methods and Product moves are regarded as the most important moves in both sub-corpora. The analysis has also shown that the Method and Product sections are the longest sections in thesis abstracts. Table 2 below shows results of the analysis and identifies the segments in thesis/dissertation abstracts across disciplines.

Table 2. Moves and their frequencies in each discipline

Sections	Science (% of total moves)	Words per move Avg.	Engineering (% of total moves)	Words per move Avg.
Introduction	213 (49.1%)	26	259 (61.5%)	25
Purpose	256 (59.1%)	17	309 (74.8%)	20
Method	401 (92.6%)	73	403 (93.4%)	80
Product	393 (90.7%)	190	370 (84.4%)	195
Conclusion	231 (53.3%)	19	222 (52.5%)	24

As can be seen, there are differences in the two fields. As noted earlier, the most important segments were Method and Product sections as they represented more than 80 per cent of the abstracts. Purpose move plays a secondary role in the thesis abstracts, as it tends to be very short in length. However, its role appears to be an important one in that they are included in a sizeable percentage of the abstracts (74.8% in the Engineering sub-corpora). Essentially, it seems that the function of this section is to serve as a reminder: the readers most often are reminded of the aim of the study that has been generally established in the Introduction section as well as distinguishing between the research that has been included with the abstract and other related studies that have been done earlier by other scholars. The Conclusion section, occurring in almost half of the abstracts, meanwhile, also plays an important role of informing the reader what the contribution of the research is. What is noteworthy about the Conclusion section is that writers place the emphasis on situating the research when closing their abstracts. However, this role is noticeably a secondary one when the frequency and length of this move are considered in relation to the Method and Product moves (see Table 2).

The analysis of evaluative markers in our corpus has shown that explicit expressions of evaluations are found throughout all five sections of abstracts, and they are not restricted to particular generic segments. Research writers mark their evaluation in the Introduction section of the abstracts, as in the following example. The underlined expressions signify the evaluative markers.

(3)   *Infectious bursal disease (IBD) is an <u>important</u> immunosuppressive viral disease of chicken caused by IBD virus (IBDV). There are several strains of IBDV, and vaccination may not protect the chicken against all strains. Therefore as for control and prevention effort, it is <u>important</u> to know which strain is present in the field.*
(PS-Z-UPM-43)

The section typically begins with a statement that promotes the importance and interestingness of the work. Example (3) from Zoology illustrates the typical introductory move for presenting the research. This brief presentation simultaneously creates a space for the writer to state the purpose of his study.

Abstract writers also describe their aims and purposes of the study and draw readers' attention to the distinctness of their research in terms of data and approach in the Purpose move, as illustrated in Example (4) below, drawn from Civil Engineering. Evaluative marker was expressed explicitly in this example by the use of evaluative adjective *new*.

(4)   *The primary aim of this research is to develop a <u>new</u> product called CRAB it (CR30 and CR50) that comprises of crumb rubber powder and additives for use in dense asphalt mixtures (ACW14).*   (PE-C-USM-330)

To describe the methodology used in their study, writers generally explained procedures, identified new techniques or approaches, enumerated methodological principles and range of operation and precision with the help of evaluative adjectives (e.g. *expensive*, *effective*, *essential*) and evaluative adverb(ial)s (e.g. *commonly, successfully*) as in the following example. Example (5) below taken from Physics typifies this move.

(5)   *The study includes the growth of AlN buffer layer on the substrates for the preparation to grow III-nitrides epitaxial layers. For exploratory works, the growths were carried out on Si (111) and sapphire (Al2O3) instead of 6H-SiC which is <u>expensive</u> and <u>commonly</u> used. In this work, the doping process during epitaxial growth of III-nitrides hetero structures was investigated. N-type GaN and p-type GaN were <u>successfully</u> grown on Si (111). The use of quantum dots (QDs) is more <u>effective</u> in nitride semiconductors since the zero-dimensional electronic states in the QDs play an <u>essential</u> role for increasing threshold current in wide band gap semiconductors. <…>.*   (PS-PHYS-USM-17)

It is noticeable that many of the linguistic items that express the writer's comment display strong preference for positive assessments. In Example (5) above, lexical items such as *effective* and *essential* function to highlight the role of the materials as well as the approach used in the study. As shown, adverbial *successfully* was employed twice to modify "grown" in the Method segment of the abstract. The positive assessment may encourage readers to further read the abstract. Example (6) below shows the Product move that provides the significant findings of the study.

(6)   *Irrigation emitter lateral at 10 cm depth was found to be the <u>best</u> to grow okra plant using both fresh and mixed drainage water <…>. The average okra plant height with full irrigation using fresh water and emitters at the soil surface was 23 cm; however, it was 31 cm using the mixed water, <u>probably</u> due to some salts present in the mixed drainage water. The study showed that good okra harvest is still <u>possible</u> with mixed drainage water at 4.2 dS/m applied using only about three-quarter of the irrigation water requirement as compared to 2.2 dS/m for*

> *fresh water. The <u>possibility</u> of using mixed drainage water under deficit irrigation will increase the water availability for agriculture in arid areas. Consequently, better fresh water conservation is <u>possible</u>. A drip irrigation system design that can be considered as atypical system to grow okra plant in arid areas was developed in this study.* (PE-CH-UPM-341)

Example (6) taken from Chemical Engineering presents the findings by providing the best information to grow okra plant. The writer made tentative claim through his evaluation and showed uncertainties about the effect of salts in the mixed drainage water on the height of okra plants, using markers such as *probably* and *possibility*. Lexical items such as *probably* not only allow writers to express degree of their certainty in what they say but also to mark their evaluations. In fact, writers' doubt and lack of precision could also function to emphasise shared information, group membership, and involvement with audience (Hyland, 1999).

(7) *The findings from this research <u>suggest</u> that the sheep was unable to confer an <u>effective</u> or <u>protective</u> immune response against the pathogen. Peripheral blood macrophages are the most <u>important</u> first line of defense in removing the E.ovis from the peripheral blood.* (PS-Z-UPM-36)

Example (7) is the Conclusion section of an abstract from the Science disciplines. Using the verb *suggest*, the writer expressed his tentative stance when interpreting the results of his study and used evaluative adjectives such as *effective* and *important* to assert the value and relevance of his study.

Distribution of evaluation functions

Considering the fact that evaluative language is realised through a set of language resources to position the information throughout the text, we can expect that some types of evaluative items will tend to congregate at specific points in the abstracts. Figure 1 shows the distribution of evaluative items in normalised figures. The difference is most remarkable in the Product section. While the normalised figures for evaluative items in other moves are roughly similar, the engineering writers use evaluative items slightly more often than the science writers in Introduction (325 as compared with 233). Even though explicit expressions of interpersonal meanings are not constrained to any particular generic stages or moves, they are prominently featured in the Product section, which serves to present the results (or product) of the study.

The differences across sub-corpora may run deeper than simple frequency counts; for example, certain lexical forms are associated more strongly with certain
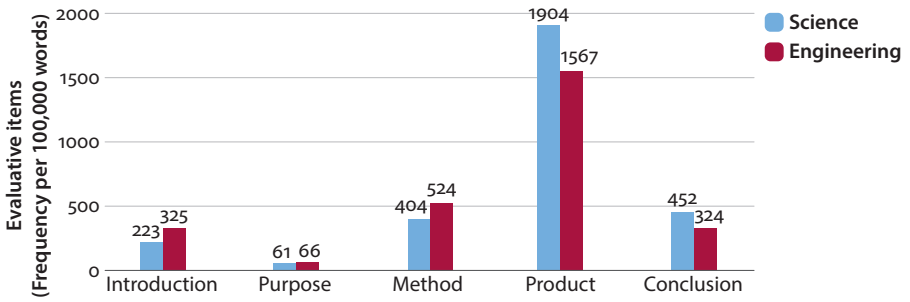
Figure 1. Evaluative markers counted per section in thesis abstract (in normalised figures)

evaluation functions. To qualitatively map out the similarities and differences in evaluative markers across the sub-corpora, the discourse functions performed when writers use evaluative language were analysed. The categories are based on Hunston's (1993) model of the function of the interpersonal markers of evaluation in the academic texts, namely STATUS, VALUE and RELEVANCE.

Table 3 presents the evaluation functions identified in the study. The raw number of evaluative markers can be mapped on three evaluation functions identified earlier. As can be seen from Table 3, the category of STATUS reveals itself to be the most significant in our corpus.

Table 3. Evaluation functions and their realisations in thesis abstracts (raw occurrences)

Evaluation functions	Science	Engineering
Status	3599	3474
Value	577	578
Relevance	123	150
Total	4299	4202

At this juncture, it is important to consider how different lexical items are employed to construct a particular type of evaluation function. According to Hunston (2011), evaluation of STATUS is always present in research writing and it reflects the writer's degree of certainty towards the propositional content. The evaluation of STATUS is found through the writer's different commitment expressed, for example, in terms of certainty-uncertainty scale. It can be expressed through a range of lexical items. Hunston (2011) classifies evaluative verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, adverbials and modal auxiliaries as resources for the category STATUS. Thus, the extent of writers' precision and confidence in the statements will be determined in part by the frequency of linguistic items that carry some interpersonal potential

ranging from uncertain possibility to confident prediction. Example (8) below is a typical example of when writers in our corpus make references to STATUS (the emphases are ours).

(8) *It was <u>discovered</u> that the two-dimensional flow model <u>could</u> predict the magnitude of the flow at an <u>acceptable</u> sensitivity. In the case of pollutant transport problem, the one- and two-dimensional models <u>showed</u> good performance. The horizontal spreading of the contaminant was more <u>obvious</u> when the water was tapped from the unconfined aquifer.*   (PE-C-UTM-260)

In the extract above, the writer evaluates aspects of the research topic, namely pollutant transport problem positively. The writer's certainty is expressed through strong reporting verbs *discover* and *show* and evaluative adjective *obvious*, while modal verb *could* was used to express epistemic possibility. Writers may choose to attach a degree of uncertainty to their statements to exhibit caution in relation to their own findings. The evaluative choices made indicate the way in which they report their positions in regards to their research. The evidence given here supports Hyland's (2005) observation that there is a "critical importance for writers to present their claims with appropriate caution and regard to colleagues' views" (p. 178). In both our sub-corpora, this "regard to colleagues' views" manifests itself through the use of epistemic devices such as *probably*.

In general, the analysis reveals remarkable similarities with both sets of abstracts employing similar frequencies of evaluative markers. However, the Science writers vary considerably in the extent to which they used specific evaluative devices to express epistemic meanings. Science writers made more confident knowledge claims while the Engineering writers used more tentative expressions. For example, epistemic verb *show* in our data occurred twice as often in the Science abstracts while fewer epistemic devices expressing certainty were found in the Engineering abstracts.

Evaluation functions per section in thesis abstract

To this point, a picture is emerging of a discourse in which novice writers personalise their abstracts with explicit evaluative language. We then considered how such choices function in relation to the overall purpose of the thesis abstracts based on Hunston's three different evaluation functions. Table 4 below presents the frequencies of markers used to realise different functions of evaluation in the generic structure of abstracts. Science is shown by (Sc) and Engineering by (En).

Table 4. Functions of evaluation according to section in thesis abstracts

Evaluation functions	Introduction		Purpose		Method		Product		Conclusion		Total	
	Sc	En	Sc	En	Sc	En	Sc	En	Sc	En	Sc	En
Status	(181)	(386)	(51)	(62)	(367)	(663)	(2505)	(1979)	(496)	(404)	3599	3474
%	5	11.1	1.4	1.7	10.1	19	69.57	56.9	13.87	11.6		
Value	(85)	(69)	(23)	(33)	(180)	(100)	(163)	(311)	(126)	(65)	577	578
%	14.7	11.9	3.9	5.7	31.1	17.3	28.2	43.8	21.8	11.2		
Relevance	(50)	(57)	(10)	(6)	(24)	(23)	(22)	(59)	(17)	(9)	123	150
%	40.6	38	8.1	4	19.5	15.3	17.8	39.3	13.8	6		
Total	316	488	84	101	571	786	2689	2349	639	478	4299	4202

As shown in Table 4, evaluation frequency is the highest in the Product section in comparison to the other sections of abstracts (see also Figure 1) and in particular, the STATUS markers. The evaluative function referring to STATUS is frequently used in the corpus to imply a value of research in terms of certainty, usuality, probability, approximation, and possibilities, while presenting the writers' claims in subtle deployment of assertion or doubt. Our analyses showed that in both sets of abstracts, STATUS is the most common rhetorical function of evaluations employed. The importance of STATUS, using Hunston's terminology, is that it determines how the statements differ from each other in terms of how certain or uncertain the writers are. There are also differences in which novice writers express their certainty in the texts.

The use of certainty markers is usually seen as an effective means of promotion, which demonstrate a writer's commitment level to a proposition. This offers explanations for the high frequencies of certainty markers in our writers' abstracts. The Science writers are more inclined to include epistemic stance expressing certainty where they summarise their research. The fact that the writers were all constructing a short text, an abstract, in contrast to the full thesis, may have encouraged them to use a wider range of rhetorical strategies for positioning their own study, including interpersonal linguistic features in the abstracts.

The differences in the evaluation functions point to some interesting overall preferences, for example, the preference for STATUS over VALUE and RELEVANCE. Evaluation along STATUS category is the basic function of evaluation in both sets of abstracts. From a rhetorical point of view, this gives some items lexico-grammatical prominence over others. The STATUS category is realised explicitly through a variety of linguistic devices, including modality of certainty, probability, approximation and usuality, among others, that enable a writer to evaluate, make judgements, and give opinions, as well as to compare and generalise. As the Product sections are more likely to contain knowledge claims, which requires more writer-reader

negotiation, then it is only reasonable to expect the highest number of STATUS markers in the section. While STATUS expresses an opinion of certainty, VALUE refers to an idea of goodness/desirability. The VALUE function is generally signaled through evaluative adjectives, and is also visible in the Product sections. The evaluative adjectives *new, good, great* are frequently used in these sections to express the value of the research. Writers deemed that this function serves as a strategic necessity to establish novelty and worthiness of their ideas in relation to the existing knowledge already known in the community.

In both sub-corpora, we have seen that the preferred positions for RELEVANCE function are the Introduction and Product sections. Table 4 shows that evaluation along RELEVANCE function is equally important in the Introduction section in both sub-corpora, 40% in Science and 38% in Engineering. It is apparent that writers begin their abstracts with describing the importance of the research to achieve a strong effect. This is similar to claiming centrality move in Swales (1990) where centrality claims are "appeals to the discourse community" (p. 144), through which the writers ask the readers to accept that the information as indeed part of a noteworthy, important, or well-established research area. Example (9) from the Engineering sub-corpus illustrates this.

(9)   (Introduction) *Construction consulting companies of today are considered to be a part of what has been called the knowledge society. This is due to the increasing <u>importance</u> of intangible assets as the major source of wealth creation in construction industry for innovation and improved business performance. At the same time, information technology has evolved to become an <u>important</u> tool in promoting organizational productivity. As such, knowledge and Information Technology Infrastructure (ITI) capability have become <u>critical</u> concerns for construction consulting companies to improve project performance.*   (PE-C-UTM-247)

In Example (9) evaluative markers are used to provide promotional information, suggesting that evaluation is most likely to ascribe positive value to the presented information. Although negative marker is defined to ascribe negative value to dissenting views (Afros & Schryer, 2009), in Example (9) for instance, the word "critical" highlighted the usefulness of the study. Readers are drawn in by the writer's evaluation of the current state of knowledge which in turn helps the writer to position his study. Indeed, the use of centrality claims is equally important in the Introduction section from both of our sub-corpora. This contrasts with findings of Samraj (2005) where she found that abstracts from Conservation Biology and Wildlife Behavior were different in terms of the presence of centrality claims.

As observed in our corpus, evaluative language played a pivotal role in both fields, and evaluation of STATUS formed an integral part of rhetorical strategies in

the Product sections. The highest number of evaluative markers was found in this section, in keeping with the purpose of describing the main findings or results, or what was accomplished (Hyland, 2000). Evaluative markers clustered prominently in the Product section in both sets of abstracts (see Table 4). The only exception is that the evaluative items marking RELEVANCE occurred more frequently in the Engineering abstracts compared to the Science abstracts (39.3% and 17.8%, respectively). Example (10) typifies evaluations found in the Product section in the Engineering sub-corpora.

(10)   (Product) *Based on the general Water Quality Index (WQ1), it was <u>found</u> that the water quality of zone A and B are <u>consistently better</u> than those of zone C, D and M. Nevertheless, the value of WQI in the bay <u>still</u> falls within the "medium" categories, where the values of WQI are above 51.0. The heavy metals concentration in water and sediment at the river mouth and estuaries along the bay has <u>shown</u> a gradual decrease since 1990. However, the constant presence of heavy metals in Jakarta Bay <u>reveals</u> a recent input of metals, which is <u>probably</u> due to anthropogenic sources. Furthermore, concentration of Pb <u>shows</u> higher concentration of some other metals (Cd, Cr and Cu) in both the seawater and sediment.*
(PE-C-UTM-281)

In Example (10), the major knowledge claim in the abstract was marked by a statement based on firm empirical evidence. Although the author uses certainty markers (i.e. *reveal*) to reinforce the relationship between available evidence and wide-ranging claims, he hedged a little on the findings of the research (i.e. *probably*) to mitigate the force of the major knowledge claim.

The patterns of evaluation functions reveal significant difference in the way linguistic resources expressing evaluation are distributed across sections of the abstracts. As the results suggest, STATUS is the most important type of evaluation function particularly in the Product section of both sets of abstracts and it primarily reflects the writer's certainty or doubt towards the propositional content. Through the study of functional patterns of STATUS markers in closer detail, an additional layer of evaluative meaning can be revealed – one that is inscribed in many of the lexical markers of evaluation such as *evident*, *clearly*, *certainly*, and *probably* (Hyland & Milton, 1997). Thus, a more detailed analysis of the STATUS markers of evaluation will inform our understanding of the pragmatic act of evaluating status in thesis abstracts.

The extent of writers' conviction in their statements is determined in part by the range from uncertain possibility to confident prediction as well as by the degree of deference and modesty to the audience (Hyland & Milton, 1997). These epistemic meanings are seen to construe a persuasive summary by overtly grounding the proposition in the individual subjectivity of the writers. Table 5 shows the total

Table 5. Total raw number of lexical devices used to express epistemic meaning
in the product section of abstracts

	Science	Engineering
Total epistemic devices in the Product section	2505	1979
Frequency per 100,000 words	1773	1320

number of linguistic features used to express epistemic meanings in the Product
section of both sub-corpora while Figure 2 indicates that there is a slight difference
between the Science and Engineering texts in the total frequencies of resources used
to express the epistemic modality.
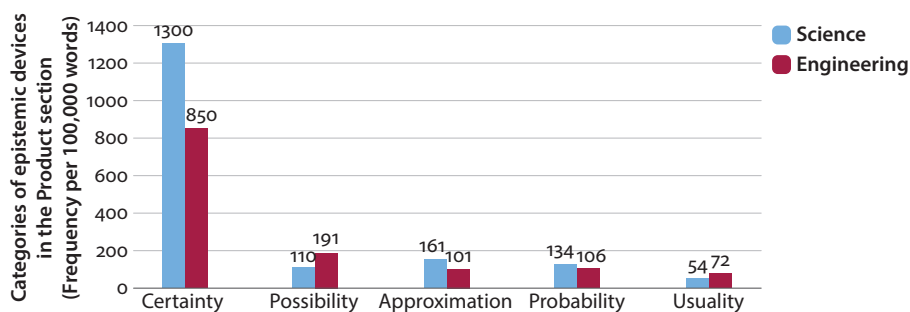
Figure 2. Distribution of epistemic resources among categories in the product section
of abstracts (normalised per 100,000 words)

Figure 2 shows the categories of epistemic markers used in the Science sub-corpus
and in the Engineering sub-corpus. There were significant differences in the way
epistemic stance is distributed across categories of epistemic devices. The first strik-
ing feature revealed by the analysis is the comparatively higher number of linguistic
features expressing certainty than that of possibility, approximation, probability
and usuality. The Science writers used certainty markers slightly more frequently
than the Engineering writers. In comparison with the certainty markers, there were
lower numbers of linguistic items expressing possibility, probability, usuality, and
approximation and they were used equally frequently. The epistemic devices are
almost entirely employed to express the degree of the writers' certainty in both the
Science and Engineering data. The findings are consistent with that of Hyland and
Milton (1997) that show L2 writers heavily rely on epistemic stance and expressions
of certainty.

Our analysis also showed that there are remarkable similarities of usage, with
lexical verbs such as *show*, *find* and *observe* occurring among the most frequently
used verbs by Science and Engineering writers. In fact, *show*, *find* and *observe* are

the preferred epistemic verbs to express certainty, particularly for Science writers. Indeed, evaluative verbs *show, find* and *observe* were amongst the most frequent evaluative verbs used in the Product section of both sub-corpora. The higher number of evaluative verbs expressing certainty reflects the reality that scientific truth is absolute, as noted by Hyland (2000) that "rhetorical action should be seen as situated in the historically specific assumptions that community members make about reality" (p. 132). Thesis writers are considered novice researchers in their academic discourse communities. For new claims made in theses/dissertations to become accepted, internal and external examiners need to be persuaded of the validity of these claims. The negotiation of content, language and style of theses/dissertations between students and their supervisors usually happens with the examiners' expectations in mind. Research students need to present their claims in ways that match the examiners' expectations and satisfy their degree requirements (Koutsantoni, 2006).

6.   Discussion and conclusion

The main goal of this study was to provide a comprehensive description of the linguistic marking of evaluation in academic discourse, focusing particularly on the genre of abstracts written by novice L2 research writers. Evaluative language in particular plays a prominent role in organising the texts as well as guiding and engaging readers through the information. The construct of evaluative language in academic abstracts is deemed suited for analysing the manifestation of the promotional aspect of language through expressions of the writer's attitudes and subjectivity (Hunston, 1993).

The linguistic choices in thesis abstracts reveals link to the interpersonal functioning of the abstracts. The concentration of evaluative features in the Product section of abstracts reflects the writers' concerns to highlight argument, decisions, knowledge claims and justifications (see Gosden, 1993; Hanania & Akhtar, 1985), and this can be seen as typical of thesis abstracts as a whole. Thus, there exists a link between the linguistic realisations of evaluation and the communicative purpose of the abstract.

Deploying an appropriate proportion of evaluative markers implies that the writer is a competent member of the field who is quite at ease in negotiating main claims and making an effective use of such resources to position their own research. The results of analysis of epistemic devices as presented in this study support Hinkel's (2002) and Hyland and Milton's (1997) findings about L2 writers. Hinkel (2002) studied promotional orientation and observed that in many rhetorical

communities, except Anglo-American, exaggeration and overemphasis are seen as appropriate and effective means of persuasion, conveying the writers' commitment to their statements. L2 student writers employed markedly higher rates of emphatics and the rates of these devices differed significantly in L1 and L2 prose. Hyland and Milton's (1997) analysed lexical expressions of doubt and certainty and found that novice L2 writers rely on a more limited range of items, offer stronger commitments, and exhibit greater problems in conveying a precise degree of certainty.

Our study has revealed that markers of evaluative language exhibit certain uniformity in both sets of abstracts. These similarities can be attributed to the genre characteristics of the texts as well as similar value systems both in Science and in Engineering academic discourse. The confined discourse of abstracts forces writers to optimise the limited space to negotiate the significance of the study, and therefore this may have motivated the employment of specific linguistic features when summarising information. The relatively heavy use of epistemic markers in the genre, largely concentrated in the Product move, where centrality, interestingness or importance of the theses' research domain is particularly highlighted.

Not surprisingly, the novice research writers in our corpus seemed concerned with the impact of their thesis on the field and were eager to advertise their achievements, and this can be traced to the distribution of promotional markers found in their texts. The findings resonate with Hinkel's (2002) and Hyland and Milton's (1997) findings that L2 novice writers employ epistemic markers much more frequently compared to their L1 counterparts when conveying degree of certainty. Novice research writers in our study appeared very assertive and liberally adopted expressions of certainty to be the main resource by which they evaluated their own research. One plausible explanation for this may have been that as novice L2 English writers, they may lack adequate linguistic knowledge of the appropriate English forms. In our case, our novice writers may have overused what they believe to be communicative conventions of explicit and direct writing in English. Nevertheless, Hyland, and Milton (1997) believe that higher proficiency L2 writers or more experienced professional writers have a better grasp of epistemic meanings in expert discourse than those of lower proficiency, and they tend to use more tentative expressions that are similar to native-speaker usage.

Interestingly, this study has identified some cross-disciplinary differences. The most striking difference is that novice writers in Science disciplines put more emphasis on positioning their research particularly through certainty markers of STATUS. Engineering writers, on the other hand, used other categories to express their interpersonal meanings in the abstracts. They commonly used VALUE and RELEVANCE markers particularly in the Product section of the abstracts. Specifically, the Science abstract writers used significantly fewer VALUE and

RELEVANCE markers than the Engineering abstract writers, even though the total number of epistemic devices did not differ significantly. These differences may be attributed to the definition of how "fact" is construed in the Sciences (see Latour, 1987; Latour & Woolgar, 1979). The epistemic devices expressing certainty in Science abstracts convey the implication of objectivity and express authorial certainty or conviction about the probability of an interpretation.

Finally, novice research writers are apprentices in their own discourse community. It is often discussed that for novice learners to achieve the desired professional outcomes, their practices and activities need to be "systemised" and controlled, lest the trajectories they adopted be unpredictable and uncontrollable (Wenger, 2000). The novice writers in this study have employed the interpersonal meanings based on their own shared professional context. Taking a discourse approach, the study investigated the linguistic manifestations of evaluation in thesis abstracts and the rhetorical strategies employed by the novice writers based on their disciplinary conventions. This study supports the view that scholars, novice writers included, need to position their own research based on the disciplinary conventions and modes of interaction through the writing they produce (see also Hyland, 2000; Melander et al., 1997; Samraj, 2002a). Thus, the novice writers' rhetorical practices are shaped through the social practices and epistemology of the disciplinary community to give a positive value to the whole abstract. Perhaps, this may have contributed to the differences in the choices of evaluative devices.

There are points that could be taken pedagogically for training novice researchers to write abstracts, particularly for postgraduate student writers in L2 contexts. In many higher learning institutions throughout the world, where English is a second or foreign language, Malaysia included, students are rarely taught formally on how to write an abstract, or other academic genres, for that matter. Thus, some informed findings from this study could offer insights for novice writers on how to (or not to) write an abstract. The structural and rhetorical analyses of abstracts can be potentially used as genre-based pedagogy (see also Hyland, 2003; Swales & Feak, 2009) in that it gives great emphasis to recognise the social role of abstract production and the discursive practices of the genre.

Acknowledgement

References

Afros, E., & Schryer, C. F. (2009). Promotional (meta) discourse in research articles in language and literary studies. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(1), 58–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2008.09.001

Anthony, L. (2011). *AntConc (Version 3.2.4w)* [Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. <http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/>

ANSI. (1979). *The American standard for writing abstracts*. New York: ANSI Publication.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. London: Pearson.

Biber, D., Connor, U., & Upton, T. (2007) *Discourse on the move: Using corpus analysis to describe discourse structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.28

Bordet, G. (2009). A comparative study of PhD abstracts written in English by native and non native speakers across different disciplines. In M. Mahlberg, V. González-Diaz, & Catherine Smith (eds), *Proceedings from Corpus Linguistics*. Liverpool: University of Liverpool. <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/publications/cl2009/>

Dahl, T. (2000). *Lexical cohesion-based text condensation: An evaluation of automatically produced summaries of research articles by comparison with author-written abstracts* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of Bergen, Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration.

Friginal, E., & Mustafa, S. S. (2017). A comparison of US-based and Iraqi English research article abstracts using corpora. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 25, 45–57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.11.004

Gillaerts, P., & Van de Velde, F. (2010). Interactional metadiscourse in research article abstracts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(2), 128–139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.004

Gosden, H. (1993). Discourse functions of subject in scientific research articles. *Applied Linguistics*, 14(1), 56–75. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/14.1.56

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing: An applied linguistics perspective*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Graetz, N. (1985). Teaching EFL students to extract structural information from abstracts. In J. M. Ulijn & A. K. Pugh (Eds.), *Reading for professional purposes. Methods and materials in teaching language* (pp.123–135). Amersfoort: ACCO.

Hanania, E. A., & Akhtar, K. (1985). Verb form and rhetorical function in science writing: A study of MS theses in biology, chemistry, and physics. *English for Specific Purposes*, 4(1), 49–58.

Hartley, J. (2003). Improving the clarity of journal abstracts in Psychology: The case for structure. *Science Communication*, 24(3), 366–379. https://doi.org/10.1177/1075547002250301

Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second language writers' text: Linguistic and rhetorical features*. London: Routledge.

Hu, G., & Cao, F. (2011). Hedging and boosting in abstracts of applied linguistics articles: A comparative study of English-and Chinese-medium journals. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(11), 2795–2809. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.04.007

Huckin, T. (2001). Abstracting from abstracts. In M. Hewings (Ed.), *Academic Writing in Context: Implications and Applications* (pp. 93–103). Birmingham: The University of Birmingham Press.

Hunston, S. (1993). Evaluation and ideology in scientific writing. In M. Ghadessy (Ed.), *Register analysis: Theory and practice* (pp. 57–73). London: Pinter.

Hunston, S. (1994). Evaluation and organization in a sample of written academic discourse. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in written text analysis* (pp. 191–198). London: Routledge.

Hunston, S. (2011). *Corpus approaches to evaluation: Phraseology and evaluative language.* London: Routledge.

Hunston, S., & Thompson, G. (2000). *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (1999). Disciplinary discourses: Writer stance in research articles. In C. N. Candlin & K. Hyland, (Eds.), *Writing: Texts, processes and practices* (pp. 99–121). Harlow: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 34(8), 1091–1112. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00035-8

Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(1), 17–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(02)00124-8

Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173–192. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605050365

Hyland, K. (2006) *English for Academic Purposes: An advanced resource book*. London: Routledge.

Hyland, K., & Milton, J. (1997). Qualification and certainty in L1 and L2 students' writing. *Journal of second language writing*, 6(2), 183–205. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(97)90033-3

Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2005). Hooking the reader: A corpus study of evaluative that in abstracts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(2), 123–139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2004.02.002

Jordan, M. P. (1991). The linguistic genre of abstracts. In A. Della Volpe (Ed.), *The seventeenth LACUS forum 1990* (pp. 507–527). Lake Bluff, IL: LACUS.

Koutsantoni, D. (2006). Rhetorical strategies in engineering research articles and research theses: Advanced academic literacy and relations of power. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5, 19–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2005.11.002

Latour, B. (1987). *Science in action: How to follow scientists and engineers through society.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Latour, B., & Woolgar, S. (1979). *Laboratory life: The construction of scientific facts*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Lorés, R. (2004). On RA abstracts: from rhetorical structure to thematic organisation. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(3), 280–302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2003.06.001

Melander, B., Swales, J., & Fredrickson, K. (1997). Journal abstracts from three academic fields in the US and Sweden: National or disciplinary proclivities. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 251–272). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.251

Pho, P. D. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: A study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies*, 10(2), 231–250. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445607087010

Salager-Meyer, F. (1990). Discoursal flaws in medical English abstracts: A genre analysis per research-and text-type. *Text-Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 10(4), 365–384. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1990.10.4.365

Salager-Meyer, F. (1992). A text-type and move analysis study of verb tense and modality distribution in medical English abstracts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 11(2), 93–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(05)80002-X

Samraj, B. (2002a). Disciplinary variation in abstracts: The case of Wildlife Behaviour and Conservation Biology. *Academic Discourse*, 40–56.

Samraj, B. (2002b). Introductions in research articles: Variations across disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(00)00023-5

Samraj, B. (2005). An exploration of a genre set: Research article abstracts and introductions in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(2), 141–156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2002.10.001

Shaw, P. (2000). Towards classifying the arguments in research genres. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Analysing professional genres* (pp. 41–56). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.74.06sha

Stotesbury, H. (2003). Evaluation in research article abstracts in the narrative and hard sciences. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(4), 327–341. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00049-3

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2009). *Abstracts and the writing of abstracts*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.309332

Ullmann, D. (1990). *How to write and publish a scientific paper*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Van Bonn, S., & Swales, J. M. (2007). English and French journal abstracts in the Language Sciences: Three exploratory studies. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(2), 93–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.04.001

Ventola, E. (1994). Abstracts as an object of linguistic study. In S. Cmejrkova, F. Danes, & E. Havlova (Eds.), *Writing vs. speaking: Language, text, discourse, communication* (pp. 333–352). Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Wenger, E. (2000). Communities of practice and social learning systems. *Organization*, 7(2), 225–246. https://doi.org/10.1177/135050840072002

Yakhontova, T. (2002). 'Selling' or 'telling'? The issue of cultural variation in research genres. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.). *Academic discourse* (pp. 216–232). Harlow: Pearson Education.

Chinese writers of English RAs as creators of a research space in a national context
A diachronic study

Xinren Chen
Nanjing University

Based on Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS model, this study examines 95 research articles (RAs) published by Chinese English-language writers doing Applied Linguistics across three periods of time to find out whether and to what extent they move over time towards the conventional construction of the identity as creators of a research space in the introductory part of their RAs published in a national context. The findings confirm the occurrence of the diachronic change, which is ascribed to the accrued influence of international academic conventions on Chinese English-language writers. Hopefully, this study can help improve the teaching and writing of RA Introductions for the purposes of English-language international publication and enrich existing research on identity construction in academic discourse.

Keywords: Create a Research Space (CARS) model, identity construction, Chinese researchers, RA Introduction, national context, diachronic study

1. Introduction

Academic writing is not only a public space where researchers share research information and construct new knowledge. In a sense, it is also a common site where they construct various identities. So far, there has been plenty of research on what identities academic writers construct for themselves and how they present them lexically (as shown by the use of stance elements such as hedges, boosters, and evaluative lexis) and grammatically/discoursally (such as the use of the first-person pronouns and modal verbs). Defining identity specifically as the roles academic writers enact and discursively construct (as in Tang & John, 1999 and Wu, 2013) rather than more generally as who they are (as in Ivanič, 1998), this study addresses

a significant type of research-related identity, which we might term as "creator of a research space". More specifically, we will investigate whether and to what extent Chinese writers with a research background in Applied Linguistics have gradually become constant creators of a research space, as manifested in the writing of the introductory part of their research articles across different periods of time. The choice of focusing on identity construction in this part of paper writing is motivated by the fact that there has been plenty of research on the construction of diverse identities in academic writing in general (e.g., Hyland, 2002; Ivanič, 1998; Tang & John, 1999; Wu, 2013) and abstracts in particular (Sun, 2015) other than the creator of a research space. Also, while some studies (e.g. Sheldon, 2011) have touched upon the issue of creating a research space by non-native English scholars, no study has been devoted to the issue concerning Chinese writers of English RAs in a national context across different periods of time.

Using a self-built corpus of 95 articles representing three periods of time (1996, 2005–2006, 2015–2016), published in the only English-language journal in the field titled *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics* in China, this study aims to reveal Chinese writers' developing trajectories as creators of a research space in the publication of their papers in a national English-medium journal, moving towards a pattern of Introduction design characteristic of English-language international publications. It will be argued that their diachronic change, presumably a good indicator of growing academic genre awareness of the rhetorical conventions of international Anglophone journals, is ascribable to their adaptive transfer towards these conventions.

2.   Research background

This section briefly surveys what previous researchers have done in relation to the introductory section of RAs and more specifically to its microstructure and the analysis of writers' identity in these texts.

2.1   Defining CARS

Researchers distinguish themselves by their goal of creating and disseminating new knowledge, among other things. To realise that goal, they are expected to look for research gaps and fill them through their own study. As far as international English-medium academic writing is concerned, they generally mark their effort by following a certain pattern of organisation in the introductory part of the research articles. John Swales terms the pattern characterising international English publication as the CARS (Create a Research Space) model (Swales, 1990, 2004).

As a functional perspective on academic writing, Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS model serves as specific guidelines for writers as to how to connect their research with previous studies and highlight the value of their own research. Technically, the model contains moves and steps that the writers follow in the introductory part of RAs. The 1990 version of the model is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The CARS Model (based on Swales, 1990, p. 80)

MOVE 1	**Establishing a Territory**
Step 1	Claiming centrality *and/or*
Step 2	Making topic generalization *and/or*
Step 3	Reviewing items of previous research
MOVE 2	**Establishing a Niche**
Step 1A	Counter-claiming *or*
Step 1B	Indicating a gap *or*
Step 1C	Question-raising *or*
Step 1D	Continuing a tradition
MOVE 3	**Occupying the Niche**
Step 1A	Outlining purposes *or*
Step 1B	Announcing present research
Step 2	Announcing principal findings
Step 3	Indicating RA structure

Swales' (1990) model received some criticisms since its publication (e.g. Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Samraj, 2002). In 2004, he revised the model as in Table 2, by simplifying the description of Move 1, highlighting the paths of Move 2, and detailing the possible contents of Move 3 (whether each of the contents is optional or obligatory is not marked in the table, though) (also see del Saz Rubio, 2011, p. 159):

Table 2. The CARS Model (based on Swales, 2004, pp. 226–232)

MOVE 1	**Establishing a territory (Citation required)**
Step 1	Topic generalizations of increasing specificity
MOVE 2	**Establishing a Niche**
Step 1A	Indicating a gap *or*
Step 1B	Adding to what is known
Step 2	Presenting positive justification
MOVE 3	**Presenting the present work**
Step 1	Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively
Step 2	Presenting research questions or hypotheses
Step 3	Definitional clarifications
Step 4	Summarizing methods
Step 5	Announcing principal outcomes
Step 6	Stating the value of the present research
Step 7	Indicating the structure of the paper

The revised model,[1] whose details of Moves 1 and 2 are rephrased to allow for greater generalisability, is considered "more flexible than the 1990 model" and capable of "accommodat[ing] different disciplinary needs and variations between languages" (Sheldon, 2011, p. 239).

Later on, Sheldon proposed some further developments of the model by specifying the details of the steps and clarifying the nature of the steps (optional or obligatory), as proposed in Table 3 (ibid):

Table 3. Modified framework proposed by Sheldon (2011, p. 248)

MOVE 1: Establishing a Territory (Citations required)
Step 1 Topic generalization of increasing specificity
(i) Reporting conclusion of previous studies
(ii) Narrowing the field
(iii) Writer's evaluation of existing research
(iv) Time-frame of reference
(v) Terminology/definitions
(vi) Generalizing
(vii) Furthering or advancing knowledge
MOVE 2: Establishing a Niche (Citations possible)
Step 1A Indicating a gap
Step 1B Adding what is known
Step 2 (Optional) Presenting possible justification
MOVE 3: Presenting the present work (Citations possible)
Step 1: (Obligatory) Announcing present work descriptively and/or purposively
Step 2: (Optional) Presenting Research Questions or hypotheses
Step 3: (Optional) Definitional clarifications
Step 4: (Optional) Summarizing methods
Step 5: (PISF) Announcing principal outcomes*
Step 6: (PISF) Stating the value of the present research
Step 7: (PISF) Outlining the structure of the paper

* PISF stands for "probably in some fields" but unlikely in some others.

Both Swales (1990, 2004) and Sheldon (2011) seem to mix up the research-related moves with the organisation-related step, namely "indicating RA structure" or "outlining the structure of the paper". Moreover, neither of the two scholars seems to have probed into how the researchers have established the territory and the niche

---

1. Note that in the 2004 model, for Move 1, Swales adds that citations are required when establishing the territory. Besides, his inclusion of the 7 steps in Move 3 might be a bit too strong, as not all of them are obligatory. Sheldon's (2011) revision of this move is good evidence. Last but not least, the change in the title of Move 3 does not look like an improvement, because it blurs the relation between Move 2 and Move 3.

and occupied the latter. Indeed, it is difficult for discourse or genre analysts to address the issue of how these moves and steps are realised.

In this chapter, we will propose another modified version of the CARS model based on Swales (1990) from the perspective of identity construction. Under the general identity of creator of a research space, three sub-identities will be analysed, which correspond to the three moves in Swales' (1990) CARS model. Meanwhile, we will undertake a qualitative inquiry into how these three sub-identities have been constructed in Applied Linguistics RAs in English written by Chinese scholars for a national context.

2.2   Research on the CARS model of RA Introductions

The CARS model has been extensively employed to analyse the introductory sections of RAs since it was put forward. Related research can be categorised into a few different types. First, some studies are concerned with the occurrence and frequency of moves and steps in this section (e.g., del Saz Rubio, 2011; Fakhri, 2004; Farneste, 2015; Ozturk, 2007; Sánta, 2015; Swales, 1990). Second, some studies investigate linguistic features and strategies to indicate possible gaps and claim territory for the current research (e.g., Lim, 2012; Shehzad, 2008). Third, some conduct rhetorical contrast studies, including cross-disciplinary variations (e.g., Ozturk, 2007; Samraj, 2002), cross-linguistic/cultural variations (e.g., Burgess, 2002; Sheldon, 2011; Taylor & Chen, 1991), and generic variations (e.g., Samraj, 2005).

Most relevant to the current study, with regard to non-native English writers' CARS performance in writing the Introduction of RAs, are the following studies. First, Taylor and Chen (1991) compare the publications produced by Anglo-American physical scientists with similar publications by Chinese physical scientists in their L1 on one side and these Chinese physical scientists' publication in L2 on the other. Their findings suggest that broad generalisations should not be made about the connections between discourse structure and cultural-linguistic systems. Then, Burgess (2002) examines the rhetorical preferences of Spanish English Language Studies specialists publishing in both English and Spanish and compares these preferences with those of writers in another two groups: Spanish Hispanic Studies scholars publishing exclusively in Spanish and English-speaking background scholars publishing their work in international linguistics publications. Her study finds that the writer's language background plays a less important role than the size and nature of audience in explaining the variation in rhetorical structure across the four groups. More recently, Sheldon (2011) has conducted a contrastive study of Spanish English-language writers' L2 RAs as opposed to their L1 RAs and native English writers' L1 RAs in the field of Applied Linguistics. By

focusing on the Introduction moves and steps of the articles, the study indicates that the Spanish writers' L2 texts approach native English writers' L1 pattern of the Introduction section, which basically conform to the CARS (Swales, 2004) schema, instead of approaching their L1 texts, which are specific to the Spanish culture.

Thus, whereas the existing research has explored the CARS issue among Spanish and Chinese writers, these studies are synchronic by nature. Little is known about a possible development of non-native English writers' CARS performance over time.

2.3   Research on identity construction in academic writing

In a recent decade or two, there has been an unfailing interest in analysing academic writing from the perspective of identity construction (e.g., Hyland, 2002; Ivanič, 1998; Sun, 2015; Tang & John, 1999; Wu, 2013; Xu, 2011), yielding a number of important findings.

For example, Ivanič (1998) distinguishes three aspects of identity constructed by the researchers:[2] (1) autobiographical self, which relates to the influence of the author's past experience on the current writing, (2) discoursal self, which refers to the impression that the author communicates to the readers consciously or unconsciously, and (3) authorial self, which concerns the author's stance, opinions and attitudes. Based on student writing, Tang and John (1999) conduct a study of the first-person pronouns used in academic writing, concluding that "I" serves to construct a variety of identities such as (1) the representative, (2) the guide through the essay, (3) the architect of the essay, (4) the recounter of the research process, (5) the opinion-holder, and (6) the originator. Also, Wu (2013) proposes that RA authors are often found to assume the following four types of identities: (1) researcher, (2) discourse builder, (3) opinion-holder, and (4) evaluator. In her study of RA abstracts, Sun (2015) proposes another set of authorial identities: (1) narrator, (2) interactor, (3) evaluator, and (4) organiser.

Among the identities that have been revealed, some (e.g., discourse builder and organiser) are related to text organisation, some (e.g., autobiographical self, discourse self and authorial self) point to researchers themselves, and others (e.g., researcher, opinion-holder, and evaluator) pertain to research per se. In relation to the third category, this study addresses a significant type of identity, which we might term as creator of a research space in line with Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS model. That is, researchers following the international rhetorical traditions of academic writing are expected to show their originality in the introductory part of their RAs and sometimes in the Discussion or Conclusion part (Mur-Dueñas, 2014, 2018) (while this may be the case, the present study will focus on the Introductory section

---

2.   On the basis of Ivanič (1998), Burgess and Ivanič (2010) add a fourth dimension, that is social self, which refers to socially available possibilities for selfhood.

only). This type of identity, which can be further divided into three sub-identities, namely Territory Specifier, Gap Identifier, and Niche Occupant (to be defined and illustrated in Section 3.2), is research-related in the sense that its construction may reveal whether the author has established a specific territory, identified some research gap(s), and attempted to occupy the niche. Focusing on the construction of this type of identity in non-native English writers' published articles is significant because it can be a key indicator of their adaptation and transfer to the rhetorical conventions of international English-language publication.

Thus, this study aims to find out whether and how Chinese English-language writers with a research background in Applied Linguistics have become more and more active creators of a research space in their English-language RA writing published in a domestic English journal, in the sense that they approximate their international counterparts in following the CARS model (Swales, 1990, 2004). For this purpose, the following research questions are proposed and explored:

1. Do the Chinese researchers in the field of Applied Linguistics in the three periods construct the three sub-identities of being a creator of a research space in the introductory part of their RAs in their national context? Is there a trend towards the approximation of the international researchers' practice?
2. Are there similarities and differences in their frequency of constructing the three sub-identities among the researchers from the three periods? Is there a trend towards more and more frequent construction of the identities?
3. How do they vary in the way of constructing the three sub-identities, if at all? Is there a trend towards their international counterparts' performance?

3. Methodology

This section presents the details about the process and result of data collection and illustrates the methods of data analysis.

3.1   Data collection

Altogether 95 RAs written by Chinese researchers with a research background in Applied Linguistics and published in the only English-language teaching (ELT) journal titled *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics* (*CJAL*)[3] were collected to build a corpus for analysis, representing three periods of time (1996, 2005–2006,

---

3. The journal, now edited by Qiufang WEN and published by de Gruyter Mouton (since 2011), Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, and the Cultural and Education Section of the British Embassy, was founded in 1994. It was a semi-annual journal when it started until it became a quarterly journal in 1999 (to the exception of 2004–2010, with 6 issues).

2015–2016).[4] The ten-year publication period was set to standardise the time-frame for sample collection from the three periods, following the practice of Sheldon (2011). To enable comparison with international researchers, the author depended on Sheldon's (2011) study, which included 9 RAs from *English for Specific Purposes* (*ESP*) and 9 from *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages Quarterly* (*TESOL Quarterly*) spanning from 2000–2009.

It might be of some relevance to mention that the three periods differ in terms of the pressure of publishing research that Chinese English teachers faced. In the first period (Data A), they were mostly focused on the teaching of the language, with only a very small fraction of them caring to do some research. There was no strong encouragement to do research; rather, there might have been discouragement, because those who did research were sometimes thought of as not concentrating on teaching. Things changed as we stepped into the new century, roughly, the period of our Data B. The general social background of China began to attach more and more importance to innovative research. More and more English teachers and researchers joined in the competition of earning a doctoral degree in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics (as well as English Literature Studies and Translation Studies). Many of them benefitted from a process of fairly formal academic training, something most researchers from the first period did not go through. Meanwhile, researchers from the second period faced intense competition to get their RAs published because there was increasing institutional incentive for more and more publication. Recent years, corresponding to the period of our Data C, have witnessed an even more and more demanding situation for researchers who aim to publish their RAs. Although it might be a bit exaggerating to say "publish or perish", a higher and higher percentage of Chinese researchers with an educational background in English Language and Literature are under the pressure of publishing RAs.

All the RAs for each period were gathered (note that for the period 2005–2006 containing 6 issues and around 20 RAs in each issue, only the first 4 Chinese-authored RAs in the first 4 issues were gathered) (the authors were almost exclusively Chinese in the first period, about 95 percent in the second period and about 85 percent in the third period), except those that were non-empirically based (like reviews and reflections), resulting in a total of 30, 32 and 33 RAs for the three periods respectively. All the articles came from the same field, i.e. Applied Linguistics. The discipline was chosen because we could do some comparison with the existing studies in the field like that of Sheldon (2011).

---

4. Each of the two issues of the year 1996 published 26–28 articles. In contrast, for the years of 2005/2006 and 2015/2016, only 6–7 articles were published in each issue. Additionally, the journal made no publication in 1995. That is why for the first period, only RAs from 1996, to the exclusion of those that were non-empirically based and those authored or co-authored by non-Chinese researchers, were collected.

Table 4 presents the detailed information of the corpus.

Table 4. Composition and size of the corpus

	Data A (1996)	Data B (2005–2006)	Data C (2015–2016)	Total
Number of RAs	30	32	33	95
Total number of sentences in the introductory part	230	392	700	1322
Average number of sentences in the introductory part	7.67	12.3	21.2	13.9

As Table 4 shows, the three sets of data corresponding to the three periods of time are rather different in the total and average number of sentences as far as the introductory part of the RAs is concerned. In the first period, the RA introductory part was almost invariably short, whereas in the most recent period the corresponding part was three times longer. The average length of the introductory part in the second period was fairly in the middle. As we shall see, the difference in the length of the section is at least partly indicative of the difference in the construction of the scholars' identity as creator of a research space.

3.2   Data analysis

The data were sorted out and analysed in accordance with the research questions proposed above. Regarding the first research question, we subcategorised the researcher's general identity as creator of a research space into three sub-identities in accordance with Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS model, namely Territory Specifier, Gap Identifier, and Niche Occupant, as defined and illustrated below:

A. Territory Specifier (TS)'s role is to specify the topic or, metaphorically, "territory," that the current study is addressing. This identity is more often than not implicitly constructed, because the writer generally does not make explicit self-reference but rather sounds like a narrator about a certain field or topic to be explored. To fulfil this identity, the writer generally begins with a general field and (gradually) narrows down to a specific topic or issue(s). In this process, the writer is supposed to cite references to indicate the fact that the topic of inquiry under study has attracted some attention.

B. Gap Identifier (GI)'s role is to summarise existing research, evaluate it, and point out the research gaps. This role, again usually implicitly fulfilled, is of crucial significance in that it helps to highlight the newness or originality of the current study.

C. Niche Occupant (NO)'s role is to fill in the identified research gap(s) by way of stating the corresponding purpose or goal of the current study. Occasionally, the writer may provide justification for the niche occupation, as indicated by the statement of the potential contribution made possible by the present study. Unlike the first two sub-identities, this sub-identity often entails the use of an explicit marker such as "this study", "the current researcher", "this paper" and even the self-referring pronoun "we" or "I".

Theoretically, if the sub-identity of Gap Identifier is not constructed beforehand, that of Niche Occupant is unlikely to occur. However, to credit the authors who do make statements about their research goal or purpose in their RAs, this study will take a loose definition of the Niche Occupant sub-identity; notably, as long as there is a goal or purpose statement, we count the author(s) as having tried to occupy a niche (but in fact they are hardly sure about whether a niche exists, if they do not review any existing literature at all. We will return to this point in Section 5.).

Adopting the three sub-identities of creator of a research space, the author coded the three sets of RAs data to find out whether and to what extent writers of the three periods constructed the three sub-identities of the general identity as creators of a research space. Instead of going into details about the steps or sub-steps in the previous CARS models, the author here only focuses on the macro-level three moves corresponding to the three sub-identities. Specifically, an RA author was considered to have properly constructed a sub-identity if he or she had fulfilled the role outlined for it. After all the data were coded, the frequency of constructing the sub-identities in each period was counted and statistically calculated using Chi-Square tests to reveal whether there was a trend towards the approximation of international writers' practice as reported in Sheldon's (2011) study.

Regarding the second research question, on the basis of what was done above, the author made statistical comparison by means of Chi-Square tests about the frequency of each sub-identity in the three sets of data. It was assumed that the more frequently the Chinese writers constructed the three sub-identities, the more they approximated international writers' rhetorical practice.

In order to address the third question, the author explored whether and to what extent writers from the three periods varied in adapting closely to the rhetorical conventions of international English-language journals in the way of constructing the three sub-identities. Specifically, if a writer followed the international conventions in constructing a sub-identity, he or she would be given a score of 2; if his or her way of constructing the sub-identity diverged from that of their international counterparts, he or she would score 1; in the case of not constructing the sub-identity, a score of 0 was given. By adapting closely to the rhetorical conventions, we meant that the Chinese writers constructed the sub-identities in the

way the international English-language journal RA authors generally do, notably establishing the territory with increasing specificity and using citations in Move 1, opening the niche by clearly indicating the research gaps in Move 2, or occupying the niche by explicitly and lucidly stating the research purpose in Move 3 (Sheldon, 2011; Swales, 2004) (although the order may occasionally vary). In contrast, by not adapting closely to the rhetorical conventions, we meant that the Chinese writer in question did not establish the territory with increasing specificity and did not use citations in Move 1, did not establish the niche by making specific statement of the research gaps in Move 2, or did not occupy the specified niche by indicating their own goal or purpose of the study in Move 3.[5] Then, the total score of each period was obtained by adding up the score for each RA in the period and the scores of the three periods were compared by performing the One-Way ANOVA in SPSS 19.0.

After all the criteria were clearly set, two researchers including the author of this study separately identified and counted the distribution of sub-identities in each corpus, resulting in a high rate of inter-rater reliability ($r = .89$). Regarding those cases in which we disagreed, we reached a consensus after some discussion by making a strict reference to our prior definitions and criteria.

4. Results of the study

This section presents the findings in relation to the three research questions raised earlier. These findings will be discussed to highlight their possible implications.

4.1 Chinese writers' concurrent construction of the three sub-identities across different periods

This section addresses the first research question we raised. Table 5 presents the information about Chinese writers' concurrent construction of the three sub-identities across different periods.

As Table 5 shows, no Chinese writers involved in each data set in the three periods were found to have concurrently constructed the three sub-identities of creators of a research space. Considering that all the international writers documented in Sheldon's (2011) study constructed the three moves of the CARS model

---

5. Subjective as the qualitative analysis may be, it is of pedagogical significance, as non-native English learner writers need not only to know the importance of constructing the sub-identities of creator of a research space, but also the conventional ways of doing so that international journal RA authors employ.

Table 5. Chinese writers' concurrent construction of the three sub-identities across different periods

	Three periods			χ^2	p
	1996	2005–2006	2015–2016		
Total number of RAs	30	32	33		
Number of RAs involving concurrent construction of the three sub-identities	1	9	22	28.885	.000
Percentage	3.3%	20.8%	66.7%		

concurrently – on a par with our three sub-identities –, it might be said that the Chinese writers of the three periods are more or less divergent from their international counterparts in the CARS practice.

Yet, from Table 5, we can also discern a noticeable upward trend, given that the percentages of 1996, 2005–2006 and 2015–2016 are 3.3%, 20.8% and 66.7% respectively. The statistical report based on the Chi-Square tests shows significant changes have taken place in terms of the construction of the identity of creator of a research space among the Chinese writers across the three periods (χ^2=28.885, p = .000). In other words, the writers from the most recent period seem to have more significantly transferred the internationally conventional CARS model in their writing of the RA introductory part. While not excluding other possible interpretations, it might be stated that the Chinese English-language writers are moving, steadily and even markedly, towards the conventional practice characteristic of international English-language RA writers in constructing the tripartite identity of creator of a research space even when addressing a national audience.

4.2 Chinese writers' construction of the three sub-identities across different periods

This section tackles the second research question regarding whether there were similarities and differences in the frequency of Chinese writers' constructing the three sub-identities and whether significant changes have taken place.

As Table 6 shows, for all the three periods, when writing the RA introductory part, the Chinese writers involved seemed to construct the first sub-identity (that is, Territory Specifier) most commonly, the second sub-identity (that is, Gap Identifier) least commonly, with the third sub-identity (Niche Occupant) in the middle. This indicates that these writers did not accord with their international counterparts regarding the need of making academic evaluation and pinpointing research gaps in the literature, which is largely characteristic of the international English-language journals (e.g., Sheldon, 2011).

Table 6. Chinese writers' construction of the three sub-identities across different periods

	Three periods			χ^2	p
	1996	2005–2006	2015–2016		
Territory Specifier (TS)	23 (76.7%)	29 (90.6%)	33 (100%)	9.152	.010
Gap Identifier (GI)	1 (3.3%)	10 (31.2%)	24 (72.7)	33.170	.000
Niche Occupant (NO)	16 (53.3%)	27 (84.3%)	29 (87.9%)	12.159	.002

However, from Table 6, we can also discern a sharp upward trend regarding the construction of the Gap Identifier identity rather than the other two sub-identities (i.e., Territory Specifier and Niche Occupant), given that its percentages of 1996, 2006 and 2016 are 3.3%, 31.2% and 72.7%. The statistical report based on the Chi-Square tests shows significant changes have taken place across the three periods in terms of the construction of the three sub-identities (especially that of Gap Identifier) among the Chinese writers drafting their RAs Introductions in English. Thus, it can be said that the writers involved from the most recent period seem to have more significantly transferred the practices to establish a niche when writing their RA introductory part. In addition, similar to their international counterparts who publish in international English-language journals, the writers were more specific about stating their goals and objectives in the introductory part of their RAs. While not excluding other possible interpretations, it might be stated that the Chinese writers are moving, steadily and even markedly, towards the conventional practice characteristic of international English-language journals in constructing the Gap Identifier identity as a crucial component of being a creator of a research space.

4.3   The ways of Chinese writers' construction of the three sub-identities across different periods

This section tackles the third research question regarding whether Chinese English-language writers varied in the ways of constructing the three sub-identities and whether there is a trend towards their international counterparts' performance in their RAs published in international English-language journals. Consider the following examples of Territory Specifier (TS) construction.

(1)   a.   *The existing literature has revealed that PBL can improve the cognitive and metacognitive competence of learners (De Grave, Schmidt & Boshuizen, 2001; Savery & Duffy, 1995), and scholars from China provide a particular rationale of the application of PBL to foreign language teaching and learning (Qiao & Guo, 2011; Sun & Qiu, 2009), the practical challenges in its operationalisation, as well as possible solutions to the practical dilemmas (Zhi, 2009).*   (Data C, 2016-3-5)

> b.   *Language games are considered one of the most valuable and effective techniques in English Language Teaching (ELT) and have been used for a long time by many western teaches. However, they are little used in China, especially in College English Teaching (CET) classrooms. Most teachers and students think games are a waste of time or just a fun activity for children. In this article, the value of using games in Chinese CET classrooms is discussed.*
> (Data A, 1996-1-13)

In Example (1a), the sub-identity of Territory Specifier was constructed characteristic of international English-language journal writers because the researcher in question established the territory (that is, use of PBL in foreign language teaching) precisely in Move 1, with citations to support the construction of the identity. In contrast, in Example (1b), the researcher in question only specified an area of teaching practice instead of an area of study, with no previous research mentioned or cited. The introductory part of almost all the RAs in Period 1996 was developed in this way, which might be a general convention in that period.

Now, consider how writers may vary in the construction of the Gap Identifier identity, as shown in Example (2).

> (2)   a.   *Consequently, the question remains to what extent PBWA, acknowledged as a successful instructional and assessment tool in the West, can succeed (or fail) in the Chinese EFL context. While there are numerous claims about the potential benefits of PBWA to ESL/EFL learners (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000; Nezakatgoo, 2011), solid evidence has not been available to confirm whether and how far these claims are upheld.*   (Data C, 2016-2-6)
>
> b.   *The above researches mainly deal with two stages of language learning and teaching (kindergarten level and university level), with each focusing on a particular profile ignoring other aspects. Based on the previous studies, the present paper aims to make a detailed theoretical survey of FDI and to discuss its implications in English language teaching and learning. Some problems and suggestions will be put forward for further consideration.*
> (Data B, 2006-1-4)

In Example (2a), the sub-identity of Gap Identifier was constructed in the way typical of international English-language journal RAs because the writer established the niche or research gaps conventionally in Move 2; in contrast, in Example (2b), the writer in question made no specific or particular comment on the previous research but just said "…with each focusing on a particular profile ignoring other aspects" in Move 2. Again, almost all the writers from Data A and more than half of those from Data B made no evaluation of previous research to establish a niche for their own study, which might be the convention in these two periods.

Finally, let us consider the way of Niche Occupant construction. Compare the two instances in (3):

(3) a. *Thus, the significance of the present study is that it will provide a basic under-standing of the language switching between three languages that are not in the same language family and the neural correlates of language switching in multilingual speakers.*   (Data C, 2016-1-7)

b. *The role of conscious and unconscious processes in second language learning (SLA) is quite controversial in applied linguistics. Some researchers insist that conscious understanding of the target language system is indispensable for SLA, whereas others believe that awareness of syntactic processes and representations is actually an obstruction. Some SL theorists hold that conscious learning is more efficient and can lead to better results; others think unconscious acquisition is more efficient, just as a child does with his mother tongue. The present article intends to have a brief review on this issue.*   (Data B, 2005-4-3)

In Example (3a), the sub-identity of Niche Occupant was constructed by the author of "the present study" much in the same way as it is generally done in international English-journal RAs because the authors highlighted explicitly and relevantly that their study would occupy the niche (focusing on "language switching between three languages that are not in the same language family and the neural correlates of language switching in multilingual speakers") in Move 3. In contrast, in Example (3b), the last sentence used by the writers of "the present article" did not specify the goal or purpose of the current study, that is, did not occupy the specified niche, in Move 3. Indeed, in the first and second periods, quite a high percentage of the writers involved in our data did not construct the identity of Niche Occupant altogether, which diverges from their international counterparts' general practice.

Table 7 presents the information about the performance scores of the sub-identity construction across the three periods:

Table 7. Chinese writers' scores for constructing the three sub-identities across different periods

	Three periods			F	*p*
	1996	**2005–2006**	**2015–2016**		
Territory Specifier (TS)	0.90	1.50	1.85	24.522	.000
Gap Identifier (GI)	0.03	0.53	1.36	27.132	.000
Niche Occupant (NO)	0.60	1.31	1.67	19.479	.000
Total	1.5333	3.3438	4.8788	49.898	.000

From Table 7, we can discern a noticeable upward trend regarding the construction of all the three sub-identities, with the increase in the construction of the Gap-Identifier identity being most salient. The statistical report based on the one-way ANOVA tests shows that significant changes have taken place in terms of the way of constructing the sub-identities, particularly that of Gap Identifier, among the Chinese applied linguists publishing their research in a national English-medium journal across the three periods. In other words, the writers from the most recent period seem to have become significantly more and more adaptive to the ways of specifying the territory, establishing a niche, and occupying the gaps in the introductory part of their RAs characteristic of international English-language journals. Thus, it might be stated that the Chinese writers who publish English RAs in their national context are moving, steadily and even markedly, towards the conventional practice characteristic of international journal authors in constructing the three sub-identities, particularly the Gap-Identifier identity, a crucial component of being a creator of a research space.

5. Discussion

For academic writers, RAs are a public space not just for sharing thoughts and ideas, but, more crucially, for presenting new and original knowledge. Correspondingly, they need to convince their readers that they are innovative researchers instead of mere story-tellers or reporters. To that end, following the writing conventions of the international English-language community marked by the CARS model (Swales, 1990, 2004; Sheldon, 2011), they are expected to construct the general identity of creator of a research space in the introductory part as well as other parts of their RAs, which is composed of three sub-identities, namely, Territory Specifier, Gap Identifier, and Niche Occupant (with the first two sub-identities less explicitly marked than the third one).

However, the quantitative analysis presented above suggests that the Chinese researchers who published in the only English-language journal, *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics* (*CJAL*), especially those in Period 1996 and Period 2005–2006, did not construct the general identity of creator of a research space to the same extent as their international counterparts. One might say that these Chinese researchers might have been influenced by their Confucian harmony-seeking cultural background (e.g., Forestier, 1998; Littlewood, 2000), but the fact that the writers from the third period were also Chinese would refute this account. A more plausible explanation might be that these writers were influenced, to varying degrees, by the rhetorical patterns of their L1 RA writing. Indeed, the rhetorical patterns of writing the introductory part of RAs, as mirrored by those in the first period, were rather

different from those embraced by current international English-language journals. Specifically, they oriented the RAs more directly and explicitly towards the reality or practice of English teaching in the context of China than towards what other researchers had done or said in their RAs. These patterns, as we found, continued into Period 2, especially the earlier phase of it. Thus, the fact that the writers in the first and even second period did not construct the identity as creator of a research space might be accounted for in two ways: either they were not required to do so by the journal *CJAL*, or they were still not so influenced by the rhetorical conventions of international Anglophone journals than those from the third period. As an insider, I know the former and believe in the latter, although some hard evidence needs to be provided.

Yet, more interestingly, from the data analysis we seem to be able to detect a sort of generic evolution marked by the *CJAL* authors' adoption of or transfer to Anglophone rhetorical conventions embodied by international English-language journals. The significant change has taken place at least for two reasons. One reason has to do with the increasing internationalisation of the *CJAL*, specifically marked by the adoption of Anglophone rhetorical conventions. Now conjointly published by de Gruyer Mouton (since 2011), Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, and the Cultural and Education Section of the British Embassy, the *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics* is undergoing the process of internationalisation, such as the enactment of double-blind review, involvement of more and more international authorship and reviewers, and, less obviously, execution of international academic standards and conventions. Regarding the last point, a relevant requirement is the (discursive representation of) originality of the research (as it announces that it only publishes "original" RAs), with the implication that there needs to be statements to occupy a niche in the Introduction part of RAs. As the *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics* has been the only outlet in China for English-language RAs and has gained more and more recognition and credit among peers and administrators, it (as well as its reviewers) favours submissions that follow the rhetorical conventions of international English-language journals. Particularly, it encourages those submissions that discursively highlight the newness or originality of the research, although an RA without following these conventions can also be new and original.

The other reason has to do with the authors involved in this study who published in the journal. In the 1990s, that is, the period of our Data A, the authors of the *CJAL* were almost invariably practitioners whose RAs related mostly to the teaching of the skill courses, such as listening, reading, and writing or to that of L2 knowledge courses, such as vocabulary and grammar. More often than not, the articles narrated the authors' teaching experiences and reflections. Seldom did the practice-and-report papers involve specific theoretical issues of teaching or acquisition. However, browsing through the academic background of the latest

authors (i.e., those from Period 2015–2016) online, we find that many of them have had overseas visits or exchange experience, or are currently doing their doctoral research abroad, or have already obtained a PhD degree from an international program. A few of them have already published RAs in some prestigious international English-medium journals. Thus, it is likely that these authors have been influenced by Anglophone rhetorical conventions. In addition, Chinese researchers today can benefit from a lot of high-quality research training sessions. These years, a lot of international journal editors have been invited to a variety of seminars or workshops operated by domestic institutions like China English Language Education Association (CELEA) and Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP). Naturally, the exposure of the Chinese researchers to international rhetorical conventions of academic writing provides a strong support for them to write RAs in an international style that tends to favour Anglophone conventions when publishing their research in a national context, a clear indicator of which is to construct the identity as creator of a research space. In line with the arguments of the proponents of Intercultural Rhetoric (e.g., Baker, 2010; Connor, 2004), influenced by the international English-language academic conventions, they are no longer driven by their teaching practice only, as their predecessors used to be; rather, they are motivated by some theoretical issues in the literature, aware of the possible existence of a research community who might have done some research on the chosen research topic. They feel a strong need to review and report what others have said and then present something as new and original in their RAs. In other words, they often perform three roles in succession, although they might not always enact these roles explicitly, as their international counterparts generally do: specify a territory, identify research gaps and then occupy the niche. Altogether, they construct their identity as creators of a research space, as they demonstrate in the introductory part of their RAs.

6. Conclusion

This article reported a diachronic study across three distinct periods, following a functional version of the CARS model initiated by Swales (1990, 2004), of how and to what extent Chinese researchers with a research background in Applied Linguistics have evolved in the construction of the identity as creator of a research space. It emerged from the study that while not yet reaching the level of their international counterparts in international English-medium journals, Chinese writers from the second (2005–2006) and especially the third period (2015–2016) had approximated more and more their international counterparts in constructing the identity as creator of a research space, as manifested in both the frequency

of concurrent construction of its sub-identities and the way of sub-identity construction. The ever-increasing approximation, the study argued, was due to the requirement of the journal *CJAL* under study to follow the rhetorical conventions of international Anglophone journals and the extensive influence of these conventions as embodied by these journals and other sources on the authors of the journal involved in this study.

While this study seems to imply or recommend that Chinese academics (and those from other backgrounds) should adjust to international Anglophone conventions, they might be excused for not doing so, especially when they publish their RAs in domestic journals (nor is it necessary for domestic journals to do so or require their authors to do so) (Bennett, 2007, 2014). In the context of English as a lingua franca, it is actually debatable whether the current Anglophone-dominated international journals should impose their rhetorical conventions as norms. Some recent research (e.g., Lorés-Sanz, 2016) has been highlighting the need and benefits of some interdiscursive hybridity. Having said this, I do not mean Chinese RA writers (and indeed those from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds) should not learn about or follow the rhetorical conventions of international Anglophone journals, especially if they wish to win greater chances of international publication.

Hopefully, this study serves to enrich existing research on identity construction in academic contexts on the one hand and update the research on CARS on the other, in addition to tracing the evolution of Chinese writers' adoption of rhetorical conventions as reflected in their English RA writing. To some extent, this study may provide a window on the developing trajectory of the Chinese academic scholarship characteristic of practitioners and researchers in the area of English language teaching. Additionally, it can also serve as a reference for cross-cultural and cross-sectional comparative studies on the writing of the RA introductory part.

Meanwhile, this study has a few clear drawbacks. To begin with, the data size was not big enough as only 30 or so articles were included for comparison. Secondly, the corpus used in this study came from a single journal of a national character. It may be the case that Chinese authors adopted the identity of creator of a research space and its sub-identities, or rather, followed the rhetorical conventions of Anglophone-dominated journals to a greater extent in their international English-medium publications. Thirdly, the criteria for identifying the three sub-identities were not clear-cut. Particularly, our loose definition of the Niche Occupant might add more credit to the authors than they actually deserve. Last but not least, the explanation for the Chinese writers' move towards international rhetorical conventions in the construction of the identity as creator of a research space might be a bit oversimplified, as many unknown factors might also be relevant. Indeed, a thorough survey of the writers' academic background might provide a better account.

References

Baker, W. (2010). Contrastive rhetoric: Reaching to intercultural rhetoric. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 18(3), 299–302. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2008.00203.x

Bennett, K. (2007). Epistemicide! The tale of a predatory discourse. *Translator*, 13(2), 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1080/13556509.2007.10799236

Bennett, K. (Ed.). (2014). *The semiperiphery of academic writing*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137351197

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: Audience and rhetorical structure. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–215). Harlow: Pearson.

Burgess, A., & Ivanic, R. (2010). Writing and being written: Issues of identity across timescales. *Written Communication*, 27(2), 228–255. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088310363447

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(4), 291–304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.003

del Saz Rubio, M. M. (2011). A pragmatic approach to the macro-structure and metadiscoursal features of research article introductions in the field of agricultural sciences. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(4), 258–271. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.03.002

Fakhri, A. (2004). Rhetorical properties of Arabic research article introductions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36(6), 1119–1138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2003.11.002

Farneste, M. (2015). Moves in the introduction sections of applied linguistics research articles. *Baltic Journal of English Language, Literature and Culture*, 5, 27–40.

Forestier, K. (1998). Asian crisis spurs lesson in learning. *South China Morning Post*, 11 August.

Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34, 1091–1112. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00035-8

Ivanič, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/swll.5

Kanoksilapatham, B. (2005). Rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24, 269–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2004.08.003

Lim, J. M. (2012). How do writers establish research niches? A genre-based investigation into management researchers' rhetorical steps and linguistic mechanisms. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(3), 229–245. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.05.002

Littlewood, W. (2000). Do Asian students really want to listen and obey? *ELT Journal*, 54, 31–36. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.1.31

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2016). ELF in the making? simplification and hybridity in abstract writing. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 5(1), 53–81. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2016-0003

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2014). 'The main contribution of this study is…': An analysis of statements of contribution in English published research articles and L2 manuscripts. *Journal of Writing Research*, 5, 271–283. https://doi.org/10.17239/jowr-2014.05.03.2

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2018). Promotional strategies in academic writing: Statements of contribution in Spanish and ELF research articles. In J. Pelclova & W. L. Lu (Eds.), *Persuasion in public discourse: Cognitive and functional perspectives* (pp. 259–277). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Ozturk, I. (2007). The textual organisation of research article introductions in Applied Linguistics: Variability within a single discipline. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26(1), 25–38. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2005.12.003

Samraj, B. (2002). Introductions in research articles: Variation across disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(00)00023-5

Samraj, B. (2005). An exploration of a genre set: Research article abstracts and introductions in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(2), 141–156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2002.10.001

Sánta, B. (2015). Introducing the literary critic: The cars model in the introductions of academic papers in literary criticism. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 3(2), 84–93.

Shehzad, W. (2008). Move two: Establishing a niche. *Ibérica*, 15, 25–50.

Sheldon, E. (2011). Rhetorical differences in RA introductions written by English L1 and L2 and Castilian Spanish L1 writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), 238–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.004

Sun, L. (2015). Identity construction by Chinese MA students in their theses. *Foreign Language and Their Teaching*, 5, 15–21.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. (2004). *Research genres: Exploration and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524827

Tang, R., & John, S. (1999). The 'I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18, S23–S39. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00009-5

Taylor, G., & Chen, T. G. (1991). Linguistics, cultural and sub-cultural issues in contrastive discourse analysis: Anglo-American and Chinese scientific texts. *Applied Linguistics*, 12, 319–336. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/12.3.319

Wu, G. (2013). *Identify construction in English and Chinese research articles: A contrastive study*. Hangzhou: Zhejiang University Press.

Xu, F. (2011). A corpus-based study of identity chunks in Chinese students' academic English writing. *Foreign Language Research*, 3, 57–63.

Conference abstracts in English
A challenge for non-Anglophone writers

Renata Povolná

Masaryk University

With the growing internationalisation of all scholarship the use of English as an international lingua franca has become an important prerequisite for scholars who intend to submit their abstracts and present their research to an academic audience at international conferences. Consequently, scholars from non-Anglophone backgrounds have to master the writing of this research-process genre (Swales, 1990) in English, since otherwise they may risk being refused participation at conferences and publication in conference proceedings. This chapter analyses the textual organisation of conference abstracts (CAs) written in English with the aim of finding out whether there is intercultural variation in rhetorical moves and their linguistic realisations applied by Anglophone scholars and those from some countries where Slavonic languages are spoken.

Keywords: intercultural variation, conference abstracts, rhetorical structure, moves, move analysis, tense, aspect and voice of finite verbs, classes of grammatical subjects

1. Introduction

With the establishment of English as a lingua franca of most international scientific and scholarly communication, the use of English as an additional language has become an important prerequisite for scholars at universities and research institutions who "are under a great deal of pressure to publish in [English]" (Bennett, 2013, p. 41) in order to be appreciated by their discourse communities and internationally recognised in their research fields. Thus, non-Anglophone academics seek to present their research to the international academic readership, including the audience at international conferences, where English is often the main or sole language of communication. At the same time, their academic texts written in a

local native language have become of minor importance, and even if they write and publish in their mother tongue, an abstract in English is commonly required.

Abstracts "are multifunctional and can be found in many contexts" (Ventola, 1994, p. 333). Their main role is to provide the gist of the information given in the whole text. With the ever-increasing amount of information available every day, there are even abstracting journals which scholars can use to save time and find out whether a particular text is relevant for their research and worth reading or not.

The writing of an abstract in English can be rather demanding for non-Anglophone scholars, since the construction of this essential form of writing (Swales & Feak, 2009) is expected to summarise in a clear way what the intended research article (RA) or presentation at a conference is to be about. Moreover, this research-process genre (Swales, 1990) has to meet certain requirements, such as a topic relevant for the given journal or conference, a required number of words and keywords.

Since "on the basis of abstracts, speakers are selected for conferences" (Ventola, 1994, p. 333), the goal is to persuade reviewers to accept one's paper and later motivate conference participants to attend one's presentation; in other words, the text must be persuasive and "employ rhetorical conventions that colleagues find convincing" (Hyland, 2008, p. 1). Consequently, non-Anglophone academics are faced with the challenges of offering to the international audience reliable scholarly knowledge and results from their research, as well as acquiring persuasive practices of their disciplines and academic writing skills in English. Since academic writing style is largely shaped by dominant Anglophone writing conventions, this raises the "questions of communicative inequality and the additional burden that writing in an L2 may create for non-Anglophone scholars", as emphasised by Hyland in the preface to this book (cf. Lillis & Curry, 2010).

Many studies on different academic research genres written in English (e.g. Bennett, 2010; Bondi & Lorés-Sanz, 2014; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012, Hyland, 2000, 2004; Martín-Martín, 2002; Mur-Dueñas, 2008; Pérez-Llantada, 2011; Pho, 2008; Povolná, 2012; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Santos, 1996; Tseng, 2011; Schmied, 2011; Wagner, 2011) have found intercultural variation in the rhetorical level, in the structure and specific lexico-grammatical features of academic texts written by scholars from different linguacultural backgrounds. This variation can be caused by writing habits and language- and culture-specific conventions which scholars conducting research in different fields of study transfer from their local native language to the texts they have to produce in English as an additional language. Since the overwhelming majority of writers and readers of English scholarly texts are not native speakers, the question arises whether it is justifiable to impose the academic writing style conventions of the dominant Anglophone discourse community on

international academic communication in English, or whether the time has come to consider this variation as enriching the existing rhetorical practices and thus enhancing international academic communication (cf. Pérez-Llantada, 2014).

The study focuses on English conference abstracts (CAs) written by L1 and L2 writers, namely, Czech, Slovak, Polish and Ukrainian scholars. The research has two main goals: (1) to discover differences and similarities in the textual organization of CAs written by scholars from different backgrounds, especially in comparison with the structure traditionally ascribed to RA abstracts (Hyland, 2000; Swales & Feak, 2009), and (2) to explore some linguistic realisations of different types of moves to reveal intercultural variation and find out whether these features are indicative of particular rhetorical functions. The author also hopes to emphasise problems non-Anglophone scholars may face when writing English CAs, since they need to know both the global structure of abstracts and the conventional linguistic realisations of particular types of moves (cf. Ventola, 1994) to be able to produce CAs that will be accepted at international conferences.

With respect to the goals of the study, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. Is there any intercultural variation in the writing of English CAs in the field of Applied Linguistics between L1 and L2 writers from some countries where Slavonic languages are spoken?
2. In what ways is the rhetorical structure of CAs similar to or different from that of RA abstracts? Are there intercultural differences?
3. Is there a correlation between the use of particular tense, aspect and voice of finite verbs and types of rhetorical moves of CAs? Are there differences on these aspects across different cultures?
4. Are particular classes of grammatical subjects indicative of particular rhetorical functions employed in CAs and are there differences between L1 and L2 writers in their use?

2.   Corpus and methodology

2.1   Corpus

This research is based on a specialized corpus of 80 CAs accepted between 2008 and 2014 for presentation at the international *Brno Conference on Linguistics Studies in English*, held every second year at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic. There were no special requirements concerning

the structure and content of the CAs. The organisers requested abstracts of about 200 words with a topic relevant for the given conference and they did not require any concrete rhetorical moves to be included (the average length of CAs in the corpus ranges from 162 to 218 words). This means that despite some rhetorical differences all the CAs analysed were granted participation at the given conference. All are single-authored and address the academic audience interested in the field of Applied Linguistics. Since previous studies have indicated that variation in disciplines can have a discernible influence on the rhetorical structure of academic texts and linguistic realisations of particular rhetorical functions (e.g. Martín-Martín, 2002; Pho, 2008; Santos, 1996; Swales, 1990), only CAs associated with empirical research in the field of Applied Linguistics have been included to avoid consideration of differences between presentations on empirical and theoretical research in different disciplines.

Since the majority of CAs available were written by Czech scholars, it has been possible to analyse ten abstracts in English by Czech writers from every conference (i.e. 10 from 2008, 10 from 2010, 10 from 2012 and 10 from 2014). Thus, apart from answering the research questions, some tendencies in the writing of CAs by Czech scholars in the period between 2008 and 2014 have been revealed. As regards the other CAs that were at our disposal, 10 abstracts written by Anglophone, 10 by Slovak, 10 by Polish and 10 by Ukrainian scholars have been analysed, amounting to the total of 80 CAs. The CA writers' nationality was judged by the author's name and affiliation.

2.2   Methodology

The investigation is a corpus-based contrastive study of the discourse organisation of texts from one genre applying the methods of the rhetorical structure theory, namely, the tools of move analysis as represented by Swales (1981, 1990), Bhatia (1993), Samraj (2005). The structure of the CAs has been analysed in terms of the rhetorical moves traditionally ascribed to RA abstracts. Individual moves and their types have been identified solely according to the function and content, i.e. using the top-down approach introduced by Biber, Connor, and Upton (2007). The length of particular types may be relatively short since abstracts tend to be rather condensed texts. The move can be realised by structures ranging from a word or a phrase up to several sentences forming whole paragraphs. Every move performs a particular minor function and in turn the sequence of moves within an abstract serves a major communicative purpose of the whole genre (cf. Santos, 1996, p. 458).

The individual types of moves have been recognised in accordance with the five-move pattern of RA abstracts proposed by Santos (1996), who distinguishes Move 1 (Situating the research – STR), Move 2 (Presenting the research – PTR), Move 3 (Describing the methodology – DTM), Move 4 (Summarizing the findings – STF), and Move 5 (Discussing the research – DTR). This coding is used in this chapter. Santos's model has been applied since it comprises all types of moves identified in previous studies and uses labels that seem to capture appropriately the content of particular moves and has been introduced for the analysis of RA abstracts from the area of Applied Linguistics. Unlike Santos's study, this investigation does not divide the above-mentioned types of moves into further submoves or steps, as these are mostly difficult to recognise unambiguously. This simplification is in line with Swales (2004), who admitted that the submoves in his CARS model were sometimes difficult to distinguish.

The analysis was conducted in two main stages. After identifying and manually dividing every CA into particular moves, a comparative analysis of the number and types of moves and sequences of moves between different groups of writers was carried out with regard to the research questions. Once the macrostructure of CAs was analysed, the next step was the examination of the distribution of selected linguistic features in each of the structural units of CAs with the aim of revealing whether these features can be viewed as indicative of particular rhetorical functions and whether there is intercultural variation, because some previous studies on abstracts (e.g. Diani, 2014; Kafes, 2012; Lorés Sanz, 2004, 2014; Martín-Martín, 2002; Pho, 2008; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Santos, 1996; Tseng, 2011) have discovered differences between writers from different backgrounds. The realisation forms of finite verbs (tense, aspect and voice) and grammatical subjects have been selected for the analysis since they are assumed, in agreement with previous studies (e.g. Pho, 2008; Vassileva, 2000), to represent the features that have the potential of distinguishing different types of moves and indicating authorial stance.

The classification of grammatical subjects is based mainly on MacDonald's classification (1992), since it can enable some insights into the linguistic realisations of particular types of moves and authorial stances. Following this classification and its later modification by Hemais (2001), it is possible to distinguish seven classes of subjects presented in Table 1.

The study uses both quantitative and qualitative methods for the identification of realisations of finite verbs and grammatical subjects typical of each rhetorical move, as these approaches are considered complementary, i.e. quantitative analysis provides the necessary evidence to assign particular features to particular communicative functions of rhetorical moves.

Table 1. Classes of grammatical subjects

Phenomenal class (words relating to what the researcher studies)
Class 1 (objects of research and their attributes) – e.g. *variables, participants, scores*;

Epistemic classes (words relating to the researcher or reasoning of researchers)
Class 2 (self-reference) – e.g. *I, we, the author, the researcher*;
Class 3 (other-reference), further divided into four subcategories:
3a (specific names of other researchers or citations of the author's own previous studies) – e.g. *Swales, Firbas*;
3b (previous research or studies in general without referring to any specific researchers) – *previous studies/researchers, research in the area …*;
3c (general topics in the field) – e.g. *cohesion, comprehension*;
3d (specific research objects or outcomes mentioned in previous research) – e.g. *no clear definition, typical features*;
Class 4 (audience) – e.g. *one*, the generic *we, you*;
Class 5 (reference to writer's own work – macro-research outcome) – e.g. *this paper/research/ article/investigation*;
Class 6 (reference to writer's own work – micro-research outcome) – e.g. *the findings, conclusion, discussion, comparison*;
Class 7 (anticipatory *it* and existential *there*)

3.   Findings and discussion

This section is divided into two parts: Section 3.1 reveals the findings concerning the number and types of moves, and sequences of different types of moves (i.e. macrostructure), and Section 3.2 discusses selected linguistic features of particular rhetorical moves of CAs.

3.1   Macrostructure of CAs

Previous studies traditionally ascribe the four- or five-move pattern to the global structure of RA abstracts, with the difference being the presence or absence of the first move. However, the organisation of the CAs analysed is slightly different and reveals certain intercultural variation.

As indicated in Table 2, Move 2 (PTR) is an integral part of all CAs (cf. Pho, 2008; Santos, 1996), with one exception – a CA by one Ukrainian author. Its inclusion seems quite logical and predictable because its rhetorical function is to inform the audience about the purpose of the presentation and/or provide description of the key features of the research in question, i.e. it takes either a purposive or decriptive form, to use Santos's words (1996). The average length comes second of all

moves with almost all groups of writers, ranging from 57 to 71 words. There are, however, noticeable intercultural differences. While Slovak and Ukrainian writers tend to use the highest number of words (68–71), most of the other groups resort to slightly fewer words. This variation can be associated with the fact that Slovak and Ukrainian scholars include the other types of moves less frequently in their CAs and thus provide more space for specifying the purpose of their presentation.

Table 2. Distribution (%) of particular types of moves in all CAs

Move type	EN*	CZ 08	CZ 10	CZ 12	CZ 14	SK	PL	UA	Total (%)
STR	80	80	90	90	60	40	80	70	74
PTR	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**90**	**99**
DTM	90	50	70	50	80	60	70	50	65
STF	40	20	20	20	40	10	20	0	21
DTR	0	0	0	0	30	0	0	0	4

* The following abbreviations are used in the tables: *EN* = Anglophone writers; *CZ* = Czech writers; *SK* = Slovak writers; *PL* = Polish writers; *UA* = Ukrainian writers.

Table 3. Length of particular types of moves (counted in words) of all CAs

Move type	EN	CZ 08	CZ 10	CZ 12	CZ 14	SK	PL	UA	Aver.	Range
STR	63.3	76.3	74.2	81.5	67.2	81.8	64	129.6	80	63–130
PTR	59.4	59.3	68.9	56.5	59.1	71.3	59	67.8	63	57–71
DTM	49.9	34.7	32.6	34.3	48.2	43	35.7	52.6	42	33–53
STF	64.3	26.5	36.5	54.5	44.8	60	28.5		45.3	27–64
DTR					18.5				18.5	19
Aver. length	181	162	166	181	210	162	168	218	181	162–218

There is variation in the other rhetorical functions of CAs, too. Anglophone writers include Move 1 (STR) and Move 3 (DTM) in 80 and 90% of their abstracts, respectively. The presence or absence of Move 1 among Slavonic writers varies considerably (40–90%). While the majority of Czech and Polish writers apply it with a frequency rate similar to L1 writers, the other groups include it less often (40% of Slovak and 70% of Ukrainian writers). The relatively frequent average use of Move 1 (74%) is in agreement with Hyland's suggestion (2004) that this type finds its way into abstracts. The reason may be its important communicative function of attracting the audience by locating the research in terms of research field, by emphasising the importance of the topic, by referring to previous research and/or promising to extend it, as in Example (1).

(1)   *Monologic concessive schemata in dialogic discourse – On the interactional nature of judicial argumentation*
  Viewed as a rhetorical figure in argumentation, concessio originally meant conceding the opponent's point in order to strengthen the arguer's position, while under the semantic-syntactic approach concession was regarded as a type of relation holding between clauses. Yet, the situational context of Concession, perceived as a discourse-pragmatic phenomenon, received little attention. <STR>
  Drawing on the interactional three-move concept of Concession designed by Couper-Kuhlen and Thompson (1999, 2000) and further advanced by Barth-Weingarten (2000, 2003), the author contributes a genre-based description of the realization of Concession in judicial discourse to show the interactional nature of legal decision-making. <PTR>
  The study has been carried out on a corpus of judgments issued by the European Court of Justice (now: Court of Justice). The analysis has revealed the most frequent monologic Concessive schemata and recurrent Concessive markers present in judicial argumentation. <DTM> As expected, the results suggest that writers, like speakers, are aware of, and follow the tripartite dialogic pattern of Concession found in spoken language. <STF>   (PolishCorpus)

There are also significant differences in the length of Move 1 between writers from different groups. Similarly to Move 2, this move tends to be longest (82–130 words) in the CAs by Slovak and Ukrainian writers. All the others use only 63–82 words. This variation is also reflected in the overall structure of Slovak and Ukrainian CAs, which comprises the other types of moves less frequently (cf. Table 2).

The necessity to describe the methods of the research to be presented is reflected in the writing of Czech academics who apply Move 3 more and more often between 2008 and 2014 while among the other Slavonic groups its inclusion is less common (50–70%). The finding that Move 3 is part of only two thirds of the CAs is surprising since information about the materials, methods and variables of the research seems to be an obvious part of CAs and some researchers who studied RA abstracts identified Move 3 in almost all abstracts in their studies (e.g. Pho, 2008; Santos, 1996). There is also noticeable intercultural variation in the length of Move 3, which on average is much shorter (33–53 words) than Moves 1 and 2. While Anglophone and Ukrainian writers use 50–53 words, the others apply 33–48 words on average. In the case of L1 writers, this range can be associated with a more or less balanced length of all moves (50–64 words), while in the case of Ukrainian writers, it can result from the absence of Moves 4 and 5.

The findings concerning Move 4 (STF) and Move 5 (DTR) reveal differences from the usual rhetorical structure of RA abstracts (cf. Swales & Feak, 2009). Move 4 appears only in 21% of CAs. Anglophone and Czech writers from 2014 include it more often (40%) than the other groups (10–20%). The discussion on research

findings, which usually follows the summary of results, has been found only in three CAs by Czech writers from 2014. The reason can be associated with the increased competition to get one's CA accepted at an international conference, which, since it is held in their home country, is still financially accessible. This makes Czech academics produce a four- or five-move abstract which seems close to Anglophone writers' conventions. The average frequency of Move 5 (4%) is not in agreement with Hyland's finding (2004) that this type tends to become part of an abstract. However, Hyland analysed RA abstracts, which seem to have a slightly different structure and communicative purpose.

As suggested by some studies dealing with the distribution of different types of moves in RA abstracts (e.g. Pho, 2008; Santos, 1996), there appear to be three obligatory moves, namely, Moves 2, 3 and 4; this is clearly not the case of the CAs analysed, which tend to comprise Move 1 rather than Move 4 if a three-move pattern is applied. The results in Table 2 agree with my suggestion that scholars usually write CAs on research still in progress and thus are not able to include a summary or discussion of their findings. The question arises whether the number of particular rhetorical functions is dependent on the length of CAs. As evidenced in Table 3, the length of a CA does not directly influence the number of different types of moves. For example, CAs by Ukrainian writers, who in general include the lowest number of moves and do not apply Moves 4–5 at all, rank among the longest.

As regards the number of different types of moves, the overwhelming majority (67) comprise only two or three types (cf. Table 4). While Anglophone and Polish writers prefer three different types when producing CAs in English, Ukrainian and Slovak writers give preference to a pattern with two types only. Czech writers tend to apply a higher number of different types of moves between 2008 and 2014, which can be caused by their growing awareness of the possible rhetorical moves and attempts to produce CAs in line with Anglophone writers' conventions.

Table 4. Number of different types of moves in all CA

No. of moves	EN	CZ 08	CZ 10	CZ 12	CZ 14	SK	PL	UA	Total (80)
5 types	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
4 types	3	1	2	0	2	0	1	0	9
3 types	5	3	4	6	4	3	5	2	32
2 types	2	6	4	4	3	5	4	7	35
1 type	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	3

The intercultural variation in the number, types and length of particular moves can also be influenced by different language-specific writing conventions, which in the case of most Slavonic writers, for example, entails a number of digressions

and thus a rather demanding nature of academic texts written in the local native language (cf. Chamonikolasová, 2005; Čmejrková, 1992; Čmejrková & Daneš, 1997; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012; Povolná, 2012; Stašková, 2005). In turn this less reader-friendly nature of L1 academic texts (e.g. numerous digressions, definitions not provided, but processed throughout the whole texts) can be reflected in a rather lengthy style when writing abstracts in English. This can prevent some Slavonic writers from including all possible types of moves since they have to follow certain limits stated by conference organisers on the total length of CAs. Another reason could simply be the fact that many scholars do not usually have research findings at their disposal when constructing a CA, or they only wish to discuss the theoretical framework and methodology of the intended research, so that they are not able to include Moves 4–5.

Table 5. Typical patterns of move sequences in all CAs

Patterns of move sequences	EN	CZ 08	CZ 10	CZ 12	CZ 14	SK	PL	UA	Total (80)
STR PTR DTM	2	2	5	3	2	2	4	1	21
STR PTR	1	4	3	3	1	0	2	4	18
PTR DTM	1	0	0	0	3	3	1	3	11
STR DTM PTR	4	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6
PTR STR	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	5
PTR STR (+another)	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	5
Other move sequences	2	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	14

The intercultural variation in the patterns of move sequences is also noticeable in Table 5. Moves 4 (STF) and 5 (DTR), which are not even part of the more frequent move sequences, occur only exceptionally in the patterns listed as 'Other move sequences'. The results demonstrate that the global structure of CAs typically comprises three different types at the most. These are in order of frequency: Move 2 (PTR), an integral part of all CAs (99%), Move 1 (STR), applied by three quarters of scholars (74%), and Move 3 (DTM), part of two thirds of CAs (65%). The most typical pattern STR PTR DTM was applied by more than one quarter of writers and, together with STR PTR and PTR DTM patterns, it represents 50 of 80 CAs. Consequently, it can be stated that most writers consider it important to start a CA with Move 1 (STR), as in Example (2), where the author first places his research within the field of functional sentence perspective and only then explains what his presentation is to be about. This position agrees with its placement in RA abstracts, although, as some studies indicate (e.g. Pho, 2008; Santos, 1996), many writers do not include this type at all. Second in order of frequency come the writers who

start with Move 2 (PTR), as in Example (3), where the author first explains the purpose of the presentation. Only three writers place Move 3 (DTM) at the very beginning of CAs.

(2) *Transitional verbs operating in presentation scale sentences within fiction narratives*
(An Attempt at a Dynamic and a Static Semantic Analysis)
Advocating a dynamic approach to the semantic analysis, the theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP) represents a logical counterpart of what is usually referred to as static semantics. In the framework of FSP, aptly elaborated by Jan Firbas (summarised in Firbas 1992), the English verb tends to be the mediator (i.e. transition) between the theme and the rheme. Every sentence implements one of the dynamic semantic scales, which functionally reflect the distribution of communicative dynamism and operate irrespective of word order. In principle, Firbas distinguishes two types of the dynamic semantic scales: the Presentation Scale and the Quality Scale. <STR>
The present paper looks at the role of the English verb operating in Presentation Scale sentences within fiction narratives from the point of view of both dynamic and static semantics. <PTR> Especially the Firbasian phenomenon of presentation or appearance on the scene is examined and exemplified by means of statistical and FSP analysis of a sample corpus based on selected narrative texts by David Lodge and C. S. Lewis. <DTM>   (Czech2010Corpus)

(3) *To-infinitive clauses in academic discourse – native and nonnative writers compared*
The objective of the paper is to examine the use of non-finite clauses, more specifically to-infinitive clauses, in written academic discourse and the application of their syntactic and semantic properties in the selected corpus. Based on Quirk's et al. (1985) subdivision they can be viewed as formal means of text formation and may have nominal, relative and adverbial meaning. This functional classification resembles to some extent that of subclausal units such as noun phrases and adverbs. <PTR> The presented analysis focuses on subordinate to-infinitive clauses in the selected papers found in Topics in Linguistics, an international scientific journal published by the Department of English and American Studies, Faculty of Arts, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra. Moreover, it tries to investigate possible differences in the application of the presented structure by the native and non-native writers of English. <DTM>   (SlovakCorpus)

Move 3, regardless of whether it comes second or third in the typical pattern, is frequently embedded within the other types, mostly Move 2. This is enabled by the fact that the methods and data are often described in a short construction, such as a phrase or non-finite clause. This contributes to the compact nature of CAs and

often allows the reversal of the order of Moves 2 and 3 (cf. Bhatia, 1993). Embedded moves have 20 occurrences in the corpus and their existence contributes to Move 3 often being the shortest of all (ranging from 8 words). Most are applied by Czech and Slovak writers, who seem to be aware of the need to write a compact abstract which includes as much information as possible in the limited space available.

It is also necessary to mention move cycles, which occur when a sequence of at least two types of moves is repeated, thus resulting in the PTR STR or PTR DTM sequence being repeated twice. These were identified in 4 cases, all by Slavonic writers (cf. Povolná, 2016).

Finally, it can be stated that the most typical pattern of move sequences (STR PTR DTM) is in line with the typical structure of RA abstracts (cf. Kafes, 2012; Pho, 2008; Santos, 1996).

3.2 Selected linguistic realisations of CAs

The distribution of the selected linguistic features, i.e. tense, aspect and voice of finite verbs, and classes of grammatical subjects, across five types of rhetorical moves of 80 CAs have been calculated separately to unveil the prototypical features of each move with each group of writers. Since the results show only minor intercultural variation (unlike some previous studies, e.g. Tseng, 2011), this section mostly discusses realisation forms of finite verbs (excluding modal verbs) and classes of subjects of the whole corpus while focusing on typical features of each type of move and, if relevant, pays attention to minor differences in the choice of verbs and subjects between different groups of writers. The survey of all finite verbs is provided in Table 6 and that of all classes of subjects in Table 7.

Table 6. Finite verbs in different types of moves (all CAs)

Move type	Voice		Tense & Aspect						Finite verbs
	Active	Passive	Pr. S.	Past S.	Pr.Pf. S.	Pr. C.	Past C.	Pr.Pf. C.	
STR	217	68	248	7	28	1	0	1	285
PTR	280	67	319	11	15	1	1	0	347
DTM	61	53	93	16	5	0	0	0	114
STF	54	6	44	14	2	0	0	0	60
DTR	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
Total	614	195	707	48	50	2	1	1	809

Table 7. Classes of subjects in different types of moves (all CAs)

Classes of subjects		STR	PTR	DTM	STF	DTR	Total (No. 829)
1 – objects of research and their attributes		18	125	73	31	3	250
2 – self-reference		3	23	5	2	0	33
3 – other-reference	**3a** – specific names of other researchers or citations	10	1	1	0	0	12
	3b – previous research or studies in general	9	1	0	0	0	10
	3c – general topics in the field	215	27	1	0	0	243
	3d – specific research objects or outcomes	14	0	0	2	0	16
4 – audience		3	3	1	0	0	7
5 – reference to writer's own work – macro-research		1	106	15	1	0	123
6 – reference to writer's own work – micro-research		0	45	28	14	1	88
7 – anticipatory *it* and existential *there*		21	17	3	6	0	47

As regards Move 1 (STR), the use of the active voice (217) clearly prevails over the passive (68) and the most frequent tense is the present simple, represented by 248 verbs, although the present perfect is used relatively frequently (28) by all writers, especially when different types of moves are compared (Table 8). A closer look at the concrete tokens of verbs reveals that, in agreement with Pho (2008, p. 239), "the use of a specific tense and aspect is [often] controlled by the grammatical subject with which it is associated". Thus different classes of subjects can be assumed to favour different forms of verbs (cf. Stašková, 2005).

Table 8. Finite verbs and subjects in Move 1

Voice	Active		217		Passive		68	Total	285
Tense & Aspect	Pr. S.	248	Past S.	7	Pr.Perf. S.	28	Pr. C.	1	Past C.	0	Pr.Perf. C.	1

Classes of subjects	1	2	3a	3b	3c	3d	4	5	6	7	Total
No.	18	3	10	9	215	14	3	1	0	21	294
%	7.5	0.7	3.4	3.1	73.1	4.8	0.7	0.3	0	7.1	100

The overwhelming majority of subjects in Move 1 in all CAs belong to Class 3 named 'Other reference'. Of the four subcategories recognised within this class, Class 3c (general topics in the field) is represented by 215 tokens, while the other three have only been identified in 33 cases together. At the beginning of their CAs writers often mention a general topic in the field they intend to present and make claims about the present state of knowledge and therefore the frequent use of present simple tense, both active and passive, is not surprising, mostly with subjects belonging to Class 3c, as in Example (4).

(4)   *The construction and negotiation of identities, social roles and interpersonal and institutional relations in the discourse of political speeches is* the result of strategic choices …   (Czech2008Corpus)

Subjects belonging to Class 3b (previous research or studies in general) usually combine with the present perfect in Move 1 (9 cases) when stating what has been achieved in previous studies, while those from 3a (specific names of other researchers) and 3d (specific research objects or outcomes) co-occur with the past simple, either active or passive, as in Examples (5) and (6). The correlation between verb forms and classes of subjects is in line with Salager-Meyer (1992, p. 93), who states that the present tense is "the preferred tense for reference to established knowledge (or universal truths) that should be part of the readers' conceptual schemata".

(5)   *Traditional and classic approaches to the study of politeness (Brown and Levinson 1978, 1987; Leech 1983) and impoliteness (Bousfield 2007; Culpeper 1996) have given rise* to the need for exploration of definitions and understandings of impoliteness.   (UkrainianCorpus)

(6)   *When we communicate, we always tend to bring in some new information and this information, as Firbas stressed, changes the immediately relevant context.*   (Czech2014Corpus)

Of the remaining classes in Move 1, Class 1 (objects of research and their attributes) and 7 (anticipatory *it* and existential *there*) are worth noting. These are shown in Examples (7) and (8), respectively.

(7)   *Academic writing in English, predominantly in university programmes populated by multiethnic and multilingual students, can be seen as an intersection of knowledges and cultures (Jones et al. 1999).*   (AnglophoneCorpus)

(8)   *… as it is positive politeness that usually prevails in women's and in-group language (Coates 1993, Holmes 1995).*   (Czech2012Corpus)

As for Move 2 (PTR), the use of the active (280) over the passive voice (67) prevails even more noticeably than in Move 1 in all CAs (Table 9). This is in agreement with

Day (1995, pp. 73–75), who recommends that the passive voice should be avoided in scientific English because of its wordiness and ambiguity in who did what. The most typical tense is the present simple, represented by 319 verbs. The other tenses are not frequent, although the past simple is applied relatively more, when compared to Move 1 and the present perfect in the same move, namely, in the CAs by non-Anglophone writers.

Table 9. Finite verbs and subjects in Move 2

Voice	Active		280		Passive		67		Total	347
Tense & Aspect	Pr. S.	319	Past S.	11	Pr.Perf. S.	15	Pr. C.	1	Past C.	1	Pr.Perf. C.	0

Classes of subjects	1	2	3a	3b	3c	3d	4	5	6	7	Total
No.	125	23	1	1	27	0	3	106	45	17	348
%	35.9	6.6	0.3	0.3	7.8	0	0.9	30.5	12.9	4.9	100

The overwhelming majority of subjects in Move 2 belong to Class 1 (objects of research and their attributes) and 5 (reference to writer's own work – macro-research). Examples (9) and (10) comprise subjects from Class 1, which logically co-occur with the present perfect or past simple used in the passive voice. The past tense in the third person passive, as used in Example (10), is considered to be characteristic of abstracts by Graetz (1985, p. 125). It is applied by non-Anglophone scholars, especially Czech academics, when mentioning something they have formulated for their research.

(9)   *The method for revealing lexical patterning has been proposed* with the aim to extract essential information and present it in a condensed form that would serve as a kind of comprehensive abstract of the whole text.   (Czech2008Corpus)

(10)   *A tentative hypothesis was formulated* that this might be due to certain intonation patterns rather than, for example, incorrect articulation of individual sounds.   (Czech2008Corpus)

Examples (11) and (12) comprise subjects from Class 5 (reference to writer's own work – macro-research), which, when introducing what the abstract is about, logically combine with the present simple. These are represented by *the/this/the present paper, the research, the presentation* and frequently used by all writers to signal Move 2. Similar tendencies were described by Pho (2008), who identified almost 65% of all subjects in Move 2 in his data (RA abstracts) as belonging to Class 5.

(11)   *This paper investigates* the use and syntactic properties of non finite clauses in different types of written discourse.   (SlovakCorpus)

(12)   *The presentation attempts* to summarize the views on abbreviation processes based on findings from recent and past research into English word-formation.
(SlovakCorpus)

Of the other classes identified in Move 2, those that occur with a quotable frequency are Class 2 (self-reference) and 3c (general topics in the field). The former is preferred by Anglophone writers, who often state openly who argues and who does the research, thus demonstrating that L1 writers use authorial voice when describing what their presentation is about.

(13)   *Ultimately, I argue that user responses to this distinct genre primarily function as social identity performances, rather than as consumer discourse.*
(AnglophoneCorpus)

Table 10. Finite verbs and subjects in Move 3

Voice	Active		61		Passive		53		Total	114
Tense & Aspect	Pr. S.	93	Past S.	16	Pr.Perf. S.	5	Pr. C.	0	Past C.	0	Pr.Perf. C.	0

Classes of subjects	1	2	3a	3b	3c	3d	4	5	6	7	Total
No.	73	5	1	0	1	0	1	15	28	3	127
%	57.5	3.9	0.8	0	0.8	0	0.8	11.8	22.1	2.2	100

The use of the active and passive voice is the most balanced of all in Move 3 (DTM) (Table 10). The most typical tense is the present simple, represented by 93 verbs. The only other tense worth quoting is the past simple, which is not so frequent as in the findings by Pho (2008, p. 241), who speaks about past tense as "the predominant tense used in the DTM Move", especially in contrast to Moves 1 and 2. However, this study deals with CAs, which advertise research to be presented at a conference, which is not the case of Pho's results drawn from RA abstracts, so clearly reporting on research already completed and requiring the past tense.

Since Move 3 is the shortest of all and often expressed with a phrase or non-finite clause sometimes embedded within Move 2, it is not surprising that the number of subjects is lower than in Moves 1 and 2. Move 3 often starts with subjects referring to research objects or their attributes (Class 1), which are followed by verbs stating what was done to the objects. Therefore, they are responsible for the highest proportion of the passive voice in comparison with the other types.

(14)   *To answer these questions six articles from British online tabloids and six from broadsheets were analysed.*
(Czech2014Corpus)

Table 11. Finite verbs and subjects in Move 4

Voice	Active		54		Passive		6	Total	60
Tense & Aspect	Pr. S. 44	Past S. 14	Pr.Perf. S. 2		Pr. C. 0	Past C. 0	Pr.Perf. C. 0		

Classes of subjects	1	2	3a	3b	3c	3d	4	5	6	7	Total
No.	31	2	0	0	0	2	0	1	14	6	56
%	55.4	3.6	0	0	0	3.6	0	1.8	25.0	10.7	100

Move 4 (STF) is associated with the use of active verbs used mostly in the present simple (Table 11). Finite verbs usually follow subjects from Class 1 (objects of research and their attributes) or 6 (reference to writer's own work – micro-research), and sometimes 7 (anticipatory *it* and existential *there*). Similarly to Pho's (2008) findings, Class 1 tends to be used at the beginning of Move 4, followed by Class 6. This agrees with Lorés-Sanz (2004, p. 29), who demonstrates a simple linear thematic progression in her study, where the rheme of the preceding sentence becomes the theme of the subsequent sentence, as in Example (15).

(15) *Results indicate consistent patterns in the production of target reduced vowels between monolinguals and bilinguals, though findings do not support the characterization of [ə] vocalization as identical in either vowel qualities or duration. These divergent patterns point to separate perceptual processes in the articulation of central vowels within the reduced vowel zone.* (AnglophoneCorpus)

Since Move 5 (DTR) has been identified only in three CAs, it suffices to note here that the identified subjects belong either to Class 1 (objects of research and their attributes) (3 cases) or 6 (reference to writer's own work – micro-research) (1 case), similarly to Move 4, and that all of them are used with present simple tense, which "makes the sentence sound more general" (Pho, 2008, p. 244) and clearly helps to signal Move 5.

Summing up this section, it can be stated that the active voice in general prevails over the passive in all types of moves, Move 3 (DTM) being the only one with a balanced use of both voices. The simple aspect clearly prevails over the continuous, the present tense being dominant, followed by the past and only occasionally present perfect. Since this is true about all groups of writers, it is not possible to speak about any significant intercultural differences in the use of finite verbs. As for grammatical subjects, other-reference subjects (Class 3, esp. 3c) typically occur in Move 1 (STR) while subjects referring to objects of research and their attributes (Class 1) are indicative of Moves 2 (PTR) and 3 (DTM). Moves 3 and 4 (STF) frequently comprise a reference to the writer's own work (Classes 5–6). Based on

my results, it can be noted in agreement with Stašková (2005, pp. 206–207) that "there is a tendency to use impersonal subjects with active verbs rather than passive voice and/or personal subjects" by all writers. The most noticeable variation is the frequent use of personal subjects, namely, Class 2 (self-reference) in Move 2 by L1 writers, showing that they prefer marked authorial presence to a greater extent than L2 writers when presenting their own research (cf. Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012).

4. Conclusions

With regard to the research questions formulated in Section 1, it can be stated that this chapter has provided evidence for certain intercultural variation in the global structure of CAs. While Anglophone writers mostly apply three moves representing different types, non-Anglophone writers generally prefer only two moves. The application of a two-move pattern can be influenced by a relatively lengthy style often associated with L1 academic texts, which authors of Slavonic origin sometimes transfer from their L1 texts into academic genres written in English (cf. Čmejrková & Daneš, 1997; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012; Povolná, 2012). Only some Polish scholars and some groups of Czech writers tend to include more different types of moves, thus constructing CAs close to those by Anglophone writers. This tendency can be associated with particular scholars' awareness of the possible rhetorical functions of different types of moves, which would account for their attempts to apply a wider range of strategies to persuade organisers to accept their CAs for presentation at a conference.

By contrast, the distribution of finite verbs and grammatical subjects across the CAs and the different moves reveals only minor intercultural variation. Some common tendencies can be identified, notably the correlation between classes of subjects and finite verbs, i.e. the signalling of particular types of moves by certain classes of subjects, often regularly combined with certain verb forms (cf. Pho, 2008; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Stašková, 2005). It is hoped that the results of the study can be useful for novice writers who need to learn how to master the textual organization and linguistic realisations of English CAs and construct them appropriately to be granted participation at international conferences.

Overall, it can be stated that this chapter has proven that the global rhetorical structure of CAs is different from that traditionally associated with RA abstracts and demonstrated that writing CAs in English can pose a challenge for non-Anglophone scholars although some degree of intercultural variation in the rhetorical structure does not seem to impede acceptance into an international conference. It can thus be noted that "Anglophone norms [seem to] merge with culture-specific linguistic features" (Pérez-Llantada, 2014, p. 192) and bring about certain discoursal changes,

which can be viewed as enriching the existing rhetorical practices and enhancing intercultural communication in academic settings.

Since the analysis is limited to CAs representing empirical research in the field of Applied Linguistics, only further research can provide a more complete picture of the macrostructure and linguistic features of English CAs. It could be interesting to analyse what happens at conferences held at Anglophone institutions and to see the extent to which rhetorical and lexicogrammatical choices and potential challenges for non-Anglophone scholars have an effect on their acceptance to present their research in these fora.

Acknowledgement

References

Bhatia, V. (1993). *Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings*. London: Longman.

Bennett, K. (2010). Academic discourse in Portugal: A whole different ballgame? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 21–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2009.11.002

Bennett, K. (2013). Discourses of knowledge: Cultural disjunctions and their implications for the language industries. In C. Haase & J. Schmied (Eds.), *English for academic purposes: Practical and theoretical approaches. REAL studies 7* (pp. 41–54). Göttingen: Cuvillier Verlag.

Biber, D., Connor, U., & Upton, T. (2007). *Discourse on the move. Using corpus analysis to describe discourse structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.28

Bondi, M., & Lorés-Sanz, R. (2014). (Eds.). *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change*. Bern: Peter Lang. https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-0351-0701-2

Chamonikolasová, J. (2005). Comparing the structures of academic texts written in English and Czech. In M. Huttová, A. Bohmerová, A. Keníž, & E. Tandlichová (Eds.), *Slovak studies in English 1* (pp. 77–84). Bratislava: Comenius University.

Čmejrková, S. (1992). Non-native (academic) writing. In S. Čmejrková, & F. Daneš (Eds.), *Writing vs speaking. Language, text, discourse, communication. Proceedings of the Conference held at the Czech Language Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, Prague* (pp. 303–310). Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Čmejrková, S., & Daneš, F. (1997). Academic writing and cultural identity: The case of Czech academic writing. In A. Duzsak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse*. (pp. 40–62). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.41

Day, R. A. (1995). *Scientific English: A guide for scientists and other professionals* (2nd ed.). Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press.

Diani, G. (2014). On English and Italian research article abstracts: Genre variation across cultures. In M. Bondi, & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 65–83). Bern: Peter Lang.

Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2012). Cross-cultural differences in the construal of authorial voice in the genre of diploma theses. In C. Berkenkotter, V. K. Bhatia, & M. Gotti (Eds.), *Insights into academic genres. Linguistic insights. Studies in language and communication.* (pp. 301–328). Bern: Peter Lang.

Graetz, N. (1985). Teaching EFL students to extract structural information from abstracts. In J. M. Ulign & A. K. Pugh (Eds.), *Reading for professional purposes: Methods and materials in teaching languages* (pp. 123–135). Leuven: Acco.

Hemais, B. (2001). The discourse of research and practice in marketing journals. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20, 39–59. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00021-6

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Harlow: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.23927

Hyland, K. (2008). Persuasion, interaction and the construction of knowledge: Representing self and others in research writing. *International Journal of English Studies*, 8(2), 1–23.

Kafes, H. (2012). Cultural traces on the rhetorical organization of research article abstracts. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 3(3), 207–220.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context: The politics and practices of publishing in English*. London: Routledge.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2004). On RA abstracts: From rhetorical structure to thematic organization. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(3), 280–302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2003.06.001

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2014). Lost (and gained) in translation: A contrastive (English/Spanish) analysis of rhetorical and lexicogrammatical patterns in sociology research article abstracts. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 85–110). Bern: Peter Lang.

Martín-Martín, P. (2002). A genre analysis of English and Spanish research paper abstracts in experimental social sciences. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(1), 25–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(01)00033-3

MacDonald, S. P. (1992). A method for analyzing sentence-level differences in disciplinary knowledge making. *Written Communication*, 9(4), 533–569. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088392009004004

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2008). Analysing engagement markers cross-culturally: The case of English and Spanish business management research articles. In S. Burgess & P. Martín-Martín (Eds.), *English as an additional language in research publication and communication. Linguistic insights. Studies in language and communication* (pp. 197–213). Bern: Peter Lang.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2011). Constructing the ideal readership: Heteroglossic (dis)engagement in research writing practices across cultures. In V. K. Bhatia, P. Sánchez, & P. Pérez-Paredes (Eds.), *Researching specialised languages* (pp. 25–45). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2014). *Scientific discourse and the rhetoric of globalization*. London: Blooomsbury.

Pho, P. D. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: A study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies*, 10(2), 231–250. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445607087010

Povolná, R. (2012). Cross-cultural differences in the use of discourse markers by Czech and German students of English in the genre of Master's theses. In C. Berkenkotter, V. K. Bhatia, & M. Gotti (Eds.), *Insights into academic genres. Linguistic insights. Studies in language and communication* (pp. 329–351). Bern: Peter Lang.

Povolná, R. (2016). Cross-cultural analysis of conference abstracts. *Discourse and Interaction*, 9(1), 29–48. https://doi.org/10.5817/Dl2016-1-29

Salager-Meyer, F. (1992). A text-type and move-analysis study of verb tense and modality distribution in medical English abstracts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 11(2), 93–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(05)80002-X

Samraj, B. (2005). An exploration of a genre set: Research article abstracts and introductions in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24, 141–156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2002.10.001

Santos, M. B. (1996). The textual organization of research paper abstracts in applied linguistics. *Text*, 16(4), 481–499.

Schmied, J. (2011). Academic writing in Europe: A survey of approaches. In J. Schmied (Ed.), *Academic writing in Europe: Empirical perspectives. REAL studies 5* (pp. 1–22). Göttingen: Cuvillier Verlag.

Stašková, S. (2005). Options of identity: Authorial presence in research article abstracts. In M. Huttová, A. Bohmerová, A. Keníž, & E. Tandlichová (Eds.), *Slovak studies in English 1* (pp. 201–207). Bratislava: Comenius University.

Swales, J. M. (1981). *Aspects of article introduction*. Birmingham, UK: The University of Aston. Language Studies Unit.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research genres. Explorations and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524827

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. (2009). *Abstracts and the writing of abstracts*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.309332

Tseng, F. (2011). Analyses of move structure and verb tense of research article abstracts in applied linguistics journals. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 1(2), 27–39. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v1n2p27

Vassileva, I. (2000). *Who is the author? A contrastive analysis of authorial presence in English, German, French, Russian and Bulgarian academic discourse*. Sankt Augustin: Asgard.

Ventola, E. (1994). Abstracts as an object of linguistic study. In S. Čmejrková, F. Daneš, & E. Havlová (Eds.), *Writing vs speaking. Language, text, discourse, communication* (pp. 333–352). Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Wagner, S. (2011). Concessives and contrastives in student writing: L1, L2 and genre differences. In J. Schmied (Ed.), *Academic writing in Europe: Empirical perspectives. REAL studies 5* (pp. 23–48). Göttingen: Cuvillier Verlag

Intercultural analysis on the move

Exploring ELF academic texts

Hybrid rhetorical structure in English Sociology research article abstracts

The ambit of ELF and translation

Rosa Lorés-Sanz

Universidad de Zaragoza

Research article abstracts play a significant role in our globalised scientific world, where findings are disseminated in English. This study aims to identify and analyse the rhetorical patterns which characterise English abstracts in Sociology, a discipline traditionally dominated by Anglophone writers. Three corpora will be explored and contrasted: abstracts written in English as L1, in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and English abstracts translated from Spanish. Thirty texts will be analysed in each case. Features such as the frequency of moves and phraseology indicating rhetorical structure may illustrate the general level of hybridity that academic texts in English show internationally and can be interpreted as "innovative patterns of use", as described in ELF literature (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011).

Keywords: rhetorical structure, research articles abstracts, Sociology, ELF, English L1, translation, hybridity

1. Introduction

The globalised world of scientific research and science communication and dissemination is imposing new needs and requirements on academics in order to cope with the massive amount of information they have at hand. Major international scientific data-bases shelter a considerable number of journals which contain an enormous quantity of papers published by thousands of academics every year. Swales and Feak (2009, p. 1) refer to this situation as an "information explosion". According to Tse and Hyland (2010, p. 1880), Scopus alone includes 16,000 peer reviewed journals and incorporates 600 new publications each year. In the preface to this volume, Hyland (2018: vii) quotes Björk, Roos and Lauri (2009) figure of 1.5 million peer

reviewed articles being published each year. In this scenario the academic genre of the research article (RA) abstract has acquired strategic relevance, as it has become an essential time-saving tool used by researchers as a filter to help them be highly selective with the information available, allowing them to navigate successfully and efficiently through this massive amount of information. Moreover, the overflow of information that academics have to deal with is giving way to new textual manifestations which have emerged as a consequence of their need to save time.

Moreover, the fact that English is the language used for scientific communication at a global level involves, among many other sociological, political, economic, and ideological implications, an increasing pressure on academics to disseminate their research internationally in English, especially in certain areas of knowledge. As Trutchot (2002) states, already in 2002 over 90 percent of the information contained in influential databases (e.g. the Science Citation Index) was drawn from articles in English largely taken from English-medium journals (Trutchot 2002 in Kirkpatrick [2009, p. 254]). Non-Anglophone scholars are well aware of this and, in fact, it seems that the proportion of papers authored by nonnative academics is on the increase (Ferguson, Pérez-Llantada & Plo, 2011, p. 43).

Another consequence of the world-wide use of English as the lingua franca and the hegemonic position it holds especially in scientific communication is the need for many non-Anglophone national journals to be included in international databases, as a way to disseminate locally-generated knowledge and gain prestige. One of the essential requisites for their inclusion in the most relevant data-bases is that they provide an English version of the RA abstracts published in the journal. This is one of the manifestations of the increasing pressure on non-native academics to write in English, even when their research is published in a local journal in a local language.

Within this scenario, the increasing number of studies on the study of the RA abstract as an academic genre comes as a natural outcome together with the fact that some of this research has adopted a cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspective, mainly focused on the difficulties that non-native writers have when drafting their abstracts in English. So, there are a myriad of contrastive studies involving English and other languages as L1, such as Italian (Diani, 2014), German (Busch-Lauer, 1995, 2014), French (van Bonn & Swales, 2007), Arabic (Alharbi, 1997; Alharbi & Swales, 2011), and Spanish (Alonso-Almeida, 2014; Bellés-Fortuño & Querol-Julián, 2010; Burgess & Martín-Martín, 2010; Divasson & León Pérez, 2006; Lorés-Sanz, 2006, 2009a, 2014; Martín-Martín, 2003, 2005). As the editors of this volume explain in their Introduction, this exonormative perspective (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, & Pitzl, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011), which assumes English as used by native speakers (ENL) to be the norm non-Anglophone writers should adhere to, is nowadays complemented

with a more endonormative approach, which considers other linguacultural rhetorical conventions as valid when writing in English for an international audience. Studies along these lines are certainly contributing to the understanding of the workings of English as a Lingua Franca in academic written genres.

Within the wide field of contrastive linguistics and cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies, not much attention, however, has been paid so far to the study of the English translations of Spanish abstracts (see Fernández Antolín, López Arroyo, & De Felipe Boto, 2006; López-Arroyo, Fernández Antolín, & de Felipe Boto, 2007; Perales & Swales, 2011), which accompany RAs published in national journals indexed internationally (i.e. Scopus, Sciencedirect, Latindex, etc.). Although an abstract in English is in fact a requisite imposed by many databases and citation indexes in order to include a journal in their lists, the English version of the Spanish RA abstract is also a great chance Spanish academics have to disseminate their research internationally. Moreover, as López Arroyo et al. (2007, p. 17) state, they are derived texts of RAs which are adequate and accepted by the national discourse community originally targeted; but, when translated into English, they are addressing a different target discourse community they should also adapt to. However, English versions of abstracts of Spanish RAs do not seem to deserve much attention by academic writers, and they tend to be perceived as mere requirements set by journal editors. Not aware of the impact that these short texts may have in the dissemination of results, writers resort, for instance, to automatic translation tools or translate them themselves, sometimes lacking an adequate competence to do so. The fact that they use a source text in Spanish as a starting point to generate an English version may have an impact on the way the English abstracts come out as compared to abstracts written in English, either as L1 or as L2.

In this context, the present study sets out to explore abstracts in English resulting from different writing processes. I here hypothesise that some features of abstracts at the rhetorical, discursive and lexicogrammatical level may differ as a result of the diverse processes of textual construction and the distinct linguacultural contexts they emerge from. Thus, my aim in this chapter is to contribute to the general understanding of the abstract as a key academic genre within one specific disciplinary community (Sociology) but across different linguacultural contexts from where the texts emerge, namely, Anglophone, Spanish and international (ELF). The ultimate aim is to be able to contribute from a pedagogical point of view to the field of academic writing and translation instruction for non-native users of English as the international vehicle of scientific dissemination.

My analysis focuses on one specific feature (the rhetorical structure) and one specific discipline (Sociology). The fact that the study will be based on a single discipline, Sociology, will allow us to concentrate on the rhetorical conventions

considered appropriate by this disciplinary community across different linguistic contexts. Sociology has been traditionally dominated by Anglophone writers, with their most prestigious journals hosted either in the United States or in Great Britain. For a long time, only academics mainly from Germany, the Netherlands, Israel and China were contributing to journals of the discipline with an international impact. However, it is becoming an increasingly "internationalised" discipline to which Spanish academics are starting to contribute, together with non-native writers from other linguacultural contexts.

Focusing on the rhetorical structure of abstracts is not a capricious choice either. The written academic context in general has recently become a fertile ground for ELF studies (e.g. Carey, 2013; Mur-Dueñas, 2013). The compilation of the WrELFA corpus (Written English as a Lingua Franca in Academic settings),[1] collected at the University of Helsinki (Finland), is a clear evidence of the interest that the academic written environment is generating in ELF research. Some scholars (Hartse & Kubota, 2014; Mauranen, 2012) claim that so far there is little empirical knowledge about how variations are tolerated in academic writing publications. Rhetorical structure may well be one of those aspects open to variation and change, as a result of contact among ELF users. The use of ELF creates a sort of "virtual scenario" where processes of language contact, variation and change take place, taking into account, as Seidlhofer (2011, p. xi) points out, that English is unlike other languages in the sense that "most of its users do not mainly, or even at all, engage with native speakers". According to Mauranen, Pérez-Llantada, and Swales (2010), most studies in contrastive rhetoric reveal that the strongest influence of different academic writing cultures is shown in the textual organisation and textual preferences displayed. However, "language editors saw as their main task the correction of lexicogrammatical errors, but they abstained from tackling the textual organization and pragmatic aspects of the texts they were revising" (Mauranen et al., 2010, p. 638). Hartse and Kubota (2014), reflecting on their attempts as gatekeepers to "pluralise English" in L2 writing, also focus on lexis and grammar, and state: "in high-stakes writing, lexicogrammatical variation from standard English is being noticed by native and non-native English speakers alike, and it can quickly lead to sentences, texts, or authors being perceived as deficient" (2014, p. 73). Therefore, if the focus for "language brokers" (Lillis & Curry, 2010) lies mainly at word and sentence level, rhetorical aspects may show more patently the variations contributed by non-Anglophone writers, as these variations will be less noticeable.

All in all, the research questions which emerge from my starting hypothesis and aims are the following:

---

1.   <http://www.helsinki.fi/englanti/elfa/wrelfa.html>

1. Are Spanish sociologists following the rhetorical conventions of abstracts described in the literature in their translated texts into English? Or, rather, are they transferring the Spanish rhetorical patterns into their English translations?
2. Are abstracts written by authors from different linguacultural contexts (ELF) adopting the conventional structure of ENL abstracts described in the literature? Are they modifying the patterns giving way to new, hybrid texts?
3. Are there points of connection/divergence between abstracts written in ELF and in English translated texts?

2.   Methodology and corpus description

To carry out this study I collected a monolingual comparable corpus consisting of 90 RA abstracts from the discipline of Sociology (amounting to over 13,000 words). Some of the texts included in this ad hoc corpus are the abstracts which accompany RAs included in the Sociology corpus of SERAC 2.0. SERAC (Spanish-English Research Article Corpus) is a corpus compiled by the research group InterLAE, at the Universidad de Zaragoza (Spain), which covers four major academic divisions, namely, Humanities and Arts, Social Sciences, Biological and Health Sciences and Physical Sciences and Engineering. Each academic division includes three disciplines, and Sociology is one of the disciplinary areas within the division of Social Sciences.

It is a comparable corpus which consists of three subcorpora (30 texts per subcorpus): (i) 30 English translations of the corresponding Spanish abstracts (ENGTRANS), (ii) 30 ELF abstracts (ELF),[2] and (iii) 30 English abstracts written in English L1 (ENG).

The RA abstracts included in the corpus were taken from six journals specialised in Sociology and, in all the cases, the texts were selected from issues between 2004 and 2014. The Spanish journals from which the English translations of the Spanish abstracts were taken were *Papers. Revista de Sociología* (hosted in the Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona), *Revista*: *Española de Investigaciones Sociológicas (REIS)*, published by the Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas (Spanish Centre for Sociological Research), and *Revista Internacional de Sociología (RIS)*, published by the Instituto de Estudios Sociales Avanzados de Andalucía (Andalucian Advanced Sociological Studies Institute). According to the Spanish

---

2. The institutions to which ELF authors were affiliated were sited in the following countries (number of abstracts in brackets): Netherlands (4); Israel and Germany (3); Sweden, Hong Kong, France, Norway and Belgium (2); Spain, Switzerland, Korea, Japan, Turkey, Denmark, Macao, Italy, Taiwan, Finland (1).

journals' webpages, the three of them are included in national and international databases and citation indexes.[3]

The English-medium international journals from which the ENL and ELF subcorpora were selected were the following (ten texts per journal in each case): *British Journal of Sociology* (hosted by the London School of Economics), *AJS (American Journal of Sociology)*, published by The University of Chicago Press, and *Social Science Research*, published by Elsevier. All of them are journals with high impact factors.

The guidelines that both English-medium journals and Spanish journals provide for abstract writing are included in Appendix A. As mentioned in these guidelines, all the three journals state a series of requisites referring to the length of the abstracts (with the only exception of the journal *Social Science Research*, which simply refers to a "concise and factual abstract") and the content and aspects they should touch upon.

The identification of the writer's native language has always been a conflictive point in intercultural studies. Acknowledging the methodological weakness it implies, I have here followed conventional practice in cross-cultural studies, in which the authors' native language is generally identified by institutional affiliation and family name (i.e. Alharbi & Swales, 2011; Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza, & Zambrano, 2003; Van Bonn & Swales, 2007; and Vassileva, 2000, among others). Another problematic methodological issue was to identify the process of construction of both ENGTRANS and ELF corpora. With regard to ENGTRANS, a survey was conducted which consisted of a questionnaire submitted via e-mail to the Spanish signing authors of the 30 RA abstracts selected for the present study.[4] The purpose of the enquiry was to know how the English version of their Spanish abstract had been drafted, whether translators or language reviewers had been involved and, if that had been the case, whether these reviewers were:

– English native speakers experts in the field
– English native speakers non-experts in the field
– English non-native speakers experts in the field
– English non-native speakers non-experts in the field

---

3. Papers. Revista de Sociología <http://papers.uab.cat/>; Revista Española de Investigaciones Sociológicas (REIS) <www.reis.cis.es/>); Revista Internacional de Sociología (RIS), <http://revintsociologia.revistas.csic.es>.

4. In the case of co-authored articles all the authors were contacted but replies about the same abstract were not-duplicated.

Interesting results for the study reported here were obtained. Out of the 30 authors contacted, 16 replied to the questionnaire.[5] Although answers from all the authors were not obtained, the percentage of replies received (53%) allows us to observe tendencies as to what the practices of Spanish Sociology academics may be when drafting their Spanish RA abstracts in English. 15 out of the 16 authors had translated the abstracts themselves, of which nine had been sent straight to the editors without revision, five had been previously revised by non-native speakers who were experts in the discipline, and one had been previously revised by an expert native speaker. The remaining abstract had been translated by a professional translator. These insights have proved to be very helpful at the time of interpreting results.

Moreover, whereas we can infer from the information drawn from the survey that the English versions of the Spanish abstracts are all a product of a process of translation, we cannot be as certain that all the ELF abstracts are written in English straightaway, without the mediation of a previous text in L1 from which they are translated. Although common knowledge makes us think that this is how ELF texts are written (drafted in English), we cannot be sure that this is the case in all the 30 abstracts included in the ELF corpus. This being a methodological limitation to this study will force us to be cautious at the time of drawing conclusions from the data yielded.

All in all, this study draws on a monolingual comparable corpus, consisting of three subsets of texts in English from different origins. The concept of a comparable corpus originates in the field of translation and refers to collections of translations in one target language and original texts in that same target language (Baker, 1995). Comparable corpora are generally used to unveil features specific to translated texts as opposed to other types of text production, and have been shown to be especially useful with regard to the study of translation universals, such as explicitation, simplification and normalisation (Hansen-Schirra, 2008). The fact that we here add a third subset of texts in English, this time as a lingua franca contributed by writers from various L1 may come to enrich the analysis and help us draw more insightful conclusions about how Sociology abstracts are rhetorically structured in international journals and whether translation and ELF, in themselves different processes of textual construction, have an impact, and to which degree, on the structure of abstracts which circulate at an international level. That is, Intercultural Rhetoric is here conceived not only as a framework of comparison between sets of texts written in English L1, translated English and ELF, but as a tool to explore synergies and connections between some of these texts and other texts that, although written in the same language, originate as a result of different construction processes (i.e. translation).

---

5.   The distribution of answers from the authors publishing in the three journals were the following: 4 from authors publishing in Papers, 7 from REIS and 5 from RIS.

To carry out the identification of the rhetorical structure, the Swalesian IMRD structure (Swales, 1990), which identifies the communicative function of sections or moves, was carried out. Based on Swales (1990), Lewin (2010, pp. 156–163) proposes a move pattern as a template for the Social Sciences, which was here applied following a top-down approach (Pho, 2008). Lewin's model conceives a rhetorical structure common to both conference and RA abstracts. Thus, the generic rhetorical structure proposed for the Social Sciences abstract consists of six moves:

1. Relevance
2. Gap
3. Objectives/Aim
4. Method
5. Results
6. Implications/Conclusions

This six-move structure is illustrated in the following Sociology abstract written in English as L1, which is part of the corpus under study:

> [RELEVANCE] *Over the last several decades increases in the income inequality in the United States have been well-documented.*
>
> [GAP] *Yet, this assessment of growing prosperity for some but downslide for others is based on a specific interpretation of the concept "inequality." This paper develops an alternative measure of inequality based on the concept "relative deprivation." Relative deprivation refers to the frustration that is associated with a person's relative position in a reference group. The proposed measure draws from the social science literature on poverty and improves upon an earlier measure, RD.*
>
> [METHODS] *Using data from the 1998 General Social Survey,*
>
> [AIM] *I analyze the relationship between the proposed and earlier measures of relative deprivation, and two outcome variables: (1) self-rated health, and (2) happiness.*
>
> [RESULTS] *While the measures produce similar results in predicting self-rated health, the proposed measure is a better predictor of happiness than the earlier measure.*
>
> [IMPLICATIONS] *I conclude that the empirical and theoretical advantages of the proposed index make it an improved measure of relative deprivation.*

Lewin identified this structure in 12 empirical abstracts published in *Demography*, the journal of the Population Association of America, and the structure was then checked again, to see if it was representative of the Social Sciences, in several journals from different disciplines within this area (e.g. Sociology, Psychiatry, Psychology, Anthropology, and Social Work). Lewin did not make any reference to whether the authors were native speakers of English or not, but the journals she drew the texts from are all based in Anglophone countries and the fact that Lewin tried to define a template makes us think that she observed abstracts written by ENL scholars.

One of her main findings was the observation that there was a three-move pattern which was prevailing in her corpus: the pattern "objectives-method-results" (Lewin, 2010, p. 161). The identification of moves was carried out by the writer of the present article, subject to a process of intra-rater reliability, yielding a degree of agreement of 92% in a span of two months.

Finally, chi square tests were performed to determine whether the results found in the analysis were statistically significant. The chi square calculations were made using the on-line statistical calculator provided by Preacher (2001). If the p-value was – 0.05 (the level usually set in linguistics), it was concluded that the results were statistically significant.

3. Results and discussion

The identification and tagging of moves in the three subcorpora under analysis, based on the template proposed by Lewin (2010), yielded insightful information which provided answers to the research questions posed above.

To start with, Figure 1 below indicates the number of abstracts in each subcorpus which contains each of the moves.

Some distinct features are already observable, such as the fact that there is representation of all the moves in the three subcorpora but to many different extents depending on the move that is involved, with one exception: the Aim. According to the data found, to state aims is compulsory in the three linguacultural contexts.

The data found also corroborate Lewin's claim that the pattern "objectives-method-results" prevailed in her corpus of Social Science abstracts (2010, p. 160). Thus, Aim, Methods and Results are the more frequent moves (appearing in this order) in all the three contexts, but especially so in the case of ENL and ELF texts.

As expected, ELF abstracts show more similarities with ENL abstracts than with ENGTRANS. It was an expected finding in the sense that, assuming that there was
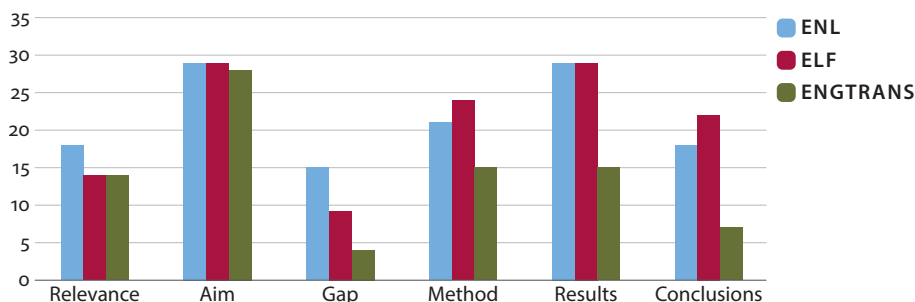
Figure 1. Number of texts per subcorpus including the moves of a social science abstract

not mediation by a previous L1 text which imposes certain rhetorical constraints on the text derived from it, we should expect that ELF writers may be less constrained to accommodate to already existing rhetorical conventions in English. Consequently, the largest differences are found between ENGTRANS abstracts and ELF and ENL texts.

Based on the data provided in Figure 1, Table 1 offers results in terms of percentages, thus facilitating quantitative interpretation:

Table 1. Inclusion of moves per subcorpus (percentages and raw numbers in brackets)

	Relevance	Gap	Aim	Method	Results	Conclusions
ENL	60 (18)	50 (15)	96.6 (29)	70 (21)	96.6 (29)	60 (18)
ELF	46.6 (14)	30 (9)	96.6 (29)	80 (24)	96.9 (29)	73.3 (22)
ENGTRANS	46.6 (14)	13.3 (4)	93.3 (28)	50 (15)	50 (15)	23.3 (7)

Statistically significant differences were found between the three subcorpora in four out of six moves (*very low p-values are indicated as* < 0.001): the Gap move (*p-value:* < 0.0009 (c^2 = 9.435; *d.f.* = 2)), the Methods move (*p-value:* = 0.043 (c^2 = 6.3; *d.f.* = 2)), the Results move (*p-value* < 0.001 (c^2 = 28.429; *d.f.* = 2)) and, more relevantly, the Conclusions move (*p-value:* < 0.001 (c^2 = 16.121; *d.f.* = 2).

Moreover, attending to the percentages offered in Table 1, a distinct rhetorical pattern can be identified in ENGTRANS in comparison to ELF and ENL. This idiosyncratic rhetorical behavior consists, among other features, of (i) a very low frequency of the Gap move; (ii) a lower frequency of the Method move (as compared with the other two corpora); (iii) a lower frequency of the Results move (as compared with the other two corpora), and (iv) a very low frequency of the Conclusions move.

The distinct rhetorical structure found in ENGTRANS derives, as indicated above, from the Spanish L1 texts they are translated from, and, as expected, mirrors the structure of the Spanish source texts. This claim is in line with the results found in a previous study (Lorés-Sanz, 2014), where the lexicogrammar and rhetorical structure of L1 Spanish abstracts and their English translations were explored, and in which one of the more undisputable findings was that the rhetorical structure is transferred to the translated target text without modification. The low frequency of the Gap move in Spanish and in their English translations recorded in the present study is also in line with Fernández Antolín et al.'s (2006) findings about medical Spanish abstracts. So, it seems to obey to linguacultural conventions and not to disciplinary ones. The fact that Spanish abstracts, independently of the discipline they belong to, do not usually include a Gap move (that, is, they do not create a space for the research they are summarizing), may also have to do with the Spanish tendency to avoid criticism, observed in other academic texts (i.e. research articles

(Burgess, 2002; Mur-Dueñas, 2010) and book reviews (Lorés-Sanz, 2009b, 2012; Moreno & Suárez, 2008, 2009)), as including a gap implies identifying limitations in the research carried out by previous scholars. It may also have to do with the lower awareness Spanish academics in the field of Sociology may have with regard to the relevance of identifying a research space for their work. Spanish academics in the field of Sociology still have a very low level of international publications in comparison with other more internationalised disciplines (Lorés-Sanz, Mur-Dueñas, Rey-Rocha & Moreno, 2014; Mur-Dueñas, Lorés-Sanz, Rey Rocha & Moreno Fernández, 2014) and their access to the international sphere is almost limited to their English abstracts included in big data bases. However, the picture is that the more competitive the academic world becomes (in terms of quantity and quality of scientific production), the stronger relevance this move acquires, as it is playing an essential role to identify clearly whether there is scope for relevant research and how the contribution the scholar makes can fill that gap.

All in all, the reason why ENGTRANS texts are different from ENL and ELF abstracts is not that they are written by non-native (Spanish) writers. Differences may be due to the fact that ENGTRANS abstracts are mediated by texts already existing in another L1, and it is this process of mediation (carried out either by the Spanish author him/herself or by an English native translator) which gives shape to the final English texts.

The idiosyncratic behaviour of translated texts can be explained in terms of Toury's (1995) two laws or universals of translation. First, there is the "law of growing standardization", that is, that "in translation, textual relations obtaining in the original are often modified, sometimes to the point of being totally ignored, in favour of (more) habitual options offered by a target repertoire" (Toury, 1995, p. 268). This law, also called "normalization" (Baker, 1993; Teich, 2002, 2003) refers to the target text's conformity to the typical patters of the target language. The "law of interference", on its part, is explained by Toury (1995, p. 275) in the following terms: "in translation, phenomena pertaining to the make-up of the source text tend to be transferred to the target text". That is, in Teich's words (2002), the source language "shines through" the target text. Hansen-Schirra (2011) investigates whether normalisation and shining-through effects in translations lead to a hybridisation of target texts and whether this has an impact on the target language. She concludes that a hybridisation of translations leads to problems in terms of readability and acceptability of translated texts. This is a point deserving further research which goes beyond the scope of the present paper, but it would certainly be of significance to reach conclusions as to the level of readability and acceptability by informants of ENGTRANS abstracts in comparison with the other two subcorpora, and the implications which derive from them.

A continuum of translation properties, covering normalisation (when the target language norms are met in translated text), anti-normalisation (when the opposite of target language norms can be found in translation), and shining through (when the source language norms are still present) has also been proposed (Hansen-Schirra & Steiner, 2012 in Hansen-Schirra, 2017). Hybridisation, as a textual phenomenon, would be located anywhere between the typical patterns of the source language and those of the target language.

The ELF abstracts included in the corpus, as all ELF instances, are the result of the contribution of different similects (Mauranen, 2012). It is now generally assumed that processes of hybridisation, blending, simplification, among others, take place in order for ELF writers to reach a compromise between their own lexi-cogrammatical and rhetorical conventions and the conventions which apply to the English language and with which they may be familiar to a lesser or greater extent. What is observed in the corpus under study is that ELF rhetorics tends to adjust to the conventions of English L1 to a greater degree than ENGTRANS texts. Applying the laws mentioned above, which seem to be universals that guide the process of translation, and bridging the gap that certainly exists between English target texts (translated form Spanish) and ELF texts, it would be sensible to claim that ELF abstracts tend to conform to the law of growing standardisation (Toury, 1995) or normalisation (Teich, 2002, 2003) to a greater extent than translated texts. As a result, the interaction between rhetorics from different similects as well as familiarity with English L1 rhetorics gives way to new, distinct hybrid modes (Lorés-Sanz, 2016; Mur-Dueñas, 2015, 2018).

However, although much closer in structure to ENL abstracts than ENGTRANS abstracts, ELF texts also show a distinct rhetorical organisation which basically consists of three main features, as observed in Figure 1 and Table 1: (i) a lower frequency of the Gap move in comparison to ENL abstracts, although not as low as in the ENGTRANS corpus; (ii) a slightly higher frequency of the Method move than in both ENL and, more so, ENGTRANS, and (iii), a slightly higher frequency of the Conclusions move than in both ENL and, more so, ENGTRANS. Two main hypotheses can be launched by way of explanation of this distinct rhetorical behaviour: first, the influence of the rhetorical conventions prevailing in various L1 contexts in which these ELF abstracts emerge. This could explain the lower presence of the Gap move, in the line observed in the ENGTRANS corpus. A second explanation, which might account for the higher presence of Method and Conclusions moves in the ELF corpus, may have to do with rhetorical conventions. Thus, in an ELF scenario, it may happen that the informative structure of abstracts (IMRD), where methods and conclusions are stated, may be more frequent than an indicative structure, which states the scope of the research, situates the research in context and highlights results (Swales & Feak, 2009). The fact that ELF writers seem to favour

an informative abstract over an indicative abstract may be related to the preference of the more conventional IMRD structure over indicative abstracts in international journals, especially in certain disciplines (Lorés, 2004). As a consequence, ELF writers may be more familiarised and, therefore, able to replicate, the informative structure rather than the indicative one.

A second strand of results was yielded by the analysis of the levels of structural complexity found in each subcorpus. Here a counting was made of the percentage of abstracts that, in each subcorpus, presented all, some or few of the moves included in Levin's template. Table 2 below reflects the percentage of abstracts, per subcorpus and number of moves they contain.

Table 2. Inclusion of number of moves per subcorpus
(percentages and raw numbers in brackets)

	6 moves	5 moves	4 moves	3 moves	2 moves	1 move
ENL	6.6 (2)	46.6 (14)	26.6 (8)	13.3 (4)	6.6 (2)	0
ELF	6.6 (2)	26.6 (8)	50 (15)	16.6 (5)	0	0
ENGTRANS	0	0	26.6 (8)	43.3 (13)	26.6 (8)	3.3 (1)

The data yielded by this analysis provides a changing picture in the three linguacultural contexts under study. Each one of them shows a different level of complexity as regards the rhetorical structure they display. Starting with ENL Sociology abstracts, it is observed that they tend to include most of the moves which characterise the rhetorical pattern for abstracts in the Social Sciences (Lewin, 2010). The highest tendency is to include 5 moves (46.6%). If we take into account 6-move (6.6%), 5-move (46.6%) and 4-move (26.6%) abstracts, we observe that almost 80% include at least 4 moves. None of them includes only one move, as happens in one translated text.

As regards ELF abstracts, a tendency is observed to display a 4-move structure (50%). Attending to the data shown in Table 1 and to Lewin's findings, the most likely structure will certainly contain Aims, Method and Results. The percentage of ELF abstracts including 6, 5 or 4 moves (83.3%) is even slightly higher than in ENL abstracts (79.8%). Interestingly, this strong tendency towards rhetorical complexity found in ELF abstracts, similar to the one found in ENL abstracts, is corroborated by the fact that none of them displays a one- move or a two-move structure. This finding is in line with what was observed above, regarding the type of move included in each subcorpus, where it was concluded that ELF writers seem to follow a conventional IMRD structure more closely than ENL writers. This finding may reveal, first, greater knowledge by ELF writers of what the rhetorical conventions are in academic writing in English (perhaps due to explicit instruction or conscious observation of Anglophone models), and attitudes in ELF writers of

what we might qualify as "adherence" to the established model, due perhaps to lack of confidence on their own linguistic, and, therefore, rhetorical abilities to depart from established models.

With regard to ENGTRANS Sociology abstracts, the highest percentage (43.3%) displays a 3-move structure, probably including the core moves Aims, Method and Results. Only 26.6% include 4 moves and no abstract includes 5 or 6 moves. In contrast, a third of the abstracts (29.9%) include only one or two moves. It needs to be said that the rhetorical structure identified in ENGTRANS abstracts fully mirrors the structure of the Spanish abstracts they are translated from (Lorés-Sanz, 2014). Conclusions should be reached, therefore, as to the rhetorical simplicity of Spanish Sociology abstracts and to the fact that this simplicity fully "shines through" the translated texts.

4.   Concluding remarks

As explained at the beginning of this chapter, my aim was to explore the rhetorical structure of abstracts written in English as a result of various processes and pertaining to three different linguacultural contexts from where the texts emerge, namely, Anglophone, Spanish and international (ELF). With regard to the degree of adjustment of translated texts to conventional rhetorics, and as observed in the corpus of Sociology abstracts translated into English from Spanish (ENGTRANS), interesting differences have been identified, not only with respect to the texts written in L1 English (ENL) but also to abstracts written by international scholars in English (ELF). These differences refer to a less complex rhetorical structure (fewer moves in the structure) and in terms of the type of moves which are present in these translated abstracts, where notable absences are recorded (i.e. Gap move). The peculiarities observed in the ENGTRANS subcorpus have been in all the cases attributed to the fact that these texts emerge from source texts in Spanish, copy-cutting their structure and thus giving way to texts which display Spanish rhetorical conventions in English. As indicated above, the practice of translation constitutes a writing process which imposes its own dynamics and obeys its own laws in the drafting of texts in English, thus giving way to texts which differ, both from those an Anglophone writer would produce and also from those an L2 writer would draft in English if not mediated by a source text. Thus, even in cases where writers have a good command of English and their academic rhetorical conventions, translation imposes constraints as a result of which texts may come out differently from what they would if writers wrote them in English as L2. ENGTRANS texts are then characterised as extremely hybridised texts which display an L2 (Spanish)

rhetorical organisation through an L1 (English) linguistic code, or even ELF, if translators are not native speakers. This extreme hybridisation, I hypothesise, can lead in the case of Sociology abstracts translated into English from Spanish, to problems of acceptability as instances of academic texts, missing opportunities to reach an international audience. However, as indicated above, to measure the level of acceptability and readability of ENGTRANS texts goes beyond the scope of the present study.

When ELF abstracts have been examined, a different picture has emerged. In the written ELF texts under study, English, which acts as a common language of communication among writers who do not share their L1 language, is given shape by the co-existence of different rhetorical patterns together with the conventional ones. Thus, hybridised rhetorical patterns arise as a result of contact among users of English as a lingua franca. This new, hybrid, patterns identified here are, for sure, the result of processes of accommodation, adjusting to the conventions ruling the rhetorical organisation of ENL RA abstracts. However, as results indicate, a tendency is observed towards what might be labelled as over-adjustment, with ELF abstracts replicating the canonical IMRD structure of these academic texts, as described in the literature, to greater extents than ENL abstracts. Therefore, in what we might describe as a continuum of hybridity, ELF texts are positioned at one extreme of the pole, with ENGTRANS abstracts occupying the other pole, as two manifestations of the more general phenomenon of rhetorical hybridity.

In all, the discipline of Sociology displays a changing and dynamic scenario in the international academic sphere, which is proving to be increasingly dominated by non-Anglophone speakers. As we have seen in the case under study, the contributions non-Anglophone Sociology scholars are making to this international landscape vary and contribute in several, distinct ways to the rhetorical shaping of the genre analysed. This is a dynamic process of evolution and change which is worth continuing investigating.

Acknowledgements

Appendix A. Journals guidelines

The six journals from which the 90 abstracts under analysis were retrieved included some guidelines for the writing of these texts. Given the impact that the rhetorical structure of abstracts has on the interpretation of results, I have considered it necessary to include those guidelines here.

(A) Spanish journals

Papers. Revista de Sociología
"El texto de los artículos y notas irá precedido de un resumen de no más de 250 palabras (que expondrá clara y concisamente los objetivos, metodología, principales resultados y conclusiones del trabajo)."

[The text and notes will be preceded by an abstract not longer than 250 words (which will state in a clear way the objectives, methodology, main results and conclusions from the research.)]

Revista Española de Investigaciones Sociológicas (REIS)
"Los trabajos irán precedidos de un breve resumen de entre 100 y 150 palabras, que tendrá una versión en español y otra en inglés, siendo ambas de idéntico contenido. El resumen debe exponer con claridad la finalidad del estudio o investigación (objetivos); los procedimientos básicos (métodos); los principales hallazgos (resultados), y las conclusiones más relevantes, así como resaltar los aspectos nuevos e importantes del estudio."

[The papers will be preceded by a short abstract (100–150 words), in both Spanish and English, of identical content. The abstract must state in a clear way the purpose of the research (aims), the basic procedures undertaken (methods), the main findings (results) and the most relevant conclusions, as well as highlight the new and important aspects of the study.]

Revista Internacional de Sociología (RIS)
"Es imprescindible que cada trabajo conste de un resumen de un máximo de 150 palabras tanto en español como en inglés así como de un máximo de cinco palabras clave, no incluidas en el título, igualmente en español y en inglés."

[An abstract must be included of up to 150 words both in Spanish and English, as well as five key words, not included in the title, also in Spanish and English.]

(B) English journals

British Journal of Sociology
"An abstract of up to 300 words, giving a concise statement of the intention, results and conclusions of the paper should be attached to the article."

AJS (American Journal of Sociology)
"Your abstract should be as close to 100 words as possible. It should include your research question or puzzle, identify your data, and give some indication of your findings. Your abstract is likely to be sent by email to potential readers: giving an accurate and efficient statement of your project is likely to increase your chances of enlisting their aid. Unfocused, verbose abstracts may make it harder to place your paper with referees. Papers without an abstract cannot be sent to readers for peer review."

Social Science Research

"A concise and factual abstract is required. The abstract should state briefly the purpose of the research, the principal results and major conclusions. An abstract is often presented separately from the article, so it must be able to stand alone. For this reason, references should be avoided, but if essential, then cite the author(s) and year(s). Also, non-standard or uncommon abbreviations should be avoided, but if essential they must be defined at their first mention in the abstract itself."

References

Alharbi, L. (1997). Rhetorical transfer across cultures: English into Arabic and Arabic into English. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 69–94.

Alharbi, L. M., & Swales, J. M. (2011). Arabic and English abstracts in bilingual language science journals: Same or different? *Languages in Contrast*, 11(1), 70–86. https://doi.org/10.1075/lic.11.1.06alh

Alonso-Almeida, F. (2014). Evidential and epistemic devices in English and Spanish medical, computing and legal scientific abstracts: A contrastive study. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 21–42). Bern: Peter Lang.

Baker, M. (1993). Corpus linguistics and translation studies: Implications and applications. In M. Baker, G. Francis, & E. Tognini-Bonelli (Eds.), *Text and technology: In honour of John Sinclair* (pp. 233–250). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/z.64.15bak

Baker, M. (1995). Corpora in translation studies: An overview and some suggestions for future research. *Target* 7(2), 223–243. https://doi.org/10.1075/target.7.2.03bak

Bellés-Fortuño, B., & Querol-Julián, M. (2010). Evaluation in research article abstracts: A cross-cultural study between Spanish and English medical discourse. In R. Lorés-Sanz, P. Mur-Dueñas, & E. Lafuente-Millán (Eds.), *Constructing interpersonality. Multiple perspectives on written academic genres* (pp. 83–98). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars.

Björk, B-C., Roos, A., & Lauri, M. (2009). Scientific journal publishing: Yearly volume and open access availability. *Information Research*, 14(1). http://InformationR.net/ir/14-1/paper391.html]

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: Audience and rhetorical structure. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–215). London: Longman.

Burgess, S., & Martín-Martín, P. (2010). Interpersonal features of Spanish social sciences journal abstracts. In R. Lorés-Sanz, P. Mur-Dueñas, & E. Lafuente-Millán (Eds.), *Constructing interpersonality. Multiple perspectives on written academic genres* (pp. 99–115). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars.

Busch-Lauer, I. A. (1995). Textual organization in English and German medical abstract. In B. Warvik, S. K. Tanskanen, & R. Hiltunen (Eds.), *Organization in discourse: Proceedings from the Turku conference* (pp. 175–186). Turku, Finland: University of Turku.

Busch-Lauer, I. A. (2014). Abstracts: Cross-linguistic, disciplinary and intercultural perspectives. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 43–63). Bern: Peter Lang.

Carey, R. (2013). On the other side: Formulaic organizing chunks in spoken and written academic ELF. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 2(2), 207–228. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2013-0013

Diani, G. (2014). On English and Italian research article abstracts: Genre variation across cultures. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 65–83). Bern: Peter Lang.

Divasson, L., & León Pérez, I. K. (2006). Textual and language flaws: Problems for Spanish doctors in producing abstracts in English. *Ibérica*, 11, 61–79.

Ferguson, G., Pérez-Llantada, C., & Plo, R. (2011). English as an international language of scientific publication: A study of attitudes. *World Englishes. Journal of English as an International and Intranational Language*, 30(1), 41–59.

Fernández Antolín, M. J., López Arroyo, B., & De Felipe Boto, R. (2006). Contrasting the rhetoric of abstracts. *Hermēneus. Revista de Traduccion e Interpretación*, 8, 85–110.

Hansen-Schirra, S. (2008). Corpora in human translation. In A. Lüdeling & M. Kytö (Eds.), *Corpus linguistics. An international handbook* (pp. 1159–1175). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Hansen-Schirra, S. (2011). Between normalization and shining-through. In S. Kranich, V. Becher, S. Höder, & J. House (Eds.), *Multilingual discourse production: Diachronic and synchronic perspectives* (pp.133–162). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/hsm.12.07han

Hansen-Schirra, S. (2017). EEG and universal language processing in translation. In J. W. Schwieter & A. Ferreira (Eds.), *The handbook of translation and cognition* (pp. 232–247). Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119241485.ch13

Hansen-Schirra, s., & Steiner, E. (2012). Towards a typology of translation properties. In S. Hansen-Schirra, S. Neumann, & E. Steiner (Eds.), Cross-linguistic corpora for the study of translations. *Insights from the language pair English-German* (pp. 255–280). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Hartse, J. H., & Kubota, R. (2014). Pluralizing English? Variation in high-stakes academic texts and challenges of copyediting. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 24, 71–82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.04.001

Hyland, K. (2018). Academic writing and non-anglophone scholars. In P. Mur-Dueñas, & J. Šinkūnienė (Eds.), *Intercultural perspectives on research writing* (pp. vii–x). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals_18.pre

Jenkins, J., Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2011). Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching* 44(3), 281–315. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000115

Kirkpatrick, A. (2009). English as the international language of scholarship: Implications for the dissemination of "local" knowledge. In F. Sharifian (Ed.), *English as an international language* (pp. 254–270). Bristol: Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691231-017

Lewin, B. A. (2010). *Writing readable research*. London: Equinox.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). Academic writing in a global context. *The politics and practices of publishing in English*. London: Routledge.

López Arroyo, B., Fernández Antolín, M. J., & de Felipe Boto, R. (2007). Contrasting the rhetoric of abstracts in medical discourse: Implications and applications for English Spanish translation. *Languages in Contrast*, 7(1), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1075/lic.7.1.02lop

Lorés, R. (2004). On RA abstracts: From rhetorical structure to thematic organization. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(3), 280–302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2003.06.001

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2006). 'I will argue that': First person pronouns and metadiscoursal devices in RA abstracts in English and Spanish. *ESP across Cultures*, 3, 23–40.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2009a). Different worlds, different audiences: A contrastive analysis of research article abstracts. In E. Suomela-Salmi & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 187–198). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.193.12lor

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2009b). (Non-) critical voices in the reviewing of history discourse: A cross-cultural study of evaluation'. In K. Hyland & G. Diani (Eds.), *Academic evaluation. Review genres in university settings* (pp. 143–160). Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2012). Local disciplines, local cultures: Praise and criticism in British and Spanish history book reviews. *Brno Studies in English*, 38(2), 97–116. https://doi.org/10.5817/BSE2012-2-6

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2014). Lost (and gained) in translation: A contrastive (English/Spanish) analysis of rhetorical and lexicogrammatical patterns in sociology research article abstracts. In M. Bondi & R. Lorés-Sanz (Eds.), *Abstracts in academic discourse: Variation and change* (pp. 85–109). Bern: Peter Lang.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2016). ELF in the making? Simplification and hybridity in abstract writing. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 5(1), 53–81. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2016-0003

Lorés-Sanz, R., Mur-Dueñas, P., Rey-Rocha J. & Moreno, A. I. (2014). Motivations and attitudes of Spanish chemistry and economic researchers towards publication in English-medium scientific journals. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses*, 69, 81–88.

Martín-Martín, P. (2003). A genre analysis of English and Spanish research paper abstracts in experimental social sciences. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(1), 25–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(01)00033-3

Martín-Martín, P. (2005). *The rhetoric of the abstract in English and Spanish scientific discourse. A cross-cultural genre-analytic approach*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Mauranen, A. (2012). *Exploring ELF. Academic English shaped by nonnative speakers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mauranen, A., Pérez-Llantada, C., & Swales, J. M. (2010). Academic Englishes: A standardized knowledge? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 634–652). London: Routledge.

Moreno, A. I., & Suárez, L. (2008). A study of critical attitude across English and Spanish academic book reviews. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.02.009

Moreno, A. I., & Suárez, L. (2009). Academic book reviews in English and Spanish: Critical comments and rhetorical structure. In K. Hyland & G. Diani (Eds.), *Academic evaluation. Review genres in university settings* (pp. 161–178). Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2010). Attitude markers in business management research articles: A cross-cultural corpus-driven approach. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), 50–72. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00228.x

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2013). Spanish scholars' research article publishing process in English medium journals: English used as a lingua franca? *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 2(2), 315–340. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2013-0017

Mur Dueñas, P. (2015). Looking into ELF variants: A study of evaluative *it*-clauses in research articles. *ESP Today*, 3(2), 160–179.

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2018). Promotional strategies in academic writing: Statements of contribution in Spanish and ELF research articles. In J. Pelclova & L. Wei-lun (Eds.), *Persuasion in public discourse: Cognitive and functional perspectives* (pp. 259–277). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Mur-Dueñas, P., Lorés-Sanz, R., Rey Rocha, J., & Moreno Fernández, A. I. (2014). English specialized discourse in the academia: Publishing practices by Spanish scholars in Chemistry and Business. In M. Murawska, A. Szczepaniak-Kozak, & E. Wąsikiewicz-Firlej (Eds.), *Discourses in co(n)text – the many faces of specialised discourse* (pp. 253–275). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars.

Perales-Escudero, M., & Swales, J. M. (2011). Tracing convergence and divergence in pairs of Spanish and English research article abstracts: The case of *Ibérica*. *Ibérica*, 21, 49–70.

Pho, P. D. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: A study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies*, 10, 231–250. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445607087010

Preacher, K. J. (2001) online. Calculation for the chi-square test: An interactive calculation tool for chi-square test of goodness and independence [Computer software]. Available at <http://www.quantpsy.org/> (15 March 2018).

Salager-Meyer, F., Alcaraz Ariza, M. A., & Zambrano, N. (2003). The scimitar, the dagger and the glove: Intercultural differences in the rhetoric of criticism in Spanish, French and English medical discourse (1930–1995). *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(3), 223–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(02)00019-4

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seidlhofer, B., Breiteneder, A., & Pitzl, M. L. (2006). English as a lingua franca in Europe: Challenges for applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26, 3–34. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719050600002X

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. (2009). *Abstracts and the writing of abstracts*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.309332

Teich, E. (2002). Instance and corpus: A methodology for the study of the properties of translations and comparable texts. Paper presented at the 29th International Systemic Functional Congress. 15–19 July, 2002. Liverpool, UK.

Teich, E. (2003). *Cross-linguistic variation in system and text. A methodology for the investigation of translations and comparable texts*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110896541

Toury, G. (1995). *Descriptive translation studies and beyond*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.4

Trutchot, C. (2002). *Key aspects of the use of English in Europe*. Strasbourg, Council of Europe.

Tse, P., & Hyland, K. (2010). Claiming a territory: Relative clauses in journal descriptions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42(7), 1880–1889. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2009.12.025

Van Bonn, S., & Swales, J. M. (2007). English and French journal abstracts in the language sciences: Three exploratory studies. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(2), 93–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.04.001

Vassileva, I. (2000). *Who is the author? A contrastive analysis of authorial presence in English, German, French, Russian and Bulgarian academic discourse*. Sankt Augustin: Asgard.

Epistemic stance and authorial presence in scientific research writing

Hedges, boosters and self-mentions across disciplines and writer groups

Jingjing Wang and Feng (Kevin) Jiang
Hubei University / Jilin University

In this study, we investigate hedges, boosters and self-mentions as main expressions of epistemic positioning and how much they are projected by explicit authorial presence in the research writings by Chinese PhD students and expert writers across four science disciplines. Results show that PhD science students used considerably more hedges, boosters and self-mentions than journal article writers. They exhibit an obvious preference for certain epistemic resources and an avoidance to hedge or boost their/others' claims in their academic writings. The results are discussed with regard to different cultures, disciplines and writer groups, and pedagogical implications on L2 research writing instructions are also raised at the end of the chapter.

Keywords: hedges, boosters, self-mentions, research writing, authorial positioning, cultural backgrounds

1. Introduction

An essential aspect of successful academic writing is the writers' ability to establish competent authorial identity by judging the certainty of knowledge claims and to manage their explicit presence in texts while persuading readers of their research contributions (Hyland, 2002; Lancaster, 2016; Tang & John, 1999). An increasing number of studies have examined how stance is conveyed across L1 and L2 student writing (e.g. Hyland & Milton, 1997; Jiang, 2015) and across disciplines (e.g. Hyland, 1998; Lancaster, 2014). However, little attention has been given to the extent that authors explicitly reveal themselves when making epistemic judgement; a more nuanced disciplinary and cultural influence on stance-making practice is also less fully explored.

In this paper, we focus on hedges, boosters and self-mentions as the primary rhetorical means of epistemic positioning and examine how much they are projected by explicit authorial presence in the research writings by Chinese PhD students and expert writers across four science disciplines. We seek to compare and discuss the rhetorical language use by the PhD students and experts with regard to cultures, disciplinary knowledge and writer groups. In response to the investigations of the issues identified above, this study also aims to contribute to the teaching and course design of postgraduate research writing and offer practical writing guidance for novice writers.

2. Epistemic stance and authorial identity

Stance is a somewhat fuzzy term yet it has been extensively examined in academic discourse. The linguistic constructs proposed to encompass what it covers include *evidentiality* (Chafe & Nichols, 1986), *evaluation* (Hunston & Thompson, 2001), *appraisal* (Martin & White, 2005), *metadiscourse* (Hyland, 2005a; Vande Kopple, 1985), and *positioning* (Harré & Van Langenhove, 1999), all of which essentially aim to explore how writers convey their assessments, personal feelings or attitudes towards information (Biber, 2006; Hyland, 2005b).

Largely, stance concerns the attitudinal and epistemic expressions in academic writing (Biber, 2006; Hyland, 2005b). The former refers to a writer's attitude towards propositions, while the latter defines status of knowledge (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). Features concerning epistemic judgment are more typical than attitudinal markers in academic research writing and thus are increasingly studied (Gray & Biber, 2012; Thompson & Hunston, 2000). According to Hyland (2005b), stance is mainly marked by hedges, boosters, self-mentions and attitudinal markers which convey the writers' judgement, opinion and commitment. A number of studies have explored these linguistic realisations of stance expression in English academic research writing (Crosthwaite, Cheung, & Jiang, 2017; Lancaster, 2016). However, we see from the literature that attitudinal markers in academic writing are far less commonly used than other stance devices (Biber et al., 1999; Hyland, 2004). In their recent diachronic study, Hyland and Jiang (2016) find that attitudinal markers are in decline broadly in academic writing, seeing a growing welcome in hard sciences to incorporate more use of epistemic markers and self-presence in scientific argumentation over the past 50 years. Given this important trend, therefore, the present study focuses on epistemic stance (hedges, boosters and self-mentions) and explores how science students make rhetorical use of hedges, boosters and self-mentions to express authorial positioning in scientific research writing.

Hedges are "words or phrases whose job is to make things fuzzier" (Lakoff, 1972, p. 195), allowing authors not only to be less committed to the statements they issue, but also to present the propositions as opinions rather than facts by offering a negotiable dialogue with the academic community (Hyland, 1996). Boosters, on the other hand, express certainty, seeking to assert claims and shut down different voices (Hyland, 1999). Hedges and boosters are central rhetorical devices in science discourse, and are perceived as "two sides of the same coin" (Hu & Cao, 2011, p. 43) when expressing uncertainty and certainty about a proposition respectively to gain communal approval to knowledge claims (Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 1999; Lancaster, 2016). While these epistemic expressions mark the writer's intrusion into texts, writers may still choose to overtly showcase their voice by inserting self mention such as *I*, *my* and *we*. *Self-mentions*, referring to the use of first person pronouns, possessive adjectives, project writers' explicit presence and identity and present propositional and affective attitude with clear visibility (Hyland, 2001).

To express stance appropriately, however, is of great challenge to novice writers, particularly L2 students. They are often found to experience problems in establishing convincing arguments and usually rely on a limited set of linguistic choices when making comments in discourse (Cobb, 2003; Grant & Ginther, 2000). In Hyland and Milton's (1997) study, the L2 Cantonese students displayed a lack of linguistic variations in conveying their epistemic commitment and made a heavier use of certainty markers than L1 English writers. Similarly, Takimoto (2015) found it particularly challenging for L2 students to pin down probability and possibility statements based on limited choices of hedging devices familiar to them, and McEnery and Kifle (2002) show that L2 students prefer to be more tentative and hedge propositional information.

The above studies suggest that L2 students have difficulties with these linguistic devices "especially in the respect of what stance options they take and how they develop arguments through stance construction" (Jiang, 2015, p. 91). Among others, self-mentions often come across complex rhetorical use and communicative purposes (Cobb, 2003; Lee & Chen, 2009; Leedham & Fernandez-Parra, 2017), but Hyland (2002) shows that L2 student writers tend to use considerably fewer self-mentions than experts, displaying a reluctance in exposing themselves in their academic texts and thus preferring to take a risk-free strategy (Hyland, 2002).

Much of the literature also focuses on the disciplinary and cultural influence on writers' stance options and linguistic choices (e.g. Biber, 2006; Crosthwaite, Cheung, & Jiang, 2017; Hyland, 2002, 2005b; Lancaster, 2016). Generally, writers in the soft knowledge field invest more stance markers than those in hard knowledge fields (e.g. Chan, 2015; Hyland, 2005b), and such a broad contrastive analysis is also made of academic writers from various language/cultural backgrounds (e.g. Kong, 2006; Mur-Dueñas, 2011). As Connor (2011) comments, more cross-cultural analyses

should be done to the research writing of higher-level L2 students to identify potential linguistic/cultural variables that may hinder students' performances in L2 academic context. In the present study, we focus on Chinese PhD students' research writing in four sub-disciplines of science, exploring their rhetorical use of hedges, boosters and self-mentions in the construction of authorial stance and scientific knowledge and comparing them with those of English L1 professional writers from cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary perspectives. In doing so, the present study seeks to address the following three questions:

1. What are the similarities and differences between Chinese PhD students and English L1 professional writers' expression of stance across disciplines?
2. To what extent do Chinese PhD students differ from professional writers in the use of hedges, boosters and self-mentions across different sections of research paper?
3. What are the differences, if any, in the form of stance expression used by Chinese PhD students and English professional writers?

3.   Corpus and methods

This section first presents the corpora used in this study, before spelling out the analytical procedures and framework we applied.

Two corpora were built in the present study, the Chinese PhD student writer corpus (CSW) and the journal article writer corpus (JAW). CSW corpus consists of 160 English term papers aiming at publication submitted in an academic writing course by PhD students from four different scientific disciplines: Physics, Life Science, Material Science and Computer Science. These four disciplines fall into Biglan's (1973) characterisation of "the nature of subject matter" (Becher, 1994, p. 152) whereby Physics and Life Science are hard pure disciplines while material and computer science are hard applied ones. All the term papers were collected in 2015 and were required to refer to international established journals in their respective fields in terms of textual organisation and writing style. Then two journals were selected in each discipline according to the impact factors in 2015, and 20 single-authored articles were randomly chosen from each journal between 2012 and 2015. Additionally, we only included those articles written by English L1 writers judging by the author's name and institution (affiliation). Thus, a total of 160 journal articles comprise the JAW corpus. The two corpora are summarised in Table 1, and they are comparable in terms of communicative purposes and IMRC generic structure (Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion and Conclusion).

Table 1. Corpus characteristics

	Discipline	CSW		JAW		Total
		Paper	Word	Paper	Word	
Hard applied	Material Science	40	88,592	40	215,998	304,590
	Computer Science	40	105,509	40	356,254	461,763
Hard pure	Physics	40	92,498	40	121,889	214,387
	Life Science	40	99,678	40	232,457	332,135
	Total	**160**	**386,277**	**160**	**926,598**	**1,312,875**

Drawing on Hyland's (2005b) framework, we created a list of 148 stance features, and searched the items in the self-compiled corpora above, using AntConc (Anthony, 2015). Each concordance line was then manually checked with reference to a wider context to ensure the items identified performed the targeted stance expressions. The two authors worked independently and achieved a 95% inter-rater reliability after having resolved disagreement. In addition, due to the different corpus sizes, the raw frequency of the stance items was normalised by 10,000 words for comparison across corpora. Chi-square test was used to see if the differences identified were statistically significant.

Based on Hyland (1998) and Yang's (2013) classifications, we categorise the linguistic realisation of hedges and boosters into three categories as Table 2 shows.

Table 2. Classification of hedges and boosters

Classification	Example
Hedges	
modal verbs	*could, might, would*
epistemic adjectives, adverbs and nouns	*perhaps, likely, interpretation*
lexical verbs	*seem, assume, suggest*
Boosters	
modal verbs	*must, will*
epistemic adjectives, adverbs and nouns	*obvious, always, argument*
lexical verbs	*demonstrate, show, find*

Here we agree with Yang (2013), seeing adjectives, adverbs and nouns as an epistemic group which encodes the attributes that writers assign to either scientific materials as in *a large isolated wavelet coefficient is not likely to be part of the signal* or claims as in *perhaps, the most prominent is the Fast Multiple Method [21], [22] and [33]*. This is different from lexical verbs, which are primarily concerned with the stance that writers express towards the projected clauses as in *we assume that*

the domain of interest is contained in a rectangle, with a regular grid of samples and *the results show clearly that austenite formation is associated with a significant decrease of deformed ferrite fraction*. Thus, following Hyland (1998) and Yang (2013), we categorise these stance features differently in order to explore the nuanced stance-making practice in the rhetorical construction of scientific knowledge.

In addition, following Hyland (2002), we see self-mentions as explicit reference to the author(s). Explicit self-mentions are made through the use of first-person pronouns and possessive determiners. Words such as *I*, *me*, *my*, *we*, *our*, *us* and *mine* are self-mentions. The present study is limited to the study of the plural forms *we* (exclusive *we*), *our*, *us* and first-person pronoun *I*, as *me*, *my* and *mine* rarely appear in the corpora.

4. Overall distributions of hedges, boosters and self-mentions

Overall, 141,922 cases of stance devices were identified in the two corpora. Generally, stance markers are more frequently used by the students than the expert writers, 585 cases per 10,000 words in the students' texts compared with 496 cases in the expert writers' texts ($p < 0.001$).

Table 3. Overall distribution of hedges, boosters and self-mentions per 10,000 words (% of total)

Stance	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
Hedges	229 (39)	212 (43)	0.000
Boosters	132 (23)	123 (25)	0.000
Self-mentions	224 (38)	161 (32)	0.000
Total	**585 (100)**	**496 (100)**	**0.000**

Table 3 shows the overall distribution of these stance devices in the corpora. The frequent use of stance devices in the two corpora implies that scientific papers are by no means dry and impersonal but include authorial judgement and personal take in the construction of scientific knowledge and this style is reflected on students' productions after an *Academic English Writing* course on written academic skills. There are interesting similarities shared by Chinese PhD science students and professional writers in stance expression: they use proportionally more hedges than boosters and a large number of self mentions as seen in Examples (1) and (2), respectively. The result provides evidential support to Hyland and Jiang's (2016) observation that hedges are most frequently used among all the stance devices and self-mentions have risen greatly in the academic prose in hard sciences, despite a decrease in use of boosters.

(1) *Certain queries <u>might</u> be added to the ones of Section 3 to streamline the process.*
(N3-R&D-CS-JAW[1,2])

(2) *However, <u>we assume</u> that the relationship exists also at frequencies in the pass-band.*
(N30-R&D-P-CSW)

Differences in stance expression options across disciplines and IMRC divisions of academic papers between student and expert writers will be reported and discussed in Sections 5 and 6 respectively.

5. Disciplinary variations

Hard pure research articles generally employ more stance devices than those in hard applied fields in the two corpora in our study as suggested in Table 4 (CSW: 294 vs. 291 cases, $p < .001$; JAW: 266 vs. 230 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). This indicates that writers in hard pure knowledge fields may provide a more interpersonal interpretation on propositions in scientific prose than those in hard applied. Figure 1 shows disciplinary variations between the student and expert writers. Material science is the least prominent field in which both student and expert writers minimise their authorial intrusion. Expert writers in the hard pure field, particularly in the case of Physics in our sample, use these epistemic devices frequently to create a persuasive scientific argumentation in the texts. Learner writers in Computer science exhibit the greatest visibility in the CSW corpus, especially through self-mentions (92 cases per 10,000 words, see Table 4) to highlight their personal perspective clearly.
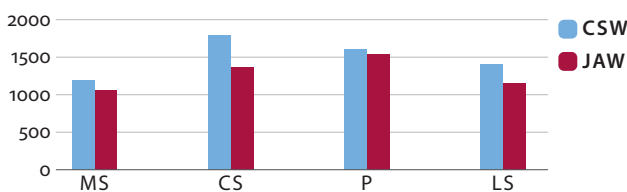
Figure 1. Overall distribution of stance markers across disciplines and writer groups

---

1.   N indicates the number of the text in the corpus, disciplines are abbreviated as MS (Material Science), CS (Computer Science), P (Physics) and LS (Life Science) and writer groups are also shortened as CSW (Chinese student writers) and JAW (journal article writers). Different sections in research articles are presented as IN (introduction), M (methodology), R&D (results and discussion) and C (conclusion).

2.   There may be some grammatical errors in the student produced texts as all the papers collected are original without modifications.

Early studies have reported the challenges in stance expression in learners' texts (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Lancaster, 2014), pointing to L2 writers' "inability to develop appropriate stance" (Jiang, 2015, p. 91). The discrepancies in the use of stance markers in the four disciplines between the two writer groups indicate that Chinese PhD students may have difficulties in projecting a competent academic stance in the texts. The largest discrepancy between the two writer groups is found in the Computer Science. There the stance markers used by the student writers are approximately 33.9% more than those in the journal articles ($p < .001$), suggesting that the PhD students in Computer Science may grapple most with the way how to craft a plausible academic persuasion and build up a competent scientist authorship than other student groups.

Table 4. Overall distribution of hedges, boosters and self-mentions per 10,000 words

Discipline		CSW				JAW			
		H	**B**	**S**	**Total**	**H**	**B**	**S**	**Total**
Hard applied	MS	63	35	19	117	55	28	17	100
	CS	52	30	92	174	55	33	42	130
Hard pure	P	57	34	66	157	53	35	66	155
	LS	57	33	47	137	49	27	36	111
	Total	**229**	**132**	**224**	**585**	**212**	**123**	**161**	**496**

* *H* = hedges, *B* = boosters, *S* = self-mentions

Table 4 shows the overall distribution of hedges, boosters and self-mentions across corpora. While using fewer hedges than students (212 vs. 229 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$), expert writers employ more hedge features in hard applied than hard pure scientific writing (110 vs. 102 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). Particularly, professional writers in Computer Science use hedging devices approximately 13.3% more than their peers in Life Science (55 vs. 49 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$).

This demonstrates that expert writers in Computer Science tend to be relatively more tentative, cautious and ready for negotiation when commenting and elaborating on knowledge claims in scientific writing than their peers in Life Science.

In PhD students' texts, no statistic difference has been found in the use of hedges in the hard applied and in the hard pure field (115 vs. 114 cases per 10,000 words). Unlike the expert writers, hedges are least frequently used in Computer Science students' texts, approximately 21% less than in Material Science, in which hedges are most frequently used (52 vs. 63 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). Disciplinary discrepancies between Chinese PhD students and expert writers in the

use of hedging features suggest that student writers, even at postgraduate level, are still unfamiliar with the norm and pattern in which propositional commitments are convincingly modulated. This lack of stance-making strategy is likely to undermine the students' ability to write up scientific research and communicate what they find to the community as disciplinary insiders.

Generally, disciplinary variation is not found in the use of boosters in our study. As seen in Table 4, no significant difference is found between hard pure science texts and hard applied texts (CSW: 67 vs. 65 cases, JAW: 62 vs. 61 cases per 10,000 words).

However, nuanced disciplinary variations in using boosters are identified in the two corpora. Expert writers use boosters more frequently in research papers in Physics (35 cases per 10,000 words), followed by Computer Science (33 cases), Material Science (28 cases) and Life Science (27 cases), while this pattern varies in Chinese PhD students' corpus in our data. The most obvious discrepancy in the use of boosters appears in Material Science between the PhD students and expert writers (35 vs. 28 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). The students use boosters approximately 24.8% more than professional writers, being fairly assertive to research findings rather than cautious in the reporting and interpretation of research data.

Similarly, both students and expert writers use more self-mention features in hard pure research writings than in hard applied ones (CSW: 113 vs. 111 cases, JAW: 102 vs. 59 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). Interestingly, most self-mentions are in plural forms, although all the papers included in the study are single-authored, and this perhaps has something to do with the teamwork collaboration in scientific research. As they report the experiment results of a collaborative project, the use of self-mentions, particularly exclusive *we* (CSW: 74%, JAW: 62% among all the self-mentions forms observed), is probably a disciplinary practice to acknowledge group contributions to the research being reported while expressing authorial visibility.

However, Chinese PhD students in Computer Science present the greatest discrepancy in using self-mention features, employing them approximately two times more than expert writers (92 cases vs. 42 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .01$), and perhaps expressing more willingness to project their authorial voice and identity in scientific papers. However, we cannot neglect the likely misuse or overuse of self-mentions in the students' texts as previous studies observed (Cobb, 2003; Lee & Chen, 2009). A detailed exploration on self-mentions between the two writer groups will be given in Section 6.3.

6. Variation across IMRC divisions

In addition to the disciplinary distribution of the three categories of stance features, it is also interesting to note their variation across the sections of research papers in the corpora.

6.1 Hedges

Broadly, hedges are most frequently used in the Results and Discussion section in the two corpora as suggested in Table 5, in which scientific writers normally report what they find in their research and then offer interpretative comments. In contrast, Method sees the least frequent use of hedges, accounting for less than 10% of the total, and this perhaps relates to the fact that writers typically spell out the materials and methods adopted and this expository presentation expects writers to be less evaluative and even produce a "checklist" of actions in a chronological order (Swales, 1990). Although another 13% of hedges was found in the Introduction section, writers seek to topicalise research issues by critically assessing the knowledge status of the literature, and thus craft a discoursal dialogue with audience for negotiation. This divisional distribution provides evidential groundings to Crosthwaite, Cheung and Jiang's (2017) and Yang's (2013) observation that hedges are most frequently used in the section in which authors comment on the findings in their studies, followed by the Introduction section.

However, PhD students in the corpora show a slight yet interesting difference from this overall convention in that they invested a larger portion of hedges in the Conclusion than Introduction section (12.6% in Conclusion and 9.2% in Introduction).

Table 5. Distribution of hedges in various sections in the two corpora (% of total)

Section	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
Introduction	21 (9.2)	28 (13)	0.000
Method	22 (9.6)	10 (4.8)	0.000
Results & Discussion	158 (68.6)	165 (77.8)	0.000
Conclusion	28 (12.6)	9 (4.4)	0.000
Total	**229 (100)**	**212 (100)**	**0.000**

Full reasons for this difference are unclear, but we cannot deny the rhetorical effect of using hedges in the Introduction of academic prose to set up discoursal space on a research topic and thus arouse readers' interest to the discovery and discussion, which are tactfully deployed in the JAW corpus.

(3)   *One might wonder if there are anion impurities or the equivalent which actually enhance grain-boundary diffusion; (OH)–, which can be up to 20% smaller than O2-3 comes naturally to mind.*   (N19-IN-LS-JAW)

(4)   *Ultrafast experiments on molecular nanostructures are increasingly able to probe the details of environmental degrees of freedom, whose quantum <u>may</u> be key to understanding the device characteristics. Our purpose here is to unveil a simple […].*   (N10-IN-P-JAW)

In Example (3), the expert writer hedges on what a possible audience believes about a material scientific hypothesis and thus stimulates a wide interest in the ongoing research which the scientific paper presents. Similarly, in Example (4), the physicist uses *may* to open up the possibility of molecular quantum and justifies what the current study is aiming to achieve. Conversely, students tend to jump over the rhetorical opportunities at the beginning of research papers to engage readers in the construction of a warranted scientific research, and usually start from a dull description of background knowledge and close down a persuasive argumentation with readers. Example (5) illustrates this point.

(5)   *Disulfide bond formation proteins (Dsb-p) are a kind of protein family that catalyzes the disulfide bond formation during the protein processing. There are 40,000 genes in the Mycobacterium tuberculosis.*   (N10-IN-LS-CSW)

Speculatively, this is perhaps related to a deep-rooted Confucian and Taoist traditions in Chinese (Hu & Cao, 2011; Tweed & Lehman, 2002). Traditional Chinese cultural practices are often bonded with a belief that argument is unnecessary as truth is self-evident (Bodde, 1991), seeing little need to embark by negotiating or mitigating the propositions since shared knowledge is more respectful.

Another difference worth commenting in Table 5 is that students use a comparatively high percentage of hedges in the Methods section (9.6% vs. 4.8%, $p < .001$). This implies that Chinese PhD students are less skilled in applying methodologies and this may lead to an unnecessary attitude of uncertainty, whereas for professional writers, Methods is a descriptive section which makes clear the materials and analytical procedures adopted in experiments.

Similarities were found when comparing the types of hedges in the corpora. As shown in Table 6, the linguistic categories of hedges from the most to the least frequent are epistemic forms of adjective, adverb, and noun (Examples (6) and (7); modal verb and lexical verb. Lexical verbs, such as *assume, suggest*, are used by a similar proportion (13.1% in the CSW and 12.8% in the JAW) in the two corpora.

(6)   *Note that this approach does not require any assumptions or adjustable parameters and, perhaps most importantly, the use of a capture cross section has been completely avoided.*   (N11-R&D-LS-JAW)

(7) *This broader role is <u>likely</u> attributable in large part to nNOSb which appears to play key roles in compensatory hypertrophy, inflammation and eccentric contraction-induced muscle damage in dystrophin-deficient muscle.*
(N29-R&D-LS-CSW)

Table 6. Distribution of various hedging devices in the corpora per 100,000 words (% of total)

Hedging devices	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
epistemic adj., n & adv	107 (46.7)	95 (44.8)	0.000
modal verb	92 (40.2)	90 (42.4)	0.000
lexical verb	30 (13.1)	27 (12.8)	0.000
Total	229 (100)	212 (100)	0.000

In addition, variation and similarity exist in linguistic preference between the corpora. Table 7 presents the five most frequent word choice of hedges in the corpora. Student and expert writers share some common options in academic writing. First, the five most frequent words account for over half of all the hedges used in both corpora.

Table 7. Top 5 most frequently used hedges

Ranking	CSW			JAW		
	Hedges	**F**	**P**	**Hedges**	**F**	**P**
1	may	43	18.6	may	57	26.9
2	could	39	17.1	could	25	11.8
3	about	22	9.5	possible	19	9.0
4	mainly	13	5.8	likely	11	5.0
5	possible	13	5.7	indicate	8	4.0
	Total	**130**	**56.7**	**Total**	**120**	**56.7**

* F: frequency per 10,000 words; P: percentage (%) of total hedges

Second, the top two frequent hedging words in the two corpora are *may* and *could*, both of which are modal verbs, which are frequently used by both expert writers and Chinese PhD students, typically commenting on their own claims and research findings:

(8) *The distance <u>could</u> also be a change in scale, for example, a surgeon using tele-operation to conduct a surgery at the microscopic level.* (N22-R-CS-JAW)

(9) *It <u>may</u> be ascribed to the CO2 and H2O absorption of the rare earth element oxide, Lu2O3.* (N13-R-MS-CSW)

The difference, however, is the students' reliance on the adverb *about* and *mainly*, and this is perhaps because what student writers tend to hedge is numerical information (Example (10)), together with a common reporting behaviour of limiting the applicability of what is being discussed by *mainly* (Example (11)).

(10) *The intense emission located at <u>about</u> 590nm corresponding to the magnetic 5D0-7F1 transition of Eu3+ was related to the centrosymmetric structure of the host lattice.*   (N16-R&D-MS-CSW)

(11) *In the first three passes, the average effective strain in corners is <u>mainly</u> focused on the third pass.*   (N30-R&D-MS-CSW)

Our finding is in line with the study of Crosthwaite, Cheung and Jiang (2017), which reported that L2 English writers are more likely to convey uncertainty by hedging numerical information with *about* and limitation of the applicability with *mainly*, or the reporting of behaviour with *usually*, *generally*, *sometimes* when compared with professional writers. They further claim that the use of such linguistic options may be caused by limited English language training.

6.2   Boosters

Table 8 presents the distribution of boosters used by student and expert writers across sections of scientific papers. The overall sectional distribution of boosting devices from the most to least heavily used between the two corpora is similar: the Results and Discussion, Introduction, Methods, and Conclusion section. We see this as rhetorically reasonable because academic writers seek to achieve different purposes when going through sections. For instance, authors may feel a strong need to forcefully claim plausibility and trustworthiness for what they find in Results and Discussion, but once it is achieved perhaps a less urgent appeal is needed to blow up the confidence in his/her claims.

Table 8. Distribution of boosters in various sections in the two corpora per 10,000 words (% of total)

Section	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
Introduction	17 (12.9)	18 (14.6)	0.000
Method	9 (6.8)	11 (8.9)	0.000
Results & Discussion	100 (75)	86 (70)	0.000
Conclusion	7 (5.3)	8 (6.5)	0.000
Total	**132 (100)**	**123 (100)**	**0.000**

As shown in Table 8, both expert and student writers are inclined to invest their statements with confidence and build up rationales for their own studies when introducing research topics or interpreting what they have found in the study.

Variation was found in the linguistic categories of boosters in the corpora (see Table 9). In contrast to hedging devices, the most frequent form of boosters is lexical verbs, which increase the assertiveness on the factivity of research findings as in Example (12). Epistemic adjectives, nouns and adverbs are also commonly used to convey the writers' judgment with full commitments on propositional information as in Examples (13) and (14).

(12) *The results <u>demonstrate</u> that extracting vanadium from the vanadium-bearing solution with carbonate-type N263 is an anion exchange process.*
(N14-R&D-MS-CSW)

(13) *It is <u>evident</u> that the wireless network traffic would be apparently alleviated, while we use suitable recommendation method to predict and apply CASoRT system to broadcast appropriate web contents for proper amount of users.*
(N8-IN-CS-CSW)

(14) *These observations <u>clearly</u> demonstrate that suppressing inflammatory responses in an HI model is able to considerably correct the defects caused by loss of ABCA12 function through a significant normalization of the keratinocyte differentiation program.* (N26-R&D-LS-CSW)

This suggests that these PhD student writers are more aware of the disciplinary way in which scientific reasoning is applied with argumentative commitments than an appropriate personal take by withholding the assertions made on scientific claims. However, the student writers used significantly more boosters than expert writers on the whole ($p < .001$). This result, although aligning with Hyland and Milton's (1997) argument that L2 students tend to use more boosters than L1 students in essay writing, points to the possibility that Chinese L2 writers are straightforward and blunt when giving out opinions, and are insensitive to different pragmatic effects of linguistic choices.

Table 9. Distribution of various boosting devices in the corpora per 10,000 words (% of total)

Boosting devices	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
lexical v.	73 (55.3)	60 (48.8)	0.000
epistemic adj., n. & adv.	43 (32.6)	44 (35.8)	0.000
modal v.	16 (12.1)	19 (15.4)	0.000
Total	**132 (100)**	**123 (100)**	**0.000**

Table 10 shows the frequent word choices for boosters in the corpora. The five most frequent boosting word choices made by student and expert writers comprise over 60% of all boosters.

Table 10. Top 5 most frequently used boosters

Ranking	CSW			JAW		
	Boosters	**F**	**P**	**Boosters**	**F**	**P**
1	find	38	28.8	find	33	26.8
2	show	21	15.9	show	22	17.9
3	must	8	6.1	must	10	8.1
4	typical	8	5.8	demonstrate	9	7.3
5	obvious	7	.3	believe	5	4.1
	Total	**82**	**61.9**	**Total**	**79**	**64.2**

* F: frequency per 10,000 words P: percentage (%) of total boosters

Interestingly, the top two most frequent words are *find* and *show* in both corpora, and this agrees with Hyland's (2005b) argument that authors in hard knowledge fields normally rely on scientific facts to speak for themselves rather than building knowledge on their personal interpretations. As seen in Examples (15) and 16, by the use of *find* and *show*, the writers "validate their knowledge claims by signalling that they are factual statements rather than interpretations" (Hu & Cao, 2011, p. 2803).

(15) *It is found to be constant in each of the samples, with a value of 11017cm, which are two orders of […].*   (N5-R&D-P-JAW)

(16) *Figures 5 and 6 also show the interconnected role of carbon and temperature on the densification of ZrB2.*   (N29-R&D-LS-JAW)

It is also interesting to note the use of the modal verb *must*, which functions as a strong assertive judgement and shows writers' decisiveness and assurance in knowledge claims and scientific evaluation. Students used less *must* than expert writers, showing that they are perhaps less confident and assertive than experts in presenting research and comments.

(17) *The ability of sapphire fibers to adequately transmit light during reactor irradiation must first be determined.*   (N35-R&D-P-JAW)

We can also see from Table 10 that student writers tend to point out the truthfulness of academic argument by making a frequent use of epistemic adjective *typical* and *obvious*. Our finding is in line with Crosthwaite, Cheung and Jiang's (2017) study in which they found that the epistemic adjective *obvious* was frequently used by

Chinese learners of English and exhibited a significant difference from professional writers' discoursal practice in Dentistry research reports, who in contrast use *show* and *demonstrate* to manifest their certainty towards their and others' findings.

6.3   Self-mentions

As demonstrated in Table 11, self-mentions are differently used across sections in the two corpora. They are most frequently used in the Results and Discussion section, where they account for more than 50% in CSW corpus and up to 63.4% in JAW corpus. Obviously, this section is typically an important site to emphasise the writers' presence for their research results and claims.

(18)   *We find that the relative protein levels of both full-length Htt and cleaved N-terminal Htt fragments do not differ between Q175 KI mice and WT mice.*
                                                                                   (N16-R&D-CS-CSW)

(19)   *First, <u>we</u> are comparing theoretical predictions for direct J=\xA6\xD7 production with prompt J=\xA6\xD7 production data.*   (N32-R&D-MS-JAW)

Table 11. Distribution of self-mentions across sections in the two corpora (% of total)

Section	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
Introduction	27 (12)	8 (5)	0.000
Method	58 (26)	44 (27.3)	0.000
Results & Discussion	129 (57.7)	102 (63.4)	0.000
Conclusion	10 (4.3)	7 (4.3)	0.000
Total	**224 (100)**	**161 (100)**	**0.000**

The Method sees the second most frequent use of self-mentions, and this perhaps relates to the fact that writers introduce the methods adopted (Example (20)) or research procedures (Example (21)) by description of a regular and customary procedure of his/her group.

(20)   *Importantly, however, <u>our</u> HumaNet routing protocol does not conceal the identities of the network's participants.*   (N1-M-CS-JAW)

(21)   *<u>We</u> investigated three possibilities: random, disjoint insertion cost and non-disjoint insertion cost in this study.*   (N18-M-CS-CSW)

It is also found in our data that the Chinese PhD students used more self-mentions in the Introduction section than professional writers (12% vs 5%). This may suggest that the novice writers are inclined to explicitly showcase their presence at the beginning of research papers and tend to write with clear authorial identities projected onto academic texts.

A close reading of the data in Table 12 reveals that exclusive *we* is the most commonly used self-presenting device, comprising 74% and 62% of the total in CSW and JAW corpora respectively. As mentioned in Section 5, all the papers collected in the study are single-authored. The dense use of the exclusive *we* in our data provides evidential support to Hyland and Jiang's (2016) study that *we* is the most frequently used self-mention feature, witnessing the biggest increase in the past 50 years in Science disciplines compared to Applied Linguistics.

Table 12. Distribution of self-mention devices in the two corpora (% of total)

Word	CSW	JAW	*p*-value
We	166 (74)	100 (62)	0.000
Our	37 (16.6)	34 (21.3)	0.000
Us	18 (8.1)	8 (5.2)	0.000
I	3 (1.3)	19 (11.5)	0.000
Total	**224 (100)**	**161 (100)**	**0.000**

However, in our data, the Chinese PhD students use *we* approximately 66% more than expert writers (166 vs 100 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). Despite a likely extreme case, the following example illustrates the student writer heavily used authorial plural reference by clustering it in one paragraph.

(22) *In this paper, <u>we</u> aimed to make a system that could capture high spatial and spectral resolution multispectral video in a real-time. Since it was difficult to capture this video directly, <u>we</u> drew on Cao et al.'s (2012) merits and proposed a temporal enhancement propagation algorithm similar to Cao et al. (ibid.) instead. Compared to Cao et al.'s (ibid.) work, this algorithm increased accuracy, stability and continuity. <u>We</u> also used Graphics Processing Unit (GPU) to speed up our algorithm for real-time acquiring. And then, <u>we</u> tested our method by a numerical simulation and compared its performance with the previous method. By using our method, <u>we</u> could combine the videos in a short time.*   (N1-CS-CSW)

Speculatively, the overuse of *we* is perhaps caused by the possibility that student writers misused *we*, instead of *I*, to refer to him/herself, Hyland (2002) and Çandarli, Bayyurt, and Marti (2015) found that *we* is commonly used to refer to *I* in L2 students' texts. This may be because of a "desire to avoid *I*, which may be felt to be somewhat egotistical" (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 350) and an intention to reduce personal attributions (Kuo, 1999).

Table 12 shows that the novice writers use significantly less *I* than professional writers (3 cases vs. 19 cases per 10,000 words, $p < .001$). The avoidance of *I* in student writing can also be attributed to Chinese collective culture which favours modesty and dislikes obvious personal presence. According to Shen (1989), *I* is often

subordinate to *we* in Chinese as *we* is preferred to represent the Party, the country or other collective body. As a possible consequence, Chinese students encounter difficulties in using *I* in English writing (Leedham & Fernandez-Parra, 2017).

7.   Discussion

This corpus-based study has identified statistically significant differences in the use of hedges, boosters and self-mentions between the two writer groups: PhD students and expert writers. Variations across disciplines, writer groups and paper sections were explored. Generally, PhD student writers use the stance markers more frequently to convey their personal feelings either to negotiate commitments with others, claiming their research findings with confidence or to project their authorial presence in research paper writing.

Regarding RQ1 (what the similarities and differences between Chinese PhD students and English L1 professional writers' expression of stance across disciplines are), disciplinary variations suggest that authors in pure science involve more authorial intrusion in scientific writing and build more authorial interactions with readers when giving out their personal opinions and stamping authorial footprints compared with hard applied disciplines. The disciplinary diversity further reveals that stance expression and authorial identity need to be understood in a disciplinary mode (Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2002), which fulfils disciplinary epistemologies in a specific community.

Regarding RQ2 (to what extent Chinese PhD students differ from professional writers in the use of hedges, boosters and self-mentions across different sections of research paper), the differences in the science students' use of the stance features across sections suggest L2 students' lack of awareness of the pragmatic subtlety of stance-making devices and discoursal expectations of each rhetorical structure. And, more importantly, the variation may be related to the deep-seated Chinese culture as "when Chinese scientists write scientific articles, they may be striving to preserve their cultural identity" (Yang, 2013, p. 32). Differing from the western dialogic academic tradition in nature (Taylor & Chen, 1991), Chinese writers show respect to "prior beliefs and experience, instead of reasoning and argumentation" (Yang, 2013, p. 32), which explains their preference for discourse structure and linguistic options of stance expressions.

Regarding RQ3 (What the differences, if any, in the form of stance expression used by Chinese PhD students and English professional writers are), the PhD students tend to hedge on numerical information (*about*) and rely on the reporting of behaviour with *mainly* when compared with expert writers who on the other hand hedge on claims (*possible*, *likely*). Variation is also identified when students prefer

to boost with epistemic adjectives (*typical*, *obvious*) on apparent truth rather than leading readers to the strength of results or claims. Unlike professional writers, Chinese student writers tend to use self-mention *we* to replace *I* to refer to themselves and project authorial presence into academic texts, and this may result from their L1 Chinese culture. As being cultivated in a culture of "collectivist" (Shen, 1989), Chinese student writers demonstrate "unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1994, p. 51) to their groups or societies, which may discomfort themselves to project a strong personal identity by using *I*. Furthermore, in terms of personality, according to Çandarli et al. (2015), student learners' personality and confidence exert much influence on their pronoun preference. As Tang and John (1999, p. 34) comment, "[s]tudents feel insecure about the validity of their claims, seeing themselves to be at the lowest rungs of the academic ladder".

8.   Pedagogical implication

Given the findings presented above, our study provides pedagogical implications for the teaching of academic writing to novice L2 writers. Firstly, students' awareness of intercultural rhetorical differences in conveying stance and constructing authorial identity should be raised through courses and materials on English academic writing. It is advisable to foster students' authorial awareness and their ability to express personal feelings has long-term benefits because the students will be able to make informed choices about whether or when to conform to the expectations of the target audience for conveying their thoughts and meaning successfully (Mauranen, 1993). Secondly, learners' corpora are essential for training appropriate stance expression and authorial presence to novice L2 writers (e.g., Hyland, 2001; Lee & Casal, 2014). Writing instructors can help students construct a small corpus of their own written outputs and that of research articles for comparison to equip novice writers with appropriate rhetorical strategies and explore disciplinary norms in the use of stance expressions. Sociocultural factors affecting linguistic choices can be explored through comparative corpus analysis. Correspondingly, student writers will gradually develop an awareness of conveying personal stance in scientific English research writing.

Acknowledgements

References

Anthony, L. (2015). AntConc 3.5.0. http://www.laurenceanthony.net/

Becher, T. (1994). The significance of disciplinary differences. *Studies in Higher education*, 19(2), 151–161. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079412331382007

Biber, D. (2006). *University language: A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.23

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of written and spoken English*. Harlow: Longman.

Biglan, A. (1973). The characteristics of subject matter in different academic areas. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 57(3), 195–203. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0034701

Bodde, B. (1991). *Chinese thought, society and science: The intellectual and social background of science and technology in pre-modern China*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Çandarli D., Bayyurt, Y., & Marti, L. (2015). Authorial presence in L1 and L2 novice academic writing: Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 192–202. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.10.001

Chafe, W., & Nichols, J. (Eds.) (1986). *Evidentiality: The linguistic coding of epistemology*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Chan, T. H. T. (2015). A corpus-based study of the expression of stance in dissertation acknowledgements. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 176–191. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.09.005

Cobb, T. (2003). Analyzing late interlanguage with learner corpora: Quebec replications of three European studies. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes*, 59(3), 393–424. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.59.3.393

Connor, U. (2011). *Intercultural rhetoric in second language writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.3488851

Crosthwaite, P., Cheung, L., & Jiang, F. K. (2017). Writing with attitude: Stance expression in learner and professional dentistry research reports. *English for Specific Purposes*, 46, 107–123. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2017.02.001

Grant, L., & Ginther, A. (2000). Using computer-tagged linguistic features to describe L2 writing differences. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(2), 123–145. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(00)00019-9

Gray, B., & Biber, D. (2012). *Current conceptions of stance. Stance and voice in written academic genres*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Harré, R., & Van Langenhove, L. (1999). *Positioning theory: Moral contexts of intentional action*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Hofstede, G. (1994). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: Harper Collins.

Hu, G., & Cao, F. (2011). Hedging and boosting in abstracts of applied linguistics articles: A comparative study of English-and Chinese-medium journals. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(11), 2795–2809. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.04.007

Hunston, S., & Thompson, G. (2001). *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (1996). Writing without conviction? Hedging in science research articles. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(4), 433–454. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.4.433

Hyland, K. (1998). Boosting, hedging and the negotiation of academic knowledge. *Text-Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 18(3), 349–382. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1998.18.3.349

Hyland, K. (1999). *Disciplinary discourses: Writer stance in research articles*. In C. Candlin & K. Hyland (Eds.), *Writing: Texts, processes and practices* (pp. 99–121). London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2001). Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20(3), 207–226. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(00)00012-0

Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34(8), 1091–1112. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00035-8

Hyland, K. (2004) *Disciplinary discourses*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.

Hyland, K. (2005a). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2005b). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7, 173–192. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605050365

Hyland, K., & Jiang, F. (2016). Change of attitude? A diachronic study of stance. *Written Communication*, 33(3), 251–274. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088316650399

Hyland, K., & Milton, J. (1997). Qualification and certainty in L1 and L2 students' writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6(2), 183–205. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(97)90033-3

Jiang, F. (2015). Nominal stance construction in L1 and L2 students' writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 90–102. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.07.002

Kong, K. C. (2006). Linguistic resources as evaluators in English and Chinese research articles. *Multilingua*, 25, 183–216. https://doi.org/10.1515/MULTI.2006.012

Kuo, C. H. (1999). The use of personal pronouns: Role relationships in scientific journal articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(2), 121–138. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(97)00058-6

Lakoff, G. (1972). Hedges: A study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *Chicago Linguistic Society Papers*, 8, 183–228.

Lancaster, Z. (2014). Exploring valued patterns of stance in upper-level student writing in the disciplines. *Written Communication*, 31(1), 27–57. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088313515170

Lancaster, Z. (2016). Expressing stance in undergraduate writing: Discipline-specific and general qualities. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 23, 16–30. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.05.006

Lee, D. Y. W., & Chen, S. X. (2009). Making a bigger deal of the smaller words: Function words and other key items in research writing by Chinese learners. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(3), 149–165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2009.05.004

Lee, J. J., & Casal, J. E. (2014). Metadiscourse in results and discussion chapters: A cross-linguistic analysis of English and Spanish thesis writers in engineering. *System*, 46, 39–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.07.009

Leedham, M., & Fernandez-Parra, M. (2017). Recounting and reflecting: The use of first person pronouns in Chinese, Greek and British students' assignments in engineering. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 26, 66–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.02.001

Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230511910

Mauranen, A. (1993). Contrastive ESP rhetoric: Meta-text in Finnish-English economics texts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 12, 3–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(93)90024-I

McEnery, T., & Kifle, N. A. (2002). Epistemic modality in argumentative essays of second-language writers. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 182–195). London: Longman.

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2011). An intercultural analysis of metadiscourse features in research articles written in English and in Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 3068–3079. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.05.002

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A contemporary grammar of the English language*. London: Longman.

Shen, F. (1989). The classroom and the wider culture: Identity as a key to learning English composition. *College Composition and Communication*, 40(4), 459–466. https://doi.org/10.2307/358245

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Taylor, G., & Chen, T. (1991). Linguistic, cultural, and subcultural issues in contrastive discourse analysis: Anglo-American and Chinese scientific texts. *Applied Linguistics*, 12, 319–336. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/12.3.319

Takimoto, M. (2015). Assertions and lexical invisibility in EFL learners' academic essays. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 89, 85–99. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2015.09.009

Tang, R., & John, S. (1999). The 'I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18, 23–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00009-5

Thompson, G., & Hunston, S. (2000). Evaluation: An introduction. In S. Hunston & G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse* (pp. 1–27). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tweed, R. G., & Lehman, D. R. (2002). Learning considered within a cultural context: Confucian and Socratic approaches. *American Psychologist*, 57(2), 89–99. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.57.2.89

Vande Kopple, W. J. (1985). Some exploratory discourse on metadiscourse. *College Composition and Communication*, 36, 82–93. https://doi.org/10.2307/357609

Yang, Y. (2013). Exploring linguistic and cultural variations in the use of hedges in English and Chinese scientific discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 50(1), 23–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2013.01.008

Publishing in English

ELF writers, textual voices and metadiscourse

Marina Bondi and Carlotta Borelli

University of Modena and Reggio Emilia (Italy)

In a global academic environment, increasing attention has been paid to the international use of English for publication purposes. The chapter presents a corpus-based study of the differences between authors' final versions – seen as a case of writing in English as Lingua Franca – and published versions of papers. The economics component of the SciELF corpus – a collection of unrevised articles by ELF users – is compared to a larger corpus of published articles in Business and Economics. The comparison confirms the "cooperative imperative" of ELF users, though limited to a restricted range of general markers, and suggests a "selling imperative" in the process of revision, emphasizing authorial presence through personal deixis, epistemic markers and lexical cohesion.

Keywords: academic publishing in English, corpus analysis, ELF, textual voices, metadiscourse, language brokers

1. Introduction

The global dimension of academic activity, publications and research has given increasing importance to the need for a common language, with English having established itself as the dominant language in academic publications. Thanks to its superior resources for academic inquiries, at the end of the Second World War "the United States became both the world's greatest producer and consumer of research" (Hyland, 2015, p. 46), contributing to the spread of English in the international academic panorama. The use of English as the preferred language for publication can be referred to as a "language variety used to perform very restricted purposes between people who do not share a common language" (Hyland, 2015, p. 63).

The major role of non-native speakers of English in the field of international publications suggests looking more closely at the area of English as a Lingua Franca, where mutual understanding and explicitness can be more important than

correctness (Mauranen, Hynninen, & Ranta, 2010; Mauranen, 2012) and endonormative activity is intense (Hynninen, 2013). An ELF perspective moves away from the idea of an English owned only by native speakers to a view of English as shaped by its users, especially in the global context of academic use.

The prevalence – or dominance – of the use of English in academic publishing has created the idea of a discrimination between native and non-native speakers. Research has shown that scholars from all over the world live with "anxiety" and "resignation" the impossibility to choose the language they publish in (Ferguson, Pérez-Llantada, & Plo, 2011; Lillis & Curry, 2010), but at the same time they also contribute to the richness of perspectives in their disciplinary communities (see also Canagarajah, 1996; Flowerdew, 1999, 2001; Pérez-Llantada, 2014). Moreover, academic writing is not part of that "natural acquisition" of a language, but it is acquired through lengthy formal education (Ferguson et al., 2011). Features that are specific to a language variety, such as technical taxonomies, lexical density, rhetorical structures and grammatical patterns, have to be learnt by all native and non-native speakers alike (Römer, 2009; Tribble, 2017).

The use of a lingua franca involves an effort from both native and non-native speakers, with the aim of communicating academic contents in an efficient and effective way. These efforts lead to a process of a constant remodeling of the structures used to communicate. In particular, academic speakers are being asked to adopt a "cooperative imperative" that asks for a language accommodation to ensure communication (Seidlhofer, 2009). In oral contexts, we need to continually modify and fine-tune our language in order to communicate with other people. The cooperative imperative assumes the tendency to strive for greater explicitness in search for mutual understanding (Mauranen et al., 2010, p. 184).

The need for greater explicitness, which Mauranen (2012) sees in terms of careful use of metadiscourse, indicating local organisation and negotiating topics, might characterise both spoken and written forms of academic ELF. In order to create a more explicit and defined text, and to lead their addressees to a specific interpretation, both speakers and writers use expressions that help readers to organise, classify, and evaluate propositions in the text. In other words, they use metadiscourse, a combination of references to the discourse itself, contributing to the organisation of the evolving text rather than to the subject matter.

When it comes to publishing in English, however, the gate-keeping function of reviewers, editors and publishing companies cannot be ignored and the language that gets published is probably the result of a mediation between unedited ELF use and reference to native-speaker standards. When looking at published papers, increasing attention is being paid to the contribution of "shapers" (Burrough-Boenisch, 2003) or "literacy brokers" (Lillis & Curry, 2006, 2010), i.e. the different kinds of mediators who are involved in the production of the final text

to be published, such as academic supervisors, language professionals, reviewers and editors. An increasing number of papers have studied the role played by literacy brokers in determining what gets accepted for publication; they have tried to trace the factors that influence the L2 author's identity (Englander, 2009) and their relation (or lack of) to native-speaker standards (Anderson, 2010; Heng Hartse & Kubota, 2014).

From an editorial point of view, the main focus during the revision for publication is supposed to be on content and argument, rather than on grammar and syntax (e.g. Bornmann, Wymouth, & Daniel, 2010; Coniam, 2012; Gosden, 2003; Hewings, 2004; Mungra & Webber, 2010; see also Hyland, 2015). It is known, among literacy brokers, that there is room for great variation in rhetorical structures and language features in different linguistic and cultural contexts and that content may be predominant on form. However, as also shown by Lillis and Curry (2010, p. 93), the difference between academic brokers and language brokers is not always clear-cut. Methodologically, textual histories have proved to be fruitful in mapping language changes introduced by editors (Flowerdew & Wang, 2016; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Mur-Dueñas, 2012).

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. On the one hand, we want to explore the nature of written ELF, to see to what extent the claims made about ELF and its explicitness or its "cooperative imperative" also hold true in the contexts of structured academic writing, with its traditional interest in reflexivity and intertextuality (cf. Section 2 below): how do proficient non-native English speakers use metadiscursive resources? On the other hand, by comparing what happens in this respect in unedited and published articles, insights can be gained into the difference between ELF writing and the standard set by published texts: what features distinguish unedited texts from published texts? This may also be related to the role of literacy brokers in the publishing process: what could be the impact of literacy brokers on the standard language of published research genres?

The structure of the chapter is the following. The next section presents the background to the study and the key assumptions as to academic discourse. Section 3 presents the corpora used for the comparative study of unedited texts and published texts, as well as the main methods chosen to develop the analysis through the study of keywords and concordances. The analysis is presented in Sections 4 and 5, with a focus on frequency and co-text of words characterising unedited and edited texts. The results show that the unedited English in our corpus (Section 4) is characterised by prototypical evidentials, reporting verbs and nouns. On the other hand, the corpus of published texts is characterised by deictic and conjunctive cohesion and epistemics (Section 5). The final remarks (Section 6) draw some conclusions as to the nature of written ELF and the potential role of literacy brokers.

2. Background: Reflexivity and intertextuality in academic discourse

Hyland's work has been extremely influential in academic discourse studies, both in drawing attention to the persuasive nature of academic discourse and in focusing on a writer's development of an appropriate relationship with readers through metadiscourse (e.g. Hyland, 2005). His focus on writer's stance and reader's engagement contributes to a dialogic view of academic discourse: always presenting and supporting a position, and at the same time projecting the communicative needs and reactions of a potential audience. Readers have a constitutive role in how writers construct their claims, as the recognition of alternative voices is essential to consensus-making in academic argument (see also Hyland, 2014).

Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse provides a useful framework for an analysis of the range of phenomena that are collected under the heading. His definition of metadiscourse is extensive, thus including a wide range of phenomena that help us conceptualise the interaction between the writer and the reader through the text, including the writer's awareness and projection of a potential audience in academic discourse. Under the heading of "interactive metadiscourse" he includes the features used to organise propositional information in ways that are likely to be coherent and convincing for the intended audience (2005, p. 50): transition markers (e.g. *similarly*), frame markers (labelling discourse act, e.g. *to summarise*), endophoric markers (*see Figure 2*), evidentials (defined as attribution to sources – *according to X, Z states* –, rather than indicating the source of information in general, as in the linguistic literature) and code glosses (additional explanations, examples, definitions: *namely*, *e.g.*, *such as*). "Interactional metadiscourse", on the other hand, refers to resources that involve readers in negotiating the author's perspective; these include: hedges and boosters (variously acknowledging or excluding alternative views), attitude markers (indicating the writer's affective rather epistemic attitude), forms of self-mention and engagement markers (reader pronouns, imperatives and references to shared knowledge).

Another key issue of academic discourse that does require specific attention from native and non-native speakers alike is that of textual voices, i.e. the construction of a reliable authorial voice (Hyland & Sancho-Guinda, 2012) and the efficient involvement of other voices, such as the scientific community and the relevant literature.

Authorial voice is a manifestation of the writer's presence in the text not only through the use of self-mention and illocutionary frames (verbal markers referring to discourse act) (e.g. *I will argue*), but also through expressions of stance, typically manifested by evaluative language use (e.g. *interesting*, *significant*, etc.) and modality. Authorial voice also carries on an ongoing dialogue with the reader

(e.g. *you*, *consider*) and with the scientific community, prominently but selectively included by reporting other voices. These other voices – the discourse community and specific sources – are significantly reported through the use of evidentials, especially reporting verbs (e.g. *claim*, *show*, *suggest*) and labelling nouns (e.g. *thesis*, *proposal*, etc.).

The key distinction regarding other textual voices is between what Sinclair (1988) calls *averral* and *attribution*. *Averral* refers to propositions put forward by the writer, while *attribution* designates the case where a proposition is indicated as deriving from a source. Attributed voice, or *reported speech*, can be further divided into different categories, including the traditional distinction between direct quotations and indirect reports, but also specific attention to how lexical choice can be used to signal the author's position as to the quoted text (Thompson, 1996).

3. Materials and methods

The analysis is based on the comparison of two corpora. The first one is composed of texts from the SciELF corpus, a collection of articles written by users of English as Lingua Franca for academic discourse in different disciplines. These papers have not undergone a professional proofreading and most of them are final drafts of unpublished manuscripts. The SciELF corpus is composed by 150 articles, for a total of 759,300 words (an average of 5,062 words per article). Authors of these papers come from 10 different L1 backgrounds (Finnish, Czech, French, Chinese, Spanish, Russian, Swedish, Italian, Brazilian Portuguese and Romanian).[1]

The SciELF corpus is divided into two main categories: the Sci corpus and the SSH corpus. The first one is composed by 78 articles from the sciences (Sci) and represents 43% of total, with an average of 4,185 words per article. The second one is composed by a lower number of articles, 72, from the social sciences and humanities (SSH). These were found to be much longer on average than the articles in the Sci corpus, with 6,012 word per article. The articles in the Sci category are drawn mostly from the Natural Sciences (79%) and Medicine (18%); those in SSH are drawn from Social Sciences (45%), Humanities (34%) and Behavioural Sciences (21%).

The present study is based on a small subcorpus of the SciELF, collected from articles in the field of Economics, for a total of 24 articles and 108,552 words (4,523 average words per article). It is interesting to notice that the subcorpus spans across

---

1. For further information see <http://www.helsinki.fi/elfa/wrelfa>.

the two main sections (Sci/SSH), as most mathematical areas of economic the-ory present features of model-based scientific argument. The economic subcorpus contains 10 articles listed as "Sci" and 14 listed as "SSH". In the rest of the present chapter, examples from SciELF will be identified following the coding used in the SciELF corpus.

The L1s of the authors are mainly Russian, Czech and Romanian, followed by Italian, Finnish, Spanish and Brazilian Portuguese. The data are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. SciELF-Economics: Overview of the subcorpus by author L1

L1	No. articles	No. words	% of total	words/article
Russian	7	31,084	29	4,441
Romanian	4	25,197	23	6,299
Czech	6	20,836	19	3,473
Italian	3	13,612	13	4,537
Finnish	2	9,265	9	4,633
Spanish	1	5,633	5	5,633
Portuguese (Brazil)	1	2,925	3	2,925
	24	**108,552**		**4,523**

The SciELF-Economics corpus was contrasted with a reference corpus composed of published articles in Business and Economics. The reference corpus (5 million words) includes papers by native and non-native English authors. The reference corpus is thus meant to be representative of published articles, irrespective of the language background of their authors. The contrast between the two corpora is intended to highlight differences between the author's final versions ("pre-print") and published versions of papers in Business and Economics, thus potentially representing the final result of the activity of literacy brokers (Lillis & Curry, 2010) and their contribution to final published versions. Examples from the corpus of published materials will be identified by the title of the journal they were taken from.[2]

---

2.   The corpus comprises 808 articles from the following journals: *European Economic Review*, *International Journal of Industrial Organization*, *International Review of Economics and Finance*, *European Journal of Political Economy*, *Journal of Corporate Finance*, *Journal of Development Economics*, *Journal of Socio-Economics*, *The North American Journal of Economics and Finance*; *Academy of Management Journal*, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Business Strategy Review*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Business and Society Review*, *Journal of World Business*, *Marketing Science*.

The comparison was meant to map the structures of ELF manifested in the Sci-ELF subcorpus and the range of features potentially characterising the process of revision for publishing.

A preliminary overview of keywords was produced using *WordSmith 6* (Scott, 2012). This analysis allowed us to find the words occurring with unusual frequency in the corpus under investigation as compared to their frequency in a reference corpus. These include both positive (overused) and negative keywords (underused). Our attention was mostly focused on general language items. Starting from this perspective, we identified candidate metadiscursive items, especially metalinguistic verbs/nouns used as frame markers (reflexivity) and "evidentials" as defined by Hyland (2005), i.e. expressions introducing citations (intertextuality). Leaving aside all the content words, our focus was not on those keywords that manifest the "aboutness" of a text, but rather on the style adopted and the characteristics of the genre, with a view to tracing markers of explicitness (Mauranen, 2012).

The analysis was divided into two phases. The first phase explores keywords looking for candidate metadiscursive items (especially metalinguistic verbs and nouns) focusing on frame markers and evidentials (and thus highlighting the role of reflexivity and intertextuality in academic discourse). The second phase of the study, based on concordance analysis, is centred on identifying the semantic-pragmatic function of the selected metadiscursive items: evidentials, metadiscursive verbs and nouns, forms of self-reference etc. We considered, for example, whether the reference was to self vs other, and whether this "other" was specified in general or specific terms (i.e. with reference to the whole community or to specific sources) or unspecified, i.e. general inclusive reference.

The results of the analysis of positive and negative keywords are presented separately. Positive keywords, significantly more frequent in the SciELF-Ec corpus, can be regarded as typical of non-native unedited text, whereas negative keywords, significantly less frequent in the SciELF corpus, can be regarded as profiling the features of published texts. In both sections, while focusing on one type of text, we use the other for comparison, moving from keyword selection to concordance analysis, to check the metadiscursive status of the items and to analyse their context of use.

4.   Positive keywords: Features of unedited text

4.1   Overview

The comparison between the SciELF-Economics (SciELF-Ec) and the Business and Economics corpus of published articles (Pub-BE) starts from the analysis of the positive keywords, with a focus on intertextuality and reflexivity in unedited texts.

The most interesting result in the context of positive keywords is the frequency of *according (to)*: the word form occurs 107 times, 97 of them followed by *to*, with a normalised frequency of 9 occurrences pttw (per ten thousand words) as against 3 pttw in the reference corpus. Its function is not exclusively evidential, but certainly mostly so: 93 occurrences were actually used to attribute a string of text to a textual voice different from the author's, including flexibly both specific (*according to Blamey et al.*) and general reference (*according to psychological research*). A case of specific reference can be seen in Example (1):

(1)   <u>*According to*</u> *Jiménez, Sanz-Vallé most of the broad empirical studies on the relation between innovation and performance provide evidence that this relation is positive.*   (SSH12)

From a linguistic point of view, it is interesting to notice that ELF seems to privilege this particular form of evidential (*according to*), a form which represents the least interpretative choice – and maybe the most prototypical attributor. While clearly pointing to a source, the expression does not position the writer as to the quoted author or the quoted text: this reduces the impact of the textual voice of the writer by indicating attribution without expressing the writer's position. On the other hand, the expression represents the most easily identifiable attributor and the least complex lexico-grammatical choice both for the ELF writer and reader, as it reduces choices at the level of lexical element and tense. It is thus an example both of explicitness and of simplification, responding to the need of the cooperative imperative in ELF.

Another group of positive key words is represented by a conspicuous group of potentially metadiscursive verbs and nouns, i.e. expressions that are typically found in frame markers (e.g. *here we analyse*, *we present an analysis*). The lexical range found in the keyword list is reasonably wide, but some of the verbs and nouns represent peculiarities of one or few texts. It was thus decided to limit the analysis to those that occurred in at least 50% of the texts (i.e. 12). The candidate metadiscursive items occurring in at least 50% of the texts are listed in Table 2, with their frequency, normalised frequency (pttw) and the number of texts they occur in.

Table 2. Selected metadiscursive verbs and nouns

Rank	Key word	Frequency (SciELF-Ec)	pttw	Text	Reference Corpus Frequency (Pub-BE)	pttw	Keyness
81	*analyse*	32	3	12	69	<1	125,99
120	*approach*	133	12	22	2.368	4	94,21
124	*research*	244	22	24	5.852	11	92,87
127	*analysed*	25	2	12	64	<1	91,69
214	*methods*	56	5	13	757	1	59,68
221	*considered*	75	7	18	1.340	2	52,80
231	*analysis*	181	16	23	4833	9	50,96
233	*characteristics*	86	8	14	1692	3	50,78
243	*presented*	67	6	13	1.157	2	49,95
252	*mentioned*	36	3	12	405	<1	47,72
254	*paper*	115	10	20	2684	5	46,83
267	*method*	57	5	12	945	2	45,39
269	*factors*	110	10	16	2572	5	44,59
282	*methodology*	34	3	13	403	<1	4251
286	*aim*	26	2	14	240	<1	42,12
287	*evaluation*	42	4	13	653	1	36,90

4.2 *Analyse/analysed/analysis*

Looking at the concordances of the verb *analyse*, we noticed it was mostly used in self-reference: only 2 of the 32 occurrences explicitly report other studies (mainly to illustrate differences with the current study). One of these occurrences is a reference to a methodological tool and the other one is a general methodological statement. A similar situation is found in the concordances of the word form *analysed*: only 2 of the 25 occurrences explicitly refer to other studies, to illustrate differences with the current study, whereas the vast majority is used for self-reference, either in main clauses (Example (2)) or in pre- or postmodification of a noun phrase (Example (3)):

(2) *On the basis of the above-mentioned model and the research in the available literature, we <u>analysed</u> the particular areas which have an influence on family businesses.* (SSH14)

(3) *[…] about two thirds of all the crashes <u>analysed</u> took place before 1940.* (Sci 62)

This tendency to self-reference is confirmed in the published corpus, but with a much more varied pattern: only 57% of the occurrences are or could be broadly interpreted as cases of self-reference.

The marked preference of unedited texts for the lemma (used in self-reference) seems to suggest that the notion of "analysing" is perceived by many to represent the prototypical activity of authorial writing in Economics.

If we consider the related noun *analysis*, we notice first of all that self-reference (e.g. *our analysis*, *this analysis*, *the analysis*, etc.) still accounts for the vast majority of occurrences in the unedited SciELF-Ec texts (126/181) but other-reference is also found in a significant number of cases (55), with 24 occurrences of specific citations (e.g. *event study analysis as described by McKinley*) and 31 cases of generic reference (e.g. *event study analysis*). Examples of self- and other-reference are often found together, frequently in relating one's own work to other studies, as in the paper outline below (Example (4)); the first reference to the notion of "analysis" identifies a field of study that the writer wants to consider, whereas the second and third (*analysed*, *analysis*) refer to the study carried out by the writer:

(4) *We continue by discussing the family as a level of <u>analysis in family entrepreneurship research</u> and explore how such a perspective extends our understanding of values in family firms. We consequently present our findings from a secondary/primary data based study based on interviews with family business owners or business consultants from organisations involved in family businesses in the <u>analysed countries</u>. We then identified the values which are included in the FEO model and finally added the values which were manifested within the framework of <u>our analysis</u>.* (SSH14)

Concordance analysis also shows that the noun is often qualified by premodification (*ANOVA analysis*, *cluster analysis*, *comparative analysis*, *data analysis*, *performance analysis*, etc.) and/or followed by prepositions such as *on*, *of* or *for* that specify the kind of analysis. It is also frequently found in cataphoric and anaphoric reference, as in Examples (5) and (6):

(5) *[T]hese data will also be covered by <u>the analysis below</u>.* (SSH50)

(6) *This paper analyses borrowing process in one Russian bank that is a regional subsidiary of Agency of Housing Mortgage Loans, national provider of residential housing mortgages. <u>This analysis</u> takes into account the underwriting process and choice of loan limit by bank, choice of contract terms including having government insurance and performance of all loans issued by the bank operation period from 2008 to 2012.* (Sci 64)

Another pattern that emerges from concordance analysis is distributional and highlights the different behavior of texts that were classified as "hard science Economics" vs Social Science and Humanities. Reference to specific types of analysis is clearly more frequent in the Sci component (96 occurrences in 10 texts, an average of 9.6 per text) than in the SSH (87 occurrences in 14 texts, an average of 6.2 text).

Variation across the SSH and the Sci components of the main corpus emerges as interestingly related to the main argumentative strategies in the field. The Sci component privileges model-based reasoning and makes ample use of general and specific references to analytical methods, whereas the SSH component privileges empirical studies and limits the methodology to a few descriptive statements and implications.

Considering the study of *analysis/analyse/analysed* on the whole, we can conclude that the expressions are used to indicate the general function of economic study and contribute greatly to local textual organisation. The preference for "analysis" as the prototypical general process representing economics discourse can also be related to the typical association of *analys** with self-reference. These features can be related to an ELF tendency to strive for greater explicitness in search for mutual understanding (Mauranen, 2010, p. 184), in that they contribute to the cohesion of the text and facilitate understanding. On the other hand, it should be noticed that the choice of a general verb points to the topic and the focus of the study, rather than to the structure of argument, which could be indicated by more specific lexical items such as *assume*, *suggest* and so on. From this point of view then, the preference for the general word may respond to the needs of the L2 speaker, and may facilitate understanding on the part of the L2 reader, but does not always make the text more explicit.

4.3   Metadiscursive verbs

In the list of the candidate metadiscursive verbs, we also found several general verbs in the *–ed* form, typically used to represent the main procedures of research: *considered*, *presented*, *mentioned* among others (e.g. *implied*, *realised*, *characterised*, *recognised*, *restated*, *surveyed*, used in a smaller number of texts).

It is interesting to notice that the verbs that are used most extensively, while certainly metadiscursive in nature, are characterised by different processes (verbal for *mentioned*, mental for *considered* and material for *presented*) and do not manifest a high degree of authorial interpretation in the representation of the process. For one thing, they are all mostly related to a noun group rather than to a projected clause, thus introducing a topic more than a claim (even when projecting a claim would be possible, as in the case of *mentioned* and *considered*). Moreover, the mental or communicative action is barely interpreted in terms of the degree of complexity that is expected of the object. The choice of "mentioning" (136 occurrences) characterises the speech act reported as brief and cursory and it is mostly associated with typical metadiscursive phraseology: *above-mentioned* (19 occurrences), *as (was previously/ explictly/ has already been) mentioned (above)* (16) or *should/could/needs to/will be*

mentioned (10). The choice of "considering" qualifies the process with an element of more careful study: only 17/181 occurrences, however, are active patterns (e.g. *we considered it relevant to provide…*) while the overwhelming majority (164/181) are passive forms (e.g. *laïcité is often considered not just a legal issue*). Finally, the choice of "presenting" (164 occurrences of *presented*) merely implies the presence of a recipient and typically refers to an act of ostension (*the data presented in Table 2*) and to the various formats adopted for the presentation of data.

Figure 1 provides a quantitative overview of how the verbs relate to different textual voices.
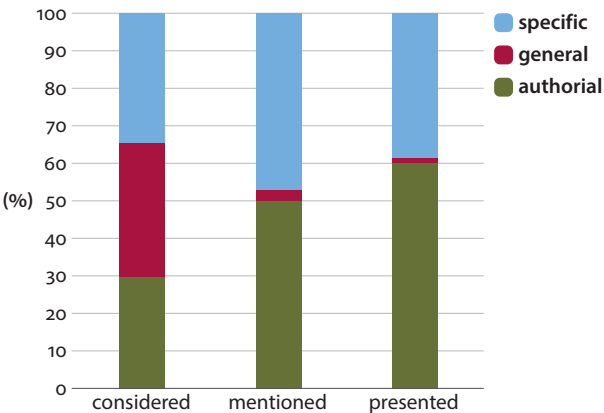
Figure 1. *Considered/mentioned/presented*: Textual voices in SciELF-Ec

The *-ed* form is used largely for self-reference (often in passive constructions and followed by locative adverbials such as *here*, *in Table 1*, *in 2.2*, etc.), but also for reporting discourse (primary or secondary sources). From the point of view of these distinctions, the verbs show different patterns, with *considered* often used to represent general opinions (Example (7)), *mentioned* almost equally used in reporting specific voices (Example (8)) and authorial voice (e.g. *as mentioned above*), and *presented* mostly used for authorial voice (Example (9)).

(7) *Innovation performance is generally considered as a crucial component of long-term competitiveness of countries and regions.* (SSH12)

(8) *Creel (2008) mentioned several reasons for that.* (Sci65)

(9) *The result of our research is presented in a table (Table I).* (SSH14)

Comparing the references of these three general verbs in the SciELF-Ec corpus and in the Pub-BE corpus, we noticed a much lower use of these specific verbs in published materials. The corpus of published materials also presented a comparatively much greater use of self-reference: this was particularly noticeable as far as

mentioned and *presented* were concerned, where the percentage of self-references was around 88% (vs. 50% and 59% respectively in unedited texts), whereas for *considered* it was around 54% (vs 30% in unedited texts).

As for the word form *aim*, its use is largely nominal and will be discussed below. Only 2 of the 8 verbal occurrences contribute to introducing the purpose of the paper (*we aim to*), while the rest refer to economic agents or factors in the world of the text.

4.4   Metadiscursive nouns

Concerning the candidate metadiscursive nouns, the focus was again on the nouns occurring at least in 50% of the texts. We also excluded occurrences in abstracts, acknowledgments and references for the sake of comparison, and specific words that could be characteristic of specific methodologies (*survey*, *questions*, *respondents* and so on). The quantitative data are reported in Table 3.

Table 3. Candidate metadiscursive nouns

Rank	Word form	Freq. (SciELF-Ec)	Pttw	N.of texts	Reference Corpus Freq. (Pub-BE)	Pttw	Keyness
120	*approach*	133	12	22	2368	4	94.21
124	*research*	244	22	24	5852	11	92.87
204	*methods*	56	5	13	757	1	59.68
231	*analysis*	181	16	23	4833	9	50.96
233	*characteristics*	86	8	14	1692	3	50.78
254	*paper*	115	10	20	2684	5	46.83
267	*method*	57	5	12	945	2	45.39
269	*factors*	110	10	16	2572	5	44.59
282	*methodology*	34	3	13	403	<1	42.51
286	*aim*	26	2	14	240	<1	42.12
287	*evaluation*	42	4	13	653	1	36.90

The items fall neatly into categories that are often used for the analysis of academic discourse. The study of concordances shows that word forms like *paper* and *research* are the most used nouns for self-mention (Example (10)), nominal *aim* is mostly used for the statement of purpose (Example (11)), *approach*, *method/s* and *methodology* are markers of methodological statements (Example (12)), while *characteristics* and *factors* act as general labelling (metacognitive) nouns typically used in forms of prospection or encapsulation (Example (13)):

(10)   *In this <u>paper</u> we analyse the daily dynamics of the index in 1896 – 2011.* (Sci62)

(11)   *The <u>aim</u> of this <u>paper</u> is to analyse the state of art of macroprudential policies with specific reference to the case of the European Union and the supervisory architecture to-be with the introduction of the Banking Union.*   (SSH 43)

(12)   *The <u>calculation</u> has used the weighted error propagation methodology and has assumed uniform probability distributions.*   (SSH50)

(13)   *The sample <u>characteristics</u> are summarised in Table 1.*   (SSH53)

To summarise this first part of analysis on the distinguishing features of unedited texts, based on a study of keywords and concordance analysis we may conclude that the corpus seems to be characterised by prototypical uses, such as the phrase *according to* for "zero stance" reporting, and a restricted range of metadiscursive verbs and nouns that are easily interpreted. In this framework, we notice a preference for:

a.   frame markers constituted by prototypical verbs referring to general illocutionary processes, pointing to topic and focus (e.g. *consider*), rather than to argumentative moves (e.g. *show*);
b.   prototypical general labelling nouns, pointing to general metacognitive elements, identifying elements of cognition (e.g. *characteristics*, *factors)* and text (e.g. *pape*r), rather than event (e.g. *change*) or discourse (e.g. *claim*);
c.   explicit marking of self-mention in stating methods and purpose, preferably in locative patterns (*in this study*) rather than direct personal forms (*we study*).

The association between the use of metadiscursive verbs and nouns would support the importance of reflexivity or intertextuality in academic discourse, as well as the tendency of unedited texts to rely on a narrower range of general metadiscursive items.

5.   Negative keywords: Features of published texts

The study of negative keywords illuminates the peculiarities of the corpus of published materials, as illustrated in Table 4.

A preliminary observation could be made about the verb form *examine*, the only general metadiscursive verb that is more frequent in edited texts. The frequency of the form – probably counterbalancing the insistence of the SciELF-Ec texts on *analyse* – is associated with a complex set of patterns. The most frequent context is that of sentences identifying the purpose of the study, as in Example (14):

(14)   *As an early exploratory step, however, this research set out to <u>examine</u> the different impact of affective and cognitive advertisements in two ways.*
                                                    (Business Strategy Review)

Table 4. Negative keywords: focus on published texts

Rank	Word form	Freq. (SciELF-Ec)	pttw	Texts	Reference Corpsus Freq. (Pub-BE)	pttw	Keyness
410	*may*	160	14	21	11,584	21	−30.12
418	*examine*	3	<1	3	1,240	2	−32.19
419	*given*	50	4	20	4,925	9	32.45
<u>423</u>	<u>*this*</u>	<u>541</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>33,053</u>	<u>61</u>	<u>−32.77</u>
427	*likely*	34	3	8	3,877	7	−33.87
429	*whether*	26	2	13	3,296	6	34.03
437	*thus*	58	5	17	5,691	10	−37.19
445	*relationships*	9	<1	6	2230	4	−44.52
446	*will*	139	12	22	11,286	21	−44.77
450	*had*	40	4	14	4,875	9	−47.45
451	*when*	123	11	21	10,448	19	−47.54
<u>454</u>	<u>*these*</u>	<u>183</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>14,324</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>−50.31</u>
<u>455</u>	<u>*I*</u>	<u>144</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>12,025</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>−52.05</u>
464	*relationship*	20	2	9	3,655	7	−57.63
470	*effects*	45	4	11	6,032	11	−67.38
474	*if*	127	11	22	12,198	22	−76.08
480	*would*	72	6	17	8,527	16	−79.37
491	*that*	925	82	24	72,434	133	−257.17

The study of the clusters and collocates of *examine* seems to confirm its key role in highlighting the nature of economic study in edited texts: 122 occurrences (out of 1,240) are actually found in the cluster *we examine*, mostly followed by *whether* or by meta-cognitive nouns: *the impact*, *the effect(s)*, *the robustness*, *the relationship(s)*, *the role*, *the extent*, etc.

Edited texts also show an increased use of general labelling nouns with an organisational function: where SciELF-Ec privileged *factors* and *characteristics*, published texts emphasise *relationship/s* and *effect/s*. As these "stance nouns" (Jiang & Hyland, 2016) often construct important links in textual cohesion, we might notice that these links are altogether more focused on effects than causes in published texts:

(15) *Whereas prior research has focused on the consumption <u>effects</u> of higher actual volume […], we focus on the <u>effects</u> of perceived volume.*

(Journal of Marketing Research)

Significant quantitative variation is also found in expressions of stance and epistemicity (*may*, *likely*, *will*, *would*) and forms of causal/conditional conjunction (*given*, *thus*, *whether*, *if*, *when*, *that*). Published texts intensify the voice of the author by highlighting both the presence of authorial assessment of probability and reader guidance in causal/temporal relations:

(16)   *Controllable events (e.g., losing and gaining large customers and sales) are more <u>likely</u> to reflect a person's skills and efforts. Thus, <u>we</u> expect that controllable events <u>will</u> have a higher impact on intention magnitude than uncontrollable events.*
                                                    (Journal of Marketing Research)

Finally, and most importantly, the observation of the negative keywords shows a marked underuse in ELF of textual and personal deixis (*I*, *this*, *these*). Published texts, on the other hand, are characterised by an intense use of personal self-reference and cohesive forms realised by textual deixis.

6.   Final remarks

The comparison of a corpus of ELF writing and a corpus of published texts has highlighted differences in markers of authorial voice and metadiscourse. The SciELF-Ec corpus seems to be characterised by prototypical metadiscursive elements: frequencies insist on a restricted range of evidentials, frame markers pointing to topic and focus, as well as prototypical general labelling nouns and forms of locative self-mention. This seems to confirm the role of the cooperative imperative often noticed in ELF: the dialogue between textual voices is emphasised through the use of a restricted range of explicit markers of self/other reporting (prototypical verbs referring to general illocutionary processes and prototypical general labeling noun identifying elements of cognition and text).

The importance of reflexivity or intertextuality in academic discourse was also noticeable in the corpus of published articles: the texts are characterised by an increased use of deictic personal self-mentions, deictic and conjunctive cohesion and epistemic markers of authorial presence. This may be the result of a combination of factors. On the one hand, this might depend on the presence of both native speakers and non-native speakers of English among the authors in the corpus of published materials. The higher incidence of first person pronouns might be due to the tendency of native English speakers to use first person pronouns to a much bigger extent than non native speakers (see for example Lorés-Sanz, 2011; Molino, 2010; Mur-Dueñas, 2007; Yakhontova, 2006). On the other hand, no such explanation holds for other elements, such as the cohesive use of demonstratives and conjuncts. The increased emphasis on personal and textual deixis, as well as on markers of epistemicity, could also be due to the work of reviewers and editors aiming at compensating for a lack of personal and textual self-reference, and thus highlighting both authorial voice and reader guidance. Literacy brokering would thus tend to produce greater textual cohesion and increased use of epistemic markers of authorial presence, in line with native-speaker usage. The specific features

highlighted are also discussed in the literature on literacy brokering: see for example the editorial additions noticed by Flowerdew and Wang (2016, p. 46) to improve the cohesion and coherence of the text.

If this could be confirmed, we could say that, just as there is evidence of a "co-operative imperative" in the language of ELF writers, there might be a "selling imperative" in the process of language brokering in English-medium publications: the emphasis on marking authorial stance and epistemicity (the intensified use of transitions, self-mentions and hedges) seems to point to the need to highlight the novelty of the study and the contribution that scholars are bringing to the debate.

The comparative study of the corpus of published articles thus seems to suggest that this increased visibility of the author is probably the result of both the increased presence of native writers of English and the result of literacy brokering activity. However, one major concern regarding the possible interpretation of this data is, of course, the fact that it is not possible to separate native speaker texts from non-native speaker texts in the corpus of published texts. If the percentage of native and non-native authors could be established, it would be possible to assess the impact of the number of native speakers on the global picture that emerges. A more concrete possibility in the near future will be to study the specific textual histories of the texts in the SciELF-Ec corpus, along the lines of the methodology traced by Lillis and Curry (2010) or Mur-Dueñas (2012), as they gradually get published and complete their path through the final stages of revision and editing. Future research on this topic should test the present findings on the corpus of the final published versions of the papers in question, so as to be able to isolate the specific changes introduced by literacy brokers. It would also be interesting to replicate the study on other disciplines to explore further both written ELF and its variation across disciplines.

References

Anderson, L. (2010). Standards of acceptability in English as an academic *Lingua Franca*: Evidence from a corpus of peer-reviewed working papers by international students. In R. Cagliero & J. Jenkins (Eds.), *Discourses, communities, and global Englishes* (pp. 115–144). Bern: Peter Lang.

Bornmann, L., Wymouth, C., & Daniel, H. D. (2010). A content analysis of referees' comments. How do comments on manuscripts rejected by a high impact journal and later published in either a low or high impact journal differ. *Scientometrica*, 83, 493–506. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-009-0011-4

Burrough-Boenisch, J. (2003). Shapers of published NNS research articles. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 223–243. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(03)00037-7

Canagarajah, S. (1996). Nondiscursive requirements in academic publishing, material resources of periphery scholars, and the politics of knowledge production. *Written Communication*, 13, 435–472. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088396013004001

Coniam, D. (2012). Exploring reviewer reactions to manuscripts submitted to academic journals. *System*, 40(4), 544–553. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.10.002

Englander, K. (2009). Transformation of the identities of nonnative English speaking scientists. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 8, 35–53.
https://doi.org/10.1080/15348450802619979

Ferguson, G., Pérez-Llantada C., & Plo, R. (2011). English as an international language of scientific publication: A study of attitudes. *World Englishes*, 30, 41–59.
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.2010.01656.x

Flowerdew, J. (1999). Problems in writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 243–264.
https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80116-7

Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors towards nonnative speaker contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35, 121–150. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587862

Flowerdew, J., & Wang, S. H. (2016). The development and use of cohesive devices in L2 writing and their relations to judgments of essay quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 32, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.01.003

Gosden, H. (2003). 'Why not give us the full story?' Functions of referees' comments in peer reviews of scientific research papers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(2), 87–101.
https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(02)00037-1

Heng Hartse, J., & Kubota, R. (2014). Pluralizing English? Variation in high-stakes academic texts and challenges of copyediting. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 24, 71–82.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.04.001

Hewings, M. (2004). An 'important contribution' or 'tiresome reading'? A study of evaluation in peer reviews of journal article submissions. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(3), 247–274.
https://doi.org/10.1558/japl.2004.1.3.247

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2014). Introductory chapter: Dialogue, community and persuasion in research writing. In L. Gil-Salom & C. Soler-Monreal (Eds.), *Dialogicity in written specialised genres* (pp. 3–20). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/ds.23.02hyl

Hyland, K. (2015). *Academic publishing: Issues and challenges in the construction of knowledge*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K., & Sancho-Guinda, C. (Eds.) (2012). *Stance and voice in written academic genres*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137030825

Hynninen, N. (2013). *Language regulation in English as a lingua franca: Exploring language-regulatory practices in academic spoken discourse* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Helsinki.

Jiang, K. F., & Hyland, K. (2016). Nouns and academic interactions: A neglected feature of metadiscourse. *Applied Linguistics*, 37, 1–25.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2006). Professional academic writing by multilingual scholars: Interactions with literacy brokers in the production of English-medium texts. *Written communication*, 23(1), 3–35. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088305283754

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context. The politics and practices of publishing in English*. London: Routledge.

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011). The construction of the author's voice in academic writing: The interplay of cultural and disciplinary factors. *Text & Talk*, 31(2), 173–193. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2011.008

Mauranen, A., Hynninen, N., & Ranta, E. (2010). English as an academic lingua franca: The ELFA Project. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29(3), 183–190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.10.001

Mauranen, A. (2012). *Exploring English as a lingua franca*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mungra, P., & Webber, P. (2010). Peer review process in medical research publications: Language and content comments. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29(1), 43–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.07.002

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2007). "I/we focus on…": A cross-cultural analysis of self-mentions in business management research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6, 143–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2007.05.002

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2012). Getting research published internationally in English: An ethnographic account of a team of finance Spanish scholars' struggles. *Ibérica*, 24, 139–156.

Molino, A. (2010). Personal and impersonal authorial references: A contrastive Study of English and Italian linguistics research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 80–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.007

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2014). Formulaic language in L1 and L2 expert academic writing: Convergent and divergent usage. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 14, 84–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2014.01.002

Römer, U. (2009). English in academia: Does nativeness matter? *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies*, 20(2), 89–100.

Scott, M. 2012. *WordSmith Tools (Version 6)*. Stroud: Lexical Analysis Software.

Seidlhofer, B. (2009). Accommodation and the idiom principle in English as a lingua franca. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 6(2), 195–215. https://doi.org/10.1515/IPRG.2009.011

Sinclair, J. (1988). Mirror for a text. *Journal of English and Foreign Languages*, 1, 15–44.

Thompson, G. (1996). Voices in the text: Discourse perspectives on language reports. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(4), 501–530. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.4.501

Tribble, C. (2017). ELFA vs. genre: A new paradigm war in EAP writing instruction? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 25, 30–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.10.003

Yakhontova, T. (2006). Cultural and disciplinary variation in academic discourse: The issue of influencing factors. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5, 153–167. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2006.03.002

CHAPTER 11

Not the same, but how different?

Comparing the use of reformulation markers in ELF and in ENL research articles

Silvia Murillo

Universidad de Zaragoza

Reformulation markers can be considered indicators of rhetorical conventions (Cuenca, 2003). In this paper I contrast these markers in the SciELF corpus of unedited research papers (building on previous work [Murillo, submitted]) and in a comparable ENL (English as a Native Language) corpus (SERAC), focusing on the overall frequency, the relative frequency of each marker and the discourse processes they introduce (Murillo, 2012). The results reveal statistically significant differences between the two corpora regarding the specific choice of reformulation markers and the processes introduced by them. Further, the "similects" of the SciELF corpus (Mauranen, 2012) present very different trends. ELF does not seem to constitute a homogeneous use of the English language, at least at the lexico-grammatical level.

Keywords: reformulation markers, intercultural rhetoric, written academic English, English as a Lingua Franca, English as a Native Language, research articles, SciELF corpus, SERAC corpus, similects, hard and soft sciences

1. Introduction

ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) is nowadays a well-established research field, with an increasing number of articles and edited volumes being published every year. Most of this research is devoted to describing, theorising, assessing the attitudes of the speakers, and weighing the pedagogical implications of ELF, including those aspects related to language testing (Pitzl & Osimk-Teasdale, 2016).

Focusing on the available descriptions of ELF, Mauranen et al. (2015) point to the fact that the research available on ELF is overwhelmingly qualitative, mainly through a Conversation Analysis Approach to the study of oral encounters among ELF users. The WrELFA corpus (Corpus of Written English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings), coordinated by Prof. Anna Mauranen at the University of

Helsinki, has started to yield results on written academic ELF (e.g. Carey, 2013), and recently, the SciELF component, made up of unedited ELF research articles of both hard and soft science disciplines, has been completed. In this type of written academic discourse, we cannot expect generally to find similar lexicogrammar characteristics to oral ELF (Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2006) or to unplanned written ELF (Carey, 2013; Mauranen, 2012), as the contextual features of research articles are very different, but there are certain processes underlying the use of ELF in different contexts (Mauranen, 2012). The study of certain linguistic items can help us to unveil such common processes in research articles written in ELF by and for colleagues with different linguacultural backgrounds or "similects", a concept developed by Mauranen and defined as "L1-based group lects that derive from parallel cross-linguistic influence in individual speakers, identifiable as similar features in their second language repertoires" (2014, p. 229).

Previous research on academic English from an intercultural perspective may well be taken into account to identify some key features worth exploring in ELF texts. Some of these studies have concentrated on the comparison of metadiscourse features (Hyland, 2005) between research articles written in L1 English, in another L1, and in L2 English (that is, by academics whose L1 language is the other language in the analysis). Transfer processes have been found in English articles written by L1 Bulgarian scholars, in an analysis of boosting and hedging devices (Vassileva, 2001), by L1 Danish speakers with regard to evaluative features (Shaw, 2003), and by L1 Spanish speakers in the use of epistemic modal verbs (Pérez-Llantada, 2010), first person pronouns (Lorés-Sanz, 2011) and engagement markers (Lafuente-Millán, 2014). On the other hand, Murillo (2012) found both adaptation and transference processes in the use of reformulation markers by writers with the same linguistic background, giving way to discursive hybridity (Mauranen et al., 2010) (cf. Dontcheva-Navratilova's and Šinkūnienė's chapters, in Part I of this volume).

Research contrasting published papers written in L2 English by speakers of other languages with papers written by authors affiliated to Anglo-American institutions has also been undertaken, leaving aside L1 languages. Mur-Dueñas (2015) analysed evaluative it-clauses in Business Management research articles written in L1 English and in L2 English by L1 Spanish academics, and found differences in their frequency and lexicogrammatical realisations (specifically, in the choice of adjectives and in the use of modal verbs). Povolná (2016) also found differences in the use of discourse markers in L1 English and L2 English (by L1 Czech and L1 Slovak authors) in a corpus of Linguistics research papers (see also Povolná's and Bordet's contributions to this volume, in Part II).

Therefore, I believe it is worth exploring some of these discourse items in written ELF corpora, as they can throw light on the nature of ELF, for a twofold reason. On the one hand, these studies can help us to characterise, and try to account

for, the more formal linguistic and discursive aspects of ELF, and the processes underlying them. On the other hand, since ELF is in fact a combination of the communication of speakers/ writers of multiple L1 backgrounds, it may be worthwhile to explore ELF texts from an intercultural perspective, taking these different backgrounds into account.

My previous work on reformulation markers on academic texts (Murillo, 2012) draws on Cuenca (2003), who described reformulation markers as indicators of the rhetorical structure of different languages. She analysed three written academic corpora, in English, Spanish and Catalan, from a contrastive rhetorical perspective (Clyne, 1994; Hinds, 1987), and associated the lower frequency of these markers in English to the fact that English writing is more linear, and less prone to digressiveness, forming part of a writer-responsible/ form-oriented culture; on the other hand Spanish writing, with a higher frequency of reformulation markers, was less linear, more digressive and part of a reader-responsible/ content-oriented culture; Catalan was considered to be in the middle. Thus, analysing these markers in an ELF corpus can potentially provide us with insights into the nature of English as being used by speakers/ writers from different L1 backgrounds (cf. Murillo, submitted).

Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to contribute to the description of written academic ELF. In order to do this, I believe it is important to carry out systematic analyses of certain key discursive features in ELF research articles, such as the use of reformulation markers (cf. Murillo, submitted); however, these analyses can be complemented by contrasting them with a corpus of published articles written in L1 English. In fact, previous analyses of ELF have involved not only ELF corpora, but also contrastive work with other corpora such as MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English) (Carey, 2013; Mauranen, 2012). It is important to highlight at this point that this type of approach would not be necessarily in conflict with an endonormative perspective on ELF (Seidlhofer, 2011), as the comparison is only carried out for descriptive purposes, to have more information on the nature of written ELF, not to take L1 English as a (normative) model, as has usually been the case in the (not so distant) past, especially in English for Academic and Specific Purposes.

The structure of this paper is the following. In Section 2, I present my approach for classifying the functions of reformulation markers (Murillo, 2012), using examples from the SciELF and the ENL (English as a Native Language) SERAC corpora. In Section 3, I describe the corpora used in detail, together with the methodology followed. In Section 4, the results are presented for the general frequency of the reformulation markers, their types and functions, and other aspects in relation to their use in the components of the two corpora, including the hard/soft disciplines and, mainly, the different L1 language groups. The paper concludes with some final remarks in Section 5.

2. Functions of reformulation markers

Murillo (2012) presents a classification for the functions of reformulation markers that integrates the typologies previously elaborated by Quirk et al. (1985), Gülich & Kotschi (1983, 1987, 1995), Charolles & Coltier (1986), Murat & Cartier-Bresson (1987), and Fløttum (1994). This classification is associated with the contextual presentation of information and content in discourse, that is, with the processes of formulation of the utterances,[1] and consists of three broad categories: (1) functions related to the interpretation of explicit content, including identification, specification and explanation; (2) functions related to conceptual or encyclopedic content (definition and denomination); (3) functions which help to recover implicit content (conclusion and mathematical operation). This is a general framework that has been applied to texts of a different nature such as journalistic (Murillo, 2009) or academic (Murillo, 2012), and that operates cross-linguistically (Murillo, 2009, 2012, 2016). The following examples have been taken from the SciELF and the ENL SERAC corpora, alternatively.

In Example (1), showing a case of the function of identification, the reformulation marker *that is* helps to identify the referent of the previous noun phrase "the first word":

(1) *This time, it was not the student who waited for the first word, <u>that is</u>, the teacher's word, to know what he/she was supposed to do.* (SSH49; SciELF)

Specification serves as a discourse organising device and includes the presence of a cataphoric element, in the following case, "three minor carotenoids":

(2) *In addition, three minor carotenoids, <u>namely</u> free astaxanthin, canthaxanthin, and lutein were also identified in green crab meat.* (ENGFtech4; ENL SERAC)

In the following example, a previous statement is clarified by means of an explanation:

(3) *The grammatical (POS) and the statistical (AM) filter can also be inverted within the procedure, <u>that is</u>, one can first have a list of cooccurrences by word class combination, and then rank them according to their statistical significance.* (SSH42; SciELF)

In Example (4), the term "propinquity" is defined, making explicit the necessary (contextual or encyclopedic) information to understand it:

---

1. The process of utterance interpretation has been explained by Relevance Theory (Blakemore, 1987; Sperber & Wilson, 1986/1995). Given the nature of reformulation markers, the functions they perform can be related to the different tasks and subtasks of such process (see Murillo, 2012, for a detailed explanation).

(4) *The existing evidence suggests that propinquity – i.e. the opportunity to interact – is an important factor in interracial friendship.*   (ENGSOC11; ENL SERAC)

Conversely, in (5) by means of a denomination process the writer provides implicit terminological information:

(5) *This paper is motivated by the finding of significant autocorrelation in a series of durations between sequent significant and fast falls of the stock market, (i.e. market crashes) measured by strong negative daily log-returns of DJIA in 1896–2001.*
(Sci62; SciELF)

In a mathematical operation a calculation is performed and made explicit, introduced by a reformulation marker (Example (6)):

(6) *In academic prose, 1000 because and 400 causal since subordinators occurred per one million words, i.e. 0.14% for both conjunctions combined.*
(ENGAL22; ENL SERAC)

Finally, in the following conclusion (Example (7)), the clause introduced by *in other words* constitutes an implication from the previous statement:

(7) *On the level of narrative structure, the gradual exploitation of sensorimotor experience was paralleled by a phasing out of the omniscient narrator (who had still routinely addressed the "Dear Reader" at the beginning of the nineteenth century) and of other oral residues such as a linear, moral-driven plot. In other words, it was accompanied by a significant loss in overt prompters of verbal (i.e., speech-) imagery.*   (SSH11; SciELF)

From previous research on general L1 English, it can be added that some of these markers tend to perform certain functions. *Namely*, for instance, can be associated to specifications, and *in other words* to conclusions, whereas *that is* presents more versatility (Murillo, 2009, pp. 157–158). *I.e.* seems to be frequent in parenthetical uses in academic texts (Murillo, 2012, p. 82), and can be associated mainly to explanations.

3. Corpus and methodology

In order to carry out the analysis of the frequency and functions of reformulation markers in written academic ELF texts, I compared two corpora, the SciELF corpus and the ENL SERAC corpus. The SciELF corpus (2015) was compiled at the University of Helsinki (Finland) as a component of the WrELFA corpus (Corpus of Written English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings), and comprises 150 unedited research papers written by L2 English users: 78 from hard science disciplines

(Sci), and 72 from social science and humanities disciplines (SSH). The total number of words of this corpus is 759,300. The Sci papers come mostly from Natural Sciences (79% of the words) and Medicine (18%), having 4,185 words on average. The SSH papers were drawn from Social Sciences (45%), Humanities (34%), and Behavioural Sciences (21%), having a higher average number of words: 6,012 words per article. Thus, the corpus offers the possibility to study a given language feature across these broad hard/soft science divisions. Table 1 displays this general distribution:

Table 1. Distribution of the binary categories of the SciELF corpus

	No. articles	No. of words	% of total words	Avg. words/article
Sci	78	326,463	43	4,185
SSH	72	432,837	57	6,012
Total	150	759,300	100	5,062

The corpus consists of ten L1 language groups (Table 2), representing different language branches. As Mauranen points out, "for an ELF corpus it is crucial to include a wide variety of speakers' first languages, so as to tease out that which holds for the kind of English that is being used and co-constructed" (2016, p. 23). In this way, the corpus can be potentially used to assess if any particular trends are followed in the different "similects" represented in the SciELF corpus.

Table 2. Distribution of the L1 language groups in the SciELF corpus

	Articles	Words
Chinese	21	84,807
Czech	22	109,173
Finnish	25	123,153
French	16	91,186
Italian	11	58,685
Portuguese	12	56,625
Romanian	4	25,197
Russian	13	71,376
Spanish	13	79,038
Swedish	13	60,060
Total	150	759,300

The ENL corpus includes papers from the SERAC corpus (Spanish-English Research Article Corpus, compiled at the Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain), and

also new texts that have been included in order to make it comparable to the SciELF corpus.[2] Thus, the Sci component consists of 25 articles from each of the following disciplines: Mechanical Engineering, Urology, and Food Technology, with an average of 4,141 words per article. The SSH component also includes 25 articles from three different disciplines, Applied Linguistics, Business Management, and Sociology; these articles average 8,300 words. Table 3 displays the components of the ENL SERAC corpus.

Table 3. Distribution of the ENL SERAC corpus

	No. of articles	No. of words	% of total words	Avg. words/ article
Sci	**75**	**310,541**	**33.28**	**4,141**
Mec. Engineering	25	132,682	14.22	5,307
Urology	25	77,646	8.32	3,106
Food Technology	25	100,213	10.74	4,009
SSH	**75**	**622,527**	**66.72**	**8,300**
Applied Ling	25	182,541	19.56	7,302
Business Manag.	25	188,974	20.25	7,559
Sociology	25	251,012	26.90	10,040
TOTAL	**150**	**933,068**		

As can be seen in Tables 2 and 3, the total number of words in the ENL SERAC corpus (933,068 words) is higher than in the SciELF corpus (759,300 words). Another difference between the two corpora is that, although the ENL SERAC corpus is less balanced than the SciELF corpus regarding the number of words of the Sci/SSH divisions, the former is better adjusted if we take into account the number of articles per division. However, these variations in the number of words between corpora and Sci/SSH divisions are not problematic, as they can be taken into account when making calculations for statistical significance.

The procedure used to analyse the corpora can be summarised in the following steps. The selection of the reformulation markers was based on previous research in English (Chalker, 1996; del Saz, 2007). The items *that is*, *that is to say*, *in other words*, *namely* and *i.e.* were searched automatically in the articles of the two sub-corpora and the texts were also checked manually. Other less grammaticalised items were searched as well (*to put it simply*, *to put it differently*, etc.). The examples were analysed taking into account the function variable (cf. Murillo, 2012), together with

---

2. The SERAC corpus includes published papers written in L1 English, in L2 English by L1 Spanish speakers, and in L1 Spanish. It is the L1 English component that has been enlarged in order to have a compilation comparable with the SciELF corpus.

identification data such as specific marker, L1 language group (including ENL) and corpus division (Sci or SSH). The data were then contrasted in a number of tables, and standardised to a common basis for most comparisons (occurrences per 10,000 words). Chi-square tests were applied to assess the significance of the results, using the online statistical calculator by Preacher (2001). In order to mitigate the effect of the size of the different corpora and their components, size figures were taken into account in the calculations. If the p-value was < 0.05, the threshold level usually set in Linguistics, the results were considered statistically significant (very low p-values are represented as < 0.001). For 2x2 tables, Yates' correction was applied.

4. Results and discussion

The total frequency of reformulation markers is displayed in Table 4. The rate of occurrence seems to be similar, and no statistically significant differences were found (p-value: > 0.05).

Table 4. General frequency of reformulation markers in the SciELF and ENL SERAC corpora

	Total/ Per 10,000 words
SciELF	601 / 7.9
ENL SERAC	754 / 8.1

SciELF – ENL SERAC: Yates' p-value: 0.725; Yates' chi-square: 0.124; degrees of freedom: 1

There were, however, important differences regarding the specific markers used (Table 5):

Table 5. Frequency of specific reformulation markers in the SciELF and ENL SERAC corpora

	That is	*That is to say*	*In other words*	*Namely*	*I.e.*	**Others**
SciELF	71	27	66	73	351	13
ENL SERAC	249	4	65	45	385	6

SciELF – ENL SERAC: p-value: < 0.001; chi-square: 110.914; degrees of freedom: 6

I.e. is the most frequent reformulation marker in the SciELF corpus, with 351 occurrences. In the ENL corpus a high frequency for *i.e.* (385 cases) was found, but another marker, *that is*, was also very prominent, with 249 cases. On top of that, differences were found in the frequency of *that is to say* (27 cases in the SciELF corpus versus only 4 in the ENL corpus) and *namely* (73 cases in the SciELF corpus versus 45 in the ENL corpus). The higher frequency of *that is to say* in the SciELF

corpus may be accounted for by the existence of similar markers in some languages such as French (*c'est-à-dire*) and Spanish (*es decir*), which would influence its use (cf. Table 9), and the uses of *namely* may be related to the fact that specification processes are frequent in the same corpus, and *namely* is specialised in introducing such processes (Murillo, 2009).

Regarding less grammaticalised markers, only 13 instances were found in the SciELF corpus, mainly with the adverb *simply*, the adjective *simple*, or the adverb *differently*: *to put it simply* (1 case), *simply put* (2 cases), *put simply* (1 case), *simply* (2 cases), *in simple terms* (1 case), *to put it differently* (2 cases), *put differently* (1 case), and *said differently* (1 case). Finally, *to put it another way* (1 case) and *another way to put it* (1 case) were also documented. Non-standard variants were not documented in the corpus. In the ENL corpus, 6 less grammatical markers were found, also in the Social Sciences and Humanities papers, and each of them with 1 case: *to put it simply*, *simply put*, *to put it differently*, *differently put*, *to put it another way*, and *putting it another way*. This different overall distribution of the specific markers in the two corpora was statistically significant (p-value*:* < 0.001).

Further, some differences were found within each corpus between the binary categories of Science, on one hand, and Social Sciences and Humanities, on the other hand, as can be seen in Tables 6 and 7. Table 6 displays the general distribution of reformulation markers, and Table 7 the distribution of the different items.

Table 6. General distribution of reformulation markers per binary categories in the SciELF and ENL SERAC corpora

		Total/ Per 10,000 words
SciELF	Sci	257 / 7.9
	SSH	344 / 8.0
ENL SERAC	Sci	206 / 6.6
	SSH	548 / 8.8

SciELF: Yates' p-value: 0.006; Yates' chi-square: 0.938; degrees of freedom: 1
ENL SERAC: Yates' p-value: 11.807; Yates' chi-square: < 0.001; degrees of freedom: 1

Table 6 shows statistically significant differences in the overall frequency of reformulation markers in the ENL corpus when considering these binary categories, the markers being more frequent in the Social Sciences and Humanities (8.8 per 10,000 words) than in the Science papers (6.6); however, no such differences were found in the SciELF corpus, which displays a more homogeneous use, pointing to an overall tendency to simplification.

If we consider the frequency of the specific markers (Table 7), *i.e.* is again the most frequent marker in the two divisions of both corpora, but in the Social Sciences and Humanities we also find frequent uses of *that is* and *in other words*, in

Table 7. Distribution of specific reformulation markers per binary categories in the SciELF and ENL SERAC corpora

		That is	*That is to say*	*In other words*	*Namely*	*I.e.*	*Others*
SciELF	Sci	15	2	11	28	198	3
	SSH	56	25	55	45	153	10
ENL	Sci	69	0	4	11	122	0
SERAC	SSH	180	4	61	34	263	6

SciELF: p-value: < 0.001; chi-square: 74.99; degrees of freedom: 6
ENL SERAC: p-value: < 0.001; chi-square: 32.044; degrees of freedom: 5

the two corpora as well. Most of the less grammaticalised cases correspond to this division in both corpora (10 cases out of 13 in the SciELF corpus, and 6 cases of the ENL corpus). Thus, regardless of whether L1 or L2 English was used in the research articles, disciplinary differences seem to be at work in the same direction with respect to the use of the different markers. This is also in line with the results revealed in Hyland (2007, p. 273) for disciplines such as Applied Linguistics, Marketing and Sociology, since in the soft sciences there is more room for argumentation, so these markers would be associated to such uses. This is not surprising, taking into account that the articles share a common global purpose, international publication, sharing at the same time a common context related to their discipline cultures (e.g. Mur-Dueñas, 2009; Murillo, 2012).

The distribution of the functions as introduced by the different markers in the two corpora is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Functions of reformulation markers in the SciELF and ENL SERAC corpus

		That is	*That is to say*	*In other words*	*Namely*	*I.e.*	*Others*	**Total**
SciELF	Identification	4	0	0	2	8	0	**14**
	Specification	8	0	0	61	113	0	**182**
	Explanation	42	14	23	9	176	5	**269**
	Definition	9	2	3	1	29	0	**44**
	Denomination	0	1	0	0	10	1	**12**
	Conclusion	8	10	40	0	14	7	**79**
	Mat. oper.	0	0	0	0	1	0	**1**
ENL SERAC	Identification	3	0	0	1	40	0	**44**
	Specification	14	0	0	43	27	0	**84**
	Explanation	163	2	12	1	245	6	**429**
	Definition	23	1	0	0	44	0	**68**
	Denomination	6	0	0	0	20	0	**26**
	Conclusion	39	1	53	0	3	0	**96**
	Mat. oper.	1	0	0	0	6	0	**7**

SciELF – ENL SERAC (totals): 88.551; p-value: < 0.001; degrees of freedom: 7

Regarding functions, we can see in Table 8 that in the SciELF corpus explanation and specification are the most frequent functions (269 and 182 occurrences, respectively), and they are mostly introduced by *i.e.* (176 cases for explanation and 113 for specification) (cf. Murillo, submitted). However, in the ENL SERAC corpus (Table 8), besides *i.e.*, *that is* is also frequent in explanations (245 and 163 cases, respectively); explanation is in fact the most prominent function in this corpus (with 429 cases), and a lower occurrence of specifications (84 cases) was observed, with a wider range of other functions occurring on a similar basis: 96 cases of conclusion and 68 cases of definition. The less grammaticalised markers introduce mainly processes of conclusion or explanation in both corpora. The differences between the distributions of the functions in the two corpora are statistically significant (p-value: < 0.001)

It is perhaps interesting to highlight the uses of *that is to say* introducing processes of explanation (Example (8)) and conclusion (Example (9)), and *namely* introducing processes of explanation (Example (10)) and definition (Example (11)) in the SciELF corpus, as these combinations are not frequent or existent at all in the ENL corpus.

(8) *A scientific description of landscape requires the isolation of its synthetic qualities by procedures capable of being described and reproduced, <u>that is to say</u>, their main characteristics must be detected.*   (SSH60; SciELF)

(9) *If such a situation were the case, the explanation of what we should do after the discovery of disagreement offered a few lines above would fail. In fact, we couldn't simply resolve disagreement in one way or another by acknowledging that, say, my belief is better supported by the evidence than my opponent's is, for we are peers with respect to the evidence that bears on the targeted issue. Moreover, suppose that we are more or less on a par with respect to our judgemental abilities, freedom from bias, thoughtfulness, carefulness, and so on. <u>That is to say</u>, the disagreement can't be resolved by pointing to the fact that one of the two subjects is less biased, more thoughtful, and more careful than the other.*   (SSH39; SciELF)

(10) *Owing to this fact, the total number of processed samples is equal to 47, <u>namely</u> 6 for farms A and B, 10 for farm C and 25 for D one.*   (Sci47; SciELF)

(11) *<…> the evidence we get is what I shall call the Gettier intuition, <u>namely</u> the intuition whose propositional content is that if a subject is Gettier-related to a proposition, she has a justified true belief in it without having knowledge.*

(SSH39; SciELF)

These differences can also be complemented by the results of the general reformulation rhetorical patterns of the different L1 language groups or similects included in the SciELF corpus (Table 9).

Table 9. Distribution of reformulation markers in the different similects of the SciELF corpus

	That is	That is to say	In other words	Namely	I.e.	Others	Total/ Per 10,000 words
Chinese	5	1	1	6	8	0	21 / 2.5
Swedish	1	0	0	1	20	0	22 / 3.7
Finnish	9	1	7	7	33	0	57 / 4.6
Russian	3	0	7	3	30	2	45 / 6.3
Portuguese	15	0	5	3	20	3	46 / 8.1
French	6	5	21	4	33	1	70 / 7.7
Spanish	3	11	8	17	33	0	72 / 9.1
Czech	9	4	14	6	77	5	115 / 10.5
Romanian	1	0	0	5	24	0	30 / 11.9
Italian	19	5	3	21	73	2	123 / 21.0

SciELF (totals): chi-square: 206.93; p-value: < 0.001; degrees of freedom: 9

What we see in Table 9 is a clear continuum from the lowest rate in Chinese to the highest normalised rates in some Romance languages such as Romanian or Italian. The L1 language groups have been arranged in the table following this continuum: Chinese (2.5 reformulation markers per 10,000 words), then Swedish (3.7), Finnish (4.6), Russian (6.3), Portuguese (8.1), French (7.7), Spanish (9.1), Czech (10.5), Romanian (11.9), and Italian (21.0). The differences found between these language groups do not depict a homogenous variety (p-value: < 0.001), but rather a situation of "language contact" in which different groups of L1 speakers using English as a second language (Mauranen, 2014, p. 229) seem to be importing the rhetorical patterns of their L1s. That is, the writers are contributing to a common cultural context, but they are doing it in different ways (cf. Murillo, submitted).

Further, taking into account that the total number of reformulation markers in the ENL SERAC corpus was 754, which amounts to 8.1 cases per 10,000 words (Table 4), we can find significant differences between these results of the L1 English papers and those of the L2 English papers written by authors from some of the L1 language groups in the SciELF corpus (Table 9), specifically:

– between L1 English (ENL) and the three language groups with lower frequencies (SciELF): L1 English and L1 Chinese (Yates' chi-square: 31.365; p-value: < 0.001), L1 English and L1 Swedish (Yates' chi-square: 13.546; p-value: < 0.001), and L1 English and L1 Finnish (Yates' chi-square: 16.455; p-value: < 0.001);
– and between L1 English (ENL) and the three language groups with higher frequencies (SciELF): English and Czech (Yates' chi-square: 6.767; p-value: 0.009), English and Romanian (Yates' chi-square: 3.936; p-value: 0.047), and English and Italian (Yates' chi-square: 102.194; p-value: < 0.001).

To a certain extent, ELF is similar to L1 English, as has been indicated in Table 4 (which displays the general frequency in the two subcorpora analysed) and Table 7 (which shows the distribution of specific reformulation markers per binary categories of soft/hard sciences). However, these results from Table 9 just described point to the conclusion that beyond similarities there are specificities due to language contact.

5. Concluding remarks

In this paper I have attempted to contribute to the description of written academic ELF by comparing a corpus of unedited ELF research articles, written in L2 English (drawing from previous work [Murillo, submitted]), with another of ENL research articles, written in L1 English. It is my contention that this type of analysis can be fruitful, and the data presented in this paper point in that direction.

Specifically, in this paper I have analysed the general and specific frequency of a fixed set of the markers that are used to introduce reformulations in the SciELF corpus and in the ENL SERAC corpus; I have also contrasted the processes introduced by these markers (specification, explanation, definition, denomination, conclusion, etc.) in the two corpora, and also across the Science and Social Sciences and Humanities divisions; finally I have tried to assess if any particular trends exist in the different "similects" (Mauranen, 2012) in terms of the frequency of use of the markers represented in the SciELF corpus, in comparison with the ENL research articles as well.

The results suggest that there are some common trends regarding the general frequency of reformulation markers in the two corpora. The rate of use of specific markers in the hard/soft science categories seems parallel in both corpora; after all, as Mauranen states, "[w]hat we can glean from corpora is that ELF is, in the main, very much like the rest of English" (2016, p. 26).

However, the results also reveal a tendency towards specialisation/simplification in the SciELF corpus, in the more homogeneous overall use in the Science and Social Sciences and Humanities divisions, in the types of reformulation markers used – as the marker *i.e.* predominates in this corpus –, and in the functions performed – explanation and specification being the most frequent ones. In the ENL corpus more variety is found, with a higher frequency of reformulation markers in the Social Sciences and Humanities subcorpus, and with a higher frequency of *that is*, besides that of *i.e.* in the whole corpus, and also of other functions such as definition and conclusion. The use of *i.e.* in the SciELF corpus seems to be cost-effective, as *i.e.* is a very simple marker, with no phraseological complexities, and its preference over other markers would entail a simplification of the repertoire (Mauranen, 2012, pp. 30–31; Mauranen et al., 2015). Further, the fact that explanation and

specification are the most frequent functions introduced by reformulation markers in the SciELF corpus is in line with the tendency towards explicitation that has been pointed out as a salient characteristic of spoken ELF (Mauranen, 2012, 2014, p. 243). It seems logical that academics using ELF may judge it necessary to restate ideas so that they are clearer for a diverse community in an ELF context.

Moreover, when looking at the rate of use of reformulation markers in the different similects or L1 groups of the SciELF corpus, a high degree of heterogeneity is found, revealing a clear cline. There are in fact great differences between some of these similects, which leads us to consider the influence of the rhetorical patterns of the different L1s in the SciELF corpus. L1 English would be in the middle of the cline, so what we find in the SciELF corpus is a hybrid language (Lorés-Sanz, 2016; Mauranen et al., 2010), which is similar to English but which presents its own peculiarities. In fact, writers whose first language is other than English are communicating in English with one another. In Mauranen's words "we can characterize ELF as what could perhaps be called 'second-order language contact': a contact between hybrids" (2014, p. 229).

Regarding these linguistic and rhetorical differences, we can conclude that the use of English as an international language may be contributing to a gradual "remodeling" of this language (cf. Anderson, 2010, pp. 138–139). The study of written ELF based on the analysis of different types of corpora can no doubt help us to describe and try to explain its characteristics and to understand the nature of the underlying processes taking place.

Acknowledgements

References

Anderson, L. (2010). Standards of acceptability in English as an Academic Lingua Franca: Evidence from a corpus of peer-reviewed working papers by international scholars. In R. Cagliero & J. Jenkins (Eds.), *Discourses, communities and global Englishes* (pp. 115–143). Bern: Peter Lang.

Blakemore, D. (1987). *Semantic constraints on relevance*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Bordet, G. (2018). 'This dissonance': bolstering credibility in academic abstracts. In P. Mur-Dueñas & J. Šinkūnienė (Eds.), *Intercultural perspectives on research writing* (pp. 83–103). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.18.04bor

Carey, R. (2013). On the other side: Formulaic organizing chunks in spoken and written academic ELF. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 2(2), 207–228. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2013-0013

Chalker, S. (1996). *Collins Cobuild English guides 9: Linking words*. London: Harper Collins.

Charolles, M., & Coltier, D. (1986). Le contrôle de la compréhension dans une activité rédactionnelle: Élements pour l'analyse des reformulations paraphrastiques. *Pratiques*, 49, 51–66.

Clyne, M. (1994). *Inter-cultural communication at work. Cultural values in discourse*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2006). Efficiency in ELF communication. From pragmatic motives to lexico-grammatical innovation. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 5(2), 59–93.

Cuenca, M. J. (2003). Two ways to reformulate: A contrastive analysis of reformulation markers. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 35(7), 1069–1093. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(03)00004-3

Del Saz, M. (2007). *English discourse markers of reformulation*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Dontcheva Navratilova, O. (2018). A contrastive (English, Czech English, Czech) study of rhetorical functions of citations in linguistics research articles. In P. Mur-Dueñas & J. Šinkūnienė (Eds.), *Intercultural perspectives on research writing* (pp. 15–37). Amsterdam: Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.18.01don

Fløttum, K. (1994). À propos de *c'est-à-dire* et ses correspondants norvégiens. *Cahiers de Linguistique Française*, 15, 109–130.

Gülich, E., & Kotschi, T. (1983). Les marqueurs de reformulation paraphrastique. *Cahiers de Linguistique Française*, 5, 305–351.

Gülich, E., & Kotschi, T. (1987). Les actes de reformulations dans la consultation. La dame de Caluire. In P. Bange (Ed.), *L'analyse des interactions verbales. La dame de Caluire: Une consultation* (pp. 15–81). Bern: Peter Lang.

Gülich, E., & Kotschi, T. (1995). Discourse production in oral communication. In U. M. Quasthoff (Ed.), *Aspects of oral communication* (pp. 30–66). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110879032.30

Hinds J. (1987). Reader versus writer responsibility: A new typology. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 141–152). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2007). Applying a gloss. Exemplifying and reformulating in academic discourse. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(2), 266–285. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm011

Lafuente-Millán, E. (2014). Reader engagement across cultures, languages and contexts of publication in business research articles. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 24(2), 201–223. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12019

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011). The study of authorial voice: Using a Spanish–English corpus to explore linguistic transference. *Corpora*, 6(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2011.0002

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2016). ELF in the making? Simplification and hybridity in abstract writing. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 5(1153–81.

Mauranen, A. (2012). *Exploring ELF: Academic English shaped by nonnative speakers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mauranen, A. (2014). Lingua franca discourse in academic contexts: Shaped by complexity. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Discourse in Context: Contemporary Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 3 (pp. 225–245). London; New York: Bloomsbury.

Mauranen, A. (2016). ELF corpora: Design, difficulties and triumphs. In M. L. Pitzl & R. Osimk-Teasdale (Eds.), *English as a Lingua Franca: Perspectives and prospects: Contributions in Honour of Barbara Seidlhofer* (pp. 19–30). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501503177-007

Mauranen, A., Pérez-Llantada, C., & Swales, J. M. (2010). Academic Englishes: A standardized knowledge? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of World Englishes* (pp. 634–652). London: Routledge.

Mauranen, A., Carey, R., & Ranta, E. (2015). New answers to familiar questions: English as a lingua franca. In D. Biber & R. Reppen (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of English Corpus Linguistics* (pp. 401–417). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139764377.023

Murat, M., & Cartier-Bresson, B. (1987). C'est-à-dire ou la reprise interpretative. *Langue Française*, 73, La reformulation du sens dans le discours, 5–15. https://doi.org/10.3406/lfr.1987.6425

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2009). Logical markers in L1 (Spanish and English) and L2 (English) Business research articles. *English Text Construction*, 2(2), 246–264. https://doi.org/10.1075/etc.2.2.07mur

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2015). Looking into ELF variants: A study of evaluative it-clauses in research articles. *ESP Today*, 3(2), 160–179.

Murillo, S. (2009). Los marcadores de reformulación explicativa en español y en inglés: Estudio contrastivo de 'o sea' y sus traducciones 'that is (to say)' e 'in other words'. In M. P. Garcés Gómez (Ed.), *La reformulación del discurso en español en comparación con otras lenguas (catalán, francés italiano, inglés, alemán e islandés)* (pp. 137–161). Madrid: BOE/Universidad Carlos III de Madrid.

Murillo, S. (2012). The use of reformulation markers in Business Management research articles: An intercultural analysis. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 17(1), 69–90. https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.17.1.03mur

Murillo, S. (2016). Reformulation markers and polyphony: A contrastive English-Spanish analysis. *Languages in Contrast*, 16(1), 1–30. https://doi.org/10.1075/lic.16.1.01mur

Murillo, S. (submitted). Some evidence on the rhetorical patterns of written academic ELF: Reformulation and its markers in research articles.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2010). The 'dialectics of change' as a facet of globalisation: Epistemic modality in academic writing. In M. F. Ruiz-Garrido, J. C. Palmer-Silveira, & I. Fortanet-Gómez (Eds.), *English for professional and academic purposes* (pp. 25–42). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Povolná, R. (2016). A cross cultural analysis of conjuncts as indicators of the interaction and negotiation of meaning in research articles. *Topics in Linguistics*, 17(1), 45–63. https://doi.org/10.1515/topling-2016-0004

Povolná, R. (2018). Conference abstracts in English: A challenge for non-Anglophone writers. In P. Mur-Dueñas & J. Šinkūnienė (Eds.), *Intercultural perspectives on research writing* (pp. 151–171). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.18.07pov

Preacher, K. J. (2001). Calculation for the chi-square test: An interactive calculation tool for chi-square tests of goodness of fit and independence [Computer software]. Available from <http://quantpsy.org> (15 January 2017).

Pitzl, M. L., & Osimk-Teasdale, R. (2016). Introduction. In M. L. Pitzl & R. Osimk-Teasdale (Eds.), *English as a Lingua Franca: Perspectives and prospects* (pp. 1–9). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501503177-005

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Harlow: Longman.

Seidlhofer, B. (2006). Towards making 'Euro-English' a linguistic reality. In K. Bolton & B. B. Kachru (Eds.), *World Englishes. Critical concepts in Linguistics* (Vol. III, pp. 47–50). London: Routledge.

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Shaw, P. (2003). Evaluation and promotion across languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(4), 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00050-X

Sperber, D., & Wilson, D. (1986/1995). *Relevance: Communication and cognition*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Šinkūnienė, J. (2018). The power of English: *I* and *we* in Lithuanian, Lithuanian English and British English research writing. In P. Mur-Dueñas & J. Šinkūnienė (Eds.), *Intercultural perspectives on research writing* (pp. 59–79*)*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.18.03sin

Vassileva, I. (2001). Commitment and detachment in English and Bulgarian academic writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20(1), 83–102. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00029-0

Corpora

ENL SERAC 2016. *English as a Native Language - Spanish-English Research Article Corpus. InterLAE research group*. Universidad de Zaragoza. <http://www.interlae.com/serac>

SciELF 2015. *The SciELF Corpus. Director: Anna Mauranen*. Compilation manager: Ray Carey. <http://www.helsinki.fi/elfa/scielf.html>

CHAPTER 12

Evaluation in research article introductions in the Social Sciences written by English as a lingua franca and English native users

Enrique Lafuente-Millán

Universidad de Zaragoza

The present paper investigates cultural and linguistic differences in the use of evaluation in Research Article (RA) introductions in the Social Sciences. To do this a corpus of published RA introductions written by English as a Native Language (ENL) researchers was compared with a corpus of introductions extracted from RAs manuscripts written by English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) users as part of the Sci-ELF corpus. The texts were analysed manually and several parameters of evaluation were identified, which made the classification of evaluative acts possible. The results revealed introductions by ELF writers do not comply with the CARS structure and show peculiar rhetorical and evaluative features which diverge from the Anglo-Saxon rhetorical patterns typically used by ENL writers.

Keywords: evaluation, discourse analysis, corpus analysis, article introductions, move analysis, ELF, intercultural variations

1. Introduction

In the last decades, English has unquestionably become an indispensable vehicle for the efficient transmission of scientific knowledge as well as a requirement for overall academic success. In our globalised and interconnected world, a great majority of scholars in different fields routinely use English to share and discuss their findings with an international audience. In the face of the growing role of digital communication in the academia, the RA still retains its preponderance as the main medium for scholarly communication. In fact, the number of RAs published in international academic journals, together with the number of citations those articles have received, are the most important measures for establishing a scholar's prestige and merits for academic promotion.

© 2018 John Benjamins Publishing Company

In spite of the tremendous increase in the volume of peer-reviewed articles which are published every year (Hyland, in this volume), competition for publication in indexed international journals has become even fiercer, as the number of submissions to these journals has grown exponentially. Interestingly, most of the researchers submitting their manuscripts for review are speakers of English as an additional language (EAL) who, besides demonstrating the quality of their research, need to grapple with the additional difficulty of writing in a language which is not their L1.

In the last decades some voices have been raised against the unequal opportunities for non-Anglophone writers trying to publish their research in English (Canagarajah, 1996, 2002; Ferguson, 2007; Flowerdew, 1999, 2007). A number of authors have warned about the negative impact that such inequality may have for the advancement of disciplinary fields, inasmuch as non-Anglophone authors can offer different cultural perspectives and unique contributions to their fields (Bennett, 2014; Canagarajah, 1996; Flowerdew, 2001; Seidlhofer, 2012). Attention has also been drawn to the unfairness of a situation in which ENL academics often decide what counts as appropriate rhetorical style and text organization (Mauranen, Pérez-Llantada, & Swales, 2010), despite the fact that academic communication takes place largely among non-native scholars using English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

Given the privileged position of the RA in academic communication and the growing awareness of the challenges which EAL writers have to face in order to have their articles published, it is not surprising that so much linguistic research has focused on the rhetorical strategies and textual preferences of scholars from different cultural backgrounds when writing their research in their native language and in English. Studies within the field of Intercultural Rhetoric have identified notable differences in the use which writers from different cultures make of a number of rhetorical features in RAs, including metatext (Valero-Garcés, 1996), metadiscourse (Mu, Zhang, Ehrich, & Hong, 2015; Mur-Dueñas, 2011), epistemic markers (Vassileva, 2001; Vold, 2006), authorial presence (Lorés-Sanz, 2011; Martínez, 2005; Molino, 2010; Sheldon, 2009; Vassileva, 1998;), engagement markers (Lafuente-Millán, 2014a; Mur-Dueñas, 2008) and rhetorical structure (Burgess, 2002; Hirano, 2009; Jogthong, 2001).

The expression of evaluative meaning is a particularly sensitive aspect of rhetoric in research writing, especially with the increasing pressure on academics to publish their research in international journals. To succeed in getting their work published (and cited) research writers need to convince their readers of the newsworthiness and significance of their work vis-à-vis existing research by skilfully projecting evaluative or critical attitude. Much research has been devoted to the study of the persuasive and interpersonal potential of evaluation not only in

research articles (see, for example, Blagojević, 2009; Giannoni, 2005; Hyland, 2005; Lafuente-Millán, 2012, 2014a; Mur-Dueñas, 2010; Shaw, 2003) and research article abstracts (Martín-Martín & Burgess, 2004; Stotesbury, 2003), but also in other academic genres such as MA theses (Xie, 2016), referee reports (Fortanet Gómez, 2008) and book reviews (Alcaraz-Ariza, 2011; Itakura & Tsui, 2011; Moreno & Suárez, 2008.

Even though evaluation in research writing has already received considerable attention in the literature, most research has focused on word level features often detaching lexical items from their immediate context and their rhetorical structure. In addition, cross-cultural studies on evaluation in RAs have normally analysed corpora of published texts, which are frequently revised and corrected by "literacy brokers" (Lillis & Curry 2006) in order to provide a version of the text which is closer to the dominant Anglophone rhetorical standards. The aim of this article is to study the use of attitudinal evaluation in RA introductions extracted from unpublished manuscripts written by EAL writers in the Social Sciences, and to compare them with article introductions from RAs published in international journals in the same area. My analysis will examine the type of evaluation used across the two subcorpora when the writers perform each of the moves in the CARS rhetorical structure (Swales, 1990, 2004), in an attempt to connect evaluation to its rhetorical context. In addition, this study will investigate possible differences between the two corpora in the projection of attitude across the three rhetorical moves. Ultimately, by identifying and examining these rhetorical differences, I hope to raise awareness about the potential challenges which EAL writers may face when writing their RAs in English for an international audience, which may in turn contribute to a more accepting attitude towards rhetorical styles differing from the Anglophone norm.

2.   Theoretical background

2.1   Evaluation

Despite the abundant research on the expression of evaluation in academic discourse, for some time now scholars (Hood, 2004; Hyland, 2005; Silver, 2003) have been highlighting the need for a descriptive model of analysis that would make it possible to compare the results obtained by contrastive studies in diverse areas, genres and cultures. A review of different models and approaches to this aspect of rhetoric reveals that evaluation is an elusive and many-sided phenomenon, which allows many different perspectives for its study and classification.

A number of concepts including *attitude*, *evaluation*, *stance*, *appraisal* or *affect* have been proposed in the literature to demarcate loosely similar aspects such as

the writers' personal response, and attitude or value judgement of the entities they are referring to. In one of the earliest definitions, Hunston (1993, p. 58) described evaluation as "anything which indicates the writer's attitude to the value of an entity in the text". Nevertheless, later definitions of evaluation have delineated a range of additional interpersonal and pragmatic meanings such as *epistemic modality* (Hunston, 1993; Thetela, 1997; Thompson & Hunston, 2001), *moral judgement* (Martin, 2001; Martin & Rose, 2003), *expectedness* (Thompson & Hunston, 2001) or *self-mention* (Hyland, 2005).

In the present study, evaluation will be defined more narrowly to refer only to the expressions conveying the writer's personal attitudes or feelings about the entities that s/he is talking about, which entails that outside evaluation, i.e. attitudes expressed by people other than the writer, will be left out. This definition roughly matches Conrad and Biber's (2001) notion of attitudinal stance, comprising both the emotional response and the value judgements of the writer, but does not include expressions of epistemic stance.

An obstacle to the analysis of evaluation through corpus analysis is that evaluation is expressed by units of meaning with non-defined boundaries (Hunston, 2011), where evaluation is realised by several items occurring in a context. The study of evaluation, therefore, requires identifying the pragmatic meaning or function performed by these units, which Hunston compares to Halliday's prosodic meanings. Most of the studies which have attempted to quantify evaluation in academic texts have opted for a word-level or lexical approach (Hyland, 2005; Lafuente-Millán, 2012; Soler, 2002; Stotesbury, 2003; Swales & Burke, 2003; Thetela, 1997). Even though this approach allows for the study of large corpora through the use of concordance software and simplifies contrastive analysis of the data obtained, it fails to identify and adequately quantify evaluation when realised by several items along stretches of discourse larger than the clause.

In order to quantify and contrast evaluation across cultures an approach is needed that allows us to identify evaluation at the pragmatic or functional level. The model proposed by Moreno and Suárez (2008) constitutes a valuable step in that direction, insofar as they adopt a unit of evaluation, the critical act, which is functional, rather than lexical, in nature. More recently, Xie (2016) has also adopted a discourse semantic perspective (instead of a lexico grammatical approach) so as to study evaluative meanings in MA theses written in English by Chinese students. Using this approach, Xie was able to find that Chinese students writing literature review MA theses in Applied Linguistics favor explicit evaluation over implicit or evoked evaluation.

Compared to evaluation in book reviews and literature reviews, evaluation in RAs is more complex and multidimensional, since it involves different categories or scales of value, it is directed at different types of entities and it performs different

interpersonal and strategic functions. As a result, evaluative units need to be defined more closely using a set of parameters which can ensure that the evaluative phenomena described are functionally comparable, in other words, that the *evaluative acts* being compared have similar rhetorical and interpersonal effects. To do this, it is important that our analysis and description of evaluative acts takes into account a number of features or parameters, including context (the section and the section move where the evaluative act takes place), the type of value which is foregrounded, the polarity of this evaluation (positive or negative) and the entity (Thetela, 1997) receiving the evaluation (i.e. *entities in the research world* such as studies published by peers or *entities in the real world*, such as institutions, companies, professional practices, etc.).

2.2   Research-oriented evaluation and topic-oriented evaluation

Previous research on evaluation has often attempted to identify and classify the types of values which are usually ascribed to the recipient of the evaluative acts in academic texts (e.g. Hunston, 1993; Soler, 2002; Swales & Burke, 2003). Nevertheless, Thetela (1997) argues that, when examining evaluation in academic writing, we also need to take into account the entity which is being evaluated and classified. Thetela differentiates between research-oriented evaluation (ROE) and topic-oriented evaluation (TOE), where the term "topic" refers to the area which is under investigation in the real world sphere, instead of the investigation itself. This distinction is significant insofar as, while in research-oriented evaluative acts the writer and the reader engage into interpersonal negotiation about the merits of different entities related to the sphere of research and knowledge construction (research methods, hypotheses, findings, etc.), topic-oriented evaluation is not as threatening in interpersonal and rhetorical terms. Distinguishing between ROE and TOE in our analysis may therefore be helpful to provide a more accurate description of the interpersonal tactics employed by RAs writers.

2.3   Move structure

Following extensive genre analysis on the structure of RA introductions, Swales (1990) proposed what became known as the Create-A-Reseach-Space (CARS) model for the analysis of the rhetorical organization of the RA introductions. Swales' model (1990) outlines three basic functional moves: (1) establishing a territory, (2) establishing a niche, and (3) occupying the niche (later reformulated as "presenting present work"). These moves were in turn realised by means of several specific rhetorical choices which are called "steps". In response to later research, Swales (2004) modified

his model to reflect the variation which exists across different research disciplines in how the three move types are realized, reducing the number of possible steps in Moves 1 and 2 and adding further optional steps in Move 3.

Based on their rhetorical structure, RA introductions may be seen as a fertile ground for promotional/evaluative acts, inasmuch as RA authors are expected to establish the interest and importance (centrality) of the topic, as well as the originality and value of their own research in relation to previous studies. Combining move analysis with the study of the evaluative acts used in RA introductions may reveal relevant insights on the way researchers from different cultures evaluate their work and the work of others in their texts.

3. Methodology

The corpus used for this study consists of two comparable corpora of RA introductions: the ELF subcorpus, extracted from the SciELF corpus (SciELF, 2015) and the ENL subcorpus, drawn from the SERAC corpus (University of Zaragoza, Spain). The SciELF corpus consists of unpublished research papers from many different disciplines and fields which were written by EAL writers and had not undergone professional proofreading nor had they been checked by a native speaker of English. The ELF subcorpus is a selection of 24 article introductions (totalling 14,543 words) from the ScieELF corpus belonging to several disciplines within the Social Sciences, including Economics, Social Policy, Social Anthropology, Social Psychology and Psychology. The ENL subcorpus includes 24 article introductions (12,566 words) from RAs written in English by scholars affiliated to Anglophone universities and published in high impact international journals in the area of Business Management (BM).

In order to identify the move structure of the introductions, each of the texts in the corpora was read and analysed thoroughly. The move analysis was carried out following the steps laid down by Kanoksilapatham (2007, p. 34) and Swales' (2004) revised CARS model for RA introductions was adopted. The introductions were then read a second time in order to identify all the evaluative acts. When an instance was found, the whole stretch of discourse was copied and pasted onto an excel file and four different factors were identified and recorded: (1) the entity under analysis (ROE, which was further subdivided into research results and methods, and TOE); (2) the category of value; (3) the author's perception of that value as positive or negative; and (4) the specific text and rhetorical move where the evaluative act was found. To improve the reliability of the analysis, two rubrics were used for reference during the identification of the entities evaluated, as well as for the identification and sorting of value categories (see Appendix). In addition,

chi-square statistical tests (Preacher, 2001) were performed to establish whether the differences in the occurrence of moves and in the distribution of total values were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Corpus size was considered in the contingency tables. Very low *p values were represented as* < 0.001 in the tables.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Move analysis

The initial analysis of the rhetorical structure of the introductions in the corpus yielded somewhat surprising results. As we can see in Table 1, while the three moves in the CARS structure were found in all the RAs in the ENL subcorpus, these rhetorical moves were more optional in the texts belonging to the ELF subcorpus, which often did not adhere to the CARS structure. It is particularly remarkable that Move 2 appeared in only 29% of the RAs in this subcorpus.

Table 1. Presence of the three moves across the corpora (in %)

	Move 1	Move 2	Move 3
ENL corpus	24 (100%)	24 (100%)	24 (100%)
ELF corpus	21 (87.5%)	7 (29.2%)	19 (79.2%)
p-value	0.654	<0.001	0.445

Table 2. Average number of words per move* across the corpora

	Move 1	Move 2	Move 3
ENL Corpus	205.0	112.0	206.7
ELF Corpus	504.7	160.4	148.5

* the average is calculated based on RA introductions where the move is present

The omission of Move 2 in the RA introductions written by ELF scholars may be due to a number of reasons. A possible explanation is that scholars attempting to publish their research in local journals (written in English or in their L1) may be less conscious of the need to evaluate previous work and create a niche for their research (Burgess, 2002; Najjar, 1990), as competition for publication is weaker than in international journals. Unfortunately, it cannot be confirmed whether the texts in the ELF subcorpus were aimed at local publication since that information, i.e. type of journal, was not provided in the SciELF corpus (SciELF, 2015).

In contrast, other researchers (Hirano, 2009; Jogthong, 2001, Sheldon, 2011; Taylor & Chen, 1991; among others) have argued that the influence of the values

and interaction norms which are prevalent in certain periphery cultures may be a more plausible explanation for the low incidence of Move 2 in RA introductions written by ELF authors. Jogthong (2001) analyzed 40 RA introductions published in Thai journals in the fields of medicine and education and found that almost half of them did not include Move 2. Similarly, Hirano (2009) found that Move 2 was excluded in 80% of the RA introductions written in Portuguese for a Brazilian journal in Applied Linguistics, whereas this move was used consistently in RAs published by authors from different nationalities in a top international journal in that same field. Other researchers have found more modest cross-cultural differences in the use of Move 2 in RA introductions. Sheldon (2011) found 77% of the RA introductions written in English by Spanish researchers in the field of Applied Linguistics contained Move 2, while this move was found in almost 89% of the RAs written in Spanish as L1. Lafuente-Millán (2014b) reported a moderate incidence of Move 2 (66%) in the RA introductions written by Spanish scholars and published in English top journals in Business Management, while this move appeared in all the RAs published by Anglophone writers in the same journals.

Although the incidence of Move 3 in the ELF corpus is much higher than that of Move 2, more than 20% of the ELF articles did not include this move ("presentation of the present work"). These differences were not, however, statistically significant. There is limited research on the use of Move 3 across writers from different cultures. Martín and León Pérez (2014) studied cross-cultural differences in the way authors present their work in RA introductions and found that English authors used more frequently steps belonging to Move 3 than non-Anglophone (Spanish) authors writing in their own language. Nevertheless, these cultural differences, were found to be less remarkable than those due to disciplinary conventions.

The results presented seem to confirm previous research suggesting that the writers' culture and L1 are important aspects shaping the rhetorical and interpersonal style of ELF writers. Nevertheless, the higher frequency of Move 2 in RAs written for international publication (Sheldon, 2011; Lafuente Millán, 2014b) compared to RAs written for local publication in Portuguese (Hirano, 2009) or Thai (Jogthong, 2001), suggests that the context of publication may also be a key factor which influences the rhetorical structure adopted by RA writers, as already pointed out by Burgess (2002). In addition, the very notable differences in the incidence of this move found in my corpus could also be partly accounted for by the fact that the ELF subcorpus consists of manuscripts which have not undergone revision or editing, and which may evolve closer to the Anglo-Saxon standard during the review and editing process preceding publication.

4.2 Overal results on evaluation

As Mauranen et al. (2010) explain, academic writers infuse their texts with evaluative and interpersonal meanings so as to highlight their findings and to convince their readers of the value of their research. This interpersonal dialogue with the readers is particularly intense at some rhetorical episodes, such as article introductions, where authors need to "create a research space" (Swales, 1990) so as to convince their audience about the originality and usefulness of the research they are about to report. The results obtained in my study support this claim, inasmuch as the introductions in both subcorpora contain a considerable number of evaluative acts (see Table 3). There is, however, a significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) use of evaluative markers in the introductions in the ENL corpus (332 instances) compared to the ELF corpus (239). There are also large differences between the two corpora across the three moves of the CARS structure. In the ELF subcorpus evaluative acts were less frequent in Moves 2 and 3. In contrast, they were more numerous in Move 1, which is lengthier in the ELF subcorpus (see Table 2). This suggests the ELF academic writers were more conscious of the need to set the context for their research by providing the necessary background.

While the frequencies of evaluative acts across moves and entities show interesting differences across the two corpora, a more fine-grained analysis is needed in order to understand the strategic purposes for which evaluative acts are used in these texts. Such analysis will take into account the object of the evaluation, i.e. the entity which is assessed, and the different values assigned to these entities.

Table 3. Overall frequency of research-oriented and topic-oriented evaluative acts

	Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		TOTAL	
	ELF	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*
ROE	36	19	20	63	41	81	97*	163*
TOE	113	31	4	10	7	27	124*	68*
TOTAL	**149***	**50***	**24***	**73***	**48***	**108***	**221**	**231**

Significant difference between total values in the two subcorpora ($p < 0.05$) is indicated by an asterisk (*).

4.3 Entities evaluated

As discussed above, evaluative acts may be divided into research-oriented vs topic-oriented evaluation depending on the entity which is subjected to evaluation (Thetela, 1997). Table 4 reveals rather surprising results when this variable is considered. The authors of the ELF texts performed a significantly higher number

of evaluative acts oriented to entities belonging to the real-world sphere (TOE) in their introductions, most of which are concentrated in Move 1, whose function is to establish the significance of the topic chosen by setting the context to their research. Within topic-oriented evaluative acts both ELF and ENL writers predominantly evaluated factors, issues or key concepts (Example (1)) related to their professional and social sphere[1] (coded as T4) and procedures and practices in the real world (Example (2)), coded as T2.

(1) *Academic freedom along with university autonomy, its institutional counterpart, is seen as **a central value** in higher education and has become an increasing focus of attention since the beginning of the 21st century.* (SSH1 move1)

(2) ***The basis of maintaining adaptability** to environmental changes, growth, business competitiveness and long-term business growth is the ability of firms to innovate.* (SSH13 move1)

Table 4. Absolute frequencies of research-oriented and topic-oriented entities

	Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		TOTAL	
	ELF	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*
Mx (disciplinary methods)	3	1	5	3	0	1	8	5
M1 (methods by author)	0	0	0	0	14	13	14	13
M2 (methods by peers)	5	1	1	3	1	2	7	6
Rx (disciplinary)	15	7	13	39	5	11	33	57
R1 (research by autor)	0	0	0	0	19	44	19	44
R2 (research by peers)	13	10	1	18	2	10	16	38
TOTAL ROE	**36**	**19**	**20***	**63***	**41***	**81***	**97***	**163***
T1 (companies, institutions)	18	1	2	0	2	0	22	1
T2 (procedures, practices)	23	17	2	3	0	3	25	23
T3 (challenges, changes)	10	0	0	0	1	0	11	0
T4 (issues, concepts, beliefs)	48	13	0	6	3	21	51	40
T5 (others)	14	0	0	1	1	3	15	4
TOTAL TOE	**113***	**31***	**4**	**10**	**7**	**27**	**124***	**68***

Significant difference between total values in the two subcorpora ($p < 0.05$) is indicated by an asterisk (*).

---

1. In the examples presented the entity under evaluation has been underlined, while the words expressing the value assigned to that entity are in bold.

While topic-oriented evaluative acts were not as frequent in the ENL corpus, evaluation of research-oriented entities was significantly higher in the texts written by Anglophone speakers. Topic-oriented evaluation does not involve the type of interpersonal engagement which takes place when writers strategically negotiate with their readers the value of their own methods or results, as well as of those of other scholars. Evaluation aimed at research entities is, therefore, potentially face-threatening and, if they are not adequately constructed, may even be in conflict with the norms and epistemic practices of certain disciplines. Despite this, the results (Table 4) indicate that Anglophone speakers were quite inclined to using this type of evaluative acts to evaluate disciplinary concepts (coded as Rx), the research of peers (R2) as well as their own research (R1). A case in point is found in Example (3), where the author makes certain claims as to the contribution made by his or her study which may be perceived as imposing by the disciplinary audience.

(3) *By more fully analyzing the relative position of firms seeking foreign knowledge, I further our understanding of how foreign knowledge may or may not be useful to both leading and lagging firms.* (ENL17 move3)

The results show that the purposes for which evaluation is used vary across the three moves of the article introductions analysed. This is reflected in the higher frequency of certain evaluative acts as well as in the entities which are evaluated. In Move 2, RA writers need to "establish the niche" (Swales, 2004) for their research, by pointing out limitations or gaps in the aspects which have been investigated by previous studies or by the discipline as a whole (see Example (4)). Significant cross-cultural differences were found in the incidence of research-oriented evaluative acts in Move 2, which were far more frequent in RA introductions in the ENL corpus. It is also worth noting that, while ENL writers evaluated reseach by peers (R2) and disciplinary hypotheses and concepts (Rx) quite often (N=19 and 39 respectively), ELF authors rarely used these types of evaluative acts. In fact only one instance was found where the work of other researchers was (negatively) evaluated by an ELF author (Example (5)) with the aim of establishing a gap.

(4) *Although a knowledge base is accumulating, much of the work on aggressive behaviors and other forms of antisocial behavior at work has been limited by approaching these behaviors as strictly individual-level phenomena, thereby ignoring social and work group factors that may influence individual employee behavior.* (ENL5 move2)

(5) *In addition Benschop & Verloo (2007) state that there is an abundance of propaganda about gender mainstreaming, written by advocates of this strategy. The rhetoric on progress impedes serious discussions as to why they call for academic analyses and reflections, which is something this paper also will provide.* (SSH72 moves2&3)

In Move 3 of RA introductions (*presenting present work*) writers announce the research they are about to present, often including the principal purposes and the main research questions (Swales, 2004). In this move researchers may also include a description of the main outcomes of the study and state the value of the present research. This step is essential in order to persuade the audience of the importance and value of the contribution made by that research, a necessary condition for getting one's work published. One way to do this is to evaluate the methods which the authors themselves have used (Examples (6 and 7)).

(6) *Further, these relationships are analyzed <u>using structural equations modeling</u>, which by accounting for measurement errors **provides a stricter test** than conventional path analysis common in the extant literature.*   (ENL10 move3)

(7) *To get a better glimpse of the reality <u>we repeat estimations with different sets</u> of variables that **allow us to observe how robust the estimated parameters are** and to assess intervals with their minimum and maximum possible effect values.*
(SSH63 move3)

While ELF and ENL authors evaluated their methods (coded as M1) with similar regularity, ELF writers were much more reluctant to evaluate their own research results (R1) than writers whose native language was English (see Table 4). This finding is in line with previous research by Martín and León Pérez (2014), who found a greater incidence of Step 4 (*stating the value of the present research*) in RA introductions published in top journals written in English than in comparable texts published in top Spanish journals.

4.4   Types of values

Aside from the greater overall incidence of evaluation in the introductions written by ENL speakers, some interesting patterns can be found in the types of values which are most frequently expressed in RA introductions in the two subcorpora (Table 5).

Evaluative acts assessing the *usefulness* or *benefits* for the discipline of the entities analysed (Example (8)) were the most frequent in both the ELF and the ENL subcorpora, with 59 and 54 instances respectively. In both subcorpora there was also a high incidence of evaluative acts stressing the importance of the entities described (Example (9)) as well as assessing the strength of methods and research, although these evaluation types appeared mostly in Move 1 of the ELF article introductions, where ELF authors tried to establish the background and to highlight the significance of the topic targeted in the article. In contrast, in Move 3 (*presenting the present research*) of the ENL introductions we find much higher frequencies

Table 5. Frequency distribution of value categories across the corpora
and rhetorical moves

	Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		TOTAL 1–3	
	ELF	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*	*ELF*	*ENL*
Attention	21	12	4	17	1	2	26	31
Importance	48	12	6	7	9	20	63	39
Novelty	4	1	1	0	2	8	7	9
Total Significance	**73**	**25**	**11**	**24**	**12**	**30**	**96**	**79**
Agreement	2	2	0	8	0	10	2	20
Comprehensive	2	0	1	15	2	25	5	40
Knowledge	2	0	2	7	0	0	4	7
Simplicity	7	4	1	0	1	3	9	7
Strength	20	4	4	7	12	11	36	22
Use/ benefit	34	14	5	11	20	29	59	54
Total Assessment	**67**	**24**	**13**	**48**	**35**	**78**	**115**	**150**
Emotion	5	1	0	1	0	0	5	2
Others	4	0	0	0	1	0	5	0
TOTALS	**140**	**49**	**24**	**72**	**47**	**108**	**211**	**229**

ELF-ENL *p-value* < 0.001 (c^2 = 43.21; *d.f.* = 10)

(compared to ELF texts) of evaluative acts focusing on the importance, compre-
hensiveness and usefulness of the entity analysed. This finding is consistent with
the hypothesis that ELF writers are less willing to self-assess and to promote the
value of their own research. It is also worth noting that some of these evaluative
acts can sometimes occur simultaneously in one sentence. Thus, in Example (10)
the authors establish the strength of the approach they have taken and stress the
contribution which their study makes to the discipline.

(8)　*In an effort to link the emotional exhaustion and personality literatures **to better
understand the manner in which emotional exhaustion influences job perfor-
mance,** <u>we</u> examined the interactive effects of emotional exhaustion and con-
scientiousness on quality and quantity aspects of job performance.*
(ENL 11 move3)

(9)　<u>*The paper*</u> *presents global approach and stage approach and **defining key factors**
of internationalisation process.*　(SSH15 move3)

(10)　*Finally, by assessing complexity absorption in hospitals using a larger sample, <u>we</u>
not only **respond** to Fottler (1987) call for theories of organization to be empir-
ically tested in the health care arena, but we also **extend** the generalizability of
complexity absorption theory in an early stage of development.* (ENL10 move3)

The results also indicate cross-cultural variations in the use of other evaluative acts such as stressing the lack of attention which a research topic has received in the literature (Example (11)) or assessing the comprehensiveness of previous research studies (Example (12)). These evaluative acts rarely appeared in Move 2 of the ELF introductions whereas they were often found in move 2 of the ENL texts.

(11) *But although many studies have examined the relationship of control to stress-related outcomes in the workplace, there **are still few studies** that <u>evaluate attempts to increase workplace control</u> (Terry & Jimmieson, 1999).*

<div align="right">(ENG13 move2)</div>

(12) *Case reports suggest that some companies do realize these benefits, but these assumptions are largely untested empirically (<u>Lee, Law, and Bobko [1999] and Murray and Gerhart [1998]</u> are recent exceptions, but they are **conducted within limited organizational settings**).* (ENG14 move2)

In sum, when considering both the entitites and the values involved, the analysis of evaluative acts in RA introductions reveals a detailed picture of the way evaluation is used by ENL and ELF scholars. Introductions written by ENL scholars seem to have a more promotional nature, inasmuch the authors highlight the importance, comprehensiveness and usefulness of their own research quite decidedly, and they openly establish limitations in previous work. In contrast, evaluative acts performed by ELF writers tend to focus on the usefulness and importance of the aspect which is the object of research, as well as on the attention which it has received in the discipline. Put bluntly, while ELF scholars promote the topic being researched, ENL (also) focus on promoting the value of their own work.

5. Conclusions

Previous research has highlighted that there are notable intercultural differences in the way academics project different rhetorical and interpersonal aspects in their texts (see for example Giannoni, 2005; Molino, 2010; Mur-Dueñas, 2011; Sheldon, 2009; Vassileva, 2001). More specifically, previous intercultural research on RA introductions (Hirano, 2009; Jogthong, 2001; Martín & León-Pérez, 2014) has indicated that academics from certain cultures are unwilling to perform particular steps and evaluative acts, especially those where they need to assess their work and the work of other researchers, due to their different cultural norms and values.

Unlike previous studies, this analysis has compared the use of evaluation in RA introductions written by English L1 writers with a corpus of unpublished RA manuscripts which had not undergone professional proofreading or peer review

and which had been written by speakers of English as a lingua franca. My study has found similar intercultural differences in the use of evaluation, therefore providing support for the hypothesis that certain evaluative and promotional strategies may be in conflict with the rhetorical norms of speakers of certain cultures. Following the Anglophone rhetorical style for RA introductions which is normally described in the literature, scholars are expected to promote the importance, comprehensiveness and usefulness of one's research and to critique the existing literature in search for gaps. However, the ELF writers in my corpus seemed to make limited use of evaluative acts that involve identifying limitations in previous studies or in the literature as a whole, so much so that Move 2 (*establishing a niche*) was omitted in most of the articles. In addition, my results showed that these EAL writers writers tended to avoid evaluative acts which entailed greater interpersonal risk, such as establishing the importance, comprehensiveness and usefulness of their own research. This could imply that scholars writing in English as an international language may not have fully adapted their rhetorical style to the demands and expectations of the reviewers and may be facing challenges when trying to publish their papers in a competitive English-medium publication environment.

A number of scholars have also pointed at the issue of language, rather than culture, as the key factor accounting for the differences found between texts written by ELF and ENL writers. As found by Flowerdew (2001), most ELF RA writers and aspiring authors feel they are at a disadvantage in publishing in English as compared with native speakers. Nevertheless, Tribble (2017) has recently argued that the native vs. non-native divide is problematic and has suggested the apprentice vs. expert dichotomy as a more useful paradigm. Tribble contends that authors need to demonstrate expertise in disciplinary writing, rather than nativeness, in order to meet the demands of editors and reviewers. Be it as it may, the question remains as to whether the ELF writers' tendency to use certain types of evaluative acts less frequently than English L1 writers will normally be perceived by RA reviewers as lack of expertise by RA reviewers or as a legitimate and acceptable rhetorical feature of ELF communication. As a consequence, research will need to clarify how far (mainstream) editors will tolerate ELF practices and what the chances are that ELF writers will eventually be forced to change their manuscripts and follow the international convention.

Besides differences in the cultural norms and values, a number of other factors have been identified as the possible cause for the differences found in research comparing the rhetorical style of scholars from periphery and semi-periphery cultures, and researchers educated and trained in Anglo-Saxon countries. The type of audience (local vs. international) and competition for publication are factors likely to affect the rhetorical strategies and structure used by authors and should therefore

be taken into account when undertaking this type of contrastive studies. Language proficiency has also been named as a crucial factor accounting for the differences found between ENL and ELF texts. Previous research drawing on large-scale surveys (Fernández Polo & Cal Varela, 2009) has indicated that non-native speakers feel they are at a disadvantage vis-à-vis native speakers when it comes to drafting and getting their research accepted for publication.

Regardless of their relative merits, this variety of approaches for explaining the differences in the way ELF and ENL authors draft their research suggests that the rhetorical style and structure used by scholars when writing their RAs is mediated by a constellation of aspects which may be deeply engrained in socio-cultural factors (e.g the cultural norms and values), professional practices and norms (e.g. the norms for interaction among peers, epistemic expectations and norms) or in the professional identity they have constructed (e.g. the perception they have of their language ability and professional expertise). Further quantitative and qualitative research is needed to clarify the relative weight of each of these factors on the linguistic and rhetorical preferences of ELF scholars, as well to better understand how they interact among them.

Finally, the extent to which editors and reviewers expect RA authors to adapt to the dominant Anglophone rhetorical style is unclear. Mauranen et al. (2010, p. 639) have criticized that due to the absence of defined standards for text organization, English has often been adopted as the model against which stylistic and rhetorical choices should be assessed. While research has shown that the rhetorical style of ELF writers differs significantly from this standard, future studies need to clarify whether these culture-specific rhetorical features are a significant factor in the decision to reject or accept a manuscript for international publication. Previous findings that RAs written by Spanish scholars were successfully published in competitive international journals despite presenting notable singularities in the use of evaluation (Lafuente, 2014b) could be taken to indicate that the specific rhetorical styles of scholars from other cultures do not necessarily constitute an obstacle for getting published. Nevertheless, more research is needed to establish whether differences in the rhetorical style of academics from different cultures may actually be an undeserved impediment for getting their work published.

Appendix

Rubric 1. Identification of the entities evaluated

SPHERE	ENTITY	WHOSE? / WHO	CODE
RESEARCH (ROE)	1. A research methodology (a method, approach, variable or type of data) is evaluated	The author(s) of the RA Other researchers The disciplinary community	M1 M2 Mx
	2. The product of research work (hypotheses, explanations, definitions, concepts, results, conclusions or contributions) are evaluated	The author(s) of the RA Other researchers The disciplinary community	R1 R2 Rx
REAL WORD (TOE)	1. A company, institution, country or person is evaluated	Practitioners	T1
	2. A strategy, procedure, operation, policy or practice is evaluated	Practitioners	T2
	3. A situation (challenge, problem, difficulty, change) is evaluated	Practitioners	T3
	4. A factor, issue, concept or belief in the real world is evaluated	Practitioners	T4
	5. Others	Practitioners	T

Rubric 2. Identification of the values being assessed

CATEGORY	VALUE	CODE	POLARITY
SIGNIFICANCE	**1. Importance:** – *Entity evaluated as (not) significant, important or relevant in the research/world sphere?*	IMP	+is important – lacks importance
	2. Attention: – *Entity evaluated as (not) receiving attention in the research/ business sphere?* – *Entity evaluated as (not) the subject of debate or controversy*	ATT	+ receives attention – receives no/little attention
	3. Novelty: – *Is the entity evaluated as (not) new, original, innovative?*	NEW	+ is new/original – not new/original

(*continued*)

CATEGORY	VALUE	CODE	POLARITY
ASSESSMENT	**1. Solid:** – *How robust, stable, coherent, correct, careful is the entity?*	SOLID	+ solid – not solid
	2. Approval: *How much agreement, support exists?* *How much evidence, proof exists?* *(upholding/ endorsing the entity)*	AGREE	+ agreement/evidence – agreement/evidence
	3. Comprehensiveness: – *How inclusive, broad or complete is the entity?*	COMPR	+ comprensive – comprehensive
	4. Usefulness: *To what extent does the entity help* **increase/ reduce** *benefit, knowledge, ability, efficiency or any other advantage?*	USE	+ useful + beneficial – useful – harmful
	5. Simplicity: *How simple or easy is the entity?*	SIMPLE	+ Simple/ easy – complex/ difficult
	6. Knowledge *How much do we know/ understand about the entity?*	KNOW	+ know/understand – know/understand
EMOTION	**7. Emotion/ personal assessment**	EMOT	+ / – personal reaction

References

Alcaraz-Ariza, M. A. (2011). Evaluation in English-medium medical book reviews. *International Journal of English Studies*, 11(1), 137–153. https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2011/1/137141

Bennett, K. (Ed.). (2014). *The semiperiphery of academic writing*. London: Palgrave MacMillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137351197

Blagojević, S. (2009). Expressing attitudes in academic research articles written by English and Serbian authors. *Linguistics and Literature*, 7(1), 63–73.

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: audience and rhetorical structure. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–215). Harlow: Longman.

Canagarajah, S. (1996). Nondiscursive requirements in academic publishing, material resources of periphery scholars, and the politics of knowledge production. *Written Communication*, 13(4), 435–472. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088396013004001

Canagarajah, S. (2002). *A geopolitics of academic writing*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt5hjn6c

Conrad, S., & Biber, D. 2001. Adverbial marking of stance in speech and writing. In S. Hunston & G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse* (pp. 56–73). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ferguson, G. (2007). The global spread of English, scientific communication and ESP: Questions of equity, access and domain loss. *Ibérica*, 13, 7–38.

Fernández-Polo, J., & Cal Varela, M. (2009). English for research purposes at the University of Santiago de Compostela: A survey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8, 152–164. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2009.05.003

Flowerdew, J. (1999). Writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(3), 123–145. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80125-8

Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors to nonnative speaker contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(3), 121–149. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587862

Flowerdew, J. (2007). The non-Anglophone scholar on the periphery of scholarly publication. *AILA Review*, 20, 14–27.

Fortanet Gómez, I. (2008). Evaluative language in peer review referee reports. *English for Academic Purposes*, 7(1), 27–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.02.004

Giannoni, D. S. (2005). Negative evaluation in academic discourse: A comparison of English and Italian research articles. *Linguistica e Filologia*, 20, 71–99.

Hirano, E. (2009). Research article introductions in English for specific purposes: A comparison between Brazilian Portuguese and English. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 240–250. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.02.001

Hood, S. (2004). Managing attitude in undergraduate academic writing: A focus on the introductions to research reports. In L. J. Ravelli & R. A. Ellis (Eds.), *Analysing academic writing* (pp. 24–44). London: Continuum.

Hunston, S. (1993). Evaluation and ideology in scientific writing. In M. Ghadessy (Ed.), *Register analysis: Theory and practice* (pp. 57–73). London: Pinter.

Hunston, S. (2011). *Corpus approaches to evaluation: Phraseology and evaluative language*. London: Routledge.

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2018). Academic writing and non-anglophone scholars. In P. Mur-Dueñas & J. Šinkūnienė (Eds.), *Intercultural perspectives on research writing* (pp. vii–x). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals_18.pre

Itakura, H., & Tsui, A. (2011) Evaluation in academic discourse: Managing criticism in Japanese and English book reviews. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1366–1379. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.10.023

Jogthong, C. (2001). *Research article introductions in Thai: Genre analysis of academic writing* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV.

Kanoksilapatham, B. (2007). Introduction to Move Analysis. In B. Douglas, U. Connor, & T. A. Upton (Eds.), *Discourse on the move: Using Corpus analysis to describe discourse structure* (pp. 23–41). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.28.04kan

Lafuente-Millán, E. (2012). A contrastive study of generic integrity in the use of attitudinal evaluation in RAs written for different audiences. *Brno Studies in English*, 38(2), 79–92. https://doi.org/10.5817/BSE2012-2-5

Lafuente-Millán, E. (2014a). Reader engagement across cultures, languages and contexts of publication in Business research articles. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 24(2), 201–223. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12019

Lafuente-Millán, E. (2014b). The projection of critical attitude in research article introductions by Anglo-American and Spanish authors. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses*, 69, 65–82.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2006) Professional academic writing by multilingual scholars: Interactions with literacy brokers in the production of English-medium texts. *Written Communication*, 23, 3–35. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088305283754

Lorés Sanz, R. (2011). The construction of the author's voice in academic writing: the interplay of cultural and disciplinary factors. *Text and Talk*, 3(2), 173–93. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2011.008

Martin, J. R. (2001). Beyond exchange: Appraisal systems in English. In S. Hunston, & G. Thomson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse* (pp. 142–175.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. London: Continuum.

Martín, P., & León Pérez, I. 2014. Convincing peers of the value of one's research: A genre analysis of rhetorical promotion in academic texts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 34, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2013.09.002

Martín Martín, P., & Burges, S. (2004). The rhetorical management of academic criticism in research article abstracts. *Text*, 24, 171–195. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2004.007

Martínez, I. A. (2005). Native and non-native writer's use of first person pronouns in the different sections of biology research articles in English. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 174–190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2005.06.001

Mauranen, A., Pérez-Llantada, C., & Swales, J. M. (2010). Academic Englishes: A standardized knowledge? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of World Englishes* (pp. 634–652). London: Routledge.

Molino, A. (2010). Personal and impersonal authorial references: A contrastive study of English and Italian Linguistics research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(2), 83–150. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.007

Moreno, A., & Suárez, L. (2008). A study of critical attitude across English and Spanish academic book reviews. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.02.009

Mu, C., Zhang, L. J., Ehrich, J., & Hong, H. (2015). The use of metadiscourse for knowledge construction in Chinese and English research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 135–148. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.09.003

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2008). Analysing engagement markers cross-culturally: The case of English and Spanish business management research articles. In S. Burgess & P. Martín Martín (Eds.), *English as an additional language in research publication and communication* (pp. 197–213). Berlin: Peter Lang.

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2010). Attitude markers in business management research articles: A cross-cultural corpus-driven approach. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), 50–72. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00228.x

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2011). An intercultural analysis of metadiscourse features in research articles written in English and in Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 3068–3079. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.05.002

Najjar, H. (1990). *Arabic as a research language: The case of the Agricultural Sciences* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Michigan.

Preacher, K. J. (2001) Calculation for the chi-square test: An interactive calculation tool for chi-square tests of goodness of fit and independence [Online computer software]. Available at <http://quantpsy.org> (15 April 2017).

SciELF. (2015). *The SciELF corpus*. Director: Anna Mauranen. Compilation manager: Ray Carey. <http://www.helsinki.fi/elfa/scielf.html>

Seidlhofer, B. (2012). Anglophone-centric attitudes and the globalization of English. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 1(2), 393–407. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2012-0026

Shaw, P. 2003. Evaluation and promotion across languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00050-X

Sheldon, E. (2009). From one *I* to another: Discursive construction of self-representation in English and Castilian Spanish research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(4), 251–265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.05.001

Sheldon, E. (2011). Rhetorical differences in RA introductions written by English L1 and L2 and Castilian Spanish L1 writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), 238–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.004

Silver, M. (2003). The stance of stance: A critical look at ways stance is expressed and modeled in academic discourse. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 359–374. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00051-1

Soler, V. (2002). Analysing adjectives in scientific discourse: An exploratory study with educational applications for Spanish speakers at advanced university level. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 145–165. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(00)00034-X

Stotesbury, H. (2003). Evaluation in research article abstracts in the narrative and hard sciences. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 327–341. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00049-3

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. (2004). *Research genres: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524827

Swales, J., & Burke, A. (2003). It's really fascinating work: Differences in evaluative adjectives across academic registers. In 3rd North American symposium on corpus linguistics and language teaching (pp. 1–18). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Taylor, G., & Chen, T. (1991). Linguistic, cultural, and subcultural issues in contrastive discourse analysis: Anglo-American and Chinese scientific texts. *Applied Linguistics*, 12, 319–336. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/12.3.319

Thetela, P. (1997). Evaluated entities and parameters of value in academic research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16, 101–118. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(96)00022-1

Thompson, G., & Hunston, S. (2001). Evaluation: An introduction. In S. Hunston & G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse* (pp. 1–27). Oxford: Oxford University Press,

Tribble, C. (2017). ELFA vs. Genre: New paradigm war in AP writing instruction? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 25, 30–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.10.003

Valero-Garcés, C. (1996). Contrastive ESP rhetoric: Metatext in Spanish-English Economics Texts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15, 279–294. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(96)00013-0

Vassileva, I. (1998). 'Who am I/who are we in academic writing?' A contrastive analysis of authorial presence in English, German, French, Russian and Bulgarian. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 163–189. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.1998.tb00128.x

Vassileva, I. (2001). Commitment and detachment in English and Bulgarian academic writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20(1), 83–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00029-0

Vold, E. T. (2006). Epistemic modality markers in research articles: A cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17(1), 61–87. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2006.00106.x

Xie, J., (2016). Direct or indirect? Critical or uncritical? Evaluation in Chinese English-major MA thesis literature reviews. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 23, 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.05.001

Exploring ELF manuscripts

An analysis of the anticipatory *it* pattern with an interpersonal function

Pilar Mur-Dueñas
Universidad de Zaragoza

A great deal of academic knowledge is produced in English by and for peers from different linguacultural backgrounds. It is the aim of this paper to study written scholarly English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) communication, focusing specifically on a lexico-grammatical structure, the anticipatory *it* pattern, fulfilling an interpersonal (attitudinal and epistemic) function. Its use in the Sci-ELF corpus (University of Helsinki, Finland), will be compared to its use in a corpus of ENL RAs of the SERAC (Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain). The analysis focuses on its overall frequency of use, and that of its subpatterns, the functions (attitudinal, hedging, boosting), and the lexical choices made. The analysis will contribute to a much needed description of written academic ELF discourse.

Keywords: English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), academic written discourse, scholarly communication, research article writing, intercultural rhetoric, interpersonality, anticipatory *it* pattern, attitudinal evaluation, epistemic evaluation

1. Introduction

The adoption of English as a language for international scholarly communication has triggered a great deal of research within English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and also within English for Research Publication Purposes that has taken an intercultural rhetoric (IR) perspective (Connor, 2004). Previous cross-cultural analyses of academic genres focused on the differences between texts written in different L1s and in English by Anglophone writers, highlighting the discursive and rhetorical differences between both and generally promoting the adoption of conventions prevailing in texts written by the latter to be successful in publishing research outcomes internationally in English (e.g. Fløttum, Dahl, & Kinn, 2006; Hirano, 2009;

Loi, 2010; Loi & Evans, 2010; Loi & Lim, 2013; Mu, Zhang, Ehrich, & Hong, 2015; Mur-Dueñas, 2011; Peterlin, 2005; Vassileva, 1997; Vold, 2006 inter alia).

Past and present research (see, for instance, Burgess, 2002; Lorés-Sanz, 2011a, 2011b; Mur-Dueñas, 2009, 2012; Murillo Ornat, 2012; Shaw, 2003; Sheldon, 2011) has explored research writing of non-Anglophone scholars who use English to communicate the results of their research globally to other international scholars, in an attempt to unveil a potential transfer of differing rhetorical and discursive conventions from their L1 to their English texts. Recent intercultural EAP analyses have focused on the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) for communication, as is being shaped by scholars from different linguacultural backgrounds or similects (Mauranen, 2012). As such, intercultural analyses within EAP are indeed necessary but they need to focus on texts "written *by* and *for* multilingual and multicultural audiences" (Belcher, 2014, p. 60), and explore the writing of texts for an international audience in English as a process of "adaptive transfer" that scholars from different linguacultural backgrounds go through (Belcher, 2014, p. 65). In this respect, IR analyses have been and will be highly relevant in the field of EAP, especially as IR evolves and intercultural analyses are undertaken which are more in line with recent accounts of ELF in academic communication, taking an endonormative approach (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, & Pitzl, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011). This entails that English Native Language (ENL) in general and academic rhetorical and discursive conventions in particular, should no longer be considered the norm to which scholars from diverse backgrounds need to assimilate or acculturate when communicating internationally in English. Rather, the focus should be on exploring how ELF is being shaped by its global users in the academia. To do so, contrastive analyses need to be carried out of lexico-grammatical, discursive and rhetorical features in ELF and in ENL academic texts to unveil possible differences which can be accounted for bearing in mind the scholars' different L1s. As Mauranen (2016, p. 25) highlights, "if comparisons are made, it is important to remain mindful of the direction of the comparison".

The adoption and use of ELF in academic settings has mostly centered on oral discourse and encounters; thus, more evidence on ELF academic written discourse is necessary (Mauranen, 2012; Mauranen, Hynninen & Ranta, 2016). As such, this chapter seeks to contribute to the description of ELF as being used in international scholarly publications. As has been highlighted in previous studies (e.g. Mur-Dueñas, 2015, 2016) it is especially relevant to focus the analysis on interpersonality features (Mur-Dueñas, Lorés-Sanz, & Lafuente-Millán, 2010), which have been shown by previous intercultural EAP research to be subject to variation across languages and contexts of publication. Consequently, the focus will be placed here on a lexico-grammatical pattern with a highly interpersonal potential, the anticipatory *it* pattern. This pattern will be analysed within the interpersonality framework

understood as a broad notion or umbrella term that encompasses diverse linguistic features contributing to the rhetorical dimension of academic texts which influence and are influenced by writer-reader interactions (Mur-Dueñas et al., 2010, p. 83).

2.　The anticipatory *it* pattern in academic writing

Different labels have been used to refer to this pattern: subject extraposition (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1999; Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999), anticipatory *it* (Hewing & Hewings, 2001, 2002; Rodman, 1991), *it* extraposition (Zhang, 2015), introductory *it* pattern (Charles, 2000; Peacock, 2011; Larsson, 2016, 2017), which has attracted attention as it is a salient feature of academic writing (Biber et al., 1999). It can help manage information structure, complying with the end-weight principle in English (Quirk et al., 1985), and can help scholars encode interpersonal meanings (Charles, 2000; Hewings & Hewings, 2002); it serves "to both express opinions and to comment on and evaluate propositions in a way that allows the writer to remain in the background" (Hewings & Hewings, 2002, p. 368).

As pointed out in the introduction, this pattern has been found to be more commonly used in academic writing than in other registers (Biber et al., 1999) and also in academic writing vis-à-vis popular writing (Zhang, 2015). Great attention has been paid to its contrastive analysis in learner and in expert writing (Ädel, 2014; Hewings & Hewings, 2002; Larsson, 2016, 2017; Römer, 2009), as it has been reported to cause problems to English as a Foreign Language learners. The pattern has been also analysed cross-generically, its use being studied comparatively in research articles and book reviews in two disciplines, History and Literary Criticism (Groom, 2005), as well as cross-disciplinarily, across research articles from 8 different disciplines – Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Environmental Science, Business, Language and Linguistics, Law, Public and Social Administration (Peacock, 2011). This research has shown that the use of this interpersonal resource is genre- and discipline-specific. In the present research its analysis is restricted to a single genre, the RA, as the focus is on the extent to which its use presents specific characteristics in ELF RAs, that is, when English is used for Research Publication Purposes by and for scholars with different linguacultural backgrounds. As will be discussed in Section 2, RAs in the two comparable corpora (SciELF and ENL) were extracted from similar disciplines to ensure comparability.

Although this previous research has focused on the same structure, varied approaches have been taken (semantic, functional, and/or lexical and syntactic). For instance, Groom's (2005) work is based on the associations between the grammar patterns *it v-link ADJ that/to+inf* and their meaning (e.g. adequacy, desirability,

difficulty, expectation, importance, validity). Römer (2009) emphasises the inseparability of lexis and grammar through the analysis of the introductory *it* pattern, and highlights the connection between the pattern, its meaning and its functions. Ädel's (2014) comparative study of its use in learner and expert academic writing concentrates on the rhetorical function (e.g. commenting on specific findings, on method, on key concepts or definitions, attributed, indicating future research, stating aims/justification for study, introducing complexity, emphasizing limitations of study, expressing implied directives) in a limited number of subpatterns which were found to be underused, overused and used equally in one and the other set of texts. In Larsson's (2016) study, the focus is on the syntactic and lexical variability of this pattern in expert and apprentice writing. Her research has also shown that English non-native students have problems with specific functions of the pattern (Larsson, 2017).

As highlighted above, most research on the anticipatory *it* pattern has been undertaken comparing its use in learner and professional academic writing. The research presented here focuses on research article writing, and looks into its use by scholars with different L1s writing their articles in English comparing it with its use by ENL scholars in their articles. The focus in this chapter will be on the actual subpatterns (Hunston & Francis, 1999) used to encode different interpersonal meanings in ELF and in ENL RAs taking a lexico-grammatical and functional perspective: (1) attitudinal evaluation, that is, the author's opinions and viewpoints, and (2) epistemic evaluation, that is, the degree of writer's certainty or commitment towards the statement it accompanies. As such, following Hewing and Hewing (2002) this pattern can be seen to function as an attitude marker indicating "the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to textual information, expressing surprise, importance, obligation, agreement, and so on" (Hyland, 2000, p. 113), as a hedge intended to "limit the writer's full commitment to what is stated in a proposition" (Mur-Dueñas, 2011, p. 3070), and as a booster, highlighting "the writer's certainty and conviction about a proposition" (Mur-Dueñas, 2011, p. 3070); in the expression of boosting academic writers express emphatic meanings appealing to consensual understanding, common knowledge and shared understandings (Hyland 1998; Koutsantoni 2004).

Following Ädel (2014, p. 70), the study is inclusive, tracing and considering non-expected uses, since there can be potential variability in how this pattern is employed by ELF scholars. As a result, searches were made of different realisations including intervening elements, such as modal verbs (Examples (1)–(8)), adverbs and adverbial phrases (Examples (2)–(6)), and prepositional phrases (Examples (7), (8)).

(1)   *To make clear this idea, <u>it could be appropriate to</u> think a little bit about benches and signs.*   (Ssh62)

(2)   *<u>It should be mentioned here that</u> the followers of the Russian Orthodox Church Abroad who canonised St. Xenia in 1978 tend to stress the Saint's homelessness.*   (Ssh57)

(3)   *<u>It can be generally said that</u> value of mean particle shape index of a single evaluated reach is unique and independent on the outer conditions.*   (Sci23)

(4)   *<u>It should be noted, however, that</u> Chapters 2 to 4 do not explore the discrete imagery varieties in the sense of providing a general survey of their properties.*   (Ssh11)

(5)   *<u>It may be better, however, to</u> view these stated beliefs as potentially conflictual rather than inherently inconsistent.*   (ENL5)

(6)   *There were banks in our sample with more diversity than the Bank of America, but <u>it would be highly unlikely to</u> find a sample of banks in which the racial heterogeneity Index values ranged all the way to .80.*   (ENL33)

(7)   *<…>, the author represents different speakers who may contradict each others, so that <u>it might be difficult for the reader to</u> sift Plato's own point of view from these many voices.*   (Ssh35)

(8)   *Thus, <u>it may be more appropriate for a thesis writer to</u> use an ARGUE verb when dealing with aspects of the literature where there is conflict or uncertainty.*   (ENL15)

This is so since the aim is to look at the actual use being made of the anticipatory *it* pattern to express interpersonal meanings in RA writing by ELF users and trace any possible innovations.

The comparative analysis between ELF and ENL articles will focus on the predicate lemmas (Hunston & Francis, 1999), understood following Larsson's study (2016, p. 68) as "the base-form of the element inside the predicate of the introductory *it* pattern that carries the most semantic content". No semantically-oriented classification was undertaken as it is the case in some previous work on anticipatory *it* (e.g. Groom, 2005; Zhang, 2015), but rather a functionally-oriented classification (e.g. Hewings & Hewings, 2002; Mur-Dueñas, 2015) was carried out, exploring the way in which interpersonality is encoded in scholars' writing through this pattern.

In the present study the aim is to look at the frequency of use of this pattern and its subpatterns, and at its lexical and syntactic variability when fulfilling an evaluative function in ELF RAs. In addition, an interpersonality perspective will be applied to the study of this pattern, and its rhetorical functions will also be looked into and compared, focusing on the extent to which the pattern and the different subpatterns fulfil specific interpersonal functions: attitudinal, hedging or boosting.

3.   Corpus and methods

The analysis draws on two comparable corpora: The SciELF corpus (2015) compiled at the University of Helsinki coordinated by Professor Anna Mauranen <http://www.helsinki.fi/elfa/scielf.html> and consisting of 150 unrevised manuscripts by scholars from different language backgrounds: Finnish, Czech, French, Chinese, Spanish, Russian, Swedish, Italian, Portuguese (Brazil), and Romanian, from Science and Social Science and Humanities divisions in a proportionate way, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Composition of the SciELF (2015) corpus

Category	No. of articles	No. of words	% of total words	Avg. words/article
Sci	78	326,463	43%	4,185
SSH	75	432,837	57%	6,012
TOTAL	**150**	**759,300**	100%	5,062

Taking this corpus as a point of departure, a comparable corpus was compiled of published RAs, authored by ENL writers judging by their names and their affiliation to Anglophone institutions in order to identify features that can be considered salient or characteristic of ELF academic writing. As such, the ENL corpus consists of the same number of texts, 150, with a similar proportion of texts taken from Social Sciences and Humanities, 75 (25 from Applied Linguistics, 25 from Business Management, and 25 from Sociology), and from Health Sciences and Physical Sciences, 75 (25 from Urology, 25 from Food Technology, and 25 from Mechanical Engineering). Table 2 summarises the corpus used for the comparative analysis (ENL).

Table 2. Composition of the comparable ENL corpus

Category	No. of articles	No. of words	% of total words	Avg. words/article
Sci	**75**	**310,541**	33.3%	**4,141**
Mec. Eng.	25	132,682	14.2%	5,307
Urology	25	77,646	8.3%	3,106
Food Tech.	25	100,213	10.7%	4,009
SSH	**75**	**622,527**	66.7%	**8,300**
Applied Ling.	25	182,541	19.6%	7,302
Bus. Manag.	25	188,974	20.3%	7,559
Sociology	25	251,012	26.9%	10,040
TOTAL	**150**	**933,068**		

These two comparable corpora enabled the analysis of the specific uses of the anticipatory *it* pattern with an interpersonal function made by ELF scholars when publishing their research internationally. Although there are some aspects which cannot be considered fully comparable (Table 3), the corpora are to be seen as valid for the purposes of this research, the ENL corpus functioning as a reference or control corpus.

Table 3. Comparative features in the two comparable corpora

Sci-ELF	ENL
Heterogeneous in terms of disciplinary fields; greater variety of disciplines	Homogeneous in terms of disciplinary fields; 6 disciplines
Different (unknown) publication targets	Limited publication targets (3 journals per discipline)
Unrevised (first versions)	Published (final versions)
Individual variables known (author information)	Individual variables untraced

The corpora were then analysed for the anticipatory *it* pattern using WordSmith Tools v. 4. (Scott, 1996), allowing for searches of the pattern when intervening elements are used (e.g. modal verbs, adverbs, adverbials or prepositional phrases), as indicated in Section 2. Once the concordances were retrieved, a careful analysis of the context was carried out to determine their value and to leave out those tokens that do not fulfil an interpersonal function, not actually encoding the author's voice, as in the following attribution examples, which are included as part of paraphrases or quotes:

(9) *It is estimated that the proportion of English users in non-English speaking countries and English speaking countries is 2–4: 1* (Kachru: 1997). (Ssh09)[1]

(10) *<…> or because it is believed that these classes have pedagogical benefits* (Johansson & Lindahl, 2008; also group vii and ix in Little, 2001). (Ssh67)

(11) *Bacharach and Lawler concluded, "To pursue political action, it is inevitable that actors in the organization align themselves with others"* (1998: 85)." (ENL37)

---

1. The coding refers to the article from which the example was extracted. In the case of the SciELF corpus, articles from Science and from Social Sciences and Humanities are coded separately. In the case of the ENL corpus, articles are coded jointly; articles numbered 1 to 75 correspond to the Social Sciences and Humanities: numbers 1 to 25 correspond to Applied Linguistics, 26 to 50 to Business Management, and 51 to 74 to Sociology; articles numbered 76 to 150 correspond to the Sciences: numbers 76 to 100 to Mechanical Engineering, 101 to 125 to Urology and 126 to 150 to Food Technology.

In the results section frequencies are presented normalised per 10,000 words given the different length of the two corpora. Also, some statistical procedures were undertaken to evaluate if the differences found were significant.

Taking the framework of interpersonality as the point of departure and the focus being on the use of this pattern with an evaluative function, those cases in which the pattern did not fulfill an interpersonal function were also left out. For instance, in the following example, the function is not to reflect the author's views regarding its possibility (it does not have a hedging function, it does not express epistemic modality), but rather to express ability (dynamic modality).

(12) *This research demonstrates that despite "path dependency," <u>it is possible to</u> model the technology selection process and predict likely outcomes.*   (ENL26)

4. Results and discussion

Before presenting the overall frequency of use and functions of the various subpatterns in the two sub-corpora, the relationship between patterns and subpatterns and the interpersonal functions found to be fulfilled by them in the corpus analysed are presented together with the examples (Table 4).

Table 4. Summary of subpatterns analysed with their interpersonal function

(1a) It v-link ADJ that **(1b) It v-link ADJ to-inf**	
Attitude marker	*Given the major public health importance of BD, the importance of long-term prognosis for both patients and health care, and fundamental nature of questions related to illness progression, <u>it is unsurprising that</u> numerous studies have investigated the long-term outcome of bipolar disorder.* (Sci37) *Since this transit time is on the order of the filter scale we employ, <u>it is reasonable that</u> our simulations show results that are consistent with a (nearly) infinite speed of heat propagation.* (ENL83) *Perhaps, as a consequence, <u>it is necessary to</u> consider that the prisoners' bleeding and blindness reminds us of the images of the crucified Christ, radiating an aura of immortality.* (Ssh66) *Regarding dimensionality, <u>it is useful to</u> view a non-degenerate (32) as a one-to-one mapping since D0 and D* retain the same dimensions regardless of how many struts are supplemented in the supporting side structure.* (ENL98)
Hedge	*<u>It is likely that</u> old shepherds may store the milk products into the cold entrance to the crevice.* (Sci18) *Third and finally, <u>it is possible that</u> these consumers were not sensitive to the flavours imparted by functional ingredients, and therefore did not perceive any differences between functional juices and conventional juices.* (ENL137)

Table 4. (*continued*)

	The first point that must be stressed is that <u>it is unlikely to be the case that</u> we can come up with a uniform response to all cases of philosophical peer disagreement. (Ssh39)
	There were banks in our sample with more diversity than the Bank of America, but <u>it would be highly unlikely to</u> find a sample of banks in which the racial heterogeneity Index values ranged all the way to .80. (ENL33)
Booster	*From these values, <u>it is clear that</u> strontium isotopic ratio variations in both the extracted fractions is a function of the geology of the soils as well as of the chemical form in which the strontium is present and hence of its mobility and bio-availability toward the plant roots. (Sci47)*
	<u>It quickly became apparent that</u> the a-farnesene and ester profiles of different varieties were not the same, for example, for cvs. Ida Red and McIntosh illustrated in Figure 1. (ENL145)
	In my view, in the culture of late modernity <u>it is impossible to</u> imagine a pure area (or a pure body), from which to criticise the culture, <…>. (Ssh28)
	<u>It is impossible to</u> know whether such a common factor – to suppose for the sake of argument that the term has an actual referent – is relatively weak or relatively strong, because <…>. (ENL56)

(2) It v-link that/to

Attitude marker	–
Hedge	*<u>It seems to</u> occur in a certain state of mind when the paranoid or critical thoughts that usually dominate are suspended or neutralised. (Ssh70)*
	Indeed, <u>it would seem that</u> auditory modality linked to absence of perceptual similarity would cause a cognitive overload to which children with SLI would be particularly sensitive to because of their limited processing capacities. (Ssh32)
	thus, <u>it may be that</u> employees' aggressive characteristics drive a work group effect. (ENL30)
	<u>It would appear therefore, that</u> possible structural changes during storage influence resistant starch in cornbread. (ENL127)
Booster	–

(3) It BE V-ed that/to

Attitude marker	*The focus of English language teaching and learning in China needs to change, the materials need to be changed, attitudes need to change and <u>it is hoped that</u> in the course of time China English will become an honoured member of the Inner Circle. (Ssh09)*
	<u>It is desired to</u> develop a flow rule for kva that is similar to Eq. (29) for the simpler N fiber-families model. (ENL90)
Hedge	*Even though some limitations were presented, and despite being a small scale research, <u>it is believed that</u> this study contributed to a greater understanding of the reading and writing processes of EFL university-level Brazilian students. (Ssh48)*
	<u>It is thought that</u> the PIN acts by binding the residual free lipids in such a way that they can no longer destabilize the foam. (ENL142)

(*continued*)

Table 4. (*continued*)

Booster	*There is also a possibility that participants underestimate their nightmare frequency, as <u>it has been shown that</u> this often happens with retrospective questionnaires when compared with prospective dream logs.* (Sci36) *<u>It is revealed that</u> the 'Q' term is the ER torque response. In order to calculate this ER torque, an alternative solution is employed instead of the previous formula given by the 'Q' term.* (ENL99)

(4) It modal verb BE V-ed that

Attitude marker	–
Hedge	*In view of the above discussion, <u>it can be argued that</u> the two consolidation methods for GHG accounting do not offer sufficient credibility to the reporting process.* (Ssh50) *<u>It can be seen from these results that</u> the limits are low enough to determine rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid in the aromatic herbs.* (ENL128)
Booster	*<u>It must be emphasised though that</u> the present analysis only considered SS by the measured abiotic environment, revealing virtually nothing about other local processes such as biotic interactions within a food web.* (Sci27) *<u>It should be noted that</u> in this study both the pre-task planning and no-planning conditions required the learners to perform the narrative under time pressure.* (ENL4)

4.1 Overall results

The anticipatory *it* pattern is found to be more frequent in the SciELF corpus than in the ENL corpus overall and for each of the three interpersonal functions (Table 5); also its subpatterns are found to be more frequent (Table 6). Both the raw and the normalised figures show this higher incidence of use of the pattern in the ELF RAs than in the ENL ones. A log likelihood test <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html> was performed to determine the significance of the overall frequency of the pattern in the ELF corpus vis-à-vis the ENL corpus. The results show that such a difference is in fact statistically significant.

It seems that these patterns are particularly common in articles by authors from different linguacultural backgrounds to express interpersonal meanings. Similar tendencies, nevertheless, have been found regarding the specific interpersonal function fulfilled by them in the two corpora (Table 5) and the frequency of use of the subpatterns (Table 6). The anticipatory *it* pattern is most commonly used in the RAs analysed to express attitudinal meaning, followed by the expression of mitigation or tentativeness, and it is least commonly used to express forcefulness or certainty. These results only partly reflect general trends in the overall use of interpersonal

Table 5. Overall frequency of the use of the pattern and its specific interpersonal functions in the two corpora

	SciELF		ENL	
	Total	Per 10,000w.	Total	Per 10,000w.
Number of tokens	523*	6.9	418	4.5
LL 43.35				
p < 0.0001				
Attitude markers	212	2.8	197	2.1
Hedges	191	2.6	153	1.6
Boosters	116	1.5	68	0.7
(attitude markers) LL 8.25 *p* < 0.01				
(hedges) LL 15.68 *p* < 0.0001				
(boosters) LL 24.51 *p* < 0.0001				

* There are 4 tokens which can be considered exceptions (double subjects) and have not been further classified into subpatterns or functions (the total number of these thus being 519). However, since the aim was to unveil specific features of this pattern in a corpus of ELF RAs, they have been considered in the overall frequency and reproduced below:

> In the hill case, the Sr-I.R. ranges from 0.71030 to 0.71142; differences between depths of sites 2 are flattened, while, for site 5, <u>it can be still observed an increase</u> of the isotopic ratios from deep a to the e one. (Sci47)
>
> <u>It can be observed an increase of</u> the ratio from a to e depths for sites 1 and 2, while, in the case of site 3, the situation is inverted, e.g. <…>. (Sci47)
>
> For example, in the examples which follow <…>, <u>it could be hypothesised a relation</u> between the frequent absence of clitics and the age of the speakers (between 6 and 10). (Ssh34)
>
> Finally, <u>it might not be negligible the peculiar role of</u> groundwater/rainwater on the final Sr-I.R. (Sci47)

Table 6. Frequency of the use of the subpatterns in the two corpora

	SciELF		ENL	
	Total	Per 10,000w.	Total	Per 10,000w.
Subpattern 1				
It V-link ADJ that	216	2.8	180	1.9
It V-link ADJ to	92	1.2	97	1.0
Subpattern 2				
It V-link that/to	45	0.6	20	0.2
Subpattern 3				
It BE Ved that/to	58	0.8	50	0.5
Subpattern 4				
It modal verb BE Ved that	108	1.4	71	0.8

features realised by this and other lexico-grammatical means. Previous research on English RAs within one discipline and across different disciplinary fields has shown that hedges tend to be far more common than boosters (e.g. Hyland, 2005a, 2005b; Mur-Dueñas, 2011) as scholars – especially when addressing an international audience – tend to be tentative rather than forceful in their expression of ideas, findings, or implication. The fact that the pattern under analysis is used to a greater extent to mitigate than to boost statements is, therefore, in agreement with the findings in these previous studies. However, attitude markers are found to be less common than hedges in RAs, from which it ensues that choosing this pattern to encode attitudinal meanings is especially common and productive, particularly in the case of the ELF texts.

Regarding the specific subpatterns, *it v-link ADJ that/to+inf* is by far the most common one in both corpora, followed by subpattern 4, *It modal verb BE Ved that*, by subpattern 3, *It BE Ved that/to*, and subpattern 2 *It V-link that/to* is used to the lowest extent, especially since it can only fulfil a hedging function, as shown above in Table 4, and it is especially infrequent in the ENL corpus.

An interesting feature is that subpatterns and predicate lemmas tend to stand out or recur in a particular text. That is, authors tend to choose specific patterns and chunks and use them several times across the RA, possibly as a productive writing strategy. This has been found to be particularly so in the ELF texts:

(13) *It must be noticed that in describing the theoretical upshot of Gettier cases I wrote "being inclined to conclude that x doesn't know that p".*
However, it must be noticed that the alleged unjustifiedness of philosophers' beliefs does have a bearing on the problem of what the rational response to peer disagreement should be. (Ssh39)

(14) *It was shown that depending on the activated carbon properties and the experimental conditions, a fast and complete removal of the <REG: diethylphthate> diethylphtalate </REG>, a total mineralisation and detoxification of the treated solution can be obtained.*
Moreover, it was proven that the activated carbon acts more as a reaction site than as an adsorbent, leading to an <FOREIGN> in situ </FOREIGN> renewal of the material during the process.
It was shown that this coupling permits a fast and complete removal of DEP in all experimental conditions used, the degradation occurring by radical reactions. In this study, it was shown that an AC presenting acid functions and a high external surface (L27) can be more efficient than an AC presenting a high number of basic functions only.

> <…> *it was proven that* AC presenting high concentration of surface functional groups (both acidic and basic) and high external surface and microporous volume favours the process. It was also proven that AC mainly acts as reaction site and radical promoter and initiator.
> Now, *it was proven that* the O_3/AC coupling allowed a complete diethylphthalate mineralisation and detoxification. (Sci39)

In the following subsections each of the interpersonal functions fulfilled by the specific subpatterns will be presented in turn.

4.2 Anticipatory *it* pattern as an attitudinal marker

As indicated above, the anticipatory *it* pattern is used to the greatest extent to express attitudinal meaning both in the SciELF and in the ENL corpus. This interpersonal function is most commonly realised by the subpattern *It V-link ADJ to* (Table 7).

Table 7. Frequency of use of the pattern and subpatterns fulfilling an attitudinal function in the two corpora

Attitude markers	SciELF		ENL	
	Total	Per 10,000w.	Total	Per 10,000w.
Subpattern 1				
It V-link ADJ to	184	2.4	166	1.8
It V-link ADJ that	27	0.4	25	0.3
Subpattern 2				
It V-link that/to	–	–	–	–
Subpattern 3				
It BE Ved that/to	1	0.0	5	0.1
Subpattern 4				
It modal verb BE Ved that	–	–	–	–

The range of predicate lemmas is greater in the ENL than in the ELF corpus (Table 8). Although there are some evaluative adjectives used as part of this subpattern that have not been found in the ENL corpus (underlined in Table 8), they are not recurrent and cannot, therefore, be considered to be typical of ELF. ELF authors seem to be more regular in their choices of attitudinal evaluative adjectives and nouns and use a repertoire that does not fully coincide with that of ENL authors in the expression of this interpersonality feature.

Table 8. Predicate lemmas in the subpattern it *V-link ADJ that/to* with an attitudinal function in the two corpora

SciELF	ENL
(to) appropriate, best, common, complementary, convenient, crucial, curious, difficult, easy, essential, fair, fundamental, graphic, hard, important, impractical, interesting, intuitive, natural, necessary, needed, notable, optimal, premature, problematic, promising, realistic, reasonable, recommended, relevant, sensible, simple, sufficient, useful, worth	*(to) advantageous, analogous, appropriate, beneficial, best, better, common, comparable, convenient, critical, crucial, desirable, difficult, easy, effective, equal, equivalent, essential, fair, fruitful, fundamental, hard, helpful, important, inconvenient, interesting, logic, ludicrous, misleading, natural, necessary, parsimonious, preferable, prudent, reasonable, relevant, slow, straightforward, sufficient, tempting, unnecessary, useful, valid, vulnerable, wrong*
of importance, challenge	*of interest, a challenge, a mistake*
(that), essential, fair, fundamental, interesting, natural, necessary, noteworthy, noticeable, odd, paradoxical, recommended, relevant, ridiculous, significant, striking, surprising, symptomatic, unsurprising	*(that) arguable, folly, implicit, important, incumbent, interesting, ironic, notable, noticeable, odd, plain, reasonable, revealing, significant, surprising understandable, well-established*

The subpattern *It V-link ADJ to/that* is more commonly modalised in the ENL than in the ELF corpus. Whereas just 5 instances have been found in the SciELF corpus (2.6%) in which a modal verb has been used in this subpattern, 27 modalised instances have been found in the ENL corpus (14.7%).

(15) *Secondly, it may be tempting to only attach physical significance to the constraint set Ui but regard the penalty measure ai as an abstract quantity that merely selects which constraint set to enforce or remove.*   (ENL82)

(16) *It may be better, however, to view these stated beliefs as potentially conflictual rather than inherently inconsistent.*   (ENL5)

It seems, therefore, that ELF authors do not modulate the attitudinal evaluation encoded in this pattern to the same extent; they somehow express their attitude through it in a more straightforward manner (as in Example (17)).

(17) *In the case that the development is innovation without other participants involved, then it is appropriate to initiate a process of obtaining IP directly and get timely protection against potential competitors.*   (Ssh20)

When looking at the use made of this subpattern to express attitudinal meanings, some chunks were discerned in the ELF RAs that seemed recurrent and that were not found (to the same extent) in the comparable ENL corpus. That is the case with

it is difficult/hard/fair to say, totalling 3 and 1 tokens respectively in the SciELF corpus. The verb *say* has just been found in this combination once with the adjective *fair* in the ENL corpus: *it may be fair to say that* (ENL19).

Also, whereas the chunk *it is important to note that* is rather frequent in both sub-corpora and *note* is the verb most commonly correlated with *it is important to*, there are other discourse verbs that are used in the ELF RAs which are not found in the ENL ones. That is the case with *it is important to mention that* (3 tokens), *it is important to point out that* (2 tokens), *it is important to notice that* (2 tokens), *it is important to highlight that* (2 tokens) and with others that are just sparingly used: *it is important to clarify* (1 token), *to clear up* (1 token), *to comment* (1 token), *stress* (1 token). These chunks can be considered rather creative (Pitzl, 2016), as ELF authors seem to exploit the pattern to express their own meanings regarding the attitudinal evaluation of specific entities.

4.3   Anticipatory *it* pattern as a hedge

The expression of hedges can be coded through a wider range of subpatterns, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Frequency of the use of the pattern and subpatterns fulfilling a hedging function in the two corpora

Hedges	SciELF		ENL	
	Total	Per 10,000w.	Total	Per 10,000w.
Subpattern 1				
It V-link ADJ to	31	0.4	10	0.1
It V-link ADJ that	19	0.3	51	0.5
Subpattern 2				
It V-link that/to	45	0.6	20	0.2
Subpattern 3				
It BE Ved that/to	35	0.5	40	0.4
Subpattern 4				
It modal verb BE Ved that	61	0.8	32	0.3

However, unlike the case of the expression of the authors' attitudinal meaning through the anticipatory *it* pattern, the tendencies in the two corpora are rather different. Whereas subpattern 2, *It V-link that/to* (Examples (18) and (19)), and subpattern 4, *It modal verb BE Ved that* (Examples (20) and (21)), are the most frequent in the SciELF RAs, they are less frequent in the ENL RAs.

(18) *It appears that Stockholm had a quite different trade relation to the Swedish west coast towns than to the West European ports.*   (Ssh69)

(19) *In that case, both the stable and one of the unstable equilibria, lay inside the planet for all the computational approaches made and so, it seems to have no physical meaning.*   (Sci71)

(20) *Based on my analysis it can be argued that the Court's Christian bias is at least partly a misconception.*   (Ssh26)

(21) *and it can be deduced that after a time i, the remaining amount of analyte in the sample (m_i) would be <…>.*   (Sci70)

Since pattern 4, *It modal verb BE Ved that*, is more frequent in the SciELF corpus, the variety of verbs used is also greater in these RAs and they can lead to creative expressions in the use of the anticipatory *it* pattern to express mitigation: *it can/ could be said that* (5 < 0), *it can be noticed that* (3 < 0), *it can be deduced that* (3 < 0), *it can be inferred* (2 < 0), *it can be noted* (2 < 0), *it can be suggested* (2 < 0), *it can be observed* (4 < 1). In the ELF RAs, unlike in the ENL RAs, this subpattern is rather productive with discourse verbs used to express tentative findings and discussions.

4.4   Anticipatory *it* pattern as a booster

The most common anticipatory *it* subpattern used to express conviction or certainty is number 4, *It modal verb BE Ved that*, in both sub-corpora (Table 10), which entails the use of a boosting modal verb (e.g. *must*, *should*) (Examples (22) and (23)) and/or a boosting verb (e.g. *conclude*, *emphasised*, *shown*) (Examples (24) and (25)).

Table 10. Frequency of use of the pattern and subpatterns fulfilling a boosting function in the two corpora

	SciELF		ENL	
	Total	Per 10,000w.	Total	Per 10,000w.
Subpattern 1				
It V-link ADJ to	1	0.0	3	0.0
It V-link ADJ that	46	0.6	21	0.2
Subpattern 2				
It V-link that/to	–	–	–	–
Subpattern 3				
It BE Ved that/to	23	0.3	10	0.1
Subpattern 4				
It modal verb BE Ved that	46	0.6	34	0.4

(22)   *It must be noticed that* although the latter has more TMBP content, which could not participate in the proton conductive process, its proton conductivity was similar with that of b-PBI-50.   (Sci04)

(23)   *It should be pointed out that* although all written communication was in English, conversation was in Cantonese, unless <…>.   (ENL16)

(24)   *Pointing out several important aspects, it can be concluded that Romania needs a stable legislative framework with clearly defined lines of action.*   (Ssh51)

(25)   *Specifically, it can be shown from Eq. (38) that <> which is consistent with the definition of the viscous stretch in Eq. (9).*   (ENL90)

Also rather frequent, especially in the SciELF corpus, is the subpattern *It V-link ADJ that* to express conviction on the part of the author(s), as shown in Examples (26) and (27).

(26)   *From this statement it is clear that living together and loving each other is not enough for Law.*   (Ssh62)

(27)   *It is obvious that some conditions are relatively easily measurable (quantity), others very heavily (quality).*   (Ssh12)

Nevertheless, similar boosting adjectives were used in subpattern 1 as predicate lemmas in the two corpora: *apparent*, *certain*, *clear*, *evident*, *obvious*, *true*.

Finally, also similar boosting lexical verbs were used in subpattern 3 in the two corpora: *conclude*, *demonstrate*, *emphasise*, *know*, *prove*, *reveal*, *show*. As indicated in Section 3.1, specific lexical choices seem to be recurrently made by specific authors (see Example (16) of a recurrent use the subpattern *It BE Ved that/to* with a boosting function).

5.   Concluding remarks

The present study has sought to shed light on the expression of interpersonal meanings in ELF RAs through a specific lexico-grammatical feature, the anticipatory *it* pattern. A contrastive analysis has been carried out of the frequency of use of this pattern and its specific subpatterns, and of the particular interpersonal functions of its specific subpatterns. The results found in a corpus of ELF unrevised manuscripts (SciELF corpus), written by scholars from different lingua-cultural backgrounds, have been compared to those found in published RAs by Anglophone writers (ENL corpus) to discern any specificities in the use of this pattern in written academic ELF.

Overall, a higher frequency of use of the anticipatory *it* pattern in the SciELF corpus than in the ENL corpus has been found. From this finding it can be concluded that this pattern is a rather productive rhetorical convention – especially for ELF authors – to express interpersonal meanings in RA writing, especially the authors' attitude towards the propositional content, and to a lower extent, the authors' degree of tentativeness and conviction towards the statements made. Also, the comparative analysis revealed similar tendencies in the overall use of different anticipatory *it* subpatterns discerned in the corpus and in the specific interpersonal functions fulfilled by them, with two exceptions: (1) the use of the subpatterns *It V-link ADJ that*, which is more frequent in the ENL corpus than in the SciELF one to express tentativeness, and (2) the subpattern *It modal verb BE Ved that*, which is significantly more common in the SciELF than in the ENL corpus also when fulfilling a hedging function. This last pattern is especially commonly used with discourse verbs to express the lack of full commitment towards the ensuing proposition by ELF RA authors (e.g. *it can/could be said/noticed/noted*, etc.). As such, the comparative analysis has yielded some possible innovations or creativity (Pitzl, 2016) in the ELF RAs as regards the specific realisation of given subpatterns. This process has also been observed in relation to the choice of predicate lemmas, for instance, in the subpattern *It V-link ADJ to* with an attitudinal function, in which the chunk *it is + adj+ to say* and the chunk *it is important + to* followed by a number of discourse verbs have been found recurrently in the ELF corpus. These, however, are not to be seen as deviant uses or difficulties in the use of this pattern to express attitudinal or epistemic evaluation through this pattern but as legitimate uses made by ELF users when communicating internationally through a second order contact language (Mauranen, 2012).

As a result, even if some degree of homogeneity is perceived in the overall uses of the anticipatory *it* pattern and its specific subpatterns, the analysis has also revealed that ELF scholars may also be making some creative uses of the language to express interpersonal meanings. This reveals some degree of dynamism in the English language as it is being used internationally for scholarly communication, which deems further analysis.

Acknowledgements

References

Ädel, A. (2014). Selecting quantitative data for qualitative analysis: A case study connecting a lexicogrammatical pattern to rhetorical moves. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 16, 68–80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2014.09.001

Belcher, D. (2014). What we need and don't need intercultural rhetoric for: A retrospective and prospective look at an evolving research area. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 25, 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.06.003

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad S., & Finengan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow: Longman.

Burgess, S. (2002). Packed houses and intimate gatherings: Audience and rhetorical strategies. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 196–225). London: Longman.

Charles, M. (2000). The role of an introductory *it* pattern in constructing an appropriate academic persona. In P. Thompson (Ed.), *Patterns and perspectives: Insights into EAP writing practice* (pp. 45–59). Reading: University of Reading.

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3, 291–304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.003

Fløttum, K., Dahl, T., & Kinn, T. (2006). *Academic voices: Across languages and disciplines*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.148

Groom, N. (2005). Pattern and meaning across genres and disciplines: An exploratory study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4, 257–277. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2005.03.002

Hewings, A., & Hewings, M. (2001). Anticipatory 'it' in academic writing: An indicator of disciplinary difference and developing disciplinary knowledge. In M. Hewings (Ed.), *Academic writing in context: Implications and applications. Papers in honour of Tony Dudley-Evans* (pp. 199–214). Birmingham: University of Birmingham Press.

Hewings, M., & Hewings, A. (2002). 'It is interesting to note that…': A comparative study of anticipatory 'it' in student and published writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 367–383. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(01)00016-3

Hirano, E. (2009). Research article introductions in English for specific purposes: A comparison between Brazilian Portuguese and English. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 240–250. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.02.001

Hunston, S., & Francis, G. (1999). *Pattern grammar: A corpus driven approach to the lexical grammar of English*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hyland, K. (1998). Boosting, hedging and the negotiation of academic knowledge. *Text* 18, 3, 349–382.

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2005a). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2005b). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173–192. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605050365

Koutsantoni, D. (2004). Attitude, certainty and allusions to common knowledge. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3, 163–182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2003.08.001

Larsson, T. (2016). The introductory *it* pattern: Variability explored in learner and expert writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 22, 64–79. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.01.007

Larsson, T. (2017). A functional classification of the introductory *it* pattern: Investigating academic writing by non-native-speaker and native-speaker students. *English for Specific Purposes*, 48, 57–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2017.06.001

Loi, C. K. (2010). Research article introductions in Chinese and English: A comparative genre-based study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(4), 267–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.09.004

Loi, C. K., & Lim, J. M.-H. (2013). Metadiscourse in English and Chinese research article introductions. *Discourse Studies*, 15, 129–146. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445612471476

Loi, C. K. & Sweetnam Evans, M. (2010). Cultural differences in the organization of research article introductions from the field of educational psychology: English and Chinese. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42, 2814–2825. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.03.010

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011a). The construction of the author's voice in academic writing: The interplay of cultural and disciplinary factors. *Text & Talk*, 31, 173–193. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2011.008

Lorés-Sanz, R. (2011b). The study of authorial voice: Using a Spanish–English corpus to explore linguistic transference. *Corpora*, 6(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2011.0002

Mauranen, A. (2012). *Exploring ELF: Academic English shaped by nonnative speakers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mauranen, A. (2016). ELF corpora: Design, difficulties and triumps. In M. L. Pitzl & R. Osimk-Teasdale (Eds.), *English as a Lingua Franca: Perspectives and prospects. Contributions in honour of Barbara Seidlhofer* (pp. 19–30). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501503177-007

Mauranen, A., Hynninen, N., & Ranta, E. (2016). English as the academic lingua franca. In K. Hyland, & P. Shaw (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for Academic Purposes* (pp. 44–55). London: Routledge.

Mu, C., Zhang, L. J., Ehrich, J, & Hong, H. (2015). The use of metadiscourse for knowledge construction in Chinese and English research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 135–148. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.09.003

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2009). Logical markers in L1 (Spanish and English) and L2 (English) business research articles. *English Text Construction*, 2(2), 246–264. https://doi.org/10.1075/etc.2.2.07mur

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2011). An intercultural analysis of metadiscourse features in research articles written in English and in Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 3068–3079. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.05.002

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2012). With regard to L2 academic writing: The use of topicalisers in L1 (English and Spanish) and L2 (English) research articles. *Brno Studies in English*, 38, 117–130. https://doi.org/10.5817/BSE2012-2-7

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2015). Looking into ELF variants: A study of evaluative *it*-clauses in research articles. *ESP Today*, 3(2), 160–179.

Mur-Dueñas, P. (2016). Modal hedging verbs in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) Business Management research articles. *Kalbotyra*, 69, 152–177.

Mur-Dueñas, P., Lorés-Sanz, R., & Lafuente-Millán, E. (2010). Editorial. Special issue on interpersonality. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(2), 83–85. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.006

Murillo Ornat, S. (2012). The use of reformulation markers in business management research articles: An intercultural analysis. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 17, 62–88.

Peacock, M. (2011). A comparative study of introductory it in research articles across eight disciplines. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 16(1), 72–100. https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.16.1.04pea

Peterlin, A. P. (2005). Text-organizing metatext in research articles: An English-Slovene contrastive analysis. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24, 307–319. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2004.11.001

Pitzl, M.L. (2016). World Englishes and creative idioms in English as a lingua franca. *World Englishes*, 35, 293–309.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman.

Rayson, P. Log-likelihood and effect size calculator <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html>

Rodman, L. (1991). Anticipatory *it* in scientific discourse. *Journal of Technical Writing and Communication*, 21(1), 17–27. https://doi.org/10.2190/PWJ6-AG95-MCQD-RG1W

Römer, U. (2009). The inseparability of lexis and grammar: Corpus linguistic perspectives. *Annual Review of Cognitive Linguistics*, 7(1), 140–162. https://doi.org/10.1075/arcl.7.06rom

SciELF (2015). The SciELF Corpus. Director: Anna Mauranen. Compilation manager: Ray Carey. <http://www.helsinki.fi/elfa/scielf.html> (7 August, 2015).

Scott, M. (1996). *WordSmith Tools (version 4.0)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seidlhofer, B., Breiteneder, A., & Pitzl, M. L. (2006). English as a lingua franca in Europe: Challenges for applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26, 3–34. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719050600002X

Shaw, P. (2003). Evaluation and promotion across languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00050-X

Sheldon, E. (2011). Rhetorical differences in RA introductions written by English L1 and L2 and Castilian Spanish L1 writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 238–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.004

Vassileva, I. (1997). Hedging in English and Bulgarian academic writing. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 203–221). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110821048.203

Vold, E. T. (2006). Epistemic modality markers in research articles: A cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), 61–87. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2006.00106.x

Zhang, G. P. (2015). *It is suggested that… or it is better to…?* Forms and meanings of subject *it*-extraposition in academic and popular writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.02.004

Afterword

Intercultural rhetoric, English as a lingua franca and research writing

Ulla Connor
Indiana University

This volume is a significant contribution to the field of intercultural studies of academic writing. The chapters in this volume provide much-needed empirical evidence about discursive and rhetorical challenges in scholarly publication for non-Anglophone scholars in a globalised world. Its chapters will be especially valuable for the pursuit of textual studies in Intercultural Rhetoric, by providing examples of well-designed and well-executed cross-cultural text analyses.

Recent theoretical treatments have brought about a renewed interest in the study of writing cross-culturally, while also calling for new research that can effectively support EAP/ESP practice. *Intercultural Rhetoric in the Writing Classroom* (Connor, 2011) proposed a multilayered model of IR consisting of three major tenets: texts to be seen in their contexts; culture to be complexified; and disciplinary cultures, as well as dynamic, interactive patterns of communication to be considered. *Critical and Corpus-based Approaches to Intercultural Rhetoric* (Belcher & Nelson, 2013) explored both corpus-based and critical approaches on Intercultural Rhetoric. The volume illuminated what "culture" means and how it affects research and pedagogy. The article "What Intercultural Rhetoric can bring to EAP/ESP writing studies in an English as a Lingua Franca world" by McIntosh, Connor, and Gokpinar-Shelton (2017) argued for the important role of Intercultural Rhetoric in bridging the growing gap between translingualism and ELF on the one hand and second language writing studies on the other. Accordingly, lessons can be learned about multilingual writers' strategies and practices from culturally sensitive IR studies. That will then help the efforts of ELF and translingualism to lead to actionable practice in EAP and ESP contexts, for the lack of which they have been criticized. Igniting further conflicts with genre studies and L2 writing can thus be avoided.

The empirical analyses presented in this volume are consistent with the principles set forth in the above calls for renewed agendas for intercultural studies. The chapters adhere to the three important tenets of IR. In addition, they heed recommendations for a critical approach to intercultural rhetoric, one that underscores the dynamic era of globalised English and the accompanying negotiation about norms and practices available to non-Anglophone writers.

There are many strengths to each of the chapters and the volume as a whole. First, the focus on the most important academic genres – the research article and the abstract – is well-chosen, given their relevance and difficulty. Second, controlling the analyses for genre and discipline ensures that the analyses are based on comparable and reliable sets of language, which then leads to generalizable conclusions. Third, the diversity of contexts and languages is unprecedented. There is also a healthy balance in the chapters between a more traditional contrastive analysis view point, i.e. exploring the native language influence on second-language English texts, and focus on texts by non-native English scholars from different writing cultures as contributions to shaping English as a Lingua Franca in academic settings. Importantly, in order to learn about the different possible intercultural perspectives, analyses in the chapters include L1 texts, English L1 texts and English L2 texts. This comprehensive approach is the only way to uncover the complex intercultural driving forces of multilingual writers that shape their academic texts.

I commend the writers and the editors for producing a timely volume to guide other scholars of intercultural writing with regards to research design and methodologies. In addition, I believe that this volume will be useful for teachers of EAP and advanced learners. The identification of preferred patterns in texts and interactions across cultures and languages is paramount for effective EAP instruction. Teachers of writing for specific disciplines can benefit from the comparison of discipline-specific texts in different languages in order to identify potential pitfalls for learners. Such comparisons thus help teachers understand reasons for potential mismatches in the formulation of specific text types such as the article and the abstract. The analyses of ELF writers will be especially useful as they can be used to reveal levels of acceptable codeswitching and negotiation, recommended by the movements of translingualism and ELF. It is through carefully designed and comprehensively analysed writing, with concrete understandings of actual rhetorical and discursive practices of successful academic writers, that the fields of Applied Linguistics and L2 writing can move forward to provide "appliable" knowledge.

References

Belcher, D., & Nelson, G. (Eds.). (2013). *Critical and corpus-based approaches to intercultural rhetoric*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.5121451

Connor, U. (2011). *Intercultural rhetoric in the writing classroom*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.3488851

McIntosh, K., Connor, U., & Gokpinar-Shelton, E. (2017). What intercultural rhetoric can bring to EAP/ESP writing studies in an English as a lingua franca world. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 29, 12–20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.09.001

About the Authors

Ummul K. AHMAD is Associate Professor at Language Academy, Universiti Teknologi, Malaysia, where she teaches *Intro to Linguistics* and *Discourse Analysis* to TESL students. She is interested in Genre Theory, Corpus Linguistics, Second Language Writers/Writing, English for Academic Purposes, and Malaysian English.

Marina BONDI is Professor of English Linguistics at the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, Italy, and Director of the CLAVIER centre (Corpus and LAnguage Variation In English Research). She has published extensively in the field of genre analysis, EAP and corpus linguistics, with a focus on argumentative dialogue and language variation across genres, disciplines and cultures.

Geneviève BORDET is an Associate Lecturer in the Department of Applied Linguistics of the University Paris Diderot, France. Her research focus is on devices used to build an "academic voice" in PhD abstracts such as the cohesive role of the determiner "this" and "labeling nouns" to understand how these features contribute to making the abstract, as a genre, a token of disciplinary conformity. She has also investigated the specificities of non-native writing in this type of discourse.

Carlotta BORELLI holds a Master's Degree in Languages for Communication in International Enterprises and an MA in Medical and Pharmaceutical Translations. She is a freelance translator and a PhD student in Human Sciences at the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, Italy. Her research centres on academic discourse and the international use of English in publications.

Xinren CHEN, Professor of English and Linguistics at Nanjing University, China, specialises in pragmatics research, with numerous publications including *The Pragmatics of Overinformativeness in Verbal Communication* (2004), *Critical Pragmatic Studies on Public Discourses* (2013), *Politeness across Chinese Genres* (2017), and *Pragmatic Identity: How to Do Things with Words of Identity* (2018).

Ulla CONNOR is Endowed Chair of Intercultural Communication and Director of the International Center for Intercultural Communication at Indiana University in Indianapolis, USA. An EFL learner herself, her research and teaching examine challenges and successes of intercultural communication within and across cultures. Although much of her research has dealt with English for academic purposes, more recently her interests have included linguistic analyses of health discourse and how best to apply linguistic research to practice in clinical settings.

Olga DONTCHEVA-NAVRATILOVA is Associate Professor of English Linguistics at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University, Czech Republic. She specializes in discourse analysis, stylistics and pragmatics, focusing on academic and political discourse. She has published many articles, the books *Analysing Genre: The Colony Text of UNESCO Resolutions* (2009) and *Coherence in Political Speeches* (2011) and co-authored the volume *Cohesion and Coherence in English Discourse* (2012). She is co-editor of the linguistics journal *Discourse and Interaction*.

Ken HYLAND is Professor of Applied Linguistics in Education at the University of East Anglia, UK. He has published over 240 articles and 27 books on academic discourse and EAP with over 36,000 citations on Google Scholar. A collection of his work was recently published as *The Essential Hyland*, Bloomsbury, 2018.

Feng (Kevin) JIANG is Kuang Yaming Distinguished Professor in Applied Linguistics in the School of Foreign Language Education at Jilin University, China and gained his PhD under the supervision of Professor Ken Hyland at the Centre for Applied English Studies at the University of Hong Kong. His research interests include disciplinary discourse, corpus studies and academic writing, and his publications have appeared in most major Applied Linguistics journals.

Enrique LAFUENTE-MILLÁN is a Senior Lecturer at the Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain. His research has focused on the corpus analysis of interpersonal strategies in academic writing. He has published articles on these topics in specialised journals and edited volumes, aside from presenting papers in a number of international conferences. He currently investigates digital genres as part of the InterGEDI research project.

Rosa LORÉS-SANZ is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of English and German Studies at the Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain. She holds an MPhil in Translation from the University of Salford (UK) and a PhD from the Universidad de Zaragoza (Spain). Her research focuses on the exploration of rhetorical and lexicogrammatical features in written academic genres mainly from a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective, as well as on the use of English as a Lingua Franca. Her latest research interests also include the study of digital academic genres. She is a member of the research group InterGEDI.

Maryam MEHRJOOSERESHT completed her PhD in TESL at Faculty of Education, Universiti Teknologi, Malaysia. She is interested in Academic/Scientific Discourse, Genre, Second Language Writing, English for Academic Purposes, and Cross-Cultural Pragmatics.

Pilar MUR-DUEÑAS lectures in the Department of English and German Studies at the Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain. She is a member of the InterGEDI research group and her research focuses on the analysis of academic discourse, especially on scholars' publication practices. She has studied academic genres from an intercultural perspective and has looked into the role of English as a lingua franca in written scholarly communication, and also recently in the digital medium.

Silvia MURILLO is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of English and German Studies at the Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain. She is a member of the research group InterGEDI, and her research interests include discourse markers (particularly, reformulation markers with a contrastive focus English-Spanish), academic discourse, English as a Lingua Franca, and, more recently, digital academic genres. She is the editor of *Miscelánea: A Journal of English and American Studies* (Language and Linguistics).

Rūta PETRAUSKAITĖ is a Professor at Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas, Lithuania. Her research interests comprise a range of topics from corpus and computational linguistics to discourse analyses. In the last decade she has been involved in the activities of the research policy on the national and European level.

Renata POVOLNÁ is Associate Professor of English Linguistics at Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic. She has published the books *Spatial and Temporal Adverbials in English Authentic Face-to-Face Conversation* (2003) and *Interactive Discourse Markers in Spoken English* (2010) and co-authored *Cohesion and Coherence in English Discourse* (2012). She is co-editor of the linguistics journal *Discourse and Interaction*.

Jūratė RUZAITĖ is a Professor of English Linguistics at the Department of Foreign Language, Literary and Translation Studies at Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas, Lithuania. Her research interests include (multimodal) discourse analysis, academic discourse, sociolinguistics, and corpus linguistics.

Jolanta ŠINKŪNIENĖ is Associate Professor of English Linguistics at the Faculty of Philology, Vilnius University, Lithuania. Her research interests focus on research writing patterns and epistemological traditions of various disciplines and cultures, academic rhetoric, elements of persuasion in academic discourse, research publication practices, evaluation of research, academic identity aspects.

Jingjing WANG is an Associate Professor in Applied Linguistics in the School of Foreign Languages at Hubei University, China. She has completed her Ph.D. at Tsinghua University, Beijing. Her research interests include EAP and academic English writing. Her current research focuses on metadiscourse in learners' produced texts in academic writing.

Index

This volume offers a fresh intercultural perspective on the discursive and rhetorical challenges non-Anglophone scholars face while writing and publishing in English for an international readership. The volume presents a wide spectrum of text-based intercultural analyses of academic texts written in L2 English. Placed in the context of a rapidly increasing role of English as the universal language of scientific and scholarly communication, the contributions attempt to explore native language influence on L2 English academic texts or, conversely, the influence of rhetorical or discursive features of English on L2 texts. Covering texts from Chinese to Lithuanian authors, the chapters in this volume offer a rich selection of lexico-grammatical, discursive and rhetorical elements analysed and compared across genres, disciplines and languages both within synchronic and diachronic perspectives. This volume will be of interest to both experienced and novice researchers in such fields as English for Academic Purposes, Intercultural Rhetoric, Genre Theory, Corpus Linguistics, and English as a Lingua Franca.

"This volume offers excellent insights into various forms of academic writing across cultures. The chapters provide in-depth perspectives on how scholars belonging to different contexts and disciplines cope with their need to communicate the results of their research at a global level by using the English language. This book makes an important contribution to the literature on Intercultural Rhetoric."

Maurizio Gotti, *Università di Bergamo*

"Given the ever-increasing pressure to publish in English, this volume will be essential reading not only for scholars working in the field of intercultural studies, but also for EAP professionals keen to develop their knowledge and understanding of the challenges faced by L2 writers of research genres."

Maggie Charles, *University of Oxford*

AILA

ISBN 978 90 272 0197 3

9 789027 201973

John Benjamins Publishing Company